

**VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITY EFL TEACHERS’
CODE-SWITCHING
IN CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION**

Thi Hang Nguyen

2013

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Dedication

*To my beloved father and my precious daughter,
who are of great inspiration and motivation for my studies*

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ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), no material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signature: 

Name: Thi Hang Nguyen

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the under-explored phenomenon of code-switching practised by EFL teachers in classroom instruction in a Vietnamese setting. Among the foreign languages taught and learned in Vietnamese universities, English is the most popular.

The focus is on a cultural group of EFL teachers who share code-switching as a practice in their EFL classroom instruction, leading me to adopt ethnography as the methodology for the study. The research design involved data-driven analysis of 12 teachers' code-switching behaviour from four different main sources of information: classroom observations; class recordings; interviews with the observed teachers; and interviews with their students, together with field notes

The findings show that teachers practised code-switching very commonly in their English instruction, in five different forms. One of the most noticeable forms was their switching involving Vietnamese fillers or an English interjection. The teachers practised code-switching in many situations, which were divided into two categories: during instruction of language teaching units and during instruction of classroom process. It was evident in this study that teachers' practice of code-switching served both instructional and social functions, confirming many of the functions found in the literature. Furthermore, this study found that teachers code-switched due to various factors which derived from both teachers themselves and their students. One of the most noticeable teacher-related factors was their past education and habitual practice. The key student-related factors that led to teachers' code-switching were students' level of ability in English and their lack of motivation to speak English. Moreover, teachers' code-switching in this study did not seem to determine their students' different types of language behaviour in the classroom. Instead, there were other reasons involved, e.g. teachers' question style, students' motivation, and students' habitual practice. Vietnamese seemed to be of great importance to teachers in their English classroom in this context. Therefore, EFL teachers in the present study preferred a two-language policy rather than a policy of using only English in the classroom.

Based on the findings of the study, recommendations are provided for EFL teachers, as well as teacher educators and Vietnamese language policy makers, for situations where teachers' code-switching could be encouraged and many other situations where their

code-switching should generally be avoided. In particular, I recommend that teachers' over-translation from English into Vietnamese be discouraged in nearly all situations in EFL classes. Some of the findings of this study may be useful for English language teaching in other similar educational contexts, e.g., Asian countries, where code-switching in the English classroom is a common practice.

ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a foreign language

EL: Embedded language

FL: Foreign language

L1: Language one

L2: Language two

MLF: Matrix language frame

ML: Matrix language

SL: Second language

TL: Target language

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Code-switching, the alternate use of two different languages, is situated in the field of bilingualism and is seen as a common feature of those who speak two or more languages. Code-switching is usually approached from two different perspectives: linguistic and social, and it is thus defined differently. Exploring the phenomenon of code-switching in bilingual and social settings, many researchers place their focus mainly on its types and its functions (e.g., Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Poplack, 1980). Their studies set a good background for later researchers in other settings, in particular education (e.g., Canagarajah, 1995; Kang, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008; Liu, Ahn, Beak, & Han, 2004; Macaro, 2001; Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi, & Bunyi, 1992). In the classroom context, this phenomenon has attracted more and more educational researchers in their investigation into the different types of code-switching, its function, its effect on the speakers who employ it, and the reasons for code-switching. Code-switching occurs commonly in language classrooms around the world where teachers are teaching a foreign language (FL) or a second language (SL). The Vietnamese FL teaching context is no exception.

This thesis explores how university teachers of English in Vietnam practise code-switching between an FL (English) and Vietnamese (their first language) in their classroom instruction. The first two sections in this chapter highlight the study context and depict my FL background both as a learner and as a teacher of English. It continues with the rationale for investigating the topic area, and my statement of the overarching research question as well as the objectives of the study. The final section outlines the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Foreign language education in Vietnam

Vietnamese society and education draws on a long tradition of Confucian ways. Confucianism, which was developed from the ideas of Confucius, an ancient Chinese philosopher, is also known as a Chinese way of thought. In Vietnam teachers are

traditionally respected. Teachers are those who teach students not only academic matters but also moral behaviour (Jamieson, 1993). In this largely Confucian society, a teacher acts as a “mentor” (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996, p. 206) who is considered the moral leader. Vietnamese people are very familiar with some well-known sayings which emphasise the significant role of teachers, for example, “First learn how to behave, then learn the subject”, or “Without teachers, you cannot be successful”. The Confucian heritage is best expressed via student-teacher hierarchical relationships, in which students always show their respect to their teacher. For example, students are expected to stand up to greet their teacher when he/she enters the classroom. (It should be noted that it is the students who say the greeting first to their teacher in a formal way.) During the class time, students are expected to keep silent to listen to their teacher and to do what he/she tells them to, and can only speak when asked to by the teacher. In addition, responding to teachers’ questions in chorus or in “collaborative ways” (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996, p.203) can be seen as a way of showing respect to teachers, because this means that students are willing to speak. These ways of showing respect to teachers are also common in students at higher levels of education, for example in secondary school and university. At lower levels of education, such practices of learners to show respect to teachers are usually encouraged. In addition, another Confucian characteristic (i.e., students do not speak up until their teachers ask them to do so) might decrease to a certain extent students’ opportunities and motivation to speak in their English classes.

In 1995 Vietnam officially joined the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). In the same year, it participated in the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) and implemented the Vietnam-US Bilateral Trade Agreement. Recently, Vietnam has become the 150th member of the World Trade Organization (WTO). Examples of such events show that the relations between Vietnam and other countries in the Asian region and in the world have been considerably expanded. This expansion of international relations also requires the use of a common language to enable the Vietnamese to communicate and collaborate with people from other countries. English is undoubtedly selected as the common language for this type of communication because of its status as a global language. The importance of English has increased due to the fact that more and more foreign investors require English as a means of communication with Vietnamese people. In addition, there is an increasing demand for a Vietnamese skilled labour force competent in English. English, thus, outweighs other languages such as Chinese, French and Japanese, and is the first choice as an FL for most of the

institutions in the educational system nation-wide. Since the 1990s, English has become the most popular FL taught and learnt in Vietnam (Wright, 2002).

In September 2008, the Vietnamese Prime Minister approved a national project entitled “Teaching and learning foreign languages in the national educational system from 2008 to 2020” (Government of Vietnam, 2008). The project is managed by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training. It calls for strategies and practices in innovating and improving the teaching and learning of foreign languages at all levels of education in Vietnam. FL teaching and learning in the university sector is also influenced by this national project. One of the general objectives of the project is that university graduates should be capable of communicating in a FL and working in a multilingual and multicultural environment.

The specific objectives of the above-mentioned national FL education policy are related to, for example, the development of learners’ ability to communicate with people from other countries and cultures. However, it does not address how teachers should use languages in their classroom teaching of, for example, English to achieve such objectives. In other words, there is no official policy issued in documents by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training in regard to the language(s) used in the English classroom for teachers in universities.

The university where I work is located in a small urban area in the north of Vietnam, and mainly enrolls students from remote provinces in Northern Vietnam. Although the university has called for improvement in teaching and learning English, to date there is no official policy issued by the university authorities in regard to classroom language use for teachers of English. There are 10 schools offering different training majors. Except for the School of Foreign Languages, which offers several language majors, the remaining schools all treat English as a foreign language (EFL). English is taught in the first two semesters of the first academic year. That is, all students who enrol in a particular school of the university have to learn English as a compulsory subject as soon as their first year in their programme commences. Each school arranges English classes based on students’ enrolment in the same or a different major, but not on students’ level of English (there is no placement test to determine students’ proficiency in English at the beginning of an academic year). For example, those enrolled in the environment science major will learn English together. Sometimes students of two different majors are placed in one group to learn English. Occasionally, an English class comprises

students of two different majors and is in a big room or a hall. The range of the number of students in each class is between 25 and 60. The total time for teaching English is 45 hours for each group of students per semester.

Each school has a group of teachers of English. When the new academic year commences, the school authorities inform this group of English teachers of the number of classes to be taught in a particular semester. The leader of the English group then decides how many classes each teacher in his/her group has to teach in that semester. It is the whole group of teachers of English who select a textbook and consider that textbook to be the curriculum that they have to cover from beginning to end. The same textbook is usually used year after year until a new textbook is selected. At the time I was teaching in the university and also when I returned for data collection, teachers of all schools had selected textbooks at the beginning level for their students. It is worth noting that there are no placement tests teachers use to determine their students' level of English before they begin. It appears that a textbook is used as the main teaching resource for teachers, and as evidence to determine their students' level of English. There are two tests that teachers require students to take each semester, the mid-semester test and the end-of-semester test. The level of difficulty of tests is the same level as the textbook that teachers choose to teach regardless of whether it is too easy or too difficult for some students.

