

**LANGUAGE PRACTICE, LANGUAGE MANAGEMENT
AND LANGUAGE IDEOLOGY IN MALAYSIAN SCHOOLS**

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**FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR**

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**LANGUAGE PRACTICE, LANGUAGE MANAGEMENT AND
LANGUAGE IDEOLOGY IN MALAYSIAN SCHOOLS**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis focuses on the use of language (practice), the belief in language (ideology) and how language is maintained (management). It uses Spolsky's (2009) Theory of language management which looks at how language policy affects language practice and language belief among users. In particular, this thesis looks into details how the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin are used in the context of Malaysian secondary schools. Through this study, the relationship between language practice and language ideology is revealed. In addition, it also sheds light on the impact of language management on language practice and language ideology. Three types of Malaysian schools were identified as the research sites: one Chinese Independent high school (Mandarin as the medium of instruction), two national type secondary schools (Malay as medium of instruction but Mandarin is also predominant) and eleven (11) national secondary schools (Malay as medium of instruction); English and Malay are both compulsory subjects to be taught in all the three types of school. The aim is to gather an understanding on how the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin are used. A total of 422 students and 376 teachers served as participants. Two approaches were applied for data collection: questionnaires and interviews. SPSS version 22 was used to analyse the primary data while the 15 interviews were analysed based on contents related to the interview questions. The findings of this thesis indicate a number of outcomes:

- a) the frequency in using (practice) Mandarin and Malay among students and teachers in the Chinese Independent high school students and teachers is contrary to the practice of students and teachers in national type secondary schools and national secondary school;

- b) the students and teachers have ‘neither agree nor disagree’ language belief (ideology) towards Malay and Mandarin;
- c) although students and teachers among the three schools have a high belief (ideology) in English, it was hardly used (practice) in the classroom where Mandarin and Malay are used as the medium of instruction of the schools;
- d) the language practice of students are very weakly correlated their language ideology in three languages, English, Malay and Mandarin.
- e) the language policy implemented in Malaysian secondary schools has a positive impact on the language practice and language ideology of students only (not the teachers).

From the outcome of this thesis, it is hereby recommended that Malaysia’s education policy makers, in particular those working on language policies, pay attention to the gap currently existing between the language ideology and language practice among students and teachers, when designing and attempting to promulgate new language policies. This is because the outcome of this thesis clearly shows that teachers may have more influence over their students. In this regard, the current thesis indicates that it was the teachers’ language practice that had determined the language practice of the students.

Keywords: Language practice, language management, language ideology, Malaysian schools.

LANGUAGE PRACTICE, LANGUAGE MANAGEMENT AND LANGUAGE IDEOLOGY IN MALAYSIAN SCHOOLS

ABSTRAK

Tesis ini fokus kepada penggunaan bahasa (amalan), tanggapan bahasa (ideologi) dan bagaimana bahasa dikekalkan (pengurusan). Ia menggunakan Teori pengurusan bahasa Spolsky (2009) yang menelitikn bagaimana dasar bahasa mempengaruhi amalan bahasa dan ideologi bahasa di kalangan pengguna. Terutamanya tesis ini meneliti bagaimana ketiga-tiga bahasa iaitu bahasa Inggeris, bahasa Melayu dan bahasa Mandarin digunakan dalam context sekolah menengah di Malaysia. Melalui kajian ini, hubungan antara amalan bahasa dan ideologi bahasa didedahkan. Seterusnya ia juga memberi penerangan tentang impak dasar bahasa terhadap amalan bahasa dan ideologi bahasa. Tiga jenis sekolah dikenalpasti sebagai tempat kajian: sebuah sekolah menengah Cina persendirian (bahasa Mandarin digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar), dua buah sekolah menengah jenis kebangsaan (bahasa Melayu digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar tetapi bahasa Mandarin juga sebagai bahasa utama) dan 11 buah sekolah menengah kebangsaan (bahasa Melayu digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar); bahasa Inggeris dan bahasa Melayu adalah mata pelajaran wajib diajar di ketiga-tiga jenis sekolah. Tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk mengumpul suatu pemahaman tentang penggunaan ketiga-tiga bahasa iaitu bahasa Inggeris, bahasa Melayu dan bahasa Mandarin. Sejumlah 422 orang pelajar dan 376 orang guru menyertai kajian ini. Dua pendekatan pengumpulan data digunakan: soal selidik dan temu bual. SPSS versi ke-22 digunakan untuk menganalisa data utama manakala 15 temu bual dianalisa berdasarkan kandungan yang berkaitan dengan soalan temu bual. Hasil dapatan tesis ini menunjukkan:

- a) kekerapan penggunaan (amalan) bahasa Mandarin dan bahasa Melayu di kalangan pelajar dan guru di sekolah menengah Cina persendirian adalah

bertentangan dengan penggunaan bahasa-bahasa ini di kalangan pelajar dan guru sekolah menengah jenis kebangsaan dan sekolah menengah kebangsaan;

b) pelajar dan guru mempunyai persepsi ‘tidak bersetuju dan tidak bertentangan’ terhadap bahasa Melayu dan bahasa Mandarin;

c) walaupun pelajar dan guru di ketiga-tiga jenis sekolah mempunyai tanggapan terhadap bahasa Inggeris yang tinggi, ia jarang digunakan (amalan) dalam bilik darjah di mana bahasa Mandarin dan bahasa Melayu digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar di sekolah;

d) amalan bahasa pelajar mempunyai hubungan yang amat lemah dengan ideologi bahasa mereka dalam ketiga-tiga bahasa iaitu bahasa Inggeris, bahasa Melayu dan bahasa Mandarin.

e) dasar bahasa yang dilaksanakan di sekolah menengah Malaysia menunjukkan impak positif terhadap amalan bahasa dan ideologi bahasa pelajar sahaja (tidak terhadap guru).

Berdasarkan dapatan tesis ini, dengan ini disyorkan pembuat dasar pendidikan Malaysia, terutamanya sesiapa yang menyediakan dasar bahasa, memberi tumpuan terhadap curang antara ideologi bahasa dan amalan bahasa yang kini sedia ada di kalangan pelajar dan guru semasa mereka dan cuba untuk menggubalkan dasar bahasa baharu. Ini adalah kerana dapatan tesis ini menunjukkan bahawa amalan bahasa guru menentukan amalan bahasa pelajar.

Keywords: Penggunaan bahasa, tanggapan bahasa, pengurusan bahasa, sekolah-sekolah di Malaysia

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN	:	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BE	:	Bilingual Education
DBP	:	<i>Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka</i> Institute of Language and Literature
DepEd	:	Education Department
<i>Dongzong</i>	:	The United Chinese School Committees' Association of Malaysia
CECD	:	The Comprehensive Education and Community Development
CMI	:	Chinese medium of instruction
EAL	:	English as an Additional Language
EFL	:	English as a foreign language
ELF	:	English as a Lingua Franca
EMI	:	English medium of instruction
ESL	:	English as a Second Language
GVES	:	Green Valley Elementary School
HQ	:	Headquarter
H variety	:	High variety
IELTS	:	International English Language Testing System
INSET	:	In-service Education for Teachers
<i>IPPTN</i>	:	<i>Institut Penyelidikan Pengajian Tinggi Nasional</i> National Higher Education Research Institute
<i>Jiaozong</i>	:	The United Chinese School Teachers' Association of Malaysia
L variety	:	Low variety
L1	:	First language
L2	:	Second language
L3	:	Third language
LEP	:	Limited English Proficiency

<i>LPM</i>	:	<i>Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia</i> Malaysian Examinations Syndicate
<i>MABBIM</i>	:	Brunei-Indonesia-Malaysia Council
<i>MBMMBI</i>	:	<i>Memartabatkan Bahasa Malaysia dan Memperkukuhkan Bahasa Inggeris</i> Upholding Malay and Strengthening English
MEXT	:	Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
MNCs	:	Multinational Corporations
MOET	:	Ministry of Education and Training
MTB-MLE	:	Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education
NNS	:	Non-native Speaker
NS	:	Native Speaker
PATSIE	:	Perceptions and Attitudes towards the Teaching of Science in English
<i>PIBG</i>	:	<i>Persatuan Ibu Bapa dan Guru</i> Parents and Teachers Association
<i>PPSMI</i>	:	<i>Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran Sains dan Matematik Dalam Bahasa Inggeris</i> Teaching and Learning of Science and Mathematics in English
POL	:	Pupils' Own Language
<i>PT3</i>	:	<i>Pentaksiran Tingkatan Tiga</i> Form Three Assessment
RQ 1	:	Research Question One
RQ 2	:	Research Question Two
RQ 3	:	Research Question Three
RQ 4	:	Research Question Four
<i>SMK</i>	:	<i>Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan</i> National secondary school
<i>SMJK</i>	:	<i>Sekolah Menengah Jenis Kebangsaan</i> National-type secondary school

SOP	:	Standard Operation Procedure
SPM	:	<i>Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia</i> Malaysian Certificate of Education
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRJK (C)	:	<i>Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina</i> Chinese vernacular primary school
SRJK (T)	:	<i>Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil</i> Tamil vernacular primary schools
SRP	:	<i>Sijil Rendah Pelajaran</i> Lower Education Certificate
TGUP	:	Top Global University Project
UEC	:	Unified Examination Certificate
UKM	:	<i>Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia</i> National University of Malaysia
UTAR	:	<i>Universiti Teknologi Tuanku Abdul Rahman</i> University of Technology Tuanku Abdul Rahman
YB	:	<i>Yang Berhormat</i> The Honorable

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

In today's globalized world, individuals are expected to have the skills and knowledge that can enable them to serve an organisation in any part of the world competently. In this regard, the focus of education in most countries is no longer one that conforms to the traditional and conventional format which provides knowledge only. The current generation of learners is expected to be well equipped in terms of their psychological, physiological, emotional, social and communicative development. Focusing on the communicative development of the individuals, it is hereby, taken to mean having the ability to communicate with others appropriately depending on the settings, henceforth, communicative competence.

Communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) is a term that refers to a language user's goal for learning a language, which is to be able to communicate through it effectively. The idea of communicative competence was developed by Hymes (1972) to mean having the grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and other relevant components of a knowledge. It also means that the language user should have the social skills of knowing how and when to use the language in an appropriate manner. In other words, the language user must have the linguistic knowledge as well as the sociolinguistic knowledge of the language. Language, as it has been known, is a tool for communication. While it may take a shorter time for one to learn one's own language, hereby also known as first language (L1) with adequate fluency and proficiency so that it can be used effectively with other people, the reverse may be true for learning an additional language. An additional language is the extra language that one learns in addition to what one already knows. This additional language is hereby termed a second language (L2) if it is used frequently and a third language (L3) if it is used equally frequently but was learned subsequent to the L2 or perhaps even

concurrently. All people throughout the world have an L1 because language is a tool for communication. As globalization becomes widespread, many countries are also adapting to a population that speaks additional languages thus L2 and L3. The country of Canada, for example, has English and French as languages concurrently used by different populations as their L1 and L2 and in addition to these, there are also other languages being used by a different set of population who have migrated to the country and by the indigenous population. In the country of Germany, there is the variety called on Hi-German (standard German) and other German dialects. There are also other community languages such as Turkish and Kurdish being spoken by immigrants in Germany. In India, the linguistic diversity is even more complex, with the majority of the population speaking Hindi and English and other communities speaking Bengali, Telugu, Malayalam, Gujarati, Tamil and so on. As it appears, the world is being overtaken by the waves of bilingualism and multilingualism as immigrants flood to the shores of the European countries and as globalization opens up the world market for people to trade and do commerce. Consequently, this linguistic diversity is an inevitable phenomenon. Thus, those languages which are constantly used by the majority of the population become recognised as languages of communication. Often but not always, those languages are given importance and so a status is conferred to these languages. Thus, these languages may be made into the national languages or the official languages of the respective countries. The section below discusses how languages are deemed and given status.

First Language (L1)

A first language is the language which is first learnt and used by a language user. Depending on where the individual comes from, the language learner or user may have learnt to use English, German, Thai, Mandarin or Malay which are languages that carry a spoken and a written form, thus their first language could be any of these.

Alternatively, a language user's first language (L1) may be a variety of a language also called a dialect which usually exists in spoken form only but has no written form. This may be referred to as the language learner's mother tongue. This phenomenon is common among the Chinese population, for example, in Malaysia, the Chinese community is made up of different dialectal clans or families. There are Chinese Malaysians who speak the Chinese dialect of Hokkien, Cantonese, Teochew, Hakka, Foochow and so on. Most of these dialects are only in the spoken form. There are no written versions of the dialects except for Cantonese, which in Hong Kong and Macao, has a written version. Thus, to these speakers, their mother tongue is either Hokkien, Hakka, Cantonese or Foochow but their first language may be English, Malay or Mandarin because these languages are prestigious and carry a written and a spoken form. To some Malays in Malaysia, their first language is also their mother tongue, which is Malay, whereas to some Indians in Malaysia, their first language may be English because these were acquired from young. Malaysia can be considered a country with complex mother tongue and first language issues because it is so culturally and linguistically diverse. Due to that diversity, the national and official language of Malaysia was decided to be the local language most used by the majority of the population, Malay even though most Malays speak a local variety. This has something to do with its language policies which will be described in more depth in other sections of this thesis.

National and Official Language

A national language, according to Brann (1994, p. 130), refers to a language (or language varieties) that has some connection with the people of a particular country. In that regard, a national language is often but not always the language which is most used by a large proportion of the inhabitants of a nation. A national language may be made an official language which refers to a particular language that carries a certain official

status in a particular country. Typically, an official language is the language that is recognised or approved for use in the administration of a country or some other political unit as defined in Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics (Mathews, 2014). The definition of an official language in this context is further extended to the education domain where the official language is also used as the main medium of instruction, for example in Malaysia where Malay is the language of instruction in both primary and secondary schools and where all Malaysian students need to pass major examinations.

Standard and Colloquial Variety

An official language is a language that is confined to the standard variety where the grammar and written aspects of that language follows a standard format that is deemed acceptable by the authorities of the country. The standard variety also has descriptions of standard written language and available in published grammars and dictionaries for official uses (Davies, 2010, pp. 484-485).

In the context of Malaysia, Malay is the only official language in the country and the *Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka* is the authority for Malay. Other languages such as English, Mandarin and Tamil though do not have the statuses of official languages in Malaysia, these languages are the standard varieties because these languages fulfil the criteria stated by Davies (2010).

In contrast to the standard variety is the colloquial variety. The standard variety is generally the written language which is recognised by a community as a prestigious variety or the H variety (Holmes, 2001, p. 76). The colloquial variety is local dialect which is used by the community for everyday conversations, it is regarded as the L variety (Holmes, 2001, p. 27). No one uses the H variety in everyday conversations (ditto). In Malaysia, there is standard Malay, standard English, standard Mandarin and standard Tamil but there is also the colloquial spoken versions of these languages. The colloquial variety deviates from the standard format in terms of expressions, vocabulary,

syntax, morphology, and also grammar. The standard variety has undergone codification through dictionaries and grammars (Holmes, 2001, p. 76). The colloquial variety does not have particular linguistic merits (Holmes, 2001, p. 77). The lexicographers will decide which words to be included in the dictionary as standard variety or as the colloquial variety based on the vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation of the words (Holmes, 2001, p. 76). Another common feature of the colloquial variety is the mixture of languages.

The multicultural and multilingual context of Malaysia

Malaysia is a country of diversity in terms of people, culture, language, food, attire, traction and customs. There are similarities among the people living in the country and there are differences. As a multicultural and multilingual nation, Malaysia is ambitious, it is not only aiming to become a fully developed country by the year 2020, and a country with high incomes, it is also aiming to become an education hub for global competitiveness. With various efforts and attempts, Malaysia is also striving to serve the world and be the hub of educational excellence for half a million foreign students by the year 2020. Aiming to be among the world's top universities, Malaysia is also working towards its own language policies and education to ensure that its human resources, the younger generation, are well equipped and globally competent. Malaysia has worked hard to improve the young Malaysians' language proficiency so that they are competent to communicate with the foreign students who come to the country because of the superb education provided by the country and globalisation. One way to ensure Malaysian human resources are competent to communicate with the worldwide international students, to use English which is the international language and the second important language in Malaysia education system as the medium of instruction, but this has been compounded by the constant changes seen in Malaysia's education system and

language policies. In order to pave the current scenario, the discussion has to return to some aspects of history.

Historical Landscape

Malaysia is a developing country with many natural resources. It is a multicultural society with many different ethnic groups co-existing together since the early nineteenth century. Due to the many diverse ethnic communities, Malaysia is also multilingual with the three dominant ethnic groups comprising the Malays (including the *Bumiputras* or indigenous people), Chinese, Indians and other minorities. In this regard, the three dominant languages of Malaysia are Malay, Chinese (Mandarin and the dialects) and Tamil. Due to its colonial past, English also serves as an important second language. Malay is the national and official language of the country. It is spoken by majority of the Malay people in this country and because it is the official language, it is also taught in school as a compulsory subject hence, students attending government schools (both primary and secondary) need to learn Malay. These students are expected to be fluent and proficient in the language by the time they graduate from the secondary schools, considering that it is also the official language of court and administration. Students will thus be required to know how to write essays, letters and reports in Malay. Likewise, the language of English, serving its purpose as an important second language in the country as well as an international language which is important for global networking and knowledge, is also taught as a compulsory subject in all government schools. All in all, a typical Malaysian student has a total of 11 years of exposure in learning Malay and English, both at the same time from the age of seven (Standard One – Primary) until seventeen (Form Five – Secondary).

This education system of teaching both Malay and English has been a tradition throughout the country over the years although language policies for using Malay and English as the medium of instruction in schools had changed from one to another due to

the decisions made by the federal government. In the Malaysian context, the education policy and the language policy are decided at the cabinet level by generally ministers who may have little contact with schools and learners thus, their knowledge about schools' ability, teachers' competence and students' capacity to absorb may be low. These policies are then made and disseminated throughout the nation for implementation purposes. Some schools may be able to implement these policies and some schools may be unable to implement these policies due to the differences of schools' ability, teachers' competence and students' capacity to absorb. Consequently, some may experience success and some may experience failure. Over the years since independence in 1957, Malaysia has conceptualised and implemented more than ten language policies (see section 1.3).

1.2 Language policy and planning

The Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistic defines language planning as 'a branch of macro linguistics which is concerned with the selection and implementation of standard languages' (Johnson & Johnson, 1999, p. 185).

Crystal (2008) further defines language planning as 'a deliberate, systematic and theory-based attempt to solve the communication problems of a community by studying its various languages and dialects, and developing an official language policy concerning their selection and use' in A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (p. 268).

The Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics (2014) defines official language planning as 'any conscious attempt by a government' (Matthews, p. 217) to 'regulate, improve the existing languages or create new common regional, national or international languages' (Tauli as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30).

Thus, for a nation to ensure that its citizens are adequately equipped for certain matters such as a language competence that can place these citizens to be world-class or internationally intelligible and comprehensible when they communicate with others, then the nation must plan for a project that encompasses all kinds of activities and exercises that not only expose their citizens to that knowledge but also have a measure to evaluate and ensure that these citizens have accomplished what they are supposed to accomplish.

When the language planning is designed, contemplated and agreed upon it becomes a language policy and policies must be implemented. However, for these language policies to be effective and achieve their goals, these policies need to be monitored constantly and reports and feedback be given. This is to ensure that the goals of the language policies match the outcomes implemented. A language policy is ‘the obvious sense of policy regulating language’ in Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistic (2014, p. 217), and it is the ‘political measures aimed at introducing, implementing and defining the regional use of languages in multilingual states, the acceptance of official languages and regulation and agreements about foreign-language instruction’ in the Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics (Bussmann, 1998, p. 649) or it is also called education language policy so that it brings about some benefits for the country.

The earliest stage of language policy and language planning focused on status planning and corpus planning; it gave little emphasis to practical issues such as language change, societal language problems either in language form or language use (Cooper, 1989, pp. 30-35). According to Kaplan & Baldauf (1997), status planning and corpus planning are the two major foci in language planning. Status planning is the language planning from the societal aspect and corpus planning is from the language aspect (p. 29).

This was supported by Asmah (1993) who likewise defined language planning as “deciding on the national language and or the official language followed by the structuring of the language for a multilingual country” (p. 3).

The important key words of this definition are “deciding” and “structuring” because the decision has to be made by a certain authority and the decision has to follow a certain organisation since ‘to structure’ suggests following a certain sequence of development. The decision of the national language thus involves the process of giving special attention to a selected language and then offering it a status as a form of recognition.

The status planning may affect the role of a language in a society, its standing and prestige (Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics, 2014 p. 216). For “Standard Language in Modern Norway” in 1959, Haugen defines language planning as ‘the evolution of linguistic change’. The language change involved ‘the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogenous speech community’.

Then Haugen (1966) sees these activities as outcomes instead of language planning. He redefines language planning as the normative work by the academies and committees to conduct language cultivation and standardization (as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30). This concept is similar to the definition provided by Punya Sloka Ray (1963) who describes language planning as language standardisation, that is, it is a ‘search for reasonableness in the discrimination of linguistic innovations’ (Asmah, 1993, p. 7).

The status planning is deliberately planned by organizations which are given mandate to change the systems of code or speaking (Rubin & Jernudd as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30), and to develop the language resources in an ordered schedule of time systematically (Das Gupta as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30). The change may

impose on the existing languages, new national scale common languages or international languages (Karam as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30) or on the teaching languages (Prator as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 31).

For example, Malay was given the status of the national language and official language in government (Article 152 of Constitution of Malaysia) then made the official medium of instruction in primary education in 1976 (Dumanig, David & Symaco, 2012, p. 111) in Malaysia.

It was mentioned that in developing nations, early language policies and planning tend to focus on corpus planning (Tollesfson, 2008, p. 3). The changes of the language may be taken in the form of language reformation and standardization (Haugen as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30) by selecting, codifying, elaborating the orthography, grammar, lexis or meaning features of the language (Gorman as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30).

According to Bamgbose (1989), the aspects of language involved in corpus planning included: i) orthographic innovation including change of script and spelling; ii) pronunciation; iii) changes in language structure; iv) vocabulary expansion; v) simplification of registers; vi) style and vii) preparation of language material (as cited in Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, p. 38).

The choice aspects of a language is grouped into four major principles in corpus planning by Vikør (1993):

i) Internal linguistic principles; ii) Principles related to attitudes toward other languages; iii) Principles concerning the relationship between the language and its users; and iv) Principles derived from societal ideologies (as cited in Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, p.38).

Weinsten (as cited in Wardhough, 2010) believes that language planning is a government-organised, long-term, sustained, and conscious effort to alter a language's

function in a society; its purpose is for the solving of communication problems. Today, the development of language planning is no longer at the stage of status planning and corpus planning or at the stage of selecting the national language and standardizing the selected language. The exercise of language planning had moved forward to include problem-solving which are not aimed at official language.

Jernudd & Das Gupta (1971) defines language planning as ‘political and administrative activity’ (as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30) ‘focused on problem-solving...by formulation and evaluation of alternatives solutions’ (Rubin & Jernudd as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30) either in language form or language use or both (Karam as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30) in the national level (Fishman as cited in Cooper, 1989, p. 30) systematically, theory-based and organized (Neustupny as cited in Copper, 1989, p. 31).

This idea is traced to the promulgation of the *PPSMI (Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran Sains dan Matematik Dalam Bahasa Inggeris)* policy that was imposed by the Malaysian government in 2003. It was consciously designed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education to solve the language problem of Malaysia’s deterioration of the use of English, particularly among the graduates in the country who were found to be lacking extremely in the language use. This was highlighted in newspapers by employers and surveys. This *PPSMI* policy involved the introduction of using English as the medium of instruction for teaching and learning Science and Mathematics. It was stated as a government policy that aims to improve the command of English among students in both the primary and secondary schools of Malaysia. As a drastic change involving rural schools and teachers who were not trained through English as the medium of instruction and were not confident in the use of English, this policy was very much debated upon by academics, politicians and the public. In this regard, the *PPSMI* language policy was perceived to be an example of a language problem-solving policy.

However Cooper (1989) defines language planning as the ‘deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes’ (p. 45). According to Cooper, a language planning is not restricted to any authoritative agencies, any target groups, or any form of planning (status planning, corpus planning, problem-solving planning or acquisition planning). It is to influence instead of change the language behaviour of the language community (ditto).

The early development involving language policy and language planning seem to come from a beginning with common ideas. The language policy and language planning consider that:

- i) the nation state should be the focus of both language policy and planning research and practice;
- ii) experts in language policy and planning should be responsible for developing and implementing effective language policy; and
- iii) language policy and planning in education should aim to contribute to the integration of the minorities (adapted from Tollefson, 2008, p. 4).

Over the years, language policy and language planning are terms often employed synonymously in literature, as if they meant the same thing. In reality, however, the two terms refer to different processes. Language planning refers to the actions taken by formal authorities, agencies and people believed to be having the authority, to modify the language choices and so change the language policy which contains not only the named varieties of language, it included a set of agreed choices of all language items such as the pronunciation, spelling, choice of lexical, grammar, style which made up language, i.e. bad language, racist language, obscene language or the correct language. (Spolsky, 2005, p. 2154).

Tollefson (2008) considers the result of the language planning which has been implemented by official bodies on education as language policies. In addition, Tollefson (2008, p. 3) also considers a language policy as one that serves as a guideline to various educational institutions as a measure to be used for shaping the language structure, language use, and language acquisition among the learners.

Other perspectives, for example Spolsky's (2004, p. 39) views a language policy as the belief about language develops within various social groups and how it results in efforts to manage the language practices of others. Spolsky (2004) clearly defines language policy as the customary practice of a choice of language items and varieties within a speech community as a result of a specific decision or set of decisions made by others in authority to modify those practices. Thus, a language policy is a national objective that is motivated by socio-political action (Spolsky, 2006, p 561).

Others like Crawford (2004) defines language policy as:

- i) what the government does officially - through legislation, court decisions, executive action, or other means in order to: a) determine how languages are used in public contexts, b) to cultivate language skills that are needed to meet national priorities, or c) to establish the rights of individuals or groups to learn, use, and maintain languages.
- ii) the government's regulation of its own language use, including steps to facilitate clear communication, train and recruit personnel, guarantee due process, foster political participation, and provide access to public services, proceedings, and documents.

Using Crawford's (2004) definition of language policy as a benchmark, Mohd Rashid (2007) concludes that 'any optimal language chosen to be widely accepted but not necessarily agreed upon by the masses, and any conscious effort carried out by any particular government to enforce the language use but may not necessarily without conflict' is language policy.

From the above discussions of the term language policy, it appears that language policy is a systematic, theory-based planning made by the government or non-governmental individual so that the targeted language communities or individuals can choose and use a particular language to cultivate the expected value or to solve the language problems in the country. In the context of Malaysia, for example, Malay serves as a national and official language of the country but English, together with Malay serves as the language to pursue education and knowledge in Malaysian education system. English is the second language since it is an international language and is globally recognised. English is also used as the medium to maintain some of the communities' cultural identity, by those Malaysians who have English as their mother tongue and first language besides the accessibility of other languages and their varieties and dialects. The policy is made not just to resolve some nationalistic beliefs or to implant some patriotic values but also to ensure that the linguistic landscape peculiar to the country of Malaysia is maintained. Nonetheless, despite some of the good intentions of the government in creating specific language policies, not the entire masses of the country will subscribe to its implementation for various reasons. The section below outlines some of the policies that have been implemented over the years in this country and to what extent these implementations had encouraged the use of the four dominant languages of the country: Malay, English, Mandarin and Tamil.

1.3 Language education policies in Malaysia

The British colonial masters and the Ministry of Education in the then Malaya (prior to independence in 1957) had promulgated many education committee reports, particularly after World War Two. These include the Barnes Report (1951), the Fenn-Wu Report (1952), the Education Ordinance (1952) and the Razak Report (1956). All these reports focused on the education policies of the country during the British rule. Following

independence in 1957, the Rahman Talib Report (1960), which was promulgated as the Education Act of 1961 followed by the National Language Act of 1963, the Hussein Onn report of 1971, the Mahathir report 1979, the Education Act 1996, the Report of the Education Blueprint (2006-2010) and the Preliminary Report of the Education Blueprint (2013-2025) were then imposed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education. Each of these reports is further discussed.

i) Barnes Report

The Barnes Report was prepared in 1951. It was aimed at improving the education for the Malay community (Choong, 2008, p. 21). This report recommended the establishment of the national school system by using either Malay or English as the medium of instruction (Zuraidah, Farida, Ibiannaflociliana, Haijon & Katshuhiro, 2011, p. 160; Choong, 2008, p. 25).

It further recommended that all the Malay, Chinese and Tamil vernacular school system should be converted to national schools but in stages (Choong, 2008, p. 25).

ii) Fenn-Wu Report

Based on the findings of the Fenn-Wu committee, the Chinese community agreed to accept Malay and English as the medium of instruction in the schools, as recommended by the Barnes report. At the same time, they would also like to have their mother tongue education for keeping their cultural identity. Therefore, the report recommended that Malay, English and Mandarin be used as the medium of instruction in the Chinese vernacular schools (Choong, 2008, pp. 22-23).

iii) 1952 Education Ordinance

This ordinance had suggested the formation of national schools and English would be introduced to the Malay schools, stage by stage. English and Malay were to be taught in the Chinese and Tamil vernacular schools (Choong, 2008, p. 23).

Five types of schools were introduced in the ordinance: i) English schools using English; ii) Malay schools using the national language (Malay); iii) Chinese schools using Mandarin; iv) Tamil schools using Tamil and v) the religious schools using Malay, as dominant medium of instruction (Choong, 2008, p. 25).

iv) Razak Report

The Razak Report was introduced after the 1952 Education Ordinance was reviewed and it recommended the formation of the national education system.

The report endorsed Malay as the national language in the then Malaya and it would serve as the main medium of instruction at all levels of national schools (Zuraidah et. al, 2011, p. 160; Choong, 2008, pp. 23-25).

English was taught as the compulsory subject at all levels in the national schools. At the same time, English served as the medium of instruction in the English national-type schools, Mandarin in the Chinese national-type schools and Tamil in the Tamil national-type schools (Choong, 2008, p. 24).

Since 1957, Malay was explicitly incorporated into Article 152 of the Constitution of Malaya as the national language of Malaya. Malay would also serve as the language of the national anthem, the language for inter-group communication together with English and the symbol of nationalism as well as the official language of Malaya. Malay was mandated for all the activities in the fields of media, government and most importantly, education.

The national language policy implemented in media could be studied in:

a) The Press

The four languages - English, Malay, Chinese and Tamil were continued to be used as before independence in newspapers and locally produced magazines (Platt, 1976, p. 9).

The ministerial statements were placed in Malay. The requirement of Malay proficiency was shown in the employment advertisement not only for the government

positions but also for private firms (ditto).

b) Radio

Malay is the predominant language on radio and was spoken most of the time. News were broadcasted in Malay, English, Chinese (Mandarin and dialects) and Tamil. More Malay news broadcasted than to the other three languages (Platt, 1976, pp. 9-10).

c) Television

The news were broadcasted in Malay, English, Chinese and Tamil. There were two networks. All the programmes were broadcasted in Malay on the National Channel.

There were Chinese feature films (in Mandarin or Cantonese), Tamil and Hindi films and English films on another network - the Channel Two. Most of these programmes had Malay sub-titles (Platt, 1976, p. 10).

In addition, English was allowed to share the status of Malay as the official language for a period of ten years i.e. from 1957 to 1967 in Peninsula Malaysia (Zuraidah et al, 2011, p. 160); it was practised as official language until 1973 in Sabah and 1985 in Sarawak.

v) Education Act of 1961

The Education Act of 1961 recommended Malay to be used as the main medium of instruction in all schools (Choong, 2008, p. 34).

vi) National Language Act 1963/67

Under the National Language Act, Malay was declared as national language in Article 152 of Constitution of Malaysia. Malay was also recommended to be used as the medium of instruction at all levels of education (Choong, 2008, p.38).

vii) Hussein Onn report 1971

Before the Hussein Onn report was introduced, there were two types of schools: English medium government schools and government-sponsored schools (included the Chinese and Tamil schools), Malay medium government schools and government-sponsored

schools. This report recommends that Malay be used to replace English as the dominant medium of instruction in the English schools but this would be implemented in stages from the year 1968.

The report recommended that the teaching hours for the subject of English to be increased. Malay would still serve as the main medium of instruction in the education system but the status of English as an international language was recognized by the government and so its second language status was maintained. The target of the report was to produce Malaysians with a high competency in English through the education system (Choong, 2008, pp. 36-39).

viii) Report of the Cabinet Education Policy Implementation Research Committee 1979 (Mahathir Report)

This report emphasized the importance of Malay as the language of knowledge, communication language and language for unity. At the same time, the status of English as a second language was to be maintained (Choong, 2008, p. 37-39).

ix) Education Act 1996

In this Act, the national language, Malay was given the status of the main medium of instruction in all schools except the national-type schools or those schools which were given the exemption. Malay was taught as a compulsory subject in all schools and institutions in Malaysia.

Mandarin and Tamil were taught in national primary schools and national secondary schools with 15 students who petitioned for it (Choong, 2008, pp. 42-45).

x) Report of the Educational Blueprint (2006-2010)

The report recommended the national language, Malay to be upheld in the Malaysian education system.

xi) Preliminary Report of the Educational Blueprint (2013-2025)

As stated in the Preliminary Report of the Educational Blueprint (2012), Malay and English proficiency are to be improved through the implementation of ‘Upholding Malay and Strengthening English’ or *Memartabatkan Bahasa Malaysia dan Memperkukuhkan Bahasa Inggeris*, in short, *MBMMBI*, during the first wave (Ministry of Education, 2014b, Appendix VI, p. A-39).

The aspiration of the Education Ministry was for Malaysian students to be equipped with the minimum level of bilingual ability. All the students were expected to have acquired a competence of Malay, as the national language, and English, as the second most important language and as a language of international communication (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2012, pp. 4-9). The students were also expected to be competent in communicating in Malay and English.

For the purpose of maintaining the unique linguistic landscape of Malaysia, the Malaysian students were also encouraged to learn a minimum of three languages i.e. Malay, English and one other language such as Mandarin, Tamil, Arabic or any of the mother tongues of the Borneo indigenous people like Iban and Kadazan-Dusun (Ministry of Education, 2012, pp. 2-7).

In its attempt to address this issue, the Malaysian government introduced a number of initiatives, one of which is the Teaching and Learning of Science and Mathematics in English or *Pengajaran-Pembelajaran Sains dan Matematik dalam Bahasa Inggeris (PPSMI)*, a language education policy introduced in 2003 by the fourth Prime Minister of Malaysia, Tun Dr Mahathir Mohamad. The main objective of this policy was to improve the English proficiency level of Malaysian students through the subjects of Science and Mathematics which were also treated as subjects of knowledge that can propel the individual to greater heights. It was rationalised that this was necessary since most of the books about them were written in the English.

In looking at the policy initiated, it appears that the *PPSMI* was designed and desired by the Ministry of Education in 2003, as a means to solve the problem of the country's poor command of English (Zuraidah et. al., 2011, p. 162). It was realized the use of the English had deteriorated and this had created high unemployment among local graduates who had been educated in the local public universities, as revealed by the National Higher Education Research Institute, Malaysia, *IPPTN* (Rahman, Ishak & Lai, 2011, p. 187-188). Despite this move, the implementation of *PPSMI* policy which has been about ten years since 2003, it seems that the graduates' proficiency in English had not improved (Zuraidah et. al., 2011, p. 162).

Consequently, when there were complaints from various stakeholders like schools, teachers, parents and other academics, the policy was reversed through a soft-landing since 2012. The media claimed that this *PPSMI* policy did not demonstrate a systematic implementation; it was not theory-bound when the policy was developed before implementation and the policy was implemented based on the study of the usage of various languages as defined by Crystal (2008). Eggington described *PPSMI* as an "ideologically driven unplanned language planning" (as cited in Kachner-Ober, Mukherjee & David, 2011, p. 177). Some media even claimed that the reversal could be attributed to the fact that the language policy (like some previous educational language policies) designed by the Ministry of Education Malaysian was implemented hastily (Tan, 2007). Therefore, the policy or its implementation was not as successfully implemented as it was meant to be.

On 6 September 2013, the former Minister of Education, Tan Sri Muhyiddin Yassin also made an announcement whose intention was to ensure that the importance of English was taken seriously by students and undergraduates alike. The announcement stated that the English, as a subject taught in schools, be made a compulsory subject to be passed at all levels of major public examinations. He suggested that Malaysian

students must now carry a pass in English in their Malaysian Certificate of Education or *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM)*, beginning from the year of 2016 (Circular of Education Ministry Malaysia, 18 December, 2014a). With this suggestion, it seemed that Malaysia was set to implement the policy. Thus, English besides Malay and *Sejarah* (History), was to be made an additional compulsory subject for students to take and pass in order for a candidate to be awarded the *SPM* certificate. This particular language education policy became a part of the Malaysian Education Blueprint (2013-2025) during the second wave of its implementation.

Returning to the intended 11-year programme of the *PPSMI*, it did not complete its full term. This policy was aimed to produce Malaysian human resources with the competency of English so that they are able to use the international language – English. However, the policy was being challenged and terminated after nine years of implementation, before the effectiveness or output of the implemented policy was examined. The teaching of Science and Mathematics through English at all levels of schools was to be totally reversed and Malay would be used as the medium of instruction again, in all the government-sponsored secondary schools in 2021 (Norliza & Hashnan, 2011 November 5, Utusan Online). The teaching of the subjects of Science and Mathematics in the primary schools had to be reverted to Malay in the national primary schools, whereas in vernacular primary schools, they were expected to use the vernacular language, i.e. Mandarin in the Chinese vernacular primary schools [*Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina* or *SRJK (C)s*] and Tamil in the Tamil vernacular primary schools [*Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil* or *SRJK (T)s*] in 2016.

Due to this termination of the *PPSMI*, the compulsory pass of English as a subject at the *SPM* level as proposed by the then Deputy Minister of Malaysia in 2013, was also postponed before execution could be implemented by the Malaysian Examinations Syndicate or *Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia (LPM)*. The announcement

to delay this implementation was made on 19 August 2015 and the reasons cited were to allow teachers and students to have more time and opportunities to prepare themselves (The Star, 2015 August 20). Nonetheless, the kind of preparations required by the teachers and students were not duly elaborated by the *LPM*. Consequently, Malaysians of all levels began to develop mixed reactions to the government's reversal of these said policies. More about the types of schools in Malaysia are explained below.

1.4 Malaysian secondary schools

Malaysia has a certain way of classifying its schools. This classification applies to both the primary and secondary schools. The national-type schools and the national schools of Malaysia both employ the academic syllabus designed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education. Students attending such secondary schools are required to sit for the public examinations which are conducted by the Malaysian Examinations Syndicate, *LPM*, and this involves two levels: the third form and the fifth form of secondary studies. Since lower secondary schools in Malaysia begin with Form One, Form Two and Form three, the major examinations provided by the *LPM* will assess the student's academic achievements at the third level or Form Three. The upper secondary schools will be from Form Four to Form Five. Likewise, the *LPM* also has a public and major examination that will assess the students' academic achievements at the fifth level, Form Five. These examinations are important and major because the results obtained will determine the future fate of the students. At the Form Three level, the results will determine whether the students should go to the Science or Arts stream. At the Form Five level, the results will determine if they can proceed to the Sixth Form which is pre-university at the school level or Matriculation which was a system specifically designed to enable Form Five students who have the adequate results to pursue a level of education that can directly take them to university. It is usually shorter than Form Six

and was initially only for *Bumiputras*. Today, there has been a change. This will however, not be discussed any further because it is not relevant to the current thesis.

Since the context of Malaysia is unique, there is also a need to explain another aspect of the education system which involves the Chinese Independent high schools. Although the *LPM* and the Education Ministry of Malaysia require that Malaysian students from Malaysian secondary schools achieve a pass in Malay and *Sejarah* at the *SPM* (Form Five) level, the requirement does not apply to the Chinese Independent high schools because they are private secondary schools in Malaysia. They do not employ the academic syllabus designed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education and they are not required to sit for those compulsory subjects. This may also be because the students of such schools do not aim to enter local universities. However, as a means of providing such students with more avenues to pursue their further education after Form Five, some of these schools actually encourage their students to follow the Malaysian Education syllabus and also to sit for the public examinations of the *LPM*. Nevertheless, this would put more pressure on the students who are not only following the syllabus of the Chinese Independent high schools but also the syllabus recommended by the Malaysian Ministry of Education.

In the section below, a little more description about the characteristics of the three types of secondary schools are provided because they are necessary to understand the context of this thesis.

i) National-type secondary school

In 1962, the government in Malaysia ceased to sponsor the operation of the Chinese vernacular secondary schools. This was incorporated in the Education Act of 1961. All the Chinese vernacular secondary schools were thus converted to national-type secondary schools in order for them to be sponsored by the government in terms of the cost of operations (Zhou, 1996, p. 97).

In the early stages of the implementation, the main medium of instruction in the national-type secondary schools was either English or Malay (Zhou, 1996, p. 145). Subsequently, Malay was incorporated and used as the main medium of instruction while English was used as the second most important language. This was implemented in all the national-type secondary schools through the introduction of the National Language Act 1963/67. Mandarin was one of the subjects taught in the schools. Consequently, as the outcome of the conference of principals and director boards of the national-type secondary schools in 2001, Mandarin became a compulsory subject for all the students of the schools in public examinations. In such schools, there are language teachers of Malay, English and Mandarin serving at the same time.

ii) Chinese Independent high school

The Chinese Independent high schools are those Chinese vernacular secondary schools which were not converted to national-type secondary schools during the promulgation of the 1961 Education Act. These schools remained as they were and they continued to practise the use of Mandarin as the medium of instruction. As a result of being what they are, such schools do not receive any kind of sponsorship from the Malaysian government, specifically, the Ministry of Education. These schools are independent entities but their syllabus of education for the students who are mainly Chinese is based on the one proposed by the *Dongzong* (see <https://www.dongzong.my>). The dominant medium of instruction in the Chinese Independent high schools is Mandarin but the languages of Malay and English are also taught.

Dongzong, The United Chinese School Committees' Association of Malaysia was established on 22nd August 1954. It has worked closely with the United Chinese School Teachers' Association of Malaysia or *Jiaozong* as the spokesperson for Chinese Education in Malaysia and it is the leading organisation for Chinese-community-run education.

Dongzong has worked very hard in defending and developing mother tongue education, Mandarin, for the Chinese community. One of the objectives of the association is to manage the affairs such as curricula, examinations, teachers, education funds and other related matters to the development and amelioration of the Chinese Independent high schools (ditto).

iii) National secondary school

The Education Act of 1996 defines a national secondary school as a government school or a government-sponsored school. These schools make use of the national language, Malay, as the main medium of instruction. In such schools, English is a compulsory subject to be taught. The vernacular languages of Mandarin and Tamil may be taught to students under the Pupils' Own Language or POL scheme. It was mentioned that indigenous languages must be taught in the school if it is logical and practical. Nonetheless, these languages are to be taught in the school only with the petition of parents and a minimum of 15 students. The languages of Arabic, Japanese, German, French or any other foreign language may be taught in the school if there are teachers available.

Based on the description of the three types of schools available in Malaysia, it can be said that Malay is not only the national language under the Federal Constitution as stated in Article 152, it is also the dominant medium of instruction in the national as well as national-type secondary schools except for those schools which were given the exemption status in the Education Acts. Whatever the exemptions may be, Malay still has to be taught as a compulsory subject in all schools and it is a compulsory subject which students must gain a pass in public examinations conducted by the *LPM*.

English will still serve as the international language with the status of the second most important language of the Malaysian education system. It is a compulsory subject to be taught in all schools but it is not a compulsory subject for students to gain a pass in

major public examinations conducted by the *LPM*. In addition to that, Mandarin is just an additional language subject to be taught in the national schools, but this is only with the petition of a minimum of 15 parents whose children study in those schools.

1.5 Research problem

During the implementation of the *PPSMI* policy, more than five billion ringgit were spent to facilitate and assist the teachers with the transition from Malay to English (Sopia, David, Ong & Lai, 2009, p. 57). However, in that process, a gap was identified between the policy goals and the implementation (Gill, 2006; Nor Liza, 2013). In addition, it was found that not enough attention had been given to the issues faced by the learners or the students during the implementation of the *PPSMI* in 2003 (Sopiah et. al., 2009, p. 57). Consequently, there was much negative feedback from schools and parents.

Moreover, it also seemed that when the policy was implemented, the Malaysian authorities who were in-charged in designing the language policies had not addressed the issue from the grassroot level i.e. from the "bottom-up" view of the task force who would be involved in implementing the policy in schools. Farr and Song (2011, p. 655) explained that the bottom-up forces in the society have their own language ideologies which may or may not be aligned with the national language ideology. Consequently, the bottom-up task force concerned may choose to ignore or resist such top-down policies. Ricento and Hornberger (as cited in Paulston, 2003, p. 476) also agree that language policies must be evaluated not only through official policy statements or laws on the book (language policies which were formulated and proclaimed explicitly by the authorities or individuals in-charged through printed medium) (Spolsky, 2005, p. 2153) but also through language behaviours and attitudes noted in the issue-related situations particularly the sociolinguistic settings, the nature and scope of planning at the

institutional levels. They also added that the substance of a policy should be based on research-proven cause and effect relationships and not based on the goodwill or intuition of "I know what the country needs" (Ales, 2010, p. 196).

McGroarty (as cited in Farr & Song, 2011, p. 650) also noted the importance of implementing language policies. It was stated that clarifying the educational ecology of language ideologies is a crucial move because educators such as those in schools and institutions of learning can take up the challenge of deconstructing and reconstructing the linguistic ideologies that mitigate their efforts. In the case of the *PPSMI*, the learners' perceptions towards their own experiences of learning Science and Mathematics through English have been noted because this information can be used by the respective teachers to enhance their ability to achieve such goals as stipulated by the policy (Sopiah et. al., 2009, p. 57). If these perceptions and views of the learners had been taken into consideration, then the teachers involved with the policy can be better equipped in the teaching and learning situations. They can seek and implement ways of teaching with success by responding to the needs of the learners' (Sopiah et. al., 2009, p. 57).

Such gaps existing between implementation and practice are also common in other countries. Cheshire (1995, p. 45), for instance, revealed that in Switzerland and England, such a gap was noted between the language policy issued and the sociolinguistic practice of the users. As emphasized by Cheshire (1995, p. 45), if the language policy is not aligned with the current sociolinguistic practice of the users, the language policy is less likely to achieve its ultimate aim. To date, there are no impartial procedures or valid tests to determine the sociolinguistic practice in real life situations of the educational stakeholders concerned, for example, the students and the teachers. Their input including the perceptions they may have toward the language/s imposed by the education system, their perception of the current language/s they use among

themselves and their perception about the language/s they currently use or practise in the schools have not been procured for further analysis as a measure to determine if what the nation wants for language policies is the same or different from what these stakeholders want. This serves as the research problem for this thesis because to date, there is no literature to illustrate that the implementation of a language policy is the result of research that had focused on the needs and wants of the stakeholders (in this regard the learners and the teachers). Moreover, the language ideology held by the government thus far may not be the language ideology perceived by the stakeholders (in this regard the learners and the teachers), hence the implementation of such language policies may be hindered. In addition, despite the language policies implemented thus far, there is no documentation to show that the language practices being endorsed by the government have reached the levels proposed. For instances, if English is seen to be an important language and many programmes have been developed to assist the learners into increasing their proficiency level, what documentation can be used to verify this improvement? Therefore, it is necessary to conduct a study that can examine the language practice and the language ideology of the stakeholders concerned, particularly the perception of these learners and the teachers involved towards the three dominant languages:

- English (second most important language, international language, language for employment),
- Malay (national language, official language, language which they must pass in major examinations), and
- Mandarin (language of the Pupils' Own Language, the medium of instruction in Chinese Independent high schools, language for employment) in Malaysian secondary schools situated in Selangor. More of this is elaborated in Chapter Three.

1.6 Research aims

Nunan (2003) found the students and teachers in China, Hong Kong, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, Japan and Vietnam have insufficient command of English though it was a compulsory subject in these countries. In addition, though the government of these countries stressed on the practical communication skills of English through the language policies, it was rarely reflected at the classroom level.

On the other hand, Chua (2012) also found students of Bangladesh, Brunei Darulssalam and Malaysia had low competency of English because of i) inconsistency of language planning in Malaysia, ii) English was used as foreign language by most of the people in Brunei and iii) the people in Bangladesh had no access to English.

Furthermore Phan Thi Thanh Hang (2009) unveiled the changes of attitudes of the Vietnamese learners towards the learning of foreign languages specifically English because learning foreign languages showed positive impact on the politic, socio-culture and economy of Vietnam. The Vietnamese learners appreciated English and believed that 'English will bring Vietnam into the world and bring the world to Vietnam'.

From the findings of the studies identified, the main concern of this study is to fill the gap between the expected language policy goal and the situated students' and teachers' sociolinguistic practice and attitudes. This sociolinguistic study thus aims to examine:

- a) the oral language practice/s of the students and teachers in Malaysian secondary schools (i.e. From the languages of Malay, English and Mandarin, which language/s is/are more commonly used in the school setting),
- b) the language ideology/ies currently held by the students and teachers,
- c) the influence affecting the language management of the students and teachers and how this affects the language practice/s and language ideology/ies of the students and teachers.

Using the well-known language policy framework developed by Spolsky's (2009), his theory of language management as an approach to accomplish the research aims, this study thus focusses on uncovering the language practices, language beliefs and the language management being practised by these stakeholders.

1.7 Research questions

Following the research aims stated above, the following research questions have been formulated:

Research Question 1:

How frequently do Malaysian students and teachers speak English, Malay and Mandarin in the different settings identified?

Research Question 2:

What are the Malaysian students' and teachers' view on the oral usage of English, Malay and Mandarin in the different settings identified?

Research Question 3:

What is the relationship between the oral usage of English, Malay and Mandarin of Malaysian students and teachers, and their language ideology?

Research Question 4:

How does language management impact on the language practice and language ideology of Malaysian students and teachers in the different settings identified?

To answer the research questions, the following is provided as a brief outline:

Research Question 1 addresses language practice. Data will be obtained through the questionnaire and analysis will be based on the quantitative data and further supported by the interviews.

Research Question 2 addresses language ideology. Data will be obtained through the questionnaire and analysis will be based on the quantitative data and further supported by the interview data.

Research Question 3 addresses the relationship between oral use of English, Malay and Mandarin of Malaysian students and teachers in the different settings determined, and their ideology. Analysis will be looked at the correlation between oral language practice and language ideology drawn from the quantitative data.

Research Question 4 addresses the impact of language management on oral language practice and language ideology of stakeholders. Data and analysis will be based on the interviews.

Based on the aforementioned research questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: There is no difference in the frequency of use of English, Malay and Mandarin by the students and teachers of the three types of schools identified (national secondary school, national-type secondary school, and Chinese Independent high school).

Hypothesis 2: The students and teachers of the three types of secondary schools do not perceive the oral usage of English, Malay and Mandarin any differently. In other words, they all have the same kind of perception.

Hypothesis 3: The language ideology of the students and teachers from the three types of secondary schools are not significantly correlated to their language practice.

It is further noted here that no parallel null hypothesis can be stated for research question 4 because the impact of language management on the language ideology and language practice of the students and teachers was assessed from a qualitative approach, that is through interview. According to Creswell, null hypotheses 'are statements in QUANTITATIVE research in which the investigator makes a prediction or a conjecture

about the outcome of a relationship among attributes or characteristics' (2012, p. 111). Thus, although four research questions were formulated, only three null hypotheses were generated because the first three research questions will be quantitatively assessed while the fourth research question would be assessed qualitatively. In a qualitative research, hypotheses are not used because statistics are not used in qualitative research while hypotheses in qualitative research are not appropriate (Creswell, 2012, p. 128) and in order not to confine the outcome of the study.

The three types of Malaysian secondary schools were identified for this study because of a number of limitations which will be duly justified in Chapter 3 under Methodology. All the schools were located in the biggest state of the country, Selangor, and justification for this will also be provided in chapter 3, under Methodology.

1.8 Scope and limitations

The scope of this study encompasses the educational domain which is drawn from Fishman's (1971) domains for the study of language choice. This has been applied in various other studies, too (as cited in Holmes, 2001, p.21), but in the context of this study, the domains of family, religious, neighbourhood and work are excluded. The rationale of choosing the educational domain is based on the fact that outside the family institution, the school environment or setting is the first social institution where language is practised and perceived to be important or less important by language users.

In this study, three types of secondary schools encompassing the national secondary schools, the national-type secondary schools and the Chinese Independent high school were selected as the research sites in the study. Other types of secondary schools located in Selangor, Malaysia, such as the international secondary schools, fully residential secondary schools, arts and sports secondary schools, technical/vocational secondary schools, national religious secondary schools and national religious assisted

secondary schools (<http://www.moe.gov.my>) were also excluded. This is because those schools employ different curriculum (international secondary schools) and the objective of establishing those secondary schools (the fully residential secondary schools, arts and sports secondary schools, technical/vocational secondary schools, national religious secondary schools and national religious assisted secondary schools) was different from the targeted secondary schools selected for this study. The three dominant languages being focused on this study are English, Malay and Mandarin, because these languages are offered as one of the subjects in the targeted secondary schools. The targeted student respondents and interviewees were from Form Four and are attending the English, Malay and Mandarin language classes while the targeted teacher respondents and interviewees were those attached to the selected schools and teaching the language subjects of English, Malay or Mandarin. The responses drawn from the targeted students and teachers were used to reflect the language ideology and language practice of the educational stakeholders in the school institutions as realistically as possible. The targeted research site is confined to the state of Selangor only, thus generalisations may be made only with caution. The justification for selecting the state of Selangor is because:

- First, it is the most populated state with a high level of urbanization (91.4%) and the highest literacy rate in Malaysia (98.7%) according to the Population Distribution and Basic Demographic Characteristic Report in 2010. Therefore, these schools will be able to reflect the actual scenario of the educational context.
- Second, Selangor has almost the same amount of national-type of secondary schools and Chinese Independent high schools compared to the other 11 states in West Malaysia. The states of Sabah and Sarawak are not included because the medium of instruction in the Chinese Independent high schools of these two

states is different from the Chinese Independent high schools in West Malaysia. The Chinese Independent high schools in Sabah and Sarawak use English instead of Mandarin as the medium of instruction for most of the subjects taught in the schools. For example the subjects of sciences and book keeping are taught in English in the Chinese Independent high schools in Sabah and Sarawak while Mandarin is used by the Chinese Independent high schools in West Malaysia.

Another limitation of this study is that this study focuses on language ideology and language practice of students and teachers in the educational domain only thus, it studies the relationship between the language ideology and language practice of the students and teachers and the impact of the language management implemented in the school settings only. The impact of the language management in the family domain on the language practice and language ideology of students and teachers is not studied.

The study focuses on three languages only thus students' and teachers' language practice of Tamil and other indigenous languages in Sabah and Sarawak were not investigated. Thus, generalisations cannot be made for Tamil and other indigenous languages.

Only the spoken or oral language practice of the three languages was studied and the written language practice was not observed, thus the findings cannot be applied to the written version of the three languages. The rational is because oral language is used in a much wider range of functions (Fasold, 1999, p. 276).

1.9 Significance of the study

The outcome of this study is based on an authentic and realistic research site. It also gives focus to the significant reference of the students' and teachers' efforts in supporting the use of oral English, Malay and Mandarin in Malaysian secondary schools. The outcome of this study will unveil the tendency of the stakeholders

(students and teachers) in maintaining the use of one language only or to shift to the use of another language, depending on who the participants are and where the setting in the educational domain may be.

At the application level, this study aims to extend the understanding of Spolsky's theory of language management (2009) in relation to the Malaysian context. This is done by quantifying the relationship between the language ideology and the language practice of English, Malay and Mandarin of the students and teachers of the three types of Malaysian secondary schools. The impact of the language management on the three types of Malaysian secondary schools as far as their perceived language ideology and language practice may be able to shed light on what future language policies need to do before developing a plan.

Furthermore, at the practical level, this study will try to provide empirical evidence drawn from the grassroots as a means of showing how there could be a misalignment between what is used and what is ideal.

Finally, this study will provide the referential resources, guidelines and recommendations to policy makers to fill in the gap between expected formulated language policy goals and the situated stakeholders' sociolinguistic practice and attitudes; and also to others who endeavour to conduct research in this field in future.

Policy makers may come to realize the strength and the weakness of the existing language educational policies that produced the expected outcome. In addition, new policies may be carried out more effectively to justify the investment of big sums of money and time. More importantly, quality education that is accessible to all regardless of race, religion, rural or urban and successfully implemented and effective language policies will be able to breed new generations with better multilingual proficiencies. This breed of language users will thus be better able to cope with the demanding realities of globalization. This outcome will be in tandem with the end objectives of

the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 which aim at producing students with such capabilities.

1.10 Operational definition

a) language practice

Language practice is the habitual pattern to select the language/s available to the language users that make up his/her linguistic repertoire (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5). It is also the observable behaviour and choice of linguistic features of the language user in a language community (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4). In the context of this study, it refers to what is being used currently.

b) language ideology

Language ideology is broadly defined as ‘the feelings people have about their own language or the language of others’ (Crystal, 1992). It is also the general and consensual set of beliefs about appropriate language and language use, values or statuses shared by the members of the same speech community (Spolsky, 2004, 2009) or it is what the people think they should do (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14). In the context of this study, it is what the respondents and interviewees believe.

c) language management

Language management is the specified effort to modify or influence practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5). Spolsky proposes that there is an individual or a group who acts as the language manager who instructs the intervention to modify the practices and beliefs of the stakeholders (2004, p. 8). In the context of this study, it refers to any intervention that lead to affect the language practices and beliefs of the education stakeholders.

d) three languages – Malay, English and Mandarin

The three targeted languages in the study are English, Malay and Mandarin. Malay is the national language as noted in the Malaysian Constitution, English has the status of being the second most important language in the Malaysian language education policy while Mandarin is simply defined as one of the ‘Pupil’s own language’; one of the additional language subjects taught in Malaysian secondary schools.

e) levels of secondary study

The national-type secondary school and national secondary school are government-sponsored secondary schools. They provide five years of secondary education to students from Form One to Form Five. The secondary education is subdivided into five forms: Lower secondary - Form One to Form Three and Upper Secondary – Form Four to Form Five.

1.11 Study outline

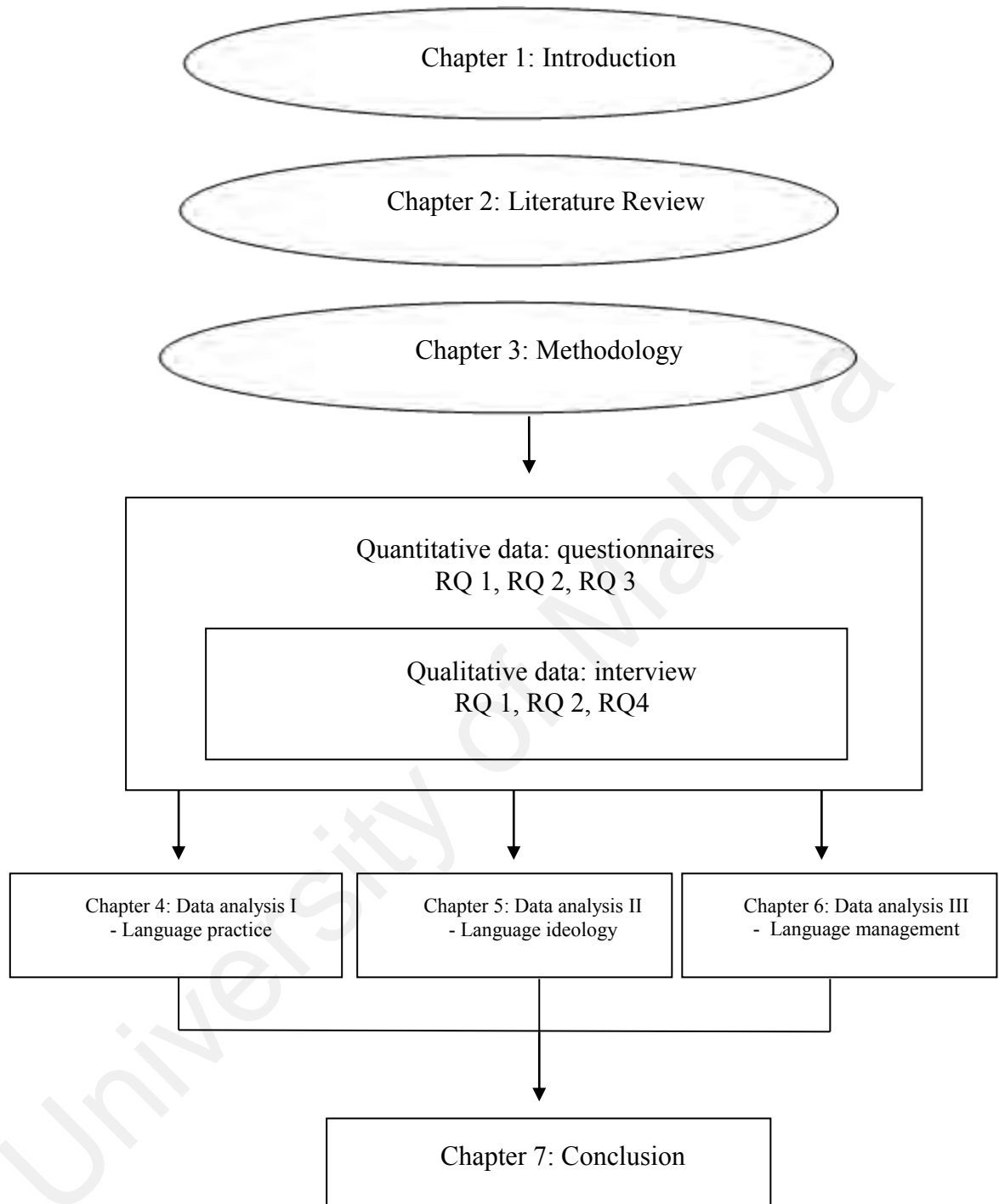


Figure 1.1 Study Outline

1.12 Summary

This chapter has outlined the background of the study paving a better understanding of the development of language policies and their implementation. This chapter has also

explained why Malaysia needs to implement certain policies in its education system and briefly what first language, national language, and official language is even though it may not directly be linked to the current study. The idea is to provide some basic understanding of the linguistic diversity in the country. Following this, a detailed explanation was provided for the various language policies developed for use in this country. This was followed by the research problem that justifies the need for this study. The research questions were provided with a brief indication on how data will be obtained and analysed. The research sites, the respondents and interviewees followed by the types of schools selected were also justified. The terms used were defined and a brief outline of the organisation of this thesis was provided before this summary.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section reviews previous studies which focus on language policies in Asia countries and in Malaysia. It specifically looks at Spolsky's (2009) theoretical framework on language management. Previous studies which adopted Spolsky's (2009) theory of language management as their theoretical framework are also reviewed. In order to understand further aspects of Spolsky's theory of language management, it is important to understand the language policies in the Asian countries context.

2.2 Previous studies on language policy in Asia

Nunan (2003) studies the impact of English as the global language on the educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region including the countries of Mainland of China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam (p. 589).

The study analyses the government and quasi-government published documents such as books, articles, government reports, syllabuses and curriculum documents. 68 informants including the academics, teacher trainers, ministry officials, publishers and teachers from the seven countries were interviewed (pp. 592-593).

The study finds English becomes a compulsory subject in primary schools in China, Hong Kong, Korea, Malaysia and Taiwan, and junior high schools in Japan and Vietnam (p. 594).

English has also become the entry requirements to university and promotional prospects in the workplace in China (p. 595). English is used as the main medium of instruction for the courses of technology (e.g. biotechnology), finances, trading and economics (e.g. foreign trade) and law (pp. 595-596). At the same time, teaching of English has become a private business in the big cities.

Though Hong Kong is a former colony of Great Britain, English is still used as official language. The number of English medium of instruction (EMI) schools in Hong Kong was with the ratio of 9:1 to the Chinese medium of instruction (CMI) schools in 1990s, and the textbooks, written work and examinations were in English. There were 70% of the schoolchildren were unable to cope with English as the medium of instruction and they were unable to communicate effectively in spoken English (p. 597). The government and business were not satisfied with the English proficiency of students. This was caused by a major problem i.e. lack of trained teachers because there was a mismatch between the supply and demand of English teachers (p. 599).

English symbolizes wealth and power in Hong Kong and it is the language of international communication, commerce, education and entertainment. English is also important for the students' career advancement, educational attainment and personal fulfillment (pp. 597-598).

In Japan, English is introduced as a compulsory subject, the Japanese government set the objective of 'to deepen students' understanding of language and culture through learning a foreign language and to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it' (p. 600). This showed the government stressed on the practical communication skills but it is rarely reflected at the classroom level.

However, English is the major concern in Korean government, business and education (p. 600). For those who were seeking for education or employment, many Korean universities and employers require minimum Test of English for International Communication and Test of English as a Foreign Language. The Korean government has adopted a policy of teaching English to encourage the use of English. However, the Korean families spent about one third of their income to send their children for English private lessons because many Korean English teachers did not have English language proficiency and they did not have the confidence to teach in English (p. 601).

Similar to Korean, Malaysian teachers' English language practice is far removed from the curriculum rhetoric i.e. a significant proportion of teachers in the rural areas also do not have sufficient command of English language to conduct their classes with confidence. Parents are arranging private English tuition for their children. English emerged as global language has impact on the national language – Malay and the deterioration in the standards of English is a major obstacle to the aspiration of Malaysia to be a developed country in 2020. English is now considered as a foreign language because of the success of national language policy. Code-switching is common in the specialist subject areas of medicine, architecture and engineering (p. 602).

Aiming to be one of the major economic global player, the English language teaching curriculum of Taiwan as targeted to prepare the students for a global perspective by instilling the basic communication skill of English. However the Taiwanese government's expectations are far above the school teachers may deliver. The trained teachers have difficulties with their English proficiency and teaching pedagogy. Furthermore the graduates also have low English proficiency (p. 603).

Vietnam has limited resources for English education. English has become a must for success in both studying and working for the students in Vietnam (pp. 604-605). This is because English not only may help the students and workers to gain scholarships to study abroad, English proficiency is also one of the most common requirements in jobs (p. 605). But the students have problem of using English for communication (p. 604).

The researcher concludes that the quality of English language education in the above mentioned countries was poor and only those students whose parents could afford to send them for private English classes may access to effective English language instruction (p. 605). Furthermore the teachers' education and the English language

skills of the teachers in public institutions are inadequate (p. 606), and these teachers are unable to provide rich input needed for successful foreign language acquisition (p. 607). Adequate exposure is needed by the learners of the seven mentioned countries to achieve consistent and measurable improvement in English (p. 608).

Therefore, the English teachers should have adequate training in English teaching methodology, have significant English language skills. Then the students will have sufficient exposure to English instruction contexts and the classroom realities (language use) will meet the curricular rhetoric (p. 610).

On the other hand, David, Cavallaro & Coluzzi (2009) conduct case studies to examine the impact of language policies on the maintenance and teaching of minority languages in four Southeast Asian countries: Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei and Philippines.

The researchers point out that the language policy in Malaysia which emphasises Malay as the national language and English, the most widespread international language has influenced some of the speech communities shifting away from their habitual use of their respective heritage languages specifically the Sindhis, Iyers, Malayaless, Punjabis, Bugis, Javanese, Portugese and the Jati Miriek (p. 161). These speech communities tend to learn Malay and English which they see the learning of these two languages may bring economic value to them. This is threatening the survival of the minority languages because these languages may alive and survive only if the language communities maintain the usage of the languages in the home domain (ditto).

In addition there are some converted Islam families practise the Islamic religion, shift their language use to Malay and have the Malay way of life. The children of these families taken Malay (Islamic) names and joined Islamic activities with their peers mostly Malay (p. 162). At the same time, language shift also happens to the young generation of Chinese community in Peninsular Malaysia. 95% of the Chinese children

attend the Chinese schools with Mandarin as the medium of instruction. Therefore their dialects are losing out to Mandarin (p. 162).

In Singapore, the Chinese young generations are also losing out of their dialects (pp. 164-166). As stated in the bilingual education policy which was implemented in 1956, English and Mandarin are the languages for the Chinese ethnicity - the English + 1 (Chua, 2012). All Singaporeans are expected to be competent in their mother tongue – Mandarin for Chinese, Malay for Malays and Tamil for Indians. However, in 1987, the Singapore government closed all Chinese-medium schools because of the threat of communism (Kirkpatrick, 2007 as cited in David et al, 2009, p. 163). Malay-medium schools were also closed due to the falling numbers of students (Pakir, 2004 as cited in David et al., 2009, p. 163).

Singaporean government's language policies have directly impacted the minority languages. Mandarin is taught as a second language and is not the medium of instruction at any level in schools, there is real concern whether Mandarin is being effectively maintained (p. 166). Tamil is use only in family activities such as prayers and when communicating with their relatives (pp. 166-167). Though Singaporean Malays have high ethnolinguistic vitality, code switching between Malay and English occurs in Malays' home domain (p. 168).

The impact of language policies on minority languages in Brunei is even worse. The minority languages including Mandarin do not have any space in public education. Mandarin is taught as a subject in only two private schools in the country but there is total absence for other minority languages though the language community of Ibans and Muruts would like their languages to be introduced in the schools (pp.169-170).

Similar to Singapore, The Philippines implemented the Bilingual Education Policy which emphasised on the teaching of English and Filipino in 1974. The local languages are taught as the transitional languages i.e. used for initial instruction and

early literacy from Grade 1 to Grade 3 in the primary schools. These languages are used mostly to explain the curriculum to students and are not used seriously as the media of instruction in schools (pp. 170-171). Therefore, the role of minority languages is diminishing (p. 173).

The School-based programs is the most popular approach practised by these four countries to revitalize the minority languages in their countries (pp. 174-182) and Malaysian and Philippine governments have attempts to preserve the minority languages in the school curriculum. It is deemed needed to give prestige and usefulness of the minority languages in these countries before these languages die.

Later, Tupas (2018) explored the language policies in Southeast Asia countries by focusing on two directions of reform efforts in the institutes: i) towards more English instruction (EMI) for internationalization and global competitiveness and ii) towards bilingual or multilingual education, language maintenance and educational equity. Tupas argues that language policy reform directions are mediated by the linguistic nationalism which endorses the use of singular national language/s as the official language and school languages. He also argues that towards more English instruction and bilingual or multilingual directions may alter the form and content of language policies in Southeast Asia countries (p. 150). This study also examines whether it is possible to mobilize English medium instruction and mother-tongue based education in bilingual or multilingual as a language policy reform.