Regarding students in the university, almost all of them have learnt English for at least three years, or for seven years, i.e. in their lower-secondary and/or upper-secondary schools. Some students have learnt it in their primary schools as well. When students enter the university, they learn English from the beginning again, but with textbooks that are different from the ones they learnt with in their schools. The classroom appears to be the sole place for students to practise English, and their practice is usually limited to repeating what a teacher says or answering a teacher's question. Outside their EFL classes, students do not seem to have many opportunities to practise their English. Almost all communication is via Vietnamese.

1.2 My EFL experience

In this section I briefly described my experience as an EFL learner, an EFL teacher trainee as well as an EFL teacher. Such experience has helped me gain deeper insight into the teachers' practice of code-switching in this study.

I started learning English when I was in a lower-secondary school. The first English lesson from my former teacher was so impressive to me that I said to my father the same day that I would definitely become a teacher of English or do a job related to English when I grew up.

It is still memorable to me that learning English and, in particular, understanding what my teacher said, was not difficult for me and my classmates. My former teachers of English always said, for example, “stand up”, “sit down”, “thank you”, “very good”, “keep silent”, or “who can?” (i.e., the question teachers usually ask when they want a student, for example to repeat or to answer their questions) in their instructions in every class hour. But each of these English instructions was translated immediately into Vietnamese. Yet I could understand what my teachers meant in such situations without their translations of these English utterances into Vietnamese because they were repeated so often. My English teachers spoke more Vietnamese than English, and they kept translating their English instructions into Vietnamese. That is, they alternately spoke English and Vietnamese in the English classroom. In many situations they spoke only Vietnamese, for example, when they were teaching us the rules concerning singular and plural nouns and how to use the verb “to be” with personal pronouns (i.e., conjugation of the verb).

During the time I learnt English, four years at lower-secondary school and three years at upper-secondary school, I had no difficulty understanding what my teachers said in English because they always translated what they had just said in English into Vietnamese. However, I sometimes found it very difficult to produce an English utterance in response to my teachers when I was asked to. So did my classmates. Therefore, in such situations when asked a question in English, we did nothing but just remained silent. We practised reading in chorus after our teacher as well as responding to our teachers together in chorus very frequently. I seemed to be good at doing English written tests, where I had an opportunity to practise and show my knowledge of English grammar. However, what I found really difficult was how to speak English, and how to communicate with a foreigner who spoke English. I had never met a foreigner speaking English at that time.

After finishing school, I trained for four years to become a teacher of English. At college, we studied further English, and English language teaching courses. Our college English teachers, though using more English than Vietnamese, seemed to switch

between the two languages fairly often. After graduating from the college, I became a teacher of English.

I started teaching English at a university in 2004. Peer observations of classroom teaching were regular in my university. Every year my colleagues in the English teacher group used the same elementary textbook to teach thousands of students. It seems to me that teachers focused mainly on teaching English grammar by speaking both English and Vietnamese. The physical setting of classrooms (e.g., large size classrooms with long desks and benches for students, and a raised platform for teachers), the way my colleagues translated their instruction, and how students responded to their teachers all reminded me of my own experience as an EFL learner. Later as EFL teachers, we continued to use both English and Vietnamese in our classrooms to teach English. In many situations, we translated our English instructions into Vietnamese and saw this as something normal. Despite this, sometimes our students did not respond to us when they were asked to give an answer or to speak English.

After peer observations there were usually meetings between us to comment on and even assess each other's teaching. At such meetings, we often had different opinions about our observations and hardly ever came to an agreement on our observations. One of the most typical disagreements was over our use of English and Vietnamese in the English classrooms. We had no classroom language policy. We had different beliefs about our use of English and Vietnamese, and thus, we decided ourselves how, and how much, to use these two languages in the classroom. However, our beliefs and practice of using English and Vietnamese did not always match.

My experience as an EFL learner, EFL teacher trainee, and EFL teacher has its role in my interpretation of data in order to gain understanding of EFL teachers' practice of code-switching in this study, and this will be explicitly stated in my discussions of their practice.

1.3 Rationale for this study

In the Vietnamese EFL teaching setting, code-switching, the alternation between learners' first language, i.e. Vietnamese and learners' target language (TL), i.e. English, is a common element in both schools and universities. It is observable that this phenomenon is employed by teachers of English in communicating with other teachers of English and, particularly, in their classroom instruction. It is evident from my own

experience and my observation of other EFL teachers' teaching practice that Vietnamese EFL teachers often code-switch, i.e., they use both language 1 (L1) and language 2 (L2), in numerous phases in their EFL classroom. However, little information is known about the phenomenon in the Vietnamese EFL teaching context. Therefore, a clear understanding of how code-switching occurs, when it occurs, and for what reasons it occurs, has not yet been gained in the context of the university English language classroom in Vietnam. In addition, in Vietnam there is no EFL classroom language policy that is officially published and communicated to EFL teachers in universities regarding the use of either the first or the second language in teaching an FL in the classroom.

There have been numerous studies of code-switching practices performed by teachers in classroom instruction around the world, particularly in the Asian teaching and learning environment, where English is mainly taught as an FL. Those studies are usually conducted by using survey questionnaires (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Lee, 2010), classroom observations and/or interviews (Eftekhari, 2001; Greggio & Gil, 2007; Liu et al., 2004; Raschka, Sercombe, & Huang, 2009). In Vietnam, there have been studies related to EFL educational issues, for example, issues related to teacher development (Vo & Nguyen, 2010), and understanding of the communicative approach to language teaching (Pham, 2007). However, to date very few studies in the Vietnamese educational context have addressed the issue of teachers' code-switching practice in their English classroom instruction, even though this practice commonly occurs. One study (Kieu, 2010) addressed teachers' use of language to the extent that it provided general information about teachers' use of their first language (i.e., Vietnamese) in their English classrooms by conducting a survey and interviewing a limited number of teachers. Most recently, Le (2014) carried out a study of one Vietnamese EFL university teacher's code-switching by using class recordings and interviews.

Such issues, as described above, have given me a desire to investigate this phenomenon of code-switching. The reasons are as follows. Firstly, I believe that this research project will be beneficial to the participants, i.e. teachers and their students to the extent that it is an opportunity for the teachers' self-reflection on their own teaching practice. That is, through my observations of teachers' teaching practices and the interactions between me and the teachers in the interviews, they show their experience, their points of view, and their beliefs in their classroom instruction. The students, through interactions with me, also shared their perspectives on the languages they use in the English classroom to

respond to their teachers, and their opinions about their teachers' alternate use of languages.

Secondly, it raises awareness of language alternation in classroom instruction, not only among EFL teachers of the Vietnamese university chosen as the research site but also among language teachers in other Vietnamese universities. In addition, it brings the issue to the attention of those in other universities and lower educational contexts, e.g., primary schools, and secondary schools in Vietnam, and other EFL teaching and learning contexts which are similar to Vietnamese context.

Finally, I also believe that the study can be beneficial to educators and universities' management in considering an official policy for using languages in the EFL classes for teachers, e.g. using only English, or using both English and Vietnamese, and in which situations. The findings of this study can also help to provide suggestions for the improvement of the EFL teaching and learning of The Ministry of Education and Training of Vietnam in their project discussed at the beginning of this chapter.

1.4 Focus of the study

This study addressed the following overarching research question:

How do we understand Vietnamese university EFL teachers' code-switching in their classroom instruction?

In particular, the following research sub-questions were derived from the above overarching question:

- 1) In what situations do Vietnamese university EFL teachers switch between L1 (Vietnamese) and L2 (English) in their FL classes?
- 2) What form do the switches take?
- 3) What functions do the teachers' switches serve?
- 4) Why do teachers code-switch in their language classrooms?
- 5) What is the relationship between the teachers' code-switching and students' language behaviour in teacher-students interactions?

1.5 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is composed of eight chapters. This chapter provides an introduction to the whole thesis. Chapter 2 provides a literature review of the background of the study in regard to the phenomenon of code-switching: code-switching in bilingualism and code-switching in classroom instruction. The review describes how code-switching in bilingualism is conceptualised and classified, and what functions it has. The phenomenon of code-switching in the field of bilingualism establishes the basis for code-switching in other contexts, such as language education. Moreover, it discusses how code-switching is practised by teachers in the context of the language classroom: its types; its functions; the reasons for it; and its effect on students' language behaviour.

Chapter 3 deals with the methodological issues in conducting the study. In this chapter, I justify the qualitative methodology of ethnography which I adopted in this study, including the nature of ethnographic research, the reasons for my adoption of it, and my awareness of both its advantages and disadvantages. Such methodological issues are discussed in covering the design of my study, in which data collection and data analysis are particularly considered.

Chapters 4 to 7 present the results regarding teachers' code-switching behaviour which this study focuses on. Chapter 4 discusses different forms of the Vietnamese EFL teachers' code-switching and situations in which they code-switched. Chapter 5 covers the functions of their switching (in the situations described in Chapter 4), and the factors that led to their code-switching. Chapter 6 discusses the relationship between teachers' code-switching and their students' language behaviour. Chapter 7 presents the issue in regard to language policy and teachers' practice, including teachers' own practice, i.e. their beliefs about the use of English and Vietnamese in the EFL classroom, and language policy from teachers' and students' perspectives.

Chapter 8 concludes the thesis. It highlights and evaluates the main points discussed in the previous chapters, focusing on the key findings of the study, its contribution to knowledge, the implications of the findings, the limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature on the topic of code-switching. The chapter is divided into five main sections. The first section provides an overview of bilingualism. This section is followed by a description of code-switching in bilingualism, which focuses on: conceptualisations of code-switching; the distinction between code-switching and code-mixing, code-switching and borrowing; and types and functions of code-switching. The third section is devoted to the central topic of the study: code-switching in classroom instruction. It starts with a discussion of the debate concerning the use of the first language (L1) and/or the second language (L2) in the classroom. Following this debate is my review of empirical studies of the phenomenon of code-switching in the context of the classroom: code-switching types; code-switching functions; factors leading to teachers' code-switching; and the relationship between teachers' code-switching and the students' language behaviour. The next section provides a brief review of classroom language policy for teachers, which includes both theoretical recommendations and practice. A summary of the points reviewed closes the chapter.

2.1 Bilingualism

The concept of bilingualism has traditionally been viewed from numerous perspectives. The most common views are from a linguistic perspective and based on the level of language proficiency of the speaker. Three main categories of definitions of bilingualism approached from linguistic perspectives are briefly reviewed as follows. The first group of definitions of bilingualism concentrate on the bilinguals who master two languages equally (M. F. Mackey, 1970, 2000). In other words, such definitions focus on the balance of the languages involved, or on fully-fluent bilinguals. The notion of bilingualism refers to those who have a native-like control of two languages (Romaine, 1995). This notion of bilingualism is at odds with the second category which holds that anyone who is capable of demonstrating minimal use of two languages is recognised as a bilingual. In the second group of opinions, an individual's ability to

speak both languages despite having low proficiency in either of them can be seen as sufficient for him/her to be considered a bilingual. For example, in Haugen's (1953) view, bilinguals are individuals with proficiency in one language but with "the ability to produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language" (p. 7). This approach has been accepted by other authors such as Hamers and Blanc (2000) and Myers-Scotton (2006), who claim that rarely are speakers equally fluent in two languages. The third group of scholars do not seem to be satisfied with either of these two perspectives, which range from maximal proficiency (i.e., a native-like control in both languages) to a minimal proficiency in a SL. Therefore, an in-between definition has been developed to describe speakers using two or more languages alternately (Baetens Beardsmore, 1982; Edwards, 2004; M. F. Mackey, 2000; Romaine, 1995). This definition of bilingualism does not mention the level of proficiency in either language of the speakers.

It seems that there is not a single definition that best describes all situations. The defining of bilingualism, thus, should be context-bound. In this thesis I adopt the definition of the third group of scholars, emphasising the teachers' alternate use of English and Vietnamese in their English classes to be bilinguals.

Three common phenomena of bilingualism which have traditionally been addressed include interference, borrowing and code-switching. Interference refers to "the involuntary influence of one language on the other" (Grosjean, 1982, p. 299). Borrowing is seen as the phenomenon in which features of one language are used as part of the other (Haugen, 1953, 1956). Code-switching refers to the using of two languages alternately within the same or between utterances or turns. Among these three phenomena, code-switching seems to attract the attention of a greater number of researchers. Code-switching is the central topic of the present study.

2.2 Code-switching in bilingualism

As a common feature of bilingualism, code-switching, a "complex research topic" (Bell, 2014, p. 22), has been defined by various scholars. This section attempts to cover viewpoints on different aspects of this phenomenon: its definitions; the distinction between code-switching and code-mixing, between code-switching and borrowing; and, types, functions and models of code-switching.

2.2.1 Conceptualisations of code-switching

The most general definition of code-switching is “the alternate use of two languages or linguistic varieties within the same utterance or during the same conversation” (Hoffmann, 1991, p. 110). Sociolinguistically, each dialect can be seen as a language code. In this perspective, code-switching is identified by Gardner-Chloros (2009) as “the use of several language dialects in the same conversation or sentence by bilingual people” (p. 4). Similarly, code-switching is used to refer to the phenomenon in which “speakers switch backwards and forwards between distinct codes in their repertoire” (Bell, 2014, p. 111). By means of juxtaposition, i.e., elements of different languages put next to each other, Gumperz (1982) defines conversational code-switching as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different systems or subsystems” (p. 59). Muysken (2000) prefers using other terms, “insertion” and “alternation” to refer to the process of mixing elements from different languages (p. 1). Regarding the feature of insertional code-mixing (i.e., switches within the same clause or sentence), Muysken (2000) claims that in insertional code-mixing, what are inserted into a sentence are usually syntactic constituents. These syntactic constituents can be lexical units such as nouns, verbs, or prepositional phrases. In alternation, a common strategy of mixing, one clause in language A is used after a clause in language B.

However, other authors distinguish insertion and alternation in different ways. For instance, Myers-Scotton (1993) believes that insertion is one form of borrowing, in which the difference, if any, between mixing and borrowing is the size and type of the element inserted. Meanwhile, Poplack (1980) views alternation as the switching of codes between turns or utterances. In general, from a broad viewpoint, code-switching can be regarded more widely as the alternation of two languages in the same discourse. More narrowly, it can be seen as alternation within a sentence or across sentences, or sometimes neutrally by considering code-switching between these two viewpoints.

In the language classroom context, code-switching has been defined based on the above viewpoints. For example, Levine (2011) adopts Hoffman’s (1991) definition of code-switching, focusing on the act of switching – a speaker moves from L1 into L2 or from L2 into L1 – and defines code-switching as “the systematic, alternating use of two or more languages in a single utterance or conversational exchange” (p. 50). More specifically, G. Cook (2010) refers to the teacher’s code-switching as the use of the first

language in his/her L2 classroom. G. Cook (2010) also sees translation as one means for a bilingual to code-switch. However, he notes that teachers' L1 use does not necessarily involve translation because translation is not the only tool for a bilingual to use.

In the context of the language classroom in Vietnam, teachers' code-switching seems to be a common practice in their classroom instruction of English. Consider the following examples of code switching in a Vietnamese context, the English classroom. In each example, the first line is the teacher's original speech, and the second line is the English translation (the Vietnamese words in original and their English equivalent translation are italicised).

Example 2.1:

T: *Nào cả lớp về nhà làm exercise 87 trong workbook*
 <*Now class at home do exercise 87 in your workbook*>

Example 2.2:

T: Now open your book on page 92. *Nào mở sách ra trang 92*
 <Now open your book on page 92. *Now open your book page 92*>

Example 3.3: Observation transcript T6.1

T: What did the mother say?

St: [no response]

T: *Bà mẹ đã nói gì?*
 <*What did the mother say?*>

The three examples above involve teachers' code-switching which will be further commented on later. In this study, I adopt Crystal's (2008) definitions of an utterance and a turn to define the phenomenon of code-switching. An utterance refers to "a stretch of speech preceded and followed by silence or a change of speaker" (Crystal, 2008, p. 505). I use the term "utterance" firstly because what was recorded was the teachers' speech. Furthermore, according to Crystal (2008), an utterance can be either a word or a group of words. For example, discourse markers such as "Okay" or "Understand" can be seen as words, and they can become utterances. An utterance is determined based on such features as speakers' pauses or pitch movements. A turn was defined as "the contribution of each participant" (Crystal, 2008, p. 498). In this study, teachers' and

students' turns or contributions occurred alternately in my transcripts of the classroom recordings. I define code-switching as the practice of using two languages alternately within the same utterance or between utterances or turns. For example, in a classroom, a teacher may use Vietnamese (the first language) and English (the SL) alternately in his/her instruction in one or all of the ways illustrated above: switching within an utterance (Example 2.1) or between utterances (Example 2.2) or between turns, where silence is also considered a turn (Example 2.3).

2.2.2 Code-switching and code-mixing

Code-switching is sometimes referred to as code-mixing. However, some authors distinguish between code-switching and code-mixing. For example, Muysken (2004) and Wardhaugh (1992) see code-mixing as occurring at the lexical level (i.e. within a sentence) and code-switching as relating to an alternation of languages between clauses, sentences or utterances. Ritchie and Bhatia (2004) distinguish code-switching from code-mixing in terms of the use of various linguistic units such as words, phrases, clauses and sentences across sentence boundaries within a speech event (for code switching), and morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses and sentences within a sentence (for code mixing).