In the postcolonial countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Brunei and the Philippines, English as a colonial language and language of industrialization and globalization served as contrasting discourses on English medium of instruction (p. 151). All countries in the region are reconfiguring their language policies to accommodate English as 'a tool for participating in the global economy' (Spring, 2008 as cited in Tupas, 2018, p. 151) and most institutions in the higher learning are opting

for English as their primary medium of instruction (p. 152). This is because the English-medium programs is able to generate more income by having more local and international student enrolment (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017 as cited in Tupas, 2018, p. 152). Furthermore, ASEAN has made English as its only official working language for better flow of knowledge and information between governments and people (p. 153).

Nonetheless, EMI is perceived as ill-designed because this policy disregard the local pedagogical ecologies and marginalized the heritage languages. The local languages are disenfranchised by EMI. Furthermore EMI is not only failed to account for language diversities but also failed to promote and perpetuate nationalism (p. 154). The postcolonial ideology entrenches language policy making in the region therefore this ideology privileging the most dominant language/s as 'national' language/s and the primary media of instruction in the schools. The linguistic nationalists against the teaching of English because they agree with EMI is obstructing the national language to unify the country and English is a threat to national identity building (Giordano, 2014 as cited in Tupas, 2018, p. 155). Thus, they against the teaching of English and protect the national language from the possibility of being displaced by EMI (p. 155).

However, the linguistic nationalists also against multilingual because they also agree that multilingual is a threat to national social harmony (ditto). The multilingual argues diversity is a resource and through mother tongues, the students are able to learn the content of education more efficiently. The marginalized and minoritized communities have suffered educational, cultural and socioeconomic injustice because they have been deprived of their right to education by using their mother tongues. In addition, the use of mother tongues addresses the basic and functional literacy needs of the students (p. 155).

Therefore, EMI and the national language (which is not the mother tongue of the students) are not the ideal media of instruction for the students, they do not use the two languages as their dominant language (pp. 155-156). But the use of mother tongues of the students in formal education has not significantly impacted the language policies implemented in Southeast Asia. For example in Mother Tongue-based Multilingual Education or MTB-MLE in Philippine, mother tongues of the students are used as the translanguage for classroom level. Students' mother tongues are used as the media of instruction only for kindergarten to Grade 3 (Parba, 2018, p. 32).

EMI is a growing global phenomenon in all levels of education and the authorities believe that the children need the proficiency in English and the national language for the children to integrate into the mainstream of society (pp. 157-158) but teaching children in their mother tongues may assist the children to receive a good foundation in education (p. 157). Therefore, this is a great challenge for the policy makers to formulate concrete language policy directions which stipulates the roles of each language in educational system (p. 159). The researcher suggests both EMI and multilingual should complement one another so that the language policies will unite but will not divide people.

There are more studies on language policies implemented in Asian countries of Singapore, Japan, Philippines and Vietnam in the following section.

a) Singapore

i) Chua (2012) examines the Singapore bilingual language policy which was introduced in 1966. The bilingual language policy comprised English and one of the official mother tongues depending on one's ethnicity or is called as English + 1 (p. 23).

The researcher compares how the socio-economic, cultural and political situations influenced the formation of government policies in Singapore, Bangladesh, Brunei Darussalam and Malaysia. She finds that the language policy of Singapore was

dominated by economics but Malaysia was based on the relationship between races (Hashim, 2009 as cited in Chua, 2012, p. 26).

English has the status as first language and becomes a universal requirement in education system in Singapore but English has the status as foreign language or second language in Malaysia, Brunei and Bangladesh (Chua, 2012, pp. 25-27).

The Singaporean government implemented a large-scale of holistic approach to ensure the amount of time and exposure to English for the students is maximized inside and outside the schools. The government has chosen English as the language to unite all Singaporeans. In Singapore, education is a means to train a workforce and to build a stable society and national identity. English is considered to be able to provide equal opportunity for Singaporeans to learn and to be excel because English is 'neutral' to any ethnic group in the country (p. 23). Therefore, regulations are enforced to make sure the government bodies use English as the main medium of instruction (Chua, 2012, pp. 24-26). English was taught as the first language in all Singaporean schools in 1985 and there were only English-medium schools for all primary 1 enrolments in 1987 (Chua, 2012, p. 25).

Malay is the national language of Malaysia and Brunei Darussalam and Bangla is the national language of Bangladesh. Chua (2012) finds English proficiency level of Malaysian students is compromised because of inconsistency of language planning (shuttling between English and Malay as medium of instruction), Bruneian students struggle to learn English (English is used as foreign language to most of the Bruneians), half of the Bangladesh does not access to English (inadequate infrastructure and English teaching training programme resulted ineffective language planning) (pp. 26-27).

Chua concluded the bilingual language policy of Singapore showed the operation of language planning of bilingual language policy is different from the usage of the languages by the Singaporeans (p. 38). Globalisation and diversification attracted

new migrants into Singapore. The foreign students from Burma, Korea and Vietnam do not have English as first language.

In addition, the parents in Singapore use more English and led to a reduction in the use of the cultural languages. The young children are learning Singlish instead of Standard English as their first language. The 'English+1' bilingual language policy has resembled to 'English+Singlish+1/1' where 1/1 refers to other new immigrant languages in addition to the three designated mother tongues which are Malay, Mandarin and Tamil because Singapore continued to open its door to more migrants.

b) Japan

Rose and McKinley (2018) examine Japan's English medium of instruction language policies which were designed by Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) to enhance the international compatibility and competitiveness of higher education in Japan (p.112).

The study is conducted to find the differences between TGUP or the Top Global University Project and the other three projects named the Global 30 project, Re-inventing Japan project and Go Global Japan Project.

The above mentioned four projects are built for internationalizing Japanese universities (p. 112). The TGUP project is designed to 'enhance the international compatibility of higher education in Japan and to provide prioritized support for the world-class and innovative universities that lead the internationalization of Japanese universities'. There are 13 'Top Type' universities having the potential to become top 100 ranked world universities and 24 'Global Traction Type' or the innovative universities which can lead the internationalization of Japanese society in the TGUP project.

Global 30 project was launched in 2009 for the purpose of increasing the number of international students and academic staff in Japan in 13 Japanese universities

through establishing English-medium programmes. The local Japanese students were not allowed to apply for the English-medium programmes. The practicality of this project was criticized because the Japanese students were excluded in some universities such as Kyoto University, therefore, the international students did not have the opportunities to learn Japanese language and culture. At the same time, the Japanese local students faced problem of language deficit to study the English-medium courses (p. 118).

In 2011, MEXT introduced the Re-inventing Japan project which focus on two-way student mobility and the need of global human resources. Collaborative relationships with strategic universities around the world was established. This project also highlighted the importance of English proficiency among the Japanese local students to study abroad (pp. 118-119).

The Go Global Japan project launched in 2012 also focused on the internationalization of Japanese students through outbound mobility i.e. to increase the number of Japanese students to study abroad. However, this project did not specifically call for establishment of English-medium instruction programme but it emphasized on internationalizing the universities and the programs in the universities (p. 119).

After the Global 30, the Re-inventing Japan and the Go Global Japan projects, TGUP emphasis on i) the inbound mobility flows of international students by increasing the number of international students and staff in Japanese university campuses and ii) the outbound mobility by increasing the number of Japanese students to study abroad (p. 120). It targets English language skills development of students in both international and local market.

Though TGUP is at the early stage of implementation and is impossible to evaluate the implementation of the project in forms of curriculum and classroom practices. The study finds TGUP prioritizing integration of Japanese universities into

global market and highlighting the importance of language education. These universities put internationalization as a means to integrate their university into the global field and to create global human resources (their graduates) (pp. 125-126).

There are some universities explicitly discussed the role of English in internationalization plan in TGUP comparing with the other three projects (p. 125). Since TGUP allows the universities to have their own initiatives to internationalize in different ways, different models of internationalization are formed.

c) Philippines

Tupas (2009) discusses three ways of engagement of language policy in landscape of politics of language, education and social development in Philippines (p. 24). The study aims to study language policy through:

i) engaging with the language policy to discuss whether English and/or Filipino should be used as the medium of instruction, and Filipino as the national language of the country. Tupas found out that it is the politicians who create laws. Public debates on language policy are crucial because the debates are able to reflect and change people's sentiments on the policy (p. 27);

ii) re-engaging the language policy to study the role of mother tongues in Philippine education. There are two opposing bills in the country – the 'English-only' Medium of instruction Bill supports English to be used as the medium of instruction from elementary grades to the tertiary level. The pro-English use 'globalization' as the main rationale for the sole use of English as medium of instruction (p. 26).

The other bill is the Multilingual Education and Literacy Bill which proposes to use mother tongues as the medium of instruction from pre-school to elementary school, then English and Filipino are to be introduced to the students when the foundations are put in place (p. 27). Nolasco agrees that when the mother tongue is used as the medium of instruction, the students become a better thinkers and better learners in their first and

second languages (2009 as cited in Tupas, 2009, p. 30). Re-engaging language policy in the country by using empirical evidence shows cognitive advantages of using local languages as media of instruction (p. 30);

iii) disengaging from language policy with the social development framework.

The language policy can and should emerge from realities on the needs and aspirations of the local communities (p. 24). Education is linked with community development and education is looked as the support for social development of communities (p. 30). The Comprehensive Education and Community Development or CECD is a comprehensive education framework that integrates the development needs of a community (ditto). This framework is designed to address the problem of education and the problem of community development. At the same time, it is necessary to develop an educational curriculum that take into account of development needs of the community and the local cultures are the sources of knowledge (p. 31).

Language not only becomes part of education, it is also part of development problem. The problem of language is the basic problem needs to be solved. Though language is the critical component in academic performance but language is the ultimate problem of development. However by using local languages in education not only helping the children learn faster than using unfamiliar languages such as English or Filipino, the local developments needs of the people require their local languages to be used is also fulfilled (p. 33).

Therefore to disengage language policy to transform education on the ground makes the language policy be more useful and fair from the point of view of the people (p. 33).

Parba (2018) then examines the language ideology of the elementary school teachers and their teaching practice when they implement the new language policy named Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (henceforth MTB-MLE) started in

2012. The researcher also investigates the challenges faced by the teachers when they implement the MTB-MLE policy (p. 27).

MTB-MLE policy is promulgated as a result of Walter & Dekker (2011) highlighted the importance of using mother tongues of the children as media of instruction in education (p. 28). MTB-MLE is different from Bilingual Education policy (BE). BE emphasis the use of English and Filipino as the media of instruction and has positioned the students at a disadvantage in their study (p. 27) specifically in the subject of Mathematics. 12 major languages which cover about 85% of the Philippines population are specified by the DepEd to be used as the media of instruction in the classroom in MTB-MLE (p. 29).

Bilingual Education policy which privileging English and Filipino as the media of instruction has resulted the Filipinos believe that these two languages are more valuable than their mother tongues (L1s). These languages are seen as the languages of intellectuals, languages for success. At the same time, local languages (L1s) are perceived as backward and unimportant or the persons who speak local languages are inferior (ditto). Therefore the negligence of the policymakers to promote regional and indigenous languages was raised by the minority language users (p. 28).

MTB-MLE is executed in using students' L1 or the predominantly spoken language in the community as medium of instruction for all subjects in the elementary schools from the levels of kindergarten to grade 3, English and Filipino are taught as separate subjects (ditto).

In grade 1, the subjects such as Social Studies, Mathematics and Music are taught in students' L1 throughout the academic year. Filipino is introduced during the second quarter and English is introduced during the third quarter of the academic year (ditto).

This ethnographic study is conducted at the Green Valley Elementary School (or GVES) in the Province of Bukidnon in Northern Mindanao. Two kindergarten teachers and seven teachers who teach grades 1 to 3 serve as the participants of the study. Audio-recorded semi-structured interview sessions with the school principal and teachers are conducted. Data of teacher survey, classroom observation notes, audio-recorded interviews, students' textbooks and teachers' guides and ethnographic notes are taken and studied (p. 30).

The study found out that there is a shift of language ideologies and classroom practices in GVES where the teachers had some unfavourable attitudes towards MTB-MLW during the initial years of implementation. The teachers resisted against the MTB-MLW because they believed that English could bring economic benefits and have the potential to make the children become skilled workers in the future. They also believed that Cebuano was no longer important and the children already learnt Cebuano at home (p. 31). Therefore, the teacher think MTB-MLW is a redundant policy.

However before the implementation of MTB-MLW, the teachers switched their teaching content to students L1 when their students do not understand because of language barriers during the bilingual education policy. This deduced the teachers agree that their students can understand faster and find the lessons engaging in the students' L1 (p. 31).

Therefore, when implementing MTB-MLW, the teachers agreed with the use of students' L1 in teaching the content is practical i.e. their students responded more positively and able to learn faster and pedagogically effective. This save time and efficient (ditto). The teachers found teaching reading in Cebuano became simpler because the words in the reading materials were familiar to the children (p. 32).

On the other hand, the implementation of MTB-MLW unconsciously promotes translanguaging. This is because there is bilingual texts in the MTB-MLW textbooks.

English words are not only used in the textbooks for the mother tongue lesson to introduce the L1 vocabulary but also used to explain the concept. The researcher argues that the purpose of having bilingual textbooks is to promote translanguageing by acknowledging the multilingual abilities and identities of the students (pp. 32-33).

At the same time, translanguageing is practised by the teachers during the lessons. The teachers use positive feedback in English to motivate their students. This showed the teachers and students used their rich linguistic repertoires (English and L1) to teach and to learn. This helps the students gained deeper and fuller understanding of the lessons (p. 33).

The researcher finds the teachers are facing the challenge of lack of adequate teachers' guide and students' textbooks. There are textbooks showed variety of Cebuano in the form of lexical items. There are lexical items which are not used in GVES and the complex words found in the textbooks are not appropriate to the young learners (ditto). At the same time, the English-only ideology is also one of the challenges faced by the teachers when implementing MTB-MLE. The teachers penalized their students for using L1 in the ESL lessons when the students promoted to grade 4 to 6, and the teachers attempted to implement English-only policy in the classroom.

The researcher suggests teachers, parents and students need to be engaged in ideological conversations on multilingual education and multilingualism. This may make them realize that teaching their mother tongues goes beyond recognizing local knowledge and culture and legitimizing their identities (ditto).

The researcher also highlights the importance of looking at language policies at the ground level because this may give more information about how the language policies are implemented and negotiated in the classroom. By looking at the ground level also may inform the policymakers on the importance of involving the local

community - schools, teachers and students in language planning and the policymaking processes (p. 34).

d) Vietnam

Phan Thi Thanh Hang (2009) discusses the changes of Vietnamese learners' attitudes towards foreign language learning and the impact of foreign languages on politic, socio-culture and economy of Vietnam.

Mandarin and French were the first two foreign languages in Vietnam (p. 170). Mandarin was brought to Vietnam by China for the attempt to integrate Vietnam as China's territory. Mandarin was important in Vietnamese education during the Vietnamese feudal dynasties (p. 171) and it was used in the political and socio-cultural contexts such as the official language in administration, ritual and academic activities and literature (pp. 170-171).

Meanwhile, French was also taught in schools and universities in Vietnam during French colonialism (1859-1954). However, only the French competent intellectuals enjoyed the beneficiaries and they believed with French culture and ideologies would build a modern Vietnam (p. 171).

Different from Mandarin and French, Russian was introduced to Vietnamese because of political friendship and alliance instead of colonialism (p. 172). From 1975, Russian became the most important foreign language taught in Vietnam's schools and universities. Up to 60% of the learners in the high schools learned Russian (Denham as cited in Phan Thi Thanh Hang, 2009, p. 172).

On the other hand, English became the popular foreign language in southern Vietnam between the years of 1958 to 1968 because of socio-economical needs (p. 173). It was incorporated in the school curriculum in 1971 (Denham as cited in Phan Thi Thanh Hang, 2009, p. 172).

The implementation of doi moi or renovation in Vietnam influenced the Vietnamese foreign language learning. The learning of foreign language specifically English was targeted as a means to achieve the aims of globalization, industrialization and integration (p. 174). The learners were encouraged to learn at least one of the four foreign languages starting from their primary education. Furthermore, extra points were awarded to the learners if they achieve good results in a second foreign language (ditto). The Vietnam government appreciated the learning of Russian, Mandarin, French and English because of trade and investment from Russia, China and France. The Vietnamese who were competent in these three languages would be able to find a good job in Chinese, Russian or French companies (pp. 174-175). Those Vietnamese who had high level of competence of the three foreign languages could receive scientific and technological knowledge exchange from those three countries (p. 174) or they were granted with scholarships to study in those countries.

Besides the three foreign languages, English became popular in political, economic and socio-cultural aspects in Vietnam (p. 175). The Vietnamese learners changed their attitudes towards learning English and they appreciated English because they believed 'English will bring Vietnam into the world and bring the world to Vietnam'. Therefore, being competent in English would enhance the Vietnamese to be success in diplomatic, economic and trade, science and technology (p. 176).

In addition, the Vietnamese government believed that English would ascertain employment opportunities in Vietnam local and international labour markets, and the sectors of high paying jobs. The Vietnam labours could earn higher salaries than in the traditional markets if they worked in foreign countries with the ability to communicate in English. By having 4.5 IELTS points, they may get the Australian visa entry (Nguyen Luong Trao as cited in Phan Thi Thanh Hang, 2009, p. 177). According to the rules and laws in the countries such as Malaysia, Korea or Middle East, the foreign

workers were required to be proficient in either English or another local language in the countries such as Malay in Malaysia, Korean in Korea and Arabic in Middle East (p. 177). Therefore, Vietnam workforce-suppliers would provide language training - English to workers so that they have advance skills and good language proficiency. This could increase the competitiveness of their workers in the international labour markets (p. 178).

In addition, English proficiency was important for employment and study in the country or overseas (pp. 178-179). Mastering English is required for the applicants to find a job in the foreign companies or the joint ventures in Vietnam especially for the positions of secretaries or engineers (p. 178). English competence was the prerequisite for visa and entrance for foreign universities (p. 180).

Due to the importance of English, the Vietnamese government has introduced a foreign language policy – English in the primary schools by only emphasising the teaching of speaking and listening skills to the learners. The learners are required to be able to communicate and do simple research in English when they are in the high school level. But the graduates were criticised because they did not have the ability to communicate in English.

The researcher suggested the government to design language policies that could motivate the Vietnamese learners to study foreign language specifically English. The researcher also suggested that having the ability to communicate in English should be formulated as one of the graduation requirements (p. 181). Furthermore the teachers should aware of the attitudes of the Vietnamese learners towards the learning of foreign languages so that they can design the appropriate teaching strategies to encourage their students in learning the languages (p. 183).

Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen (2012) examine the implementation of English language policy in primary schools in Vietnam (p. 121). The researcher applied case study

method to examine the pilot EFL policy which was implemented in two primary schools - one private school and one public school, in Hanoi (p. 131). Data were collected through classroom observations, focus group interviews conducted with teachers, principal (public school), EFL advisor (private school) and classroom observations in both schools (pp. 131-132). Kaplan & Baldauf's framework and description of language-in-education planning policy goals (2003, 2005) was drawn to examine the implementation of new English policy in Vietnam.

The participants of both schools agreed with the necessity and importance of English language policy i.e. to teach English in the primary schools because of the demand from parents and the benefits of learning English (p. 132). However the study found only those more privileged families who send their children to private schools were able to meet their needs because the private school provided better outcome in implementing the English language policy (p. 121).

Teaching of English was introduced differently in both schools. The public school started introducing English to their Grade 3 students but the private school to their Grade 1 students (p. 132). This showed inconsistency of the provision of English education and might lead to inequalities in education (p. 139). The public school claimed to have not enough encouragement and support for the English teaching from the government but teachers of private school claimed that most of their parents wanted their child to study abroad in the future (p. 132). Therefore teachers of private school saw the importance of quality English education to their students (p. 139).

The advisor of private school agreed that his English teachers had a degree in EFL teaching and with high proficiency in the language (p. 133). On the other hand, the English teachers of public school were also had degree in teaching English but the principal did not examine his teachers' English proficiency. Nonetheless, the English teachers of both schools were not trained to teach English in the primary level (pp. 133-

134). Therefore shortage of qualified English teachers is a serious problem in many Asian countries including Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, Malaysia and Vietnam (p. 139).

Though the English teachers of both types of schools agreed that they need more opportunities to attend the methodology workshops or the in-service education for teachers (INSET) organized by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) (p. 134), the teachers of public schools were not motivated to attend the workshops organized by MOET because the courses were not well-organized. On the other hand, teachers of the private schools attended the textbook workshop which was short and focused (ditto). The researcher suggested that though high quality, well-structured training opportunities was limited, the teachers should collaborate and support each other and the schools should create opportunities for their teachers to observe and engage in professional development activities through in-house resources (p. 140).

The study also found different teaching methods and textbooks were used by the English teachers from both types of schools. The teachers of the public schools practised traditional EFL audio-lingual methodology and present-practise-produce method by limiting the students' interaction and communication during their teaching (p. 135), they agreed that they followed strictly to the textbooks they were using though the content was difficult (p. 136). On the other hand, the teachers of private schools built their students' confidence in communicating in English by focusing on oral and listening skills during their teaching (p. 135). They also used a more child friendly textbook, internet and supporting teaching aids during their teaching (p. 136). This is important as debated by Kaplan & Baldauf that the 'language-in-education planning must select an appropriate methodology, must guarantee the materials are consonant with the methodology and the expectations of teachers (1997, p. 134).

This study unveiled the importance of the quality of the teachers, resources (textbook and curriculum), resource provision (training) and the consistency in implementation of policy in making the policy a reality.

As discussed in previous chapter, language policies are designed and implemented for different purposes such as for corpus planning, status planning, and acquisition planning for a language/s or for problem-solving by the authority/ies in a language community. To enhance ‘globalization’ and ‘internationalization’ and so forth, policy of English medium of instruction or EMI is implemented in Asia countries

The previous studies on language policies implemented in Asia countries many challenges unveiled. There are overt challenges related to the ground – the teachers and students, insufficient resources available in the market or provided by the authorities, gaps between language practice and the designed curriculum rhetoric and the challenges faced by the multilingual because of hegemony of English and national language. These challenges could be grouped into three individual but interrelated components of 1) language practice, 2) language ideology and 3) language management in Spolsky’s theory of language management (2009).

There are a few studies unveiled some countries are lack of trained English teachers, the English teachers in the schools lack of English proficiency or confidence to teach in English in the classroom (Nunan, 2003; Chua, 2012; Phan Thi Thanh Hang, 2009; Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen, 2012). On the other hand, the students/people have insufficient exposure to English and not proficient English specifically to communicate in English (Nunan, 2003; Chua, 2012; Rose & McKinley, 2018). These are the challenges of language practice or language choice.

Besides quality, the teachers are insufficient with quality teaching resources (Parba, 2018; Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen, 2012). The language practice of the language learners (students or graduates) does not reflect the outcome of the designed curriculum

rhetoric. In order to solve these challenges, the language management or language policies needed to be reviewed.

Nonetheless, implementation of EMI and national language policy in Asia countries are threatening the maintenance and revival of mother tongues and the indigenous languages (David et al., 2009; Tupas, 2018; Chua, 2012; Tupas, 2009; Parba, 2018). The teachers and parents prioritize the importance of English and national language in globalization, internationalization and integration. These are the challenges of language ideology of the language users in the language community.

After reviewing the studies on language policy in Asian countries, the studies on language policy in Malaysia are discussed in detail in the next section.

2.3 Previous studies on language policy in Malaysia

In countries where curriculum policies are centralized and where the authority of making policies lies with the Ministry of Education, many of these policies developed are mainly top-down where the base community, that is, people who would be affected by the policies, are hardly ever consulted for their views or opinions (Baldauf, Kaplan & Kamwangamalu, 2010, p. 435). This system of administration undeniably prevents the community, who are the people affected by such policies, from actively participating in decision making. Moreover, such kinds of administrative systems also function in ways where all decisions and policies made are determined by the politicians who are in power. In most cases, such politicians are seldom in the field of education, hence their decisions are either irrelevant or impractical. As laymen to education needs and desires, these politicians may know extremely little about the issues involved in education and thus their decisions about education are rarely related to education improvement but more as a reflection of their preferences, beliefs or values. Consequently, those parties who are really involved with educational issues are not consulted and so decisions made

are often impractical, irrelevant or overambitious. Since many other factors have not been taken into consideration when such decisions were made, such policies seldom work and are most often criticized. Being the first level of people involved in education, teachers, parents, students as well as the administrators do not seem to have any say in any of the centralized decisions made by the Ministry of Education. Hence, when policies are implemented at the school or institution level, principals, teachers and students are all at a loss when they are made to adhere to such policies blindly. In the Malaysian context, such an administrative system of affairs has been going on for a while and this, therefore, often made many teachers feel that they are like pawns; they are consistently made to obey all these directives from the executive authorities (Abd Rahim, 2002, p. 66) who have no say at all as to how education can be upgraded through certain policies.

In one of her articles, Gill (2005, p. 242) notes that Ho & Wong (2000) had also indicated that “language policy making and language-in-education planning, should be dealt with as two interrelated activities” and not by one sole party. Gill used the example of Ho & Wong (2000) to illustrate that policies are often formulated, adopted and then implemented primarily for education purposes, but not necessarily with willingness by the parties at stake. Thus, she suggested that such policies must not only be formulated but also be seen to be carried out. This is further emphasised by Kaplan & Baldauf (1997, p. 122) who note that “language planning is broadly a function of the government since it must penetrate many sectors of society”. They add that “language-in-education planning, on the contrary, affects only one sector of the society, the education sector” (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, p. 122). Gill (2005, p. 243) then notes that in the Malaysian context, the government “has a strong hold on education: any major change in language policy has always needed approval at the government level”.

Furthermore with reference to the definition of Kaplan & Baldauf (1997), language policy refers to the body of ideas, laws and regulations, change rules, beliefs and practices for achieving a planned change or stopping from change in language use among a or more communities (p. 3). This mean the language policy is the designed planning to change or stop from changing the language ideology and language use of the language users. But in the Malaysian context, the change of medium of instruction in the universities and, subsequently, in schools in 2002 (the *PPSMI*) should not be regarded as a change in language policy because this did not depend on legislative actions (Gill, 2005). When compared to Spolsky (2004), however, it appears that there is some controversy. For instance, Gill (2005, p. 242) notes that Spolsky (2004, p.8) had claimed that “language policy exists even where it has not been made explicit or established by authority”. This may apply to certain countries and institutions as well as certain communities which implement their own language policies according to what is needed based on their way of life. Thus, there are no written or formal documentations of such language policies as may happen in a particular school where a principal implements a policy so as to encourage the students to be proficient in a particular language. Thus, the language policy may have been derived from a study of their language practice or beliefs (see Gill, 2005, p. 243).

Arguably, language policy is not just about the top-down official decisions made about the language. It is also about the implicit and unofficial ideas derived from the value of a language within a particular culture (Schiffman, 2006 as cited in Farr & Song, 2011, p. 650). The negotiation between the top-down and bottom-up processes in the implementation of a language policy is common and necessary in adjusting the policies for the different parts of society and groups of people (Farr & Song, 2011, p. 655).

When the language education policies conflict with research findings about language learning, then bottom-up initiatives can sometimes put pressure on the government to alter the policy (Farr & Song, 2011, p. 659). This implies that language policies should not be taken wholesale by the stakeholders, but rather they need to voice out their opinions. Renou (1998) also mentions that learners' motivation must be respected (1998, p. 15) for without it, no matter how ideal a language policy may be, it serves no purpose to those who really need it the most. In other words, language policy necessitates a bottom-up approach which can offer a more effective alternative for the government as well as meet the needs of the people who are most affected by it.

As posited by Spolsky (2004, p. 8), 'the nature of the language policy must be derived from a study of language practices or beliefs'. However, in reality, the individuals' language practices may differ from what they think. In this regard, language ideologies among the respective individuals, particularly in a multilingual community where more than one language is commonly used, may sometimes be in conflict (Spolsky, 2004, p. 217). Given that kind of scenario, it would seem that the roles played by language policy stakeholders can be extremely important. Therefore, these roles of the stakeholders must be taken into serious consideration by the government when developing language policies so as to make the implementation more likely to succeed.

Based on the arguments of Ho & Wong (2000), Spolsky (2004) and Gill (2005), the current study also holds the view that a bottom-up approach that comes from the perspectives of the grassroots, i.e. the educational stakeholders is necessary. Due to lack of research, the gap thus warrants empirical investigation. Conducting a study of this nature can ensure the way forward for the successful formulation and implementation of educational language policies in Malaysia. With specific reference to the issue of educational language policies, this study will be using Spolsky's (2004, 2009) theory of language management as a framework to examine the relationship linking language

ideology and language practice in the context of Malaysian school teachers and students. Specifically, it will also use Spolsky's (2004) theory to study the influence of language management on language ideology and language practice. The context being studied involves three types of Malaysian secondary schools. Based on this, it is thus deduced that the educational language stakeholder's perspectives, as those who are currently facing the immediate impact of the implementation of the promulgated educational language policies, would be of utmost importance to anticipate how language ideologies are viewed and how language management is balanced through their language practices.

Studies focusing on the language policies implemented in Malaysia come from various perspectives, that is, from the implementers, the users and the outsiders who view the implementation. Specifically focusing on the language policy implemented by the Malaysian government in 2002, Gill (2005) focused on the reasons that had made the government reverse the language policy made by the government when implementing the *PPSMI* in 2003. The challenges of globalisation, knowledge economy society and knowledge and information explosion were the reasons behind the change of medium of instruction from Malay to English. The government urgently needed to ensure the country possessed human resources with language capacity and were a knowledge-based economy workforce. The researcher suggested that it was important for the government to stress the critical need of how national identity and global competitiveness could co-exist in the context of education. Then a model which comprised the opportunities such as for economic development and well-being of the people and language empowerment methods or language choice for the use of Malay or English at different levels – international, national or even the sub-national level was suggested to be developed and implemented. An effective management was stressed as suggested by Atal (2003 as cited in Gill 2005, p. 258) rather than becoming futile

attempts.

Gill also looked at the impact of the change of medium of instruction reversal and the conflict of the change in mother-tongue education (2007). The Chinese educationists were very unhappy with the change of medium of instruction of Mathematics and Science from Mandarin (the mother-tongue of the Chinese community) to English, and argued that using the mother-tongue helped the students to access knowledge and information better. Language policy conflict occurred as the Chinese community's concern was that the change of medium of instruction may erase the Chinese makeup of the schools and transform the Chinese vernacular schools into English medium schools. The Chinese politicians reflected this reluctance and upheld that the teaching of Science and Mathematics in Chinese primary schools should mainly be in the mother tongue and the need of maintaining the Chinese identity should be manifest through mother-tongue education. The policy conflict was compromised by having 243 (Teaching of two hours of English, four hours of Mathematics by using English as medium of instruction and three hours of Science by using English as medium of instruction per week in the lower primary) (p. 117) and 6232 (For the teaching of Mathematics, six hours using Mandarin as medium of instruction and two hours using English as medium of instruction. For the teaching of Science will be 3 hours in Mandarin as medium of instruction and two hours using English as medium of instruction per week in the upper primary) (p. 118) formulas for maintaining Mandarin as dominant medium of instruction. The researcher also drew out the Chinese educationists were unhappy with the change of medium of instruction because this is government's politic agenda was to eliminate the Chinese-medium school by implementing the language policy.

Then turning their attention on the perspectives of government authorities, universities and societies (parents and students) at the tertiary level, especially at the

National University of Malaysia (*Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, UKM*) and the University of Technology Tuanku Abdul Rahman (*Universiti Teknologi Tuanku Abdul Rahman, UTTAR*), Gill (2006) and Nor Liza (2013) also attempt to unravel the expectations and realities of the implementation of the policy. Their studies noted that there were other factors involved such as giving clear directions for the *PPSMI* implementation. Apparently, in its haste to bridge the gap of students' weak mastery of English with conducting Science and Mathematics in English, the government had created chaos and confusion. English was not explicitly stated to be used as the medium of instruction in the examined documents at the macro level (the National Higher Education Action Plan 2007-2010 of Ministry of Higher Education of Malaysia). Though the documents at the meso level (*UTTAR*) explicitly stated that Malay should be the medium of instruction, the academicians were given the language choice in the classroom and English as medium of instruction was indirectly referred to. However in the context of *UKM*, no documented ownership of medium of instruction change provided from the macro level because the government did not want to be involved in academic exercises and to minimize reasoning and polemics from the Malay intellectual (Gill, 2006, p. 89). Therefore the language policy instructions were given only in oral form via the Ministry of Higher Education. At the meso level (*UKM*), the outcome of senate meetings initially decided to have a minimum of 30 percent of the content of first year courses in science and technology disciplines were taught in English in academic year of 2005 and English would gradually be used up to 100 percent in academic year of 2008. The parents were unhappy with the medium of instruction revert to Malay because the students enrolled in the academic year of 2005 studied the subjects science and technology in English. Clear direction of using 100 percent of English in year one science and technology courses were to be implemented starting academic year of 2005 was given from the Minister of Higher Education. The implementation of English-

medium of instruction in tertiary level was demotivated by not having clear direction from the authority.

Other scholars followed suit by studying the same issue and so Faizah, Marzilah & Kamaruzaman (2011) attempt to address what the main issue of the policy implementation involved. They find the student respondents' academic performance in Science and Mathematics subjects deteriorated. The students also found it difficult to learn these subjects in English. The students lacked fluency in English and the limitations in English of the teachers were the causes of the students' difficulty in learning the subjects in English. The student respondents on the other hand said that they enjoyed their learning of these subjects in English.

The researchers suggested the *PPSMI* policy should be abolished though the researchers felt that the findings were insufficient. The findings could not be used for generalisation because the study was carried out by administering just 44 questionnaires in one of the Malaysian secondary schools.

In an earlier study, Nor Liza (2011) looked into the outcome of the *PPSMI* policy implemented in primary, secondary and tertiary levels through interview sessions with the stakeholders. The study found that:

- a) The success of *PPSMI* policy depended on teachers in the school level but the Science and Mathematics subject teachers of the targeted school had problems in conducting the teaching in English; the teachers were unable to teach in English because they were from Malay-medium university.
- b) The implementation of *PPSMI* policy did not improve the students' confidence in speaking English even when the students had excellent result (score A) in the *SPM* examination. The classroom setting did not provide sufficient opportunity for English oral language practice to students.

c) The lecturers had to use English and Malay as medium of instruction in the university because the schools did not produce the expected outcomes - prepare the students for English-medium of instruction at university level. This became a burden to the university.

In another study, Asri, Esa, Shamsaadil & Atim (2011) evaluated the *PPSMI* policy from the views of 23 school headmasters who were undergoing the Graduate Program (Management) at University of Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia. The headmasters agreed that the students would be able to understand in Science and Mathematics more effectively by using Malay or the students' mother tongue. The implementation of *PPSMI* policy did not improve the students' mastery of English but increased the academic achievement gap among students. Based on the outcomes, the researchers proposed two languages: Malay and English to be used for the teaching and learning of Science and Mathematics.

Based on their findings, they concluded that students' attitude or ideology towards English, as well as their level of language practice of English in their schools, could have been a contributing factor that resulted in the abolishment of *PPSMI*.

Comparing the Limited English Proficiency (LEP) of students who were involved in the *PPSMI* curriculum with the non-LEP Year four pupils, Sopia et. al. (2009) used an instrument called PATSIE (Perceptions and Attitudes towards the Teaching of Science in English) to measure students' perceptions towards the *PPSMI* policy. The authors discovered that learners' attitude is a challenge but when this attitude of the students are combined with their limited proficiency in English, it compounded the problem even more whereby the students increasingly lost interest in the two subjects because of the language. Consequently, they concluded that students' interest needed to be considered if the government was serious about the successful implementation of the *PPSMI* language policy. The authors also noted that the students'

psychological barriers to practice English could be overcome by creating a non-threatening and conducive English language practice environment within the school. Conducive environment could affect the students' perceptions, too, and more importantly, could influence how students feel about learning.

Comparing the governments' language policy plans of two countries: Malaysia and the Philippines, Dumanig et al. (2012) examined the impact of top-down language planning policy. They focused on comparing the role of the languages of Malay and English as the media of instruction in the Malaysian and Philippines's educational system. They found that there was a competing role between English and the national languages of these two countries - Malay in Malaysia and Filipino in the Philippines, although English is one of the two official languages of the Philippines and the de facto second language in Malaysia. Apparently, this attitude of loyalty towards the respective languages of the two countries had caused the imbalance between the language policy and language practice of the stakeholders. In the Philippines, although English is considered an official language, it appears that the speakers' loyalty towards Filipino was at odds with what was practiced. The speakers observed Filipino as the communication language, the medium of instruction in schools and tertiary institutions as well as the official language of the country while English was observed as an auxiliary official language, as stated under Section 7 of the Philippines Constitution. In Malaysia, Malay serves as the national language as stated in Article 152 of the Malaysian Constitution but English needs to be learnt from a very young age at school because it is the second most important language in the country. In the Philippines, English is widely used and preferred in campuses thus it serves as the language of prestige. In the Philippines, anyone with a mastery of English has a better opportunity to secure a job and so it facilitates the individual's economic advancement. In the Philippines, the revival of the people's mother tongue or a 'local' language such as

Filipino as the media of instruction was for the purpose of enabling the country to achieve the goal of Education for All so that even those who speak little English have the same opportunity to get an education.

However, in the Malaysian context, Malay was implemented in the middle of the 1970s as the medium of instruction for all levels of education which encompasses schools and institutions. The students would be rewarded the *SPM* certificate by having a pass in Malay. Completely Malay-based institutions were set up.

Malay and English continued to be taught and learnt but the lack of importance placed on English grades or passing marks for important or major public examinations had somehow caused students' lackadaisical interest in the language. Hence, over the years, despite the ongoing teaching and learning of the language, students' English proficiency had begun to deteriorate until it has reached today's level. Since the school's students' poor command of the language can spill over into their tertiary education, the students' lack of English proficiency continues to deteriorate. Until a few years ago, reports began to mushroom all over the media when it was highlighted that many local graduates were unable to secure employment because of their poor English language proficiency. It also appears that employers were reluctant to hire graduates from local universities which used Malay as the medium of instruction (Dumanig et. al, 2012, p. 112). Based on these claims, it is important for the stakeholders to conduct a re-examination of the top-down language policy implemented by the authorities.

Muriatul & Ting (2015) investigate Malaysian university students' perceptions of salient ethnic identity and national identity markers. 200 students from two Malaysian public universities answered a questionnaire. The participants were from four ethnic groups: Malay, Chinese, Indian and Sabah and Sarawak indigenous.

The study found that the participants from all the four ethnic groups agree with language is the most salient ethnic identity marker (p. 15). At the same time, culture

which refers to the way of life, customs and traditions is the second most important ethnic symbol for the participants from the ethnicities of Malay, Chinese and Sabah and Sarawak indigenous but not the Indian participants.

As mentioned in David et al. (2009), there are converted Islam families practice Islamic religion and they shift their language use to Malay. In Malaysian Federal Constitution, a Malay is defined as an individual who speaks Malay and is a Muslim. Therefore, it is not surprised that language, culture and religion were perceived as three most salient ethnic identity markers by the Malays (Muriatul & Ting, 2015, p. 17). However, be able to speak Mandarin, live in a Chinese lifestyle (culture) and have a Chinese physical appearance are the salient ethnic identity marker for the Chinese participants (pp. 16-17)

The Indian participants' have different order of salient ethnic identity markers compared to the Malay participants. Language, religion and culture are the three most salient ethnic identity marker for the Indian participants (p. 16). At the same time, food together with language and culture were perceived as salient ethnic identity marker by the Sabah and Sarawak indigenous (p. 17).

On the other hand, the participants of all the four ethnic groups agreed that be able to sing the national anthem, be the residence in Malaysia and be able to speak national language are the salient Malaysian identity marker (p. 18).

The non-Malay (included Sabah and Sarawak indigenous) are disagreed with the Malay participants to be prone towards the overt expressions of Malaysian identity such as 'Living a Malay way of life' (pp. 19-20). Furthermore language is not the most important national identity marker comparing to the ethnic identity marker.

The study shows language symbolizes the difference of ethnic group. However the national anthem and national language may bond Malaysians from different ethnics together. Therefore, Malaysians may achieve unity in diversity through the national

anthem (p. 20).

Although the Malaysian Ministry of Education had promulgated many education policies in the past, many of these policies were made to fulfill the country's aim of putting Malay as the national language in the country to instil national unity. As far as English is concerned, it continued to be a dominant language used by others in the business field due to international trade and commerce as well as for globalisation purposes where diplomats are expected to be stationed and where cooperation and collaboration may be necessary for political and economic goals. Thus, despite Malay being identified as the national language as well as the language to instil unity, it worked side by side with English as an equally important language, particularly for academic pursuits as well as for political and economic gains. Due to this phenomenon, it is necessary to conduct an investigation on how these two dominant languages are being practiced, idealized and managed by Malaysian schools' stakeholders. The information gathered can help to provide insights into what Malaysian school students use as their preferred language choice and what they perceived to be important languages for them. This information can thus be used to improve on the human capital resources of this country whereby the people's language competence and language deficiencies can be used as a measurement to determine the type of language policies needed for this country to function better in the future.

2.4 Theory of Language Management (2004, 2009)

Spolsky said language policy is about choices of using languages (2009, p. 1). Language policy may refer to all the language choices made by the language users, beliefs or language patterns recognised by the language users and the conscious and explicit efforts of the language managers or the management decisions of a community (Spolsky, 2004, p. 9; Spolsky, 2009, p. 1). The language choices may reflect the impact

of management. Thus Spolsky's theory of language policy (2004) concerns the language choices made by the language users based on the rules and patterns recognised by the authority in a language community. This theory is developed into the theory of language management (2009) after Nekvapil approving the use of the term of "management" (Spolsky, 2009, p. 5) because Nekvapil is the first person uses the term of 'management'. According to Spolsky, 'planning' was used for social problems corrections by the political authorities in 1950s-1960s. Spolsky further explained the reason he used 'language management' because he agreed with Neustupný, Jernudd & Nekvapil that language management started with individual to national level and the decision of language management is the 'policy' made (ditto).

Spolsky (2009) then uses the term 'language management' to refer to language policy. Together with language management, the other two elements, the practice and beliefs form three components in Spolsky's Theory of Language Management. Spolsky suggests that when studying the language policy of a given speech community, the three components: i) the language practices, ii) the language beliefs or ideologies and, iii) the language planning or management should be studied and distinguished (2004, p. 5). Nonetheless, Spolsky (2009, p. 4) prefers to use the term "management" rather than "planning" as he thinks it captures the nature of the phenomenon more precisely. As mentioned before, Spolsky agrees that language management started with individual to national level, he also notes that these three components are interrelated but they are yet independently describable (2009). To be able to differentiate them better, the following figure is presented as Spolsky's Theory of Language Management.

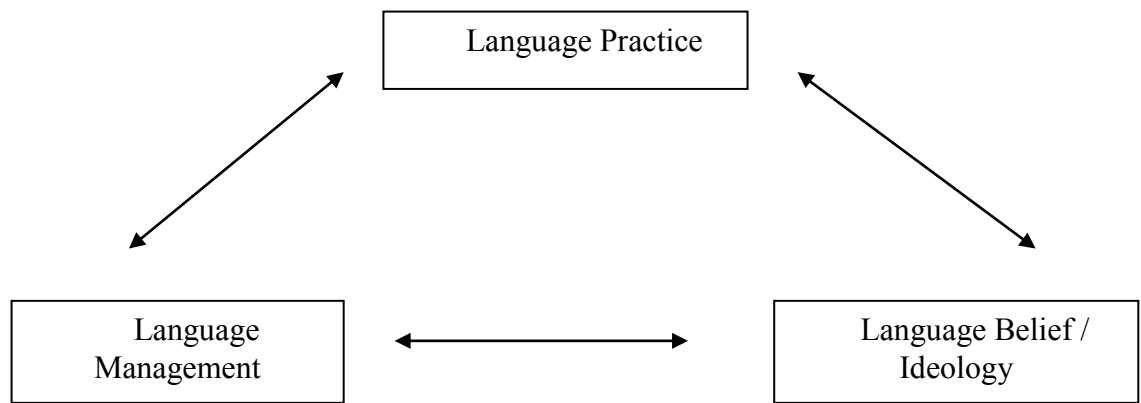


Figure 2.1: Spolsky's (2009) Theory of Language Management

The relationship between language management, language ideology, and language practice of Spolsky's theory of management can be summarised as:

a) language ideology is the beliefs designate to a language variety by the members of speech community. The speech community sometimes form a consensual ideology, they assign values and prestige to the language variety they use (2004, p. 14). It is people think what should be done and it is whether the language policy (language management) that is formed by the individual by leaving out the language manager. The language manager can be referred to the school staff – the principal, teachers or the relevant professionals who may determine the educational and linguistic goals of the school internally. The language manager also can be the external group of the school such as the parents of students who claim to have authority to influence the school policy (2009, p. 94). It may explain the values that help account for individual choice (2009, pp. 5-6);

b) language practice is what people actually do (2004, p. 14) and it provides the models of language that may help to explain language learning and establishes necessary conditions for language choice which is partly determined by language proficiency (2009, p. 5); and

c) language management is the efforts by the language managers to intervene on the language practice and language ideology of the people (2004, p. 14) and it may

influence speakers to change their practice and ideology (2009, p. 6).

However, language management efforts may contradict the language ideology which underlies the actual language practice of the community. Therefore, the language management should be differentiated from the general language practice and language ideology as it intended to modify (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14).

2.4.1 Language Practice

In the general sense, language practice is related to the variety of language/s used by a language user to communicate with other people. Thus, language practice implies how a language user uses a particular language or languages, assuming that he/she has more than one in his/her linguistic repertoire. The language user should be given the freedom to choose from variety of languages (Tollefson, 1999, p. 46). It is suggested that the relationship between individual's choice and collective behaviour must be examined with respect to the language ideology and social system of the language user; and the role of language varieties in the language community must be examined to have a better understanding of the language user's language choice (ditto).

To be able to distinguish the words clearly, the term 'practice' is used synonymously as 'choosing' and 'using' that particular language. In his work, Fasold (1999, pp. 180-181) proposed that there are three kinds of language choice:

- a) whole language - This is to choose one language out of two or more languages that are available for practice to the particular language user.
- b) code-switching or code-mixing – This is where the language user incorporates more than one language in his/her interactions. This phenomenon takes place when the language users are using pieces of another language while his/her is conversing in a particular language. The pieces of language could be words or phrases.

c) variation within the same language – This is where the language user chooses one set of variants to use within a single language in a given situation with particular participants.

Thus, it can be seen that language practice refers to the language user using any language of his/her preference to fulfill a certain intention within a certain context including the participants involved.

The language choice of the stakeholders is presented in the oral and written forms. Fasold (1999, p. 276) states that oral language practice may be taken as the primary language while the written language may be taken as a derived language. Stubbs (1980 as cited in Fasold 1999, p. 276), supports the importance of spoken language, noting that Bloomfield's language used for 'writing' is not language practice but merely a way of recording language by means of visible marks. In other words, the production of spoken or oral language is more valuable, possibly because spoken language is highly resistant to conscious control, hence more natural and more authentic. Moreover, a person's spoken language is often his/her first language and, thus, it makes more sense to assume that this too reflects language practice. Finally, spoken language should have priority because, in language practice, people speak the language much more than they would read or write in the language.

Language practice as cited in Spolsky (2004, p. 9) comprises:

- a) the sequence of relevant sounds chosen by the language users to form the meaning-bearing units and these units then combine into meaningful utterances, i.e Hymes's (1967) ethnography of speaking.
- b) Labov's (1966) vocabulary variations chosen by the language user and these lexical items can be interpreted by the listeners as identifying the origin or the social level of the speaker.

Language practice is not only the sum of sounds, words and grammatical choices made by a language user consciously or less consciously (Spolsky, 2004, p. 9). This combination may further make up the conventional unmarked pattern of a variety of language and this variety can be at the level of formality of speech and agreeing with the appropriateness of the rules and language used in different situations or contexts.

In Spolsky's definition, language practice as the habitual pattern an individual demonstrates when selecting the language/s among the varieties available in his/her linguistic repertoire (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5) to perform particular functions. Language practice is also the observable behaviour noted in a language user who follows the choices of the linguistic features such as sound, word and grammar that he/she uses specifically within a particular language community (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4). These behaviours can be reflective of Hymes's (1962) ethnography of communication, where Hymes (1962) talks about looking directly into a language user's use of the language depending on contexts and situations so that one can be able to detect the difference in language patterns, some of which fit into specific activities with specific people for specific purposes or functions. Hymes (1962) also talks about considering the language patterns of the entire community by considering the context of language use and how that particular community behaves through the use of that language. This, it is claimed, can enable us to understand the community's culture or the community's specific way of communicating, thereby shedding light on what functions the language serves.

Similarly, this description was reflected in Labov's (1963) discussion of the variation in language use, under sociolinguistics studies. While Labov's (1963) language variation emphasizes the frequency of use, the different social status of speakers and consciousness of intentions, Spolsky's (2009, p. 4) language practice merely touches on which language is predominantly used by the speakers, with whom and for what purpose.

In his explanation, Spolsky (2004, p. 7) affirms that when language practice is observed in a language user, it is the user's practice that has been captured by the user's constant and constructive interaction with others in the social environment. Therefore, what language do speakers use, for what purpose, with whom and in what environment, are important issues to consider when looking at research on sociolinguistic issues such as language planning or language policies.

According to Spolsky (2009), language practice provides context for the language learners. Language acquisition depends on the language management on language practice of language learner is exposed to (p. 4). The language used regularly by the language learners at the family domain may differ from the language varieties learnt in the school domain. Therefore, in the school domain, the students are continuously under pressure to modify their language practice and accepting the language varieties chosen by the language managers. The outcomes of this modification are that the students' language practice of the language variety brought from home may be corrected or restrained in the school domain (Spolsky, 2009, p. 114).

2.4.1.1 Previous sociolinguistics research of language practice

There are three disciplines or approaches that could be used to examine the language choice or language practice of the language user/s in a language community: a) the sociological approach or the domain analysis; b) social psychology approach; and c) anthropological approach (Fasold, 1996, pp. 183-207).

a) Sociological approach - Domain analysis

Sociology is a discipline that studies how society functions as groups. It basically looks at how the society which is made up of individuals functions as a group. The sociological approach of looking at language practice, language ideology and language management is a society-centered approach which looks at the targeted

population in relation to the targeted social structure (Fasold, 1996, p. 187). This approach can be used to explain the language choice of the individual in terms of the social structure he/she is enveloped in (Fasold, 1996, p. 192).

Under sociolinguistics studies, the domain analysis was proposed by Joshua Fishman (1972) who argues that the domain analysis can be a useful method of looking at the linguistic realisations of speakers by focusing on the sociological factors. The concept of domain is defined in terms of institutional contexts and their congruent behavioural co-occurrences.” (Fishman, 1972 as cited in Haberland, 2005, p. 230). These institutional contexts included the family context because in social sciences, ‘family’ is generally regarded as a major social institution (Nam, 2004). Thus, a domain “can only be established when there is a corresponding field of congruent patterns of behaviour” (Haberland, 2005, p. 230). Spolsky (2009) adapted Fishman’s domains to name the social spaces as family domain, school domain (the targeted domain in this study), neighbourhood domain, church domain, workplace domain, public media domain and governmental level domain – the city, state or nation. Spolsky argues that all the domains have their own language policies. Some of the management features are managed internally by the stakeholders in the domain and some other features are directly or indirectly influenced by the external forces. These domains are distinguished by three components, the participant, location and topic (Spolsky, 2009, p. 3).

i) Participants are not characterized as the individuals but are characterized by the social roles of the individuals and the relationship existing between the individuals. Different roles may be filled by the same individuals in different domains.

ii) Locations are the places. Although the physical aspects of location may be relevant, the social meaning and interpretation of location is the most relevant to the language choice of the language user/s. This is because a domain connects to social and physical reality. The aspect of social refers to people or the participants and physical reality is

the places where the language user is at or the locations (Spolsky, 2009, p. 3).

iii) Topic means what is appropriate to talk about by the participants in the domain. Spolsky (2009, p.3) has widened this component to include the communicative functions i.e. the reason for the language user/s speaking in the language/s within that domain.

Greenfield (1972) applied the domain analysis to investigate the language choice of his respondents in New York City by focusing on all three components - participants, locations and topics. A questionnaire with two given components was distributed to the respondents who were asked to choose the third component and their language choice during a given situation. For instance, the respondents were told to choose the place from – ‘home’, ‘beach’, ‘church’, ‘school’ or ‘workplace’ (location) when having a conversation with these parents (participant) on a family matter (topic). Then the respondents were also asked to choose the appropriate language choice in the conversation. The respondents were using the five point Likert-scale to indicate their language choice of Spanish and English (Fasold, 1996, pp. 183-184).

The study conducted by Greenfield (1972) verified the existence of the five domains proposed by Fishman (1970) and at the same time he was able to determine the language choice of his respondents where they indicated that English was used in the ‘status’ domain, that is whenever it was more prestigious to do so and Spanish was used in the ‘intimate’ domains, that is among close friends and family. As a bilingual community, the respondents in Greenfield’s study (1972) tended to be diglossic, that is, they used Spanish as the ‘low’ language in less prestigious contexts while they used English as the ‘high’ language in more prestigious surroundings.

Diglossia is a Greek word, *diglossías*, which was first used by Charles Ferguson in 1959 (Fasold, 1996, p. 34). Diglossia is a characteristic of speech communities that use more than one language or varieties of language. The term is used to describe the

level of societal or institutionalized bilingualism. Ferguson (1972) found that in bilingual speech communities, the language users tend to use one language or variety of language in one particular domain and another language or variety of language in another domain. These two languages or varieties of language exist side by side throughout the community and each language or variety plays a definite role (Ferguson, 1972 as cited in Fasold 1996, p. 34). Despite their different statuses, these two languages or varieties of language are required by the language community to cover all the community's domains (Holmes, 2001, p. 28).

Fishman (1967) modified Ferguson's concept of diglossia (1959) as the distribution of more than one language or variety of language to serve the language users' different communicational tasks in a society. Diglossia may occur not just with the presence of only two languages but it can also occur when a society employs several languages including different dialects, registers or functionally differentiated language varieties for different purposes. The term 'diglossia' also refers to any degree of linguistic difference which looks at stylistic differences; the aim is to functionally distinguish the usage of the two languages-dialect-registers as used by the community. The High (H) varieties are the most used for formal purposes and the Low (L) varieties are used for less formal purposes or for family usage (see Fasold, 1996, p. 40).

Another domain analysis study was conducted by Parasher (1980) who examined the language choice of 350 respondents in two cities in India. Parasher (1980) modified Fishman's domain analysis by expanding the five domains to seven domains: - i) family domain; ii) friendship domain; iii) neighbourhood domain; iv) transactions domain; v) education domain; vi) government domain; and vii) employment domain.

In his study, Parasher (1980) administered a questionnaire to his respondents so as to be able to identify their language preference. Respondents were told to choose from five language types, the language they would use in every given situation. They

were also asked to mark their responses with a five point Likert scale to indicate how frequently the language was used in every situation. Values were given to each point and the average values of the language used in every situation were counted.

The results of the study indicate that the dominant language used by the respondents in each domain was identified. The following are part of the findings:

- a) The mother tongue of the respondents dominated only in the family domain; English dominated in the friendship, education, government and employment domains. In the neighbourhood domain, English had the highest rating but it did not dominate the domain.
- b) The important factor governing the language choice of the respondents in the domain is whether the language used is understood by their interlocutors, as has been indicated by Fasold (1996, pp. 184-186).

The number of domains which displayed the scope that is the family, friendship, neighbourhood, transactions, education, government and employment domains of Parasher's (1980) study can be expanded if necessary. In their study, Platt and Weber (1980) proposed eight domains encompassing the family domain, friendship domain, transaction (buy and sale) domain, employment domain, education domain, government domain, mass media domain and the law and religion domain (see Ting, 2010a, p. 404).

Among the various domains, it appears that different studies tend to focus on different contexts and domains to develop their sociolinguistic research. As an education context, the school also provides contexts for the students' repeated exposure to the language practice and language maintenance as a result of societal inequalities. In Philippines, English is viewed as vital to sustain Philippines role in the capitalist globalization. Therefore the English-only ideology and Bilingual Education policy in Philippines schools perpetuate the dominance of the two dominance languages (English and Filipino) in power and reinforce social inequalities i.e. prevail the mother tongue

education in the country (Parba, 2018, pp. 28-33). Since it is the authorities within the education system that make supposedly dispassionate assertions, directing topics by interrupting or ignoring unwanted contributions and usurping the rights of others to interact equally (Bonvillain, 2014, p. 387) has marginalized and erased other languages from the country's linguistic landscape. Moreover, the views of stakeholders the pupils and the teachers, are able to offer an accessible window onto community language practice and language ideology, which are the central concern of this study.

Outside the family, the school is the first social institution that has the most powerful influence on the language practice and values of a child (Spolsky, 2011, p. 153). The school also has the ability to influence the family domain when it acquaints the student to speak the language that is chosen as the instructional medium (Spolsky, 2012, p. 5).

Spolsky suggests the school should recognise the home language and cultural patterns of the students rather than insisting that the students and their family give up their heritage language and culture (2012, p. 6). It is obvious that the language practice in the family domain follows the ethnic cultural patterns (ditto), but a home-school gap in language practice may occur because the different language varieties and cultural differences at home and in school (Slade & Mollering as cited in Spolsky, 2012, p. 6).

b) Social psychology approach

Social psychology is a discipline of psychology which studies how people behave in the social context of interactions, specifically, their nature and causes (Baron, Byrne & Suls 1989, p. 9). In other words, it looks at how human behavior can be influenced by other people and the social context in which the interaction occurs. Thus the social psychological approach of looking at language practice, language ideology and language management can be considered as one that focuses on the individual's feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions and goals which are constructed as a result of the

interaction with others in such contexts. It is believed that these psychological factors can in turn influence others in the way they feel, think, believe and what they intend to do. Fasold (1996, p. 192) also claims that the social psychological approach can be used to look at the language choice of an individual when he/she is dealing with the structure of his/her society in terms of his/her psychological needs. A social psychological research on language choice is mainly a search for individual motivations for using the language varieties in more than one psychological situation (Fasold, 1996, p. 187). This is because a bilingual or multilingual speaker may find himself in more than one psychological situation simultaneously. Therefore a psychological study on language choice which studies the language choice of an individual in different psychological situations is a person-centered study. This idea was developed by a scholar, Howard Giles, in the 1970s when he looked at how people adjusted their conversations when interacting with others in a social context. This was first developed into the Speech Communication Theory (see Fasold, 1996, pp.188-191).

As a theory, Giles's Accommodation theory talks about the speakers' linguistic behavior as they converge and diverge in their language registers or varieties. An individual speaker who converges in his/her linguistic behavior will choose a language or language variety that seems to suit the needs of his/her interlocutors to show solidarity. However, an individual who has a divergent linguistic behavior will not make adjustments in his/her speech pattern for the benefit of his/her interlocutors. The speaker may even deliberately make his/her speech different from his or her interlocutor group so as to show power, distance, dislike, and so on. The linguistic behaviour of an individual can therefore be adjusted in response to the interlocutors either by changing to a different language or register or maintaining a particular language or register.

The Accommodation Theory explains the language practice of an individual but failed to consider the issues of power and domination (Tollefson, 1999, pp. 72-75). The

consequences of converging or diverging language practice are not determined by the language user but are based on the historical-structural (the socio-historical status of the language user shaped by the relationships of power and domination) relationship between languages and the groups which speak the language.

Giles, Noels, Williams, Ota, Lim, Ng, Ryan & Somera (2003) compare the perceptions of non-family elders with elder family members and same-age peers across Asian and Western nations (p. 24).

A questionnaire based on Williams, Ota, Pierson, Gallois, Ng, Lim, Ryan & Somera (1997) was answered by 731 participants. They are the undergraduate students between the ages of 16 and 30 years old from Western nations of Canada, U.S.A, New Zealand, and Eastern nations of Japan, South Korea and The Philippines (p. 8).

William et al. (1997) investigated dimensions of intergenerational communication of young adults in East Asian and Western nations. The Asian young adults were less likely to agree that the elders were accommodating to them comparing with the Westerners. This is because there is more social distance and less equality between generations in Eastern cultures than Western cultures. High power-distance and hierarchical relationships in intergenerational communication were created (p. 6).

Giles's et al (2003) study aims to determine whether the findings of Williams et al. (1997) can be verified by re-examining young people's intergenerational communication beliefs in Western and Asian settings. Evaluations of elderly conversants are compared and whether all the elders are perceived in a similar manner (p. 7).

The study found that participants from both the Western nations and Asian nations had more interaction with same-age peers than with older family members and non-family elders (pp. 10-11). The Western participants had more conversation with older adults than Asian participants (p. 11). In addition, the participants from both

cultural groups were equally accommodating with same-age peers. However, the participants of Asian nations commented the older family and non-family members were less accommodating than the Western nations (p. 13). The result of the study replicate the findings of William et al. (1997), intergenerational communication with non-family elders is perceived less positivity in East Asian countries. The participants agree that the elders are non-accommodative or the elders are inattentive and negatively stereotyped young people (p. 24). Their conversations with the non-family elders were less emotionally positive, age mattered and less accommodative. Therefore, the East Asian participants enjoyed their interaction less than the Western participants (pp. 24-25).

However, the participants of both cultural blocks agreed that the family elders were perceived as more accommodative, required less deference and their interactions were perceived more positively than with the non-family elders. This stressed a distinction between family elders and non-family elders (p. 25).

The Asian participants understand that they need to have more respect and obligations when having conversations with elderly people especially with their family elders than the Western participants (ditto). However, the participants from both groups have strong sentiment that it is necessary to be deferential to non-family because of their concurrent norm to be polite to strangers (p. 26). The Asian cultures make the young people feel obliged to respect and concerns the needs and desires of the elders without attending the needs and desires of the young people. This create more intergenerational distance (ditto).

However, there is more variability in Asian participants' perceptions than the West. The South Koreans feel the non-family elders are in low accommodation, the Filipinos are more positive about their interactions and in many ways resembling the pattern of Western nations. Distinction between South Korea and The Philippines

shows that the East or West distinction may mask differences between cultures in the same category. Though South Korea – Asian culture is contrast with the Western culture, there is also distinct differences between South Korea and The Philippines and the Western nations (p. 27).

Therefore this study helps to extend understanding of intergenerational communication from Western cultures, to clarify what aspects of communication may be more or less positive within a clearer frame of reference. This study also unveiled that intergenerational communication may be more enjoyable with family members than non-family members (p. 27)

Seals (2016) uses the theoretical frameworks of language socialization and linguistic accommodation (p. 191) to study whether two Ukrainian-speaking families in the United States manage their linguistic practice and beliefs about their family languages at home (p. 176).

Linguistic/Language accommodation is seen as ‘a multiply-organized and contextually complex set of alternatives, regularly available to communicators in face-to-face talk. It can function to index and achieve solidarity with or disassociation from a conversational partner, reciprocally and dynamically’ (Giles & Coupland, 1991 as cited in Seals, 2016, p. 176). At the same time, language choice is an important cultural marker and through language choice the speakers are able to display their preferred identity to their audience (Rampton, 1996 as cited in Seals, 2016, p. 177).

In the study, an ethnographic case study was conducted in two families. Two children aged six who identified herself as a Ukrainian and nine years old girl who identified herself as a Ukrainian-American, are the participants from the first family whose parents are both Ukrainian from Ukraine. The other participant is a ten years old child who identified herself as a Russian-American whose mother is a Latvian from Latvia and father is a Ukrainian from Ukraine (pp. 177-178). Audio recordings of

interactions between the participants with their siblings and parents are collected (p. 178).

The researcher finds there are two types of language socialization and identity negotiations occurred in the families. The language choice between the participants with their parents is different from their siblings. English is used most of the time by the participants from the first family and exclusively by the participant from the second family with their siblings. This is because the children have been socialized with their peers in English at the school, and they continue to use English at home (p. 179). English is even used to socialize with their younger siblings who have not yet started school (p.190). This shows the children have strong preference of English with their siblings at home (p. 180). At the same time, the participants have reinforced their identity as primarily English speakers and to accommodate to this identity, they use English with each other (p. 181).

However the language choice of the participants shows their goodwill towards their parents. The participants use their heritage language/s - Russian and/or Ukrainian instead of their preferred English to show they accommodate to their parents linguistically and to show solidarity with their parents (ditto). But the children of the first family do not always use Russian with their parents, they use more English than Russian with their mother (p. 183). In addition, their mother occasionally choose English (the preference language of the children) to accommodate to her children and to show her alignment with them (p. 188).

Parents of the participants position themselves as the native speakers of Russian and Ukrainian, and as the authority at home, they do not need to accommodate to the social majority language i.e. English (p. 181) except the mother of the first family. They expose their children to the heritage languages to encourage heritage language maintenance at home (p. 190).

The researcher concludes the implication of the socialization of the two families shows it is likely that family interactions will shift to English within the next couple of generations (p. 191) as the children are socializing in English at home domain.

c) Anthropological approach

Anthropology is the study of human beings, it focusses on history, development, values, culture and so on. Thus, the anthropological approach is a cultural value centered approach. It aims to establish how the individual deals with the structure of his/her society by using his/her language choice to reveal his/her cultural values (Fasold, 1996, p. 192).

This approach is different from the sociological approach and the social psychological approach which use questionnaire data or controlled condition observations to explain the language choice of the individual in terms of the social structure and to explain the language choice of the individual in terms of the psychological needs respectively. This approach uses normal, uncontrolled behaviour participant observation to explain the language choice of the individual in terms of cultural values (Fasold, 1996, pp. 183-192).

In the example of Oberwart, Austria, it was explained by Susan Gal that this district is inhabited by two separate communities: Hungarian is the traditional language of the in-group but it is of the Low variety. Simultaneously, German is the national language of the community; it serves as the education and communication language for the professionals in the same community and it is the High variety (Fasold, 1996, pp. 195-196). Hungarian is linked to the values of hard work, ownership of farm animals of the traditional rural peasant; and German is indexes 'Austrian' – national and urban values.

Through Gal's observation (1979), there are language users in Oberwart who accept and others who reject the national values and urban values of using German,

their sociolinguistic self-identity of language practice is monolingual or they are the monolinguals in German. Practically all the adult Hungarian language users are bilingual – Hungarian and German. The Hungarian language users are expected to shift to German in the presence of German monolinguals (Fasold, 1996, p. 196). The monolinguals in German are acknowledging their status as “Austrians”. They insist the bilingual Hungarian to use the national language when the bilingual men are conversing in Hungarian in a public space (ditto).

Gal (1979) also observed the community in Austria by focusing on the language choice of one old Hungarian couple who had invited their monolingual German neighbour to help on a pig-killing occasion. After the pig slaughter event, the invited German stayed for a meal. During the occasion, the entire conversation was conducted in Hungarian except for a few instructions which were given in German to the monolingual neighbor during the slaughter event (Fasold, 1996, p. 196).

Under Giles’s Accommodation Theory, a language user may converge by choosing a language that suit his/her interlocutor to show solidarity. The bilingual old Hungarian couple supposedly converge by using German during their conversation with the monolingual German neighbour in order to show solidarity. Shifting to Hungarian within the same speech event was not considered rude or being divergent because the monolingual German neighbour was helping the old couple and he was invited to have a meal with them. Gal (1979) had noted that the two languages represented two parallel and coordinate social groups to the old couple, and not a small group (Hungarian) nested inside a larger one (German). Gal (1979) also observed that the old couple reserved their right to use their own language in their own home. The old couple believed that their behaviour was not impolite and their invited guest would not expect them to change their language choice to German instead of Hungarian (Fasold, 1996, p. 196).

Gal's (1979) study through observation provide reasons as to why some community members have different language choices from others in the same domain (Fasold, 1996, p.207).

Harzing & Pudelko (2013) investigate the language/s use between the local managers, expatriates managers, local managers and headquarter (HQ) managers in multinational corporations (MNCs), in a range of host countries comprises three countries with native English, the Anglophone (UK, Australia and New Zealand), four Nordic countries (Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Finland), three continental European countries (Germany, France and Spain) and three Asian countries (Japan, Korea and China) (p. 6).

A questionnaire is used to ask which and how many languages were used by the respondents and the respondents' language skills were also measured. The study finds there is distinctly different pattern between Asian MNCs and MNCs from other countries in respondents' regular spoken languages. In non-Asian MNCs, English is the most frequently used language but Asian languages are spoken more frequently in Asian companies. The researchers interpreted this difference as an indication of a relative high degree of ethnocentrism of Asian MNCs (p. 15).

At the same time, the subsidiary managers in Anglophone countries have the highest competence of HQ language and lowest for the Nordic MNCs. On the other hand, the HQ managers in the Asian MNCs have the highest language skills in the subsidiary language. This further supported a high degree of ethnocentrism of Asian MNCs (p. 16).

The Asian companies which have defined their corporate language chose the HQ language as their corporate language. English is defined as the corporate language for the MNCs in Continental European countries, Nordic countries and Anglophone countries. Though these languages are chosen as the official corporate language, it is

not necessary that the chosen language is accepted in practice. The study supports the potential negative effects of power or authority distortions. Power or authority distortion occurs when the HQ managers who possess the formal authority give up their power. The Continental European countries MNCs gave up their German, French language and Spanish, and defined English as their corporate language (pp. 16-17).

‘Language can become a formal or informal source of power’ (SanAntonio, 1987 as cited in Harzing & Pudelko, 2013, p. 17). Therefore the MNCs have to be aware that language can be transparent of formal hierarchy or as an opaque instrument of power. It may exist a distinction between corporate language and parallel corporate language because of ethnocentrism (p. 19).

2.4.1.2 Previous studies on language practice in Malaysia

David, Sankar and Mukherjee (2006) conducted several studies which looked at language choice of particular communities. The three studies focused on the women’s language choice of Sindhi-Hindus ethnicity in Kuala Lumpur (David, 2006), Iyer in Klang Valley (Sanker, 2006) and the Bengali in Malaysia (Mukherjee, 2006).

David (2006) investigated language choice and language practice of three generations of several Sindhi families who had migrated from India and settled in Malaysia. She used recordings and interviews in her study and from the recordings of 26 conversations of 66 Malaysian Sindhis of three generations, she analysed the language choice and language practice of the respective generations in the home domain. Her findings showed:

- a) Sindhi was maintained by the first generation with some English code-mixing and code-switching;
- b) English was used by the second generation with some Sindhi code-mixing and code-switching and

c) English was used by the third generation with some Sindhi or Malay code-mixing and code-switching.

In another study focusing on the linguistic patterns of Iyer women in Malaysia, Sankar (2006), likewise administered a questionnaire to 291 respondents who also comprised three generations. Using the ethnographic approach, Sankar (2006) then mingled with 50 families of the respondents. Based on her close observations, she was able to detect their traditional language practice. She also used audio-tape recorders to record the conversations of the women during intra-community talks at the homes of 115 Iyer women. The findings of her study showed:

- i) cultural norms of the speaker-addressee relationship governed the language choices of the speakers;
- ii) that the high and low status of the languages determined how the speakers chose their language; and
- iii) Malaysian Iyers seem to have shifted away from their mother tongue to the practice of English for economic and social reasons.

Similarly, Mukherjee (2006) also studied the language pattern of 14 Bengali women aged 45 and above. She not only observed her participants, but she also tape recorded their conversations. She noted that the women had also used different languages throughout their conversations. The findings of her study showed:

- i) the unmarked Bengali language and Bengali dialect were used;
- ii) English was used when they discussed sex and taboo topics.

Turning to the Chinese speakers' preference for language practice, Wang (2007) focused on the language choice of three generations of Chinese participants. Wang (2007) employed Fishman's (1972) theory of domain to examine the social network of three generations of speakers and the differences in their language practices. As others before her, Wang (2007) also used the survey method to administer a questionnaire to

her respondents followed by close observations and interviews. Wang (2007) looked at 13 Chinese families who were from four cities in Johore. The findings of her study showed that:

- i) Chinese dialects were used by the first generation; Mandarin by the third generation and Mandarin (used by the mother) and dialects (used by the father) were spoken by the second generation;
- ii) the mother of the second generation is the agent of language shift in the third generation;
- iii) the ethnic consciousness of the third generation is weak as their parents' Chinese dialects were no longer important to them.

Ang & Lau (2012) studied the oral language choice of the Chinese community in Kuala Lumpur when communicating with their friends, their colleagues and strangers from different age groups. They, too, used a questionnaire which was administered to 255 Chinese families. Their aim was to compare the oral language practice between the elderly Chinese generation (aged more than 50) and the younger Chinese generation (aged less than 50) when they were communicating with a) friends of the same ethnicity; b) colleagues of the same ethnicity and c) strangers of different age groups but of the same ethnicity. The findings of their study showed:

- i) Mandarin and English were used as the communication languages by both generations when they were communicating with their friends of the same ethnicity;
- ii) the elderly generation used Mandarin and Chinese dialects; and the young generation used Mandarin, English and Malay when they were communicating with their colleagues of the same ethnicity;
- iii) Mandarin, Chinese dialects and English were used as the communication language when both generations were communicating with strangers of the same ethnicity; and

iv) it appears that the Chinese community is experiencing a language shift, moving from Chinese dialects to other more social dominant languages such as Mandarin or English.

Focusing on the people living in Sarawak, Ting (2009) examined which language, among the several that are available, would function as the dominant language for family communications. The study aimed to determine if there is a similarity or dissimilarity in parents' ethnic language and their influence on the language choice of their children and how far other languages have permeated the family domain of six Malay families, six Chinese families and five Indian families. She used interviews to collect her data and the findings of her study showed that:

- i) English was used as family communication language;
- ii) the Malay families spoke Malay (Sarawak Malay or Standard Malay) with their children; the Chinese families used Mandarin and English while the Indian families used English.
- iii) the standard languages had permeated the family domain because of the need for the speakers to have a common language for home communication;
- iv) the language of instruction used in the school was derived from the parents' habitual language practice and the instrumental value of the standard prestigious languages – Bahasa Malaysia, Mandarin and English.

In another study focusing on the language practice of Foochow speakers in the business or transaction domain, Ting (2010b) focused on a Foochow owner's photograph developing shop in Sarawak. Her study examined the language used by five shop assistants when communicating with 150 customers of diverse ethnicities. Within the transaction domain, Ting (2010b) also used close observation and video recording to collect her data. The findings of her study showed that Bahasa Malaysia, Bazaar Malay and Foochow were the three main languages used. The extensive use of Bahasa Malaysia and Bazaar Malay was because the photograph developing shop dealt with

many non-Chinese clients. Clearly, Bahasa Malaysia and Bazaar Malay were used for inter-ethnic communication; Foochow and Mandarin were used for Chinese community communication and the code-switching instances consisted of switching from base language (the main languages for the transactions i.e. Bahasa Malaysia, Bazaar Malay and Foochow in this study) to English for technical terms and from the Chinese subgroup dialects to Mandarin because of the lack of vocabulary for the equivalent words. The language choice for the transactions depended on the clever guess of the ethnicity of the customers.

Focusing on the sustainability status of the indigenous languages in Sarawak, Ting & Ling (2013) used Fishman's (1991) reformulated framework which encompass the Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale and Lewis and Simon's (2010) Expanded Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale on adolescents from six schools to determine their language use in six domains: mass media, friendship, school, transaction, religion and family. They also used a survey questionnaire to collect data of 568 participants. The aim of their study was to examine the presence of ethnic languages and the extent of ethnic language use and to compare the language use of the different indigenous groups and the demographic variables which influenced their language use. The findings of the study showed that the Malay varieties (Standard Malay and regional variety - Sarawak Malay) were displacing the participants' ethnic languages in their daily use and the use of the Malay varieties had in fact become widespread in the family and religious domains. There was an obvious decrease in the use of their ethnic languages when interactions involved grandparents and parents. This implies that the Malay varieties, as national language varieties, could harm the maintenance of the indigenous languages.

Phooi & Ting (2016) investigated the English language use of 400 Chinese parents with English, Mandarin or Malay education backgrounds. Their study aimed to

determine if their language environment was an ESL (English as a Second Language) environment or an EAL (English as an Additional Language) environment. They applied Judd's (1981) classification of English language use as their framework. As others did, the researchers also used a questionnaire as the tool to collect data and to analyse the influence of the respondents' educational background on the frequency of English used in relation to other languages in the family and friendship domains. They wanted to understand if the respondents' educational background affected their attitudes towards English and other languages. The findings of their study showed that:

- i) the educational background of the individuals has a significant influence on their language use and the prevailing language environment;
- ii) the English-educated participants operated in an ESL environment where they used English for a full range of communicative functions because they cherished English the most;
- iii) the Chinese-educated participants operated in an EAL environment because they experienced more affective attachment to Mandarin;
- iv) the Chinese-educated participants who were proficient in English tended to function in an ESL environment but those who were not proficient in English would function in an EAL environment;
- v) some Malay-educated participants were functioning in an ESL environment and some were in the EAL environment and their emotional attachment could be divided into Mandarin, Chinese dialects and English; and
- vi) the Chinese community was inclined towards using English as an Additional Language rather than English as a Second Language.

Previously other studies looking at the various segments of language choice have been conducted in Malaysia. Among these, David (2006), Sankar (2006), Wang (2007), Ting (2009), Phooi & Ting (2016) had emphasised the family domain. In

looking at the family domain, Mukherjee (2006) focused on the dynamics of language involving code switching practices. The third domain to be covered is the friendship and work domain by Ang & Lau (2012).

All these studies had focused on two types of language choice as proposed by Fasold (1996, p. 180), which include: i) the language choice of speakers speaking only one language and ii) the language choice of speakers with more than one language in their linguistic repertoire involving code-switching or code-mixing. Nonetheless, an authentic and more in-depth study of speakers' language practice in domains other than family, transaction and friendship need to be explored with emphasis being given to the frequency of usage of such available languages based on different locations and topics.

Clearly, as these studies have shown, there is a need to conduct research to investigate the frequency of language/s used in education domain so as this study aimed to fill the gap and to give other people a wider scenario of the language practice of language users in Malaysia.

2.4.2 Language Ideology

Language ideology is the "shared bodies of common sense notions about the nature of language in the world" (Rumsey, 1990 as cited in Woolard 2010, p. 235). Within language ideology, there is linguistic ideology, grammatical ideology, purist ideology, language ideology, ideologies of standardization and the ideology of language cited in Woolard (2010, p. 236). Woolard & Schieddelin (1994) agree that 'linguistic ideology', 'language ideology' and 'ideology of language' are all terms in use interchangeably but the 'linguistic ideology' focuses more on linguistic structures (p. 56).

Language ideology is related to language structure (the phonetic system or writing system) only in the sense of maintenance or loss of distinctive language/s or varieties (Woolard, 2010, p.240). Errington (1985) and Irvine (1989) also point out that

the language system with variations which was produced by speakers of certain origins, social level or status proposed by Labov (1979), were made under the influence of language conception and language evaluation. In other words these language conception and language evaluation were referred to one's language ideology (as cited in Woolard, 2010, p. 240). Ochs and Schieffelin (1984) and Schieffelin (1990) have also found out that language ideology is a way to explain children's language acquisition studies, while Heath (1983) studied the relationship between language ideology and language socialization of children in formal education (ditto). She linked the two communities' – Roadville and Trackton language socialization patterns with other aspects of life – church life and baseball games. She successfully demonstrated the relationship between the children's language socialization patterns and their school performance. Preparing the school children for school-oriented and mainstream communities has stronger impact than parent-child interaction for the children's academic success. At the same time, the importance of language ideology rises through new analyses of the processes of language standardization. There are beliefs from certain communities regarding status of language being improved or impaired. Some individuals believe that standard languages are tied to writing and hegemonic institutions – the Europeans. The language politics specifically examines the contents and signifying structure of language ideology to investigate ethnicity and language.

Silverstein's studies (1979) found out that language structure correlates to language ideology and understanding the language usage of an individual is potentially to change his language ideology. This is supported by Rumsey (1990) who stated that language structure and language ideology are not independent from each other but both are not dependent on each other (as cited in Woolard, 2010, pp.241-242).

Language ideology is broadly defined as 'the feelings people have about their own language or the language of others' (Crystal, 1992). As a term, language ideology

may also be used to refer to the general and consensual set of beliefs about appropriate language and language use, values or status shared by the members of the same speech community for a particular language or language variety (Spolsky, 2009). This set of beliefs and attitudes held towards a language or languages that is/are articulated by the language users acts as a justification for the perceived language structure and use (Woolard & Schieffelin 1994, p. 57; Romaine, 2006, p. 585). The idea on how the participants and observers framed their understanding of the linguistic varieties (Irvine & Gal, 2000 as cited in Abongdia & Foncha 2014, p. 625) suggests that this idea was commonly shared by both parties and further put in boundaries between the used language and people. Thus, it can be deduced that the cultural system of ideas and feelings, norms and values amongst the respective individuals, may inform us about the way people think about language/s i.e. language ideology (Weber & Horner as cited in Abongdia & Foncha, 2014, p. 625). They further agreed that people have different degrees of language ideology. The language ideology liaises between social structures and the forms of talk of the people. Therefore, appropriate levels of language practices can enable a community to develop a consensual language ideology (ditto).

Language ideology represents the perceptions of language users' about how language is constructed in the interest of a specific social group. This language ideology is multiple and different. Due to their lack of consciousness, the language users usually display varying degrees of awareness of their language ideologies. The language ideologies of these groups of individuals tend to mediate between social structures and forms of talk (Kroskrity, 2000 as cited in Abongdia & Foncha 2014, p. 625).

Wardhaugh (2010) notes that value judgements are sometimes difficult to explain. This is because values are abstract and intangible, so more difficult to measure and verify. In looking at language users and their language choice, it appears that it may

be important to focus on the psychological factors playing in the language user's mind. The more value and prestige assigned to particular language varieties, the more language users are likely to be influenced into using such languages as their language practice (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14).

Analysing language ideologies is important because i) language ideologies are very relevant to the linguistic aspect as well as the sociological aspect, particularly in a multilingual community (Woolard, 1998 as cited in Kiss 2012, p. 38). Another benefit is that ii) language ideologies may emerge among the various research themes of modern social science since ideology is present in language (Fairclough, 1995 as cited in Kiss 2012, p. 38); iii) various people having complex and contradictory language ideologies in the bilingual educational settings. Their relationships are not only shaped by the country's language policies but also by the power of society (Field, 2008 as cited in Kiss 2012, p. 39); iv) which is able to reproduce and strengthen any level of inequality that exists in society. This can be used to promote and sustain ideological diversity (Fairclough, 1995 as cited in Kiss 2012, p. 39). Language ideology may also v) help to analyse the social and political problems that currently exist among members of the group (Bloommaert & Verschueren, 1998 as cited in Kiss, 2012, p. 39); vi) through research done on language ideologies, we are better able to understand the relationship between social inequality and linguistic nationalism (Kroskrity, 1999 as cited in Kiss, 2012, p. 39); and vii) language ideology certainly carries important information about how the influence of language beliefs can impact on the community members' choice of language use. This information can be used to enrich the discipline of study which may enable others to understand the linguistic profile of the various multilingual communities (Baquedano-Lopes & Kattan, 2007 as cited in Kiss 2012, p. 39).

Language ideology comprises many overlapping concepts such as 'beliefs', "values", "status", and "attitudes". Mc Kenzie (2010) suggests that the term requires a

more precise definition of related terminologies so as to mitigate the possibility of being ambiguous.

2.4.2.1 Previous sociolinguistics research on language ideology in Malaysia

Several studies have been conducted in Malaysia to study language attitudes of language users. Ting & Puah (2010) investigate the language attitudes of Hokkien speakers towards Hokkien and Mandarin. They focus on 50 students (25 males and 25 females) studying at a public university in Sarawak, Malaysia. The study examines the status and solidarity dimensions of the language attitudes of Hokkien and Mandarin speakers. They also focus on language attitudes of Hokkien speakers who have a strong and a weak Hokkien identity by using the matched-guise method. Six audio recordings are made by three bilingual female speakers using the same text in Mandarin and Hokkien. A five-point semantic differential scale is used for the dimension of status and solidarity in order to obtain the responses of the 50 Hokkien speakers. Based on their study, findings show that:

- i) Hokkien speakers have more positive attitudes towards Mandarin than Hokkien;
- ii) Mandarin is viewed as having a higher status value and solidarity value compared to Hokkien;
- iii) the need to have Hokkien dialect maintenance efforts by the Hokkien speech community is highlighted; and
- iv) the strength of the Hokkien identity may affect how the Hokkien speakers perceive the value of Hokkien based on the status and solidarity dimensions.

Kaur (2014) studies the trainee teachers' perception towards English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and examines how the trainee teachers view the native speaker (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) English accents. In the study, NS English accents refers to accents from USA, UK and Australia, and the NNS English accents is referred to the

English accents from Brazil, Spain, Germany, Sweden, India, China and Japan (p. 217). ELF is defined as ‘a world language whose speakers communicate mainly with other non-native speakers, often from different L1s than their own’ (Jenkins, 2006, p. 140).

A questionnaire adopted from Jenkins (2007, 2012) was answered by 36 pre-service English trainee teachers from a public university. The respondents were required to comment the three NS English accents and seven NNS English accents (p. 216).

The study found ‘Standard’ was used by the respondents to describe both the USA and UK English accents only but none of the NNS English accents (p. 217). There are more positive comments than negative comments used by the respondents to describe the USA and UK English accents. For example the respondents used the positive comments such as ‘cool’ and ‘intelligible’ and negative comments such as ‘colloquial’ and ‘harsh’ to describe the USA English accent. On the other hand, ‘RP’ and ‘beautiful’ are the positive comments and ‘snobbish’ and ‘hard’ are the negative comments given by the respondents to describe the UK English accent (pp. 217-218).

About the NNS English accents, the respondents gave more negative comments than positive comments towards the NNS English accents specifically the Indian and Japanese English accents but not the Spanish English accent because some of the respondents did not know the Spanish English accent (pp. 218-219). This showed the respondents have more favorable attitudes towards the NS English accents than the NNS English accents.

At the same time, the respondents nominated UK, USA and Australian English accents as the first, second and third best accents (pp. 220-221). This deduced that Malaysian teacher trainees in the study have the ideology that these three mentioned NS English accents are superior, model and standard of English in Malaysia.

Coluzzi (2016) used a match guise test to investigate the attitudes of Malaysian students towards three languages: Malay, English and Mandarin. A total of 50 students (10 Malays and 40 Chinese) aged from 20 to 24 from the University of Malaya participated in the study (p. 7).

Three passages which were in Malay, English and Mandarin about Kuala Lumpur downloaded from Wikipedia were used. These passages were in similar length, register and contents, and were recorded six times – twice in Malay, twice in English and twice in Mandarin by four students. One of the four students played the role as stimulus speaker and she was a trilingual Chinese. The other three students (one Chinese, one Malay and one Sino-Kadazan) were as the ‘distractors’. The stimulus speaker read the passages in three languages while the Chinese ‘distractor’ read the Mandarin version passage, the Malay ‘distractor’ read the Malay version passage and the Sino-Kadazan ‘distractor’ read the English version passage. The recordings were in the order of 1) Malay read by the stimulus speaker 2) Malay read by the Malay ‘distractor’ 3) English read by the Sino-Kadazan ‘distractor’ 4) English read by the stimulus speaker 5) Mandarin read by the Chinese ‘distractor’ and 6) Mandarin read by the stimulus speaker (pp. 5-6).

The participants answered a questionnaire with 10 seven-point semantic differential scales while or after listening to the recordings (pp. 6-7).

The study found that both the Malay and Chinese participants valued English as the most prestige language but their own language (Malay to Malay students and Mandarin to Chinese students) seem to have lower score than the other two languages (p. 9).

The language of globalization and economic opportunities, and also the preferred lingua franca among Malaysian intellectuals – English, has the absolute high prestige status among Malaysians. However Malay – the prestigious national language

and the only official language in Malaysia was largely used by the Malays only. The Chinese respondents believed that the Mandarin they practised in Malaysia was not as good as the Mandarin spoken in China, therefore, they valued Mandarin so low (p. 11).

Coluzzi (2017) investigates the implementation of language policy in Malaysia. Malay is the official language of Malaysia as stated in Article 152 of Federal Constitution. Malay is being used in the official domains. Though the aims of status planning are not only to give prestige to a language, it also extend the language usage domains (p. 26). The researcher finds that after 60 years of independence, 'Malay is hardly used in low domains by non-Bumiputras' and Malay ranks 'second to English in many high domains' (ditto). In the previous study of Coluzzi (2012), Malay is not perceived as a useful language and the prestige of the language is not recognized by many Malaysians. At the same time, English is perceived as the most important language (as cited in Coluzzi, 2017, p. 26) and preferred language for the student of the university to write e-mails and to text messages with people of the same ethnicity and different ethnicities (as cited in Coluzzi, 2017, pp. 26-27).

The researcher also finds that Malay is 'useful only to obtain a state-related jobs' but this job is the privilege of Bumiputras (p. 27). Few television program and books in Malay are aimed at all ethnic groups. The researchers concludes that the status planning of Malay failed to raise the prestige of national language to the level similar to other national languages in the world (p. 28).

In the context of corpus planning, the efforts of graphizing Malay are being conducted through producing dictionaries such as *Kamus Dewan* by an agency named *Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP)*. A common set of graphic of Malay in Malaysia, Indonesia, Brunei and Singapore is established based on Latin scripts and English spelling conventions (p. 23), the *Sistem Ejaan Rumi Baharu Bahasa Malaysia* or the New Rumi Spelling for Malay is used.

Besides graphization, the *DBP*, universities and other bodies have modernized Malay so that the language will be able to express any kind of idea through coinage of new words. Malay technical terms were coined based on Malay, Arabic and Sanskrit. The terms that taken from English are transformed to fit Malay phonological system (p. 24). Besides that, a joint effort of Malaysia and Indonesia collaboration named *Majlis Bahasa Malaysia-Indonesia* has published the General Guidelines for the Formation of Terms in Malay (p. 25). However according to the researcher's observation, there are differences in terminology between Malay and Indonesian although with the existence of guidelines, for example *bandar udara* (Indonesian) and *lapangan terbang* (Malay) both refer to 'airport' (ditto).

From the aspect of acquisition planning, nearly all Malaysians can speak, understand, write and read Malay but some with low proficiency. This is because some Malaysians are lack of practice. Malay is also perceived as low usefulness language (p. 28).

The researcher finds English is so 'deeply rooted, well known and useful' in Malaysia. Most Malaysians can speak English but not fluently. Mastery of English is the 'prerequisite to getting any good job in the private sector' (p. 30). The national language – Malay is difficult to rival English, the 'international language, language of progress and social and economic advancement'. Nonetheless, the foreigners in Malaysia can easily get by without knowing any Malay (ditto).

Many non-Bumiputras reject Malay because it is not perceived as a neutral language or neutral with respect to the various ethnic groups in the country. Malay is perceived as the 'language of Malays and of their religion'. The researcher also finds that Malaysians of different ethnic groups are suspicious of the other and they have the fears of assimilation. Furthermore the Malaysian authorities force the people to learn Malay instead of making the language be attractive to the people (p. 31). In addition,

Malay should be the important element in the creation of Malaysian identity instead of Malay identity to all Malaysians, then Malay may link people from different ethnicities together (p. 33). The researcher also suggests the Malays to learn some other ethnicities languages such as basic Mandarin and Tamil. By doing so, Malaysians not only will master Malay and English, and at the same time the indigenous languages are preserved (p. 34). Through having knowledge of different languages in Malaysia, all Malaysians will be able to understand each other's culture effectively (p. 33).

Except for Ting (2010a; 2010b), Kaur (2014) and Coluzzi (2016; 2017) all these studies seem to be focusing on the same area of interest, which is investigating the motivation and attitudes of learning English or in looking at the relationship between attitudes and motivation in learning English among students from different levels in Malaysia. It seems clear that the attitudes and motivation from the teachers' or lecturers' perspective has not been investigated.

This shows that language ideology study in Malaysia is limited to the study of attitudes and motivation in learning a language amongst students. There is clearly a gap in the study of language ideology and other varieties of studies in the field of language ideology. There is a need to provide more in depth information and input to better inform the public and other stakeholders of language policies about how language ideology is formed and how this is held by the various communities in Malaysia. Thus, there is a real need and reason for research of this nature to be conducted so that the language ideology of the people in the country towards the different languages available in this country, in particular school students and teachers. Such information and input can help to provide insights into how the stakeholders view and their beliefs about languages so that language policy designers will be aware of the difference in language ideology which is correlated to the choice of language and the success in the implementation of language management.

2.4.3 Language Management

Language management refers to the specified efforts to modify or influence practice through any kind of language intervention, planning or management (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5). Spolsky proposes that there is an individual or a group as the language manager who/which instructs the efforts to manipulate the language practice of the speech community (2004, p. 8). It is the explicit and observable effort by someone or some groups that have or claim to have authority over the participants in the domain to modify their language practices and language beliefs (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4).

Language management is not restricted to any specific type of language planning activity or policy maker and the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy. Usually, language management is not necessarily written in a formal document about language use (Spolsky, 2004, p. 11). It may include any form of planned intervention and at any level of society (Albury, 2012, p. 11). Language management may apply to an individual linguistic micro unit (a sound, a spelling or a letter), a collection of units (pronunciation, a lexicon or a script) or to a specified macro-variety, a language or a dialect (Spolsky, 2004, p. 10).

The school domain is the concluding domain to test impact of language management. This is because the schools are managing the students' language practice. The stakeholders in this domain have great vary in authority. The language managers (the teachers) are under a great pressure from those in authority over them.

According to Cooper (1989), language planning comprises status planning, corpus planning and acquisition planning (p. 33). Acquisition planning focuses on language acquisition policy or the language education policy which will decide what language/s to be used as the medium/media of instruction in the education system (Spolsky, 2004, p. 46). Spolsky proposed that the primary schools teaching lesson should be conducted in the children's home language or their mother tongue (Spolsky,

2004, p. 47). This may overcome the gap between home language and the language that the school wants everyone to acquire (Spolsky, 2004, p. 46).

2.4.3.1 Study of language management in Malaysia

Ong conducted his doctoral research at the University of Hong Kong on ‘Multilingual under Globalization: A focus on the Educational Language Politics in Malaysia since 2002’ in the year 2009. This research looked at the prospect of multilingualism in a multilingual society in Malaysia as a country under the forces of globalisation.

Ong (2009) thought that the three components of language policy are not in accordance with each other and he proposed the relationship between language policy and the three components: i) language practice, ii) language ideology and iii) language management in Spolsky’s Model of Language Policy (2004) as shown in Figure 2.2 (2009, p. 47).

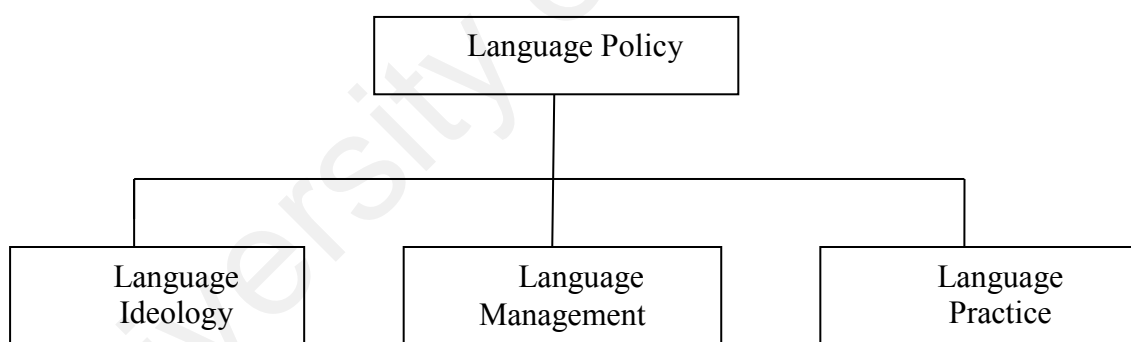


Figure 2.2: Model of Language Policy by Ong (2009)

Ong explored Malaysian educational language reforms in the context of the teaching of Science and Mathematics in English and the inclusion of Chinese and Tamil languages in the national schools. The changes and discrepancies amongst the state educational language ideology, language management, and societal language practices were examined. Official reports and circulars from the Ministry of Education, statements, reports and publications by civic organizations, newspaper reports, featured

articles and commentaries from local newspapers and news websites were analyzed. Face-to-face interviews and informal conversation with ruling elites, educators, opposition leaders, and heads of civic organizations were also conducted.

Ong (2009, p. 48) illustrates and depicts the relationship between the three components of Spolsky's theory of language management as in Figure 2.3.

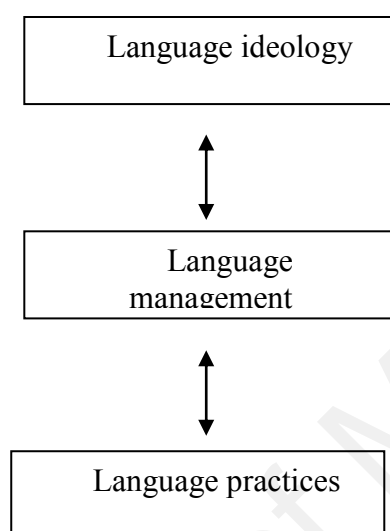


Figure 2.3: Interactions among language ideology, language management, and language practices by Ong (2009)

According to Ong (2009), the language ideology of a nation-state could only be realized in its society (language practice) through language management (language planning). On the other hand, this relationship can be reversed if there are new language practices in the society and may force the state to modify its language management and turn around the language ideology. Furthermore, if there is a gap between the state language ideology and societal language practice, it may exert the authority to intervene through language management through a top-down process.

Ong's study focused on the state language ideology and language management which is in the macro level together with micro level societal language practices carried out by the elites and the designers of the language management in the country. This research did not study and, therefore, is unable to describe, the grassroots' perceptions and the needs of language ideology and language practice among the grass-root

stakeholders.

This shows there is a dire need to conduct a study on societal language practice of the grass-root stakeholders to fill Ong's research gap.

2.4.3.2 One study which adopted Spolsky's Theory of language management in Iceland

In his study, Albury (2012) applied Spolsky's four determinants of language policy to ascertain whether and how these four determinants of language policy motivated the planning of language policies in Iceland and see whether divergences exist. The four determinants were also used to analyze the relevance of language policies in Iceland. Albury (2012) also used a qualitative approach to review the primary and secondary literature through academic journal articles, books, book chapters, thesis and published literature so as to be able to derive a plausible answer.

Spolsky's four determinants of language policy include: i) national ideology; ii) English as a global language; iii) sociolinguistic situation of a country; and iv) an increasing interest in linguistic minority rights. Albury used these determinants to assess whether the Icelandic national ideology or identity had motivated the community's language practice, language ideology or language management.

Albury (2012) concluded that Icelandic national ideology has motivated language ideology and language management but partially accounts for language practice in his study.

2.5 Summary

The concepts of language policy, language practice and language ideology, theoretical framework – Spolsky's Language Management and studies conducted by researchers from this country and other countries have been defined and reviewed. The

methodology of this research will be further discussed in chapter 3.

University of Malaya

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focusses on the methodology that has been used in this study. It explains the research design, the method used to collect data, the sampling selected, the background of the schools as well as the instruments used which include a questionnaire and interviews. This chapter will also discuss the method used to analyse the collected data.

3.2 Research design

This study adopts the mixed-method approach for the purpose of investigating what is termed by sociolinguists as language ideology, language practice and language management. The mixed research approach will thus encompass the use of quantitative and qualitative data. Specifically, this study examines which of the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin are being used, idealised and managed by the student respondents. The teachers' viewpoints are also considered since the teachers would also be the role models and the ones influencing the students on the use of the language. In the context of this study, the secondary schools of Malaysia served as the research site for the collection of data.

The background to this study was explained in Chapter One. Most of the policies implemented in the education system of Malaysia from before independence until now were also listed and explained in Chapter One. It was also mentioned in Chapter One that the focus of this study would be the use of the three dominant languages used in the education domain including Malay (the national and official language), English (the second most important language) and Mandarin (Pupil's Own Language). Since this study will also be covering the three types of Malaysian secondary schools known as: National schools, National-type schools and Chinese

Independent high schools, much of the description involving these schools was also provided in Chapter One.

Sociolinguistic Approach

The approach applied in this study follows a sociolinguistic approach because the sole aim of this study is to examine the diverse Malaysian community and how the intra-community variables of race (ethnicity) and languages used by the respective community affect the three elements of language practice, language ideology and language management. One important approach that is advocated for a sociolinguistic study is the recording and analysis of actual speech behaviours of the members of distinct sectors of a population (Bonvillain, 2014, p. 3). This helps to create a deeper insight into understanding how language is used.

However, to attempt to give focus to the inter-relationship existing between societal factors and the various languages used, particularly in a multicultural and multilingual nation like Malaysia, can be extremely complex. One example that can be linked to this complex nature was also explained in Chapter One, which attempted to briefly explain how the Chinese families in Malaysia are not homogenous in nature due to the different clans and dialects used. It was also explained that the Chinese have a range of linguistic varieties and children of the Chinese families may grow up with different mother tongues and first languages. In this study, a sociolinguistic approach was applied for the purpose of considering the various ways in which specific attributes such as ethnicity or setting or dominant language use may influence a speaker's selection of language in any given situation. Thus, this study focusses on the respondents' sociolinguistic patterns of language use. Looking at their frequency of usage in various settings, data were drawn from a multiracial and multilingual community that is spread over three different types of secondary schools which were located within the biggest state of the country, Selangor. A quantitative method had to

be applied, hence a survey was administered to 422 student respondents and 376 teacher respondents. To complement this quantitative approach, interviews were conducted with selected interviewees who were also drawn from the circle of stakeholders. Both these approaches were applied and then respectively analysed (Bonvillain, 2014, p. 4) using Spolsky's recommendation of measures (2009). The language practice and language ideology of the student respondents and teacher respondents about English, Malay and Mandarin were collected and analysed quantitatively and qualitatively; and the language management implemented in three types of school was also studied and analysed qualitatively.

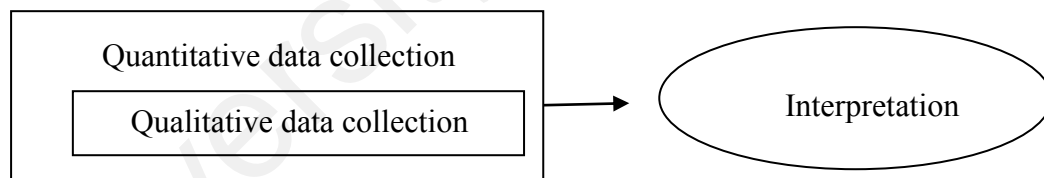
Mixed-Method Approach

In combining the use of quantitative and qualitative data, this study is inevitably using a mixed method research design where quantitative statistics are provided and the findings are then supported by the qualitative data. A mixed method approach is inevitable because language use, when viewed from a sociolinguistic point of view, should not be composed of only statistics but also contain some input collected from individuals such as those extracted from narratives or interviews. This helps to reveal what participants do in real situations. The qualitative data can then be used to support and validate some aspects of the quantitative findings.

A mixed-method research has been described by researchers as a set of procedures used in research for the purpose of collecting, analysing and supporting data from various angles so as to better understand the research problem. It usually encompasses the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (see Creswell, 2012, p. 535; Martella, Nelson, Morgan & Martella, 2013, p. 345). Mixed-method research strengthens the findings in terms of balance; it also supports research reliability as it attempts to draw data from two different perspectives. Applying a mixed-method research in a study further strengthens the overall outcomes of the study instead of

merely using the qualitative data or the quantitative approach (Creswell, 2012, p. 535; Martella et al., 2013, p. 345). A mixed-method design offers some support that can offset the weakness of one form, whether it is quantitative or qualitative in nature (Creswell, 2012, p. 535). In the context of this study, it is necessary to use a mixed-method approach because it enables the study to answer the research questions with more depth and breadth (Martella et al., 2013, p. 345). It also offers a more in-depth understanding of the oral language that was being used by the respondents of this study. In addition, it allows the data to be used as a comparison when attempting to gauge what was perceived to be the ideology held towards the respective languages of English, Malay and Mandarin.

Martella et al. (2013, p. 346) had introduced six mixed-method strategies which are concurrently embedded in the data collection and the analysis strategy of this study. In this regard, both the quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently with the former serving as primary data and the latter as the embedded data. Figure 3.1 illustrates.



(Adapted from Creswell, 2012)

Figure 3.1: Concurrent Embedded Data Strategy in Mixed-methods Approach

Quantitative Approach:

The descriptive quantitative approach used in the current study is for the purpose of comparing the frequency of the language practice (used verbally) and the perception of the language ideology held towards English, Malay and Mandarin. Thus, an inferential analysis derived from the quantitative approach was used to analyze:

- i) the differences of the language practice of respondents from three types of Malaysian secondary schools;
- ii) the differences of the language ideology held by the respondents toward the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin;
- iii) the correlation between the language practice and the language ideology of the respondents towards the three languages.

Qualitative Approach

The qualitative approach applied in this study uses open-ended interview questions to extract the verbal data from selected interviewees who comprise students and teachers. The purpose of this approach is to study the language practice and the perceptions of the respondents towards the three languages used and to examine the impact of language management on their language practice and language ideology. Data were thus drawn from the interviews which were recorded, transcribed verbatim and then analysed. In this regard, the interview data were first translated into English verbatim; they were then examined for certain themes that had emerged based on the questions asked. The data were then used to support the statistics claims, for example, if it was found that English was 'rarely' used by students in the national schools, then the spoken data extracted from the interview of students from a national school are used to support the claim. The mixed-method approach would thus comprise both reliable and valid statistical procedures which are supported by reliable qualitative data obtained from interviewees. It is deduced that a combination of both can help to counterbalance the strengths and weaknesses of each method. Hence, the mixed method approach can foster a deeper understanding of the concept of language practice, language ideology and language management.

3.3 Population and research sample

A population is a group of potential participants, objects or events which researchers want to focus on so that the results acquired can be used as a generalization for a representative sample within that population (Martella et al., 2013, p. 125; Creswell, 2012, p. 142). In education research, the population usually a group of persons who have the same characteristics. There are population of classrooms, schools or even facilities (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012, p. 92). In the context of this study, the participants' or the educational stakeholders' involved and the research sites located for this study comprise the Malaysian secondary schools' population and the Malaysian secondary schools located in the state of Selangor.

3.3.1 Educational stakeholders

All the stakeholders involved in educational institutions, they include the administrators, the teachers, the supportive staff and the students. However, the targeted stakeholders of this study were confined to only two groups: students and teachers. This is because they were the ones most affected by any change in any policy implementation. As the schools targeted comprise three types of Malaysian secondary schools, the only criterion set for the targeted teachers who would be involved as questionnaire respondents and interviewees was that they had to be teachers who were teaching the language subjects of English, Malay or Mandarin. The teacher respondents or the teacher interviewees may also be part of the chief panel of the subjects of English, Malay or Mandarin in the respective schools.

The ethnicity of the teachers, whether as questionnaire respondents or interviewees, was not included in the criterion for the selection of the teachers except that they must be teaching any of those three subjects of English, Malay or Mandarin.

At the same time, there were some criteria set for selecting the student respondents. These students had to be a) Form Four students and b) Studying English, Malay and Mandarin in the secondary schools within the state of Selangor.

The rationale for targeting the Form Four students as respondents and interviewees in the study is because Form Four students studying in Malaysian secondary schools were more accessible than Form Three or Form Five students. This is because schools do not normally want anything to affect their students who would be involved in major public examinations such as those in Forms Three and Forms Five. In addition, the imposition has also been endorsed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education; hence, approaching school principals for permission to doing research on Forms Three and Five would be futile. In addition, to conduct a survey on the lower secondary students such as those who are in Form One, as the transitional group moving from Standard Six in the primary school environment to Form One in the secondary school environment, may not provide a true reflection of their perceptions.

This is because as pupils at the transitional stage joined the secondary schools for few months during the data collection in the study, they may not be clear about the situations asked in the survey and they may not have the adequate experience to indicate a more reliable response to the items asked in the questionnaire. Hence, the target group would comprise to those students who were in Form Four. In addition to this, this group of Form Four students would be sitting for their *SPM* examination the following year, hence, their responses toward the questionnaire may be considered as reflective and appropriate. As has been explained in Chapter One, the secondary school system in Malaysia comprises five years beginning from Form One to Form Five. The lower secondary is from Form One to Form Three and the upper secondary is from Form Four to Form Five. The Form Three students would be sitting for their *SRP/PMR/PT3* (already explained in Chapter One) public examinations while the Form Five students

would be sitting for their *SPM* examination. The examination involving *SRP/PMR* were already explained in Chapter One whereas the *PT3* is a more current form of public examination which was recently introduced for those students studying in Form Three. The *SPM* public examination has already been explained in Chapter One.

The Form Four students were in the upper secondary forms and they were assumed to be more mature compared to the students in the lower forms. Moreover, they were also more capable of expressing their perceptions toward the importance of the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin because they have been through their Form Three examinations, hence, they would have fewer uncertainties than the lower form students may experience.

The targeted student respondents and student interviewees were also asked if they were learning the three languages – English, Malay and Mandarin. This would serve as an assurance that all the student respondents and student interviewees in the study are polyglots. As the newer generation of Malaysia who were born in the year 1996 and exposed to the learning of English and Malay in their schools, commencing from Standard One in the primary schools until they were in Form Four, these students were thus considered to have some proficiency level in these two languages. The fact that most of them were from Chinese background also suggests that they would have been exposed to some level of Mandarin in their primary schools, Pupil's Own Language classes or they would have had sufficient exposure to Mandarin in their vernacular (primary) schools. Thus, they would be considered as possessing multilingual proficiencies. In this study, the ethnicity of the students was not the determining criterion for being selected as the respondents and the interviewees.

3.3.1.1 Population of educational stakeholders

According to the statistics provided by the education department and the administrators of the Chinese Independent high schools in the state of Selangor, from the time they were approached at the beginning of this study until the month of July 2014, there were a total of 6464 teachers teaching the subjects of English, Malay and Mandarin throughout the three types of secondary schools in Malaysia. Table 3.1 illustrates.

Table 3.1 Population of English, Malay and Mandarin teachers in three types of secondary school in Selangor

Types of school	Number of language teacher
National school	5852
National-type school	413
Chinese Independent high school	199
Total	6464

Source: Statistics of Education Department and administrators of Chinese Independent high schools in Selangor (2014)

In addition, based on the statistics provided by the Malaysian Secondary School Mandarin Teachers' Association and the administrators of the Chinese Independent high schools within the state of Selangor, there were a total of 65,744 students attending Mandarin classes in the three types of secondary schools from the time this study began until the month of July 2014. Table 3.2 illustrates.

Table 3.2 Population of students attending Mandarin classes in three types of secondary school in Selangor

Type of school	Number of student
National school	46434
National-type school	11754
Chinese Independent high school	7556
Total	65744

Source: Malaysian Secondary School Mandarin Teacher Association and administrators of Chinese Independent high school (2014)

3.3.1.2 Sampling of educational stakeholders

In order to determine the number of schools and the number of respondents recruited for this study, Krejcie and Morgan's formula, developed in 1970, was used to determine the sample size of the respondents in this study. Consequently, it was determined with the confidence level of 95 percent and five percent of confidence interval, as shown by the formula below:

$$s = X^2NP(1-P) \div d^2(N-1) + X^2P(1-P)$$

where:

s = required sample size

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (.50 in this study)

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05)

The number of sampling needed for the measurement, based on the above requirement, was to achieve a minimum of 382 student respondents and 363 teacher respondents. The number of the student and teacher respondents in each type of secondary school was determined by using the ratio of student population and teacher population in the three types of secondary schools. A summary of the student sampling and teacher sampling recruited from the three types of secondary schools is presented in Table 3.3 and Table 3.4 respectively.

Table 3.3 Summary of minimal sample and the targeted sample of teacher respondents from the three types of secondary schools

Type of school	Minimal sample	Collected sample
National school	329	340
National-type school	23	25
Chinese Independent high school	11	11
Total	363	376

As can be seen, there are more national schools in Selangor, with 90.4 percent followed by only 6.6 percent national-type schools and only around 2.9 percent of these

schools are the Chinese Independent high schools.

Table 3.4 Summary of minimal sample and the targeted sample of student respondents of the three types of secondary schools

Type of school	Minimal sample	Collected sample
National school	270	299
National type school	68	75
Chinese Independent High school	44	48
Total	382	422

From the above table, it can also be seen that the two tables bear similarities in terms of the ratio of the schools.

3.3.2 Specific details of respondents

It was noted that of the total of 422 student respondents recruited for this study, 271 were female students and 151 were male students. They were from the three types of secondary schools explained earlier. All the student respondents of the study were also of Chinese ethnicity, which made it homogenous in a sense and this was also incidentally a good sample to focus on as there are not many sociolinguistic studies conducted specifically of one ethnic community in the Malaysian context. The incidental outcome of this section was not planned because Malaysia is a multi-cultural and multi-ethnic society and students were expected to be spread out throughout the different schools. Nonetheless, it was expected that the majority of the students from the national schools would be more diverse in terms of ethnicity because in Malaysia most students who were in the vernacular schools at primary level would also enter the national schools to pursue their secondary education. There are fewer national-type secondary schools, thus the number of Chinese students entering these schools may be limited. Nonetheless, it cannot be denied that students from the national-type schools in this country tend to be more inclined towards Chinese while the majority of students

attending the Chinese Independent high schools would be mostly of Chinese ethnicity. This outcome was also briefly outlined in Chapter One.

The teachers serving in the three types of secondary schools are, however, multi-ethnic. In this regard, the majority of the teachers serving in national secondary schools would be of Malay ethnicity, while the majority of the teachers serving in the national-type secondary schools and the Chinese Independent high schools were more likely to be of Chinese ethnicity. Nonetheless, besides the teachers being of Malay and Chinese ethnicity, other teachers may be of Indian ethnicity including a few Malaysian Punjabi teachers, *Iban* teachers (the indigenous group from Sarawak, a Malaysian state on Borneo) and *Kadazandusun* teachers (the indigenous group from Sabah, a Malaysian state on Borneo). This explanation is provided not just to outline the diversity of Malaysia in ethnicities, but also to show that Malaysians from different parts of the country are beginning to integrate among themselves slowly. The teachers from Peninsula Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak are serving the same secondary school in the targeted state showed integration among teachers from the country. However, to date, their numbers may still be comparatively small.

In the context of this study, the teacher respondents, unlike the student respondents, were of different ethnicities. Of a total of 376 teacher respondents, the majority, or 234/376, or 62.2 percent, were Malays and 82, or 21.8 percent, were Chinese, 53, or 14.1 percent, were Indians and seven, or 1.9 percent, were minorities such as Punjabis, *Ibans* and *Kadazandusuns*. More than three quarters, 314/376, or 83.5 percent, were females and the balance of 62, or 16.6 percent were males.

These teacher respondents taught the three language subjects of English, Malay and Mandarin in the three types of secondary schools. Of a total of 376 teacher respondents, 175, or 46.5 percent of the teacher respondents, taught Malay, 156, or 41.5 percent of the teachers, taught English and 45, or 12 percent, taught Mandarin.

In the national-type secondary schools and the Chinese Independent high schools, the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin were also offered as compulsory language subjects. However, the compulsory language subjects in the national secondary schools were only English and Malay. Mandarin was only offered as an elective and an additional language subject under the Pupil's Own Language category in the schools.

3.3.2.1 Population of the three types of secondary schools

There were 227 national secondary schools or *SMKs* (<http://jpnselangor.moe.gov.my>); five national-type secondary schools or *SMJKs* (<http://www.smjk.edu.my>) and four Chinese Independent high schools (<https://www.dongzong.my>) in the state of Selangor.

Based on the statistics provided by the Education department of the state of Selangor, all the *SMKs* offer the subjects of Malay and English since these two are compulsory subjects to be studied by all the students in all the schools in Malaysia. However, until the month of July 2014 it was noted that there were only 141 *SMKs* offering the subject of Mandarin in ten district offices in the state of Selangor.

The *SMJKs* were located in only four district offices in Selangor. There were two *SMJKs* located in the Klang district office; one was located in the district office of Hulu Langat; one was located in the district office of Sabak Bernam; and the other one was located in the district office of Petaling Utama. However, all the Chinese Independent High schools which totalled four in number, were located in the district office of Klang.

3.3.2.2 Sampling of schools

The secondary schools targeted for this study were selected through the Simple Random Sampling strategy. Creswell (2012, p. 143) affirms that this strategy would be suitable for selecting individuals who would be sampled to serve as representative of a population. It was also noted that any bias in the population would be equally distributed among the people chosen if this strategy was applied. Simple random sampling requires three steps (Creswell, 2012, p. 143; Martella et al., 2013, p. 126). The first step is to define the population. After this individuals are assigned with a number and finally, a random number table is used to select the individuals.

In this study, the defining of the population targeted would start by first selecting the secondary schools which fulfilled two criteria from the list of Statistics of Schools provided by the Education department of the state of Selangor. The first criterion was that the secondary schools offer Mandarin classes to Form Four students. The second criterion was that the secondary schools have teachers who taught one of the three subjects of English, Malay, and Mandarin.

After sorting out the list of secondary schools provided by the Education department of the state of Selangor, those that fulfilled the above-mentioned criteria were identified. This new list of secondary schools was then sub-divided into three main groups consisting of the targeted group of national secondary schools or *SMKs*, national-type secondary schools or *SMJKs* and the Chinese Independent high schools.

The list of *SMKs* was further sub-divided into ten districts, but the list of *SMJKs* and the Chinese Independent high schools could not be further sub-divided because their population was small.

The list of national secondary schools *SMKs* was not given with numbers. Instead, a random pick of the targeted secondary schools was conducted by using a computer software i.e. by using the random function of the Microsoft Excel. Initially,

the random function picked three types of secondary schools which were as follows:

- i) 10 national secondary schools were picked as a result of one school being identified from every district;
- ii) Two out of five national type secondary schools were randomly picked;
- iii) One out of four Chinese Independent high schools was randomly picked.

Despite the above, the random picking of the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary schools had to be performed many times because of bureaucratic issues. For instance, the administrators of two Chinese Independent high schools and several national secondary schools rejected the researcher's application to conduct the study in the randomly selected schools. As a result, an alternative Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school from the same district of those rejected was random picked again until permission was received from the administrators of the secondary schools, as those targeted for the study.

Beside that, an additional national secondary school was also randomly picked from the district of Petaling Utama, after the administrator of the targeted national secondary school had given his consent for the researcher to conduct the study. This is because the targeted national secondary school located in this district had very few Form Four students who were also attending Mandarin classes. The language teacher who was teaching the subject of Mandarin had also retired, hence there was no language teacher to teach Mandarin in that particular national secondary school. Due to this vacancy, very few students were attending the Mandarin classes in the school.

Together with two national secondary schools selected from the district of Petaling Utama, there are 14 targeted secondary schools in this study comprising 11 *SMKs*, two *SMJKs* and one Chinese Independent high school.

In addition, the interview sites were also selected through the Simple Random Sampling strategy. One interview site for the national secondary school was selected

among the 11 national secondary schools and one interview site was selected for the national-type secondary school. Since there is only one Chinese Independent high school targeted as the survey site in this study, likewise it also served as the interview site.

3.4 Research instruments

The corpus of analysis in the study consisted of questionnaires and audiotape recordings of interviews. The questionnaires were used to obtain the quantitative data whereas the interview recordings were used to gather the qualitative data.

3.4.1 The questionnaire and rationale

The questionnaire was used to collect data and to answer RQ 1, RQ 2 and RQ 3 in the study. The purpose of using this instrument was to quantify the frequency of oral language practice of the three languages by Malaysian secondary school education stakeholders, i.e. the students and the teachers as well as their perception of the importance of the three languages.

During Pilot study 1, only the interview instrument was used to look at the oral language practice and language ideology of the three languages of the student interviewees and the teacher interviewees in Malaysian secondary schools. Some of the interviewees were found to have difficulties in expressing their perceptions about the importance of the three languages. With a little more probing, it was observed that this is because the interviewees had difficulty in expressing their abstract perception about the importance of the three languages.

In order to address this problem, the questionnaire was designed as a tool to guide the participants into giving more structured responses on their oral language practice and their perception towards the three languages. The questionnaire was then

complemented with the interview sessions with selected education stakeholders.

Two sets of questionnaires were developed: one targeted the teacher respondents and one targeted the student respondents. Both sets of questionnaire were set in three languages i.e. English, Malay and Mandarin. The questionnaire was developed and adapted. The questions in Part 2: Language Practice were designed by the researcher; Part 3: Language Ideology was adapted from the questionnaires of Gao (2011), Vdovichenko (2011), Gardner (2004) and Lee (2007). The relevant questions from the questionnaires of Gao (2011), Gardner (2004) and Vdovichenko (2011) were selected and modified based on the context of this study for the Integrative orientation and Instrumental orientation respectively. The descriptions proposed by Lee (2007) were then adapted and modified as the questions for the Cultural orientation. The questions of these three orientations were prepared to investigate the educational stakeholders' perceptions of English, Malay and Mandarin in the school domain.

Both sets of questionnaire comprised three parts. Part 1 contained the demographic information of the respondents; Part 2 investigated the oral language practice of the educational stakeholders in different school settings (to answer RQ 3) and Part 3 examined the perceptions of the respondents toward English, Malay and Mandarin (to answer RQ2). The breakdown of the questionnaire items designed for the teacher respondents is shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Teacher's questionnaire - items breakdown

Part	Dimension	Number of item	Source
Part 1	Demographic Information	11	
Part 2	Language practice		
	• Setting 1: School assemblies	5	
	• Setting 2: School academic/ administration meetings	5	
	• Setting 3: In the administrative office	20	
	• Setting 4: In the teachers office	12	
	• Setting 5: In the classroom	4	
	• Setting 6: At the library	7	
	• Setting 7: At the school canteen	7	
	• Setting 8: Extra-curricular activities	5	
Part 3	Language ideology		
	• Integrative orientation	4	Gao (2011); Gardner (2004)
	• Instrumental orientation	16	Vdovichenko (2011)
	• Cultural orientation	7	Lee (2007)

The breakdown of the questionnaire items designed for the student respondents is shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Student's questionnaire - item breakdown

Part	Dimension	Number of item	Source
Part 1	Demographic Information	8	
Part 2	Language practice		
	• Setting 1: School assemblies	5	
	• Setting 2: In the administrative office	20	
	• Setting 3: In the teachers office	4	
	• Setting 4: In the classroom	4	
	• Setting 5: At the library	6	
	• Setting 6: At the school canteen	6	
	• Setting 7: Extra-curricular activities	6	
Part 3	Language ideology		
	• Integrative orientation	4	Gao (2011); Gardner (2004)
	• Instrumental orientation	16	Vdovichenko (2011)
	• Cultural orientation	7	Lee (2007)

The researcher did not use the same set of questionnaire to investigate the oral language practice of the education stakeholders in the study because the student respondents and the teacher respondents were playing different roles in the respective Malaysian secondary schools, hence it was deduced that their language practice in the schools may be different from each other.

Therefore, the number of language practice settings provided in Part 2, for the student respondents was different from the teacher respondents. There were eight language practice settings designed in the questionnaire targeted at the teacher respondents but there were seven language practice settings designed in the questionnaire targeted at the student respondents (Table 3.5 and Table 3.6).

However, the number of items set in Part 3 of the questionnaire for both the student and teacher respondents were the same. Both sets of questionnaires comprised three orientations i.e. the integrative orientation (integrate into a target language to achieve other purposes), instrumental orientation (use knowledge of a target language to achieve other purposes) (Kouritzin, 2012, p. 466) and the cultural orientation (use a target language to reflect cultural aspect) (Table 3.5 and Table 3.6).

The frequency of the oral language practice of the three languages noted in Part 2 of the questionnaire was measured by using a five-point Likert scale. The respondents used the five-point Likert scale to indicate how frequency they used the languages and the scales used are illustrated in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7 Five-point Likert Scale for Language Practice

Scale	Frequency
1	never
2	rarely
3	sometimes
4	very often
5	always

The perceptions of the respondents were measured by their agreement on the importance of English, Malay and Mandarin. Likewise, the respondents used a five-point Likert scale to measure the importance of the three languages, as shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8 Five-point Likert Scale for Language ideology

Scale	Agreement
1	strongly disagree
2	disagree
3	neutral
4	agree
5	strongly agree

Before commencing the data collection session, the validity and reliability of the items in the questionnaires were assured. The questionnaires for the student respondents and teacher respondents were originally set in English. The translation of the questionnaires into Malay and Mandarin were conducted by the researcher and send to translation experts to check precision.

a) Validity of instrument

According to Martella et al. (2013), validity generally focuses on whether the instrument indicates what it claims to measure (p. 70). Validity comprises:

- i) content validity which determines whether the domain has been adequately covered (Greco, L.D, Walop W and McCarthy, R. H, 1987, p. 699) and is able to ensure that the questionnaire includes items that represent the entire range of skills and competencies (Martella et al, 2013, p. 81);
- ii) construct validity which focusses on the extent to which the new questionnaire conforms to the constructs that are being measured (Greco et al, 1987, p. 699);
- iii) face validity may reflect real validity; it refers to the appearance of the questionnaire (ditto); and
- iv) criterion validity which indicates the effectiveness of a questionnaire in measuring what it claims to measure (ditto).

The questionnaires of the study were sent to three experts in the field of sociolinguistics and language planning to validate the instruments. The experts comprise two Professors and one Associate Professor from three universities i.e. the University of Science Malaysia, University of Malaysia Sarawak, and University of Technology Malaysia.

The validated questionnaires were sent to three experts to validate the translation after the original questionnaire was translated into Malay and Mandarin. These three experts of translation comprised two editors from a local publishing company and a secondary school teacher.

Pilot Study 2 was then conducted after the questionnaire was translated and validated. The purpose was to test the internal reliability of the items set in the questionnaire. The outcome of Pilot Study 2 will be discussed in the next section: the reliability of the instrument.

b) Reliability of instrument

Creswell (2014, p. 247) defines reliability as 'the scores to items on an instrument are internally stable over time and whether there was consistency in test administration and scoring'. It indicates whether the questionnaire had performed consistently (Greco et al, 1987, p. 700). There are five approaches to test the reliability of the instruments and Creswell (2012 pp. 160-162) suggests that researchers use any of the approaches which encompass: i) Test-retest reliability; ii) Alternate forms reliability; iii) Alternate forms and test-retest reliability; iv) Inter-rater reliability; and v) Internal consistency reliability.

The scores of an instrument are considered reliable and accurate if the respondents' scores are internally consistent across the items on the instrument (Creswell, 2012, p. 161). There are three ways to examine the consistency of the responses which are i) the Kuder-Richardson split half test; ii) the Spearman-Brown formula; and iii) the coefficient alpha (Creswell, 2012, pp. 161-162).

Among the three ways available to examine the consistency of the responses, the coefficient alpha was selected for application in this study to measure the reliability of the instruments i.e. the Cronbach's alpha (α) was used. This is because the coefficient alpha is able to estimate the internal consistency of the scores in the instrument as a measure to see if the items of a study are continuous variable scores (Creswell, 2012, p. 162).

The items used to measure the oral language practice and the perceptions of the student and teacher respondents toward English, Malay and Mandarin in Malaysian secondary schools were all considered as continuous variables. The Likert scale was used to measure the oral language practice (*always* to *never*) and language ideology (*strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*).

The reliability coefficient (r) or Cronbach's alpha coefficient provides an estimate of the effect of the unsystematic measurement error on the findings (Martella et al., 2013, p.75). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient looks at the internal consistency which then measures to see whether all the items used in an instrument measured the same thing (George & Mallery, 2009, p. 223).

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0.00 to 1.00 (George & Mallery, 2009, p. 223; Martella et al., 2013, p.75; Green and Salkind, 2012, p. 327). If the items of the instrument were ambiguous or produced unreliable responses, the alpha coefficient falls outside the range of 0 to 1 (Green & Salkind, 2012, p. 327).

According to Chua (2012, p. 127), the research instrument is considered as 'significant' only when the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is more than .65. The instrument is 'satisfactory' when the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is between .65 to .79; the instrument is 'high and satisfactory' when the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is between .80 to .95, but when the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is more than .95, it is considered as 'less satisfactory'.

Chua explains that the instrument using Cronbach's alpha coefficient of more than .95 suggests that the items of the questionnaire were similar or were overlapping (Chua, 2012, p. 136), but this was opposed by Martella et al. (2013) and George and Mallery (2009). They noted that the higher the reliability, the smaller the influence of the measurement error (Martella et al., 2013, p. 75; George & Mallery, 2009, p. 223).

According to George and Mallery's (2009) rule of thumb, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale, the closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be to 1.00 (George & Mallery, 2009, p. 243). Table 3.9 depicts the summary of the reliability which was redefined by the researcher after the scales proposed by Chua (2012) and George & Mallery (2009) were combined. Chua's (2012) explanation of the reason that the Cronbach's alpha should not be more than .95 was rejected because there were overlapping of items or it is to say that there are more than one item testing the same aspect.

Table 3.9 Summary of research instrument reliability

Reliability coefficient (r)	Reliability
.96 to 1.00	excellent
.80 to .95	high and satisfactory
.65 to .79	satisfactory
.50 to .64	not satisfactory
less than .50	too low and not satisfactory

As mentioned earlier, the validated questionnaires were then used in Pilot Study 2 and these questionnaires were sent to one national secondary school in the district of Petaling Utama and one national secondary school in the district of Petaling Perdana.

The rationale for choosing only national secondary school as the research site for pilot testing is because the number of national secondary schools located in the state of Selangor is much bigger than the number of Chinese Independent high schools and

national type secondary schools.

The questionnaires were attempted by thirty student respondents and thirty teacher respondents of the two national secondary schools. This was conducted from the month of March to May 2015. The two national secondary schools involved in Pilot Study 2 were excluded from the targeted national secondary schools which were selected through simple random sampling.

The internal consistency and reliability of the questionnaires answered by the student respondents and teacher respondents of the two national schools during Pilot Study 2, ranged from .74 to .88. This showed that the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the items in the questionnaires were 'satisfactory' to 'high and satisfactory'. Furthermore the Correlated Item-Total Correlation ranged from .314 to .981 i.e. more than .3. These values showed the items in the questionnaires were not measuring something different from the scale as a whole (Pallant, 2011, p. 100).

Based on this, it was deduced that all the items of these variables could be used and were suitable for the study.

3.4.2 Interview and rationale

Interview sessions were conducted for the purpose of collecting in-depth data of the oral practice of the three languages of the education stakeholders in different school settings as well as to confirm some of their perceptions toward the three languages which also answer RQ 1, RQ 2 and RQ 4 in the study.

The interview conducted in this study can explore the individual's mind (Gall et al. as cited in Martella et al, 2013, p. 331). The advantage of the interview is that it allows the researcher to capture the complexities of the interviewee's perceptions and experiences (Patton as cited in Martella et al, 2013, p. 331). The interview would also allow the interviewer to have a better control over the types of information received.

This can be accomplished by asking specific questions which elicit the information required (Creswell, 2012, p. 218).

Before the interview sessions were conducted with the student and teacher interviewees in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools, the interview protocol had to be prepared. The protocol of the interviews was designed in relation to the role of the interviewees in the education domain, that is the protocol also comprised three parts. Part 1: Oral language practice of the educational stakeholders in different school settings; Part 2: Language ideology of the education stakeholders towards English, Malay and Mandarin; and Part 3: the impact of language management on the language practice and language ideology of the education stakeholders.

Part 1 of the interview protocol aims to answer RQ 1; Part 2 aims to answer RQ 2; and Part 3 aims to answer RQ 4. In Part 1, the protocol of questions addressing the teacher and student interviewees comprised eight and seven settings respectively. The settings of the interview protocol for the teacher and student interviewees are shown in Table 3.10 and Table 3.11 respectively.

Table 3.10 Settings of teachers' interviewee protocol

Interviewee	Settings
Language teacher	Setting 1: During school assemblies Setting 2: During administration meetings Setting 3: In the administrative office Setting 4: In the teachers office Setting 5: In the classroom Setting 6: At the library Setting 7: At the school canteen Setting 8: During extra-curricular activities

Table 3.11 Settings of students' interviewee protocol

Interviewee	Settings
Student	Setting 1: During school assemblies Setting 2 a: In the administrative office Setting 2 b: In the teachers office Setting 3: In the classroom Setting 4 a: At the library Setting 4 b: At the school canteen Setting 5: During extra-curricular activities

All the questions in the protocol were open-ended. The accuracy of the interview protocols was initially validated by the supervisor.

Pilot Study 1 was conducted to validate the protocol of the interview in two Chinese Independent high schools and two national type secondary schools in the middle of August 2013. A total of 24 interviewees (N=24) comprising six school administrators, nine language teachers and nine students participated.

The outcome of the pilot study was presented at the Second Biennial International Conference on Malaysian Chinese Studies in 2014; it was organized by the Centre for Malaysian Chinese Studies at HELP University from 20-21 June 2014. The article was published in the *Proceeding of The Second Biennial International Conference on Malaysian Chinese Studies 2014* (pp. 459-477); *Malaysia and the Chinese Community in Transition: Selected Papers on The Second Biennial International Conference on Malaysian Chinese Studies, 2014 – Humanities and Literature* (pp. 367-392).

The interview protocols were also forwarded to the Professor of the University of Science, Malaysia for final validation. Once validated, the interview protocols were also sent to the teachers and editors for validation of the translation.

3.5 Data collection

Before data collection could be initiated, permission to conduct the study in the school domain had to be sought from three levels of the government agencies. It began with the ministry level i.e. the Malaysian Education Ministry, followed by the state level i.e. the Education department of the state of Selangor and finally, the school level i.e. the school administrators.

The application letters seeking permission from the school administrators were sent to 23 secondary schools by hand. This was followed up by telephone calls with school administrators or the administrative staff of the schools concerned. The entire process of seeking permission to conduct the study at the 14 schools randomly picked, consumed a total of six weeks before the survey and interview sessions could commence.

The questionnaires and interview protocols were then submitted to the school administrators of some secondary schools for screening purpose before appointments with the interviewees were made. Some of the secondary schools requested that the identity of the respondents and interviewees be kept anonymous. The interview protocols were handed to the interviewees prior to the interview sessions being conducted.

The questionnaire survey started in July 2015 and the entire process was completed in early October 2015. The interview sessions with the teacher and student interviewees started in early July 2015 and it was completed in early August 2015. The data collection through the survey took a longer time than the interviews. The researcher was allowed to administer the survey in one national type secondary school and four national secondary schools.

For the other nine schools, the researcher was only allowed to send the questionnaires to the counsellor or the senior assistants and the actual administration of

the questionnaire was then conducted by the respective schools, without the researcher's presence. The administration of the questionnaire was conducted by the counsellor or the teachers who were teaching the subject of Mandarin in the nine schools. This was the imposition laid by the respective schools. The data collection process was delayed slightly due to the lack of cooperation from some teacher respondents who were based in some of the secondary schools. In addition, the researcher also had to travel as far as 110km to the targeted secondary schools on more than one occasion to conduct the survey, even though the senior assistants had approved the study. This was happened where the researcher travelled to the targeted school for the first time to hand over the questionnaires to the senior assistant. However, the senior assistant was too busy and did not inform that there were some teacher respondents did not answer or submit the answered questionnaires before the promised date, the researcher had to travel to the targeted school for the third time to collect the answered questionnaires.

The interview sessions began after the student and the teacher interviewees had answered the questionnaires. A Letter of Consent was given to each of them for permission to use the information collected from the interview. These were signed and agreed on by the interviewees before the interview session commenced. The interviewees were also briefed by the researcher about the process of the interview session and that the interview would be recorded with a tape recorder.

The interviewees were also briefed by the researcher that the audio recording transcriptions would be sent to the interviewees for validation and if they agreed, they would also sign the Letter of validation.

The teacher interviewees were interviewed individually because the interview sessions with them were conducted during their free time which differed from each other.

However, the student interviewees were interviewed in pairs. The interview sessions with the student interviewees of the national-type secondary school and the national secondary school were conducted during school hours or during their learning time. Meanwhile, the interview sessions with the interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school were conducted on Friday, after their school hours.

The rationale for interviewing the students in pairs was to minimize the disruption caused by the interviews as these students had to sacrifice their class hours for them to be interviewed. Moreover, it was also not to interfere with their extra classes such as their tuition classes or co-curricular activities after school hours.

The average interview time of the teacher and student interviewees were 40 minutes and 25 minutes respectively.

3.6 Data analysis

Before data analysis could be carried out, a transcription of the interview recordings had to be processed. The data were transcribed verbatim and where required, an English translation was provided. This was followed by the validation of the transcriptions by the interviewees. Once this was approved by the respective interviewees, these were placed aside and the input of the questionnaires were keyed into the computer software named IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Version 22 for statistical analysis.

As mentioned, there were two sets of data collected in the study. The quantitative data extracted from the questionnaire and the qualitative data extracted from the transcribed interview data were processed and analysed separately. In the case of the former, a descriptive statistical analysis and an inferential statistics analysis derived from the software were tabulated for analysis. The qualitative data used content analysis which focussed on themes to explore the qualitative data.

3.6.1 Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative data analysis which were conducted in the research were the 1) internal reliability coefficients of the questionnaire of the three languages; 2) the central of tendency – the mean; 3) the language practice and language ideology variance among three types of secondary school; and 4) the correlation between language practice and language ideology of student and teacher respondents.

3.6.1.1 Reliability coefficients – Cronbach's alpha coefficient

After all the information of the questionnaires were keyed into the system, the reliability coefficients and Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the items noted in the research instrument or questionnaire was checked before further analysis was conducted.

The instrument used in this study was noted to be reliable for measuring the language practice and language ideology of the English, Malay and Mandarin for student and teacher respondents. The reliability coefficients in all the school settings and all the orientations were significant, that is they carried a Cronbach's alpha of ranged from .65 to .98 or 'satisfactory' to 'excellent' reliability.

It was deduced that all the items of these variables could be used and were suitable for the study.

3.6.1.2 Descriptive statistics analysis

Descriptive statistics analysis is designed to describe the distribution of the variables in the research (George & Mallery, 2009, p. 96; Creswell, 2012, p. 182). The measures of the central tendency can summarize the behaviours of a variable (Gries, 2013, p. 115). There are three main measures of the central tendency. The mean is the average value of the distribution; the mode is the value that most frequently occurs or is observed; and the median is the middle value of the distribution which is used for ordinal variables

(George & Mallery, 2009, p. 98; Gries, 2013, pp. 115-116).

In this study, the means were analysed as the central tendency to measure the average frequency of the oral language practice of English, Malay and Mandarin by the student and teacher respondents from three types of Malaysian secondary schools; as well as the student and teacher respondents' average agreement on the importance of the three languages.

3.6.1.3 Inferential statistics analysis

Inferential statistics analyse data based on a sample as a means to draw conclusions. This was conducted in the current study so as to analyse the variance of the oral language practice of the student and teacher respondents from three types of secondary schools, the variance of the language ideology of the student and teacher respondents and the correlation of their language practice and language ideology.

i) variance

In this study, a nonparametric test was conducted to compute an inferential statistical analysis. This test is applied because it deals with a study with a population which is not normally distributed and if the assumption of normality is violated (George & Mallery, 2009, p. 208). As explained by Pallant (2011, p. 111), 'if the sample is normally distributed, parametric tests are applied if the underlying distribution of scores in the population which have drawn the sample is normally distributed'.

In the current study, there were 48 student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school, 75 students from the national-type secondary schools and 299 students from the national secondary school (Table 3.4). As far as teachers are concerned, 11 teacher respondents were from the Chinese Independent high school; 25 were from the national-type school; and 340 were from the national school (see Table 3.3). This shows that the number of student respondents and teacher respondents who

came from 14 schools and three types of Malaysian secondary schools were not normally distributed. Therefore, a nonparametric test was conducted.

The Kruskal-Wallis H test (Chua, 2008, pp. 172-212) was conducted so as to compute the above mentioned variances which were not normally distributed or a non-parametric test to test the differences between two or more group instead of using a One-way ANOVA test. This test was conducted because the independent variable, the type of schools, was divided into three groups: the national secondary schools, the national-type secondary schools and the Chinese Independent high school with uneven number of students and teachers from each type of secondary school. The dependent variables, the frequency of language practice of the three languages and the agreement on the importance of the languages were of ordinal scales i.e. *always* to *never* (language practice) and *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* (language ideology).

ii) correlation

The Spearman correlation test or Spearman rho test is a nonparametric test conducted to investigate the relationship between two variables which use an ordinal scale as the measuring scale (Chua, 2008, pp. 244-245). The relationship or the Correlation Coefficient ranged between -1 and +1. The Spearman Coefficient Rho describes the relationship between two variables which are not normally distributed (Chua, 2012, p. 226). The correlation coefficient is the measuring value of the correlation strength between two variables is shown in Table 3.12 (Chua, 2008, p. 246; Chuah, 2012, p. 235).