The employment of the two phenomena appears to be terminological. Therefore, some authors, for example Ritchie and Bhatia (2004), use the term language mixing/switching, or Barnard and McLellan (2014) use code-switching to refer to both of these two phenomena. Sharing the view that there is not a clear distinction between code-switching and code-mixing, other authors argue that both phenomena are “parole”, i.e. speech, not “langue”, i.e. language (Hamers & Blanc, 2000, p. 270), and are on a continuum (Gardner-Chloros, 2009). According to Hamers and Blanc (2000) code-mixing, similar to code-switching, is the transference of elements from language A, or the base language, to language B.

The core distinction between code-switching and code-mixing appears to be the language level at which the phenomena occur. That is, code-switching can occur across sentences, or at an inter-sentential level, while code-mixing only occurs within a sentence, i.e., at intra-sentential level. In the present study the term code-switching is used to cover both cases: switching between utterances or turns and within an utterance.

2.2.3 Code-switching and borrowing

Borrowed words (or loan words) are described by Hoffmann (1991) as features of “langue” (p. 102). This means that when words from a language have entered the vocabulary system of another language and are ready for use by the community after a process of assimilation of certain aspects, they are seen as loan words. The process of assimilation is revealed, for example, through the pronunciation and/or grammar and/or spelling. In this case, the phenomenon of borrowing is not a feature of speech or “parole” (M. F. Mackey, 2000), as “parole” is seen as an individual’s production (writing/speaking) of language pieces, for example an utterance or a long speech.

Some authors (e.g., Haugen, 1956; Poplack, 1980) argue that code-switching and borrowing are distinguishable. They usually base their distinction on two aspects: assimilation and the language unit level of the phenomenon. For example, Poplack (1980) distinguishes borrowing from code-switching by describing borrowing as the adaptation of lexical material to the morphological, syntactic and phonological patterns of the recipient language. The use of words or phrases from one language that have become so much part of the other language cannot be seen as code-switching, the alternate use of two languages (Haugen, 1956). A typical example which illustrates the distinction between code-switching and borrowing is cited below (both mean the same thing: “I can’t believe that we code-switched as often as that”):

Example 2.4

- (a) ça m’ étonnerait qu’ on ait *code-switched* autant que ça
 - (b) ça m’ étonnerait qu’ on ait *code-switché* autant que ça
- (Grosjean, 1982, p. 308)

Example 2.4 (a) is seen as an instance of code-switching because the speaker, in his utterance in French, uses the English word “code-switched” with English grammar, and perhaps, English pronunciation. Meanwhile, “code-switché” in 2.4 (b) can be regarded as a case of borrowing as, from its original English root, it adopts French grammar and morphology (i.e., the past participle form – é, seen as being formed from the infinitive verb “code-switcher”). In other words, it is morpho-grammatically assimilated into French.

Other authors (e.g., Gardner-Chloros, 2009; Hamers & Blanc, 2000; Myers-Scotton, 1993) had a contrasting view, arguing that borrowing and code-switching are

phenomena at either end of a continuum. With a similar view, Baker (2006) argues that it is hard to find criteria to distinguish between code-switches and loans as they are not entities that can be separated. When words from a SL are first used by an individual, they are seen as switches. After a process of being used frequently by a group of individuals and accepted by the community, they become borrowings. Other authors (e.g., Eastman, 1992; Hoffmann, 1991) considered the most probable source of borrowings, seeing code-switching as the first step in the process of borrowing words or phrases of a language and using them in a communicative interaction.

In sum, there have been two main viewpoints on code-switching and borrowing. The first viewpoint is that these two phenomena are distinguishable. That is, any word from a language inserted into the utterance in another language without being assimilated is seen as code-switching. While borrowing occurs at the lexical level, code-switching involves both the lexical level and the largest unit of syntax, the sentence. The second viewpoint is from authors who doubt the possibility of distinguishing between code-switching and borrowing – and instead consider code-switching as one form of borrowing. In other words, when a word or a phrase of one language comes into use in the other language it can be seen as code-switching. After the word or phrase has been used frequently and steadily in the other language, it can be regarded as an instance of borrowing.

Avoiding a controversy (discussed above) that seems to be of little significance to the present study, I consider loan words to be those words that come from the L2 (English) and are assimilated (in one or more aspects such as pronunciation, spelling, grammar) into the L1 (Vietnamese), or are used by the Vietnamese community, or have even entered the Vietnamese lexicon. The phenomenon of borrowing is seen as the using of words from the L2 in utterances of the L1 by individual/s without any assimilation. Obviously, those words have neither been accepted officially by the Vietnamese community nor entered the lexicon of the L1. Accordingly, the phenomenon of borrowing does not include loan words. I consider borrowing a form of code-switching. The term code-switching, thus, is used in the present study to refer to instances of words or phrases which the speakers directly borrow from English without adapting such words/phrases into Vietnamese.

For example, words such as “email”, “Google”, or “video clip” appear to be widely used by Vietnamese people though there are Vietnamese words equivalent to them.

However, many Vietnamese people tend to borrow these English words and use them in their conversations. When inserting such words into their utterances, two cases may occur. The first case is when people phonologically adapt the words to Vietnamese, pronouncing “email” as /i-mei/ or /i-meo/, “google” as /guk-gə/, and “video clip” as /vi-zeo-kə-lip/. This first case will be considered examples of loan words because those words are assimilated to Vietnamese phonetically. Therefore, such loan words will be excluded from the present study. The second case is when the speakers insert those words into their utterances but still pronounce them as they are pronounced in English, i.e. without any adaptation to their first language. This second case is viewed as an example of the borrowing phenomenon, (i.e., involves the speakers’ insertion of the words that are borrowed from English without any indication of adaptation), and will be counted as code-switching. Note that the speakers’ use of the borrowed words as exemplified above occurs in the context where they are sometimes used by the media, and tend to be used more and more by young Vietnamese people. That is to say, these words are in the process of being used frequently by certain individuals, but they have neither been accepted nation-wide nor entered Vietnamese vocabulary yet. This is also the reason why I extend the term code-switching to include the teachers’ borrowing.

2.2.4 Types and models of code-switching

Sociolinguistically, Blom and Gumperz (1972, 2000) classify code-switching into situational code-switching and metaphorical code-switching (or, conversational code-switching). According to these authors, situational code-switching refers to changes of settings or participants when there is a change in the language choice, and metaphorical code-switching involves only a change in the topic with the setting and participants staying the same. It appears that these authors’ classification of code-switching types is based on the functions of code-switching. This functional classification will be discussed in greater detail later (see 2.2.5).

Regarding linguistic factors involved in code-switching, Poplack (1980) divides code-switching into three types: extra-sentential code-switching (or tag-switching), intra-sentential switching, and inter-sentential switching. Following are examples of these types.

Extra-sentential code-switching/tag-switching refers to the insertion of a tag from one language into an utterance which is entirely in another language. Examples of English

tags inserted are: “you know”, “I mean” “umm” (fillers), “oh, my God” (interjection), “no way” (idiomatic expression), “understand?”, “right?”, and so on.

Example 2.5

But I wanted to fight her *con los punos*, you know.

(But I wanted to fight her *with my fists*, you know)

(Poplack, 1980, p. 596)

Example 2.6

Pero como *you know* la Estella y la Sandi relistas en el telefon

(But how *you know* Stella and Sandi are very precocious on the phone)

(Gumperz, 1982, p. 78)

The two examples cited from Poplack (1980) and Gumperz (1982), above, involve speakers’ switching of the tag “you know”. In Poplack’s example the tag is inserted by the speaker at the end of the sentence (the second switch in English in Example 2.5). (However, this tag is inserted in the middle of the speaker’s utterance Example 2.6), and in Gumperz’s (1982) view it “serves to mark sentence filler” (p. 78). This filler can be seen as tag switching in Poplack’s notion (Romaine, 1995, p. 162).

Intra-sentential switching refers to switches occurring within the clause or sentence boundary. The following examples are from Poplack and Myers-Scotton, respectively:

Example 2.7 (switching Spanish and English)

Leo un *magazine*

(I read a *magazine*)

(Poplack, 1980, p. 583)

Example 2.8 (switching between Shona, the official language in Zimbabwe, and English)

Shona/English

Unofanirwakupedza *one year* uinanyo motor yacho

(You should spend *one year* with that car)

(Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 5)

Inter-sentential switching involves a switch at a clause or sentence boundary (i.e., one independent clause/sentence in one language, the other in another language). A very typical example of inter-sentential code-switching is part of the title of Poplack's (1980) article:

Example 2.9

Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish *y termino en Español*
(Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish *and finish it in Spanish*)

In terms of the framework of code-switching, Myers-Scotton (2001, 2006) proposes the Matrix language frame (MLF) model. This model is used to identify the matrix language (ML) or the base language, and the embedded language (EL) within a clause when there is the involvement of two different languages by the speakers. The ML is understood as the one that is the “source of the abstract grammatical frame of the constituent”, and the EL is the one that “can only contribute limited materials” (Myers-Scotton, 2001, p. 24). This means that when two languages are involved in an utterance, one language is dominated by the other in terms of, for example, the grammatical structure. The one that is dominant is seen as the matrix language, and the one that is dependent is the embedded language.