Table 3.12 Strength of correlation coefficient values

Size of correlation coefficient (r)	Strength of correlation
.91 to 1.00 or -.91 to -1.00	very strong
.71 to .90 or -.71 to -.90	strong
.51 to .70 or -.51 to -.70	moderate
.31 to .50 or -.31 to -.50	weak
.01 to .30 or -.01 to -.30	very weak
.00	no correlation

This test was conducted to test the relationship between the oral language practice and language ideology of three languages of student and teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools. The correlation coefficient strength of Chua (2008, 2012) was applied in the study.

3.6.2 Qualitative data analysis

The qualitative data comprising the audio recordings of the interviews with the student interviewees and teacher interviewees were transcribed before the researcher conducting the content analysis and interpreting the data according to themes’.

As requested by the administrators of the secondary schools, the student interviewees, teacher interviewees and name of schools remained anonymous. The student interviewees and teacher interviewees were labelled by using different abbreviations in the study. Table 3.13 shows the list of abbreviations used in the transcriptions.

Table 3.13 List of abbreviations of student interviewee and teacher interviewee

Type of secondary school	student interviewee abbreviation	teacher interviewee abbreviation
Chinese Independent high school	CIS1	CIT1
	CIS2	CIT2
		CIT3
National type secondary school	NTS1	NTT1
	NTS2	NTT2
		NTT3
National secondary school	NSS1	NST1
	NSS2	NST2
		NST3

The transcripts were then explored and coded into themes of:

a. language practice

The interview data from the student and the teacher interviewees were analysed based on the contents of which they claim to be communicating with different interlocutors.

The language choice or use of language by the respective students and teachers of Malaysian secondary schools was then sub-themed into the language practice of the students and teachers when they are communicating with: i) the students; ii) the teachers and iii) the non-academic staff in the school settings.

b. language ideology

The qualitative data of the student interviewees and teacher interviewees' belief towards language English, Malay and Mandarin were analysed based on the content of the integrative orientation, instrumental orientation and cultural orientation.

c. language management

The language management implemented in the three types of secondary school was sub-divided into the macro language management (the language policy/ies which was/were designed and promulgated by Malaysian Education Ministry) and micro language management (the language policy/ies which was/were designed and promulgated by the school administrators or the teachers in the school settings).

The language management was sub-themed into the impact on i) students' and teachers' language practice and ii) students' and teachers' language ideology of the three languages.

Extracts of the qualitative data were used to support the quantitative findings as an in-depth explanation for the language practice and language ideology patterns noted for the three languages of the students and teachers who were from three types for Malaysian secondary schools.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has highlighted the research design of this study. The rationale for using the quantitative and qualitative data was also explained. The sampling of the respondents and schools was also outlined while the reliability and validity of the instruments used i.e. questionnaires and interviews were also explained in detail. In looking at the analysis, it was explained that the descriptive statistics and the inferential statistics extracted from the IBM SPSS Version 22 would be used to reveal the frequency of student and teacher respondents' oral language use of three languages – English, Malay, and Mandarin in the school settings. It was also explained that the perceptions on the respondents' use of the three languages would also be transcribed and then used to support the statistical findings.

The data analysis of the study, the language practice, language ideology and language management of the two groups of education stakeholders are further presented in the following three chapters - Chapter Four, Chapter Five and Chapter Six.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS I – LANGUAGE PRACTICE

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 3, there are two sets of data collected to fulfill this study. It was explained that the quantitative data would be collected by using questionnaires while the qualitative data would be extracted via open-ended interviews. Using the data drawn from the descriptive analysis, this chapter presents the data analysis of language practice in the educational domain. The outcomes will also be supported by the interview data drawn from the interviewees. The inferential statistical data analysis will be able to show the variants of language practice of the student and teacher respondents who are from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools.

4.2 Language practice of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

In this context, the data analysis of language use of the student respondents will be discussed first before the interview data are provided as support. This is then followed by the language practice of the teachers and the outcome will also be supported by their interview data. In this regard, the notion of language practice is also sub-divided into the language practice of English, Malay and Mandarin. Statistics indicate that out of the three languages, Mandarin has the highest language practice mean score followed by English and then Malay. This is further discussed accordingly.

4.2.1 English language practice of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

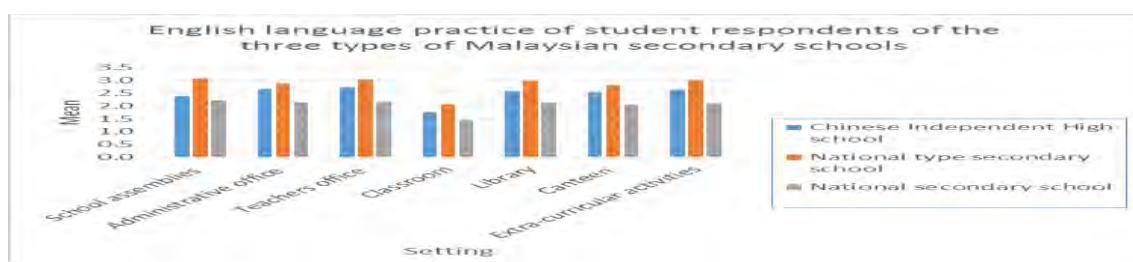


Figure 4.1: English language practice of student respondents of three types of Malaysian secondary schools

As shown in the figure, the mean of the English language use of student respondents is between 1.5 and 3.0 which means that the language is ‘never’ used or ‘sometimes’ used in all settings in the Malaysian secondary schools. According to Chua (2012, p. 7) mean is the average score used to represent a set of observed values. It is derived by adding up all of the scores and then dividing the sum by the total number of scores (Fraenkel et al., 2012, p. 196).

It appears that student respondents of national-type secondary schools ‘rarely’ to ‘sometimes’ used English in all school settings as indicated by the mean of 2.0 to 3.0. The analysis also showed that student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school have a mean of 1.5 to 2.5 i.e. ‘never’ to ‘rarely’ use English.

In contrast, student respondents of national secondary schools have the lowest mean of English language practice. With a mean of between 1.5 and 2.0, they ‘never’ to ‘rarely’ used English in the national secondary school. The mean scores of English of the student respondents of national secondary school means averagely English was ‘never’ used by the student respondents of the school. In other words, it might have student respondents who ‘sometimes’, ‘very often’ or ‘always’ used English for the purpose of communication in the school setting/s.

In addition, statistics also indicate that student respondents of national-type secondary schools ‘sometimes’ used English in assemblies, teachers office, library,

canteen and extra-curricular activity settings. These four settings showed the highest mean.

It was also noted that student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and national secondary schools ‘rarely’ used English in the various settings of schools such as assemblies, administrative office, teachers office, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities. Nonetheless, the language practice mean noted of student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school is slightly higher than the national secondary school student respondents.

Linked to that is the statistic showing the mean of English language practice of student respondents from three types of Malaysian secondary schools to be lowest in the classroom setting. Based on this, it was deduced that student respondents least used English in the classroom setting.

In general, in the classroom setting, English is ‘rarely’ used by student respondents of national-type secondary school but it is ‘never’ used by student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school. One of the reasons contributing to this is probably English is not the dominant medium of instruction in these three types of Malaysian secondary schools. Other reasons will be further discussed with the support of interview extractions of student interviewees of three types of Malaysian secondary schools.

a) English language practice declared by student interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school

It was explained that the ethnicity of the interviewees is not a factor determining the English language practice of student interviewees. The section begins with the Chinese Independent high school.

i) English language practice of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to student communication

Extract 1

CIS1和CIS2：和同学？在课室的时候我们也不讲英语。我们都用华语。除非我们在英语中心。

[CIS1 and CIS2: With schoolmates? We also do not speak English when we are in the classroom. We speak Mandarin unless we are at the Just English center.]

As shown, English was not used as the medium of communication among students in the school. It also appeared that in student to student communication, student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 did not communicate in English in most of the school settings.

However, English was used during the teaching and learning of English and not for other subjects such as Chemistry or Bookkeeping in the studied Chinese Independent high school.

As mentioned by student interviewee CIS2, English was not used as the medium of communication even with non-Chinese students in the school setting. Therefore, in the studied Chinese Independent high school, English was neither used during intra-ethnic communication nor inter-ethnic communication.

However, English was used by the student interviewees when they were at the Just English center where all the English classes were conducted, in the Chinese Independent high school observed for this study. The Just English center was located in one of the buildings in the school, the English department head and English teachers were also placed within this building. Students may go to the center during English classes because the teaching and learning of English were conducted in this building. Thus, when the students were at the center, the English language was used as the communication language during the lesson. Based on this, it can be said that English was used by the student interviewees as language of communication with their peers

only during English classes.

As described by Spolsky (2004, p. 9), the selection of a language among the varieties may demonstrate the patterns of language practice. The Chinese Independent high school students chose English as education language with their teachers and school mates in the classroom setting only when during the teaching and learning of the English subject. But the students did not use English as education and communication language in the classroom setting for other subjects.

In the Chinese Independent high school, the students had been streamed according to the result of their English placement test when they joined the school. The students were also attending the English classes at the Just English center in the school and as it happened, all the teachers in the Just English center were non-Chinese. Thus, they were not proficient in the dominant communication language that was used by the students in the school, which in this case is Mandarin.

Moreover, the students had been prohibited from using any other language except English when they were at the center. Furthermore, the students would also be punished writing an essay if they were found to be using other languages at the center. The prohibition of using any other language except English supported Spolsky's view of 'language management is the effort by the language manager to intervene the language practice of the language community (2004, p. 14). The teachers in the school as the language manager intervened their students' language practice in the school by only allowing them to use English only.

ii) English language practice of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

Extract 4

CIS 1：嗯，我们和华裔老师说华语， 都不说英文。

[CIS 1: We speak Mandarin to teachers of Chinese ethnicity, we do not speak English.]

From the understanding of the student to teacher communication, it appears that another language, besides English, was used by student interviewee CIS1 with teachers of the same ethnicity in the school settings. Since here it is stated that Mandarin was used with teachers of Chinese ethnicity, it can be deduced that English was not the student to teacher intra-ethnic communication language in the Chinese Independent high school.

However, English is used as the communication language by the student interviewee when communicating with the chief administrator of the Just English centre as well as with the English language teachers in the classroom setting as well as in other informal settings. Furthermore, English was used as the medium of instruction by teachers during the teaching and learning of English in the classroom setting.

English was not used as inter-ethnicity communication language by the student interviewee CIS1 because of the societal structure of the Chinese Independent high school. Giles's theory of Accommodation (Fasold, 1996) claims that minority groups tend to converge to the dominant communication language of a speech community as their communication language. In the context of the Chinese Independent high school, Mandarin was used by the student respondents as the dominant communication language because of the societal structure of the school, but in some specific subjects taught such as English, the medium of instruction used would be English.

This observation was supported by the teacher interviewee CIT1, who added that English is the only choice for students when they are with their English teachers at the center. This is because all the English teachers in the center are non-Chinese with a majority of the English teachers being Indians with some Malays and *Ibans* (the indigenous group in Sarawak).

These English teachers were not competent in communicating with their students in Mandarin because they were not proficient in Mandarin. Thus, English served as the most effective communication language used by the students when

communicating with their English language teachers in the school settings.

The teacher interviewee CIT1 also agreed that some junior students, specifically the Junior One students, may face some problems when they are communicating with their English teachers during their English classes at the center when they first join the school. These new students particularly those with low proficiency in English may have difficulties when communicating with their English teachers at the center. The communication problem may, however, be solved when the students using English.

Teacher interviewee CIT1 denied that students may use Malay instead of English when communicating with their English teachers. Nonetheless, she thinks that students may have more difficulties using Malay to convey their message to their English language teachers. This is because teacher interviewee CIT1 knew the students of the studied Chinese Independent high school were more competent in English than Malay. She also added that if the students conveyed their message in English with suitable body language, their English teachers would be able to understand the message.

In this regard, it can be said that the English language practice of the student respondents in the school setting is very limited. Hence, it can be deduced that though English is of the high variety language, it is limitedly used by the students in the Chinese Independent high school.

However, the teacher interviewee, CIT3 also noticed that English was not used by students of the school only in the classroom setting or also at the Just English center. Some students greeted and communicated with the English teachers also when they were not at the center. It appears that English language practice of the students expanded from the Just English center to other informal settings, such as the canteen, library and extra-curricular activities settings in Chinese Independent high school but with their English teachers only.

iii) English language practice of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

Extract 9

研究者：那你们会和非教职员说英语吗？

[Researcher: Then will you speak English to the non-academic staff?]

CIS1：和非教职员我们也不讲英语。我们的非华裔的非教职员都会说汉语的。

[CIS1: Non-academic staff? We also do not speak English. Our non-academic staff who are non-Chinese are able to communicate in Mandarin.]

In observing student to non-academic staff communication, it was observed that English was not used by the student interviewee CIS1 during both intra-ethnic and inter-ethnic communication with the non-academic staff in the school settings. This is because the non-academic staff of the studied Chinese Independent high school were proficient in Mandarin.

Unlike the teachers and administrators, the non-academic staff was not the language policy executor in the school. The students were using Mandarin - the dominant communication language in the school when communicating with the non-academic staff because the non-academic of the Chinese Independent high school was proficient in Mandarin.

In the Chinese Independent high school context, ten percent of time of student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 in the school settings, is using English as the education language in the classroom setting – at the Just English center and as communication language to communicate with their English teachers.

As explained by the teacher interviewee CIT3, two students acted as the Masters of Ceremony during important functions and ceremonies in the Chinese Independent high school. While doing so, the function was hosted bilingually - English and Mandarin were used together. This shows that the school administrators have the influence or the effect of increasing the frequency of English language practice.

b) English language practice declared by student interviewees of national-type secondary school

The determining factor of English language practice in national-type secondary school is the ethnicity of the interlocutors.

i) English language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to student communication

English is not used by student interviewees as a communication language with their schoolmates, whether same or different ethnicity, in studied national-type secondary school. This is because the majority of the students in the school are Chinese and the non-Chinese students in the school are proficient in Mandarin.

Extract 12

NTS1:除非是有特殊的情况，比如说某同学想要进步英文…我们就会用来讲咯…比如AddMaths的同学呢，他们是面临看不懂题目的问题。所以我们嘞就会好像进行自习课的时候，跟同学之间进行自习课的时候，就会用英文来讲话。

[NTS1: Unless it is in special cases, for example my schoolmate would like to improve her English proficiency then we will speak in English. For example, there are some students have problem of understanding the questions for the subject of Add(itional) Math(ematic)s. Then during our self-study time, we will speak in English.]

NTS1:因为我们想要让自己比较适应一点，以免考试的时候，自己看不懂题目。

[NTS1: Because we want to get use to it so that we won't come across the problem of being unable to understand the examination questions.]

English was used by student interviewee NTS1, to communicate with her schoolmates with intention, to improve their English proficiency.

This is because some of their schoolmates have problems in understanding the examination questions specifically for the subject of Additional Mathematics. Therefore, student interviewee NTS1 communicated with her schoolmate in English when revising for Additional Mathematics. Doing so may help them to understand the examination questions more easily.

In the study of Muriatul & Ting (2015), to be able to speak Mandarin is the most salient ethnic identity marker of the Chinese participants. In the studied national-type secondary school, the majority students in the school were Chinese and Mandarin was their choice for student to student communication. The non-Chinese students in the school converged to using Mandarin to suit the needs of their interlocutors or their schoolmates instead of Malay or English in this study (see Giles's Accommodation Theory) because they were competent in Mandarin.

ii) English language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

The ethnicity of their teachers and the medium of instruction of the subjects are the determining factors of English language practice of the student interviewees in the national-type secondary school.

Extract 13

NTS1: 英文老师，我们通常跟英文老师是讲英文的。

[NTS1: English teacher, we normally communicate with English teachers in English.]

NTS1: 不知道。这是一种习惯。因为平时她在教学的时候，比如说我的，教Add Maths的老师，她是用英文两教导我们，所以我们会，我去到办公室看到她，我会用英文跟她请安。

[NTS1: I don't know. This has become a habit. Because when she was teaching, for example my Add(itional) Math(ematic)s teacher, she was teaching in English, therefore, we meet her in the teacher office, we will greet her in English.]

The medium of instruction used by the subject teachers during the teaching and learning process in the classroom setting determined the language practice of student interviewee NTS1. In this context NTS1 communicated with her English teachers in English in all settings. She also greeted her subject teachers, for example, her Additional Mathematics teacher, who conducted their teaching in English through English. However, this is just one of the few instances. NTS1 explained that, usually, the ethnicity of the teachers is the dominant factor determining her language practice when

communicating with her teachers. It was pointed out by NTS1 that she had an unhappy experience of using English when communicating with one Malay teacher during her second form (Form Two) study in the studied national-type secondary school. NTS1 was scolded by the teacher when she used English. The Malay teacher advised her against using English with that Malay teacher in school settings. After this unhappy incident, NTS1 was reluctant to use English with the Malay teachers in school settings. It may be deduced that this is probably due to the teacher's low English proficiency.

In this context, it can be seen that there is a shift in language use by the student interviewee NTS1. From using English with her other school peers and teachers, the student had to shift to using Malay when communicating with all the Malay teachers in the school settings. Nonetheless, the shift of language practice of student interviewee NTS1 from English to Malay can be explained by Giles's Accommodation Theory: the language user may converge to choose a language that suit her interlocutor to show solidarity. As mentioned before, the students in the school domain are continuously under pressure to modify their language practice by the language manager (Spolsky, 2009, p. 114). Initially NTS1 used English with her Malay teachers. After she was 'advised' by her Malay teacher, she converged to using Malay with all the Malay teachers in the school. English was used by the student interviewee NTS1 when she communicated with her Indian teachers in the classroom and library settings. This language practice can be explained by the Domain analysis of sociological approach. Spolsky argues that all the domains have their own language policies. Some management features are managed internally by the stakeholders in the domain. Domain is the sociolinguistic context distinguished by three components – the participant, location and topic (Spolsky, 2009, p. 3). NTS1 managed her own language practice which was to use English when communicating with the Indian teachers in the school domain.

Likewise, student interviewee NTS2 also communicated with his Science teacher in Malay because the teacher was also of Malay ethnicity although she conducted the lesson in English in the classroom setting.

Nonetheless, it appears that the other school administrators such as the school principal and teachers used English during school assemblies, particularly to deliver their speeches and to announce their reports and also during events such as the English Week. It also seems that although English was used as the dominant communication language in the school assemblies, another language like Malay was used to provide translations because the Malay teachers in the school might not understand the messages conveyed in English only.

ii) English language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

Extract 16

研究员:ok. 那么跟这些非教职员呢?...比如说有可能你们要, 需要一些什么东西呀, 还是些什么, 你需要跟他们沟通的时候, 那么你们用什么语言呢?

[Researcher: Ok. How about with that non-academic staff? ... Let's say you may need something, when you communicate with them. What language do you use?]

NTS1:啊, 我们通常是用国文。

[NTS1: We normally use Malay.]

NTS2:啊, 对。一样。我们都是用马来文, 很少用英文。

[NTS2: Yes. The same. We use Malay, rarely use English.]

NTS1: 对。因为我们的校工都是马来人或印度人。

[NTS1: Yes. Because our non-academic staff is either Malay or Indian.]

As mentioned earlier, the non-academic staff of the national-type secondary school are either of Malay or Indian ethnicity, but yet English was rarely used as an inter-ethnicity communication language by student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2. This is because they used Malay with the non-academic staff.

Language user's use of language depending on the context and situation i.e. specific activities with specific people for specific purposes or function (Hyme's ethnography of communication, 1962). The student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 used Malay to communicate with the non-academic staff who were all non-Chinese at the administrative office. The students converged to using Malay, which was comfortable to the non-academic staff (Giles's Accommodation theory). At the same time, Malay is the only official language in Malaysia, therefore using Malay in the official context is necessary.

A comparison of the two interviewees' English language practice shows differences even though they were from the same school. The percentage of English language practice of student interviewee NTS1 in the school settings was comparatively higher than student interviewee NTS2 about 20 percent and five percent respectively.

NTS2 claimed that his percentage of English language practice was low because he only used English in the classroom setting. He also agreed that the English proficiency of the students of the national-type secondary school is low.

As shown in Figure 4.1, the students of Malaysian secondary schools 'never' to 'sometimes' used English in the school settings. NTS1 of the national-type secondary school used in English with her schoolmates as a practice to improve their English proficiency; She used English with her English teachers and the teachers who used English as the medium of instruction in the school settings, but English was not used with the Malay teachers.

Thus, it was deduced that the ethnicity of the teachers determined the language practice of the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2. English was not used as the language of communication with the Malay teachers, even though they conducted their teaching in English in the classroom setting.

English was 'rarely' used by student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 when communicating with non-academic staff who was Malay or Indian in the school settings.

Overall, English language practice by student interviewee NTS1, who is from the national-type secondary school, was slightly higher in percentage than that of student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 who were from the Chinese Independent high school.

From the surveys and interviews conducted, this study found that there is a mismatch between the English language's status during the planning of policies and the actual practice in national-type secondary schools. Despite the fact that English carries an important second language status in this country, it is 'rarely' used by the students in national-type secondary schools when communicating with their teachers and school mates in the school setting. The mismatch between language policy and language practice happens in some other Asian countries. As mentioned before, Nunan (2003) and Chua (2012) found students from Hong Kong, Brunei and Bangladesh are unable to communicate effectively in spoken English.

c) English language practice declared by student interviewees of the national secondary school

Analysis shows that the ethnicity of the interlocutors served as the determining factor for English language practice in the case of student interviewees from the national secondary school.

i) English language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to student communication

Extract 19

NST2: ...kebanyakan kita gunakan bahasa Melayu sebab majoriti, kita ada seribu dua puluh lapan, lebih kurang seribu seratus dah pelajar, majoriti Malay.

[NST2: ...most (of the time) we use Malay because the majority, we have one thousand twenty-eight, about one thousand one hundred students, the majority are Malays.]

As mentioned by teacher interviewee NST2 the majority of the students in the school were Malays, followed by Chinese and Indians. Thus it was not a surprise that the English language practice of the student interviewees was determined by the ethnicity of their schoolmates in the school domain. Nonetheless, for interviewees NSS1 and NSS2, English was not used when communicating with schoolmates who were of Chinese ethnicity in the canteen setting. Another language, Mandarin, was used.

NSSI and NSS2 claimed to automatically communicate with their Malay schoolmates in Malay instead of English. In addition, NSS1 also claimed that English may be used sometimes when communicating with their Malay schoolmates. However, more English is used when communicating with their schoolmates of Indian ethnicity.

From these interviews, it seems obvious that the language practice of student interviewee NSS1 when communicating with schoolmates of different ethnicities can include different languages. This support Hymes's ethnography of communication (1962) that the language used by the language user depending on contexts to fit specific activities with specific people for specific purpose.

ii) English language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

Based on the interview data, it also seems that the ethnicity of the interlocutors and the medium of instruction used during the teaching and learning process are the

determining factors for the English language practice of student interviewees when communicating with their teachers.

Extract 23

研究员:……如果遇到英文老师呢?

[Researcher: When meeting an English teacher?]

NSS1: 有些是用英文。

[NSS1: Will practise English with some (teachers).]

NSS1: 用英文比较多啦。

[NSS1: Practise more in English.]

Student interviewee NSS1 greeted some of her English teachers in English most of the time in the school settings. However, the language practice of student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 appears to differ when communicating with their English teachers of different ethnicities in different settings.

Nonetheless, English and Malay were used by student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 when communicating with their English teachers who were Malays, in informal setting such as the teachers office setting and formal setting such as the classroom setting.

However, English was used more frequently by the student interviewees when communicating with their Indian teachers in the school settings. This is because the medium of instruction used by their Indian teachers in the teaching and learning process in the classroom setting was English. As mentioned earlier, student interviewees used English and other languages in communicating with their English teachers who were of Indian ethnicity.

It also appears that the medium of instruction used in the teaching and learning process by the subject teachers served as the determining factor of the language practice of student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2, for instance, used English when communicating with their subject teachers of Chinese ethnicity in the school settings.

English was used by student interviewee NSS2 when communicating with her Additional Mathematics teacher who was of Chinese ethnicity. This practice was an automatic response for student interviewee NSS1 when communicating with her Additional Mathematics teacher who conducted the subject in English in the classroom setting. It was also mentioned that this practice occurred at the request of the Additional Mathematics teacher.

As the analysis has shown, English language practice in the classroom setting in national secondary schools had the lowest frequency when compared to the other two types of secondary schools. In fact, English was 'never' used by the students of the national secondary schools (Figure 4.1).

Although English serves as the medium of instruction only in the teaching and learning of English as a subject, it was also made the medium of instruction for the *PPSMI* subjects as the policy advises. Nonetheless, some of the teachers of these subjects did not adhere to the policy. This is because the students were having the constraint of deficit in English proficiency therefore bilingual teaching was practised by some of the teachers of the *PPSMI* subjects.

NSS2, however, noted that of the three science subject teachers in the school (the *PPSMI* subjects), only the subject teacher of Biology was using the English version of the textbook. For the subjects of Physics and Chemistry, the subject teachers had reverted to using textbooks in Malay.

From the interview, it was also noted that although the Biology subject teacher was using the English version of the textbook, she conducted her teaching bilingually in the classroom setting. In this regard, English and Malay were used simultaneously by the Biology teacher, in the classroom setting. She conducted the lesson by translating the content of the teaching from English to Malay, statement by statement. From this interview, it is thus deduced that English was not fully used by the Biology teacher in

the classroom setting.

It also appears that some teachers of the *PPSMI* subjects had also shifted their medium of instruction from English to Malay with only the terminologies being used in English. It was found that those teachers who had shifted to practising Malay as the medium of instruction were also using the Malay version of the textbooks instead of the English textbooks recommended. Nevertheless, this issue was only found in the context of the national secondary schools being studied. Language policy is about language choice made by the language users consciously and explicitly; the language choice of the language users may be able to reflect the impact of language management (Spolsky, 2009, p.1). In the national secondary school context, the *PPSMI* language policy advised that English should be made the medium of instruction for the *PPSMI* subjects, it appeared that some of the subject teachers used bilingual teaching by using Malay and English; some teachers shifted their medium of instruction from English to Malay using English for terminology or some of the teachers were using Malay version textbooks. The shift in the medium of instruction and change of textbooks may be due to certain factors which were to be further discussed in the section of 4.2.1.1 English language practice variant of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools. The negative impact of the implementation of *PPSMI* language policy is explicitly reflected.

iii) English language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to non- academic staff communication

The language practice of student interviewees from the national secondary school was noted to be slightly different when communicating with their non-academic Indian staff and their Indian teachers in the school settings.

研究员:…那么跟这些办公室里面的非教职员咧?就是那边做工的那种不是教书的。

[Researcher: ... How about when you communicate with that non-academic staff at the office? That staff who are not teaching?]

NSS1和NSS2: 马来文。

[NSS1 and NSS2: Malay.]

研究员:马来文啦。你会跟他用英文吗?

[Researcher: Malay. Will you use English with the staff?]

NSS1和NSS2: 不会。

[NSS1 and NSS2: No.]

研究员:不会呀?为什么咧?

[Researcher: No. Why?]

NSS1: 就很自然的会

[NSS1: It is automatically will

NSS2: 用马来文。

[NSS2: use Malay.]

English was not used when the student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 were communicating with the non-academic staff in the school settings. Another language, Malay, was automatically used by the student interviewees instead, even though not all the non-academic staff of the school were of Malay ethnicity or Indian ethnicity.

As mentioned by Spolsky (2004), language practice is the habitual pattern showed by an individual when selecting the language/s among the varieties to perform particular functions. In the national secondary school, Malay is chosen among the three languages - English, Malay and Mandarin by the student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 to communicate with the non-Chinese non-academic staff. Malay was automatically used by the student interviewees as their dominant communication language with all the non-academic staff but not English in the formal settings such as in the administrative office. This deduced the success of Malaysian language policy i.e. using Malay language as the only official and dominant communication language in the formal settings in the school domain specifically the national secondary school.

NSS1 and NSS2 agreed that their English language practice in the school settings was insufficient. This was attributed to the fact that NSS1 and NSS2 used English in the classroom setting only when learning the subject of Biology and Additional Mathematics only.

NSS1 and NSS2 further explained that their English language practice in the school settings was 'not enough'. They indicated that the school administrators - the principal, the vice principals and the department heads in the school, did not use English in the school assemblies setting. These administrators used Malay in delivering their speeches and reports during the school assemblies.

As mentioned before, the administrators of the school, the *Penolong Kanan Akademik* (Senior Assistant of Academic Affairs) and the *Penyelia Petang* (Supervisor of the afternoon session) were teaching the subjects of Mathematics. The *Penolong Kanan Ko-Kurikulum* (Senior Assistant of Co-curricular activities) was teaching the subject of Chemistry. Although these teachers were teaching the subjects of the *PPSMI* which should have been in English at the time of the implementation of the policy, they were not using more English in the school settings.

Student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 agreed that their English practice in the school settings was insufficient, thus it was suggested that their English language practice in the school settings should be improved.

4.2.1.1 English language practice variant of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Variance is the difference/s variables between different groups (Pallant, 2011, p. 249). In this study, the variance analysis was conducted by comparing the sum ranks of the variables of the three different groups – the Chinese Independent high school, national-type secondary school and the national secondary school. Sum ranks are the sum of

mean ranks of the variable. In the non-parametric test, the measurement observations are converted to their ranks in the overall data set: the smallest value gets a rank of 1, the next smallest gets a rank of 2, and so on. In this study, the English language practice of the student respondents of the national secondary school showed the lowest sum rank among the three types of schools (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 English language practice variant of student respondents in different school settings in three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Settings	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
School assemblies	204.8	300.3	190.3
Administrative office	252.2	274.3	189.2
Teachers office	255.3	285.5	185.9
Classroom	240.7	290.9	186.9
Library	243.1	283.1	188.5
Canteen	252.3	274.6	189.1
Extra-curricular activities	249.6	285.9	186.7

According to the results it seems as if the English language practice of student respondents in the three types of secondary schools, was significantly different in all the school settings.

The student respondents of the national secondary schools had the lowest sum rank of English but the student respondents of the national-type secondary schools had the highest sum rank, in all settings in the school. Based on this, it is deduced that English was used most frequently by the student respondents of national-type secondary school in all settings, while it was least frequently practised by the student respondents of the national secondary schools. The difference in sum rank of the English language practice of student respondents showed three patterns:

a) English language practice of student respondents was different in the three types of secondary schools

The English language practice of the student respondents in all the three types of secondary schools showed a significant difference in the classroom setting and library setting (see Table 4.1).

English was used most frequently by student respondents of the national-type secondary school followed by student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and used least frequently by student respondents of the national secondary schools in the classroom and library settings.

One of the reasons is because English was the medium of instruction for the subjects of English and *PPSMI* such as Chemistry, Physics, Biology and Additional Mathematics in the national-type secondary school. However English was the medium of instruction for the subject of English only in the Chinese Independent high school.

The teachers of English and *PPSMI* subjects used English in their teaching in the classroom setting in the national-type secondary school. According to teacher interviewee NTT1, the English and *PPSMI* subject teacher of national-type secondary school conducted their teaching in English and other language. But the teachers of the above mentioned subjects (except the Biology and Additional Mathematics teachers) of the national secondary did not use English (Malay was used) in their teaching in the classroom setting though it is also a government sponsored school.

The students of national-type secondary school and national secondary school in this study have the similarity with the students of Hong Kong in the study of Nunan (2003). Nunan found 70% of the students of Hong Kong were unable to cope with English as the medium of instruction and they were unable to communicate effectively in spoken English.

In this study, not all the students of government-sponsored school were able to cope with English as the medium of instruction for English and *PPSMI* subjects. The interviewees' NSS1 and NSS2 schoolmates were having language constraint in understanding their teacher's teaching in English. As mentioned by Spolsky (2009), language practice touches on which language is predominantly used by the speakers, with whom and for what purpose.

Therefore in the national secondary school, the Biology teacher was teaching in English and translating statement by statement. Furthermore, the teachers of Physics and Chemistry were teaching in Malay and using the Malay textbooks for the two subjects.

The language used by the teachers of national-type secondary and national secondary school in teaching English and *PPSMI* subjects supported the finding – national secondary school students had the least used of English in the classroom setting.

In the Chinese Independent high school, though English was used as the medium of instruction for only English subject. The English language practice of student respondents was lower than the student respondents of national-type secondary school but higher than the student respondents of national secondary school as shown in Table 4.1. This is because all the English teachers were compulsory to use English in their teaching and all the students were required to use English when they were at the Just English center.

In Hymes's ethnography of communication (1962), language use depending on contexts fits into specific activities with specific people for specific purposes. The students of Chinese Independent high school used English in the Just English center with their English teachers during the teaching and learning of the subject of English in the classroom setting. Though English was the medium of instruction for only one

subject in the Chinese Independent high school, the students of the school must use English when they are at the Just English center. Therefore, the sum rank of English of the student respondents of Chinese Independent high school was higher than the sum rank of national secondary school.

b) The language practice of student respondents of the national-type secondary school was different from that of the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary school

The English language practice of student respondents of national-type secondary school was significantly different from that of the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary school in school assemblies setting.

The English language practice of the student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school did not show a significant difference when compared to the language practice of the student respondents of the national secondary schools.

Nonetheless, English was used more frequently by student respondents of the national-type secondary schools compared to the Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school. This is because English was used more by the administrators and teacher on duty of the national-type secondary school than the administrators and teacher on duty of the Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school.

In the studied national-type secondary school, the administrators were Chinese. They and the English teachers who were on duty would use English in the school assemblies especially during the English week. The English teachers made announcements and communicated with the students by using English in the assemblies setting.

However the two Master of Ceremony of Chinese Independent high school would use English and Mandarin once in a while only i.e. during special function. At the same time, the administrators of the national secondary school also did not use

English to deliver their speech or to make announcement in the assemblies setting. Furthermore, the two types of schools did not conduct activities which may encourage the use of English in the school settings such as English week which was organised by national-type secondary school.

This explained the student respondents of national-type secondary have highest sum rank than the student respondents of Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school. And there is no significant difference or having similar sum rank in English language practice between the student respondents of Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school.

c) The language practice of student respondents of national secondary school was different from that of the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school

The English language practice of student respondents of the national secondary schools showed a significant difference when compared to the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school in the administrative office, teachers office, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings (see Table 4.1).

The English language practice of the student respondents of the national secondary school showed the lowest sum rank in the four settings mentioned above. Thus, it is deduced that English was used the least frequently by student respondents of the national secondary school when compared to the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school.

Thus, it can be said that the student respondents used English as a communication language only when they were communicating with their English teachers in the formal setting, for instance in the classroom, and the informal setting - the library. English was also used as the medium of instruction for the learning of English as a subject in the classroom setting. English was thus used as a communication

language when interacting with their teachers in the classroom and library settings.

The low frequency of English language practice in the national secondary is similar to English language practice of the students of Brunei Darussalam and Bangladesh as stated by Chua (2012). The Bruneian students were struggled to learn English because English is used as a foreign language to most of the Bruneians. Furthermore the Bangladesh students did not access to English.

Though students of Malaysia, Brunei Darussalam and Bangladesh are compulsory to learn English. The students of Malaysia, specifically the students of national secondary school learned English as the second most important language in the school but they did not access to the language in most of the school settings.

4.2.2 Malay language practice of student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools

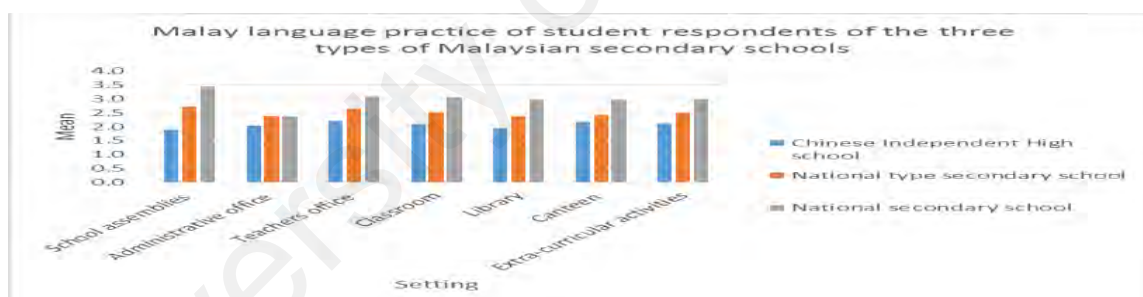


Figure 4.2: Malay language practice of student respondents of three types of Malaysian secondary schools

The mean score of Malay language practice of student respondents of Malaysian secondary school was between 1.5 and 3.0 indicating that they ‘never’ to ‘sometimes’ used Malay in school settings.

Student respondents of the national secondary schools used Malay more frequently than student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school, with a comparatively higher mean.

Malay is 'rarely' to 'sometimes' used by student respondents of national secondary schools; 'rarely' used by student respondents of national-type secondary schools and 'never' to 'rarely' used by student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school.

Student respondents of national secondary school 'sometimes' used Malay in the school assemblies, teachers office, classroom, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings. Based on this, it is deduced that Malay is used as dominant education language and communication language by students of national secondary school. This is because most of the subjects offered in the school taught in Malay and it is used as the communication language with Malay interlocutors.

Malay was 'rarely' used by student respondents of national-type secondary schools in all school settings; 'rarely' used by student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school in the administrative office, teachers office, classroom, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings.

Though Malay is the dominant education language for most of the subjects in the national-type secondary school as fixed by Malaysian Education Ministry, the dominant communication language used by the student respondents when communicating with their schoolmates and the majority of teachers was not Malay.

a) Malay language practice declared by student interviewees in Chinese Independent high school

Malay was used as the education language in the classroom setting.

i) Malay language practice of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to student communication

Extract 33

研究者:你们如果和同学沟通的时候,一般使用什么语言?会说马来语吗?
[Researcher: Normally what language do you use when you are communicating with your schoolmates? Will you speak Malay?]
CIS1:和同学沟通我们一般都说华语。我们都不说马来语。
[CIS1: We normally speak Mandarin when communicating with schoolmates. We don't speak Malay.]
CIS2: 我们都能用华语沟通。
[CIS2: We all are able to communicate in Mandarin.]

It seems obvious that Malay was not used as the communication language by student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 when communicating with their schoolmates in the school setting. This is because Mandarin was used because all the students were noted to be proficient in the language.

The use Malay of by student interviewees of Chinese Independent high school showed similarity with the finding of Chua (2012). English became a must for success in both studying and working for the students in Vietnam but the students had problem of using English for communication. Therefore, adequate exposure is needed by learners to achieve consistent and measurable improvement in English.

In this study, Malay is the national language and it was recommended to be a compulsory subject in all Malaysian schools since in the Fenn-Wu Report. But in the Chinese Independent high school, the student interviewees did not use Malay as the communication language in the student to student communication. This is because all the students in the school were proficient in Mandarin and the other reason was the students had problem of using Malay for communication as mentioned by the teacher interviewee CIT1.

ii) Malay language practice of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

Malay was used as the education and communication language in the classroom setting during the tuition classes in the Chinese Independent high school.

Extract 34

CIT1: 补习班的时候通常老师是马来人就只能说马来语。

[CIT1: During the tuition classes, when all the teachers are Malays, (the students have to) speak Malay only.]

CIS1: 补习班的时候老师都说马来语。

[CIS1: The teachers speak Malay during the tuition classes.]

CIS2: 我们也说马来语。

[CIS2: We also speak Malay.]

Student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 used Malay when they were communicating with their part-time teachers who taught in the tuition classes in the school setting. These tuition classes were offered by the school to those students who were going to sit for the two public examinations: i) the *SPM* (to be taken by Form Five or Senior Two students) and ii) the *PT3* (to be sat by Form Three or Junior Three students) which were conducted by the *LPM*. It was not compulsory for students of the Chinese Independent high school to sit for these two examinations but many would. Those students who registered or planned to sit for these examinations would thus attend the tuition classes offered by the school.

The Junior Three students would be attending the *PT3* tuition classes in the afternoon session on weekdays and the Senior Two students would be attending the *SPM* tuition classes on Saturdays. The subjects offered in the tuition classes were conducted in Malay and delivered by part-time teachers hired by the school. Most of these teachers would also be teaching in the national secondary schools and they were mostly Malay and they spoke only Malay during the tuition classes.

According to the teacher interviewee CIT1, those students who were attending the tuition classes had to communicate with the part-time teachers in Malay because Malay served as the only communication language. It appears that Malay was also used by the student interviewees when communicating with their teachers of Malay ethnicity in the school setting during normal lessons.

Student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 who were attending the weekend tuition classes did not encounter any communication problem with the Malay teachers. However, the student interviewees used Malay and Mandarin when communicating with their teacher during the Malay subject in the classroom setting during the normal lessons because these subject teachers were also of the same ethnicity i.e. Chinese.

The teacher interviewee CIT2 agreed that bilingual strategies were practised during the teaching and learning of the subject of Malay in the classroom setting because of a group of students who were weak in Malay. Thus, it was necessary and helpful for the subject teachers to conduct the lesson in two languages, i.e. Malay then translated into Mandarin.

In Parba's study (2018), the Philippines teachers switch their teaching content to students L1 when their students do not understand because of language barriers during the teaching. In the Chinese Independent high school, the interviewee CIT2 - the Malay language teacher in the school who was proficient in Mandarin, also switched her teaching content to students' L1 when her students had language barriers during her teaching. The Malay language teachers in Chinese Independent high school also agreed that their students could understand faster and could find the lesson engaging in the students' L1.

However, the exposure to Malay for students of the studied Chinese Independent high school was not maximised inside and outside the school. As unveiled by Chua (2012), education is a means to train a workforce and to build a stable society and

national identity. In Malaysian context, the government has chosen Malay as the national language to unite all Malaysians, all the education institutions must provide equal opportunity for the students to learn and to be excel in Malay.

iii) Malay language practice of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

Extract 38

研究者：那你们会和非教职员说国语吗？

[Researcher: Then will you practise national language (Malay) with the non-academic staff?]

CIS1: 国语。我们不和非教职员说国语。

[CIS1: Malay? No. We do not practise Malay with non-academic staff.]

English and Malay were also not used by the student interviewee CIS1 to communicate with the non-academic staff in the school even though some non-academic staff were non-Chinese. The language practice of the student interviewees CIS1 in student to non-academic communication in the Chinese Independent high school is different from the language practice of the student interviewees of national-type secondary school and national secondary school.

One of the reasons is because the Chinese Independent high school is a private secondary school, some of the non-academic staff in the school were Chinese. Nonetheless, the non-Chinese non-academic staff in the school were also proficient in Mandarin. Therefore the language used by students of Chinese Independent high school when communicating with the non-academic staff was the dominant communication language in the school but it was neither English nor Malay. Or it is not necessary for the students of Chinese Independent high school to use either English or Malay when communicating with the non-Chinese non-academic staff.

The student interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school did not converge to use the mother tongue of the non-academic staff who was non-Chinese to show solidarity as mentioned in Giles's Accommodation theory, an individual speaker

who converges in his/her linguistic behaviour will choose a language which seems to suit the need of his/her interlocutors to show solidarity. In this regard, it is deduced that the ethnicity of the non-academic staff was not the determining factor of language practice in the school settings.

The student interviewees' language practice of Malay was, on average, about five percent, in the school settings. This was considered to be lower than their English language practice in the school settings.

English and Malay were both used as the official languages during special occasions by the student Master of Ceremony for example in the school assemblies setting. This only occurred for an important event such as the official opening of a new building or a special ceremony when guests include dignitaries and officers from the Education department who may not necessarily be of Chinese ethnicity.

Though Malay was used during official ceremonies, it was also spoken by the student Master of Ceremony when making announcements. Nonetheless, this was followed by another language such as English or Mandarin.

Although Malay was not used as a communication language by the student interviewees with the above-mentioned interlocutors, it was used by the student interviewees in the classroom setting such as with some of their teachers. Malay was used as the education language with their Malay subject teacher in the classroom setting. The teacher interviewee CIT2 had conducted her teaching in Malay followed by Mandarin if the students' Malay proficiency was weak, in the classroom setting.

In Coluzzi's (2017) study, nearly all Malaysians can speak, understand, write and read Malay language but some with low proficiency. This is because some Malaysians are lack of practice. Though using Malay by the student Master of Ceremony might not improve much in the use of Malay by the students in school settings but created more opportunities the language to be used by students in the

Chinese Independent high school.

b) Malay language practice declared by student interviewees in national-type secondary school

Malay was used as a communication language with the Malay teachers and it was used as education language by the student interviewees in the national-type secondary school.

i) Malay language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to student communication

Malay was not used by the student interviewees when communicating with their schoolmates, whether they were of the same ethnicity or of different ethnicity, in the national-type secondary school.

Extract 41

NTS1: 有必要时，我如果和同学沟通的话，我都是用华语。

[NTS1: When it is necessary, if I communicate with my schoolmates, I use Mandarin.]

研究员: 或是你们有没有尝试说，他是马来同学，虽然他是会用华语，可是你就用马来文跟他沟通，会吗？

[Researcher: Or let us say he/she is (your) Malay schoolmate. Though he/she is able to communicate in Mandarin, you would communicate with him/her in Malay, wouldn't you?]

NTS2: 很少。

[NTS2: rarely.]

The Malay language practice of the student respondents of national-type secondary school was different from the national secondary school though both were government-sponsored secondary schools in Malaysian education system.

Similar to student interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school CIS1 and CIS2, the student interviewee of national-type secondary school NTS1 also did not use Malay when she was communicating with her schoolmates of the same ethnicity or of a different ethnicity in the school settings. Student interviewee NTS2 also 'rarely' tried to use Malay when communicating with his schoolmates of Malay ethnicity in the school settings.

As in Giles's Accommodation Theory, the language users converged to choose a language variety to suit the needs of their interlocutors so show solidarity. It is not necessary for the students of national-type secondary school to use Malay as student to student communication language because the Malay schoolmates are proficient in Mandarin. Therefore it is not to say that the majority group of students in the school did not show solidarity to the non-Chinese students i.e. to use Malay as the communication language.

Based on this, it is deduced that the ethnicity of the schoolmates was not the determining factor of language practice for the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 when communicating with their schoolmates. Malay was rarely used as the communication language by the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 in the national-type secondary school. However, if student interviewee NTS1 was required to use Malay as a communication language, that would be when she was communicating with the junior students.

Some Malay students in the national-type secondary school also had low proficiency in Malay although their parents were of Malay ethnicity. This is because these students did not use Malay as their communication language in the family domain.

Based on this, Malay was not used as the dominant communication language by the student interviewees when communicating with the Malay student interlocutors.

However, it was noted by student interviewee NTS1 that Malay was used when they were attending the 'uniform body' in the extra-curricular activities. Student interviewee NTS2 spoke Malay when there was an outsider or when there was a visiting coach. He used Mandarin when he was communicating with his schoolmates.

ii) Malay language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

It appears that the ethnicity of the teachers and the medium of instruction served as the determining factors for the practice of Malay by student interviewees in national-type secondary school.

Extract 44

NTS2: 哦，我是看如果是同族的老师，我会对他说华语。如果是异族的话，我会用马来文。

[NTS2: Oh, if my teacher is of the same ethnicity, I will practise Mandarin. If (my teacher) is of different ethnicity, I will practise Malay.]

The interview suggests that Malay was used as an inter-ethnicity communication language by student interviewee NTS2 with his teachers who were ethnically Malay and Indian because his English proficiency was low.

However, student interviewee NTS1 communicated with her Malay teachers in Malay only because she was requested to do so by a Malay teacher in the school.

The medium of instruction used by the teachers to conduct their teaching in the classroom setting also determined the language practice of NTS1, including non-Malay teachers.

NTS1's Malay subject teacher had insisted the students communicate in Malay during the teaching and learning process in the classroom setting. Hence, Malay was used automatically by NTS1 when communicating with her teacher who was teaching the subject of Malay even though the teacher was ethnically Chinese.

In brief, it can be seen that Malay was used as a communication language by the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 with their teachers who were ethnically Malay or with the Malay subject teachers, regardless of ethnicity, in the national-type secondary school. Malay was also used by NTS1 and NTS2 when communicating with their school principal, who was of Chinese ethnicity at the administrative office setting. This

is because the administrative office setting required the use of a formal language. Thus, Malay, the national language and official language of Malaysia, was used by the student interviewees as the formal language when they were communicating with their non-Malay principal in the national-type secondary school.

In the studied national-type secondary school, the used of Malay as the communication language in the administrative office supported Tollefson's (1999) critique about The Giles's Accommodation theory. The consequences of converging/diverging language practice are not determined by the language user but are based on the historical-structural (the socio-historical status of the language user shaped by the relationships of power and domination). The convergence of Malay in the school is not determined by the language user – the Malay teachers in the school but it is based on the socio-historical status of the language user shaped by the relationships of power and domination.

It is deduced the success of national language policy implemented in national-type secondary school shown Malay was used as the formal language by the school community in the formal setting such as at the administrative office.

Besides, this also supported the variation in language use of Labov (1963) which emphasizes the different social status of speakers. The student interviewees of the national-type secondary school converged to using Malay with their teachers who were at the higher status and had more power than the student respondents and student interviewees in the school.

iii) Malay language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

The ethnicity of the interlocutors served as the determining factor of the language practice of the student interviewees when communicating with non-academic staff in the national-type secondary school.

The non-academic staff in the national-type secondary school may be either ethnically Malay or Indian. Data drawn from the interview suggest that English was rarely used by the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 when communicating with the non-academic staff even if the non-academic staff was ethnically Indian. Malay was used as the dominant communication language with the non-academic staff in the school settings.

As mentioned in the previous section, the student interviewees used Malay to communicate with the administrators who were Chinese and the teachers because of power. However, the student interviewees also used Malay to communicate with the non-academic staff of Malay and Indian ethnicity. The convergence of Malay language is also because of the needs of the interlocutors to show solidarity as mentioned in the Giles's Accommodation theory.

Though the student interviewees were multilingual. They were able to use English, Malay and Mandarin only but not Tamil or other language/s. Furthermore, the non-academic staff might not proficient in English. Therefore, Malay was the best choice to be used as the communication language in the student to non-academic staff communication.

Extract 47

研究员：ok, 那么使用马来文的时候呢？

[Researcher: Okay, then when do you use Malay language?]

NTS1: 我觉得已经占了40%。

[NTS1: I think I use it 40 percent of the time.]

NTS2: 我觉得60%以上。

[NTS2: I think I use it more than 60 percent of the time.]

The Malay language practice of student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 in school settings, totalled 40 percent and more than 60 percent respectively. NTS2 used Malay more than NTS1 in the school settings.

In addition, NTS1's language practice of Malay was twice that of her English language practice in the school settings. NTS2 used Malay more frequently in the school settings, 12 times more than of his English language practice in the school settings. Malay was comparatively more frequently used by NTS1 and NTS2 in the school settings.

In the school assemblies setting, Malay was used as the dominant language by the school principal and vice principals in delivering speeches and announcing reports as well as with teachers on duty in the national-type secondary school. Their speeches and reports were also translated into Mandarin because the school students' Malay proficiency was low.

c) Malay language practice declared by student interviewees in national secondary school

Malay language practice of student interviewees was determined by the ethnicity of their interlocutors and the medium of instruction of their teachers in the teaching and learning process in national secondary school.

i) Malay language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to student communication

Malay was used by the student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 when they were communicating with their schoolmates of different ethnicities.

As mentioned, the majority of the students in the national secondary school were of Malay ethnicity followed by Chinese and Indians. It was automatic for NSS1 and NSS2 to communicate with their schoolmates of Malay and Indian ethnicities in code-mixing of Malay and English.

Nevertheless, the practice of code-mixing of Malay and English by the student interviewees with schoolmates of different ethnicities showed different patterns. More Malay and less English was used when communicating with schoolmates of Malay

ethnicity, and more English and less Malay was used when communicating with schoolmates of Indian ethnicity in the mix-coding communication.

These two patterns of language use showed the student interviewees converged to using the language/s which is/are convenient to their interlocutors to show solidarity as mentioned by Giles in Accommodation theory. This is because as mentioned by teacher interviewee NTS2, the Chinese and Indian were the minority group of students in the studied national secondary school.

Nonetheless, it is also because of necessity the student interviewees use Malay and English as communication languages in inter-ethnicity communication. The student interviewees are multilingual with the proficiency of English, Malay and Mandarin. However their non-Chinese interlocutors in the national secondary school were bilinguals or they are proficient in English and Malay only. Therefore, it was necessary the student interviewees used the language/s which their interlocutors were proficient in.

ii) Malay language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

Malay was used as the dominant communication language by student interviewees when communicating with the Malay teachers or some teachers of the same ethnicities who conducted their teaching in Malay, in Malaysian national secondary school.

Extract 49

研究员:那么你们在跟,在行政人员办公室的时候遇到你的老师的话,你们用什么语言跟老师沟通呢?

[Researcher: Then when you meet your teacher at the administrative office, what language is used by you to communicate with your teacher?]

NSS1、NSS2:马来文。

[NSS1、NSS2: Malay.]

The immediate language used by the student interviewees when communicating with their teachers in the school settings is Malay. This is attributed to the fact that Malay is the dominant communication language used by the students when

communicating with their teachers in the school settings. The student interviewees used Malay with their Malay, Chinese and Indian teachers in the school.

The student interviewees' Malay language practice were of different patterns. Malay was used when communicating with Malay, Indian and Chinese teachers who teach in Malay in the classroom setting.

Two languages were used by the student interviewees when communicating with their teachers of Malay ethnicity and Indian ethnicity. More Malay and less English was used when communicating with teachers of Malay ethnicity; more English and less Malay was used when communicating with teachers of Indian ethnicity.

The student interviewees were drilled into practising Malay in the classroom setting; Malay was used automatically even with the Chinese teachers. Therefore, the medium of instruction of the Chinese teachers in the classroom setting determined the language practice of the students.

Furthermore, student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 communicated with their principal and the school administrators in Malay when at the administrative office. Though the principal and the school administrators were teaching the *PPSMI* subjects in the school, they used Malay only to communicate with the students in the national secondary school.

In the school assemblies setting, the school principal and the administrators delivered their speeches in Malay and the teachers on duty presented their reports fully in Malay.

As mentioned by the teacher interviewee NST2, some students in the school have a low Malay language proficiency. However, no translation was performed by the school principal, administrators and teachers on duty when Malay was used to deliver their speeches and reports. It is deduced that Malay served as the dominant communication language in the school assemblies setting in the school.

Similar to student to student communication, one of the reasons why student interviewees using Malay and English to communicate with the teachers of Malay and Indian ethnicities in the national secondary school because of necessity. As mentioned by the teacher interviewee NST1, majority of the teachers in the studied national secondary school were monolingual who used only Malay in the school settings.

In the study of Seals (2016), the language choice of the participants shows their goodwill towards their parents. The participants use their parents' heritage language instead of their preferred language to show they accommodate to their parents linguistically and to show solidarity to their parents. The student interviewees of studied national secondary school used their teachers' heritage language – Malay instead of their preferred language – Mandarin, to show solidarity to their teachers. The language choice of the students also shows their goodwill towards their teachers specifically the Malay teachers.

iii) Malay language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

Malay was used as the dominant communication language when the student interviewees were communicating with the non-academic staff in the national secondary school.

Both the national secondary school and the national-type secondary school are the government-sponsored schools. All the non-academic staff of these schools are government hired and they were of non-Chinese ethnicity.

As defined by Spolsky (2004), the language practice is the habitual pattern an individual demonstrates when selecting the language/s among the varieties in his/her linguistic repertoire to perform particular functions. In this regard, the student interviewees may use either English or Malay when communicating with the non-Chinese non-academic staff in the school settings. However, it has become a habitual

practice for the student interviewees to communicate with a non-Chinese interlocutor in Malay. Therefore, Malay is used automatically by the student interviewees when communicating with the non-academic staff in the school settings.

Extract 52

研究员:…那么你现在在学校里面,你们用马来文…那么你们在学校里面的语言的使用…?

[Researcher: ... then in the school you speak Malay ... then how about your language practice in school?]

NSS1、NSS2: 马来文过多。

[NSS1、NSS2: Malay is used more.]

As mentioned above, student interviewee NSS1's English language practice in the school settings was inadequate. It was agreed that Malay was widely used with most of their interlocutors whether of the same or different ethnicity in all settings in the school. It was also agreed that their Malay language practice in the school settings was more than was needed. On the other hand, the students found that they should have more opportunity to use other languages such as English or Mandarin in the school settings.

4.2.2.1 Malay language practice variant of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are highlighted in Table 4.2

Table 4.2 Malay language practice variant of student respondents in different school settings in three types of Malaysian secondary school

Settings	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
School assemblies	62.4	133.3	255.0
Administrative office	105.6	147.6	244.5
Teachers office	114.1	170.4	237.5
Classroom	113.2	152.5	242.1
Library	103.2	147.8	244.8
Canteen	122.3	141.7	243.3
Extra-curricular activities	113.7	156.5	241.0

The results show that the Malay language practice of student respondents in all the three types of Malaysian secondary schools showed a significant difference in all the school settings. The student respondents of the national secondary schools had the highest sum rank in the Malay language practice followed by the national-type secondary schools and then the Chinese Independent high school, in all the settings. Thus, it is deduced that Malay was used most frequently by student respondents of the national secondary schools when compared to the national-type school; and the Chinese Independent high school showed the lowest use.

Though the national-type secondary school and the national secondary school are government-sponsored secondary schools, and Malay is the medium of instruction for most of the subjects offered in these two types of secondary schools, the student respondents and student interviewees of national secondary school used Malay more frequent than the student respondents and student interviewees of national-type secondary school (see Figure 4.2).

This is because the majority group of students and teachers in the national secondary school and the national-type secondary school was Malay and Chinese respectively. The student respondents and student interviewees of national secondary school used Malay most frequently among the three types of Malaysian secondary schools. They used Malay as communication language in the inter-ethnicity communication in all school settings such as the student to student communication, student to teacher communication and student to non-academic staff communication.

On the other hand, the student respondents and student interviewees of national-type secondary school used Malay lesser than the students of national secondary school because they used the language in the student to teacher communication and student to non-academic staff communication.

In Labov (1963), variation in language use emphasizes the frequency of use. As mentioned, Malay was used more frequent by the students of national-type secondary school and national secondary school than the students of Chinese Independent high school because it was used as medium of instruction and the ethnicity of the teachers in the schools.

Despite the fact that Malay was one of the compulsory subjects to be taught in Malaysian schools, it appears that the Chinese Independent high school did not make it a compulsory subject for all the students in the school to take public examinations such as *PT3* and *SPM* which were conducted by *LPM*. In addition in the Chinese Independent high school's examination, the Unified Examination Certificate (UEC), an examination that all students in the Junior Three and Senior Three have to sit for in order to be adequately assessed, the Malay subject was not made a necessary and compulsory subject to pass. This is because the UEC is an examination that is coordinated and organised by *Dongzong*.

In fact, according to the interviews, sometimes the teaching of Malay may also be conducted bilingually by the Malay subject teacher i.e. in Malay and Mandarin for the students of the Chinese Independent high school. This is especially to cater for those students who were weak in Malay and to ease their understanding.

Some studies (Ting, 2009; Ting, 2010a; Ting, 2013; Phooi & Ting, 2016) have shown that Malay serves as the inter-ethnic communication language in the family domain while other studies (Ang & Lau, 2012) showed that Malay serves as the inter-ethnic communication language in the friendship and work domains, but Ting (2010b) noted that Malay is an inter-ethnic communication language in the transaction as well as education domain in Malaysian schools. This is apparent in the Malaysian context since Malay had often been viewed as a unity language and most people living in the country are expected to know the language.

Nevertheless, Malay was also used as the inter-ethnic communication language by the students when they were communicating with their Malay teachers in the school settings who were six in total at the moment the study was carried out in the Chinese Independent high school. However, as can be predicted, the frequency of the students using Malay as a communication language was very low. Thus, it can be deduced that Malay had limited usage because it was not used as the intra-ethnic communication language among students in the school. Malay was used in a more restrictive manner i.e. for the teaching of Malay as a subject only.

Therefore, it can be said that the Malay used in the Chinese Independent high school was of the low frequency used language because it was not frequently used whether as a communication language or as the education language in the school settings.

In the national-type secondary school, the Malay language practice of the students was also found to be less frequent than their English language practice in the

school settings (see Figure 4.1 & Figure 4.2). It was found that Malay was ‘rarely’ used as the findings indicate. Malay was mainly used by the students as the inter-ethnic communication language with the non-Chinese teachers and the non-academic Malay staff. Malay however served as the dominant education language for the school because it was used as the medium of instruction for most of the subjects offered in the school.

The students who were more proficient in English converged to Malay to show solidarity with the teachers and non-academic Malay staff during their inter-ethnic communication. This is evidenced by the interviews held with the student interviewee NTS1, who was advised by the teacher who was of Malay ethnicity not to practise English as an inter-ethnic communication language when communicating with Malay teachers. Consequently, the Chinese students who made up the majority of the school students converged to practising Malay as the communication language to show solidarity with the minority group of teachers and non-academic staff.

In the context of the national-type secondary schools, Malay was clearly used as the communication language with the administrators in the administrative office setting. This can be attributed to the students’ perception who assumed that when communicating with the administrators in the formal setting, Malay should be used as it was the official, national and formal language of the school setting.

According to Labov (1963), language variation emphasizes the frequency of using the language, social status of the speakers and the language users’ consciousness of intentions of using the language. The administrators of the national-type secondary who have the highest social status consciously and intentionally use Malay in the assemblies and administrative meetings settings. This reflects Malay has higher status than English and Mandarin in the studied school. At the same time the language use by the administrators also reflects the community’s culture. Hymes (1962) talks about language used by a user depends on context and situation. The language pattern of the

community shows the context of language use and how the community behaves through the use of the selected language. In the national-type secondary school, the administrators and the teachers automatically use Malay in the assemblies and administrative meetings settings also supports Malay is the high variety language in the school and with high frequency of language use.

The demography of students and teachers in the Chinese Independent high school and national-type school was similar - the Chinese was the majority ethnic group. The administrators of the national-type secondary school converging their language practice to Malay reflected the fact that the administrators of the national-type secondary school were consciously speaking Malay as the language to unite the school communities which was made up of different ethnicities. Mandarin was not used by the administrators because there were Malay teachers in the school and they could not understand Mandarin. Malay, which could be understood by teachers and students was used, though the teacher interviewee NTT1 agreed that there were some students who were weak in Malay language in the school.

In contrast, the Chinese students diverged to use Mandarin as the inter-ethnic communication language with the minority group of the school. This is because all the students in the school were well versed in Mandarin.

The language practice also provides contexts for the language learners (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4). The language learning depends on large measure on language practices by the learners to which they are exposed. In this study, the students in the national-type secondary school used the formal language in Malaysia - Malay - when communicating with the school administrators in the formal setting, for instance at the administrative office as evidenced by the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 in this study.

It appears that Malay was a high variety language and it is used as communication language by the students since it was mainly used when communicating

with the teachers and non-academic staff of Malay ethnicity. In comparison, Malay was used as the low frequency communication language when it was used with their schoolmates, Chinese and Indian teachers in the school settings.

In the national secondary schools, Malay was most frequently used by the students (see Table 4.2) unlike students in the national-type schools and the Chinese Independent high school who 'rarely' to 'sometimes' used Malay in the school settings (see Figure 4.2).

In the Malaysian context, Malay is the dominant communication language and the medium of instruction for most subjects taught in the school. However, the policy made for the *PPSMI* was that the Science and Mathematics subjects were to be taught in English and the textbooks used would also be in English. However, as the outcome of this study had shown through the interviews, the teachers in the national secondary schools used Malay to teach the *PPSMI* subjects via the Malay version of the recommended textbooks. It was without doubt that the *PPSMI* teachers in the national secondary schools preferred Malay than English. Thus, it can be deduced that Malay was used by the students as the dominant education language because it was imposed on them by their teachers. Of course, Malay was also used as a communication language with the teachers and administrators in the school settings.

Since the students being interviewed also belonged to the minority group of the school, it was inevitable that they too had to converge to using Malay because it was predominantly used by others in their speech community (the school). Moreover, they also had to use Malay as their dominant communication language when interacting with school mates, teachers and non-academic staff of the school so as to show their solidarity with the speech community. Thus, Malay acted as the language of unity for the students, teachers and non-academic staff.

As claimed by Hymes (1962), the language variety used by the stakeholders can enable us to understand the community's culture or their way of communication. In this study, Malay served as the high variety for intra-ethnicity communication among the Malay students and inter-ethnicity communication between the Malay students with the Chinese and Indian students. The language choice of the students of Malay ethnicity enable us to understand Malay was successfully used as the inter-ethnic communication language in the school. It is also the national language of the country and so it can be described as a unity tool when the Malaysian government implements different language policies in the country.

4.2.3 Mandarin language practice of student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools

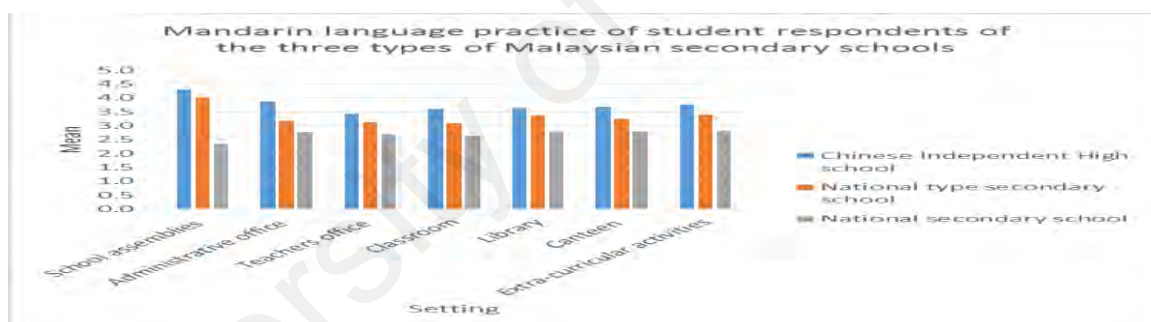


Figure 4.3: Mandarin language practice of student respondents of three types of Malaysian secondary schools

From the statistic, it appears that student respondents from Malaysian secondary schools 'rarely' to 'very often' use Mandarin in the school settings. The mean of the language practice is between 2.0 and 4.0.

The Mandarin language practice of student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school shows a mean of between 3.0 and 4.0; student respondents from national-type secondary schools shows a mean of between 3.0 and 4.0; and the mean of national secondary school student respondents is between 2.0 and 2.5. This core suggests that Mandarin is most frequently used by student respondents of the

Chinese Independent high school followed by student respondents of the national-type secondary schools and national secondary school.

Mandarin is ‘very often’ used by student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary schools but ‘rarely’ used by student respondents of national secondary schools in school assemblies setting. The language practice of Mandarin in this setting shows a big difference between the student respondents of Chinese Independent high school, national-type secondary school and national secondary school. The student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school have the highest mean of Mandarin language practice but the national secondary school shows the lowest mean.

a) Mandarin language practice declared by student interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school

The ethnicity of the interlocutors was not the determining factor of Mandarin language practice of student interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school.

i) Mandarin language practice of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to student communication

Extract 53

CIT1: …友族同学大概是2、3个，因为友族同学肯定会华语。

[CIT1: ... there are two to three students of other ethnicities, because it is sure that the students of other ethnicities are proficient in Mandarin.]

CIT1:

……他们的华语说得非常的流利。就好像我们高二的同学。他是马来人，然后他的华语作文比赛曾经拿过全校第一。

[CIT1: ...they speak Mandarin fluently. For example our Senior Two student. She is a Malay and she was the winner of the Chinese essay writing competition in the school.]

There were only two or three non-Chinese students studying in the targeted Chinese Independent high school. Though these students were of the minority group in the school, they did not encounter any communication problems when communicating with

their schoolmates because of their high competence in Mandarin.

The student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 used Mandarin when communicating with schoolmates of the same ethnicity; neither English nor Malay was used. Mandarin was used when the interviewees were communicating with their schoolmates of different ethnicities. Based on this, it is deduced that Mandarin is the dominant communication language used by the student interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school when communicating with schoolmates of the same or different ethnicity.

Language practice refers to the language user using any language of his/her preference to fulfil a certain intention within a certain context including the participants involved. The language patterns of the entire community in the context of language use and how that particular community behaves through the use of that language may enable us to understand the community's culture (Hymes, 1962). This may shed light on what functions the language serves. In the studied Chinese Independent high school, Mandarin was used as the intra-ethnicity communication language in student to student communication because Mandarin was the mother tongue of the Chinese students.

Furthermore in Giles's Accommodation theory, the language users may converge/diverge their language varieties that suit the needs of his/her interlocutors to show solidarity. Convergence was practice by the minority students of Chinese Independent high school in the student to student communication for inter-ethnicity communication. This is because the non-Chinese students in the Chinese Independent high school had good competence in Mandarin. Therefore using Mandarin as communication language by the non-Chinese students in the school settings was to choose Mandarin among the varieties – English, Malay and Mandarin as their preference to communicate with their schoolmates.

ii) Mandarin language practice of the Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

Extract 54

CIS2 : 马来语老师？华人也是说华语。

[CIS2: (communicating) with teachers teaching Malay? Also Mandarin if the teachers are of Chinese ethnicity.]

CIS1 : 会。我也一样。

[CIS1: Yes. For me also the same.]

In the school settings, English was not used by the student interviewee CIS1 when communicating with his Chinese teachers; Mandarin was used instead. Although there were some Chinese teachers who were also teaching the Malay subject in the Chinese Independent high school, the student interviewees communicated with their teachers bilingually i.e. Mandarin and Malay. This is because their teachers applied bilingual practices in the teaching of the subject of Malay in the classroom setting.

Some students in the school were of low Malay proficiency. These students may have difficulty when their Malay subject teachers use Malay only in the classroom setting. Therefore, to assist them, the teaching and learning process was conducted by their Malay subject teachers in two languages – Malay and Mandarin.

The practice of teaching of Malay in the Chinese Independent high school by using Mandarin – the mother tongue of the students was supported by Tupas (2018), the use of mother tongues of the students may address the basic and functional literacy needs of the students. The mother tongue of the students was used as the translanguage for classroom level.

This practice also supported the MTB-MLW which was implemented in the Philippines. The teachers of the Philippines and the studied Chinese Independent high school switched their teaching to the L1 of students when the students did not understand. They agreed that students could understand faster and find the lessons engaging in the students' L1, this saved time and efficient.

iii) Mandarin language practice of the Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

Extract 55

CIT1: 你是说在行政的书记吗？

[CIT1: You mean the staff in the administration office?]

研究员: 啊啊。

[Researcher: Ah.]

CIT1: 有有有。我们楼下的那个书记就是会讲华语的。

[CIT1: Yes. Our staff in downstairs is able to communicate in Mandarin.]

CIT2: 然后英文中心的基本上都不会。

[CIT2: And those in the (Just) English Center are unable (to communicate in Mandarin.)]

CIT1: 我们实验室都是华人。

[CIT1: All our laboratory (assistants) are Chinese.]

CIT1: 会讲华文。

[CIT1: (They are) able to speak Mandarin.]

Neither English nor Malay was used by the student interviewees when communicating with the non-academic staffs in the school settings. Mandarin was used by the student interviewees when communicating with the non-academic staff.

The non-academic staff of the school were of Chinese and non-Chinese ethnicity. In this regard, the student interviewees used Mandarin as a communication language with all the non-academic staff, regardless of their ethnicity. This is because all were proficient in Mandarin.

The language practice of Spolsky (2009) touches on which language is predominantly used by the speakers, with whom and for what purpose. In this study, the student interviewees of Chinese Independent high school showed they predominantly used Mandarin to communicate with the non-academic staff during intra-ethnicity and inter-ethnicity communications in the school settings. The Mandarin language practice in student to non-academic staff communication enables us to understand the Chinese Independent high school culture and also reflects the function of Mandarin serves in the

school community. Mandarin not only serves as the education language in the school, it also unites the student community and the non-academic staff.

Unlike the national-type secondary school and national secondary school, the students of Chinese Independent high school did not use other language/s besides Mandarin to converge to the language practice of the non-academic staff of non-Chinese. As mentioned before, the student interviewees of national-type secondary school and national secondary school converged to use Malay as communication language with the non-academic staff of Malay and Indian ethnicities in the school settings.

Mandarin was frequently used by the student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 in the school settings. More than 80 percent of the language practice of the student interviewees in the school settings was in Mandarin. Thus it is deduced that Mandarin was the dominant communication language of the student interviewees in the school settings.

The teacher interviewee CIT3 agreed that Mandarin was the dominant communication and education language in the Chinese Independent high school. Most of the subjects from Biology (science stream) to Bookkeeping (business stream) were conducted in Mandarin instead of English or Malay.

In the targeted Chinese Independent high school, the student interviewees used Mandarin when communicating with their schoolmates regardless of their ethnicity.

Mandarin was also used by the student interviewees when communicating with their teachers of the same ethnicity and non-academic staff of the same as well as different ethnicities.

b) Mandarin language practice declared by student interviewees in national-type secondary school

Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language when the student interviewees were communicating with their schoolmates and teachers.

i) Mandarin language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to student communication

Extract 58

NTS1: ... 我如果和同学沟通的话，我都是用华语。

[NTS1: ... when I communicate with my schoolmates, I speak Mandarin.]

研究员：都是用华语。

[Researcher: I speak Mandarin only.]

NTS1: ... 这间是国民型中学嘛，然后我们的，不管是同胞还是同族的或者是异族的都是用华语的。

[NTS1: ... this is a national-type secondary school, and our, (students) either of same ethnicity or of different ethnicity are able to speak Mandarin.]

NTS2: 因为那些马来同学他们都会讲华语，所以我们都是用华语沟通。

[NTS2: Because those Malay schoolmates are able to communicate in Mandarin, therefore we are able to communicate in Mandarin.]

Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language by the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 when communicating with their schoolmates, whether of Chinese ethnicity or another ethnicity.

As mentioned before, all the students in the national-type secondary school were proficient in Mandarin even though some were of Malay ethnicity. Their Malay proficiency was low because they used Mandarin as the communication language in their family.

Though national-type secondary schools are the government sponsored schools, all the students in the schools were the graduates of Chinese vernacular primary schools. Mandarin was used as the dominant medium of instruction for most of the subjects except for the subjects English and Malay for six years primary education (from Year One to Year Six) in the Chinese vernacular primary schools. Therefore all

the students of national-type secondary schools were competent in Mandarin.

Furthermore, the student interviewee NTS2 used Mandarin when communicating with his schoolmates in extra-curricular activities setting when outsider or the visiting coach was not there. Therefore, Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language by the students in the national-type secondary school during the absence of teachers of different ethnicities.

It is deduced the type of school and ethnicity of students are not the determining factors of Mandarin language practice of students of national-type secondary school and Chinese Independent high school. This is because the student interviewees of both types of secondary school showed the same pattern of Mandarin language practice in student to student communication though the national-type secondary school is a government sponsored school but the Chinese Independent high school is not.

As mentioned by Spolsky (2009), language practice may provide the models of language that may help to explain language learning and establish necessary conditions for language choice which is partly determined by the language proficiency of the language users.

In the studied national-type secondary school, the student interviewees use Mandarin to communicate with all their schoolmates regardless of the ethnicities because all of them were competent in Mandarin. This helps to explain the language learning environment in the national-type secondary school i.e. the students of the school had high competency of Mandarin. This supported the necessity for the teacher interviewee, NTT1 to use Mandarin – the L1 of the students in her teaching and learning in the classes of students whom were with low competency of Malay.

ii) Mandarin language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

Mandarin was used by the student interviewee NTS2 when communicating with teachers of the same ethnicity.

The Mandarin language practice of NTS1 showed different patterns. She used Mandarin when she was communicating with her teachers of Chinese ethnicity, but not with those teaching English and Malay in the classroom setting.

Extract 59

NTT1: 因为我们的基本上，我们早上班的华人老师比较多。

[NTT1: Because basically we have more teachers of Chinese ethnicity in the morning session.]

Furthermore, the teacher interviewee NTT1 added that there were more teachers of Chinese ethnicity in the morning session. Since the language practice of the student interviewee NTS2 was determined by the ethnicity of his interlocutors, he was able to use Mandarin frequently with his teachers who were of Chinese ethnicity in the school settings.

Mandarin was not used by the student interviewees when they were communicating with the school administrators in the administrative office setting because Mandarin was not the formal language. This language practice was different from the Chinese Independent high school though the administrators of both types of school were Chinese. The administrators of Chinese Independent high school used Mandarin to deliver speeches or to make reports during the assemblies but Malay was used in the studied national-type secondary school.

This supported Hymes's ethnography of communication (1962) i.e. the patterns of language use of the entire community show how the community behave through the use of that language. This studied showed the national-type secondary school community has successfully and habitually using Malay as the formal language in the

school setting and not Mandarin.

iii) Mandarin language practice of national-type secondary school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

Mandarin was not used as the communication language by the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 when communicating with the non-academic staff in the school settings.

This is because the non-academic staff of the national-type secondary school were either of Malay or Indian ethnicity. The non-academic staff in the school do not have proficiency in Mandarin, therefore, the student interviewees used Malay as the communication language in national-type secondary school.

This is because the national-type secondary school as a government sponsored school and the administrators of the school do not have the autonomy in recruitment of either school teachers or non-academic staff. The administrators of the school also did not have the authority to reject any teacher or non-academic staff posted to the school by the government whether these teachers or non-academic staff have or do not have the proficiency of Mandarin.

Therefore, the student interviewees converged to using Malay as communication language with the non-academic staff (who have higher status than the students in the school) i.e. choosing a language to suit the needs of their interlocutors as mentioned in the Giles's Accommodation Theory. Mandarin was not used as communication language in student to non-academic staff communication in the national-type secondary school.

研究员：你有60%。那么华语呢？

[Researcher: 60% of your time you speak Malay. Then how much time do you speak Mandarin?]

NTS1: 华语。我觉得跟马来文是平等的。

[NTS1: Mandarin. I think is similar to the time I speak Malay.]

NTS2: 华语，华语。我觉得应该也是跟马来文差不多。

[NTS2: Mandarin. Mandarin. I think is more or less like Malay.]

NTS2: 对。如果是跟学生的话，都是华文比较多。

[NTS2: Yes. If is when I speak to the students, I will speak more in Mandarin.]

The Mandarin language practice of the student interviewees was similar to their Malay language practice in the school settings. NTS2 added that he used more Mandarin when he was communicating with his schoolmates in the school settings.

c) Mandarin language practice declared by student interviewees in national secondary school

Mandarin was used by the student interviewees when communicating with their schoolmates and teachers of the same ethnicity in the formal settings.

i) Mandarin language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to student communication

Mandarin was used as a communication language when student interviewees were communicating with their schoolmates of the same ethnicity in informal settings in the national secondary school.

However, when there were schoolmates of different ethnicities, specifically, Malay, the student interviewees would not use Mandarin when communicating with their Chinese schoolmates. Malay was used as a communication language by student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2, though both of them are Chinese.

NSS1: 就有时候如果坐在一起啦。 “讲什么？不明白” 这样子。

[NSS1: It is sometimes when sitting together. Like (saying) ‘What do you say? (I) Do not understand’.]

NSS1: 就是讲不明白。然后我们就会自然的就会转语言这样。

[NSS1: (They) Just say ‘We do not understand’. Then we will automatically shift our language practice.]

This avoidance in practising Mandarin was to protect their schoolmates of other ethnicity from being offended since they do not understand Mandarin.

The language practice of the Malay students in the national secondary school showed similarity to the observation of Susan Gal in Oberwart, Austria. German was the national language of the community, and it served as the education and communication language for the professionals. The Hungarian language users are expected to shift to German in the presence of German monolinguals.

As mentioned before, Malay is the national language, education and dominant communication language in Malaysia. The Chinese students of the studied national secondary school were expected and requested to shift to Malay by their Malay schoolmates. Mandarin would not be used as communication language even though they were having a personal conversation with their schoolmates of the same ethnicity. The student interviewees would shift their language practice from Mandarin to another language, either Malay or English. Therefore, the student interviewees used Mandarin when they were communicating with their Chinese schoolmates only in the absence of schoolmates of different ethnicities.

ii) Mandarin language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to teacher communication

Mandarin was used as the education language and communication language when the student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 were communicating with their Mandarin subject teacher in the school settings.

Malay was normally used as communication language with teachers of Malay ethnicity, a habitual action. The language practice of the student interviewee NSS1 was determined by the medium of instruction used during the teaching and learning process in the classroom setting, but the student interviewee was not using Mandarin with the subject teacher of Chinese ethnicity. However, in informal settings such as the canteen setting, Mandarin was used.

Extract 62

NSS1：在公众地方就，如果是有其他人的话就尽量少用。

[NSS1: In public, (we) will use less (Mandarin) if there are other people.]

NSS1：看啦。如果canteen多人的话，就马来文、英文。尽量少用。

[NSS1: We will see. If there are many people at the canteen, then Malay, English. Try to speak less (Mandarin).]

The student interviewee, NSS1, added that her Mandarin practice would be reduced when communicating with her subject teachers who were of the same ethnicity when in informal setting, if there were many people around.

During the teaching and learning process in the classroom setting, the subject teachers who were of different ethnicities also set a rule, no Mandarin to be used in the classroom setting. Therefore, their Mandarin use would be minimised.

However, even if Mandarin was used, the teachers who were of other ethnicities would not punish them. Nonetheless, they would be advised to keep quiet.

Though language practice implies how a language user uses a particular language, the language user should be given the freedom to use a language from variety of languages (Tollefson, 1999). In the studied national secondary school, the student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 had less freedom to use Mandarin in the school settings. Their schoolmates of Malay ethnicity expected them to use Malay during their present though the student interviewees were having an intra-ethnicity communication. Furthermore the student interviewees were restricted to use Mandarin because their teachers of the schools set the rule of no Mandarin was used in the classroom setting

except during the Chinese language subject. This practice is against the Article 152 of Malaysian Constitution which explicitly stated that ‘everyone is free to teach, learn or use any other languages’

The students of studied national secondary school were well trained not to use Mandarin in the school settings. Spolsky (2004) defined language practice as the habitual pattern an individual demonstrates when selecting the language varieties available in his/her linguistic repertoire. The student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 were habitually not to use Mandarin as communication language for intra-ethnicity communication when their schoolmates of other ethnicities were present.

Language practice also provides context for the language learners (Spolsky, 2009). The language learners depends on the language management on language practice of the language learners are exposed to. The student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 were continuously under pressure to modify their language practice and accepting the variety – Malay, which was chosen by their teachers in the school settings.

iii) Mandarin language practice of national secondary school student interviewees in student to non-academic staff communication

Mandarin was not used by the student interviewees when communicating with the non-academic staff. This is because the non-academic staff were mainly of Malay ethnicity, hence they were not competence in Mandarin.

. As mentioned before all the non-Chinese non-academic staff were of either Malay or Indian ethnicity and they were not proficient in Mandarin. Therefore using Mandarin as communication language when communicating with the non-academic staff was not suitable.

4.2.3.1 Mandarin language practice variant of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Mandarin language practice variant of student respondents in different school settings in three types of Malaysian secondary school

Settings	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
School assemblies	370.7	343.1	152.9
Administrative office	350.4	262.1	176.5
Teachers office	290.7	254.5	188.0
Classroom	309.2	258.1	184.1
Library	315.0	279.8	177.8
Canteen	318.1	270.0	179.7
Extra-curricular activities	331.6	289.3	172.7

Result shows that the Mandarin language practice of student respondents of the three types of Malaysian secondary schools showed a significant difference in all the school settings. The sum rank values of the Mandarin language practice of student respondents showed that Mandarin was used most frequently by student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school followed by the national-type secondary school and finally the national secondary school in all settings.

Clearly, Mandarin was used ‘very often’ by students of the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school but it was ‘rarely’ used by the students of the national secondary school in all settings. The results showed that the Mandarin language practice of the students was significantly different in all settings (see Table 4.3).

In the context of the Chinese Independent high school, it was apparent that Mandarin was the dominant language because of the structure of the school. This occurrence may subscribe to the findings of Gal (1979), German is the national language in Oberwart, Australia, Hungarian language was the language choice of the

Hungarian couple when they were communicating with their monolingual German neighbour. In the context of this study, the students of the Chinese Independent high school had reserved their mother tongue language practice, in this case, Mandarin for other more common interactions because Mandarin served as the dominant language of the school. It was also mentioned that the Chinese Independent high school also had a small minority of students who were non-Chinese. In the context of this study, the minority group of students had to converge to using the dominant language of the school as a communication language with the other students. It appears that the students who were of the minority group also chose to converge to communicating in Mandarin when interacting with their school mates who were of Chinese ethnicity to show solidarity (as in Giles's Accommodation Theory) and also because of students' behaviour of sociolinguistic self-identity towards the majority group (Gal, 1979).

Mandarin was also used as the dominant communication language by the administrators in the Chinese Independent high school implying that the language commonality of the school was thus homogenous and monolingual, particularly during school assemblies setting. Although teachers of other ethnicities were also present in the assemblies, translations were provided personally by those co-teachers who wanted to assist their non-Chinese teachers to understand the message.

Different from the context of the national-type secondary schools and national secondary schools, Mandarin served as the dominant medium of instruction for most of the subjects taught in the Chinese Independent high school, just the opposite of the national school. In the Chinese Independent high school, the subject of Malay was conducted bilingually i.e. Malay and Mandarin, by the teachers in the classroom setting.

Furthermore, the students also used Mandarin as the dominant intra-ethnicity communication language when interacting with their teachers, all their school mates as well as the non-academic staff in the school. Thus, it is deduced that Mandarin served as

the high variety language in the school settings.

As being mentioned before, Gal (1979) in Oberwart, the old couple had most of their conversation with the monolingual German neighbour in Hungarian language because they reserve their right to use their own language in their own home. Hungarian and German represented 'parallel and coordinate social groups' and there is no relationship of a small group nested inside a larger one as cited from Fasold (1996, p. 196). In this regard, Mandarin appears to be used for the sake of creating a 'parallel and coordinate social group' with English and Malay in the Chinese Independent high school. Mandarin was used by the administrators, and the master of ceremony used Mandarin together with the other language, either English or Malay during the assemblies setting showed there was no relationship of a language of small group nested inside a larger language in the studied Chinese Independent high school. The English teachers of other ethnicities and the Malay teachers do not expect the administrators to change their language to English or Malay during the assemblies and administration meeting settings.

Although the majority of the students in the studied national-type secondary school were Chinese, bilingual school assemblies were conducted by the school teachers and administrators. Malay was used as the dominant language during the assemblies even though there were students who had low proficiency in Malay. Nonetheless, only the important messages would be translated into Mandarin by the administrators and teachers in the school.

In the assemblies setting, Malay was used as the dominant language because there were non-Chinese teachers who were not proficient in Mandarin. Based on this, it can be said that even though the majority group in the studied national-type school were Chinese, the school did not use Mandarin. Instead, the school diverged to practising Malay as the dominant communication language in the assemblies so as to show

solidarity with the Malay teachers who were also the minority group in the school.

However, Mandarin was used as the dominant intra-ethnicity communication language when the students interacted with their teachers and students of other ethnicities. Based on this, it can be said that the students who were of other ethnicities and therefore the minority group of the school chose to converge to Mandarin so as to be able to communicate with the Chinese students in the schools.

Therefore, it can be said that Mandarin served as the high variety language in the school. Mandarin was used in high frequency in student to student communication but was used in low frequency in inter-ethnic communication by the students when interacting with non-Chinese teachers and non-academic staff.

In the studied national secondary school, Mandarin was ‘rarely’ used by the students in all settings. The frequency of the students’ Mandarin language practice in the school settings was the lowest when compared to the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school. This is because the population of the students and teachers who were proficient in Mandarin in the national secondary school was very small. Furthermore, the Chinese teachers in the school used either English or Malay language as medium of instruction in their teaching. The student interviewee NTS1 agreed that she will automatically use the two media of instruction of her teachers’ teaching when they were outside the classroom.

It also appears that the Mandarin language practice in the national secondary school was comparatively different from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school. As the minority group, the Chinese students and teachers (at the point this study was conducted, there were only four) were thus outnumbered.

Mandarin, however, served as the Pupils’ Own Language when the subject was taught in the national secondary schools. It was used as the medium of instruction for

the elective language subject in the school. At the time the study was conducted, there was only one teacher teaching the elective subject. It was apparent that when the subject was taught, the students were free to communicate with their Mandarin teacher in Mandarin in the school settings.

The remainder of the three other Chinese teachers used other languages such as Malay or English, as the medium of instruction when conducting their teaching of the other subjects in the classroom setting. In the national secondary school being studied, the students had been requested by the other three Chinese teachers not to use Mandarin when they were interacting with each other in the classroom setting. Thus, the students used Mandarin when communicating with the three Chinese teachers in informal settings only or when there were not too many people around. This demonstrates the limited opportunity for the students to use Mandarin as the communication language with their teachers. Moreover, the students also used Mandarin with their school mates of Chinese ethnicity only when there were no other school mates of other ethnicities. Clearly, code switching was practised by the student interviewees when schoolmates of other ethnicities especially Malays, were present. The Mandarin language practice of the Chinese students in the national secondary school was as Gal (1979) observed in Oberwart: the Hungarian language users were expected to shift to German in the presence of German monolingual in a public space (Fasold, 1996, p. 196). The Mandarin language users – students were expected to shift to Malay in the presence of Malay monolinguals in Malaysian national secondary schools context. The school setting also provide contexts for the students' repeated exposure to the language practice and language maintenance as a result of 'societal inequalities' which was brought out by Bonvillain (2014, p. 387). The student interviewees in the national secondary school used Mandarin as communication language with their schoolmates and teachers of same ethnicity only when there were no schoolmates and teachers of other ethnicities. Malay

was used by the student interviewees when the schoolmates of Malay ethnicity were present. This showed the education system interrupting or ignoring the unwanted contributions and usurping the rights of the Chinese students in the national secondary school to interact equally. This dispassionate assertion may marginalize and sooner or later will erase other languages (such as Mandarin in this case) from the country's linguistic landscape.

In this context, Mandarin was used in very low frequency in the national secondary school setting because it was neither the dominant medium of instruction for the subjects taught in the school nor the dominant communication language use for inter-ethnicity communication. Mandarin served as the medium of instruction only for the elective subject and so it served as the students' communication language when they were interacting with their few teachers and schoolmates who were of the same ethnicity and more importantly, only in the absence of teachers and students of other ethnicities. There is no problem for the Chinese students to use Malay for inter-ethnicity communication specifically with the students and teachers of Malay ethnicity because they are proficient in the language. On the other hand, during the intra-ethnicity communication, the students would prefer to use Mandarin because of ethnocentrism (see Harzing & Pudelko, 2013).

4.3 Language practice of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The language practice mean of the teacher respondents showed Malay was used most frequently by the teacher respondents (with the mean range between 2.5 and 4.0) followed by Mandarin (the mean range is 1.5-4.0) and English (having mean range of 2.0-3.0).

4.3.1 English language practice of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are presented in Figure 4.4.

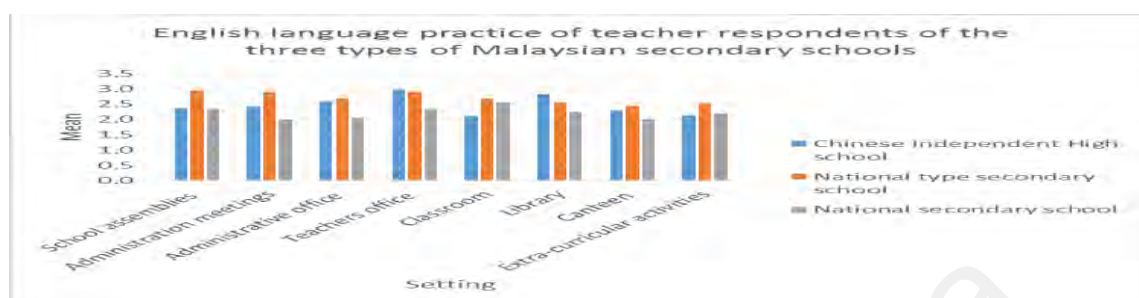


Figure 4.4: Malaysian secondary schools teacher respondents' English language practice

In this regard, it can be seen that the teacher respondents of the three types of Malaysian secondary schools 'rarely' to 'sometimes' use English in the school settings. The mean of the English language practice of teacher respondents ranged between 2.0 and 3.0.

English was noted to be used most frequently by teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school followed by the national-type secondary school. It was used least frequently in the national secondary schools.

The English language practice mean of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was between 2.0 and 3.0; the English language practice mean of the teacher respondents from the national-type and national secondary schools were between 2.0 and 2.5. It is deduced that English language practice of teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was more frequent than that of the teacher respondents from the national-type and national secondary schools.

The teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary schools have the highest mean in the teachers office setting. Thus, it is deduced that English was used most frequently by teacher respondents of these two types of school as a communication language in the teachers office setting.

However, English was least used by the teacher respondents of the national secondary schools in the administration meetings, administrative office and canteen settings. Thus, it is deduced that English was 'rarely' used as an administrative language and communication language in the national secondary school.

a) English language practice declared by teacher interviewees in Chinese Independent high school

English was used by the teacher interviewees when they were communicating with the English teachers in the school settings.

i) Teacher interviewees' language practice of English during teacher to student communication in Chinese Independent high school

As mentioned by the student interviewees, English was used as a communication language by CIS1 and CIS2 when communicating with their English teachers and schoolmates in the Just English center. The students and English teachers of the studied Chinese Independent high school were compulsory to use English as communication and education language.

The teacher interviewee CIT1 also added that all teachers at the center were aware of the different ethnicities and English was the only language which could be used by students when they were communicating with their teachers. Other language/s such as Malay was not allowed to be used at the center by the English teachers when they were communicating with their students of the studied school.

Extract 64

Researcher: ... must the teachers when they go into class teach, speak only in English?

CIT3: Yes. That is our objective or rather our motto 'in Just English to speak only English'.

Language planning not only comprises status planning and corpus planning but also acquisition planning (Cooper, 1989). Spolsky (2004) also added that acquisition planning decides what language/s is/are to be used as the medium/media of instruction

in the education system.

The objective of establishing the center was to meet the goal of just getting students and teachers alike 'to speak only English'. Moreover, the school administrators also required all the English teachers to use English when they were teaching in the classroom setting and when communicating with the students in the Just English center. Thus, it is deduced that English is supposed to be the dominant language used by the students and teachers during the teaching and learning of English when they were in the center.

The teacher interviewee CIT3 also added that English was spoken by students not only in the formal setting such as the classroom setting; it was also spoken by students in the informal setting i.e. the extra-curricular activities setting for the English society.

Language management is the specified efforts to modify or influence the language practice of an individual (Spolsky, 2004). The teacher interviewee CIT3, the English teacher of the being studied Chinese Independent high school was impressed and pleased that some of the members of the English society such as the chairman and the committee members also spoke very fluent English.

English center was established by the Chinese Independent high school which was studied as pilot study in this research. Nunan (2003) suggested that the learners of seven countries he had studied needed to be given adequate exposure to achieve consistent and measurable improvement in English. The learners should have sufficient exposure to English instruction contexts and the classroom realities or the language use of the learners will meet the curricular rhetoric. In the being studied Chinese Independent high school, the school administrators provided a conducive environment for the students to practice the language i.e. also established the Just English center.

ii) Teacher interviewees' language practice of English during teacher to teacher communication in Chinese Independent high school

Extract 66

CIT1: 对。像我们的英文中心主管在开会的时候报告，他是用英语的。那我们有话要对他，就跟他沟通的时候也是用英语。

[CIT1: Yes. For example the head of our English department used English when she was reporting. We used English when we were communicating with her.]

CIT1: 啊，英语说不通的时候就用马来语呀；马来语说不通的时候用英语呀。行得通啊，没有固定的模式啊。就是其实都是日常的沟通。

[CIT1: When we are unable to continue our communication in English then we will (shift) to Malay; unable to continue in Malay then we use English. It is feasible, we do not have a fixed way (language). It is just daily communication.]

Teacher interviewee CIT1 used English when she was communicating with the head of the English department in school administration meetings setting. In addition, the head of the English department used English only when she was presenting her reports in the school meetings setting.

Nonetheless, teacher interviewee CIT1's language practice may shift between English and Malay during the school meetings setting. There was no fixed language to be used by the teachers when communicating with the English teachers who were from the center during the school meetings setting. It was claimed that as long as the communication between her and the English teachers worked, whichever language was used was not a problem.

Fasold (1999) stated that oral language practice may be taken as the primary language. Or in other words, the oral language practice is more valuable because oral language is highly resistant to conscious control, it is more natural and more authentic.

Teacher interviewee CIT1 felt comfortable when communicating with the English teachers in English. This is because it is the language that her interlocutors were trained in. She had the confidence that they would not encounter any difficulties in

using English in the school settings. It is deduced that the teachers of the being studied Chinese Independent high school preferred to converge to communicating with the non-Chinese English teachers in the language that suit the English teachers i.e. English (see Giles's Accommodation theory) though their English proficiency was not as good as the English teachers.

Teacher interviewee CIT3 also added that instead of Mandarin, English was used by the school administrators and the teachers when communicating with the English teachers only in the school meetings setting.

It is only the English teachers also communicated with other teachers and the students of the school in English in all settings. However, English may not always use by the English teachers when communicating among themselves in the center; some of them chose to use their own mother tongue such as Tamil.

This practice among the English teachers also occurred during the break time and before the class officially starts in the morning, in the teachers office setting. Nonetheless, teacher interviewee CIT3 would only use English because she does not have the same mother tongue as the other English teachers. Therefore, not all were able to communicate in their respective mother tongues.

Clearly, only English was used by the teachers when they were attending the English department meetings or the English teachers meeting in the school meetings setting.

Besides that, English was used as one of the bilingual languages used when making announcements during the Parents and Teachers Association (*PIBG*) meeting.

iii) English language practice of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Extract 72

CIT3: Yeah, the 5% I normally speak is to the guard and also the helpers, the kakak and all. I greet them in bahasa you know. I thank them in bahasa, ya. The remaining 95% of my time will be spoken in English language.

CIT3: Except this, this one photocopy person. Yeah, with her, yes. We communicate in bahasa Melayu. She is an old-timer. So she doesn't speak much in English. Of course she knows basically 'Hello', 'Hi', 'How are you'. But then, if we want, to get our photocopies done then it is in bahasa Melayu.

As can be seen from the extract, the teacher interviewee CIT3 used dual languages (bilingualism) in the school setting. A total of 95 percent of her language practice time in the school was in English because she was the English teacher in the school. The remaining five percent can be attributed to the teacher interviewee CIT3 not practising English when communicating with the non-academic staff such as the security guards and the helpers, who were of Malay ethnicity, in the school settings. The teacher interviewee CIT3 converged to using Malay as communication language with the non-academic staff to show solidarity. She had to choose a language – Malay to suit the needs of her interlocutors – the non-academic staff whom did not have the competency in English (see Giles's Accommodation theory).

However, an employee for photocopying who is of Chinese ethnicity used simple English for greetings when she was communicating with the teacher interviewee CIT3. Nonetheless, as observations showed, the two participants may shift their language to accommodate the interlocutor when they want to discuss more. The teacher interviewee CIT3 tend to use one language (Malay) in one particular domain (communicating with the non-academic with no English competency) and another language (English) in another domain (communicating with the Chinese photocopying lady). These two languages exist side by side throughout the community and each

language plays a definite role (Ferguson, 1972).

As shown in Figure 4.4, English was 'rarely' practised by the teacher respondents i.e. the teachers who were teaching Malay, English and Mandarin subjects of Malaysian secondary schools in the school settings. The highest mean of the English language practice of the teacher respondents was noted to be in the classroom setting by the English teachers; it was practised as the education language.

As mentioned before, the teacher interviewee CIT3 – the English teacher speaks English 95% of the time, English was also mainly used by the English teachers only as an education language and communication language with the students in the Just English center in the Chinese Independent high school. English was used by the English teachers when they were communicating with the students in the extra-curricular activities setting.

The teachers used English when communicating with other English teachers in the school settings. Furthermore, in the formal school meetings and the informal Parent and Teacher Association meetings, English was also used.

The teachers did not use English when they were communicating with the non-academic staff in the school settings. Thus, it is deduced that English was used as a communication language by students and teachers only when they were communicating with the English teachers in the school settings.

b) English language practice declared by teacher interviewees in national-type secondary school

The ethnicity of the interlocutors determined the English language practice of the teacher interviewees.

i) English language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to student communication

English was used by the teacher interviewee NTT3 as an education language and a communication language in the school settings.

Extract 73

NTT3: Yeah. As an English teacher, I teach in English and the language I speak to the students is only English.

Teacher interviewee NTT3 used only English when she was conducting her teaching in the classroom setting. She also used English when she was communicating with her students in the school settings.

The teacher interviewee NTT3 was different from other teachers in rural areas as mentioned in the study of Nunan (2003). Nunan found there was a significant number of English teachers in Malaysia did not have sufficient command of English language to conduct their classes with confidence. However, the teacher interviewee NTT3 taught and spoke to the students in English only confidently.

One of the reasons for English language practice mean of the teacher respondents from Chinese Independent high school was higher than the teacher respondents of national-type secondary school was the being studied Chinese Independent high school established the Just English center. The English teachers used English as education and communication language in teacher to student communication when they were at the center.

ii) English language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to teacher communication

The ethnicity of the interlocutors may determine the language practice of the teacher interviewees when communicating with the teachers of the school.

Extract 74

NTT3: I communicate with the Chinese teachers in English ... also some Indian teachers.

English was used by the teacher interviewee NTT3 when communicating with the teachers who were of different ethnicities such as Chinese and Indians in the school settings. This is because the teacher interviewee NTT3 was of Indian ethnicity. Furthermore, the teacher interviewee NTT1 also used English to communicate with NTT3 but she used Malay to communicate with the Malay teachers in the school settings. Thus, it is deduced that language practice of the teacher interviewees NTT1, NTT2 and NTT3 of being studied national-type secondary school was determined by the ethnicity of the interlocutors and not by the subject taught by the interlocutors in the school.

According to Fishman (1972), domain analysis can be a useful method of looking at the linguistic realisations of speaker by focusing on the sociological factors. In the school domain, the teacher interviewees NTT1 used English and Malay as communication languages because of the sociological factor i.e. the ethnicity/ies of the interlocutor/s.

iii) English language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Extract 76

研究者:那么比如说非教职员呢?比如说那些staff呢?

[Researcher: And with that non-academic staff? For example that staff?

NTT1: 马来文。

[NTT1: Malay.]

Malay was practised by the teacher interviewee NTT1 when she was communicating with the non-academic staff who were of Malay or Indian ethnicity in the school settings. English was not practised with the non-academic non-Chinese staff.

The teacher interviewees NTT1 and NTT3 converged to using Malay as communication language with the non-academic staff of the being studied national-type secondary school to show solidarity.

In the school setting, English was practised by some teachers who were on duty during the English Week event in the school assemblies setting to present their report or to make announcements. They were mainly the English teachers in the school.

The student interviewee NTS1 also commented that as the English proficiency of the teachers in the school was low, there was a need for the teachers to improve their English proficiency by practising it more.

This is supported by the teacher interviewee NTT3, who also noted that the duty teachers, who were also English subject teacher, made many grammatical mistakes when making announcements during the school assemblies setting during the previous time.

The English language practice of the teachers in the national-type secondary school was determined by different factors when communicating with different interlocutors.

For instance, English was practised by the English teachers as an education language during the teaching and learning process and as a communication language with students in the classroom setting.

This was practised by teacher interviewee NTT3 when communicating with the teachers who were of Chinese ethnicity as well as teachers of Indian ethnicity. In the case of teacher interviewee NTT1 English was practised with interlocutors of different ethnicity, specifically Indian. Based on this, it is deduced that the ethnicity of the interlocutors is the determining factor of the teacher's English language practice in the school settings.

However, the different ethnicity of the non-academic staff did not trigger the English language practice of the teachers when communicating. This was noticed in the teacher interviewee NTT1.

c) English language practice declared by teacher interviewees in national secondary school

English was used by the teacher interviewees when communicating with teachers of other ethnicities except Malay.

i) English language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to student communication

Extract 80

Researcher: ... when your students come to the staff room, how will you talk to your students?

NST3: Then it will be formal, of course.

Researcher: Formal. ... Ok, it means it will definitely be the same when you are in the classroom in English. So, when you are teaching in the class, do you use 100% English?

NST3: Yes.

The teacher interviewee NST3 used English as a communication language when communicating with her students in all school settings as well as a formal language whether at formal settings or informal settings.

Besides that, English was also used as an education language by NST3 in the classroom setting when teaching English, using it 100 percent of the time in the classroom setting. Despite this, she agreed that there were some difficulties. For instance, her explanations would be made in English but in the midst of addressing the needs of those students who were too weak in English, she was forced to explain by inserting one or two words in Malay.

Clearly, although NST3 was of Indian ethnicity and is proficient in Tamil, she did not communicate with the Indian students in Tamil within the school settings.

Since her role in the school was as an English subject teacher, the communication language that she used with her students was also in the formal language of English. If she practised her mother tongue, Tamil, with the Indian students, she would not be playing her role as an English teacher in the school.

Based on this, it is deduced that the ethnicity of the student interlocutors was not the determining factor of the teacher interviewee's language practice. It was her role as an English subject teacher in the school that determined her language practice.

According to Tollefson's (1999) explanation about the converging or diverging language practice are based on the socio-historical status of the language user shaped by the relationships of power and domination. In the teacher to student communication of the being studied national secondary school, the teacher interviewee NST3 used English to communicate with all her students in all school settings. The students converged to using English as communication language with their English teacher, the teacher interviewee NST3 who had more power.

ii) English language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to teacher communication

Extract 83

NST3: I use Malay with my Malay friends. I use English with my Chinese friends and if I have my Indian friends, I speak English and Tamil.

The teacher interviewee NST3 also used multilingualism when she was communicating with the teachers in the school settings. Here, her language practice was determined by the ethnicity of her interlocutors. English was used as a communication language by NST3 when communicating with the teachers who were either Chinese or Indian in ethnicity. However, English was not used as a communication language when communicating with teachers of Malay ethnicity, in the school settings. In addition, English was also practised by NST3 as one of the communication languages in the

administrative meetings' setting. Thus, it can be said that two languages were simultaneously practised by the same teacher; one for her peers and one when dealing with top administrators of the school in meetings.

Although teacher interviewee NST1 used English when she was communicating with the head of the English panel, the response from the head of the English panel was not in English but another language - Malay. It appears that this is the norm with the head of the English panel who practised Malay when she was communicating with all teachers in the school.

In this context, the language practice of teacher interviewee NST3 and the head of the English panel, revealed a controversial language practice phenomenon among English teachers in the school. On the one hand, NST3 used English when communicating with teachers of Indian and Chinese ethnicity in the school settings but not so when communicating with the head of the English panel. Despite the fact that both were English subject teachers of the school, another language was being practised even though a conversation may have been started by NST1 in English.

Language can become a formal or informal source of power (SanAntonio, 1987). The head of the English panel chose Malay to communicate with teacher interviewee NST3 instead of English because of ethnocentrism. The head of English panel used the language of her ethnicity – Malay in teacher to teacher communication in all school settings.

iii) English language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Extract 86

研究员:都是国语?行政人员呀或者是那种非教职员?全部都是用国语?
[Researcher: All in Malay? The administrators or that non-academic staff? All in Malay?]
NST1: 嗯。
[NST1: Emm.]
研究员:如果没有错
[Researcher: If I am not mistaken]
NST1:我这边是纯马来语多。
[NST1: Here we are (using) more Malay.]
研究员:纯马来语多。
[Researcher: More (teachers are using) pure Malay.]

Clearly, English was not spoken as a communication language when the teachers were communicating with the non-academic staff in the administrative office setting. Malay was used, serving as the dominant communication language practised by teachers in the school settings; many of whom were monolingual in the school settings.

In the being studied national secondary school, the teacher interviewees NST1 was the only teacher for the subject of Chinese and teacher interviewee NST3 was the English teacher. Both of them had high competency of Mandarin and English but converged to using other language – Malay as communication language to show solidarity (Giles's Accommodation theory) and also because of necessity.

From the interview, it was noted that teacher interviewee NST3 may be able to speak some English during the school assemblies; she conveyed announcements in English during the school assemblies. Although English was used, there was a needs to translate the announcements into Malay several times.

Despite the fact that English was given the status of the second most important language in the Malaysian education language policy, it was not practised as a second language by the school administrators and the teachers on duty during the school assemblies setting. In this respect, the teacher interviewee NST3 felt that it was not

acceptable that the Arabic language was practised instead by the teachers on duty during the school assemblies setting. The teacher interviewee NST2 described the Arabic language practice as one that would not be beneficial to the audience because it was not understood.

In the national secondary school, English was used by the teacher interviewee NST3 as an education language in the classroom setting and as a communication language when communicating with her students who were of the same or different ethnicity, whether in formal school settings or informal school setting.

There was also a controversial practice among the English teachers in the school when communicating with the teachers working in the school. Apparently, not all the English subject teachers used English when communicating with other teachers in the school settings.

In addition, English was also not used by teachers when communicating with non-academic staff in the school settings. This is because the teachers of the national secondary schools were monolingual of Malay hence the other language-Malay, was used by the teachers with the non-academic staff in the school settings.

4.3.1.1 English language practice variant of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are provided in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 English language practice variant of teacher respondents in different school settings in three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Settings	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
School assemblies	187.3	240.3	184.7
Administration meetings	257.6	222.8	182.3
Administrative office	237.6	227.2	183.6

As can be seen above, the teacher respondents of Malaysian secondary schools showed a significant difference in language practice in three settings: school assemblies setting, administration meetings setting and administrative office setting.

The English language practice of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary school is significantly different from the English language practice of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school. It appears that the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school were in between. Their English language practice in the three settings mentioned was not significantly different from those in the national-type secondary school and the national secondary school.

However, the sum rank value of the English language practice of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary school is higher than the sum rank value of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school. Based on this, it is deduced that English was more frequently used by the teacher respondents of the national-type secondary school than those from the national secondary school.

In the being studied national-type secondary school, English was used as the communication language in the school assemblies setting by the English teachers only during the English Week. This is because Malay was the dominant communication language in the school assemblies setting even though the majority group of the students and teachers in the school were Chinese.

English was not used as the communication language in the administration meetings. The English teachers and teachers of Chinese ethnicity (majority group) in the school converged to practising Malay as the communication language during the administration meetings because of the presence of the teachers of Malay ethnicity but specifically because it is a government sponsored school.

The observable behaviour shown by the English teachers to follow the choice of Malay as the dominant communication language in the administration meetings is

reflecting Hyme's (1962) ethnography of communication. According to Hyme, the context of language use and how the language community behaves through the use of a selected language can enable us to understand the community's culture. In this study, Malay was practised by the Malay English teachers who did not follow the choices of the linguistic features they specifically in, Malays practised Malay in the national-type secondary language community (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4).

However, English was not used as the communication language by the school administrators and other teachers of the school during the school assemblies setting and the administration meetings setting despite the fact that the English teachers would be present in these settings. It appears that the language practice of the school assemblies and administration meetings in the Chinese Independent high school is opposite to the national-type secondary school. In the Chinese Independent high school, the school administrators diverged to practising Mandarin as the communication language in the mentioned settings. This is especially because in a Chinese Independent high school the majority of the teachers and students are Chinese. It has been noted that all the students in the Chinese Independent high school were proficient in Mandarin and this also includes the non-Chinese students. This is despite the fact that the English subject teachers and a few Malay teachers in the school were not proficient in Mandarin.

To overcome this issue, it appears that co-teachers who were seated next to the non-Mandarin proficient teachers would translate only the important messages for their understanding (i.e English for the English teachers or Malay for the Malay teachers) personally. In addition, it was noted that the administrators converged to practising English as a communication language only when they were communicating with the English teachers during the administration meetings. During such meetings, personal translations by other teachers were also done in Mandarin for the benefit of the administrators during the interactions between the administrators and the teachers. As

observed by Gal (1979), the Hungarian old couple use Hungarian to the monolingual German at their own home was not impolite. The use languages, Hungarian and German represented 'parallel and coordinate social groups'. In this study, the administrators in the Chinese Independent high school use Mandarin; personal translations to English and Malay was not impolite. At the same time, the three languages: English, Malay and Mandarin were representing three parallel and coordinate social groups of the teachers in the school setting of the Chinese Independent high school. The English teachers used English, Mandarin proficient teachers used Mandarin and Malay teachers used Malay.

In a similar fashion as the national-type secondary school, Malay was also used as the dominant communication language in the school assemblies setting in the national secondary school. However, the English subject teachers did not use English when they were conveying messages in the school assemblies setting. However, teacher interviewee NST3 noted that she would use English when conveying messages during the school assemblies setting and when this happens, a translation in Malay was provided so as to make sure that the audience in the assemblies could understand the message.

It was also noted that the targeted national secondary school did not organise an English Week. Normally in those schools which organise an English Week, teachers and administrators of the schools will use English to make announcements in the school assemblies setting. In addition, activities are also organise to encourage the use of English in the schools. Therefore, the studied national secondary school did not organise an English Week indicates that English was used in lower frequency in the assemblies setting than other schools.

In addition, English was neither used by the head of English panel nor the administrators in the school as a communication language during the administration

meetings and in the administrative office settings. These head of English panel and the administrators were of Malay ethnicity and in addition to that, they were also the teachers involved in teaching the *PPSMI* subjects as well as the English subject. Despite these being their duties and despite the fact that English should have been the medium of instruction for these subjects, the interviews noted from the teachers concerned indicate that this was not so. It appears that the dominant communication language of these teachers in the school was, oddly, still Malay, instead of English.

English was used by the teachers of Chinese ethnicity (majority group in the school) during inter-ethnic communication with the teachers of Indian ethnicity (minority group in the school) in the administrative office and teachers' office settings regardless of the subjects these teachers were teaching in the being studied national-type secondary school.

The teacher interviewee NTT1 used Malay when she was communicating with the head of English panel who is of Malay ethnicity, instead of English.

The patterns of language practice of the teachers in the national-type secondary school had been captured by the language users' constant and constructive interaction with other teachers in the social environment. The Indian teachers and Chinese teachers used English for inter-ethnic communication; the Malay teachers used Malay for intra-ethnicity communication and the Chinese teachers used Mandarin in intra-ethnicity communication (Spolsky, 2004, p. 7).

In the national-type secondary school, English was used with high frequency by the Chinese and Indian teachers for inter-ethnic communication but it was used with low frequency when it was practised by the teachers of Malay ethnicity.

English was the teachers' choice only when the Chinese teachers of the targeted Chinese Independent high school were communicating with the English teachers from the Just English center. Based on this, it is deduced that English was the high variety for

the teachers of the Chinese Independent high school and it also served as the inter-ethnicity communication language.

In another interview, it was also noted that the communication language used by the other Malay teachers in the being studied national secondary school would be the language that reflects their ethnicity and not their profession or professional setting.

The Malay teachers included the Malay English teachers using the dominant communication language – Malay in their intra- and inter-ethnicity communication in the school settings reflected the historical-structural relationship between the language they spoke and the groups which speak the language. According to Tollefson (1999), the socio-historical status of a language symbolises the struggle of the language community. The language choice is determined by historical and structural variables. A language which has richer history and higher socio-historical status may have more power and is more dominant which are shaped by the relationships of power and domination. The language repertoires of the language user are determined by the class they belong to and their educational level i.e. the structure. In this study, Malay language has that status of official language and it is also the dominant medium of instruction in the national secondary school. Furthermore, the Malay teachers as the majority group of teachers in the national secondary schools use Malay to shape their relationship between the Malay and Malay teachers who speak the same language.

It appears that English was only used when the four Chinese teachers were communicating with the teachers of Indian ethnicity in the school; this is also regardless of the subjects that their interlocutors were teaching. Based on this, it can be deduced that the English used by the Malay teachers was with the low frequency whereas the English used by the Chinese and Indian teachers in the inter-ethnic communication was in higher frequency.

4.3.2 Malay language practice of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are presented in Figure 4.5.

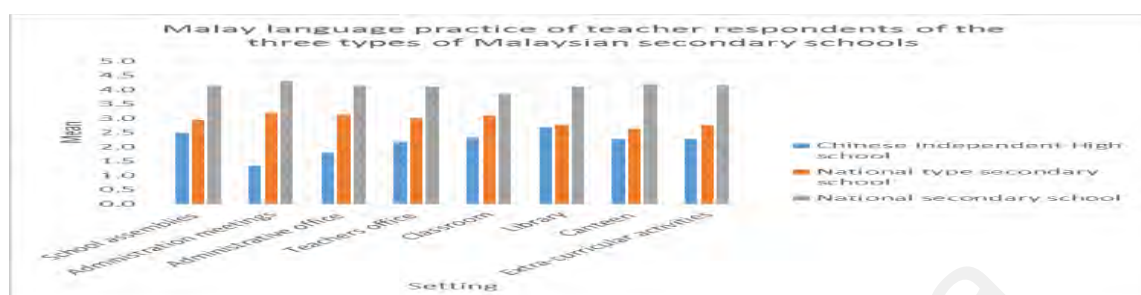


Figure 4.5: Malaysian secondary schools teacher respondents' Malay language practice

Result shows that Malay was used with a distinguishable difference by teacher respondents of the three types of Malaysian secondary schools. Teacher respondents of the national secondary schools used Malay most frequently followed by the national-type secondary schools and then the Chinese Independent high school. The teacher respondents of the national secondary school 'sometimes' to 'very often' used Malay with a mean of between 3.5 and 4.0. The teacher respondents of the national-type secondary schools 'rarely' to 'sometimes' used Malay, with a mean of between 2.5 to 3.0. On the other hand, the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school 'never' to 'rarely' used Malay, with a mean of between 1.0 and 2.5.

Malay was used most frequently in the administration meetings setting by the teacher respondents of the national secondary schools; it was used the least frequently by the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school.

The teacher respondents of the national secondary school 'very often' used Malay in the school assemblies setting, administration meetings setting, administrative office setting, teachers office setting, library setting, canteen setting and extra-curricular activities setting, with a mean value of 4.0 or more. Thus, it is deduced that Malay was used as the dominant administration language and communication language by the

teacher respondents in the national secondary schools.

Malay was 'sometimes' used by the teacher respondents of the national-type secondary schools in formal settings – the administration meetings, administrative office, teachers office and classroom, with a mean value of 3.0 or more. Thus, it is deduced that Malay was used by the teacher respondents of the national-type secondary schools as an administrative language, communication language and education language.

a) Malay language practice declared by teacher interviewees in Chinese Independent high school

Malay was used as the communication and education language by the teachers of the Chinese Independent high school when communicating with teacher of other ethnicities, in the classroom setting.

i) Teacher interviewees' language practice of Malay during teacher to student communication in the Chinese Independent high school

Extract 88

Penyelidik: Jadi saya ingin tahu ialah bahasa apa yang cikgu akan gunakan semasa pengajaran-pembelajaran dilangsung di kelas?

[Researcher: So, I would like to know what language so you speak during the teaching-learning in class.]

CIT2: Biasanya kami gunakan bahasa, BM dulu.

[CIT2: Normally we practise Malay first.]

CIT2: Sebab ada segelintir pelajar yang sederhana atau masih lemah dalam BM. Maka ada advantage lah, kebbaikannya saya guna dua bahasa.

[CIT2: Because there is a group of students whose Malay proficiency is moderate or still weak. Therefore there is advantage if I speak two languages.]

CIT2: Satu ayat bahasa dan satu lagi, supaya memudahkan mereka lebih senang memahami satu topik contohnya. Kalau-kalua pelajar kelas yang hujung sikitlah. Depan tu, kadang kala pun ada segelintir atau tengok kelas tulah, terpulang kepada penguasaan bahasa Malaysia tu.

[CIT2: A sentence in Malay and another in (the other language), in order to help them to understand the topic. Is only for students from the behind (weak) classes. For those students in good classes sometimes there is a group of students who are weak in Malay.]

In the classroom setting, Malay was used as the education language by the teacher interviewee CIT2. However, two languages were used in the classroom setting with the weak students whose Malay language proficiency may be low. It was deemed that the use of two languages could help students' comprehension of the topic.

The language/s used for teaching the subject of Malay language was/were different from the teaching of the subject of English. The teacher interviewee CIT2 (the Malay language teacher) chose Malay and Mandarin as the media of instruction for the teaching and learning of Malay language subject. But the teacher interviewee CIT3 chose to teach the subject of English by using English as the only medium of instruction at the Just English center though there were students of both teacher interviewees CIT2 and CIT3 weak in the language/s these teachers were teaching.

This difference was occurred because the being studied Chinese Independent high school administrators implemented a language policy that all the teachers and students were compulsory to use English as the only medium of instruction and communication language in the teaching and learning of English in the Just English center. Furthermore this language policy involved only the teaching and learning of English but not the subject of Malay language in the same school.

The English language policy implemented in the targeted school was different from the finding of Chua (2012) stated that the language policy of Malaysia was based on the relationship between races. This language policy involved all teachers and students of all races in the school when they were at the center.

Malay was also used in the extra-curricular activities setting. The uniform units such as the Police Cadet (*Kadet Polis*), St John Ambulance and Scouts activities used Malay in conducting the activities. In general, members of these uniform units were sent to the headquarters for training. The officers from these headquarters spoke Malay. Therefore, the school will appoint a teacher of Malay ethnicity or a teacher who is

proficient in Malay, to be the advisor of these uniform units.

However, the language use of above mentioned setting was based on the relationship between races as mentioned by Chua (2012). The school administrators appointed a teacher who was proficient in Malay as the advisors of the uniform units because Malay was needed and necessary to be used as the communication language with the officers from the headquarters.

ii) Teacher interviewees' language practice of Malay during teacher to teacher communication in the Chinese Independent high school

Malay and English were used by the teachers of the Chinese Independent high school when communicating with the teachers of other ethnicities in the school settings.

It appears that teacher interviewee CIT1 did not have a fixed pattern of language practice when communicating with teachers of other ethnicities in the school settings. The conversation conducted could be shifting to Malay and other language and vice versa especially when she had difficulties in conveying her message to the teachers of other ethnicities.

Extract 91

研究员:那么比如说国语老师,他们就是,就国语的老师。当他们在开会的时候,那么当他们要,有什么意见或者要发言?

[Researcher: If the Malay teachers, the teacher teaching the subject of Malay, when they are attending the (administration) meetings, would like to say something, what language do they use to express their comment?

CIT1:发言?国语。

[CIT1: To say something? Malay.]

研究员:他用国语,所以让他用国语?那么你们其他的老师就用,就是都用华语?

[Researcher: They speak Malay, so are they allowed to speak Malay? Then the other teachers, also used?]

CIT1:也用国语跟他。对,如果是老师是用国语,那我们回应他的方法当然是用国语。

[CIT1: They also use Malay (to communicate) with them. Yes, if a teacher speak Malay, then we will definitely respond in Malay.]

Malay was used by teachers who were teaching Malay as well as by other teachers, for the purpose of responding to these teachers teaching Malay in the administration meetings settings. However, Malay was spoken mainly among the teachers who were teaching Malay in the Chinese Independent high school. There was a total of six teachers of Malay ethnicity in the school. Malay was considered a compulsory language to be used by the teachers during the Malay panel meetings.

In the school assemblies setting and the administrative meetings setting, the principal or the chairperson spoke Mandarin. Those teachers with a good command of Malay would be seated beside the teachers of Malay ethnicity and translation would be carried out individually by these teachers during the meetings which were conducted by the principal using only Mandarin.

As suggested by Gill (2005), it was important for Malaysian government to stress the critical need of national identity and global competitiveness could co-exist in education. In the being studied Chinese Independent high school, the non-Malay teachers converged to using Malay in teacher to teacher communication was not only for solidarity but also for the well-being of the teachers of Malay ethnicity.

In addition, the practice of code-switching to English happened when the teachers had difficulty to continue the conversation deduced that the teachers of Malay ethnicity in the targeted school were willing to use English as communication language. This pattern of language practice was different from the Malay teachers of studied national-type secondary school which will be discussed in more detail in following section.

iii) Malay language practice of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Five percent of the language practice of teacher interviewee CIT3 was Malay while the other 95 percent was in other languages. Malay was used by CIT3 when communicating

with non-academic staff such as sanitors and security guards. Simple Malay may also be used with a senior photocopier lady staff in the school when giving her instruction of the task required in the school settings.

Although Malay was used as an education language by the teachers in the Chinese Independent high school to teach the subject of Malay in the classroom setting, bilingual teaching was necessary.

As mentioned before, the teacher interviewee CIT1 did not converge to using Malay as communication language with the non-academic staff who were non-Chinese in the targeted school. Giles's Accommodation theory stated that an individual converges to using the language his/her interlocutor needs to show solidarity. In this context, teacher interviewee CIT1 did not mean not showing solidarity with the non-Chinese non-academic staff. This was because not needed for the teachers of the school converge to using Malay as they were proficient in the dominant communication as practised by the teachers of targeted national-type secondary school. The pattern of Malay language used by the teachers of national-type secondary school in teacher to non-academic staff will also be discussed in detail in next section.

Although Malay was used as an education language by the teachers in the Chinese Independent high school to teach the subject of Malay in the classroom setting, bilingual teaching was necessary.

Malay was clearly used as the communication language in the extra-curricular activities setting, especially when the students were sent to the headquarters for training. Since only Malay was used by such trainers, the same language was used when students organized the activities at the school level.

However, two languages may be simultaneously used. For instance, CIT1 practised bilingualism i.e. Malay and another language when communicating with the teachers of other ethnicities.

Only Malay was spoken by the teachers in the meetings of the Malay panel as all the six teachers involved in the panel were of Malay ethnicity. In addition, Malay was also used by the teachers when communicating with the security workers and cleaners.

Malay was also used during grand events and important functions or ceremonies attended by invited guests, officers, *Datuks* (an awarded title in federal level), *YBs* (the abbreviation of The Honorable) of non-Chinese ethnicity. Therefore, it can be said that Malay was used during the occasions which were related to the government sector.

b) Malay language practice declared by teacher interviewees in the national-type secondary school

Malay was practised by the teacher interviewee as the dominant education language and communication language with interlocutors who were of Malay ethnicity.

i) Malay language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to student communication

Extract 94

Penyelidik: Bahasa apakah yang cikgu gunakan semasa berkomunikasi dengan pelajar di sekolah?

[Researcher: What language was practised by teacher when communicating with your students?]

NTT2: Bahasa Melayu.

[NTT2: Malay.]

Penyelidik: Adakah cikgu akan gunakan bahasa yang lain sekiranya berada di luar bilik darjah?

[Researcher: Will you speak other languages when (you are) outside the classroom?]

NTT2: Sama sahaja.

[NTT2: The same.]

The teacher interviewee NTT2 used Malay when communicating with the students in the school settings. It was used as an education language in the classroom setting and as a communication language in other school settings.

The teacher interviewee NTT2 as a Malay language teacher fulfilled Malay serves as national language and education language in Article 152 of Malaysian Constitution. In addition, in Malaysian Constitution, a Malay is an individual who speaks Malay and is a Muslim. The student interviewee NTS1 commended the Malay teachers of the school needed to improve their English proficiency. It can be deduced that though English is the second most important language, it was totally not used as second language by NTT2.

ii) Malay language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to teacher communication

Extract 95

NTT1: 马来人讲英文? 啊, 好像没有咧!

[NTT1: Do Malays speak English? It seems like nobody does!]

NTT1: 是。Mashita, 我想一下。我忘记跟他讲什么。是, 我跟他讲马来文。

[NTT1: Yes. Mashita, let me think. I can't remember I communicated with her in what language. Yes, I communicated with her in Malay.]

The teacher interviewee NTT1 agreed that teachers of Malay ethnicity who were teaching English only used Malay when communicating with teachers of the same or different ethnicity. NTT1 also confirmed that her language practice, when communicating with other teachers in the school, was determined by the ethnicity of her interlocutors. The choice of language practice of NTT1 supported the finding of Chua (2012) stated the language policy of Malaysia was based on the relationship between races. In this context, NTT1 used Malay based on the needs of her interlocutors to solidarity but not based on the professional of her interlocutor.

However, teacher interviewee NTT2 a Malay teacher used Malay when communicating with the English teachers or teachers of other ethnicities. Thus, it can be deduced that teacher interviewee NTT2 only used Malay with all the teachers in all the school settings. This is because she was monolingual in the Malay language.

Malay was also used as the dominant communication language in the administration meetings setting especially when all the teachers of the same subject attended the meeting. This is because the teachers have been habitually using Malay for a long time as the communication language; Malay was used in the formal school settings such as the administrative meetings setting.

Furthermore, the administrators and teachers used Malay only when communicating with the teachers of Malay ethnicity. This fashion of language practice in the targeted national-type secondary school is different from the Chinese Independent high school in which the Malay teachers may use English as communication language with the non-Malay teachers.

iii) Malay language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Malay was practised by teacher interviewee NTT1 when communicating with non-academic staff in the school settings.

Spolsky (2004) stated that language practice is the habitual pattern an individual demonstrates when selecting the language/s among the varieties available in his/her linguistic repertoire. In the being studied national-type secondary school, the teachers habitually used Malay only as communication language with the non-academic staff. This is because Malay was used as the official language as enacted in Article 152 and it is supposed to be used as the dominant education language in Malaysian education language policy.

As mentioned before, the Malay teachers of the school were monolingual of Malay language, so as the Malay non-academic staff. The Malay teacher interviewee NTT2 and non-Malay teacher interviewees NTT1 and NTT3 used Malay as communication language in teacher to non-academic staff communication to show solidarity (see Giles's Accommodation theory) and it was necessary to use Malay

language in the school settings.

In the national-type secondary school, the teachers who were of Malay ethnicity only spoke Malay when communicating with students, teachers or non-academic staff.

However, it was slightly different for teachers who were of Chinese and Indian ethnicity. First, Malay was used by these teachers when communicating with teachers of Malay ethnicity. Malay was also practised by all the teachers in the school whenever they were communicating with non-academic staff or visitors. Based on this, it is deduced that Malay is the dominant language practised by the teachers in the national-type secondary school.

c) Malay language practice declared by teacher interviewees in national secondary school

The teacher interviewees spoken Malay as the dominant education language and communication language in the school settings.

i) Malay language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to student communication

Extract 98

Penyelidik: Tapi sekiranya, macam contohnya kelas puan dekat kelas ni gunakan campuran bahasa Melayu dengan bahasa Inggeris. Tapi sekiranya pun jumpa pelajar dekat library, dekat perpustakaan. Adakah masih campur?

[Researcher: What if, for example in your class, Malay and English were being used in the class. When meeting your students in the library, will you use Malay and English also?]

NST2: Ya, campur, campur.

[NST2: Yes. Mixing (both languages).]

Penyelidik: Ke mana pun masih.

[Researcher: It means at any places you will use Malay and English.]

NST2: Campur-campur sebab kadang-kadang kita jumpa pelajar Cina, dia, kita nak sampaikan. Saya memang campur campurlah. Saya pun sedang belajar... Biasanya kita bertemu dengan pelajar Cina dengan Indianslah yang saya akan cakap campur-campur.

[NST2: Mixing (both languages). Because sometimes I met a Chinese student, who was unable to communicate. I definitely mix (both languages). I am also learning... Normally when meeting the Chinese and Indian students then I will mix (both languages).]

The mixing of Malay and English was allowed when students were communicating with the teacher interviewee NST2. This was only permitted when communicating with students of Chinese and Indian ethnicity, in most of the school settings. The aim was to allow those students with low Malay language proficiency to be able to communicate with the teacher interviewee NST2. Some of the Chinese students wanted to gain comprehension and convey their message, during the conversation between NST2 and the students, they used Malay and English. Through the mixing of two languages, NST2 also has the opportunity to learn another language.

Tollefson (1999) critique the convergence of language practice was because of the relationships of power and domination that is the socio-historical status of the language users. As Malay was the dominant communication and education language used in the national secondary school, students converged to using Malay when communicating with their all Malay teachers and the teachers used Malay as medium of instruction in the classroom settings.

However the teacher interviewee NST2 who had the power allowed her students who had deficit in Malay language to code mix with English enable their conversation was successful. This was different from the language practice of the teacher interviewee NTT2 who used only Malay in the school settings.

ii) Malay language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to teacher communication

Extract 99

Penyelidik: Bilik Guru?

[Researcher: In Teachers' office?]

NST2: Bahasa Melayu.

[NST2: Malay.]

Penyelidik: Bahasa Melayulah. Jadi kalau sekiranya guru bahasa Inggeris pun gunakan bahasa Melayu?

[Researcher: Malay. With the English teacher also Malay?]

NST2: Bahasa Melayu. Campurlah.

[NST2: Malay. Mixed]

Although Malay was used as the communication language by the teachers in the teachers office setting, the mixing of Malay with English was also used as the communication language by the English teachers instead of only English as practice by the English teachers of being studied Chinese Independent high school.

It is deduced that the English teachers of Malay ethnicity in the national secondary school were similar to the local managers of the Asian Multinational Companies (MNCs), with high degree of ethnocentrism (see Harzing & Pudelko, 2013). The Malay teachers chose the language of their ethnic identity which was Malay instead of English, the language of their profession as their intra and inter-ethnicity communication language.

The finding of Muriatul & Ting (2015) also could explain the language choice of Malay teachers of national secondary school in teacher to teacher communication. Language is the most salient ethnic identity marker of the respondents in the study. The head of English panel who was a Malay teacher decided to use Malay as communication language with teacher interviewee NST1 though NST1 started the conversation in English.

Extract 100

Penyelidik: Mesyuarat pun sama. Semasa mesyuarat tu tak ada campur sikit ke, serba sikit bahasa Inggeris ke, apa pun?

[Researcher: In meetings also the same. Won't there be mixing with a little bit of English during the meetings, or in other cases?]

NST2: Tak ada.

[NST2: No.]

Penyelidik: Ketua Panitia Bahasa Inggeris?

[Researcher: How about the head of English Panel?]

NST2: Tak ada. Dia boleh bertutur bahasa Melayu dengan penyelia petang. Cuma bahasa Inggeris tu kalau soalan tu datang dari bahasa Inggeris, dia jawab bahasa Inggerislah. Tapi kami tak kisah pun. Kalau nak jawab, jawablah apa pun.

[NST2: No. The head of English Panel can converse with the Supervisor of the afternoon session in Malay. English is used only if questioned in English, then she would answer in English. But we don't mind. If anybody would like to answer during the meeting, he/she can answer in whatever (language).]

It was explained by teacher interviewee NST2 that Malay was used by the teachers and the school administrators during the administration meetings' setting. The head of the English panel also practised Malay when communicating with the supervisor of the afternoon session.

Nonetheless, English was practised by the head of the English panel during the administration meetings' setting when answering the question(s); however, this is only if the question(s) forwarded to her were in English. It was noted that the teachers who attended did not mind which language was used.

iii) Malay language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Extract 101

Penyelidik: Jadi sekiranya bahasa yang digunakan di pejabat pentadbiran memang bahasa Melayulah?

[Researcher: So the language used in the administrative office is definitely Malay?]

NST2: Bahasa Melayulah.

[NST2: Malay.]

Both teacher interviewees NST2 and NST1 used Malay when communicating with non-academic staff in the school settings. NST1 also agreed that the language practice of her school is more inclined towards Malay.

Starting from the implementation of the Razak report, Malaysian Ministry of Education aimed to put Malay as the national language in the country to instil national unity. The teacher interviewee NST1, a Chinese teacher used Malay as the communication language with the non-academic staff of Malay and Indian ethnicity. It is deduced that Malay is the choice of language for inter-ethnicity communication in Malaysian school settings specifically in the national secondary school.

As for teacher interviewee NST2 who was teaching the Malay subject in the school, the mixing of Malay and English was done as an education language and

communication language in the school.

It appears that Malay was practised when she was communicating with the teachers in the teachers' office setting but Malay was mixed with English when she was communicating with some English subject teachers. Nonetheless, only Malay was practised when she was communicating with the non-academic staff, in the school setting. Thus, it is deduced that Malay was the dominant communication language practised by the teachers of the national secondary school. It was also noted that some of the English subject teachers practised Malay as a habitual language with other teachers of the school regardless of being of the same or different ethnicity.

4.3.2.1 Malay language practice variant of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are provided in Table 4.5

Table 4.5 Malay language practice variant of teacher respondents in different school settings in three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Settings	sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
School assemblies	45.8	79.5	201.1
Administration meetings	13.2	98.2	200.8
Administrative office	22.0	102.3	200.2
Teachers office	48.2	110.4	198.8
Classroom	88.2	133.7	195.8
Library	71.4	91.0	199.5
Canteen	46.8	73.4	201.5
Extra-curricular activities	58.5	89.9	200.0

From the statistics given in the table, it can be noted that the Malay language practice of the teacher respondents in the Malaysian secondary schools is significantly different in all settings. The sum rank value of the Malay language practice of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school was the highest. This is followed by the sum rank value of the teacher respondents of the national type

secondary school and finally, the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school.

Based on this, it is deduced that Malay was most frequently used by the teacher respondents from the national secondary school followed by national type secondary school. Clearly, Malay was used least frequently by the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school. The significant difference shown in the Malay language practice of the teacher respondents contained two patterns:

i) The Malay language practice of teacher respondents was significantly different in three types of secondary schools

The Malay language practice of the teacher respondents of the three types of secondary schools was significantly different in two settings i.e. the administration meetings setting and the administrative office setting.

Unlike the national-type secondary school, the administrators of the Chinese Independent high school did not converge to practising Malay as the communication language in the administration meetings setting even though there were six teachers of Malay ethnicity. They continued to practise the dominant communication language – Mandarin. This is possible partly the non-Chinese non-academic staff of the school were also able to speak Mandarin as the communication language. Those non-Chinese teachers who were not proficient in Mandarin did not have communication difficulties because they could get the assistant from the other teachers who had the competency.

This showed the language practice of the administrators was not determined by the language users – the Malay teachers did not understand Mandarin practised. The language practice of this school was based on the historical-structural relationship between the languages and the groups which speak the language (Tollefson, 1999). The language choice of the language users is determined by historical and structural variables. In the being studied Chinese Independent high school, the Chinese are the

majority of administrators, teachers and students in the school who have the higher social status in the school. Mandarin is the dominant communication language and medium of instruction. Therefore Mandarin - the mother tongue of this majority group and Mandarin is the more powerful language and dominant language in the school instead of Malay.

However, Malay was used as the dominant communication language during the Malay panel meetings by the teachers who were teaching the subject. The minutes of the meetings were also written in Malay. Based on this, it is deduced that Malay was used with higher frequency than the other teachers by the teachers of Malay ethnicity and the Malay panel. At the same time, Malay was used in low frequency in the school administration meetings and administrative office settings because the dominant language in the school, Mandarin, was used.

In the national-type secondary school, the teachers used Malay when they were communicating with the non-academic staff in the administrative office setting. This is because all the non-academic staff of the school were either of Malay or Indian ethnicity. In this regard, Malay was used as the dominant communication language by the teachers during inter-ethnic communication in the administrative office setting. Based on the data taken from student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2, it was apparent that Malay was also used when the interviewees were communicating with the administrators of the same ethnicity i.e. Chinese ethnicity. Malay was perceived by the students as a formal language, so it should be used when these students are in the administrative setting, regardless of the ethnicity of their interlocutors.

As argued by Tollefson (1999), the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 converged to use Malay language in the school settings was determined by power and domination. The school administrators converging to use Malay during the assemblies has resulted in NTS1 and NTS2 to perceive Malay is the formal language that should be

practised in the formal setting. Though the Chinese are the majority of the school administrators, teachers and students (as described in the Chinese Independent high school context); and the NTS1, NTS2 and school administrators had the proficiency in Mandarin, Malay was used as the more power and dominant language in the national-type secondary school settings.

Using Malay as the dominant communication language is not used by the teachers of the school. The teachers of Chinese ethnicity do not use Malay as the dominant communication language in the administrative office setting because all the administrators of the school are Chinese. The dominant communication language between the Chinese teachers and school administrators was Mandarin. As stated by Fasold (1996, p. 192) a language user is using his/her language choice/s to reveal his/her cultural values. In the national-type secondary school, the Chinese cultural values and solidarity between the Chinese teachers and the administrators was revealed through their language choice of using Mandarin in intra-ethnicity communication.

However, Malay is used by all the teachers during the administration meetings. The administrators used Malay for intra-ethnicity and inter-ethnicity communication during the meetings. This is done because there are teachers of Malay ethnicity and Indian ethnicity who were not proficient in Mandarin. Malay was used instead of English even though the teachers who were of Malay ethnicity and Indian ethnicity were the minority group in the national-type secondary school.

Malay, the national language of Malaysia, is used as the official language in all Malaysian government offices – including the government sponsored schools. Therefore, Malay was used as the official language in formal settings such as the administration meetings in the schools. The power and dominance (Tollefson, 1999) of Malay were the determining factors of the language practice of the administrators when they were chairing the meetings and the teachers of Chinese ethnicity (the majority in

the school whose dominant communication language is Mandarin), Malay ethnicity (a minority in the school whose dominant communication language is Malay), and Indian ethnicity (a minority in the school whose dominant communication language is English when communicating with the Chinese teachers and Indian teachers but Malay when communicating with the Malay teachers).