Concerning the grammatical structure in code-switching, in Myers-Scotton's (2006) MLF model, the ML within a clause can be identified based on the morpheme order and the system morpheme principles. She claims that the order of the constituents, for example nouns or adjectives, of the two languages when mixed will be that of the ML. In other words, only one language provides morpheme order for the other. Thus, the language supplying morpheme order to another will be the ML of the clause.

It appears that the MLF model works well to identify the matrix language when two grammars coincide to some extent. The best example of this is code-switching between Malay and English in plural nouns, as found by McLellan (2009). In sentences involving switches between English and Malay, there are three ways of pluralising an English noun. These ways are through the use of: the English plural noun; the English noun in its singular form with Malay reduplication of the noun to indicate plurality; and English singular noun understood as plural from the context. Thus, according to McLellan, there are cases of code-switching in which one language is the dominant one, functioning as the ML. However, there are other cases in which both language systems

involved functioned equally, which can be referred to as “equal language alternation” (MacLellan, 2009, p. 18).

The MLF model is useful to identify the ML or EL within a clause, i.e. the intra-sentential code-switching type. However, as Bell (2014) notes, it is challenging for researchers to identify the matrix language in many cases. For example, using the MLF model to determine the matrix language in the speakers’ turn where there are many utterances, and when two grammars do not coincide seems to be problematic. In the following examples I illustrate and explain how the model works, involving switches between Vietnamese and English. In each of these examples, the first line is the speaker’s original speech, the second line provides a literal word-for-word translation of the Vietnamese into English, and the third line is an English translation.

Example 2.10

- (a) *Cô ấy* *nice* *lắm*
Aunt-distant deixis *is* *nice* *very*
She is very nice
- (b) *Linh hôm nay bị ốm, phải không, right?*
Linh day this negative marker sick, right not, right?
Linh is sick today, right, right?
- (c) Look! It’s going to rain. *Em có mang*
Look! It’s going to rain. *Younger sister interrogative particle bring*
áo mưa không?
raincoat interrogative particle?
Do you have a raincoat? *Có mang không?*
Do you have a raincoat? *Interrogative particle bring interrogative particle ?*
Look! It’s going to rain. *Did you bring a raincoat with you? Do you have a raincoat? Did you bring it?*

In Example 2.10 (a), the inserted word is English (nice). Furthermore, in English, the adverb of degree “very” comes before the adjective (nice), but in this utterance, the adjective “nice” comes before the adverb “*lắm*” (very) because it follows Vietnamese grammatical structure (or morpheme order). Therefore, Vietnamese is the ML. This is an instance of intra-sentential code-switching. Example 2.10 (b) is an illustration of extra-sentential code-switching (or tag switching). The speaker switches from

Vietnamese to English (right?). The inserted word here is an English tag, thus Vietnamese is the ML, and English is the EL in this utterance. Example 2.10 (c) consists of five utterances in a turn of the speaker. The speaker switches back and forth between English and Vietnamese. Here the speaker starts speaking in English and then switches the entire later utterance to Vietnamese. In his/her first utterance, the speaker follows English grammar, but in the second one, he/she follows Vietnamese grammatical rules. Therefore, it is impossible to identify what the ML is as it is hard to say whether English or Vietnamese is the dominant language. It is also hard to know which language provides the structure frame for the other even if only, for example, the two utterances (It's going to rain. *Em có mang áo mưa không?*) in this turn are considered. The MLF model in cases like this appears to be problematic for identifying what the ML is.

2.2.5 Functions of code-switching

Code-switching may be discouraged by some people because of their belief that it shows deficiency or lack of mastery of both languages. However, as a common feature of a bilingual community, code-switching serves a large variety of functions: linguistic, social and discourse functions.

Linguistic functions

With a similar view to Baker's (2006) that code-switching is a valuable linguistic tool, Chung (2006), Hamers and Blanc (2000), and Skiba (1997) note that code-switching can allow the switcher to compensate for his/her linguistic deficiency in using the base language, e.g. in a shortage of the words or of expressions, or overcoming the gap in linguistic competence between the two languages. In her research involving Puerto Rican residents in a bilingual community, Poplack (1980) found that switches occurred among both fluent and non-fluent bilinguals. Though their switches were of different types, she concluded that code-switching is a linguistic norm in the New York Puerto Rican community, and is used as an indicator of bilingual competence.

Social functions

As mentioned, Blom and Gumperz (1972), and Gumperz (1982) classify code-switching into situational and conversational code-switching. Though expressing her doubt about how these two functional types are classified, Myers-Scotton (1993) notes that situational code-switching is motivated by changes in factors external to the

participants' own motivations, and conversational code-switching is understood as a shift in topic and in other extralinguistic context markers that characterise the situation. Examples of extra-linguistic factors which affect speakers' choice of language in conversation are referred to by Wei (1998) as the topic, the setting, or the relationships between participants.

In the Vietnamese FL context, teachers' code-switching which performs the above authors' social functions can occur, as the following shows:

Example 2.11

(In an English classroom)

T: Now work in pairs and discuss the questions in your book with your partners.
Do it.

Another Vietnamese-only speaking staff member arrives, coming in the door:

T: *Xin lỗi lớp mấy phút nhé, tiếp tục làm đi tôi sẽ quay lại sau mấy phút.*
<Excuse me for a few minutes, just keep doing it, I'll come back in a couple of minutes>

Example 2.11, above, involves situational code-switching, occurring in an English classroom where the teacher is organizing tasks for students. There is a Vietnamese-only speaker, i.e. a school librarian who does not speak English, arriving at the door. The guest wants to talk to the English teacher. The teacher switches to Vietnamese to speak to students to give them directions. The teacher's switch is due to a change in the situation as Blom and Gumperz (1972) note. The situation here changes because of the change in the participants (the school librarian) as he does not speak English.

Example 2.12

(In teachers' waiting room)

TA: Manchester *hôm qua lại thắng*
<Manchester won again yesterday>

TB: (is reading the news on his cell phone)
Lại có storm ở Hà Tĩnh
<There's storm in Ha Tinh again>

TC: Really?

Example 2.12 is an illustration of conversational code-switching, i.e., the changes in language choice when there was a change in the topic of a conversation (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Gumperz, 1982). Two Vietnamese male teachers of English are talking to each other in their break time. Here teacher A (TA) starts in Vietnamese about the football match he watched on TV the previous night. Teacher B (TB) suddenly changes the topic as he saw the news (published by a Vietnamese internet newspaper in English) on his cell phone about a storm occurring in Ha Tinh (a province in central Vietnam where there are frequent storms during summer). About a week before another storm also happened in this place. Teacher B switches to English to quote “storm” in his utterance in Vietnamese. Teacher A switches to English to show his surprise at the news teacher B has just given. Teacher A switches to English because the topic of the conversation between him and his colleague has changed.

Other authors (e.g., Auer, 1998; Baker, 2006; Hoffmann, 1991) also examined the phenomenon of code-switching and found other social functions of this phenomenon. They found that code-switching can serve as a means for expressing group identity (an in-group marker) and solidarity with such a group (Auer, 1998; Hoffmann, 1991). Thus, social functions of code-switching can be understood as the functions that code-switching performs in social relations between interlocutors, in establishing and maintaining social identity. In addition, according to (Baker, 2006), apart from these social functions, code-switching may also be used to mark a change of attitudes or relationships among the speakers.

A very well-known study of code-switching among different urban communities of Kenya was conducted by Myers-Scotton (1988). She found that different choices in the language varieties used in these communities by speakers of different social backgrounds reveal different identities, or social roles. The mother tongue, which is used by most people sharing the same ethnicity in most informal conversations in Kenya, plays an important role in establishing and maintaining group identity. For example, in her study, a young well-educated Luyia woman switched from Swahili to Luyia when she discovered through the gatekeeper’s pronunciation that the gatekeeper shared her ethnicity. Similar social functions of code-switching have been stated by other researchers (e.g., Heller, 1988; McConvell, 1988; Myers-Scotton, 1993). In these studies, code-switching is employed as a means of expressing identity of the speakers.

Discourse functions

Gumperz (1982) relies on discourse analysis to identify the conversational functions of code-switching, including “quotations”, “addressee specification”, “interjection”, “reiteration”, and “message qualification” (pp. 75-79).