Using Malay as the dominant communication language is not used by the teachers of the school. The teachers of Chinese ethnicity do not use Malay as the dominant communication language in the administrative office setting because all the administrators of the school are Chinese. The dominant communication language between the Chinese teachers and school administrators was Mandarin. As stated by Fasold (1996) a language user is using his/her language choice/s to reveal his/her cultural values. In the national-type secondary school, the Chinese cultural values and solidarity between the Chinese teachers and the administrators was revealed through their language choice of using Mandarin in intra-ethnicity communication.

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Malay, the national language of Malaysia, is used as the official language in all Malaysian government offices – including the government sponsored schools. Therefore, Malay was used as the official language in formal settings such as the administration meetings in the schools. The power and dominance (Tollefson, 1999) of Malay were the determining factors of the language practice of the administrators of the being studied national-type secondary school when they were chairing the meetings and

the teachers of Chinese ethnicity (the majority in the school whose dominant communication language is Mandarin), Malay ethnicity (a minority in the school whose dominant communication language is Malay), and Indian ethnicity (a minority in the school whose dominant communication language is English when communicating with the Chinese teachers and Indian teachers but Malay when communicating with the Malay teachers) were all present for the meeting.

Thus, it is deduced that Malay is used in high frequency in the national-type secondary school during the administration meetings because it is used as the dominant communication language by the administrators and teachers while attending the meetings.

In the national secondary school, the teachers used Malay as a dominant communication language when communicating with non-academic staff as well as the administrators in the administrative office setting. This is because all the non-academic staff and the administrators of the school were either Malay or Indian in ethnicity. It was also noted that although the administrators were also teaching the subjects of *PPSMI*, they conducted their teaching in Malay and they were also using the Malay version of the textbook instead of the English one, as stipulated by the language policy of the *PPSMI*. In addition to this, it was also noted that the school administrators also used Malay as the only dominant language in the school assemblies. In this regard, it can be said that Malay is the dominant communication language of the school administrators while in the administrative office setting.

Moreover, Malay was also used as the dominant communication language in the administration meetings by all the teachers, regardless of their ethnicity and the subject they were teaching including, the Chief of the English panel.

The language practice of the school administrators and the Chief of the English panel during the administration meetings reflected the power and dominant of Malay in

the national secondary schools. According to Tollefson (1999), language choice depends on power and dominant. In the context of national secondary school, the school is the Malaysian government sponsored school, the dominant medium of instruction of most of the subjects offered in the school were in Malay and the majority of the school administrators, teachers, students and non-academic staff in the schools were Malays.

According to the profession of the school administrators who were teaching the *PPSMI* subjects and Chief of English panel who was teaching English, the medium of instruction of these subjects they were teaching was supposedly English and they were presumed to be proficient in English. However the *PPSMI* language policy showed the happening of ‘language policies are formulated, adopted and implemented for education purposes but not necessarily with the willingness by the parties at stake’ as illustrated by Ho & Wong (2000) in Gill (2005). In the Malaysian context, the *PPSMI* language policy was implemented with the aim to produce international communicators who are proficient in English; however, English was not used as medium of instruction and English textbooks were not used by the policy executors – the teachers. This may mean that the teachers who were teaching the *PPSMI* subjects were not willing to be the pawns for executing the policy, though they were made to obey all the top-down directives from the executive authorities of Malaysian government (Abd Rahim, 2002).

This phenomenon occurring at the national secondary school suggests that Malay served as the dominant communication language and it was used by the teachers when communicating with other teachers of a different ethnicity, regardless of the subjects taught. Based on the interview data, it was also apparent that all the teachers who were of Chinese and Indian ethnicity, the minority in the school, also chose to converge to the communication language of Malay when communicating with their colleagues. As evidenced through NST1 is interview, the Chief of English panel chose

Malay as the communication language. Code-switching from English to Malay was practised by NST1. As in Giles's Theory of Accommodation, NST1 had converged her language register or behaviour to choose Malay that seems to suit the needs of the Chief of English panel to show solidarity only because the interviewee NST1 was a Chinese language teacher and her interlocutor was the Chief of English panel, therefore the factor of power did not exist.

Thus, it is deduced that Malay served as the high frequency used language in the national secondary school because it is the dominant communication language and the medium of instruction of the school encompassing the *PPSMI* subjects which should have been taught through English.

ii) The Malay language practice of the teacher respondents of the national secondary school was significantly different from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school

The Malay language practice of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school was significantly different from those in the Chinese Independent high school and the national type secondary school in the settings of: school assemblies, teachers office, classroom, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities.

As mentioned before, Malay was used as dominant communication language and education language by the administrators, teachers, non-academic staff and students in all the settings mentioned above in national secondary. The administrators and Malay teachers used Malay for inter-ethnicity and intra-ethnicity communication. The Malay teachers used Malay as intra-ethnicity communication language because of ethnocentrism and Malay was also used as unity language in inter-ethnicity communication in the being studied national secondary school. At the same time, the non-Malay teachers used Malay as inter-ethnicity communication with the administrators and Malay teachers to show solidarity (see Giles's Accommodation

theory) and because of dominant and power of Malay in the national secondary school (Tollefson, 1999).

Malay was the dominant medium of instruction for the subjects taught in the school except for the subject of Chinese language in the being studied national secondary school. Malay instead of English also used as the medium of instruction for the subjects of *PPSMI* by the teachers.

However Malay was less frequently used by the administrators and non-Malay teachers of Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school than the non-Malay teachers of national secondary school in the above mentioned settings. Though Malay is supposed to be the dominant medium of instruction for most of the subjects taught in the being studied national-type secondary school, the teachers who were competent in Mandarin used Malay and Mandarin as the media of instruction in their teaching. Mandarin was also the dominant education language except the subjects of English and Malay in the Chinese Independent high school. Similar to the national-type secondary school, the teachers who were competent in Mandarin also used Malay and Mandarin as the media of instruction for the teaching of the subject of Malay language in the being studied Chinese Independent high school. Therefore it supported the sum rank of Malay in national school is higher than the sum rank of national-type secondary school and Chinese Independent high school in classroom setting (see Table 4.5).

In addition, the administrators and teachers of the national school used only Malay to do reporting in the school assemblies setting. This is because the administrators and teachers were majority of Malay ethnicity. However the administrators and teachers of the being studied national-type secondary school were habitually converged to using Malay to do reporting in the school assemblies setting because the Malay teachers who were the minority group in the school did not

understand Malay. As stated by Spolsky (2004), language practice is the habitual pattern an individual demonstrates when selecting the language/s among the varieties available in his/her linguistic repertoire. But this habitual language use was not instilled in all national-type secondary school. Though national-type secondary school is a government sponsored school, the principal as the head of administrators has the authority to decide what language to be used in the school assemblies setting.

The administrators of a national-type secondary school in pilot study used Mandarin instead of Malay as dominant communication language in the school assemblies setting (see Soon et al., 2014) though there were non-Chinese teachers who did not have the competency. The administrators of the school did not converged to using Malay as the dominant language to do reports to maintain the characteristic of national-type secondary school as a Chinese school. As discussed in Chapter One, a national-type secondary school is a government-sponsored Chinese school which has Chinese as majority group of teachers and students. The Senior Assistant of the school would translate the important information into the language/s those teachers compete to solve the problem of language constraint.

In addition, the administrators of Chinese Independent high school also did not converged to using Malay for reporting though there were also non-Chinese teachers for the subjects of Malay language and English in the school assemblies setting. The co-teachers who sat beside the non-Chinese teachers played the role as translators.

The practice of not converging to use Malay as communication language in the school assemblies setting by the administrators of Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school in pilot study supported Tollefson's explanation that power and domination are the important factors for the convergent or divergent of language practice. The non-Chinese teachers did not converge to using the dominant communication language of the majority group of teacher in the school i.e. Mandarin

because they did not have the competency. The head of the school was the person who has the power to decide which language to be used as the communication language in certain setting in the school that they administered. In addition, the non-Chinese teachers of the Chinese Independent high school were different from the German monolingual in Oberwart, Austria (see Gal's observation, 1979), the non-Chinese teachers of the school did not expect the school community would shift to using Malay as dominant communication language in the school assemblies setting. It is deduced that different languages could be used in parallel and co-occurred when in different settings and with different participants (Fishman, 1972).

4.3.3 Mandarin language practice of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are presented in Figure 4.6.

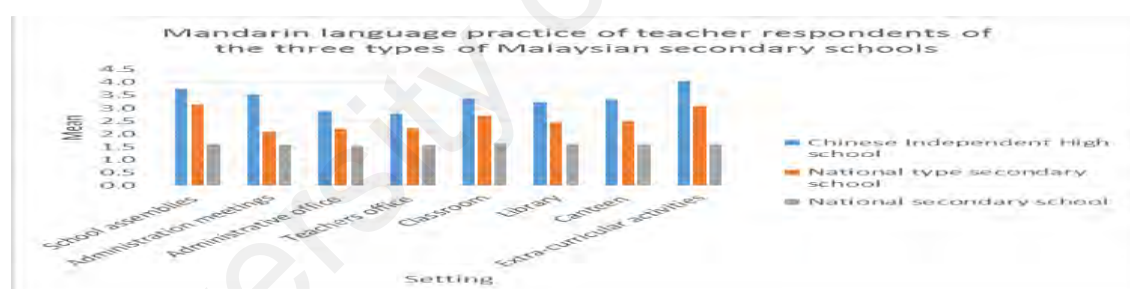


Figure 4.6: Malaysian secondary schools teacher respondents' Mandarin language practice

Similar to the Malay language practice, the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents also had a distinguishable difference. However, the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents was opposite to their Malay language practice.

The teacher respondents 'never' to 'very often' used Mandarin in the school settings. Mandarin was 'rarely' to 'very often' used by the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school (mean of between 2.5 and 4.0) and 'rarely' to

‘sometimes’ used by the teacher respondents of the national-type secondary schools (mean of between 2.0 and 3.5). The statistics showed Mandarin was ‘rarely’ used in Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary because there were non-Chinese teacher respondents who were not competent in Mandarin.

However, Mandarin was ‘never’ used by the teacher respondents of the national secondary schools. This may be due to more non-Chinese teacher respondents of the school who could not speak Mandarin.

Mandarin was ‘very often’ used by the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school in informal settings and in extra-curricular activities setting. Mandarin was ‘sometimes’ used in the school assemblies, administration meetings, classroom, library and canteen settings. Thus, it is deduced that Mandarin was used as a communication language and education language in the Chinese Independent high school.

a) Mandarin language practice declared by teacher interviewees in Chinese Independent high school

In the Chinese Independent high school, Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language and education language in the school settings.

i) Mandarin language practice of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in teacher to student communication

Mandarin was used by the student interviewee CIS1 when communicating with all the Chinese teachers in the school settings. Based on this, it is deduced that Mandarin was used by all the Chinese teachers when communicating with the students in the school.

Mandarin was used as the dominant education and communication language in the Chinese Independent high school. However, Mandarin was not used by the teachers of other ethnicities because they did not have the proficiency in this language. Teachers of Malay ethnicity teaching the Malay subject used Malay when communicating with

the students, but all the English subject teachers used English when communicating with the students and teachers of all ethnicities in the school settings.

This supported the finding of the pilot study (see Soon et al., 2014) that the studied Chinese Independent high school also had introduced a conducive environment for the learning of Mandarin in the school settings. According to Spolsky (2009), language practice provides context for language learners. Therefore, the language learning of students depends on language management on language practice of the students are exposed to.

ii) Mandarin language practice of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in teacher to teacher communication

Extract 102

CIT3: ... if teachers are in doubt and they asked what was that? Then yes. The principal as well as other co-teachers were sitting around. They would translate it to the Chinese teachers who do not understand the English language or rather what we had just spoken. Yeah. But the translation is not used like officially for them or for example to make announcement again in English.

In this regard, Mandarin was used as the dominant administration language by the principal of the school when chairing the management meetings. However, this would be translated into English by co-teachers for those not proficient in Mandarin, if the information is important. Simultaneously, the principal used English when she was communicating with the English teacher/s directly. Likewise, a translation made into Mandarin would also be made for the benefit of others less proficient in Mandarin.

As the observation of Gal (1979), German and Hungarian language were two parallel and coordinate languages used by the German monolingual neighbour and the Hungarian couples. In this study context, Mandarin and English were used by the administrators and English teachers of the studied Chinese Independent high school as two parallel and coordinate languages. None of these languages has higher status or

none language was more prestige than the other language.

iii) Mandarin language practice of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

The Chinese teachers of the Chinese Independent high school used Mandarin when communicating with the non-academic staff including the science laboratory assistants in the school settings.

This is because all the non-academic staff were proficient in Mandarin. Thus, Mandarin was used as the communication language when communicating with the Chinese teachers in the school. As far as the non-Chinese and non-administrative staff working in the school are concerned, Mandarin was also used by the Chinese teachers when communicating with this group of staff. This is because despite being non-Chinese in ethnicity, they were proficient in Mandarin.

As for teachers who may not be proficient in Mandarin, other languages were used in the school settings. Unlike the Chinese teachers, using Malay as communication language was practised by the non-Chinese teacher interviewee CIT3 to communicate with the non-academic staff in the being studied Chinese Independent high school. As mentioned before, teacher interviewee CIT3 was not competent in Mandarin and she was teaching English in the school, therefore Malay was the choice for her to communicate with the non-academic staff in the school settings. Mandarin was not the choice as communication language for both parties and using Malay enable teacher interviewee CIT3 and the non-academic staff to fulfil their needs for communication (see Giles's Accommodation theory).

In the targeted Chinese Independent high school, it was noted that the Chinese teachers used Mandarin when communicating with students, teachers and non-academic staff who were of the Chinese ethnicity as well as other ethnicities.

On the other hand, other languages were used when non-Chinese with no proficiency in Mandarin needed to communicate with the students, teachers and non-academic staff. In this regard, the language used was determined by the subject taught and the ethnicity of the teachers in the school settings. Malay was used when these staff need to communicate with the non-academic staff who were also not proficient in Mandarin.

b) Mandarin language practice declared by teacher interviewees in national-type secondary school

Mandarin was used as a communication language by the teacher interviewees who were of Chinese ethnicity when communicating with students and teachers of the same ethnicity.

i) Mandarin language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to student communication

Extract 103

研究者:…那么在办公室和在课室里面的时候,老师您和学生沟通的时候
[Researcher: ... Then what do you do if you are at the teacher office or in the classroom, when you are communicating with the students]

NTT1: 华语。

[NTT1: I speak Mandarin.]

Mandarin was used by the teacher interviewee NTT1 when she was communicating with students in the teachers office and classroom settings.

However, Malay was used during the teaching and learning of the Geography subject in the classroom setting. This is attributed to Malay being the medium of instruction. Nonetheless, two languages, Malay and Mandarin were used in the weaker class when preparing the students for project works, particularly for the purpose of explaining the contents of the subject taught.

In general, the dominant language used by the students of the school when communicating with their teachers would be Mandarin. This is because most of the

teachers, especially those teachers in the morning session, they were of Chinese ethnicity. It is hereby also explained that upper secondary forms in the Malaysian context, are conducted in the morning only, hence morning session.

Mandarin was used freely as communication language by teachers with Mandarin competency with their students as intra-ethnicity and inter-ethnicity communication enable us to understand that Mandarin was a high frequently used communication language in the studied national-type secondary school. This is because as mentioned by Hymes (1962), the language patterns of the entire community by considering the context of language use and how that particular community behaves through the use of a language enable us to understand the community's culture. Furthermore, Labov (1963) emphasized that language variation depends on the frequency of use and the different social status of the language users. And language practice is the language predominantly used by the speakers with whom and for what purpose (Spolsky, 2009). It is deduced that Mandarin was the predominantly used as communication language by the community with competency of the language in the studied national-type secondary school.

ii) Mandarin language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to teacher communication

Extract 106

NTT1: 如果我们的行政会议哦，是马来文。除非是我们自己中文组的会议才是用中文。

[NTT1: If it is during our administration meetings, Malay is used. Unless it is our Chinese panel meeting, then Mandarin is used.]

The communication language used by the school administrators during the administration meetings was Malay when all teachers of the school are expected to be present. Mandarin was only used as the communication language during the Mandarin panel meetings.

As mentioned before, this fashion of language practice was different from the Chinese Independent high school. All the administrators of the national-type secondary school were Chinese and they chose to converge to using Malay as the communication language in the administration meeting though they claimed that national-type secondary school was a Chinese school. This is because the administrators with power chose Malay as the dominant communication to show solidarity with the minority group, the Malay teachers who were mostly monolingual of Malay as they have only competency in Malay (see Giles's Accommodation theory).

It is deduced the failure of Malaysian language education policy. Though Malay is enacted as the only official language in Malaysian Federal Constitution, English was given the status as the second most important language as stated in the Razak Report. Because of the factor of ethnocentrism, the Malay teachers rejected to communicate with their students in the language other than Malay i.e. English. Furthermore, the head of English panel also did not reflect her profession through choosing Malay when communicating with the teachers in the school settings.

Mandarin definitely would not be the choice of communication language by the non-Chinese teachers because they were not competent in Mandarin.

Therefore the teacher interviewee NTT1's language practice was thus determined by the ethnicity of her interlocutor, Malay with administrators and in class teaching of Geography, but Mandarin when among teachers of the same ethnicity in the school settings. She also combines both languages of Malay and Mandarin for teaching purposes.

iii) Mandarin language practice of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Although Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language among teachers and students who were of Chinese ethnicity in the national-type secondary school,

Mandarin was not used by the teachers of the school when they were communicating with the non-academic staff in the school settings. This was because as a government-sponsored school, all the non-academic staff of the school were recruited by government and they were non-Chinese. And none of these non-Chinese non-academic staff were competent in Mandarin.

Extract 108

研究者:那么使用这个华语,在学校老师用大概是百分比是多少?

[Researcher: Then how many percent of your language practice in the school is in Mandarin?]

NTT1:我看有70%吧。

[NTT1: I think it is 70%.]

It appears that 70 percent of NTT1's language use time in the school settings was Mandarin. Thus it is deduced that Mandarin was the dominant communication language of teacher interviewee NTT1 in the school settings.

The Chinese teachers in the national-type secondary school used Mandarin as a communication language with Chinese students and teachers. Mandarin also served as an education language when used for the teaching of the Chinese subject and also as an additional language to Malay to assist the weaker Chinese students' comprehension of the subjects taught, for example Geography.

Mandarin was also used by the Chinese teachers in the meetings organised for the Mandarin panel. Nonetheless, it was not used by the teachers when communicating with non-academic staff in the school settings.

c) Mandarin language practice declared by teacher interviewees in national secondary school

Mandarin was used as a communication language by teacher interviewees with Chinese teachers and students (with the condition of there is no other non-Chinese teacher or student) who are proficient in Mandarin only.

i) Mandarin language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher and student communication

Mandarin was only used by the Chinese teachers with the Chinese students.

Extract 109

NST2: Su Ping dia seorang sajakan. Sebab Su Ping seorang saja cikgu Cina.

[NST2: Su Ping is alone. Because Su Ping is the only Chinese teacher.]

NST2: Mengajar, dia bahasa Cina, dia mengajar semua form, Form One sampai Form Five.

[NST2: She teaches Mandarin. She teaches all forms, from Form One to Form Five.]

The students were allowed to use Mandarin freely when communicating with the only one Mandarin teacher in the school setting. This is because the teacher interviewee NST1 was the only Mandarin teacher who was teaching the subject of Chinese language in the school and Mandarin was used as the medium of instruction in the classroom setting for the subject of Chinese language only. Using of Mandarin as communication by the students excludes communicating with other teachers of Chinese ethnicity.

Some of the teachers who were of Chinese ethnicity may use Mandarin as the communication language with their students under certain conditions, in the school settings. For instance, the students were permitted to use Mandarin when communicating with the teacher when they were not in the classroom setting.

This is because some Chinese teachers used either English or Malay as the education language in the classroom setting. Mandarin was only used as a communication language with the students in informal settings such as the canteen setting where there are fewer people present.

As emphasized by Labov (1963), language variation depends on the frequency of use and the different social status of the language users. In this study, the frequency of using Mandarin as communication language in teacher to student communication was very low. It is deduced the status of Mandarin in the national secondary school was also

very low. David et al. (2009) also proposed that it is deemed needed to give prestige and usefulness of the minority languages in Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei and the Philippines before these languages die. However, the low frequency of Mandarin used in the studied national secondary school reflected it was not only for the minority languages, the prestige and usefulness of the mother tongue of the Chinese students, Mandarin should also be given and improved.

ii) Mandarin language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to teacher communication

Extract 110

NST1: 如果是马来同事，我就会用马来文……华人同事我很自动也是华文咯。就是我会根据你是什么种族的，才来用什么语言。

[NST1: If is a Malay colleague, I will use Malay ... Chinese colleague also automatically speak Mandarin. My decision on what language to speak will be based on the ethnicity of my colleague.]

NST1: …另外一个是在那边，就四个。然后印度老师还多过我们，多几个。我们华人老师很少。

[NST1: ... there is another one over there, just four in total of Chinese teachers. The Indian teachers are more than us, a few more. We have very few Chinese teachers.]

Mandarin was used by the teacher interviewee NST1 when she was communicating with four Chinese teachers, who were the other teachers of Chinese ethnicity assigned to the same national secondary school. Comparatively, the school has more Indian teachers and Malay teachers. Based on this, it is deduced that Mandarin was not an important communication language in the school. Consequently, the frequency of Mandarin being used in the school setting may be confined to these few Chinese teachers only.

Thus the fashion of Mandarin language use helped us to understand the culture of national secondary school where Mandarin was not an important language in the school settings and it shed light on Mandarin served as the communication language between the four Chinese teachers in the school (see Hymes, 1962).

iii) Mandarin language practice of national secondary school teacher interviewees in teacher to non-academic staff communication

Mandarin was not used by the teacher interviewees NST1 and NST2 when they were communicating with the non-academic staff in the school settings. This is because all the non-academic staff were of other ethnicities and also not proficient in Mandarin.

Similar to the national-type secondary, the non-academic staff of the national secondary school were recruited by the government and they were not competent in Mandarin therefore Mandarin would not be the choice for teacher to non-academic staff communication in the school settings.

Hence, in the national secondary school context, Mandarin was not an important communication language as it was only used by those teachers who were of Chinese ethnicity.

4.3.3.1 Mandarin language practice variant of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are provided in Table 4.6

Table 4.6 Mandarin language practice variant of teacher respondents in different school settings in three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Settings	sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
School assemblies	339.2	318.6	174.1
Administration meetings	335.3	250.6	179.2
Administrative office	304.0	256.9	179.7
Teachers office	283.8	246.1	181.2
Classroom	283.5	277.8	178.9
Library	334.4	271.4	177.7
Canteen	325.7	280.8	177.3
Extra-curricular activities	324.4	282.0	177.2

In this context, it can be seen that Mandarin was used differently by the teacher respondents of the Malaysian secondary schools in all settings. The Mandarin language

practice of the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school showed the highest sum rank value followed by the national-type secondary school and the national secondary school, which had the lowest sum rank value.

Based on this statistics, it can be deduced that Mandarin was most frequently used by the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school followed by those in the national-type secondary school and then the national secondary school, in all settings.

The significant difference of the language practice of Mandarin noted in the teacher respondents of Malaysian secondary schools showed two significant patterns:

i) The Mandarin language practice of teacher respondents was significantly different in three types of secondary schools

The significantly different showed in the settings of administration meetings and extra-curricular activities.

It appears that Mandarin served as the dominant communication language between the administrators and the Chinese teachers of the studied Chinese Independent high school during their administration meetings. As mentioned before, this is despite the fact that there were non-Chinese teachers who were not proficient in Mandarin. As was also mentioned, when this occurs, there would be co-teachers making the translation for the others. It was obvious that the administrators and the Chinese teachers concerned chose not to converge to either English or Malay as their intra-ethnicity communication language when non-Chinese teachers were present.

The use of Mandarin as the dominant communication language in the school was being accepted by the teacher interviewee CIT3 as evidenced in interview. CIT3 did not think that the use of Mandarin as dominant communication language by the administrators and the Chinese teachers during the meetings was rude or divergent (see Giles's Theory of Accommodation). This is because CIT3 agreed that Mandarin is the

dominant communication language and dominant education language in the Chinese Independent high school language community. She was happy with having a co-teacher sitting beside her as translator. Furthermore, the school administrators and teachers were willing to use English as communication language when they were communicating with the English teachers.

It is deduced that the two languages: English and Mandarin represented two parallel and coordinate social groups to the Chinese teachers and the English teachers in the Chinese Independent high school which was similar to the Hungarian and German in Gal's observation (1979). An environment was provided in the school with freedom to choose a language.

In addition, Mandarin was also used as the dominant medium of instruction in the school and it was also the communication language used by the teachers during extra-curricular activities. As stated, this is because the majority of the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school were Chinese, hence, these teachers would also serve as the advisors of the extra-curricular activities such as clubs, societies and uniform units.

However, it was noted that some uniform units also used Malay as the communication language, using Malay mainly as the medium of instruction. For instance in the Police Cadet and Scouts co-curriculum units, the advisors were also of Malay in ethnicity. Thus, it was inevitable for Malay to be used.

In the Chinese Independent high school, Mandarin was used as the high variety when used by the administrators and Chinese teachers in the administration meetings and extra-curricular activities settings. At the same time, Malay was used in the extra-curricular activities setting for certain uniform unit when the activities were conducted at the headquarters.

In the national-type secondary school, the teacher population was made up of Chinese, Indians and Malays but the majority were Chinese teachers. However, not all of them have proficiency in Mandarin. Therefore, the administrators converged to using Malay as the communication language during their administration meetings.

As mentioned by the teacher interviewee NTT1, using Malay as the dominant communication language during the administration meetings had been a long term practice. This implies that even the Mandarin subject teachers would also be using Malay, as pointed out by teacher interviewee NTT1, a Mandarin subject teacher in the school.

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Both parties did not choose to use English as the communication language though English has the status as the second most important language in Malaysian education system. It is deduced that the role of English as the second important language was not reflected through the language choice of the education stakeholders.

It was observed that Mandarin was used only during the Mandarin panel meeting. It also appears that Mandarin language practice among the teachers during the administration meetings was less frequent when compared to the practice of the teachers in the Chinese Independent high school. Clearly, despite the fact that both schools had

more Chinese teachers, Mandarin may not be the only communication language for all. Hyme's (1962) ethnography of communication talks about a language user using a language depending on contexts of situations so that the difference in language patterns which fit into specific activities with specific people for specific purposes. In the context of administrative meetings in the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school, the language used by the school administrators of both school when communicating with the Malay teachers of the school was different i.e the Chinese Independent high school administrators chose to use Mandarin and the later chose to practise Malay.

Nonetheless, it was found that Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language in the extra-curricular activities settings among certain clubs and societies only, such as the Chinese Language Society. The activities of the uniform units and other clubs/societies were conducted bilingually i.e. in Mandarin and Malay except for the Malay Language Society and the English Language Society both of which used the respective languages .

Spolsky (2004, p. 7) stated that the language practice of a language user is observed through the user's constant and constructive interaction with others in the social environment. Mandarin and Malay were used as the dominant communication language in the extra-curricular activities setting showing that the teachers of the school constantly used the two languages with their students in this school domain.

Thus, it is deduced that Mandarin was used in low frequency in the national-type secondary school by the teachers in the administration meetings setting. However, when Mandarin was used in the extra-curricular activities setting, it was used with high frequency.

The outcome of this study noted that Mandarin was not at all used as the communication language in the administration meetings setting by the teachers of the

national secondary school.

Since the Chinese teachers were of the minority group in the school, with only one Chinese teacher serving as the Mandarin teacher and three Chinese teachers teaching the subjects of Biology and Additional Mathematics. Mandarin was clearly not used as the communication language in the meetings. This is because the majority of the teachers in the school did not have any competence in Mandarin.

Although the Mandarin panel meeting was conducted in Mandarin, it was restricted to the only one teacher available in the panel. Therefore, the administrators used Malay as the dominant communication language during the administration meetings. In this regard, the four Chinese teachers converged to practising Malay as the communication language during the meetings. The convergence by the minority group teachers not only to show politeness but also because of necessity, power and dominant to their superiors who were the *PPSMI* teachers. However these superiors chose to use Malay as their dominant communication language and medium of instruction instead of English (Giles's Theory of Accommodation).

In addition, the extra-curricular activities were also conducted using Malay as the communication language except for the Chinese Language Society meetings. Further to this, it was also noted that there were more advisors who were of the Malay ethnicity, thus Malay was used by the Malay teachers during the extra-curricular activities setting.

As Tollefson (1999) suggested, the relationship between individual choice and collective behaviour must be examined with respect to language ideology and social system (p. 46). In this study, both the national secondary schools and national-type secondary schools are the Malaysian government-sponsored schools. The frequency of Mandarin being used in the national secondary school was clearly less than the frequency of Mandarin used in the national-type secondary school. This is because of

the fewer number of teachers who were proficient in Mandarin. Thus, Mandarin was used in the low frequency in the national secondary school in all settings.

ii) The Mandarin language practice of teacher respondents of the national secondary school was significantly different from the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school

In the school settings which encompass assemblies, administrative office, teachers office, classroom, library and canteen, the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school was significantly different from those in the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school.

The sum rank value of the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school was higher than the national secondary school.

Nonetheless, the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school did not show any significant difference from the national-type secondary school. It is deduced that the frequency of Mandarin language practice of teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school is similar.

4.4 Summary

This chapter discussed the data analysis of the study which focused on language practice of the respondents from two perspectives: the student respondents and the teacher respondents. The three languages being given the focus are: Malay (the official and national language of the country), English (the second most important language used in this country) and Mandarin (Pupil's Own Language) as stated in Malaysian language education policy.

The descriptive data analysis extracted from the SPSS analysis showed Malay was the most frequently used language by the student respondents of the national secondary school; the national-type secondary school used less Malay, which is the least used by the students of the Chinese Independent high school.

It was also found that the language practice of English was the most frequently used by the student respondents of national-type secondary school; the students of Chinese Independent high school used less frequent but the national secondary school respondents used the least.

It was also noted that the student respondents of Chinese Independent high school and national-type school used Mandarin more frequent than the student respondents of national secondary school.

The teacher respondents from Chinese Independent high school have the highest frequency of Mandarin language practice followed by the national-type secondary school. Mandarin was to be the least used by teacher respondents from national secondary school.

As mentioned, Malay was to be the most frequently used in national secondary school but Mandarin was to be the most frequently used in Chinese Independent high school.

The language ideology, variants of language ideology, the relationship between language practice and language ideology of the students and teachers of Malaysian secondary schools are to be analysed and further discuss in next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS II – LANGUAGE IDEOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter was focused on the patterns of the language practice of the students and teachers from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools in the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin. The current chapter will focus on analysing data that will help to highlight the students' and teachers' perception towards the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin in the school domain, thus their language ideology.

The descriptive statistical analysis by using the central tendency to illustrate the mean of their language ideology will be used to show the respondents' and teachers' perceptions towards English, Malay, and Mandarin. The qualitative data drawn from the interview extracts of student and teacher interviewees will be provided to support the statistics. The inferential statistical analysis to show the variance of the language ideology in the three languages of English, Malay, and Mandarin as indicated by the student and teacher respondents from the three types of secondary schools. These will be followed by the correlation between language practice and language ideology of the three languages to show the relationship between the respondents' language practice and language ideology.

5.2 Language ideology of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The degree of agreement of the importance of English, Malay and Mandarin was perceived differently by the student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools from three orientations: integrative (integrate into a target language to achieve other purposes), instrumental (use knowledge of a target language to achieve other purposes) and cultural (use a target language to reflect cultural aspect).

5.2.1 English language ideology of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The data are presented in Figure 5.1

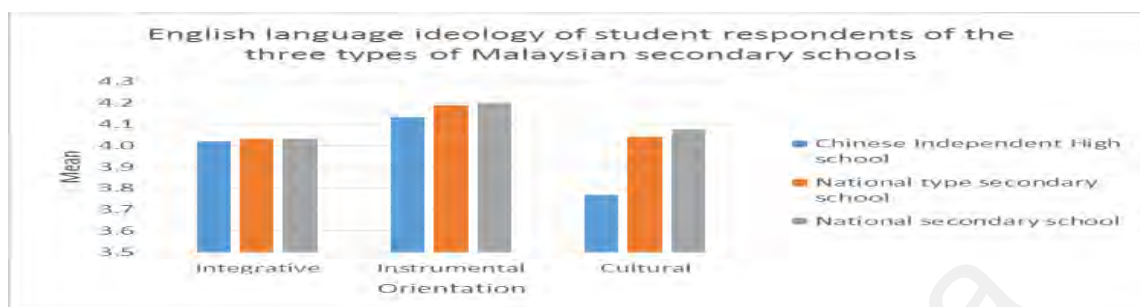


Figure 5.1: English language ideology of Malaysian secondary schools student respondents

As can be seen from the figure, the student respondents ticked 'neutral' to 'agree' when indicating the importance of English in the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations. The mean value of the English language ideology was between 3.7 and 4.1 in the three orientations.

Student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school 'agree' with the importance of English in the integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. The mean value was between 4.0 and 4.1. However, the mean value shown for the importance of English in the cultural orientation was between 3.7 and 3.8 or 'neutral'. This showed the student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school were neither 'agree' nor 'disagree' with the used of English might be able to reflect their cultural aspect.

The overall result suggests that English was perceived as an important language in the three orientations by student respondents from the national type and national secondary schools. The mean value of the three orientations was in the range of 4.0 and 4.2. This implies that the student respondents from the national-type and national secondary schools 'agree more' with the importance of English.

5.2.1.1 English language ideology declared by student interviewees in Malaysian secondary schools

The student respondents of the Malaysian secondary schools ‘agreed’ that English is important. The data showed that the instrumental orientation had the highest mean value of 4.2. The student interviewees from the three types of Malaysian secondary school had perceived English to be important in the instrumental orientation.

a) English language ideology declared by student interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school

The student interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school considered English as an important instrument of communication.

i) English language ideology of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in instrumental orientation

Extract 1

CIS1：重要啊英语！以后我们出国深造都是需要用英语，沟通的时候也是用英语。

[CIS1: English (is) important! We need to practise English when (we) further our studies overseas in the future time, for communication also (we) practise English.]

CIS2：对，英语很重要哇。

[CIS2: Yes, English is very important.]

As stated by Wardhaugh (2010), the value of a language is abstract and intangible and it is difficult to measure and verify. However, the language user is more likely to using the language which he/she has assigned more value or prestige. In the study, the student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 agreed that English is important for their future advancement. English was perceived to be an important language of education and communication.

The CIS1 and CIS2 also agreed that English used as a dominant education language and that it would be useful to them when they pursue their studies in a foreign

country. They also agreed that English would be used in the future or after they graduated from school. Coluzzi (2012) found that English is the preferred language for the university student in Malaysia to write e-mails and text messages with people of intra and inter-ethnicity in his study. Thus, English was perceived as an important language of communication for the students.

The perception of student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 in the study Chinese Independent high school was also substantiated by their teachers from the Chinese Independent high school, as seen in the extract of teacher interviewee CIT1. CIT1 claimed that English is important to the students because most of the students from the Chinese Independent high school of this study may be furthering their education in private colleges or universities. She also commented that these students may develop their career in the private sector which focuses more on English as compared to joining the government sector which may focus more on Malay.

According to the Standard Operation Procedure (SOP) of Malaysian Public Service Department, it is compulsory for an individual to have a credit in Malay in the *SPM* certificate in order for him/her to be recruited as a permanent officer in the public services. Coluzzi (2012) found that Malay is useful only for an individual to obtain a state-related job but this job is the privilege of Bumiputras. However, most students from the Chinese Independent high schools tend to only register and sit for the Unified Examination Certificate (UEC) which is conducted by *Dongzong* instead of the public Malaysian examinations set by *LPN*. In that regard, English would be important to the graduates of the Chinese Independent high school. This is because private colleges and universities use English as the dominant education and communication language.

Nunan (2003) found that English was not only used as the medium of instruction in the schools of Hong Kong, English was also the entry requirement to university and promotional prospects in the workplace in countries such as China and Korea.

Furthermore, MEXT promulgated many English medium of instruction language policies to enhance the international compatibility and competitiveness of higher education in Japan (Rose & McKinley, 2018). These deduced English was not only used as the medium of instruction for higher education in Malaysia but it was important in other countries in the world.

Furthermore, English is also used as the dominant communication language in the private sector. The importance of English perceived by teacher interviewee CIT1 showed similarity to other foreign country. Nunan (2003) also mentioned that English is important for Hong Kong students' career advancement, and being competence in English would ascertain the employment opportunities in Vietnam local and international markets with high paying jobs (Phan Thi Thanh Hang, 2009). This showed English was perceived as important communication tool for local labour market and globalisation.

b) English language ideology declared by student interviewees in the national-type secondary school

Student interviewees of the national-type secondary school perceived English to be an important communication tool in the instrumental orientation.

**i) English language ideology of national-type secondary school student interviewees
in instrumental orientation**

Extract 3

NTS1：……而华语与英文都是国际的语言，所以我认为它们，双语是应该被列为重位，重要的范围以内。

[NTS1: ... English and Mandarin are international languages, therefore I think these two languages are important.]

NTS1：……比如说我们来看看马来西亚的国际学校，试问哪一间是用马来语为主的？都是使用英文为主的。因为所谓的国际，就是要用国际语言。

[NTS1: ... for example, we look at the international schools in Malaysia, which of the schools is using Malay as the dominant language? All these schools are practising English as the dominant language. Because they are international, they have to use an international language.]

NTS1：……所以我认为呢认识更多语言，还有最重要是认识一些比较重要还有国际化的语言。这样子才能够自我提升。

[NTS1: ... so I think knowing more languages is necessary, and the most important thing is knowing some more important (languages) and international languages. This may upgrade myself.]

As defined in encyclopedia.com, an international language is also called a universal language which is used by people of different linguistic backgrounds to facilitate communication among them and to reduce the misunderstandings caused by language differences. An international language is usually intended not to replace existing mother tongues. It furthers international communication and is used outside their national boundaries. In this study, the three studied languages: English and Mandarin are the international languages used in the United Nation while Malay is the official language of Malaysia, Brunei Darulssalam, Indonesia and Singapore. But English is the first language and a universal requirement in Singapore education (Chua, 2012).

The student interviewee NTS1 agreed with the importance of English which she considers to be one of the international languages which is also an important education language. NTS1 emphasised the importance of English by making reference to its use in international schools.

In the Malaysian context, all international schools use the English language as the dominant language of education, instead of Malay. In this regard, NTS1 also agreed that the criteria for a school to be considered as an international school is when the school and students use one of the international languages as the medium of instruction in the school. In this case, English. To NTS1 knowing more languages is important, especially those languages which can benefit her in her future advancement.

The student interviewee NTS1 also perceived English as an important communication language because it is one of the international languages being used by the majority of the population in the world. English is the language of international communication (Nunan, 2003) and it is one of the top three languages used as the first language by people in the world after Mandarin and Spanish (Simons, Gary & Fenning, 2018) but it is the second most number of people spoken language (Lane, 2018) and estimated to have 1.5 billion or one fourth of the world's population using as first, second or foreign language after Mandarin (Crystal, 2000). Therefore, to NTS1, using English may enable her to communicate with more people internationally and this can give her more chances to do a variety of jobs.

This comment was also corroborated by student interviewee NTS2. In his view, English is an important communication language. He agreed that English is one of the most commonly used languages when in an international arena, for instance, it is used in most countries. English is used in 118 countries in the world comparing to Arabic and French which are used in 58 and 53 countries respectively (Simons et al., 2018).

English was also perceived to be an important communication tool in the business world. This was mentioned by student interviewee NTS1 who said that English can be used with customers of different ethnicities for commercial purposes since, in the business world, customers are not from only one ethnic group. By having the proficiency to communicate in English, she was of the impression that she would be

able to deal with customers of other ethnicities, too. English symbolises wealth and power and it is used as the language of international communication and commerce (Nunan, 2003). Furthermore, the Vietnamese perceived English as important language in economic, they believed that by having the competency of English may enhance success in economic and trade among the Vietnamese because ‘English will bring Vietnam into the world and bring the world to Vietnam’ (Phan Thi Thanh Hang, 2009). In this study, the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 have the similar perception towards English as the Vietnamese, that is English is an important business language.

c) English language ideology declared by student interviewees in the national secondary school

The student interviewees of the national secondary school also perceived English to be important in the instrumental orientation.

i) English language ideology of national secondary school student interviewees in instrumental orientation

Extract 7

NSS1: 因为改天上了大学是要用英文。

[NSS1: because English is used in the university in the future.]

NSS1: 马来文就

[NSS1: Malay will be]

NSS2: 比较少。

[NSS2: less.]

NSS1: 听senior。

[NSS1: from the senior who is studying in the college]

In the interview, student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 who were from the national secondary school, agreed that English is important as an education language in private colleges or universities because English is used most frequently in the education domain. As an international language, English is also widely practised in most countries. English is used as first, second or foreign language in 118 countries in the world (Simons et al., 2018). For that reason, it would be more convenient for student

interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 to communicate with others when they are going abroad since English served as an education and communication language in the private sector.

Seals's (2016) study showed the mother of the participant occasionally accommodate to using the preference language of her children to show her alignment with them. In this study, NSS1 explained that English is an important communication tool in her daily life. She speaks English with her family members. According to Labov (1963), language variation not only emphasised on the frequency of use and different social status of the speakers but also emphasised on the conscious intension of the language users. It is deduced the family members of student interviewee NSS1 agreed with the importance of English and they were intentionally used English as communication language in the family setting. Currently, she also used English as an education language for her own studies. It was also added that English will also be important for her future career when she begins working.

5.2.1.2 English language ideology variant in different orientations of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The findings show that the students of the three types of Malaysian secondary school agreed most with the importance of English as an instrumental tool (see Figure 5.1). The student respondents of the national-type secondary school have the highest mean of English language ideology i.e. between 3.0 and 4.0.

There was no significant difference in the English language ideology of the students of the three types of Malaysian secondary school in all the orientations. The result of the non-parametric analysis is shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Students' English language ideology Non-parametric Differences Test

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The medians of Integrative Orientation are the same across categories of School Type	Independent-Samples Median Test	.765	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The medians of Instrumental Orientation are the same across categories of School Type	Independent-Samples Median Test	.630	Retain the null hypothesis.
3	The medians of Cultural Orientation are the same across categories of School Type	Independent-Samples Median Test	.414	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

As shown above, the English language ideology of the student respondents of the three types of Malaysian secondary schools was not significantly different in the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations. Based on this, the null hypothesis of the three orientations are retained.

Rumsey (1990) said language ideology is the set of shared bodies of common sense notions about the nature of language in the world (Woolard, 2010, p. 235) and it is referring to the consensual set of beliefs about appropriate language, values or statuses shared by the members of the same speech community for the language variety (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4). In the Malaysian context, the non-parametric difference test of English language ideology of student respondents of the three types of secondary schools showed no significant difference in the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations. This showed the student respondents had similar beliefs of values or status towards English. It seems apparent, that the English language was perceived as an international language; a dominant communication language; and an important education language.

As mentioned by Spolsky (2009), the language variety which has more value has a higher possibility to be used by the language users. It is deduced that the students of the national-type secondary schools (see Figure 5.1) are more likely to use English compared to the Chinese Independent high school and national schools students.

5.2.2 Malay language ideology of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The data are presented in Figure 5.2.

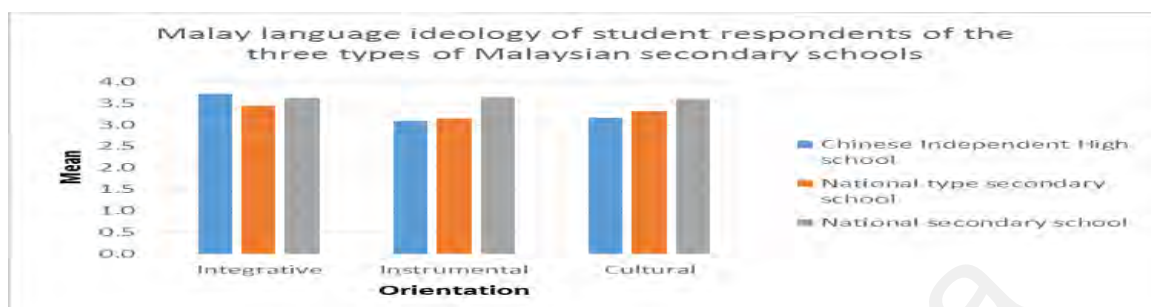


Figure 5.2: Malay language ideology of Malaysian secondary schools student respondents

In this figure, it can be seen that the student respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools were 'neutral' with the importance of Malay. The mean of the Malay language ideology among the student respondents was more than 3.0 but less than 4.0 in the integrative, instrumental, and cultural orientations.

The mean score of the Malay language ideology of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary schools was more than 3.0 but less than 4.0. A comparison showed that the mean of the Malay language ideology of student respondents from the national secondary schools was more than 3.5 but less than 4.0. Thus it is deduced that the student respondents from the national secondary schools 'agree more' with the importance of Malay than the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary schools.

One of the reasons is because Malay is the dominant communication language used by the student respondents with the Malay interlocutors in national secondary school. Furthermore, majority of the students and teachers in the national secondary school are of Malay ethnicity.

5.2.2.1 Malay language ideology declared by student interviewees in Malaysian secondary schools

Student interviewees from the national secondary school perceived Malay differently from the student interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school.

a) Malay language ideology declared by student interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school

The student interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school considered Malay as an important language in the instrumental orientation.

i) Malay language ideology of the Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in instrumental orientation

Extract 9

CIS1: 因为马来文只有在马来西亚的时候重要，尤其是当我们要和马来人沟通的时候才会用到。

[CIS1: Because Malay is important only when (we are) in Malaysia, especially when we are communicating with the Malays, we use it.]

CIS2: 或者是我们要在政府大学念书吧。

[CIS2: Or if we want to continue our study in government universities.]

Malay was perceived as an important communication language as well as an education language by student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2. In this regard, CIS1 perceived Malay would to be used only when communicating with the Malay interlocutors. He noted that Malay was also used as a dominant education language in the government or public universities.

This limited use of Malay also explained in Coluzzi (2017) that Malay is not perceived as a useful language and the prestige of the language is not recognised by many Malaysians.

b) Malay language ideology declared by student interviewees in the national-type secondary school

Malay was also perceived to be important by the student interviewees of the national-type secondary school in the instrumental orientation.

i) Malay language ideology of national-type secondary school student interviewees in instrumental orientation

Extract 10

NTS1: 啊之前呢，我有面对过呀，面临一个问题。那时候在中二的时候，我就跟一个，我也忘记是什么事情，我会跟那个马来人老师讲英文...

[NTS1: Before that I came across, I faced a problem. It was in Form Two, I communicated with a, I forgotten regarding what topic, I used English when I was communicating with a Malay teacher...]

NTS1: 他就讲哦，你不会看我是马来人吗？所以你应该要用马来语跟我交谈。所以那一次起。我就没有再跟马来老师用英文交谈了。

[NTS1: She told me that, don't you see I am a Malay? Therefore you should have used Malay when you are communicating with me. Since then, I never use English when I was communicating with the Malay teachers.]

In this context, English was used by NTS1 when communicating with one Malay teacher in the school but she was advised by the teacher to use Malay instead. This is because the teacher was a Malay, and probably did not know much English. However, this changed NTS1's perception towards Malay and English. Henceforth, Malay was regarded by NTS1 as a communication language which must be used when communicating with the Malay teachers. In this regard, Malay was considered as the communication language to be used by students when communicating with their Malay interlocutors. Coluzzi (2017) also found that many non-Bumiputras of Malaysia did not perceive Malay as a neutral language and Malay was perceived as the language of Malays.

Although student interviewee NTS2 also concurred with NTS1 on the importance of Malay, he was unable to express his perception towards its importance.

Coluzzi's study (2017) also found that nearly all Malaysians can speak, understand, write and read Malay but some with low proficiency. Malay is also perceived as low usefulness language. In this study, the student interviewee NTS1 was a case to be further reviewed where she commented that NTS2 may have considered Malay as an important communication language. However, this should only be so if NTS2 was thinking of developing his career in Malaysia. If this is the case, he would need to use Malay more.

c) Malay language ideology declared by student interviewees in national secondary school

The student respondents of the Malaysian secondary schools were 'neutral' about the importance of Malay in the integrative, instrumental or cultural orientations. The highest mean score (Figure 5.2) was noted. Based on this, it is deduced that the student respondents of national secondary schools 'agree' with the importance of Malay in the three orientations more than the students of the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school.

i) Malay language ideology of national secondary school student interviewees in integrative orientation

The student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 used Malay automatically when communicating with their Malay schoolmates and teachers. This is supported by the finding of Coluzzi (2016), the prestigious national language and the only official language in Malaysia, Malay was largely used by the Malays only. However NSS1 and NSS2 also used Malay with other non-academic staff of the school who were non-Chinese. Based on this, it is deduced that Malay was used as a tool for integration with the Malay community in the national secondary school setting.

ii) Malay language ideology of national secondary school student interviewees in instrumental orientation

Extract 13

NSS1: 如果马来文的话，我们只能去到某些国家才能用到…
[NSS1: As for Malay, we can use it in certain countries only...]

Student interviewee NSS1 ‘agreed’ that Malay was widely used in certain countries only, even though it may be an important communication language. NSS1 also ‘agreed’ that Malay is important for the following reasons:

5.2.2.2 Malay language ideology variant in different orientations of student respondents in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools

In this study, it was noted that the students from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools were ‘neutral’ when focussing on the importance of the Malay the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations (see Figure 5.2).

It appears that the Malay language ideology of the student respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools was significantly different in the instrumental and cultural orientations. However, they did not perceive the language differently in the integrative orientation. This is further explained in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Differences of Malay language ideology of student respondents in different orientations in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Orientations	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
Instrumental	164.8	157.7	232.5
Cultural	193.9	182.2	221.7

Statistics indicate a significant difference between the Malay language ideology of the students of the national secondary school and that of the students of Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school under the instrumental

orientation.

Results suggest that student respondents from the national secondary schools 'agreed more' with the importance of Malay than those from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school. The significant difference of the Malay language ideology of these student respondents showed two patterns.

a) Malay language ideology of student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school is not significantly different from that of the national-type secondary school in instrumental orientation

The sum rank of the Malay language ideology perceived by the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school showed no significant difference with those from the national-type secondary school.

However, the Malay language ideology of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was significantly different from that in the national secondary school.

Statistics indicate a significant difference between the Malay language ideology of the students of the national secondary school and that of the students of Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school under the instrumental orientation.

Thus, it is deduced that students from the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school have a similar perception about the importance of Malay under the instrumental orientation.

Malay was used as the dominant medium of instruction for most of the subjects taught in the national secondary school and so it also served as the communication language for inter-ethnicity communication for the majority group of teachers and students in the school. In this regard, Malay was used as the high variety in the national secondary school.

Nonetheless, the scenario was different for the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school observed. Here, the majority group of students were Chinese. Thus, Malay did not count as a dominant language used in the national secondary school. In this regard, Malay was not perceived as important by the students of the national-type secondary school.

The patterns of language practice of Malay by the student interviewees of the three types of Malaysian secondary schools further supported Spolsky's (2004, p. 14) belief that the language variety with lower value will have lower possibilities to be used the language users.

b) Malay language ideology of student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school is not significantly different from that of the national-type secondary school and national secondary school in cultural orientation

The Malay language ideology of the students from the national-type secondary school and national secondary school was noted to be significantly different. Thus, the Chinese Independent high school was the intermediate group. The Malay language ideology of the Chinese Independent high school students was not significantly different from that of the students of the national-type secondary school or the national secondary school (see Table 5.2).

Thus, it is deduced that the students from the national secondary school agreed more with the importance of Malay and the students of the national-type secondary school least agreed with the importance of Malay, in the cultural orientation.

This is further supporting Spolsky (2004) to believe that the language variety with higher language value is having a higher possibility to be used by the language users (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14). Malay was used by the student interviewees of the national secondary school as a high frequency variety compared to the student interviewees of Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school.

5.2.3 Mandarin language ideology of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The data are presented in Figure 5.3.

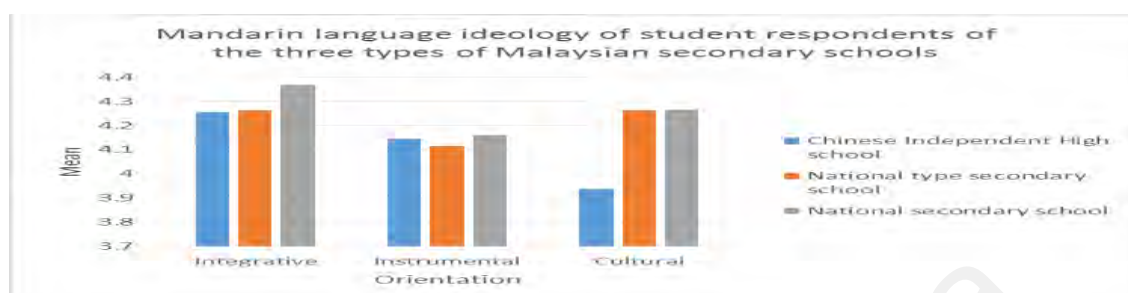


Figure 5.3: Mandarin language ideology of Malaysian secondary schools student respondents

The figure indicates that the student respondents from Malaysian secondary schools were ‘neutral’ to ‘agree’ with the importance of Mandarin in the integrative, instrumental, and cultural orientations. The mean score of the Mandarin language ideology of all the student respondents was more than 3.9 but less than 4.4. The mean score of the Mandarin language ideology in the integrative orientation was more than 4.2 but less than 4.4. The mean score of the Mandarin language ideology in the instrumental orientation was between 4.1 and 4.2 but the mean score of the Mandarin language ideology in the cultural orientation was more than 3.9 but less than 4.3.

The student respondents of the national-type and national secondary schools ‘agree’ with the importance of Mandarin in the three orientations. Furthermore, student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school also ‘agree’ with the importance of Mandarin in the integrative and instrumental orientation but they were ‘neutral’ with the importance of Mandarin in the cultural orientation by having the mean score of more than 3.9.

This showed the student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school viewed Mandarin as important integration and instrumental tools than as a cultural tool. This is happened because Mandarin is commonly used by all the Chinese and non-

Chinese students in the school settings as the tool for education and communication. The use of Mandarin as the cultural tool was not emphasized in the school settings.

5.2.3.1 Mandarin language ideology declared by student interviewees in Malaysian secondary schools

Student interviewees from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school have similar views towards the importance of Mandarin.

a) Mandarin language ideology declared by student interviewees in Chinese Independent high school

The student interviewees from the Chinese Independent high school viewed Mandarin as an important language in the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations.

i) Mandarin language ideology of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in the integrative orientation

In this context, student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 used Mandarin for intra- and inter-ethnicity communication with their schoolmates in the school settings. This is because students who attended the Chinese Independent high school, regardless of ethnicity, are proficient in Mandarin. Based on this, it is deduced that Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language, is an important tool for integration because all the students were highly proficient in Mandarin in the school.

There were non-Chinese students in the studied Chinese Independent high school but their fashion of Mandarin language use was different from the Malay language use by the non-bumiputra students as found in the study of Coluzzi (2017).

In this study, there were non-Chinese students who were highly proficient in Mandarin and they used Mandarin as the dominant communication language and did not show their fears of assimilation through the use of Mandarin in the school settings. It is deduced that Mandarin was used as the tool for integration instead of assimilation

in the studied Chinese Independent high school.

ii) Mandarin language ideology of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 14

CIS2: 重要，我们现在上课的时候都在用华语啊！

[CIS2: Important, we speak Mandarin in our lessons now!]

CIS1: 我们可以和任何国家的华人沟通。

[CIS1: We are able to communicate with the Chinese in any country.]

Mandarin was also perceived as an important education language by the student interviewee CIS2 because most of the subjects offered in the school were conducted in Mandarin.

As found in the study of Heath (1983), the schools may demonstrate the relationship between the students' language socialization patterns and their language ideology. Language ideology is a way to explain students' language acquisition (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984 and Schieffelin, 1990) and may also be used to refer to the general and consensual set of beliefs about appropriate language and language use (Spolsky, 2009).

In this study, CIS1 considered Mandarin as an important tool of communication and integration as it could be used when he was communicating with the Chinese interlocutors in the country or from other countries.

iii) Mandarin language ideology of Chinese Independent high school student interviewees in the cultural orientation

Extract 15

CIS2: 华语是我们的母语。

[CIS2: Mandarin is our mother tongue.]

In this regard, CIS2 considered Mandarin as his mother tongue. Mandarin was used as the tool to transmit the Chinese philosophy and to shape the Chinese culture (Hansen in

Liu, 2009, p. 33). This is because Mandarin is not only a carrier of Chinese culture but it is also a kind of culture in its own right (Wang, 2010, p. 25). For example Confucius's belief of 'benevolence' was to be transmitted through Mandarin. Thus, Mandarin was seen as an important cultural tool by CIS2.

A speaker's language use was an important cultural marker and it was able to show the preferred identity of the speaker (Rampton as cited in Seals, 2016). The student interviewee CIS2 chose to use Mandarin to show his identity as a Chinese in the studied Chinese Independent high school. The importance of Mandarin perceived by CIS2 supported the finding of Muriatul & Ting (2015) that the most important salient ethnic identity marker of the participants of Malaysian Chinese university students was to be able to speak Mandarin.

b) Mandarin language ideology declared by student interviewees in national-type secondary school

The student interviewees of the national-type secondary school also perceived Mandarin as an important language in the integrative, instrumental, and cultural orientations.

i) Mandarin language ideology of national-type secondary school student interviewees in the integrative orientation

Students from the national-type secondary school spoke Mandarin when communicating with all their schoolmates because they were all proficient in Mandarin.

The fashion of Mandarin language use of the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 showed similarity with the student interviewees, CIS1 and CIS2 of the studied Chinese Independent high school. This is because all the students in these two types of Malaysian secondary schools were competent in Mandarin.

Furthermore, Mandarin was also used by students of other ethnicities as a communication language in the family domain. This deduced the non-Chinese students of the studied national-type secondary school also used Mandarin as integration tool

with all students in the school and they did not reject the Mandarin language use in the school settings. This was different from the finding of Coluzzi (2017) because ‘Mandarin is not perceived as the language of Chinese’. Furthermore, Mandarin may link people from different ethnicities together instead of Malay in the school settings.

ii) Mandarin language ideology of national-type secondary school student interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 16

NTS1: 我们有华人的同胞。

[NTS1: We still speak to Chinese in Mandarin.]

NTS1: 啊，因为中国是一个非常强大的国家嘛，在不久的将来我也相信它与美国可能会平手

[NTS1: Because China is a very strong country. I do believe it is going to be able to compete with America very soon.]

NTS2: 因为对我来说我升学我想去台湾升学。所以对我来说华语是很重要的。

[NTS2: Because I am thinking of going to further my study in Taiwan. Therefore Mandarin is very important to me.]

Student interviewee NTS1 also viewed Mandarin as an important communication language because it is used during interactions within the Chinese community.

In this regard, she considered Mandarin as a communication tool to communicate with people from China. This is because Mandarin was used in 38 countries in the world and having 1.3 billion of first language users (Simons et al, 2018). In addition, it is possible that Mandarin, Arabic, Spanish or any other language could be the voice of the planet in one day (Crystal, 2013). Nonetheless, China is developing and getting stronger in the economy and NTS1 presumed that China may be as strong as the United States of America one day. This development of China will also benefit the Malaysian people whose Mandarin proficiency could ease business deals.

NTS2 perceived Mandarin to be an important education language because he was making plans to further his study in Taiwan after he graduated from the secondary school. In this regard, Mandarin is important for him because it will serve as the

dominant medium of instruction in Taiwan.

iii) Mandarin language ideology of national-type secondary school student interviewees in the cultural orientation

Extract 17

NTS1: 因为它是我们的母语。

[NTS1: Because it is our mother tongue.]

In this context, student interviewee NTS1 considered Mandarin to be an important cultural tool because Mandarin is also her mother tongue. This is also happened in the families as found in the studies of Wang (2007) in Johore and Ting (2009) in Sarawak. The Chinese families change their use of Mandarin as the parents' habitual language in the family communication because Mandarin was used as the language of instruction in their children's school and also because of the instrumental value of Mandarin as the standard prestigious language. The children were weak in their parents' Chinese dialect and therefore dialect was no longer important to them (Wang, 2007).

As a result, Mandarin became important family language and furthermore it had become the cultural tool in the Chinese families included the family of student interviewee NTS1 and the non-Chinese students in the school as mentioned by NTS1. This is mentioned before by Wang (2010).

c) Mandarin language ideology declared by student interviewees in national secondary school

The student interviewees perceived Mandarin to be an important language in the instrumental and cultural orientations.

i) Mandarin language ideology of national secondary school student interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 18

NSS1: 团结种族的语言？

[NSS1: It is a language to unite the ethnic group.]

研究员：团结种族？什么种族咧？

[Researcher: To unite the ethnic group? Which ethnic group (you refer to)?]

NSS1、NSS2: 华人。

[NSS1、NSS2: Chinese.]

Student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 also perceived Mandarin as an important tool of unity. It was explained that the use of Mandarin can unite the Chinese community though the Chinese students was the minority group in the studied national secondary school. Similar to the suggestion of Coluzzi (2017), Malay as the only official language in Malaysia may link people from different ethnicities together, the student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 suggested Mandarin may link the people of Chinese ethnicity together.

ii) Mandarin language ideology of national secondary school student interviewees in cultural orientation

Extract 19

NSS1: 也是出国外呀也是比较有优势。因为毕竟自己的母语。所以我们可以就人家，有些人不会嘲笑自己都不知道自己的母语。

[NSS1: There is an advantage if we are (proficient in Mandarin) in a foreign country. Because it is our mother tongue, therefore we are able to speak it, we will not be jeered by other people for not knowing our own mother tongue.]

NSS2:

算是赞成。因为毕竟从小都用华语嘛。如果到了现在不拿华语的话就觉得很没用呀。因为毕竟是自己的母语呀。要继续拿下去。

[NSS2: Consider as agree. Because (we are) practising Mandarin since we were young. I will think I am useless if now (I) do not sign up the mother tongue (classes). Because (Mandarin) is my mother tongue. (I) have to continue studying (the language).

Mandarin also served as the mother tongue of student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2.

As explained in Chapter One, there are some Malaysian Chinese who have the dialects

such as Hokkien, Cantonese, Hakka, Teochew or Hainan as their mother tongue. However David et al. (2009) found that the young generation of the Chinese community in Malaysia are losing out to Mandarin from their dialects. As mentioned before, Wang (2007) found that Chinese dialects were used by the first generation and Mandarin was used by the third generation in Johore. Ang & Lau (2012) also concluded in their study that the Chinese community in their study was experiencing a language shift from Chinese dialects to other more social dominant languages such as Mandarin or English.

In this study, similar to the student interviewee NTS1 of national-type secondary school, Mandarin was as L1 or the mother tongue of the student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2. The students speak Mandarin as communication language with their parents and siblings in the home setting. In addition, the Chinese participants in Muriatul & Ting's (2015) study showed that to be able to speak Mandarin is their salient ethnic identity marker. Thus, NSS1 considered Mandarin as her identity tool. She was aware that not knowing Mandarin may make others insult her identity as a Chinese. Moreover, besides linking Mandarin to her ethnicity, NSS1 also feels that being proficient in Mandarin could be advantageous to her when abroad.

It was explained that NSS2 has been using Mandarin from a young age, hence it was her mother tongue.

5.2.3.2 Mandarin language ideology variant in different orientations of student respondents in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools

In this regard, the outcome showed a 'neutral' to 'agree' range in the importance of Mandarin (see Figure 5.3). The students from the national-type secondary school and national secondary school 'agreed' more with the importance of Mandarin than the students of the Chinese Independent high school. There was no significant difference in how Mandarin was perceived in the integrative, instrumental orientation and cultural

orientation, as shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Students Mandarin Language Ideology Non-parametric Differences Test

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The medians of Integrative Orientation are the same across categories of School Type	Independent-Samples Median Test	.278	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The medians of Instrumental Orientation are the same across categories of School Type	Independent-Samples Median Test	.415	Retain the null hypothesis.
3	The medians of Cultural Orientation are the same across categories of School Type	Independent-Samples Median Test	.546	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Thus, it is deduced that the students from the three types of Malaysian secondary school held similar perceptions about the Mandarin language. In this regard, the null hypothesis is retained.

The result of the student respondents' Mandarin language ideology non-parametric differences test shown the student respondents of the three types of Malaysian secondary school have a common idea about Mandarin such as Mandarin was the tool for integration for all the Chinese and non-Chinese students who have the competency of the language (Rumsey as cited in Woolard, 2010, p. 235) and they shared the same values and status for Mandarin as an important communication tool (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4).

However the language practice of Mandarin by the student respondents of the three types of school showed different mean values. Mandarin was 'very often' used by the students of the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school but it was 'rarely' used by the students of the national secondary school.

This showed that the student interviewees had complex and contradictory language ideologies towards Mandarin in the multilingual educational settings (Fairclough cited in Kiss, 2012, p. 38). The student interviewees' Mandarin language ideology was not only shaped by Malaysian language policies but also by the power of

society (Field cited in Kiss, 2012, p. 39). The student interviewees of the national secondary school ‘agreed’ with the importance of Mandarin. However, the language policy implemented in the education system, the societal structure and the power of the national language varieties in the national secondary school where Malay was used as the dominant communication language and dominant medium of instruction reshaped the language ideology and language practice of the student interviewees in the school settings. Mandarin was the family language of the student interviewees and also the intra-ethnicity communication language with the students in the school. However, with the present of the schoolmates of other ethnicities specifically the Malay students, the student interviewees had to code-switch to Malay to continue for their intra-ethnicity communication.

5.3 Language ideology of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Among the three languages, the Malay language ideology showed the highest mean followed by English and then Mandarin.

5.3.1 English language ideology of teacher respondents of Malaysian secondary schools

Data are further displayed in Figure 5.4

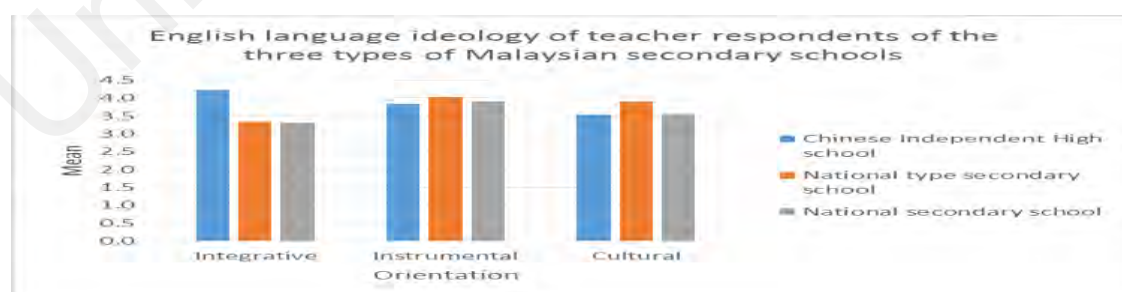


Figure 5.4: English language ideology of Malaysian secondary schools teacher respondents

Statistics showed that the teacher respondents of Malaysian secondary schools were ‘neutral’ to ‘agree’ in the range of viewing the importance of English as a language.

Their mean values were more than 3.0 and less than 4.5 (see Figure 5.4).

The teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school were 'neutral' to 'agree' in their perception of the English language ideology, but those from the national secondary school were 'neutral' with the importance of English. Based on this, it is deduced that the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary schools 'agreed more' with the importance of English.

5.3.1.1 English language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in Malaysian secondary schools

The teacher interviewees perceived English as an important communication tool.

a) English language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school

English was viewed as an important communication language in the instrumental orientation.

i) English language ideology of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in instrumental orientation

Extract 20

CIS1: ...英语是因为国际性语言，所以我们要必须掌握。

[CIS1: ... English is an international language, therefore we must master it.]

The student interviewees noted that English was perceived as an international language. It was also seen as an important education language for the students who may be furthering their education in the private colleges or universities after their secondary education.

The majority of the students from the Chinese Independent high school tend to further their education in private colleges or universities in Malaysia; otherwise, they

would go abroad. In this regard, English was seen as an important educational tool for the students.

Further to this, English was also perceived as an important communication language in the business field. This was linked to the possibility for graduates from the Chinese Independent high school to develop their future career in the business field or the private sectors.

This notion was also supported by the teacher interviewee who agreed that the importance of studying English should not be ignored. This is because English is an international language which may be used by most people in most countries (118 countries in the world), thus it is important to all students who may be thinking of furthering their education in other countries.

However English was only used by the teacher interviewees as communication language when they were communicating with the minority group of teachers in the school setting. In addition, code-switching between English and Malay was practised by the teacher interviewee CIT1 during her communication with the non-Chinese teachers. This showed she was similar to the teachers of Korea and Taiwan (see Nunan, 2003), and Vietnam (see Nunan, 2003; Phan Thi Thanh Hang, 2009; Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen, 2012), needed to improve their English language proficiency.

b) English language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the national-type secondary school

The teacher interviewees from the national-type school also perceived English as an important communication language in the instrumental orientation.

i) English language ideology of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 22

NTS3: Yeah. English is the international language. It is an important language when the students go to college.

Extract 23

NTT1: 因为我觉得说英文的使用还是很高。所以孩子去到college的时候；去到大学的时候；去到社会的时候还是以英文为主。

[NTT1: Because I think the frequency of practise is very high. Therefore when the children (students) go to college; to university; to the society, English is the dominant language.]

NTT1: 就算是我们差班的学生哦，他也会比较比较重视英文科。因为他觉得他以后出去社会的时候，他，英文对他很重要。

[NTT1: Though from weak classes, the students will have more efforts to use English. Because they know English is very important to them.]

From the interviews, it was noted that English was perceived as an international language as well as an education language by the teacher interviewees NTT3 and NTT1. It was also mentioned that English is important for students when furthering their education in colleges and universities.

It was explained that her students from the weaker classes in the school had emphasised the use of English more because they knew that English is important for their future.

It showed similarity with the teacher interviewees of the studied Chinese Independent high school, the teacher interviewees NTT1 and NTT3 perceived the importance of English from the perspective of their students. They agreed with the importance of English as an international language and the education language for the students in college and universities study.

The teacher interviewees used English as communication language during the inter-ethnicity communication between a Chinese teacher and an Indian teacher regardless of their profession in the school settings. In addition, the Indian teachers are the minority group of teachers in the school. It is deduced the teachers of the school had limited and low frequency of English language use in the school settings though they agreed with the importance of the language. However the usefulness of the language was perceived for their students instead of for themselves.

c) English language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the national secondary school

The teacher interviewees from the national secondary schools also perceived English as an important language in the instrumental orientation.

i) English language ideology of national secondary school teacher interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 24

NST2: Bahasa Inggeris, saya setuju, bahasa antarabangsa, bahasa perantaraan untuk bekerja apa.
[NST2: English, I agree, international language, the medium for whatever job.]

The Malay teacher interviewee NST2 strongly agreed on the importance of English as an international language as well as an important communication language, because it is used as the medium of communication in most jobs.

In this context, English was described as a ‘deadly’ or ‘life giving’ language for the students. For instance, the students might ‘die’ or be ‘unable to survive in this world’ if they do not have English proficiency.

This showed the teacher interviewee of the national secondary school ‘agreed’ with the importance of English. However their agreement also for the future of students in the school.

In addition, the teachers used English as communication language only when it was between the Chinese teachers and Indian teachers of the studied national secondary school. Both the Chinese teachers and Indian teachers are the minority group in the school. Coluzzi (2017) finds ‘Malay is hardly used in low domains by non-Bumiputras’. However, in the national secondary school, English is hardly used by the Bumiputras in the school domain, it has the status of second most important language.

5.3.1.2 English language ideology variant in different orientations of teacher respondents of Malaysian secondary schools

Data are provided in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Differences of English language ideology of teacher respondents in different orientations in three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Orientations	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
Integrative	297.6	178.5	185.7

It can be seen that the English language ideology of the teacher respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools showed a significant difference in the integrative orientation only. Thus, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the three types of secondary schools had perceived the importance of English similarly under the instrumental and cultural orientation.

The sum rank of the English language ideology of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was significantly different from that of the national-type and national secondary schools. In contrast, the English language ideology of the teachers from the national-type secondary school and the national secondary school showed no significant difference under the integrative orientation.

It was noted that the English language ideology of those respondents from the Chinese Independent high school had the highest sum rank followed by that of the national secondary school and then the national-type secondary school, which carried the lowest sum rank.

Based on this difference, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school ‘most agreed’ with the importance of English. This is followed in sequence by the national secondary school and then the national-type secondary school which showed that the teacher respondents ‘least agreed’ with the

importance of English.

This is because the students of the Chinese Independent high school would be furthering their education in foreign universities and colleges (abroad) and they also plan to work in the private sector. Thus, English is a dominant communication language as it is used by private and foreign universities as well as the private sector of work.

The outcome of this study also showed that even though the teachers from the national secondary school and the national-type secondary school perceived English as an international language, it was not being used by the teachers in the school settings. This happens in particular when the English teachers of Malay ethnicity. This supported Spolsky (2004, p. 8), as in reality, the individuals' language practice may differ from what they think and the language ideology among the respective individuals, particularly in a multilingual community, may sometimes be in conflict (Spolsky, 2004, p. 217). In general, the teachers of Malaysian secondary schools agreed with the importance of English

As the analysis has shown, students had been advised by such teachers to refrain from using English to communicate with Malay teachers in the school domain.

The fact that teacher respondents of the national-type secondary school and national school had lower sum rank of English language ideology in the integrative orientation than those in the Chinese Independent high school reflected they were less agreeable with the importance of English than those in the Chinese Independent high school. Furthermore, the student interviewees of the national-type secondary school was asked by her Malay teacher not to communicate with the Malay teachers in the school setting. According to Woolard (2010), language ideology of a language or variety of a language user is related to their sense of maintenance or loss of the distinctive language or variety (p. 240). The Malay teacher defenced Malay to be used as the dominant communication language by the students when communicating with the

Malay teachers instead of English showed her idea of maintaining the Malay language practice and preventing the loss of Malay in the school domain.

5.3.2 Malay language ideology of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are presented in Figure 5.5.

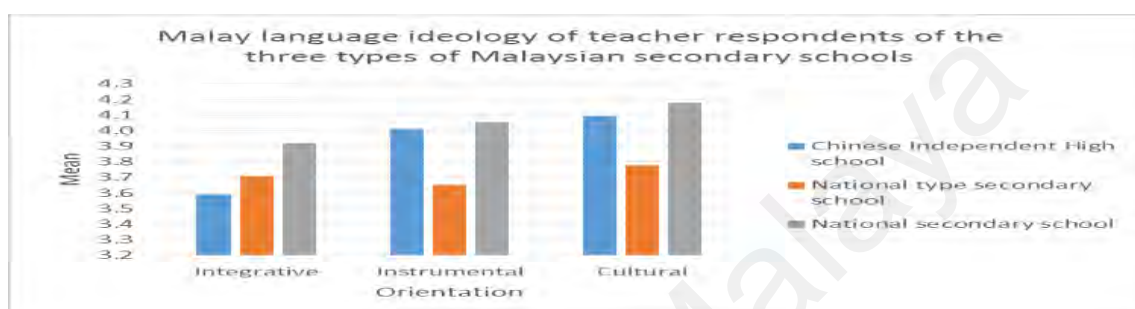


Figure 5.5: Malay language ideology of Malaysian secondary schools teacher respondents

In this context, the teacher respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools were 'neutral' to 'agree' with the importance of Malay.

The teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary schools were 'neutral' to 'agree' with the importance of Malay, but those from the national-type secondary schools were just 'neutral' with the importance of Malay.

The mean of the Malay language ideology of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was more than 3.5 but less than 4.1, while the mean of the Malay language ideology among teacher respondents from the national-type secondary schools was more than 3.6 but less than 3.8. The mean for the Malay language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools was more than 3.9 but less than 4.2. Based on this outcome, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools 'agreed more' with the importance of Malay.

The teacher respondents from the of Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary schools 'agree' with the importance of Malay in the instrumental as well as cultural orientation.

5.3.2.1 Malay language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in Malaysian secondary schools

While Malay was perceived as an important language in the instrumental and cultural orientations by the teacher interviewees from the national-type and national secondary schools, Malay was perceived as an important language in the instrumental orientation only by the teacher interviewees from the Chinese Independent high school.

a) Malay language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school

The teacher interviewees perceived Malay as an important language only in the instrumental orientation.

i) Malay language ideology of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewee in the instrumental orientation

Extract 26

CIT3: ... Of course English will be used but in order to give importance to bahasa Melayu, I think I will 100% agree with the importance of bahasa Melayu.

It can be noted that the teacher interviewee CIT, 'strongly agreed' that besides English, Malay is an important communication language in Malaysia.

Extract 27

CIT1: 我们会发现其实国语本来大家都应该要会...可能马来西亚的社会里面, 官方用语就是国语

[CIT1: We will find out actually that Malay is the language that everyone should know...may be it is important in Malaysia. This is because Malay is the official language in Malaysia.]

In this context, the teacher interviewee CIT1 perceived Malay as the ‘must know language’ by all Malaysians because it is the official language in Malaysia. Due to that reason, Malay was thus used as the dominant communication language in the government agencies.

The Malay language ideology of the teacher interviewees supported the findings of Coluzzi (2017), ‘Malay language is hardly used in low domains by the non-Bumiputras’. However this study did not support statement of Coluzzi (2017) that ‘Malay is not perceived as a useful language and the prestige of the language is not recognised by many Malaysians’

The teacher interviewee CIT2 suggested that as Malaysians, the students in the secondary schools should be tri-linguals with Malay, the official language in Malaysia; English, the international language and Mandarin, the dominant communication language in the school.

b) Malay language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the national-type secondary school

The teacher interviewees from the national-type secondary schools perceived Malay as an important language in the instrumental and cultural orientations.

i) Malay language ideology of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 29

NTT1:跟马来人我们就讲国语.....

[NTT1: ... (when communicating) with Malays we will use Malay ...]

Malay was perceived as the dominant communication language by the teacher interviewee NTT1 when communicating with the teachers of Malay ethnicity in the school settings. This interview information showed NTT1’s perception of importance of Malay was the same as ‘Malay is the language of Malays’ (Coluzzi, 2017).

This perception was reflected by the Malay teacher who advised the student interviewee NTS1 to speak Malay with the Malay teachers in the school settings. This further showed that the Bumiputras and non-Bumiputras of Malaysia have the perception that ‘Malay is not a neutral language and it is the language for Malays’. Over 60 years, the Malaysian authority and Malay language community had succeeded in linking Malay and Malay ethnicity.

Extract 30

NTT2: Bahasa Melayu adalah penting. Saya berkomunikasi dengan guru-guru, saya mengajar. Bahasa ni juga bahasa di rumah ... saya rasa semua anak Malaysia wajib fasih bahasa ini ...

[NTT2: Malay is important. I communicate with teachers (in this language), I teach (this language). This is also the language of my home ... I think all the Malaysians are obliged to be fluent in this language ...)

As can be seen from the interview data, Malay was used in the national-type secondary school but it was perceived differently by teacher interviewees NTT2 and NTT1. Both agreed that all Malaysians must master and be fluent in Malay.

Malay served as the dominant communication language for NTT1, particularly when communicating with students and teachers in the school. In addition, Malay was used as the education language in the classroom setting and when conducting activities in the extra-curricular activities setting.

The teacher interviewee NTT2 perceived Malay as an education language in the school. Although she was teaching the English subject, it was explained that the medium of instruction for most other subjects offered in the school is Malay.

ii) Malay language ideology of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in the cultural orientation

The teacher interviewee NTT2 perceived Malay as an important cultural tool because Malay was also the dominant communication language in NTT2’s family. This is because language is the carrier of culture. As enacted in Article 160 in Malaysian

Constitution ‘a Malay is a person who professes the religion of Islam, habitually speaks Malay and conforms to Malay custom’. The Malay teacher interviewee NTT2 used Malay as her family language and Malay was also the carrier of Malay culture.

Furthermore, NTT2 was ethnocentrically a monolingual of Malay. Therefore, Malay was used as NTT2’s family language and it was also her cultural tool.

c) Malay language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the national secondary school

From the perspective of the teacher interviewees who were from the national secondary school, Malay was perceived as an important language in the instrumental as well as cultural orientations.

i) Malay language ideology of national secondary school teacher interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 32

NST3: I think the system is that the Malay is the official language.

From this, it can be seen that teacher interviewee NST3 perceived Malay as an important administration language in Malaysia because it is the official language used in the administration system of most government agencies.

Extract 33

NST1: 因为国语的话，很自然而然从小学一直到中学。幼儿园啦也是啦。到大学，你都会一直，如果你是读国立大学的，很自动的，他们都一定都有国语……

[NST1: because for Malay, it is because since kindergarten to university, if you study in a public university, definitely Malay is to be used. It is automatically, you have to use Malay as education language in the education system)...]

In addition, teacher interviewee NST1 also perceived Malay as an important education language in Malaysian schools at all levels. Malay is used as the medium of instruction for all subjects in all Malaysian government-sponsored schools (including

the national-type schools and national schools), except for the English subject, which is taught from primary to secondary level and in public universities in Malaysia. Unlike English, Malay is the dominant medium of instruction in the Malaysian education system.

Likewise, teacher interviewee NST2 also perceived Malay as a dominant communication language in Malaysia. It was explained that individuals may face communication difficulties in Malaysia if they are not proficient in Malay.

As mentioned above, the prestigious of Malay was perceived as the official language in Malaysian government agencies by teacher interviewee NST3 (see Article 152, Malaysian Constitution), dominant education language in Malaysian public schools starting from primary level to university by NST1 (the ultimate objective of Razak Report, 1956), and also the dominant communication language by NST2 (see Article 160, Malaysian Constitution).

It is deduced that, Malay language planning which comprises status planning (Malay as official language), corpus planning (Malay as communication language) and acquisition planning (Malay as education language) was successful.

It can be concluded that all Malaysians perceived Malay as official language when he/she was at the government agencies, Malay as dominant communication language when he/she was communicating with interlocutors of Malay ethnicity, and Malay as dominant education language when he/she studied in government schools or as a subject when he/she studied in non-government-sponsored schools.

ii) Malay language ideology of national secondary school teacher interviewees in the cultural orientation

Extract 34

NST2: akarnya kita ialah bahasa Melayu. Tanpa bahasa Melayu tak ke mana.
[NST2: Malay is our root. Without Malay (we) go nowhere.]

In this regard, Malay was perceived as the root of the teacher interviewee NST2's culture because she is a Malay.

The teacher interviewee NST2 had similar Malay language ideology as the teacher interviewee NTT2. Both of them were Malay teachers who were teaching the subject of Malay in the national secondary school and national-type secondary school.

The teacher interviewee NST2 was not a monolingual of Malay as practised by the teacher interviewee NTT2. She would code-mix Malay with some English when she was communicating with the non-Malay students who had low competent in Malay. However, Malay was not only perceived as her most salient ethnic identity marker (see Muriatul & Ting, 2015) but it was also perceived as important as her root.

5.3.2.2 Malay language ideology variant in different orientations of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are furnished in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Differences of Malay language ideology of teacher respondents in different orientations in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Orientations	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
Instrumental	183.1	126.4	193.2

As can be seen from the table, the Malay language ideology of the teacher respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools was significantly different in the instrumental orientation only. On the other hand, the teacher respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools had similar perception towards the importance of Malay in the instrumental and cultural orientations.

In this regard, the Chinese Independent high school was considered as the intermediate group. The Malay language ideology of the teacher respondents from the

Chinese Independent high school was not significantly different from that of the national-type and national secondary schools. Nonetheless, the Malay language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school was significantly different from that of the national-type secondary school.

The sum rank of the Malay language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school (193.2) was higher than that of the national-type secondary school (126.4). Based on this difference, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools 'agreed more' with the importance of Malay than the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary schools.

Crystal's concept of language ideology refer to the feelings people have about their own language or the language of others' (Ting & Puah, 2010). Furthermore as suggested by Weber & Horner, the cultural system of ideas and feelings, norms and values expressed by the receptive individuals through the use of languages may inform us the way people think about languages (Abongdia & Fonch, 2014). Based on this, it can be deduced that the teachers from the national secondary school perceived Malay to be an important language for education. The teachers from the Chinese Independent high school perceived Malay as a national language and they also reckon that all Malaysians must know this language. In contrast, the Malay teachers from the national-type secondary school perceived Malay as an important language for their Malay ethnicity identity.

5.3.3 Mandarin language ideology of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are provided in Figure 5.6.

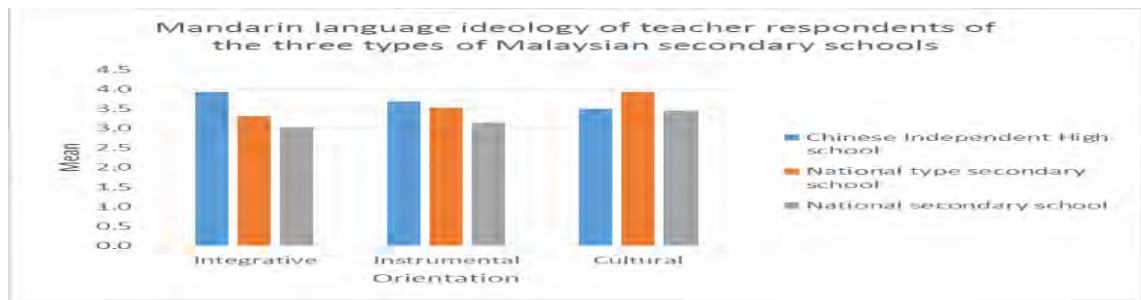


Figure 5.6: Mandarin language ideology of Malaysian secondary schools teacher respondents

The teacher respondents of Malaysian secondary schools were shown to be ‘neutral’ with the importance of Mandarin in the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations. The mean of their Mandarin language ideology was more than 3.0 but less than 4.0 in all the three orientations.

The mean of the Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was more than 3.5 but less than 4.0. The mean of the Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary schools was more than 3.0 but less than 4.0 while among those in the national secondary schools, the mean was more than 3.0 but less than 3.5. Thus, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school ‘agreed more’ with the importance of Mandarin.

5.3.3.1 Mandarin language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in Malaysian secondary schools

The perception of the teacher interviewees towards Mandarin showed that those from the national secondary schools perceived Mandarin differently from those who were from the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary schools.

a) Mandarin language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the Chinese Independent high school

Teacher interviewees from the Chinese Independent high school perceived Mandarin as an important language in the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations.

i) Mandarin language ideology of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in the integrative orientation

Extract 35

研究员:那么我看到有, 学校里面好像有一两位是非华族的, 对不对? 非华裔的同学?

[Researcher: Then I saw some, it seems like there are one or two non-Chinese, right? Non-Chinese students?]

CIT1: 嗯, 是呀! 有。

[CIT1: Yes, there is.]

研究员:那么这些同学, 他们是用什么语言跟其他同学沟通?

[Researcher: So, these students, what language do they use when they are communicating with their schoolmates?]

CIT1: 华语呀!

[CIT1: Mandarin!]

CIT1: 嗯。他们当然马来文也很好。有些他们的, 因为这环境的问题, 所以对他们来说, 他们的华语说得非常的流利。就好像我们高二的同学。他是马来人, 然后他的华语作文比赛曾经拿过全校第一。

[CIT1: Erm. Definitely their Malay proficiency is also good. Some of them, because of environmental factors, can speak Mandarin very fluently. For example our senior two student, she is a Malay. But she won the first place in the school Mandarin essay writing competition.]

In this context, the teacher interviewee CIT1 viewed Mandarin as an integration tool. Mandarin was used by the Chinese teacher interviewee CIT1 as the tool for integration when she was communicating with the non-academic staff who were competent in Mandarin. It is deduced that the importance of Mandarin in the Chinese Independent high school in this study was similar to the importance of Malay in obtaining state-related jobs in Malaysia government sector (see Coluzzi, 2017). According to the comment of Coluzzi (2017), Malaysian government failed to raise the prestige of national language because Malay was used in limited domain that is in the government sector only. The result in this study showed the status or prestigious of Mandarin was

limited in the Chinese Independent high school only.

ii) Mandarin language ideology of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 36

CIT1: 独中本身就是其他科目都是以华语来教学嘛。

[CIT1: All the other subjects were conducted in Mandarin in the Chinese Independent school.]

Extract 37

CIT3: I think in Chinese Independent Schools, yes, ah the Mandarin language should be considered as the main language or the target language.

Extract 38

CIT2: Kebanyakanlah, majoritilah subjek tu bahasa Cina, maka pada pendapat saya, setiap hari mereka bertutur dalam bahasa Cina maka saya rasa tak ada halangan

[CIT2: Most of the subjects are (conducted) in Mandarin, my opinion is they practise Mandarin everyday, there is no problem for them.]

From these interviews, it can be noted that Mandarin served as the medium of instruction for most of the subjects offered in the Chinese Independent high school. Thus, Mandarin was perceived as the dominant education language by teacher interviewees CIT1, CIT2 and CIT3.

Besides that, teacher interviewee CIT2 also considered Mandarin as the dominant communication language since all the students in the school spoke Mandarin as a means of communicating with each other in the school settings.

As stated by Woolard (2010), language ideology is the concept of linguistic prestige and the attitude of the language users towards the language they used. In the study, the teacher interviewees 'agreed' with the importance of Mandarin because the language was prestige, and they were having positive attitude towards using it as the medium of instruction for most of the subjects offered in the school.

Furthermore, Mandarin was also used as the dominant communication language among the students of Chinese and non-Chinese, Chinese teachers, and Chinese and non-Chinese non-academic staff who were competent in the language. In other word, Mandarin was used as the lingua franca by the community in the being studied Chinese Independent high school.

The perception of importance of Mandarin in the Chinese Independent high school was different from the perception of importance of Malay in the national-type secondary though both were the media of instruction in these two types of secondary schools. Malay was not used as the communication language by the teachers of national-type secondary school though it was the medium of instruction for most of the subjects offered in the school.

iii) Mandarin language ideology of Chinese Independent high school teacher interviewees in the cultural orientation

Extract 39

CIT1:独中本身就是其他科目都是以华语来教学嘛。所以其实如果你问我是 在 华文教学政策上面是不会改变的……因为独中毕竟以华文母语教 育为重这样子……其实对母语教育的传承是母语。

[CIT1: The Independent secondary school itself is using Mandarin as a medium of instruction for other subjects. Therefore, if you ask me, the Mandarin teaching policy will definitely not change…… after all independent secondary school emphasise on using Mandarin as education language... actually the objective of mother tongue education is to provide the opportunity to use the language in the school.]

In this regard, teacher interviewee CIT1 perceived Mandarin as the tool for mother tongue inheritance. She commented that Mandarin should not only be seen as the tool to transmit knowledge because it could also serve as the lingua franca of the Chinese community. In this regard, it shows that the Chinese Independent high school also had its own policy of using Mandarin as the dominant education language within the school domain.

This is because the main objective for establishing a Chinese Independent high school is that the school serves as an agent to transmit knowledge by using Mandarin. Therefore Mandarin was used as the dominant medium of instruction for the subjects taught in the Chinese Independent high school except for the subjects of Malay and English.

In the study of Seals (2016), the Russian and Ukrainian parents in America played the role to expose their children to the heritage languages to encourage heritage language maintenance in family domain. However in this study, the Chinese Independent high school teachers played the same role, to expose their students to Mandarin in the school domain. Furthermore, language is the carrier of cultural elements. Therefore Mandarin is the important carrier of Chinese cultural elements.

b) Mandarin language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the national-type secondary school

The teacher interviewees from the national-type secondary school perceived Mandarin as an important language for the three orientations: integrative, instrumental and cultural.

i) Mandarin language ideology of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in the integrative orientation

Extract 40

NTT1: 我觉得是华人嘛，他还是需要学华文。

[NTT1: I think as long one is a Chinese, he should learn Mandarin.]

Here, Mandarin was perceived as an integration tool among the Chinese community. The teacher interviewee NTT1 supported that students of Chinese ethnicity should learn Mandarin so that they will be able to understand others in the same community with ease.

Coluzzi (2017) suggested the Malays to learn language of other ethnicities so that they will have the knowledge of different languages and be able to understand each other's culture effectively.

In the study, the non-Chinese students in the national-type were able to communicate with the Chinese students by using Mandarin in the school settings. The students of different ethnicities were able to understand each other's culture by using the same communication language – Mandarin. It is deduced that Mandarin instead of Malay, was used to link the students from different ethnicities together in the national-type secondary school.

ii) Mandarin language ideology of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 41

NTT1:

因为…我的学校是国民型，所以我们的一个特点就是我们是5节的华文课。

[NTT1: Because... our school is a national-type secondary school, one of the characteristics is we have five lessons of Mandarin.]

From this interview, it was noted that Mandarin was not only used as an education language in the national-type secondary school; it also served as the symbol of identity for the respective national-type secondary school, which the teacher interviewee belonged to. By offering five lessons of Mandarin per week to the students of the school, Mandarin thus symbolised 'that particular' national-type secondary school.

As mentioned before, the Chinese participants in Muriatul & Ting's (2015) study agreed that the language, Mandarin was their most salient ethnic identity marker.

In this study, the teacher interviewee of the school also agreed that the language – teaching of Mandarin was the most salient identity marker of the school. The national-type secondary schools and national secondary school are both government-sponsored schools, the media of instruction to be used for all the subjects offered in the

schools was decided by Malaysian government through top-down policy, In order to differentiate these two types of secondary schools, the national-type secondary schools offer five lessons of Mandarin per week while the national secondary schools offer three lessons per week.

Furthermore, Mandarin became a compulsory subject for all the students of national-type secondary schools in public examinations such as *SPM* (see Section 1.4 Malaysian secondary schools).

Therefore, Mandarin was not only served as the tool of communication, it also served as identity marker.

iii) Mandarin language ideology of national-type secondary school teacher interviewees in the cultural orientation

Extract 42

NTT1: 因为我讲的学华文不是说他只是学那个语言。他还是需要学华人所拥有的哲理、教育、文化。

[NTT1: Because what I meant is that Mandarin is not only about language. They need to learn the Chinese philosophy, education and culture.]

Mandarin was perceived by NTT1 as an important cultural tool. It was explained that students also learn about Chinese philosophy and culture through learning the language of Mandarin.

In Nunan (2003), English was introduced as a compulsory subject in Japanese education in order to deepen the students' understanding of language and culture through learning a foreign language. Furthermore, Tupas (2009) suggested that the needs of the local community and the local culture should be taken into account when the authorities developing the educational curriculum. These studies supported the teacher interviewee NTT1's view that through the learning of a language may help the learner to understand the culture embedded in the language.

c) Mandarin language ideology declared by teacher interviewees in the national secondary school

The teacher interviewee from the national secondary school viewed Mandarin as an important tool in the instrumental orientation.

i) Mandarin language ideology of national secondary school teacher interviewees in the instrumental orientation

Extract 43

NST3: But I do not discriminate among languages, you see? That's why I explained to you just now that I see all languages as in, as of the same level. All languages are used for communication and therefore there is no small language or big language, or important languages or less important languages. Therefore for me all languages are the same.

In this regard, teacher interviewee NST3 perceived all the languages – English, Malay and Mandarin - as being equally important as they are all important communication tools.

The teacher interviewee NST3 was an English teacher of Indian ethnicity in the national secondary school agreed that there was no language to be more prestigious than other languages in the world. Though there was/were language/s having the status of national language, official language or international language, all this/these language/s is/are the same to NST3.

Therefore, the interview information supported the necessarily for Malaysians to learn more languages besides their own ethnicity language. As suggested by Coluzzi (2017), Malaysians should learn the language/s of other ethnicities in order to understand the culture of different ethnicities effectively. In this study, the learning of languages of other's ethnicity may provide the individual to use different tools for different functions.

It is important to the language users to perceive the language/s they learnt are neutral language. This may help to dissolve the problem of suspicious and fears of

assimilation before learning or using other language/s.

5.3.3.2 Mandarin language ideology variant in different orientations of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

Data are displayed in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Differences of Mandarin language ideology of teacher respondents in different orientations in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools

Orientations	Sum rank		
	Chinese Independent High school	National-type secondary school	National secondary school
Integrative	275.8	213.7	183.8
Instrumental	245.5	227.2	183.8
Cultural	181.4	242.5	184.8

Teacher respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools have different language ideology towards Mandarin. As the table illustrates, the Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents was significantly different in the integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations.

a) national-type secondary school is the intermediate group in the integrative orientation

Under the integrative orientation, there was a significant difference of the Mandarin language ideology between the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary school teachers. Here, the teachers from the national-type secondary school stood to be the intermediate.

The sum rank of the Mandarin language ideology of teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was higher (with sum rank value of 275.8) than that of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools (with sum rank value of 183.8). Based on this, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school 'agreed more' with the importance of Mandarin than those

from the national secondary school.

It appears that the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school held similar perception towards Mandarin. This may be due to the fact that the teaching of Mandarin seems to characterise these two schools. Furthermore, all the students in these two types of school used Mandarin as the dominant communication language regardless of their ethnicity. The sum rank value of the Chinese Independent high school was actually higher because Mandarin was also used as a dominant communication language by the non-Chinese and non-academic staff in the school.

b) The Mandarin language ideology of teacher respondents of national secondary school was significantly different from those of the Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school in the instrumental orientation

The Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools was significantly different from that of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school, in the instrumental orientation. However, the Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was not significantly different from that of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary school. The sum rank of the Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents in these two schools was higher than that noted in the national secondary school, in the instrumental orientation. Based on this, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary schools ‘agreed more’ with the importance of Mandarin in the instrumental orientation.

Clearly, the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school had a higher rank value because Mandarin was also perceived to be an important as well as a dominant medium of instruction for most of the subjects taught in the school. Mandarin

also served as the dominant communication language of the teachers and students of the majority group (Chinese) in the school settings.

Kroskristy's language ideology represents the perceptions of language users' view about how language is constructed in the interest of a specific social group (Abongdia & Foncha, 2014). The sum rank value of the teachers from the national secondary school was the lowest because Mandarin was used only by the minority group of Chinese teachers and students in the school. The language users had display varying degrees of awareness of their language ideologies to different languages unintentionally.

c) The Mandarin language ideology of teacher respondents of the national-type secondary school was significantly different from those of the Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school in the cultural orientation

The Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary schools showed no significant difference. The Mandarin language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary schools was significantly different from the results obtained from the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary school in the cultural orientation. The sum rank of the Mandarin language ideology of teacher respondents from the national-type secondary school was higher than that of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary school. Based on this, it is deduced that the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary schools 'agreed more' with the importance of Mandarin in the cultural orientation.

Value judgements are sometimes difficult to explain because values are abstract and are intangible (Wardhaugh in Spolsky, 2004, p. 14). It was suggested that the psychological factors should be focus upon when looking at the language chosen by the

user. As stated by Field, the language ideology of some of the language users was not only shaped by the country's language policies but also by the power of a society (Kiss, 2012). Mandarin is used as the communication language between the Chinese teachers and all students in the school.

5.4 Correlation between language practice and language ideology in Malaysian secondary schools

The correlation between language practice and language ideology of the three languages of the student and teacher respondents in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools are further analysed.

5.4.1 Correlation between language practice and language ideology of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The language practice and language ideology of student respondents showed a significant positive and 'very weak' to 'weak' correlation.

5.4.1.1 Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The correlation between English language practice and English language ideology of student respondents from the national secondary schools showed only 'very weak' correlation.

a) Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the Chinese Independent high schools

There is no significant correlation between language practice and the integrative orientation of language ideology. A significant correlation is found between the instrumental orientation and the cultural orientation of language ideology and language

practice of student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between English language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the Chinese Independent high school

Setting	Orientation		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	-.045	-.149	.029
Administrative Office	.125	.226	.454**
Teachers office	.065	.224	.186
Classroom	.173	.250	.343*
Library	.159	.244	.276
Canteen	.124	.238	.401**
Extra-curricular activities	.116	.301*	.317*

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Here, it can be seen that the English language practice of the student respondents in all the settings was not significantly correlated with the integrative orientation of their language ideology.

However, the English language practice of the student respondents in extra-curricular activities setting is correlated with the instrumental orientation with a very weak ($r = .30$, $n = 48$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation. However, their English language practice in the classroom and the extra-curricular activities setting showed a weak ($r = .32$ and $.34$, $n = 48$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation with the cultural orientation.

The relationship between the English language practice of the student respondents in the administrative office and canteen settings, and the cultural orientation also showed a weak ($r = .40$ and $.45$, $n = 48$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

b) Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of student respondents of national-type secondary school

The English language practice of the student respondents from the national-type secondary schools in all the settings showed a significant correlation with the

integrative orientation of their language ideology. Six settings of language practice were also significantly correlated with the instrumental orientation while two settings were significantly correlated with the cultural orientation, as shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between English language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the national-type secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.451**	.158	.116
Administrative Office	.481**	.311**	.244*
Teachers office	.481**	.329**	.275*
Classroom	.454**	.288*	.177
Library	.466**	.253*	.197
Canteen	.403**	.273*	.191
Extra-curricular activities	.476**	.279*	.194

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between English language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The English language practice of the student respondents in all the school settings and the integrative orientation of the student respondents showed a weak ($r =$ between .40 and .48, $n = 75$, $p < 0.01$), positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between English language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The relationship between the English language practice of the student respondents in the administrative office and teachers office settings, and the instrumental orientation showed a weak ($r = .31$ and $.33$, $n = 75$, $p < 0.01$), positive correlation.

However, the English language practice of the student respondents in the classroom, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation has a very weak ($r =$ between .25 and .29, $n = 75$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

iii) Significant correlation between English language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The relationship between the English language practice of the student respondents in the administrative office and teachers office settings, and the cultural orientation showed a very weak ($r = .24$ and $.28$, $n = 75$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

c) Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the national secondary school

The integrative orientation of the language ideology of student respondents from the national secondary schools was not significantly correlated with their English language. However, the instrumental orientation was significantly correlated with all settings while the cultural orientation was significantly correlated with three settings of the language practice. Results are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between English language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the national secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	-.020	.196**	.134*
Administrative Office	.051	.164**	.117*
Teachers office	.063	.172**	.141*
Classroom	.052	.169**	.108
Library	.046	.152**	.104
Canteen	.041	.119*	.101
Extra-curricular activities	.055	.174**	.084

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between English language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

Two patterns were identified in the significant correlation between English language practice and language ideology of the student respondents from the national secondary schools

The relationship between the English language practice in the canteen setting and the instrumental orientation of the student respondents was very weak ($r = .12$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.05$) but positive.

In addition, the English language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies, administrative office, teachers office, classroom, library and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation has a very weak ($r =$ between $.16$ and $.20$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between English language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

Only one pattern was identified.

The English language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies, administrative office and teachers office settings, and the cultural orientation has a very weak ($r =$ between $.12$ and $.14$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

The statistics showed there was no significant correlation between English language practice and language ideology in integrative orientation of student respondents of Chinese Independent high school and national secondary school. It is deduced the English language practice of the student respondents of these two types of secondary schools had no relation with their English language ideology. In addition, the frequency of English used by the student respondents of these two types of secondary schools did not reflect the importance of the language as they viewed.

Furthermore, though there were significant correlation between English language practice and language ideology of Chinese Independent high school, national-type secondary school and national secondary school in the instrumental and cultural orientations, the correlation strength was between 'very weak' to 'weak'. This showed the student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools have the same 'consensual set

of beliefs, values or statuses' (Spolsky, 2009) that English is important for their future advancement, dominant medium of instruction in the private universities/colleges in Malaysia and overseas, and the language for internationalisation and globalisation but it was not important language in the school settings as studied. Furthermore the student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools 'rarely' to 'never' use the language in the school settings. This resulted the relationship between the language use and the perceptions of the importance of English of the student respondents is 'very weak' to 'weak'.

It is important to fill the gap between the language use and their perceptions about the importance of English in the school settings. If the gap was fail to be filled, the future Malaysian students will face the same problem which was faced by the students of Hong Kong and Vietnam. The students of these two countries were unable to communicate effectively in spoken English (see Nunan, 2003).

5.4.1.2 Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of student respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of the student respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools showed 'very weak' to 'weak correlation strength.

a) Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school.

A significant correlation was found between the Malay language practice of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and their instrumental orientation and cultural orientation of language ideology. Their Malay language practice was not significantly correlated with the integrative orientation of their language ideology. Results are presented in Table 5.10

Table 5.10: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Malay language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the Chinese Independent High school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.046	.228	.225
Administrative Office	-.101	.313*	.383**
Teachers office	-.073	.336*	.295*
Classroom	-.057	.395**	.384**
Library	-.046	.365*	.343*
Canteen	-.018	.379**	.467**
Extra-curricular activities	-.053	.374**	.323*

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

It can be seen that the Malay language practice of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was significantly correlated with the classroom, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings.

i) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

Two patterns which showed a significant correlation between the Malay language practice and language ideology of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school were identified. The relationship between the Malay language practice in the library setting and the instrumental orientation showed a weak $r = .37$, $n = 48$, $p < 0.05$), positive correlation.

In addition, the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the classroom, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation also showed a weak ($r =$ between .37 and .40, $n = 48$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

There were two patterns showing a significant correlation between the Malay language practice of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school and their

language ideology.

The Malay language practice in the teacher office, library and extra-curricular activities settings, and the cultural orientation of the student respondents has a very weak to weak ($r =$ between .30 and .34, $n = 48$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

Furthermore, the relationship between the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the administrative office, classroom and canteen settings, and the cultural orientation also showed a weak ($r =$ between .38 and .47, $n = 48$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

b) Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the national-type secondary school

There were significant correlations found between the Malay language practice of student respondents from the national-type secondary school and all orientations of their language ideology. Results are presented in Table 5.11

Table 5.11: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Malay language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the national-type school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.217	.340**	.478**
Administrative Office	.340**	.402**	.213
Teachers office	.357**	.390**	.251*
Classroom	.409**	.425**	.264*
Library	.340**	.315**	.207
Canteen	.311**	.271*	.206
Extra-curricular activities	.285*	.317**	.325**

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

*****. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The integrative orientation of the language ideology of the student respondents from the national-type secondary schools was significantly correlated with six settings of their language practice.

The Malay language practice of the student respondents in the extra-curricular activities setting and the integrative orientation has a very weak ($r = .29, n = 75, p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

However, the relationship between the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the administrative office, teacher office, classroom, library and canteen settings, and the integrative orientation showed a weak ($r =$ between .31 and .41, $n = 75, p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The instrumental orientation of the language ideology of the student respondents from the national-type secondary school was significantly correlated with their language practice in all settings. Two patterns of the significant correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology were noted.

The Malay language practice of the student respondents in the canteen setting and the instrumental orientation has a very weak ($r = .27, n = 75, p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

However, the relationship between the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies, administrative office, teachers office, classroom, library and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation was weak ($r =$ between .32 and .43, $n = 75, p < 0.01$) but positive.

iii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the language ideology of the student respondents from the national-type secondary schools was significantly correlated with their language practice in four settings.

The relationship between the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the teacher office and classroom settings, and the cultural orientation showed a very weak ($r = .25$ and $.26$, $n = 75$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

However, the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies and extra-curricular activities settings, and the cultural orientation has a weak ($r = .33$ and $.48$, $n = 75$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

c) Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the national secondary school

The Malay language practice of the student respondents from the national secondary schools was significantly correlated with all the orientations of language ideology.

Results are presented in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Malay language practice and language ideology in the national school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.055	.211**	.188**
Administrative Office	.106	.119*	.066
Teachers office	.123*	.199**	.109
Classroom	.103	.198**	.112
Library	.137*	.223**	.143*
Canteen	.140*	.140*	.079
Extra-curricular activities	.193**	.192**	.116*

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The integrative orientation of the language ideology of the student respondents from the national secondary schools was significantly correlated with their language practice in four settings. Two patterns of significant correlation were detected.

The Malay language practice of the student respondents in the teachers office, library and canteen settings, and the integrative orientation has a very weak ($r =$ between $.12$ and $.14$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

Apart from that, the relationship between the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the extra-curricular activities setting and the integrative orientation also showed a very weak ($r = .19, n = 299, p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The language practice of the student respondents from the national secondary schools, in all settings, was significantly correlated with the instrumental orientation in their language ideology. Two patterns of significant correlation were found.

The relationship between the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the administrative office and canteen settings, and the instrumental orientation showed a very weak ($r = .12$ and $.14, n = 299, p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

Nonetheless, the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies, teachers office, classroom, library and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation also has a very weak ($r =$ between $.19$ and $.22, n = 299, p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

iii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation in the language ideology of the student respondents from the national secondary schools was significantly correlated with three settings of their language practice. Two patterns were also noted.

The relationship between the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the library and extra-curricular activities settings, and the cultural orientation showed a very weak ($r = .12$ and $.14, n = 299, p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

Nonetheless, the Malay language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies setting and the cultural orientation also showed a very weak ($r = .19, n = 299, p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

The results showed the student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools had ‘very weak’ to ‘weak’ correlation between their Malay language practice and language ideology in the integrative (except the Chinese Independent high school student respondents), instrumental and cultural orientations.

There was no significant correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school in integrative orientation. This was because the student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school did not use Malay as communication language with the non-Chinese students and the non-Chinese non-academic staff who were competent in Mandarin compared to the student respondents of national-type secondary school and national secondary school.

Nonetheless, the student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools viewed Malay is important language only when they were in Malaysia. Similar to the findings of Coluzzi (2017), the student respondents perceived Malay was important as education language in Malaysian government-sponsored schools and public universities, and the communication language in government service sectors resulted ‘very weak’ to ‘weak’ correlation between the Malay language practice and language ideology.

5.4.1.3 Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools

The significant correlation between the Mandarin language practice and language ideology of the student respondents of Malaysian secondary schools showed ‘very weak’ to ‘weak’ correlation.

a) Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the Chinese Independent high school

The Mandarin language practice of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was significantly correlated with the instrumental orientation and cultural orientation of their language ideology. Results are presented in Table 5.13

Table 5.13: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the Chinese Independent high school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	-.021	.139	.294*
Administrative Office	-.116	.259	.180
Teachers office	-.183	.080	.148
Classroom	-.007	.392**	.246
Library	-.005	.310*	.237
Canteen	.097	.179	.195
Extra-curricular activities	-.031	.109	.209

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

There was a significant correlation in the instrumental orientation of the language practice of the student respondents from the Chinese Independent high school in the classroom and library settings. Two patterns of significant correlation were also noted.

There was a weak ($r = .31$, $n = 48$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation between the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the library setting and the instrumental orientation.

The relationship between the Mandarin language practice in the classroom setting and the instrumental orientation of the student respondents also showed a weak ($r = .39$, $n = 48$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice with cultural orientation of language ideology

The Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies setting and the cultural orientation showed a very weak ($r = .29$, $n = 48$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

b) Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the national-type secondary school

The language practice of the student respondents from the national-type secondary schools showed a significant correlation with the instrumental orientation of their language ideology. Results are displayed in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the national-type secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.140	.249*	.165
Administrative Office	.028	.137	.023
Teachers office	-.046	.265*	.001
Classroom	-.152	.208	.026
Library	-.219	.257*	-.059
Canteen	-.061	.269*	.073
Extra-curricular activities	-.078	.376**	.030

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

As can be noted, the instrumental orientation was significantly correlated with five settings of their language practice. Two patterns of significant correlation were found.

The relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies, teachers office, library and canteen settings, and the instrumental orientation showed a very weak ($r =$ between $.25$ and $.27$, $n = 75$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

Furthermore, the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the extra-curricular activities setting has a weak ($r = .38, n = 75, p < 0.01$) but positive correlation with the instrumental orientation.

c) Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents of the national secondary school

The language practice of the student respondents from the national secondary school showed a significant correlation with all the orientations of their language ideology.

Results are shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents in the national secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.109	.132*	.137*
Administrative Office	.245**	.061	.122*
Teachers office	.083	.084	.105
Classroom	.036	-.025	-.019
Library	.148*	.167**	.172**
Canteen	.095	.111	.125*
Extra-curricular activities	.167**	.230**	.216**

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

Three settings of the respondents' Mandarin language practice showed a significant correlation with the integrative orientation. Two patterns were detected.

The relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the library setting and the integrative orientation showed a very weak ($r = .15, n = 299, p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

The relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the administrative office and extra-curricular activities settings, and the integrative orientation also showed a very weak ($r = .17$ and $.25, n = 299, p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The instrumental orientation of the language ideology of the student respondents of the national secondary school was also significantly correlated to three settings in language practice. Two patterns were noted.

The Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies setting and the instrumental orientation has a very weak ($r = .13$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

It was further noted that the relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the library and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation was also very weakly ($r = .16$ and $.23$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.01$) but positively correlated.

iii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the respondents' Mandarin language ideology was significantly correlated with their language practice in five. Two patterns were also identified.

The relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the school assemblies, administrative office and canteen settings, and the cultural orientation has a very weak ($r =$ between $.12$ and $.14$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

The relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the student respondents in the library and extra-curricular activities settings, and the cultural orientation was also very weakly ($r = .17$ and $.22$, $n = 299$, $p < 0.01$) but positively correlated.

In the context of studied Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school, Mandarin was used as the dominant communication language by all students and teachers of Chinese ethnicity. However, they ‘agreed’ with the importance of English for their future advancement. This resulted the ‘very weak’ to ‘weak’ correlation between the Mandarin language practice and language ideology of the student respondents of these two types of secondary school. This is because they used the Mandarin in ‘high’ frequency but they ‘agreed more’ with the importance of English than Mandarin.

On the other hand, the student respondents of the national secondary school had the lowest frequency of Mandarin language use in the school settings comparing to the student respondents of Chinese Independent high school and national-type secondary school. The low frequency of language use was caused by low number of Chinese students and teachers, and the language policy implemented in the classroom setting by the teachers in the studied national secondary school. This resulted ‘very weak’ correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents.

This ‘very weak’ correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of student respondents of three types of Malaysian secondary schools showed the implication of threatening of the survival of this language. As found in the study of David et al (2009), Malay and English are threatening the survival of the minority languages. The languages may survive only if the language communities maintain the usage of these languages in the home domain. However, the researcher of this study disagrees that the threatened language may survive with only used in home domain. This is because maintaining the usage of the language in the school domain is more important than the family domain. Parba’s ethnographic study (2018) found that the teachers’ attitudes might decide the language use in the classroom setting. Furthermore,

the teachers in the school domain will use the standard form of language in the formal settings. Therefore it is important that if the teachers in this study 'agreed' with the importance of Mandarin, the L1 of the student respondents of the three types of Malaysian secondary schools. This may maintain the usage of Mandarin and revitalize Mandarin in Malaysian language communities.

5.4.2 Correlation between language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The significant correlation of the languages of English, Malay and Mandarin carried a significant correlation between language practice and language ideology. This is noted in the outcome drawn from all the teacher respondents from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools. Results showed a stronger correlation strength when compared to the significant correlation of student respondents.

5.4.2.1 Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The correlation of the English language practice and language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools showed the lowest correlation strength. Results are presented in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between English language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the Chinese Independent high school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.328	.505	.425
Administration meetings	.435	.500	.437
Administrative Office	.038	.621*	.713*
Teachers office	.206	.689*	.752**
Classroom	-.068	.463	.638*
Library	.402	.787**	.715*
Canteen	.015	.594	.618*
Extra-curricular activities	.395	.597	.632*

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

a) Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school

The English language practice of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was significantly correlated with the instrumental and cultural orientation of their language ideology. However, the integrative orientation of their language ideology was not significantly correlated with all settings of the language practice.

i) Significant correlation between English language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The instrumental orientation of the language ideology of the teacher respondents was significantly correlated with three settings of their language practice. Two patterns were identified.

The relationship between the English language practice of the teacher respondents in the administrative office and teachers office settings and the instrumental orientation showed a moderate ($r = .62$ and $.69$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.05$) and positive correlation. And their language practice in the library setting and the instrumental orientation showed a strong ($r = .79$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.05$) and positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between English language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the teachers' language ideology was significantly correlated with six settings of their English language practice. Two patterns of correlation were found.

The English language practice of the teacher respondents in the administrative office, classroom, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the cultural orientation has a moderate to strong ($r = \text{between } .62 \text{ and } .72, n = 11, p < 0.05$) and positive correlation.

Furthermore, the English language practice of the teacher respondents in the teachers office setting and the cultural orientation also has a strong ($r = .75, n = 11, p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

b) Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the national-type secondary school

The English language practice of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary schools was significantly correlated with the integrative and instrumental orientations. However, the cultural orientation did not show any significant correlation with language practice in all settings. Results are presented in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between English language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the national-type secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.382	.271	.069
Administration meetings	.194	.168	-.049
Administrative Office	.387	.454*	.242
Teachers office	.383	.477*	.157
Classroom	.414*	.379	.311
Library	.069	.246	.132
Canteen	.445*	.507**	.298
Extra-curricular activities	.361	.428*	.305

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between English language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The English language practice of the teacher respondents in the classroom and canteen settings, and the integrative orientation showed a weak ($r = .41$ and $.45$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The instrumental orientation of language ideology showed a significant correlation with four settings of language practice. Two patterns were detected in the significant correlation.

The relationship between English language practice of the teacher respondents in the administrative office, teachers office and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation showed a weak ($r =$ between $.43$ and $.48$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

In addition, the English language practice of the teacher respondents in the canteen setting and the instrumental orientation has a moderate ($r = .51$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

c) Correlation between English language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the national school

All the orientations of the language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools were significantly correlated with their language practice.

Results are presented in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between English language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the national secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.142**	.312**	.261**
Administration meetings	.084	.283**	.215**
Administrative Office	.162**	.325**	.281**
Teachers' office	.177**	.348**	.258**
Classroom	.126*	.290**	.192**
Library	.205**	.354**	.209**
Canteen	.168**	.323**	.180**
Extra-curricular activities	.204**	.390**	.261**

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

i) Significant correlation between English language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The integrative orientation was significantly correlated with seven settings of language practice. The correlation also showed two patterns.

The English language practice of the teacher respondents in the classroom setting and the integrative orientation were very weakly ($r = .13$, $n = 340$, $p < 0.05$) but positively correlated.

Besides that, the relationship between the English language practice of the teacher respondents in the school assemblies, administrative office, teachers office, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the integrative orientation also showed very weak ($r =$ between $.14$ and $.21$, $n = 340$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between English language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The instrumental orientation of the language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools was very weakly to weakly ($r =$ between $.29$ and $.39$, $n = 340$, $p < 0.01$) but positively correlated with all settings of their English language

practice.

iii) Significant correlation between English language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools was very weakly ($r =$ between .18 and .28, $n = 340$, $p < 0.01$) but positively correlated with all settings of their English language practice.

English was perceived as an important language by the teacher interviewees of three types of Malaysian secondary schools for the purpose of further study, career and future advancement for their students.

English was the choice of language to be used as communication language with the non-Chinese teachers especially the English teachers in the studied Chinese Independent high school, this resulted 'moderate' to 'strong' correlation between their English language practice and language ideology. The result deduced the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school 'agreed' with the importance of English and at the same time they were using the language in the school settings.

However, the teacher interviewees of the studied national-type secondary school and national secondary used English as communication language only when they were communicating with the teachers of Indian ethnicity who were the minority group of teachers in these two types of secondary schools. The low frequency of English language use in the school settings had resulted a 'very weak' and 'weak' correlation between the English language practice and language ideology of the teacher respondents of national-type secondary school and national secondary school.

As stressed by Parba (2018), if the teachers had unfavourable attitudes towards the L1 of the students, they may resist against the language to be used in the classroom. In this study, because of ethnocentrism, the Malay teachers in the national-type secondary school and national secondary school, resisted against English language use

in the formal and informal settings in the schools. Furthermore, the English teachers of Malay ethnicity chose to use Malay as their communication language instead of English, which is their professional language. This is to be explained by Harzing & Pudelko (2013), the chosen official language is not necessary accepted to be used by the language users because of ethnocentrism.

5.4.2.2 Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The Malay language practice of the teacher respondents from the Malaysian secondary schools showed a significant correlation with the integrative and cultural orientations but not the instrumental orientation. Results are presented in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Malay language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the Chinese Independent high school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	-.521	-.086	-.251
Administration meetings	.078	-.417	-.768**
Administrative Office	-.342	-.111	-.250
Teachers office	-.458	.010	-.074
Classroom	-.828**	.145	.347
Library	.090	-.052	-.567
Canteen	-.404	-.299	-.351
Extra-curricular activities	-.420	-.283	-.424

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a) Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school

The Malay language practice of the teacher respondents in the Chinese Independent high school was negatively correlated with their language ideology.

i) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The integrative orientation of the teacher respondents was significantly correlated with their Malay language practice in classroom setting with a strong ($r = .83$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.01$) but negative correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the teacher respondents was significantly correlated with their Malay language practice in the administrative office setting with a strong ($r = .77$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.01$) but negative correlation.

b) Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the national-type secondary school

All the orientations of the language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools were significantly correlated with their language practice.

Results are shown in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Malay language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the national-type secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.445*	.513**	.222
Administration meetings	.354	.427*	.444*
Administrative Office	.386	.402*	.261
Teachers office	.514**	.441*	.310
Classroom	.214	.537**	.189
Library	.488*	.381	.256
Canteen	.436*	.352	.390
Extra-curricular activities	.451*	.390	.230

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The integrative orientation of the language ideology of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary school was significantly correlated with five settings of their language practice. Two patterns were noted.

The relationship between Malay language practice of the teacher respondents in the school assemblies, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the integrative orientation showed a weak ($r = \text{between } .44 \text{ and } .49, n = 25, p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

Furthermore, the Malay language practice of the teacher respondents in the teachers office setting and the integrative orientation has a moderate ($r = .51, n = 25, p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The correlation between the instrumental orientation of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary school and their language practice showed two patterns.

The Malay language practice of the teacher respondents in the administration meetings, administrative office and teachers office settings, and the instrumental orientation has a weak ($r = \text{between } .40 \text{ and } .44, n = 25, p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

In addition, the relationship between the Malay language practice of the teacher respondents in the school assemblies and classroom settings, and the instrumental orientation showed a moderate ($r = .51 \text{ and } .54, n = 25, p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

iii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the teacher respondents was significantly correlated with the language practice in the administration meetings setting with a weak ($r = .44$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

c) Correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the national secondary school

The Malay language practice of the teacher respondents from the national secondary schools was significantly correlated with all the orientations of their language ideology. Results are shown in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Malay language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the national secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.340**	.545**	.434**
Administration meetings	.277**	.518**	.403**
Administrative Office	.297**	.574**	.497**
Teachers' office	.336**	.614**	.516**
Classroom	.359**	.566**	.381**
Library	.334**	.598**	.466**
Canteen	.379**	.532**	.449**
Extra-curricular activities	.356**	.549**	.421**

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

i) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The integrative orientation of the teacher respondents was significantly correlated with all settings of their Malay language practice with a very weak to weak ($r =$ between .28 and .38, $n = 340$, $p < 0.01$) but positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The instrumental orientation of the teacher respondents was also significantly correlated with all the settings of their Malay language practice with a moderate ($r =$ between .52 and .61, $n = 340$, $p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

iii) Significant correlation between Malay language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the teacher respondents was also noted to have a weak to moderate ($r =$ between .38 and .52, $n = 340$, $p < 0.01$) and positive correlation with all settings of their Malay language practice.

The results showed a different fashion of correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology of the teacher respondents of Malaysian secondary schools. As mentioned before, the teacher interviewees of three types of Malaysian secondary schools 'agreed' with the importance of Malay as the official language in the government agencies, medium of instruction (in national-type secondary school and national secondary school) and the communication language used with the Malay interlocutors.

The relationship between Malay language practice and language ideology of the teacher respondents showed 'very weak' to 'strong', 'positive' and 'negative' correlations.

Furthermore, there was no significant correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology in the instrumental orientation of the teacher respondents of Chinese Independent high school. It is deduced that the teacher respondents of Chinese Independent high school neither using Malay as instrumental tool nor agree with the importance of Malay as instrumental tool. Or it is to say that Malay is not the teacher respondents of being studied Chinese Independent high school

did not choose Malay as their communication language and it was not perceived as an important language in the school settings.

At the same time, they had 'strong' but 'negative' correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology in integrative orientation. The interview information showed the teacher interviewees of Chinese Independent high school 'strongly agreed' all Malaysians must learnt Malay, the official language of Malaysia. But they resisted to use the language as integration tool with non-Chinese teachers with no competency in Mandarin in the school settings. In this context, the official language of the country was unable to link people from different ethnicities together (see Coluzzi, 2017).

However, the teacher respondents of national-type secondary school and national secondary school had 'weak' to 'moderate' correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology in the instrumental orientation. This showed the teachers of these two types of secondary schools 'agreed' with the importance of Malay and used Malay as the medium of instruction and communication language in certain school settings. Most of the Malay teachers in these schools were monolinguals of Malay language and as mentioned before, ethnocentrism favoured the Malay teachers used only Malay in the school settings.

Furthermore, the teacher respondents of national secondary school had 'weak' to 'moderate' correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology in cultural orientation. This is because the Malay teachers 'strongly agreed' with the importance of Malay is their most salient ethnic identity marker (see Muriatul & Ting, 2015).

The correlation strength between Malay language practice and language ideology directly indicated Malay was perceived as important language and it was used in high frequency by the teacher respondents of national-type secondary school and

national secondary school in the instrumental and cultural orientations.

However, the negative correlation between Malay language practice and language ideology showed other language or Mandarin (see correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of Chinese Independent high school) instead of Malay was used by the teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school as the tool for integration.

5.4.2.3 Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in Malaysian secondary schools

The significant correlation of the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the Malaysian secondary schools and language ideology showed a big range of correlation strength ranging from ‘very weak’ to ‘strong’.

a) Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the Chinese Independent high school

The language practice of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school was significantly correlated with all the orientations of their language ideology.

The results are presented in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the Chinese Independent high school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.890**	.694*	.482
Administration meetings	.845**	.420	.103
Administrative Office	.827**	.581	.387
Teachers’ office	.742**	.652*	.528
Classroom	.701*	.820**	.542
Library	.625*	.712*	.672*
Canteen	.581	.759**	.682*
Extra-curricular activities	.824**	.567	.395

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

i) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The language practice of the teacher respondents from the Chinese Independent high school, in all settings except the canteen setting, have significant correlations with the integrative orientation. Two patterns were noted.

The Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the classroom and library settings, and the integrative orientation showed a moderate ($r = .63$ and $.70$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.05$) and positive correlation.

Furthermore, the relationship between the teachers' Mandarin language practice in the school assemblies, administration meetings, administrative office, teachers office and extra-curricular activities settings, and the integrative orientation also showed a strong ($r =$ between $.74$ and $.89$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The correlation between the instrumental orientation the language practice showed two patterns.

The Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the school assemblies and library settings, and the instrumental orientation showed a moderate to strong ($r = .69$ and $.71$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.05$) and positive correlation.

In addition, the relationship between their Mandarin language practice in the classroom and canteen setting, and the instrumental orientation also showed a strong ($r = .76$ and $.82$, $n = 11$, $p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

iii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The cultural orientation of the teacher respondents was correlated with their Mandarin language practice in the library and canteen settings with a moderate ($r = .67$ and $.68$, n

= 11, $p < 0.05$) and positive correlation.

b) Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the national-type secondary school

The language practice of the teacher respondents from the national-type secondary schools was significantly correlated with all the orientations of their language ideology.

The results are presented in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the national-type secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.451*	.661**	.367
Administration meetings	.529**	.623**	.495*
Administrative Office	.497*	.717**	.457*
Teachers' office	.633**	.706**	.431*
Classroom	.174	.491*	.116
Library	.433*	.822**	.423*
Canteen	.746**	.746**	.410*
Extra-curricular activities	.588**	.716**	.450*

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

i) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

Two patterns of correlation were noted.

The Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the school assemblies, administrative office and library settings, and the integrative orientation was weakly (r = between .43 and .50, $n = 25$, $p < 0.05$) but positively correlated.

However, the relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the administration meetings, teachers office, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the integrative orientation showed a moderate to strong (r = between .53 and .75, $n = 25$, $p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

ii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

There were also two patterns of correlation detected.

The Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the classroom setting and the instrumental orientation was weakly ($r = .49$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.05$) but positively correlated.

However, the relationship between the Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the school assemblies, administration meetings, administrative office, teachers office, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the instrumental orientation showed a moderate to strong ($r =$ between $.62$ and $.82$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.01$) and positive correlation.

iii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the administration meetings, administrative office, teachers office, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the cultural orientation has a weak ($r =$ between $.41$ and $.50$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

c) Correlation between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents of the national secondary school

The language practice of the teacher respondents from the national secondary school was significantly correlated with all the orientations of their language ideology. Results are presented in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24: Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Mandarin language practice and language ideology of teacher respondents in the national secondary school

Settings	Orientations		
	Integrative	Instrumental	Cultural
School assemblies	.303**	.236**	.168**
Administration meetings	.278**	.181**	.078
Administrative Office	.466**	.319**	.342**
Teachers office	.480**	.321**	.347**
Classroom	.443**	.329**	.398**
Library	.475**	.307**	.389**
Canteen	.435**	.320**	.420**
Extra-curricular activities	.467**	.360**	.417**

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

i) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and integrative orientation of language ideology

The integrative orientation of the teacher respondents was very weakly to weakly ($r =$ between .28 and .48, $n = 340$, $p < 0.05$) correlated with all settings of their Mandarin language practice.

ii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and instrumental orientation of language ideology

The instrumental orientation of the teacher respondents was also very weakly to weakly ($r =$ between .18 and .36, $n = 340$, $p < 0.05$) correlated with all settings of their Mandarin language practice.

iii) Significant correlation between Mandarin language practice and cultural orientation of language ideology

The Mandarin language practice of the teacher respondents in the school assemblies, administrative office, teachers office, classroom, library, canteen and extra-curricular activities settings, and the cultural orientation showed a very weak to weak ($r =$ between .17 and .42, $n = 340$, $p < 0.05$) but positive correlation.

The results showed significant difference of Mandarin correlation strength of teacher respondents between the Chinese Independent high school and the national secondary school.

The Chinese Independent high school teacher respondents had 'moderate' to 'strong' correlation strength between the Mandarin language practice and language ideology in integrative and instrumental orientations but the teacher respondents of national secondary school had 'very weak' to 'weak' correlation strength.

The teacher respondents of Chinese Independent high school used Mandarin as integration and instrumental tools in the school settings with high frequency. In addition, the teacher respondents were 'strongly agreed' with the importance of Mandarin. This was supported by the finding of Dumanig et al (2012) stated that the language users would at odds to use the language because of their attitude of loyalty towards the language.

On the other hand, the teacher respondents might 'agreed' with the importance of Mandarin as integration and instrumental tool but their frequency of using the language in the national secondary school was very low. This resulted the 'very weak' to 'weak' correlation strength.

Therefore, through the correlation strength between Mandarin language practice and language ideology may serve as the indicator for the researchers to interpret the language use of the studied language/s by the language users authentically and also the language users' perceptions towards the importance of the language/s.

5.5 Summary

In this chapter, the student interviewees and teacher interviewees from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools provided data which showed that they perceived the importance of the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin as languages with

different functions within the country and outside of the country.

However, the quantitative data analysis indicates that the teacher respondents' strength of correlation between their language practice and language ideology in the three languages, was stronger than the strength of the correlation of the student respondents' language practice and language ideology. Furthermore, the positive and negative correlation of the three languages were also shown.

The next chapter will focus on describing the qualitative data and its influence on the implementation of language policy in Malaysian secondary schools in terms of language practice and language ideology for the students and teachers.

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS III – LANGUAGE MANAGEMENT

6.1 Introduction

The quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire and the qualitative data from the interviews which focused on language practice and language ideology of the three languages of English, Malay and Mandarin, of the students and teachers of Malaysian secondary schools, were analysed and presented in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 respectively.

In this chapter, the language management implemented in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools was analysed in order to see the impact language management has on the language practice and language ideology of the school students and teachers.

6.1.1 Language management in Malaysian secondary schools

In the Malaysian context, various types of language management or language policies, have been implemented in Malaysian secondary schools. These language policies could be explicit, like, the language policies designed and promulgated by the Malaysian Education Ministry or the language policies designed and implemented in the schools by the administrators. Alternatively, they may be implicit, that is the rules are set by the teachers in the school setting. From this study, it appears that the language management implemented in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools are varied and this needs to be further discussed.

6.1.1.1 Language management in the Chinese Independent high school

The Chinese Independent high school is a private secondary school managed by a board of individual directors. It is not a Malaysian government-sponsored secondary school. Therefore, the Chinese Independent high schools in Malaysia do not abide by the

implementations of the Malaysian government's language education policies, which are specifically designed and promulgated by the Malaysian Education Ministry for the schools and institutions. However, it offers the teaching of English and Malay as compulsory subjects, as required by the government.

Although the Chinese Independent high school of this study did not implement the macro language management which was promulgated by the Malaysian Education Ministry, there were a few micro language management designed by the administrators or teachers and then implemented in the school concerned.

a) Speak Only English was used at the Just English center

Extract 1

CIT1: 在英文中心只能用英语。

[CIT1: Only English is practised in the English center.]

CIT3: That is our objective or rather our motto in Just English, to speak only English.

As mentioned by the three teacher interviewees CIT1, CIT2 and CIT3, the main objective of establishing the Just English center was to provide a conducive English learning environment for the students of the targeted Chinese Independent high school.

Therefore, the school administrators of the studied school had implemented a language policy which had to be abided by the students of the school. In this context, only English must be used as the communication and education language by all the students when they are at the Just English center.

The students of the Chinese Independent high school were streamed according to their English proficiency level. This is based on the results of their placement test which was also conducted by the teachers of the center when the students first joined the school.

The students were placed in small classes of not more than 20 per class in the center. During the English lessons, all the students of the same form would go to the

center. The lessons were conducted by the English teachers only in English.

All the students of the school had to follow the fixed rule in order to 'Speak Only English' when they were at the center. Though it was a rule, it might motivate the students to speak the English. There were many studies found out the students from different countries encountered problem of unable to speak in English. Nunan (2003) found that 70% of students in Hong Kong unable to cope with English as the medium of instruction and they were unable to communicate effectively in English; the Japanese students were having the problem of effective communication skills in the classroom setting; the Korean, Taiwan and Vietnam students were also unable to communicate effectively because their teachers did not have confidence to teach in English.

Nunan (2003) also stressed that adequate exposure to English was required for the learners to achieve consistent and measurable improvement in English. In the studied Chinese Independent high school, the administrators established the Just English center to provide exposure to English for the students and the rule of 'Speak Only English' provided was aimed to train the students of the school to communicate effectively in English. As mentioned before, the administrators of the school had chosen a building to be used by the English department of the school as the 'Just English center', the head of English department and all the English teachers were centered in the selected building. English lessons were conducted in the center only.

As recommended by Chua (2012), the government of Singapore implemented a large-scale of holistic approach to maximize the amount of time and exposure to English for the students inside and outside the schools. In this study, the administrators of the Chinese Independent high school implemented the 'Speak Only English' rule whenever the students were at the center could maximize the amount of time of using the language when they were inside and outside the classroom setting.

Furthermore, the Just English centre provided a conducive English language practice environment within the school. According to the finding of Asri Selamat et al. (2011), providing a conducive environment within the school might be able to influence the feelings of the students to use English and affect the students' perception towards the learning of the language.

Extract 2

CIT3: If the class is continuously speaking in Mandarin, we have a rule that all of us follow, where the student will be asked to write an essay in English.

However, some of the new students and junior students in the school may use other languages when they are at the center. When this happens, their English teachers and schoolmates would remind the individuals to use English only. If the individual goes on using other languages during the English lesson, he/she will be asked to write an English essay as a punishment.

Teacher interviewee CIT3 agreed that the students have been instilled with the fear that they would be punished and asks to write an English essay. Writing English essay as punishment was a suitable measure to stop the students from using other language/s instead of English, the students have no choice but to use only English instead of other languages.

In Chua (2012), the Singaporean government enforced regulations to make sure the government bodies used English as the main medium of instruction. She also found that half of the Bangladesh did not access to English. In Malaysian context, English was not used as the main medium of instruction. The administrators of the studied Chinese Independent high school implemented 'Speak English Only' to make sure the teachers and students of the school to use English only at the center.

b) English as a compulsory pass subject

Extract 3

CIT3: If they failed the English paper, then they would be required to retain another level, another year in the same level.

The Chinese Independent high school does not seem to practise the automatic promotion system for their students. An automatic promotion system is one where the students will automatically be promoted to a higher form in another academic year if the individuals has fulfilled the criteria of attendance instead of the individuals' academic performance. This system is practised by all Malaysian government-sponsored schools such as the national-type secondary schools and national secondary schools.

The Chinese Independent high school, however, practised the retain system. The students will only be promoted to a higher form in another academic year if they have fulfilled the minimum criteria set by the school administrators. Otherwise, the individuals will be retained in the same form during the next academic year. Thus, they also repeat all the subjects of the same form for another academic year. For example, a Form Two individual will not be promoted to Form Three during the next academic year if he/she failed to fulfil the minimum criteria set by the school administrators.

Dumanig et al. (2012) found that no importance was placed on English grades or passing marks in major public examinations compared to Malay. The students might lackadaisical in learning the English. For being aware of this, the criterion set by the school administrators for the students to be promoted to a higher form in another academic year is that they must pass the English subject. The individual student may be retained in the same form for another academic year if he/she does not fulfil the criterion of passing the English subject even though he/she had passed all the other subjects. This language policy implemented by the school administrators emphasised on the importance of English in the Chinese Independent high school.

c) No English dictionary is allowed in the Just English center

Besides the micro language policies of Speak Only English and English as a compulsory subject to pass, as implemented in the Chinese Independent high school, there is also a micro language policy implemented in the Just English Center by the English head of department.

Extract 4

CIT3: They are not allowed to bring in their dictionaries or electronic dictionaries.

CIT3: Oh, no! If they are brought, we confiscate them and pass them to the discipline department.

The English department also set its own mini rule at the Just English center where by students are not allowed to bring their English dictionaries (printed dictionaries or electronic dictionaries) during the teaching and learning of English in the center. The penalty set by the department is that if an English dictionary was found, the English teachers would confiscate the dictionary and pass the case to the discipline department.

The rational for not allowing the students to bring any form of English dictionary during the teaching and learning of English in the center was an effort of the English department towards more English instruction or EMI. If dictionaries were allowed during the teaching and learning of English in the center, a bilingual dictionary was most properly being brought by the students to the center.

In the study of Tupas (2018), EMI has become a growing global phenomenon in all levels of education. This is because the authorities believe that the learners need the proficiency of English. However, EMI failed to account for language diversities. The researcher suggested both EMI and multilingual should complement one another.

However, the effort of EMI by the English department would not compromise the learning of other language/s in the studied Chinese Independent high school. This is

because EMI was implemented for the teaching and learning specifically for English and at the Just English center only. Therefore, not allowing the students to bring any dictionary was one of the approach to motivate the students to use more and be exposed more in English when they were at the center.

As mentioned before, the teacher interviewee never deny there were students, especially the new students and junior students in the school might use other languages when they were at the center. In order to help these students towards EMI, the teaching methods used by the English teachers were emphasised.

Extract 5:

CIT3: the method that we teach them in is actually the Direct method. We don't use the Grammar Translation method where by L1 comes in with the help of L2.

CIT3: Ah, we say... what do you call that? It is inferring! It is inference! Ah, you know? It is implying meaning.

CIT3: We do not allow our students to buy dictionaries and we do not allow them to bring in the dictionaries.

In this context, the English teachers were using the Direct Method in their teaching of English at the center instead of using the Grammar Translation Method. Students were guided by their English teachers to infer the meaning of the words during the teaching and learning in the classroom setting. Therefore, the usage of the dictionary was not necessary at the center.

Since no dictionary was allowed at the centre, the English teachers had to choose an effective teaching method for their teaching of English at the center. As argued by Kaplan & Baldauf (1997), the language-in-education-planning must select an appropriate methodology. Furthermore, Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen (2012) found that the English teachers in Vietnam needed more in-service training for teaching methodology because some of the teachers in Vietnam focused strictly to the textbooks they were using but some teachers would build their student's confidence in communicating in English by focusing on oral and listening skills by using varieties of teaching aids.

The teacher interviewee of the Chinese Independent high school chose to use the Direct method instead of Grammar Translation method during her teaching was because she had the confident with the methodology she had chosen could produce effective teaching.

And to solve the problem her students could encounter with the difficult words since no dictionary was allowed, the teacher interview had introduced the inferring technique to her students to imply the meaning of the words.