Firstly, the quotation function is for a bilingual speaker to quote a message in one language amidst the production of an utterance in the other language, i.e., he/she switches to another language when quoting. Between the two languages, Gumperz (1982) notes, not all speakers quote in the language they normally use. That is, a message is not always quoted in the code in which it was said. A very good example of this function was given by Romaine (1995). In this example, a Tok Pisin-English bilingual child in Papua New Guinea quoted within her narrative in Tok Pisin a character’s speech in a story “Billy Goats Gruff” she/he heard at school in English.

[...] *Em kirap na tok, liklik got iskiprap na tok: “I am the small goat.” Na em kiprap na tok “go away.” Na liklik got ia kiprap na siksti tasol go lo hapsait.*

[...] *He said, the little goat said, “I am the small goat.” And he [the troll] said: “go away” And the little goat got up and raced across the other side.*

(Romaine, 1995, p. 162)

Secondly, addressee specification is used to identify directly or indirectly the person the speaker is speaking to. One example of this from a bilingual speaker living in an Australian village is:

Example 2.13

Where ‘nother knife? *walima* pocket-knife *karrwa-rnana*?

(Where’s the other knife? *Does anyone have a pocket knife?*)

(McConvell, 1988, p. 135)

In the example above, the speaker switches from Kriol (an English-based Creole spoken by Aborigines) to Gurindji (spoken in the Wave Hill area as 2nd or often 3rd or 4th language by Whites and Aborigines). His/her switch “walima” “karrwa-rnana” (Does anyone have a) implies the group of butchers who are indirectly spoken to (McConvell, 1988).

Thirdly, code-switching serves to mark interjections or sentence fillers. These interjections or sentence fillers are discourse markers and they can be tag switching

according to Poplack's (1980) notion. An example of the speaker's code-switching which served to mark a sentence filler is cited from Gumperz (1982) in section 2.2.4 "Pero como *you know* la Estella y la Sandi relistas en el telefon" (But how *you know* Stella and Sandi are very precocious on the phone). The speaker's code-switch is between Spanish and English. Here, his/her switch of "you know" functions to mark a sentence filler, or discourse marker of the text as it does not necessarily add to the content of this utterance.

Fourthly, code-switching is used to reiterate what has been said. That is, the repetition may serve to clarify or emphasise a message. This example is a part of a conversation between a salaried worker and a farmer. The farmer asked the worker for money. However, the worker refused to give money to the farmer and switched from English to Swahili (official languages in Kenya) and then switched from Swahili to Liwidakho - a language variety in Kenya.

Example 2.14

(English) You have got a land

(Swahili) Una shamba (you have a farm/land)

(Liwidakho) Uli mulimi (you have land).

(Myers-Scotton, 1988, p. 170)

All the worker's switches (in Swahili and Liwidakho) here were to repeat what he had just said in English to the farmer. His repetition of the same message served as an emphasis of his refusal to give the farmer money because according to the worker, the farmer already had property, i.e. "a farm".

Finally, code-switching is also used to qualify a message. That is, a message (or a subject) is introduced in one language and qualified or expressed in another way in another language. The example below is a sentence in English and Spanish, where the speaker starts the subject/topic in English and switches to Spanish, using a relative clause, to qualify the subject "the oldest one".

Example 2.15

The oldest one, *la grande la de once años*

(The oldest one, *the big one who is eleven years old*)

(Gumperz, 1982, p. 79)

In sum, three main categories of functions of code-switching by bilinguals have been found in the context outside the classroom in the literature: linguistic functions, social functions, and functions related to discourse, as reviewed above. Among these functional categorisations, the social functions and discourse functions seem to be more prevalent than linguistic functions. In the educational environment, there have been studies investigating this phenomenon of code-switching by the teachers, which are reviewed in the section 2.3 below.

2.3 Code-switching in classroom instruction

Teachers' code-switching in classroom instruction involves their alternate use of the first language (L1) and the second language (L2). There have been debates on teachers' using only L2 and on their using both the L1 and L2 in the FL classrooms. The viewpoint that approves of the teachers' use of two languages means their code-switching is, more or less, accepted. In the literature, code-switching types and code-switching functions have been investigated from different perspectives, e.g., linguistic or social ones in contexts other than the classrooms, as reviewed in section one above. In the context of the classroom, a number of empirical studies have addressed the issues related to teachers' code-switching, and such issues are also of interest to me in this study. These issues include the types of teachers' code-switching, the functions of teacher's code-switching, the reasons for their code-switching and the effect of their code-switching on the students' language behaviour. In my review of the studies of teachers' code-switching in language classroom, I use some terms as they were used by authors in such studies. Examples of such terms are SL or L2 (second language), TL (target language), FL (foreign language), and first language (L1) or mother tongue. In this study, English is regarded as a FL and Vietnamese is referred to as the L1 where applicable.

2.3.1 Switching between L1 and L2

Intra-lingual approach to classroom language use

In language teaching, J. Willis (1996) notes that the teacher needs to "explain to students that if they want to communicate in the target language they need to practice" (p. 49). This can be seen as a call for maximising the target language (TL) use in the EFL classes where teachers are often the students' primary source of linguistic input in the TL. In theory, if one wants to use the L2 for some purposes, for example, to

participate in a conversation, or listen to a lecture, he/she should do it without translating from or into the L1 (Stern, 1992). The teaching methodology that keeps L2 apart from the L1, i.e., no translation from or into L1, is referred to by Stern (1992) as the “intralingual” approach (p. 285). Such immersion in L2 is considered vital according to some authors (e.g., H. D. Brown, 2000; Cajkler & Addelman, 2000; J. Willis, 1996) as learners can only learn through trying to make sense out of the language they experience (i.e., their L1). Cajkler and Addelman (2000) provide suggestions on how teachers can maximise the TL in their FL classes, e.g., using gestures, teaching materials, or visual aids in many situations. They illustrate various classroom situations in which students can be exposed to the TL without including the mother tongue. These situations are very typical in the classroom context, for example, when teachers deal with students’ errors, make sure of students’ comprehension, and organise classroom disciplines, (i.e., students coming late, students not bringing homework). These authors also emphasise that teachers use the TL when they praise their students, and when they express opinions or attitudes towards their students.

Cross-lingual approach to classroom language use

In theory, language teaching can be entirely in the L2 (i.e., teaching not involving translation from/into the L1) (Stern, 1992). However, Stern (1992) notes that it is necessary to reconsider the use of the first language in the FL classes. He called the teaching of the L2 which involves the use of L1 “crosslingual” (Stern, 1992, p. 279). Concerning the languages (L1 and L2) involved in the EFL classes, V. Cook (2001) agrees with Stern (1992) that the key objective of using the L1 in the class is to give support for students in regard to comprehension (see Chapters 5 and 7). Furthermore, Cook stresses that maximising the use of the TL (L2) in the classroom can be considered a principle that should be conformed to in FL teaching (Polio & Duff, 1994; J. Willis, 1996) That is, teachers should use L2 as much as possible. However, maximal use of the L2 in English classes in his view does not mean that students’ native language (L1) needs to be avoided. With strong approval of the role of the first language in the FL classes, V. Cook (2001, 2002, 2008) argues that the banning of L1 in the classroom can only work in circumstances where the teacher and students do not speak the same first language. Two of the reasons for employing the first language in the FL classes are efficiency and naturalness. He proposes various ways for teachers to use the first language positively in their FL classes. For example, teachers can use the first language when conveying the meaning of words or sentences, explaining grammar,

organising tasks, maintaining discipline, gaining contact with individual students, and testing. However, he emphasises that this does not mean teachers should only use the first language while instructing these points. Instead, teachers should use the first language when needed, and encourage students to “hear as much second language as possible” (V. Cook, 2008, p. 184). From Turnbull’s (2001) and Turnbull and Arnett’s (2002) viewpoint, maximising the TL or L2 by the teacher should be defined by the quantity of its use. That is, there should be measurements of how much L1 or L2 teachers use in their FL classes, and decisions could be made on how to maximise teachers’ L2 use, based on the identified proportions (Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). However, in his suggestions, V. Cook (2008) does not focus on the optimal proportion of the L2. Rather, his advice seems to advocate the viewpoint of maximising L2 use to the extent that teachers are generally to be encouraged to prioritise L2. My study does not focus on how much English can be seen as the optimal proportion for teachers, but rather supports V. Cook’s viewpoint (see Chapter 7).

Similarly, Littlewood and Yu (2009) suggest a framework of principles for a balanced role of L1 and L2 in the classroom, which focuses on both the role of the L1 and the maximal TL/L2 use. Their framework does not appear to rely on the quantity of the two languages involved. Rather, similar to V. Cook (2002, 2008), they suggest that teachers use L1 as assistance when needed, e.g., to deal with the explanation of vocabulary, to be more friendly with students, or to deal with classroom management. In addition, they propose some strategies for maximising the TL use, for example, using synonyms/antonyms, or exemplification and giving clues. Another strategy is “starting simple” (Littlewood & Yu, 2009, p. 74), which advises using the TL first for tasks which are already familiar to students.

Debate on the optimal use of L2

Methodologically, most educators and teachers bear in mind that teachers need to maximise their use of the TL in the classroom so that their students can be more exposed to it. However, how much exposure to the TL is suitable from both the theoretical and pedagogical standpoint seems to be controversial. Very few studies have been carried out concerning the question of how much exposure to the L2 is optimal. One of these few studies was carried out by Duff and Polio (1990). The study showed that the teacher participants’ use of FL in their classrooms varied, ranging from 10% to 100% of the total classroom language use. Still, the question of how much L2 is an

optimal proportion remained unanswered in this study. More recently, Turnbull (2000) investigated four core French teachers' use of English (L1) and French (TL/L2) using tape-recording. He found that the four teachers differed in the amount the L2 used (e.g., 24% to 72% of French use). He believed that the FL teachers who spoke the TL less than 25% of class time were relying greatly on the L1. Turnbull, however, doubted whether this statement of reliance on the L1 can apply to a teacher who uses the TL during 50% of class time (i.e., equal distribution between L1 and L2 use). That is, it is difficult to decide how much of L2 use (e.g., 25%, 50% or 72%) can be considered a heavy reliance on the L1. Various sources, for example, studies by some authors (Cajkler & Addelman, 2000; Stern, 1992; J. Willis, 1996) call for a maximal amount of the FL/SL use in the FL/SL classes. Nevertheless, it seems that without giving stronger evidence, it is insufficient to indicate to teachers how they can maximise their students' learning in terms of the amount of the TL to be used in their classroom. In other words, little evidence has been provided so far in regard to the right amount to be considered maximal use of the L2. Despite the lack of evidence, Turnbull agrees with the call for maximising the TL use pedagogically. He believes that teachers must aim to maximise a TL, especially in the context where students have very few opportunities to use it outside the classroom. He suggests that maximising the TL use in the FL classes should be added to the official guidelines for teacher educators to "help teacher candidates and practising teachers make principled decisions" (Turnbull, 2001, p. 537) about the most suitable use of the L1. By doing this, it will help motivate teachers to expose their students to the TL. Furthermore, Turnbull (2001) argues that FL teachers still use the first language without being given permission to do so, for example by authorities. Giving permission for teachers to use the first language may lead to teachers' over-use of L1.

In sum, two main viewpoints have been discussed concerning the classroom language use for the teachers in their FL classes. The first viewpoint advocates teachers' maximisation of the TL without using the first language. This viewpoint seems to be practical if the teachers and the learners do not share the first language. The second viewpoint approves of the maximal use of the TL, while acknowledging the necessity of the first language use. Two issues arose with this latter viewpoint, i.e., maximising the TL use while accepting the use of the first language. Firstly, how much TL use in the FL classes is considered to be suitable and acceptable for teachers? This is still a debate. Secondly, teachers may potentially overuse the first language if they are officially

permitted to do so. Pedagogically, both these viewpoints can be considered parts of the FL teachers' theoretical framework for their teaching practice. In practice, as V. Cook (2001, 2008) notes, the teachers' use of the first language occurs naturally and thus, it is very difficult to avoid. Moreover, there was insufficient evidence that an increase in teachers' TL use would lead to an improvement in students' learning, as Macaro (2001) argues. Therefore, the L1 appears to be a valuable tool in the FL classes. If the teachers' use of the first language (L1) is seen as a natural practice, their FL instruction will then involve both languages (L1 and L2) in their classrooms. This leads to the common phenomenon of language alternation in classroom instructions: code-switching. In language education, code-switching may be used in some situations, for example, when the teachers report what someone has said, highlight information, discuss certain topics or emphasise particular roles (V. Cook, 2008, p. 180). In this light, Brice and Roseberry-McKibbin (2001) also propose what they term "strategies" of code-switching used in the classroom instruction that teachers should apply to their English teaching practices. Their suggestion of nine strategies of code-switching to be used can be categorised into four groups:

- dealing with vocabulary matters ;
- managing/ organising the classroom;
- building relationships with learners; and
- clarifying points of understanding.

Macaro (2001, 2014) urges some theorising of language teachers' code-switching and proposes a framework for this practice in the classroom context. In his framework, language teachers might take one of three positions: virtual, maximal, and optimal. In this light, with the virtual position, teachers need to avoid L1 in the SL/FL classroom because the language classroom is considered as the outside world, where L1 would not be suitable to be used for communication. Meanwhile, with the maximal position, the teacher, though seeing the classroom as the outside world, should use L1 due to students' low L2 proficiency. The third position, i.e. optimal, requires the teacher to be aware of both the advantages and disadvantages of practising code-switching, which may both facilitate and hinder students' L2 learning and use. This framework is significant for researchers in conceptualising and planning their studies of the phenomenon of code-switching in the classroom context (Barnard & McLellan, 2014). In addition, Macaro (2001) suggests that language teachers could adopt these theoretical positions, but they would need to take note of the practicality of the framework, for

example whether the virtual position is unachievable for teachers, or whether the maximal position is adequate for them.

2.3.2 Research in code-switching in classroom instruction

Types of code-switching

In language classrooms in the multilingual context of Kenya, Merritt et al. (1992) used ethnographic observations of classroom interaction to explore teachers' code-switching types. These authors classified the types of teachers' code-switching based on the content of the information of the switches in their instruction, rather the linguistic units or the social aspects, i.e., the situation and the topic. Their inductive analysis suggested four types of code-switching. They describe their first two types (type I and type II) as switches involving a whole sentence or interactional move i.e., switching across languages: English, Kiswahili and speakers' mother tongue. The third type (type III) is related to teachers' translation or word substitution i.e., switching within a sentence. The fourth type (type IV) is identified as teachers' switches with interactional particles, including discourse markers (e.g., "now then", "O.K.", "All right", "now"), and classroom management routines (e.g., "again, big voice", "speak loudly", "someone else") (Merritt et al., 1992).

Merritt et al.'s (1992) type I and type II could be seen as Poplack's (1980) inter-sentential code-switching (i.e. switching between sentences). Their type III could be Poplack's (1980) intra-sentential (i.e. switching within a sentence). However, their fourth type (type IV) does not appear to coincide with extra-sentential code-switching (i.e. switching involving tags, fillers, etc.) in Poplack's (1980) classification because they did not seem to consider such discourse markers as tags, but rather separate utterances.

In the language classroom, for example, FL/SL classrooms, researchers have used surveys and observations to identify teachers' code-switching types. For example, Lee (2010) conducted a survey-questionnaire study of the practice of code-switching among 42 English teachers at five selected national secondary schools in Malaysia. He found that all three types of code-switching categorised by Poplack (1980), including inter-sentential, intra-sentential and extra-sentential, were found in the participants' responses. Their switches at extra-sentential level were found to exist less frequently

compared to the other two. Three other studies, reviewed below, used observations to identify teachers' code-switching types.

The first is Greggio and Gil's (2007) analysis of Brazilian teachers' class recording transcripts. However, these two authors claimed in general that teachers code-switched involving "a word or a sentence" and "more than a sentence" (p. 375). Their claim appears to be a challenge for readers to link, for example, with Poplack's (1980) switching types because switching within a sentence can involve a word, a sentence or even more than a sentence when the speaker switches back and forth. The second study, Xu's (2010) investigation of the FL teachers in China, found that the teachers' switching was of the inter-sentential and intra-sentential code-switching types. The extra-sentential code-switching type was not found in her study. Furthermore, Xu did not provide any examples of teachers' code-switching types found in her study. In particular, the third study was carried out in a Vietnamese university EFL context by Le (2014). His analysis of four lessons observed from an EFL teacher showed that this teacher tended to code-switch between utterances, and usually in the form of translating her instruction from English into Vietnamese.

Teachers' code-switching was also examined in other studies (e.g., Brice, 2000; Rezvani & Raskh, 2011; Tayjasanant, 2014). These studies also found the three types of code-switching classified by Poplack (1980), as did the researchers above (i.e., Lee, 2010; Xu, 2010). Furthermore, all these studies except one (i.e., Tayjasanant, 2014), found that there were more teachers' inter-sentential switches, i.e., switches across utterances, than intra-sentential switches, i.e., switches within an utterance. In Tayjasanant's (2014) study of two university teachers of English in Thailand, extra-sentential code-switching (tag switching) was found to be practised more frequently than the other two types. According to Brice (2000, p. 25), teachers usually code-switch between sentences because, linguistically, inter-sentential switching is less complicated than intra-sentential switching.