If came to the case when the students were facing difficulty in inferring the meaning of the words, more hints or more examples suitable to their language proficiency were to be provided. The students would use sign language to communicate with their English teachers when they want to say something and they do not know the word. It was mentioned before the students were placed in small classes with not more than 20 students in a class and they were streamed according to their English proficiency level. Therefore, it was easier for the teachers to focus on the performance of their students by using more varieties of teaching methodology.

Though the Chinese Independent high schools are not a government-sponsored secondary school, it is not a must for this type of school to implement the macro language education policies which are designed by Malaysian Ministry of Education. Different language policies or rules specifically for the teaching and learning of English in the Chinese Independent high school were implemented because the administrators perceived English as important language to the students for their future advancement.

6.1.1.2 Language management in national-type secondary school

The national-type secondary school is one type of Malaysian government-sponsored secondary school. Therefore, the macro language education policies which were designed and promulgated by the Malaysian Education Ministry would be executed by

the administrators or the principals of the government-sponsored secondary school.

There were two macro language education policies implemented in the targeted national-type secondary school:

- (a) the *PPSMI* language policy which was implemented in the year 2003 and then terminated in the year 2012
- (b) the *MBMMBI* language policy which was implemented by stages starting in 2010 until today.

The school administrators and teachers of the national-type secondary schools did not implement any micro language education policy as practised in the Chinese Independent high school.

Though the macro language education policy of *PPSMI* was executed and terminated, many studies were conducted to examine the implementation of the policy. The findings and the suggestions were discussed in Chapter 2.

6.1.1.3 Language management in national secondary school

Besides the national-type secondary schools, the national secondary schools is another type of Malaysian government-sponsored secondary schools which were also targeted in this study.

This type of secondary schools also implemented the macro language education policy issued by the Malaysian Education Ministry, such as the *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI*. However, in addition to these two language policies, there were also some micro language education policies implemented by some of the teachers of the schools.

a) 'No Mandarin' is used in the classroom setting

The Additional Mathematics subject teacher of the student interviewees had also set a micro language policy within the classroom setting. The teacher had also insisted all her students must use only English or Malay in the classroom setting. In fact, the

teacher used bilingual teaching of the subject in the classroom setting, using English and Malay, to assist the weak students to understand the subject better. Therefore, the students were drilled to use English or Malay only as the communication and education language.

This practice was also carried out by the student interviewees' other subject teachers who had also set their own rules for the students, such as informing the students that only Mandarin should not be spoken in the classroom setting. The student interviewees would not be punished by the subject teachers even though they used Mandarin in the classroom setting they would request the students to keep quiet instead of punishing them.

The language practice of the above mentioned Additional Mathematics subject teacher had used the bilingual approach in her teaching and learning of the *PPSMI* subject. David et al. (2009) examined the impact of language policies on the maintenance and teaching of minority languages. The study pointed out the Malaysian Chinese young generation's dialects were losing out to Mandarin however Mandarin has also the possibility of diminishing in the national secondary school in this study.

Similar to the Philippines, Bilingual Education Policy which emphasises on the teaching of English and Malay is implemented. Mandarin is taught as the transitional language that is for the initial instruction and early literacy from Year One to Year Six in the primary national-type primary schools. When the students are promoted to the national secondary schools, Malay is used as the dominant education language.

Besides that, the student interviewees used Mandarin as a communication language in situations where there were no students and teachers of other ethnicities around. Based on this, Mandarin is used as an intra-ethnicity communication language, on the condition that no students and teachers of other ethnicities are present. It is deduced that the prestige and usefulness of Mandarin in the studied national secondary

are not given, and the language is dying in the school settings.

As suggested by Coluzzi (2017), it is important and urgently needed for all ethnicities in Malaysia to learn the language of some other ethnicities, for example the Malays learn basic Mandarin and Tamil in this context. By doing so may raise the prestige and usefulness of Mandarin in national secondary schools before it dies.

6.2 Impact of language management on the Malaysian education stakeholders

From the excerpts and findings analysed thus far, it seems obvious that the macro language education policies and the micro language education policies were implemented in the Malaysian secondary schools. The impact of the implementation of these language education policies on the education stakeholders are further discussed.

6.2.1 Impact of language management on the language practice of the Malaysian secondary school students

The implementation of the macro and micro language policies within the Malaysian secondary schools showed the positive impact of language management on the language practice of the Malaysian education stakeholders.

a) Impact of language management on student interviewees' language practice in the Chinese Independent high school

Extract 6

CIT3: A lot of improvement, a lot. As I mentioned to you that, fear that used to be in our students is no longer there. They can stop you anywhere and they can have a decent conversation with you or short decent conversation with you. It's changed!

CIT3: All our students, you know. Without any fear, only with no fear then the fluency of the language is there, accuracy is there, you know.

It can be seen that the teacher interviewee CIT3 strongly agreed that the implementation of the macro language policies and the micro language policy in the Just English center,

showed the positive impact of language management on the English language practice of the students in the school. The frequency of the English language practice has shown an increment. The students used English as the communication language with their English teachers, not only when they met these teachers at the Just English center, but also with their English teachers in the formal and informal school settings.

This supported the suggestions of Nunan (2003) and Chua (2012) that the English curricular rhetoric to improve the English proficiency of the students, will be achieved by having sufficient exposure and amount of time to English instruction context for the students is maximized inside and outside the classroom and school realities.

Furthermore, the students were able to speak English as a communication language with their English teachers without fear. At least partly due to this implementation and management, the fluency of their English conversations had improved. According to Parba (2018) favourable attitudes towards the language is important. This is because psychological barriers to use English could be overcome by creating a non-threatening and conducive English language practice environment (Asri Selamat et al., 2011). In the Chinese Independent high school, conducive and non-threatening English language practice environment was provided through establishing the Just English center for the students. In addition, the students have favourable attitudes towards the importance of English for their future advancement and the economic benefits brought to them in the future. Based on these, it is deduced that the English oral language practice of the students was enhanced.

Extract 7

CIS1 and CIS2 : 在英语中心上英语课的时候我们就讲英语。

[CIS1 and CIS2: We will speak English when we are at the Just English Center, when we are attending the English classes.]

CIS2 : 和谁讲? Miss Rani、英语老师们。同学们也是要。

[CIS2: with whom? Miss Rani, English teachers, with school mates we also have to (speak English).]

The student interviewees CIS1 and CIS2 also agreed that they were able to use English as communication language when they were communicating with their English teachers and schoolmates at the Just English center.

By comparing to the students of Brunei Darulssalam and Bangladesh as found in Chua (2012), the students of the Chinese Independent high school were having more exposure chances to English language use in the Just English centre. The Bruneian student struggled to learn English and half of the Bangladesh people did not access to English. Through having a better and conducive environment, and easier to access to English, the English proficiency level of the students of Chinese Independent high school is assumed to be better than the students in Brunei and Bangladesh.

In addition, if the measures and language policies implemented in the Chinese Independent high school are successfully implemented in the Malaysian government-sponsored secondary schools, the frequency of using English in the school settings will be increased and the problem of deterioration in the standard of English among the students in the country will be solved in the future.

b) Impact of language management on student interviewees' language practice in the national-type secondary school

The implementation of the language policies in the national-type secondary schools showed a varied impact on the language practice of the student interviewees.

Extract 8

NTS1: 我认为它只在学校的范围里面改变了这样的语言使用。啊，对我的生活上的作息是没有什么改变。

[NTS1: I think it (language policy) changed my language practice in school only. Yeah, it has no impact on my daily activities.]

研究员: 为什么呢?

[Researcher: Why?]

NTS1: 因为我认为我不可能因为它的政策而我去改变我生活上的父母所讲的话。

[NTS1: Because I think it is impossible for me that because of the language policy, my language practice may change with my parents in my daily life.]

NTS2: 我没有。

[NTS2: I have no changes.]

The macro language policies designed by the Malaysian Education Ministry was implemented by the school administrators and teachers of the national-type secondary schools. This showed the positive impact of the language management on the language practice of the student interviewee NTS1. She agreed that the implementation of the language policies in the school had an impact on her language practice in the school domain only. However, the language management of the government did not have impact on her language practice in her family domain. This is because she used the language targeted by language management in the school domain only. Specifically the change of medium of instruction for the *PPSMI* subjects.

It was explained that she still uses English when communicating with her mother in the family domain before the *PPSMI* policy implemented in the school, when the school was implementing the *PPSMI* policy and after the *PPSMI* policy was abolished.

David et al. (2009) found Malay and English influenced the language shift of heritage languages. However, as mentioned before, the use of Malay as medium of instruction for most of the subjects including the *PPSMI* subjects did not influence her language choice in the family domain. This is because of her attitude of loyalty towards

English (Dumanig et al., 2012). English was perceived as an international language which was to be used for international communication, and Malay was perceived as the official language which was to be used for domestic communication. This result showed the language user's language ideology towards a language has greater impact than language management on the language use of the particular language.

However, she was advised by her Malay teacher that she should use Malay when communicating with Malay teachers in the school domain, and not English. Her language practice with the Malay teachers was thus changed in the school domain, but not in the family domain, when communicating with her mother.

According to Spolsky (2004), the language management is the efforts by the language managers on the language practice and language ideology of the people. In the studied national-type secondary school, the teachers and administrators of the school are the language managers to the student interviewee NTS1.

When the student interviewee NTS1 met the Malay teacher, the Malay teacher played the roles as the interlocutor of NTS1 and her language manager. She was more superior, had the authority and with high ethnocentrism than the students in the school. She instructed her efforts to manipulate the language practice of the NTS1 that is 'speak Malay to Malay teachers'.

NTS1 obeyed to her teacher's or her language manager's instruction and converged to changing her communication language from English to Malay.

Nonetheless, student interviewee NTS2, denied that the implementation of the government's language management in the school had influenced his language practice. He used Malay when he was communicating with the Malay teachers only in the school setting and he used Mandarin when he was communicating with his schoolmates and teachers of the same ethnicity.

For NTS2, his language practice was not manipulated by the Malay teachers because the communication language that he used was Malay or he ‘speaks Malay to Malay teachers’ and ‘Mandarin to the Chinese teachers’.

Based on these circumstances, it is deduced that the change of language management that changed the medium of instruction from English to Malay in the school may not have influenced the language practice of student interviewee NTS1 who uses English at home. In addition, the change of medium of instruction because of changes of language management also has not influenced the language practice of student interviewee NTS2 because he uses only Mandarin in both domains and ‘Malay to Malay teachers’.

c) Impact of language management on student interviewees’ language practice in the national secondary school

Extract 9

NSS2: 啊，science分3科。可是只有bio一科是用英文。

[NSS2: Science is sub-divided into three subjects. But only Bio(logy) uses English.]

研究员: 这样你不是，不会很辛苦吗？有一些用英文，一些又用马来文？

[Researcher: Don’t you feel it is very tiring? Some (subjects) in English, and some (subjects) in Malay?]

NSS1: 有时候。

[NSS1: Sometimes.]

研究员: 可是他上课用马来文喔？课本用马来文喔？

[Researcher: But is he (or she) teaching in Malay? Using the Malay version of the textbook?]

NSS1: 补习是英文。

[NSS1: The tuition is in English.]

The changes of the language management in the national secondary school showed a positive impact on the language practice of the students in the national secondary school. Student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 agreed that the change of language used by their teachers, from English to Malay, in some of the science subjects, do make them feel tired sometimes.

This is because among the three pure science subjects offered in the school, only the subject of Biology used the English version of the text book. However, in their case, their teacher teaches bilingually, that is by using both English and Malay, in the classroom setting. In contrast, their Physics and Chemistry teachers, only use the Malay version of the text book and they use Malay as the education language and communication language in the classroom setting.

The change incurred by the medium of instruction and use of text books for the subjects of Physics and Chemistry, can be tiring. These students had to switch from English to Malay in the school, depending on the subject. Consequently, it confuses them. As student interviewee NSS1 noted, she had to attend private tuition classes for the science subjects which were conducted in English so as to catch up. This is because the student interviewees know that English is the dominant medium of instruction in the private colleges and universities after they graduated from the national-type secondary school and start attending the private colleges and universities. Therefore, attending the private tuition classes is equipping herself for her future study.

It is deduced that student interviewees' language perception towards English influenced her language use in the school settings and the private tuition classes. Based on this, the change in the medium of instruction for the science subjects from English to Malay increased the students' burden of study.

Extract 10

研究员:啊, 这样啦。那么就是说这样的话会影响到你们的用英文、用马来文, 这语言的使用吗?

[Researcher: In such a way. It means this will affect your language use of English and Malay?]

NSS1、NSS2: 会呀!

[NSS1、NSS2: It will.]

研究员:会啦。那么意思是说因为换了之后因为觉得没有这样重要了, 所以造成他们不太使用?

[Researcher: Will. It means the change of medium of instruction make them thinking that English is no more important, therefore they are using it less?]

NSS2: 唔。

[NSS2: Erm.]

The student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 agreed that the language education policies implemented by the Malaysian Education Ministry in their school had influenced their use of English and Malay. The shift in the medium of instruction for the science subjects, as a result of the change of language management, also changed the perception of her schoolmates towards English. Their perception towards the importance of English by her schoolmates was decreased because English was no more to be used as the medium of instruction and examinations. Consequently, they also decreased their English language practice in the school settings.

This is because the efforts of language manager are not only intervening the language practice of the people they managed, but also their language ideology (see Spolsky, 2004).

Extract 11

NST3: Used by the students?

Researcher: I mean comparing the period when implementing PPSMI with now.

NST3: The language use of the students has gone back to the BM totally.

Researcher: Their language use has gone back. Means that during

NST3: Of course those who speak English at home, are those have better exposure in English. They do try to speak to us in English.

It can be seen that what had been claimed by the student interviewees, in terms of switching the medium of instruction, was also endorsed by the teacher interviewee NST3. Based on her own observations, she agreed that the language practice of the students in the national secondary schools had shifted from English to Malay. It is deduced this is the impact of top-down curriculum policy where it may affect the students.

Since this is the actual practice of the school, she did not deny that there were also some students who may be using English as the communication language in the school settings. Nonetheless, the teacher interviewee believed that these students were those who had been exposed to English in their family domain.

As language ideology is the general and consensual set of beliefs about appropriated language and language use shared by member of the same speech community (Spolsky, 2009). The teacher interviewee described the pattern of language use of the students who had exposure to English. These students use English in both school and family domains.

6.2.2 Impact of language management on the language ideology of the Malaysian secondary school students

The language education policies implemented in the Malaysian secondary schools also showed an influence on the language ideology of the students, as seen in some of the individuals

a) Impact of language management on student interviewees' language ideology in the Chinese Independent high school

Extract 12

CIS1: 什么改变?我们都一直觉得学好英语很重要。尤其是我们毕业后继续深造时需要。

[CIS1: What (kind of) changes? We always felt that being proficient in English is very important. Especially (it is) indeed needed when we go to further our study after graduating.]

The implementation of the macro and micro language education policies by the Chinese Independent high school did not influence the student interviewee's language ideology towards English. It was always agreed that English is important for CIS1's future advancement. It was claimed that English would be used as the dominant education and communication language for his tertiary study; upon finishing from the Chinese Independent high school, he may be attending private colleges and universities which use only English.

In this context, the importance of English for his future advancement was how CIS think what should be done by him without language manager. This is because there is no intervention of language use by the language manager – the administrators and the teachers in the school setting.

b) Impact of language management on student interviewees' language ideology in the national-type secondary school

Extract 13

NTS2: 没有。

[NTS2: No.]

研究员: 没有。还是你坚持你认为你觉得华语重要, 所以你坚持还是一直用华语。

[Researcher: No. You still think Mandarin is important, therefore you still insist on practising Mandarin.]

研究员: 那么有没有改变你对英文的看法呢?

[Researcher: Has it (language management) changed you perception toward English?]

NTS1: 我认为没有。

[NTS1: I don't think so.]

NTS1: 因为我一向都认为它是最重要的语言。

[NTS1: Because I always think it (English) is important.]

The macro language education policies passed by the Malaysian Education Ministry and implemented in the national-type secondary schools did not show any influence on the language ideology of the student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 towards the languages of Mandarin and English.

Irvine and Gal stated that through language ideology, people are able to show how they may framed the language varieties based on their understanding towards the language varieties (Abongdia & Foncha, 2014).

Student interviewee NTS1 perceived English to be an important international language; it is the education language and an important language for her self-advancement. It was also perceived to be a communication and business language which can be used with all ethnicities. Also student interviewee NTS2 perceived Mandarin as the important education and communication language.

As found in Parba (2018), the language users will not have a shift of language ideology and language practice if they have favourable attitudes towards their language use. For example, the Philippines will at odds with Filipino was used because of their

attitude of loyalty towards the language (Dumanig et al., 2012).

The student interviewees NTS1 and NTS2 denied that the changes of the language education policies implemented in the school had influenced their language ideology towards English and Mandarin. Based on this, it is deduced that the authorities may change the language education policies, but the policies may not change the student interviewees' perception towards the importance of these languages.

c) Impact of language management on student interviewees' language ideology in the national secondary school

Extract 14

研究员:那么你们的学校里面因为没有这个限制,所以你觉得以前的时候数理英化的那个时代和现在的MBMMBI的这个时代有影响到你们怎样去看英文、怎样看马来文吗?有影响吗?

[Researcher: Since the *PPSMI* was no more implemented in the school, did the *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI* policies affect your perception toward English?]

NSS2: 有。

[NSS2: Yes.]

NSS1: 会。

[NSS1: Will.]

研究员: 怎样影响咧?

[Researcher: How did it affect it?]

NSS2:如果真的改成全部马来文的话,那学生就会认为英语不重要。反正考试也不会用到、读书也不会用到。

[NSS2: If all (the medium of instruction of the science subjects) are shifted to Malay, the students will think English is not important. It is not being used for examination, for study anyway.]

The student interviewees NSS1 and NSS2 also agreed that the language management implemented in the national secondary schools had influenced their schoolmates' Malay language ideology.

As mentioned before, the shift of the medium of instruction of the science subjects from English to Malay by the Malaysian Education Ministry, may have caused the students of the national secondary school to change their perceptions of the importance of English and Malay.

The students were no longer perceiving English as an important education language in the teaching and learning of the Science subjects. Moreover, English was also no longer perceived by their schoolmates to be the important medium of examination for the science subjects.

Ochs and Schieffelin (1984) and Schieffelin (1990) found out that, language ideology is a way to explain language learner's language acquisition studies. In this study, the students' perception towards English may change according to the changes of language policy implemented in the school. The students of the studied national secondary perceived English as important language during the implementation of *PPSMI*. However, their perception of the importance of this language was changed because of the change to language policy.

Chua (2012) English proficiency level of Malaysian students were compromised because of inconsistency of language planning. The importance of Malay and English is inconsistency because the language planning was shuttling between Malay and English.

It appears as if among the students from the national secondary school, the perception of Malay as an important language has grown stronger. This is because Malay was used as the medium of instruction for the teaching and learning of more subjects that are currently offered in the national secondary schools.

6.2.3 Impact of language management on the language practice of the Malaysian secondary school teachers

The implementation of the language education policies in the Malaysian secondary schools apparently influence the language practice of the teachers in these schools.

a) Impact of language management on the teacher interviewees' language practice in the Chinese Independent high school

Extract 15

CIT1: 就是我的工作环境里面。强化也好，巩固也好。因为我们之前数理也不会用英语在教。就是没有跟到这个syllabus在走。所以它其实影响并不大。

[CIT1: In my working environment, we didn't 'upholding' or 'strengthening', because we did not implement the *PPSMI*, I mean, we did not implement this syllabus, therefore the impact was not great.]

CIT2: Dasar pendidikan negara? Inilah apa tu? Yang bertutur atau hanya?

[CIT2: National language policy? What is it? Only in oral?]

CIT2: Saya tak berapa, apatu? nak mencapai ke tahap yang manalah? Yang apa yang kami buat, objektif? contohnya objektif yang hendak disampaikan dalam kelas?]

[CIT2: I don't really know, what is that? Up to which level it wants to achieve? What should we do, what is the objective? for example what is the objective that we need to convey in the class?]

As mentioned by the teacher interviewee CIT1 the Chinese Independent high school as a private school does not generally apply the syllabus designed by the Malaysian Education Ministry except for those students who are sitting for the public examinations (*SRP/PMR/PT3* and *SPM*) conducted by the *LPM*.

Since the language education policies - the *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI* were designed by the Malaysian Education Ministry, these two language education policies were not implemented in the Chinese Independent high school. The teacher interviewee CIT2 was not even aware about the policies.

Although there are language education policies implemented in the school by the administrators, these language education policies do not have much impact on the language practice of the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school.

This is because the language policies set by the Malaysian government were meant for the students in the Malaysian government-sponsored schools only. In the Chinese Independent high school, the teachers were free to use whatever language as the tool of their communication, and this is predominantly Mandarin, used by the

Chinese teachers and students, and English by the English subject teachers and students. Based on this, it is deduced that the macro language education policies designed and implemented by the Malaysian Education Ministry do not have any impact on the language practice of the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school.

As defined by Spolsky (2004), language management is the efforts of the manager to execute the designed language policy onto the students. In the school domain, the teachers will play the role as the manager and their language is used as usual. Furthermore, the teacher interviewees were teaching in a private secondary school which does not need to execute all the language education policy designed by the government. As a result, their language practice in the school would not be influenced by non-executed language policies.

b) Impact of language management on teacher interviewees' language practice in the national-type secondary school

Extract 16

研究员:Ok, 那么我们来看一下, 就是PPSMI的时候和现在MBMMBI的时候, 它是否有改变了您的语言的使用?

[Researcher: Ok. Let's see whether during the period of *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI*, the policies have changed your language practice.]

NTT1: 没有。

[NTT1: No.]

研究员: 没有。为什么呢?

[Researcher: No. Why?]

NTT1: 因为我觉得可能是我没有教数理吧。

[NTT1: I think maybe because I do not teach Mathematics.]

The two implemented language education policies in the school – *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI* - did not show any impact on the language practice of the teachers in the school. One of the reasons is that the implemented language education policies were designed for the subjects of Science and Mathematics only.

As defined by Spolsky (2004), language management is the efforts by the language managers on the language practice and language ideology of the people. He

also proposed that there is an individual or a group as the language manager who instructs the efforts to manipulate the language practice of the speech community. Since the teacher interviewees were not teaching the subjects of Science and Mathematics, the impact of the language management on their language practice was minimal.

Furthermore, according to teacher interviewee NTT3 who was an English subject teacher, using English as the education language in the classroom setting is compulsory, whilst using English as the communication language is possibly habitual when communicating with other teachers of Chinese and Indian ethnicity. In the case of teacher interviewee NTT1, to communicate with teachers of the same ethnicity she used Mandarin; with teachers of Indian ethnicity, she used English and with teachers of Malay ethnicity she used Malay.

c) Impact of language management on the teachers' language practice in the national secondary schools

Extract 17

Researcher: Ok, then how about the teachers? When comparing that time, the *PPSMI* time and comparing to now. Has there been any change in the language used?

NST3: They try to use, they try to use?

NST3: Here and there. On and off.

NST3: ... A little bit, that's all.

The implementation of the language education policies of *PPSMI* in the national secondary schools showed that there was some increase in English language practice frequency by the teachers in the school. Teacher interviewee NST3 agreed that some of the teachers tried their best to use English during the period when the language policies were implemented in the national secondary schools.

Extract 18

Penyelidik: Dari segi amalan bahasa?

[Researcher: From the perspective of language practice?]

NST2: Sama saja.

[NST2: The same.]

The teacher interviewee NST2 as a Malay language teacher denied that there was any impact caused by the language education policies implemented in the school on her language practice. She claimed that there was no change in her language practice before and after the language education policies were implemented in the school. As mentioned by the teacher interviewee NST1, ethnicity was the determinant of the language choice of the teachers in the school settings. For example, Malay is the language choice for Malays, Mandarin is for Chinese and English is for Indians.

Based on this, it is deduced that the implementation of the language education policies in the Malaysian secondary schools has an impact only on the language practice of the teachers who were teaching the subjects of Science and Mathematics, as was mentioned in the language education policies concerned but not for the teachers who were not directly involved in the policies.

6.2.4 Impact of language management on the language ideology of the Malaysian secondary school teachers

The implementation of the language education policies in the school settings of the Malaysian secondary school did not show any influence on the language ideology of the teachers towards English, Malay and Mandarin.

a) Impact of language management on the teacher interviewees' language ideology in the Chinese Independent high school

The teacher interviewees of the Chinese Independent high school do not agree that the changes in the language education policies that were designed and promulgated by the Malaysian Education Ministry had any impact on their language ideology towards the three languages practised in the school setting.

This is because the Chinese Independent high school did not implement the language education policies that were designed and promulgated by the Malaysian

Education Ministry. However, the teachers of the school perceived the three languages as an important communication and education languages.

b) Impact of language management on the teacher interviewees' language ideology in the national-type secondary school

Extract 19

NTT1: 我觉得没有。因为我们是国民型。所以国民型的话呢，变成说我们是华人，然后我们是以华语为主。所以我们很自然是用华文沟通。

[NTT1: I don't think so. Because we are in a national-type secondary school. In a national-type secondary school, for us Chinese Mandarin is the dominant language. Therefore we naturally (automatically) communicate in Mandarin.]

Teacher interviewee NTT1 denied that the implemented language education policies had impacted her language ideology towards the three languages.

In the national-type secondary school, the majority of the students and teachers were of Chinese ethnicity. In this school, Mandarin symbolises the dominant communication language of the national-type secondary school.

Based on this, it is deduced that the teachers interviewed in the school perceived Mandarin as the icon of the national-type secondary school. Furthermore, the changes brought about by the language education policies designed and promulgated by the Malaysian Education Ministry which focus on either English or Malay as the media of instruction for Science and Mathematics, did not influence their perception towards the importance of Mandarin.

**c) Impact of language management on the teacher interviewees' language ideology
in the national secondary school**

Extract 20

Penyelidik: Tapi kalau kita pandang dulu kita ada *PPSMI* sekarang ni kita *MBMMBI*, jadi pelaksanaan kedua polisi ini, ada tak mengubahkan persepsi puan terhadap bahasa Inggeris, bahasa Melayu atau bahasa Cina?

[Researcher: But considering before this there was the PPSMI and now we have MBMMBI, it's the implementation of these policies, changed your perceptions towards English, Malay or Mandarin?]

NST2: Sama.

[NST2: It's the same.]

The teacher interviewee NST2 also denied that the implemented language education policies would impact on her language ideology towards English, Malay and Mandarin in the school setting.

Extract 21

NST2: Rasanya saya, sepatutnya semua bahasa kena wajib lulus, pada saya. Sebab kalau kita menafikan hak yang lain, ah, penggunaan bahasa ibunda itu akan terhapus.

[NST2: For me, all the languages should have to be passed in the final exam. Because if we denied the others' rights, the usage of the mother tongue will vanish.]

The teacher interviewee NST2 perceived the three languages taught in the school as being equally important, and so they should have compulsory passes for the students who signed up for the languages. She also perceived the learning of the languages to be the right of the students. If the students' right to use the languages was denied, these languages would vanish. Based on this, it is deduced that the language education policies implemented in the school would not change the teacher's language ideology towards the three languages.

6.3 Summary

Various language education policies have been implemented in the Malaysian secondary schools. These comprise the language education policies designed and promulgated by the Malaysian Education Ministry, the administrators of the schools and the teachers of the schools.

The implementation of the language education policies showed a significant influence on the language practice and language ideology of some students of the Malaysian secondary schools. The language management of the Chinese Independent high school had the greatest impact on the language practice of students. The students and teachers of the Chinese Independent high school not only must use English when they are at the Just English center, but the students must pass the English subject. This is implemented and practised by the teachers and students of the school.

Though the *PPSMI* language policy was implemented in the national-type secondary school and national secondary school, English was not used by the *PPSMI* subject teachers as the medium of instruction in the classroom setting. The language management only had an impact on the language practice of some students who positively perceived the importance of English in the national secondary school for example the student interviewees. They went for tuition classes for the *PPSMI* subjects, where English was medium of instruction.

Furthermore, the language management had the least impact on language practice of national-type secondary school students. The teachers of *PPSMI* subjects did not conduct the lesson by using English as the medium of instruction; the ethnicity of the teachers determined the language practice of students.

However, the influence of the implemented language education policies showed a comparatively, different influence on the teachers of the Malaysian secondary schools.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter looked at how the language management or language policies implemented by the Malaysian Ministry of Education as well as the schools concerned, affect the language practice and language ideology of the students and teachers who were from three types of Malaysian secondary schools. This chapter is the last chapter of the thesis and in that regard, it attempts to bring the thesis to a conclusion. The summary of the outcomes, implications, limitation of the study will also be mentioned followed by some suggestions for future study to be done in the same area.

7.2 Language practice of Malaysian secondary school stakeholders

Undoubtedly, English, Malay and Mandarin, were observed to be used by the students and teachers as the medium of instruction as well as a communication language.

7.2.1 Language practice of the Malaysian secondary schools students

a) Language practice of the students of the Chinese Independent high school

In the Chinese Independent high school, it was noted that Mandarin was used as the H variety language in all settings in the Chinese Independent high school because it is the language of the majority community. Malay was also used as the H variety language but only where the six Malay teachers were concerned and English was also used as the H variety language at the Just English center when student were communicating with their English teachers.

b) Language practice of the students of the national-type secondary school

Mandarin was used as the H variety language for intra-ethnicity communication, Malay and English were used as the H variety language for inter-ethnicity communication by students of the national-type secondary school. Malay was also used as the H variety

language when used as a medium of instruction but Mandarin and English were used as the L variety language in the context of being a medium of instruction in the national-type secondary school.

c) Language practice of students of the national secondary school

Malay was used as the H variety language in inter- and intra-ethnicity communication language in the presence of Malay students. In contrast, English and Mandarin served as the L variety language in the national secondary school. English was used as the L variety language because it was only used by students when communicating with their English teachers of Indian ethnicity. Mandarin served as the L variety language by the students they were not with their teachers or students of other ethnicity in the school settings.

7.2.2 Language practice of the Malaysian secondary school teachers

a) Language practice of the teachers of the Chinese Independent high school

Mandarin was used as the H variety language among the teachers in the school when with the presence of teachers of other ethnicities, non-academic staff of the same ethnicity and those of different ethnicity. English and Malay are the L variety language of medium of instruction in the school. English and Malay were the H variety used during the inter-ethnicity communication held in the school among the teachers.

b) Language practice of the teachers of the national-type secondary school

Mandarin was noted to be the H variety language in the national-type secondary school. Mandarin was used as a dominant intra-ethnicity communication language by the Chinese teachers when communicating with the administrators, Chinese teachers and all other students in the school. Malay was used as H variety language of medium of instruction in the school and communication language in the school assemblies, administration meetings and administrative office. English was used as the H variety

language for inter-ethnicity communication with the Indian teachers regardless of the subjects taught in the school.

c) Language practice of the teachers of the national secondary school

Mandarin was used as L variety language for communication because the population of the students and teachers who were proficient in Mandarin was very small. Malay was practised as the H variety language for communication among the Malay teachers even though they were teaching the English subject. The Malay teachers preferred to use Malay among the Malay teachers in the school setting. Malay was also used as H variety language of medium of instruction in the school. English was used as the H variety language by some of the English teachers who were of Indian ethnicity in the classroom setting and for communication with the Chinese teachers.

In this country, most Malaysians are educated within an environment that aims to train them up to become bilingual. Thus, all the schools in this country teach Malay and English at the same time. The formal education system expects the Malaysian students to become bilingual at some point of their education since the country's education system also allowed for vernacular languages at the primary level. This is in line with the nations' goal of turning the students to become bilingual or even trilingual.

7.3 Language ideology of Malaysian secondary school stakeholders

Overall, the findings of this study indicate that the students and teachers from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools have positive perceptions towards English, Malay and Mandarin.

7.3.1 Language ideology of the Malaysian secondary school students

The findings have shown that the students from the national-type and national secondary schools held the same perception towards the three languages in the

integrative, instrumental and cultural orientations.

a) Language ideology of the students of the Chinese Independent high school

The findings showed the students of Chinese Independent high school did not see any of the two languages were more prestige than the other. It is to suggest that the students did not presumed one language is more important than the other.

b) Language ideology of the students of the national-type secondary school

In the national-type secondary school, the students 'agree' with the importance of English and Mandarin in all the three orientations. However, they were 'neutral' with the importance of Malay in all the three orientations.

c) Language ideology of the students of the national secondary school

In the national secondary school, the students 'agree' with the importance of English and Mandarin in all the three orientations but they were 'neutral' with the importance of Malay in all the three orientations.

The findings of this study suggest that the student respondents in the three types of Malaysian secondary schools agreed with the importance of English and Mandarin but they were neutral with the importance of Malay. This showed the students were agreed with the importance of Malay but at the same time they were disagreed with the importance of Malay. As evidenced, the students agreed Malay is the official language in Malaysia specifically in the government offices; the dominant medium of instruction in the school; the dominant communication language when communicating with the Malay interlocutors. However, the students did not agree with Malay as the important medium of instruction in the level of universities and colleges; the important communication language when they travel oversea; the important communication in the private sector.

7.3.2 Language ideology of the Malaysian secondary school teachers

The findings of this study also indicate that the teachers from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools held different perceptions towards the three languages.

a) Language ideology of the teachers of the Chinese Independent high school

The teachers of the school 'neutral' with the importance of English and Malay because these languages were used as the L varieties by the Chinese teachers and the students of the school when they were communicating with the English and Malay subject teachers who were non-Chinese. However, the teachers 'agree' with the importance of English as the dominant communication language for future advancement of the students when they travel or study overseas; and working in the private sector after graduated from the Chinese Independent high school.

The teachers of the school 'agreed' with the importance of Mandarin - the dominant communication language used by the majority group of the school teachers and students; and the dominant medium of instruction for most of the subjects offered in the school. The teachers also disagreed with the importance of Mandarin because English was to be the important communication language and as the medium of instruction in the private universities and colleges when the students graduated from the school. This finding showed the teachers of Chinese Independent high school were 'neutral' with the importance of Mandarin.

b) Language ideology of the teachers of the national-type secondary school

The teachers' perception towards the importance of English were 'neutral' to 'agree' in the three orientations of integrative, instrumental and cultural. However, their perception towards the importance of Malay and Mandarin in all the three orientations was 'neutral'.

The teachers 'agreed' with the importance of English because English was used by the Chinese teachers and students as the majority group in the school during their

inter-ethnicity communication with the Indian teachers. English was further perceived as the international language and important communication language in the private sector.

The teachers perceived Mandarin as the icon of the national-type secondary school. However, it was used only in the informal settings.

Malay was not only used as the dominant medium of instruction, the school administrators converged to using Malay as the dominant communication language in the formal settings of assemblies and meetings for long term instead of Mandarin.

Therefore, the teachers of the school were neither agree nor disagree with the importance of both the languages – Malay and Mandarin in the national-type secondary schools.

c) Language ideology of the teachers of the national secondary school

The teachers' perception about the importance of English and Mandarin in all the three orientations of integrative, instrumental and cultural was 'neutral'. Nonetheless, their perception about the importance of Malay in all the three orientations was between 'neutral' to 'agree'.

The Chinese teachers of the school used English during inter-ethnicity communication when they were communicating with the Indian teachers; and Mandarin was used for intra-ethnicity communication when they were communicating with the Chinese teachers. These languages were not used by the Malay teachers because their language choice was to use Malay as the intra- and inter-ethnicity communication language when with the teachers in the school.

Therefore the teachers of the national secondary school with Malay teachers as the majority group were 'neutral' with the importance of English and Mandarin but 'agree' with the importance of Malay.

The findings of this study hereby indicate that the teachers from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools perceive the importance of the three languages differently. The teachers from the three types of school do not perceive Mandarin to be important, in fact they treat Mandarin as neutral. English was considered an important language by the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school and the national-type secondary school. Malay was perceived to be an important language by the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school and national secondary schools.

7.4 Correlation between language practice and language ideology of Malaysian secondary school stakeholders

Based on the outcome of the analysis, the correlation indicating the significance between language practice and language ideology of the teachers was noted to be averagely higher than the students.

7.4.1 Correlation between language practice and language ideology of Malaysian secondary school students

Based on the analysis, it appears that the correlation indicating the significance between language practice and language ideology of students showed a different strength for a different language.

a) Correlation between language practice and language ideology of the students of the Chinese Independent high school

The language practice and language ideology of the students from the Chinese Independent high school has ‘weak’ and positive correlation in English and Mandarin but they showed a ‘very weak’ and ‘weak’ and positive correlation in Malay.

The analysis showed the students used English and Mandarin more frequent than Malay and they were more agreed with the importance of English and Mandarin than

Malay.

b) Correlation between language practice and language ideology of the students of the national-type secondary school

The language practice and language ideology of the students from the national-type secondary school has a 'very weak' and 'weak' and positive correlation in English, Malay and Mandarin.

The analysis showed the students of the national-type secondary school used the three languages similarly frequent and they perceived the three languages similarly important.

c) Correlation between language practice and language ideology of the students of the national secondary school

The language practice and language ideology of the students from the national secondary school showed a 'very weak' and positive correlation in English and Mandarin. However, it showed a 'very weak' to 'weak' and positive correlation in Malay.

The analysis showed the students of national secondary school used Malay more frequent than English and Mandarin and they also were more agreeable with the importance of Malay than English

The findings noted from this study suggest that the students from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools have 'very weak' and 'positive' correlation strength between their language practice and their language ideology in Malay. This implies that the students' perception about the importance of Malay is high but their language practice is low.

The analysis showed the students' correlation strength between their language practice and their perception towards the importance of English and Mandarin ranged between 'very weak' to 'weak', this implies their language practice of these two

languages was more frequent than their language practice of Malay and they were also more agreeable with the importance of English and Mandarin than Malay.

7.4.2 Correlation between language practice and language ideology of Malaysian secondary school teachers

The language practice and language ideology of the teachers from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools reflect a negative correlation in Malay.

a) Correlation between language practice and language ideology of the teachers of the Chinese Independent high school

The language practice and language ideology of the teachers from the Chinese Independent high school showed a 'moderate' correlation in English. However, it showed a 'strong' correlation in Malay while showing a 'moderate' to 'strong' correlation in Mandarin.

The teachers have positive correlation between their language practice and language ideology in English and Mandarin but they have a negative correlation in Malay. This implies that the degree of agreement with the importance of Malay by the teachers of Chinese Independent high school was very high but their frequency of using Malay is very low when comparing with English and Mandarin.

b) Correlation between language practice and language ideology of the teachers of the national-type secondary school

The language practice and language ideology of the teachers from the national-type secondary school showed a 'weak' and positive correlation in English. However, it showed a 'weak' to 'moderate' and positive correlation in Malay whilst showing a 'weak' to 'strong' and positive correlation in Mandarin.

This study showed the teachers of national-type secondary school used Mandarin most frequent, then Malay and English. They also more agreed with the

importance of Mandarin than Malay and English.

c) Correlation between language practice and language ideology of the teachers of the national secondary school

The language practice and language ideology of the teachers from the national secondary school showed a 'very weak' and positive correlation strength in English. However, it showed a 'very weak' to 'moderate' but positive correlation strength in Malay whilst showing a 'very weak' to 'weak' but positive correlation strength in Mandarin.

The correlation strength showed the teachers used English the least frequent among English, Malay and Mandarin but they used Malay with the most frequent in the national secondary school.

In addition, the finding of this study suggest that the teachers from the national-type and national secondary schools need to improve their English language practice. The correlation strength between their language practice and language ideology of English showed a 'weak' but positive and a 'very weak' but positive correlation respectively. Malay is the dominant medium of instruction and English is the second most important language in all Malaysian government-sponsored schools. It is assumed that all the Malaysian students and teachers were proficient in the both languages.

In the government-sponsored secondary schools specifically the national-type secondary school and national secondary school in this study, the dominant medium of instruction for the subjects offered in the school was Malay except for the subjects of English which was in English and Mandarin which was in Mandarin. The chances for the teachers and students of these schools to use English was limited. Therefore, it was suggested the teachers could use more in English with the students during the informal settings for instance the library and canteen settings.

However, the use of Mandarin was not suggested because the Malay teachers were not proficient in Mandarin.

7.5 Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of Malaysian secondary school stakeholders

This study showed that the implementation of the language management imposed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education had an impact on the language practice and language ideology of the stakeholders in the three languages.

7.5.1 Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of Malaysian secondary school students

The findings of this study clearly showed that there were significant impact on the language practice and language ideology of the students as a result of the implementation of the language management in the Malaysian secondary schools.

a) Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of the students of the Chinese Independent high school

From the perspective of the Chinese Independent high school, it appears that the implementation of the school's language management had an impact on their students in several ways. As a result of the 'Speak Only English', 'No English dictionary to be used in the Just English center' and English is a compulsory pass subject in the examinations organised by the school, the students used English more positively. In addition, the frequency of their language practice also increased. The students also perceived the importance of the language more positively.

b) Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of the students of the national-type secondary school

From the perspective of the national-type secondary school, it seems that the implementation and abolishment of the *PPSMI* policy had also created a sense of language management in the school. This imposition definitely had an impact on the language practice of the students.

The implementation of the policy and the abolishment of the policy created a need for the use of English as well as a vacuum, subsequently. When the policy was still on-going, the language management in the school encouraged the use of English and so the frequency of English language practice of the students increased. However, when it was abolished in 2012, the students' frequency of the English language practice also dropped.

c) Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of the students of the national secondary school

From the perspective of the national secondary school, it appears that the implementation and abolishment of the *PPSMI* also impacted the language management in the school. This also affected the students' language practice and language ideology.

During the implementation of the *PPSMI* policy, the students had perceived English as an important language. However, when the language management was reverted from English to Malay in 2012, their perception about the importance of English also changed.

The findings of this study showed that language management is one of the determining factors of students' language practice and language ideology in Malaysian secondary schools.

7.5.2 Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of Malaysian secondary school teachers

The implementation of the language management in Malaysian secondary schools did not show any significant impact on the language practice and language ideology of the teachers.

a) Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of the teachers of the Chinese Independent high school

The findings indicate that the Chinese Independent high school had implemented the Speak Only English in the Just English center and English was a compulsory pass subject for the school's examination, the policies were targeted at the students. The aim was to ensure that all the three languages were used at the same rate by the students in the school settings but did not have a significant impact on the language practice and language ideology of the teachers towards English, Malay and Mandarin.

b) Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of the teachers of the national-type secondary school

From the perspective of the national-type secondary school, it appears that the implementation and abolishment of the language management based on the *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI* policies had only impacted the language practice of the teachers who need to execute the language management per the *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI* policies. Although the teacher interviewees involved in this study were teaching the subjects of English, Malay and Mandarin, the implementation of the language management per the two policies, did not impact their language practice and language ideology, whether directly or indirectly.

c) Impact of language management on language practice and language ideology of the teachers of the national secondary school

From the perspective of the national secondary school, the implementation and abolishment of the language management per the *PPSMI* and *MBMMBI* policies had only impacted the language practice of the teachers who had to execute the language management because they were teaching the *PPSMI/MBMMBI* subjects.

The finding of this study showed that the implementation of the language management in Malaysian secondary schools did not have any impact on the language practice and language ideology of the teachers who were the executors of the language management imposed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education. In fact, these teachers were the determining factors of their students' language practice in the school settings.

7.6 Importance of Multilingualism in Malaysia

One of the important findings in this study regarding the language practice is the language choice of the teacher interviewees of the schools determined by the ethnicities of the interlocutors. For example the Chinese teacher interviewees used Mandarin to the Chinese teachers, Malay to the Malay teachers and English to the Indian teachers.

Though this fashion of language practice shows multilingualism, it is determined by the 'relationship between races' (Chua, 2012), all ethnicities agreed that language is the most salient ethnic identity for the university students (Muriatul & Ting, 2015), and Malay, the official language of Malaysia is rejected by many non-Bumiputras because it is not perceived as a neutral language (Coluzzi, 2017).

The Singaporeans are able to excel in English because the language is 'neutral' to all ethnic groups in the country and they have equal opportunity to learn the language (Chua, 2012). English has an estimated 1.5 billion speakers (Crystal, 2000) in the world but it has only 378 million native speakers (Simons et al, 2018). This implies there are

more people speak English as second language or as foreign language than as first language.

Over the 60 years, Malaysian government has established a strong foundation in producing Malaysians who are proficient in English, Malay and Mandarin through the school domain.

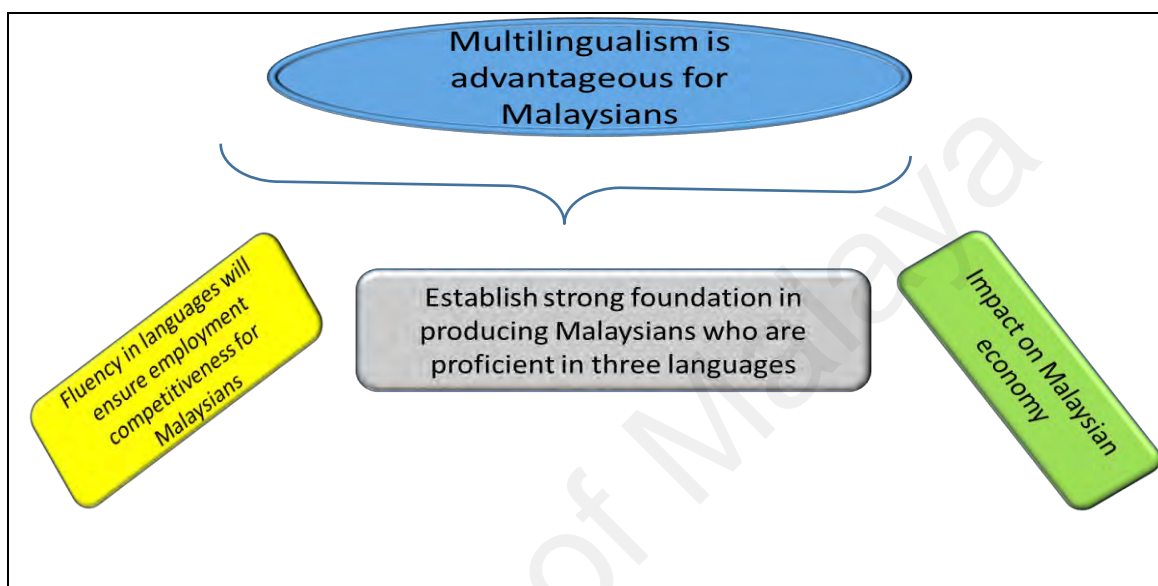


Figure 7.1: Importance of Multilingualism in Malaysia

Malaysia as a post British colonial country, English is ‘deeply rooted’ and here, it is suggested to be used as the tool to make our country become advance and capitalised. English is important for ‘internationalisation’ and ‘globalisation’ purposes.

English is perceived as an international language because it is being used in 118 countries. It is one of the six formal languages in the United National and as the only formal language in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). Malaysian students learn English for more than ten years in the schools but they are unable to speak the language fluently. The foreigners still can easily get by in Malaysia though these foreigners do not know the national language the dominant communication language spoken by the majority group of Malaysia that is Malay language.

Malay is the only official language enacted in Malaysian Constitution. Together with English, Malaysian students learn Malay as compulsory subjects in the formal

education system from primary school level to university level. Malaysia is one of the influencing members of *MABBIM* (the Brunei-Indonesia-Malaysia Council). This is a regional organisation which is established to plan and monitor the development of Malay language. The government body *DBP* plays a very important role in coordinating the use of Malay language and Malay language literature. Together with the local authorities, the use of Malay is no more only in the government services. It has become more important and widely used in the business domain such as on the business signage and road-signs. The used of Malay is compulsory and being standardised.

Malaysia has maintained its position as a country with quality and systematic Mandarin language education besides Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan. This is because Malaysia has schools from primary (Chinese national-type primary schools), secondary (Chinese Independent high school) and tertiary (Southern University College) levels using Mandarin as the dominant medium of instruction.

Since so, Malaysians are easily accessible to these three languages and it is easy for the schools to produce polyglots who are competent in these three languages. Therefore, Malaysians have the advantageous to be polyglots.

According to the reports from Malaysian Statistics Department, low competency in English contributed unemployment of Malaysian graduates. Therefore, being a polyglot, having the fluency in Malay, English and Mandarin will ensure the employment competitiveness for Malaysians.

Furthermore, language competency may have impact on our economy by able to encourage more overseas investment from China (using Mandarin), Indonesia (using Malay) and other Asian countries (using English).

7.7 Implications of study

In Malaysian context, the students are stakeholders who are being targeted in the language education policies which were designed and implemented in the education domain group. The determining factors that may influence the language practice of the students shows two patterns:

i) The non-government sponsored secondary schools

The Chinese Independent high school is the investigated non-government-sponsored secondary school. The language use of the students in Chinese Independent high school was influenced by: i) language management imposed by the administrators, ii) medium of instruction used by the teachers during the teaching and learning process, iii) language ideology of the subject teacher towards the medium of instruction used for the subject, iv) language choice of the subject teacher in the classroom setting, and v) a conducive learning environment (see Figure 7.2).

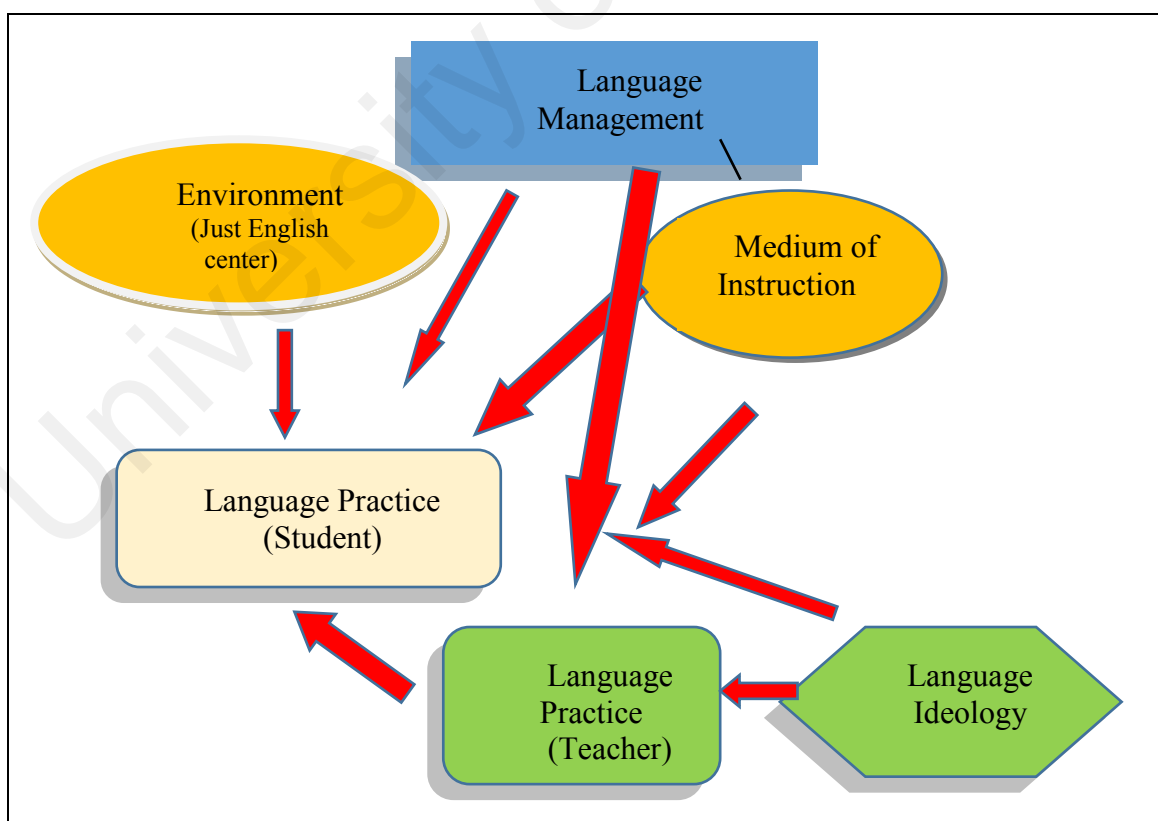


Figure 7.2: Factors influencing the language practice of Chinese Independent high school students

ii) The government-sponsored secondary schools

There are two types of government-sponsored secondary school being investigate in this study, the national-type secondary school and the national secondary school.

However, there are fewer factors influencing the language use of the students (see Figure 7.3), comparing to the factors that influencing the students of the Chinese Independent high school.

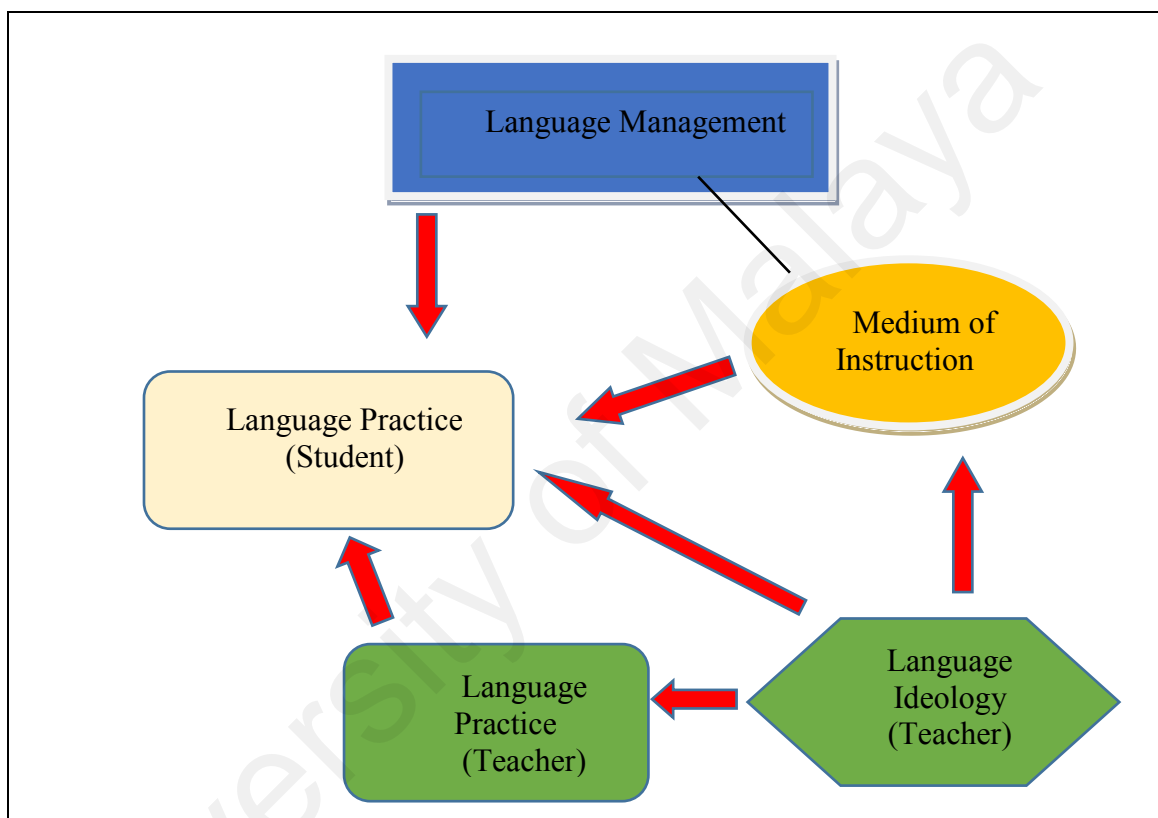


Figure 7.3: Factors influencing the language practice of national-type secondary school and national secondary school students

‘A conducive learning environment’ does not exist as the factor that influencing the language use of the students in the studied government-sponsored schools. However, the absent of this factor does not mean the students of the non-government-sponsored secondary school learnt the language/s better than the students of government-sponsored secondary schools.

On the other hand, it is to say the students of the government-sponsored schools are having less motivating factor for their learning of the language/s.

The findings of this study shows implications in three aspects, the theoretical, pedagogical and methodological implications.

i. Theoretical implication

As posited by Spolsky (2004, 2009), language management, language ideology, and language practice are the three components to be studied when studying the language policies implemented in a language community.

The researcher of this study strongly recommend the authority, the government and/or the school administrators has/have to be seriously have the effort to provide a conducive environment for the language learning to their students as what has been provided by the administrators of the Chinese Independent high school.

It could be difficult and unaffordable for the government or the school administrators to provide a building as the language learning center, because involves a big amount of budget. Furthermore, the number of national secondary schools and national-type secondary school in the country is far bigger than there are only 61 Chinese Independent high schools in Malaysia.

However, environment is an important factor that may motivate the students to use the language because through shifting to a new environment may confirm the readiness of the students to learn the language. Therefore, a language learning zone is recommended to be set up by the government or the school authority. This language learning zone is not necessary to be as big as a building, it can be in a size of a room or it can even be at an easily accessible open area. Language teachers can easily conduct more practical but relaxing activities at the language learning zone. Therefore, the researcher would like to propose this ‘environment’ as the **‘moderating factor’**.

Or it is to say that, when studying the language policy implemented in a language community, there are four components to be studied. The language management (the language policy), language ideology (the perceptions towards the

learning language), language practice (the output of the learning of language) and the ‘**language moderator**’. The role of the proposed ‘language moderator’ is to strengthen the relationship between the three components. The ‘language moderator’ is indeed important because the studied correlation strength between the language practice and language ideology of the student respondents of this study are of ‘very weak’ relationship. The proposed new relationship of the three components and the ‘language moderator’ in Spolsky’s Theory of Language Management is illustrated as Figure 7.4.

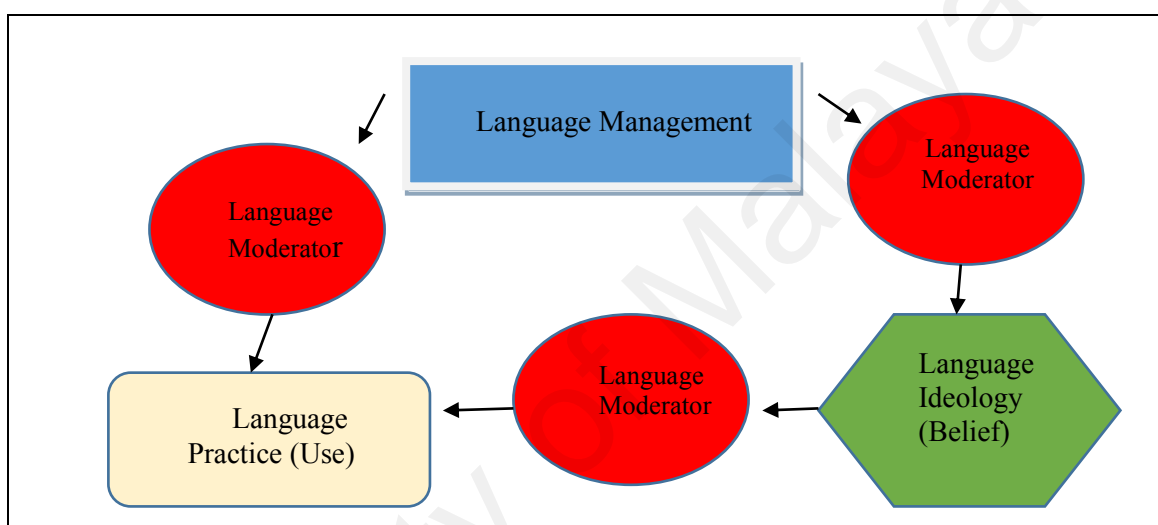


Figure 7.4: Proposed New Theory of Language Management

ii. Methodological implication

This study was conducted by using a mixed-methods approach which comprises the quantitative approach and the qualitative approach. The implication of this study is the researcher has successfully quantified the language practice of the student and teacher respondents by using questionnaires instead of only collecting the qualitative data.

The quantifying process is conducted through measuring the frequency of language use of the respondents by using Likert scale. This is important because it is difficult for the respondents especially the students in this study to describe their frequency of using a language through words and the respondents will feel the stress when they are answering the questions through interview session.

It is undeniable that using a questionnaire might cause the Hawthorne effects (people will modify their behaviour simply because they are being observed) that most properly happened in this study. However, this problem can be solved by using a better data collection method. The solving method will be further discussed in the next section, Suggestion for the future study.

Besides enabling the respondents to answer the questions in a more comfortable or informal setting comparing to interview session. Using a questionnaire enable the researcher to collect a vast quantity of data from different places and the outcome of the study will have bigger impact.

Though using a quantitative approach may bring many advantages to the researcher, the qualitative approach is equally important. The researcher may easily get a more in-depth answer immediately from the interviewees during the interview sessions. The researcher may get richer feedback from the interviewees because the interviewees may have the chance to give further explanation about the being asked questions comparing to using a questionnaire.

Therefore, by using a mix-methods approach in this study not only has provided a bigger picture about the fashion of language use by the student and teacher interviewees from the three types of Malaysian secondary schools. It provides a more concrete result on the language use by using figures (numbers) and a more in-depth understanding for the outsider, for example reader of this study may know the student interviewees of the national secondary school had code-switch from Mandarin to Malay when there is students or teachers of other ethnicities around; the student interviewee of the national-type secondary school had code-switch from English to Malay because being 'advised' by a high ethnocentrism Malay teacher in the school.

However, it would be good also if this study could have collected data through observation method.

iii. Pedagogical implication

As mentioned in the section 7.6 The importance of Multilingualism in Malaysia, Malaysians have big possibility to have multilingual competency. However, the finding of this study showed Malay teachers are with high ethnocentrism and they are the monoglots of Malay.

The researcher would suggest the authority change the name of the course to reduce the sensitivity between the language and the ethnicity. For example, the Malay language, is sometimes named as *Bahasa Malaysia* – literally as Malaysia Language, but sometimes it is named as *Bahasa Melayu* – literally as Malay Language. At the same time, Mandarin is named as *Bahasa Cina* – literally as Chinese Language.

This showed these languages are not neutral though these languages are not for a particular ethnicity. The teacher interviewee of national secondary school NST3 ever mentioned that English, Malay and Mandarin are equally important and these languages are used for communication. Therefore, in order to make these languages be neutral, the researcher would suggest Malay language to be named as Malaysia Language that is *Bahasa Malaysia* and Mandarin as *Bahasa Mandarin* to reduce inter-ethnicity sensitivity.

Furthermore, language is used for the purpose of communication so it may link the learners from different ethnicity together. On the other hand, the process of learning language/s may bring them together and the learner use the language/s not only for domestic communication, this/these language/s may also be used as the tool/s to communicate with the international interlocutors. Furthermore, the fear of assimilation through using the language of other ethnicity will be reduced. The researcher also proposes the indigenous languages in the country should also be learnt in the school settings. But the learning of indigenous languages is not for economics purposes but is to show there is no big language or there is no small language.

Before ending this study by some suggestions for the future study. The researcher would like to unveil the main limitation to this study for the reference of the future researcher.

When this study was conducted, the researcher faced many bureaucratic problems beginning from the time the administrators of the Malaysian secondary schools were approached to the actual materialisation of the study. To conduct this study and to find out what lies behind the Malaysian students' and teachers' language practice and language ideology, the researcher experienced many levels of rejections. Not only were the principals of some schools uninterested in a study of this nature even though it would enable the schools to learn more about their students and teachers language practice and management, there were also teachers who refused to answer the questionnaire by giving the reason that answering research questionnaire is not their scope of work as a teacher.

Since a study can only be conducted with the cooperation of the schools concerned, it is hereby recommended that the school administrators should change their mind set about studies and in particular future research that can be conducted within their school compound so that red-tapes can be reduced and collaboration can be instilled between researchers and the school citizens involving the teachers, administrators as well as students. It is also suggested that the Malaysian Ministry of Education have a research committee that can provide approvals to conduct research within 24 hours in every state education office. This can minimise time wastage and allow the research to be conducted with ease rather than making the researcher feel demoralised at every step of the way. For after all, there is no need to hide the truth and every research tells a story which can be used to make improvements.

It is also suggested that the targeted stakeholders such as the schools, students and teachers be more cooperative and be more willing to accept the invitation of the

researcher to be their participants so that they would be a part of the research revealing authentic information which may not be known by the authorities.

7.8 Suggestions for future study

The researcher likes to propose some suggestions for future study from the aspects of the Spolsky's Theory of Language Management and also the implications of this study.

i. The Spolsky's Theory of Language Management

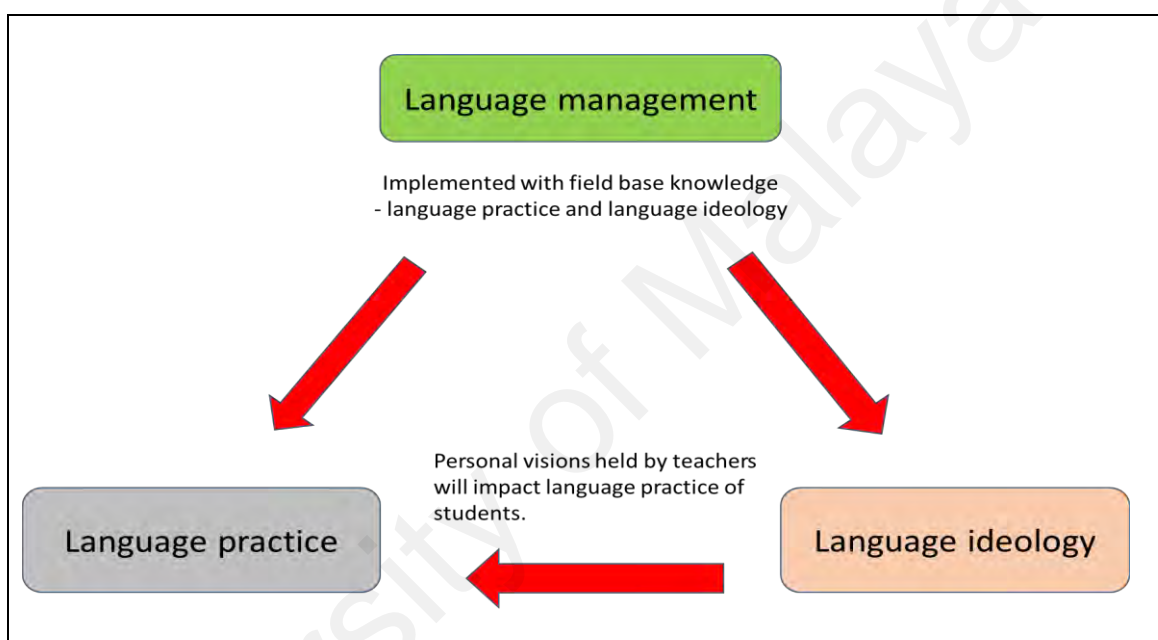


Figure 7.5: Suggestion for Language Education Policy Designing

This study was conducted by adopting Spolsky's Theory of Language Management (2009) to investigate the language education policy of Malaysia from three aspects: a) Language Management implemented in three types of secondary schools, b) Language ideology (perceptions) towards three language, and c) Language practice (use) of the students and teachers.

Basically the three components of Spolsky's Theory of Language Management would be the main consideration before the authority or the administrators design and implement a new policy as shown in Figure 7.5.

a) Language Management

The authority or administrator should have conducted some field research about the existing language practice and the language ideology of the targeted group and the targeted executors before a new policy is designed and implemented. Therefore, it is to say that the language management is going to be implemented needed to have field base knowledge of language practice and language ideology of the targeted group/s and the executor/s of the language policy.

b) Language ideology

This study showed the personal visions held by the teachers affected the language choice of the teachers. Therefore the preference language use of the executors (the teachers in this study) affected the language practice of the students through the language management implemented by the executor/s.

It is suggested in this study that the personal visions of the executors must be investigated by the authority to prevent the involvement of unproductive executors in the language management. Furthermore this may avoid the setting of unachievable objective/s of the language management.

c) Language practice

The learners of the language/s should have the confident with their language practice for the purpose of communication and not for the purpose of assimilation. This may change the attitude of the language users towards the perceived language. For example using the 'Malaysia Language' is for linking all the Malaysians. This may produce 'Malaysia Language' users with more positive perception toward the language.

Therefore, this study would suggest the authority should pay more attention with the acquisition planning of language learning than status planning and corpus planning.

ii. Implications of study

The researcher would like to give some suggestions for the future study through the theoretical, methodological and pedagogical aspects.

a) Theoretical aspect

As proposed by the researcher, a new component of ‘language moderator’ is existing in the implementation of a language policy. The ‘language moderator’ will help in strengthening the relationship between the components of language management, language ideology and language practice and help in succeeding the implementation of the designed language policy.

Therefore, more studies by using Spolsky’s Theory of Language Management in different domains are suggested to be conducted. These studies are suggested to using different research methods such as through observation, case study or even by using experimental design. The rationale for using more variety research method may unveil more and different factors that influence the language choice or the perception of the language users although they are in the same domain.

For example the ‘environment’ factor, experiment approach could be used to compare the language use of the students taught by teachers using the same teaching method but are from two different types of schools.

b) Methodological aspect

As suggested in the previous section, more and different research methods are suggested to be used for conducting the studies. The researcher also would like to suggest using different media and technology.

For example the issue of Hawthorne effects in this study can be solved through the use of 1Bestarinet (a project that connecting more than 10,000 government schools across Malaysia by using the YES 4G connectivity). Under this project, all the students, teachers and parents from the primary to secondary school level in Malaysia are having

an account to access the website.

Therefore, through using an online questionnaire such as the 'SurveyMonkey', the researcher will be able to conduct the study in these 10,000 government schools with the cost of free. The result of the suggested study will be rich and may give some contribution to the Big Data (a new trend using technology for data mining). The result of the study will be analysed by few steps and time saving.

This study was conducted by using the mix-methods approach by using the questionnaires and interview as research tools. By conducting an Observation method may help to reduce the possibility of happening of the Hawthorne effects. At the same time, by using observation research approach may serve for triangulation purpose.

Therefore, variety of research methods and media is suggested by researcher.

c) Pedagogical aspect

Some of the studies unveiled that the language teachers are unable to conduct their teaching in the targeted language in the classroom setting. Besides the problem of the language proficiency of the teachers, these teachers also do not have enough knowledge of teaching methodology or pedagogy.

The government or the administrators of the schools are suggested to organise more workshop or in-house training courses to their teachers to build their level of confident in teaching.

Other than the teachers, the students' level of confident also needs to be improved so it may help to create the interest to the students to learn the language/s. For example the school may conduct language camp for the students to practice the language/s they learnt.

It is hoped that the findings of this study can be used as a reference and guidelines by future researchers who are interested to conduct a study in this field so that they too would be able to produce more referential findings to the policy makers

who can then be able design better and more doable and practical language policies for the Malaysian secondary schools and students concerned. It is also hoped that as a result of this study, Malaysian schools would be able to produce more bilingual or trilingual Malaysians who are multilingual as this can project their communication ability as international communicators as part of their future success.

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