It is evident that in the literature, code-switching is classified based on at least two perspectives: sociolinguistic and linguistic. The former, i.e., the sociolinguistic approach, relates to the change in settings, participants, and the topic shift, which are seldom found in the classroom context. Researchers in education, in particular in teaching and learning EFL, tend to identify the types of English teachers' switches based on the linguistic structure, rather than on the sociolinguistic classification. One

reason might be because English in the formalised context of the classroom differs from that in the social contexts. There are very few changes in the participants. That is, most of the interactions occur to a limited extent between the teacher and their students but not with third-party speaker(s). As a result, situational code-switching was rarely identified. In terms of metaphorical code-switching, which occurs when there is a change in the topic, the teachers' topic change seems to occur within their instruction, and it is understood as when teachers continue their instruction by using interactional moves rather than when they change to a new topic.

Functions of code-switching

In the context of the language classroom, examples of teachers' code-switching were found to serve four main groups of functions: the linguistic, the social, the discourse functions, and other functions related to language classrooms.

Linguistic functions

The linguistic functions of code-switching are understood as allowing the switcher to compensate for his/her linguistic deficiency in using the base language, e.g. shortage of the words or of expressions, or overcoming the gap in linguistic competence between the two languages. These linguistic functions of teachers' code-switching were found in studies of language classrooms such as Merritt et al. (1992), and Raschka et al. (2009). In the multilingual context of Kenya, Merritt et al., (1992) called this "linguistic insecurity" (p. 112). They found that teachers code-switched because they found it difficult to explain new concepts due to the lack of L1 vocabulary. This linguistic function was also confirmed by Raschka et al.'s (2009) study of two Taiwan teachers of English.

Social functions

Social functions of teachers' code-switching were also found to be prevalent in studies of the classroom setting, for example, Merritt et al. (1992), Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult, (1996) ; Raskha et al.(2009) and Camilleri (1996). The socialising function indicated by Merritt et al. (1992) was in the sense that teachers taught not only rules or behaviour in the classroom, but also social values. For example, a teacher switched when making an evaluative remark to a student who was wasting paper in the examination (the student did not use all the space on that piece of paper).

The social functions of code-switching are common in contexts outside the classrooms as, for example, a means for expressing group identity (Auer, 1998; Hoffmann, 1991) or a change of attitudes or relationships among the speakers (Baker, 2006). In the classroom context, the social functions can be understood as teachers' establishing close contact or relationships with students. For example, in Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult's (1996) study, the socialising function of teachers' switching was revealed via their positive attitude (e.g., teachers give praise to students) towards the tasks that their students had performed. These authors' approach to the social function is different from Merritt et al.'s perspective as reviewed above. That is, in Merritt et al.'s (1992) study, how teachers taught students social values (e.g., commenting on how a student is wasting paper) cannot be seen as their way of showing positive attitudes towards their students' task, but it could be seen as a way of showing a negative attitude or criticism. In the FL/SL context, particularly in Asia, the social functions can also be seen as teachers' establishing solidarity, or build a good rapport with students, as found, for example in Raschka et al.'s (2009), and Tien's (2014) studies in Taiwan, Martin's (2014) study in the Philippines, and Xu's (2010) Chinese study. This function was also pointed out by Camilleri (1996) in his study in Malta. Furthermore, the socialising function of teachers' switching was also identified in their use of jokes or personal talks with their students, as in Liu et al.'s (2004) study. Other studies that found similar socialising functions of teachers' code-switching in their classrooms include Canagarajah (1995), Sert (2005), and Lee (2010).

Discourse function

Of the five discourse functions of Gumperz (1982) (i.e., quotations, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, and message qualification), reiteration is the most common function found in studies of teachers' code-switching in classroom instruction. Reiteration can be understood as teachers' repeating what they have just said in another language (either L1 or L2). Examples of these studies are Merritt et al. (1992), Then and Ting (2011), and Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1996). Merritt et al.'s (1992) study in Kenya, where children live in a bi- or tri-lingual environment, found the teachers' use of exact repetition in their instruction was to help the teachers avoid the negative effect on their students' learning. That is, in their instruction, the teachers were inconsistent in both oral use and the blackboard use of, for example, lack of concord between singular or plural noun and verb, or capitalisation in writing a list. Their inconsistency of instruction might not affect the content of the lesson, but would instead cause students'

grammatical mistakes in their examination. Therefore, teachers' repetition of their instruction helps prevent students from getting bad results.

In a similar context, Then and Ting's (2011) Malaysian study found the same function of teachers' code-switching as Merritt et al.'s (1992) study, i.e., reiteration. In the French language classroom, Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1996) examined the functions of teachers' code-switching using 24 recordings of lessons. Their top-down analysis indicated that teachers code-switched in order to repeat their instruction. The teachers' reiteration in these three studies has one commonality: to facilitate their students' comprehension. The function of reiteration was also found in other studies such as Arthur (1996), Sultana and Gulza (2010) and Raschka et al. (2009).

Classroom-related functions

Teachers' code-switching which serve the functions related to the classroom are evident in most of the studies of the language classroom. Such classroom functions were identified as dealing with English grammar or vocabulary, and classroom management. For example, Then and Ting (2011) found in their study of multilingual classrooms that teachers' code-switched in the language classroom to explain vocabulary, call attention from students, or maintain the discipline of the classroom. Other studies in a similar context to Then and Ting (2011) found similar language classroom functions, e.g., Arthur's (1996) study in Botswana and Sultana and Gulza's study (2010) in Malaysia.

In the FL/SL context, various studies of teachers' code-switching found the same functions related to the classroom. Examples of these studies are Addendorff (1993), Arthur (1996), Zabrodska (2007), and Moore (2002), Üstünel and Seedhouse, (2005). In particular, classroom-related functions were evident in numerous studies of code-switching in the Asian FL contexts: in Malaysian by Ahmad and Jusoff (2009); in Korea by Liu et al. (2004); in China by Tian (2014); in the Philippines by Martin (2014); and in Vietnam by Le (2014). In these studies, teachers' code-switched to explain grammar rules of the second or foreign language, explain vocabulary, maintain the flow of instruction, clarify the instruction, and comment on or evaluate students' tasks. These typical functions of teachers' switching in their FL/SL classrooms, normally into the first language (L1), do match Cook's (2001, 2002, 2008) suggestions of teachers' using the L1 in the FL/SL context.

As presented above, there are four main categories of teachers' code-switching functions found in the language classroom context. The linguistic functions appear to be far less common than the other three groups of functions in language classrooms in both multilingual and FL/SL contexts. It seems that the most typical functions of language teachers' code-switching are those related to their classroom activities. These four groups of functions help us to understand the pedagogical aspect of teachers' code-switching in their classrooms. Alongside the above reviewed studies, numerous studies have particularly addressed the pedagogical aspect of teachers' code-switching. These studies saw code-switching as one of teachers' pedagogical strategies (Makulloluma, 2013), searched for pedagogical reasons for the practice (Wu, 2013), or focussed (Wu, 2013) on the pedagogical functions of code-switching (Ibrahim, Shah, & Armia, 2013). For example, Makulloluma (2013) examined teachers' code-switching in the English classroom in a university in Sri Lanka, using both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative data (audio recordings, interviews, and observation). He found that teachers switched to L1 as a useful strategy, e.g. to enhance students' understanding of L2, to reduce tense of students, and to deal with difficult concepts.

Researchers have traditionally seemed to prefer combining in their studies the situations where teachers code-switch with the functions of their switches. Only a few of them distinguish between the situations and the functions, for example, Greggio and Gil (2007) and Khresheh (2012). Greggio and Gil's (2007) study found four situations in which teachers code-switched:

- explaining grammar;
- giving instruction;
- monitoring/assisting students; and
- correcting activities (e.g., correcting students' pronunciation, or exercises)

In his study in the Saudi Arabian FL classrooms of 15 teachers, Khresheh (2012) found that the teachers code-switched in three situations, which are different from those of Greggio and Gil (2007). Those three situations are when:

- teachers spoke English for a long stretch of time;
- teachers' instruction involved translation; and
- students had difficulty expressing themselves in the L2 , so the teacher code-switched to their L1 to give them the vocabulary they needed or to encourage them

In the present study I distinguish the situations in which the teachers code-switch from the functions that their switches serve. This is because, in my view, the situations answer the question of when teachers code-switch in their classroom instruction. The functions, however, refer to what their switches do in such situations.

Factors leading to teachers' code-switching

Many studies investigating teachers' code-switching in classroom instruction did not distinguish the two aspects of the phenomenon: functions of and reasons for teachers' code-switching. Examples of such studies include Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie's (2002) study in the University of Queensland ;Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005) research in a Turkish University; and Raskha et al.'s (2009) examination of teachers' classroom language use in Taiwan. However, there are authors who distinguish between the functions of the teachers' code-switching and the reasons why they code-switch (e.g., Kang, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001).

From my viewpoint, it is necessary to make a distinction between functions of teachers' switching and reasons for their code-switching. It is noted that the two terms 'reason' and 'factor' are used interchangeably in this study. The investigation into the functions of teachers' code-switching provides the answer for the questions of what their switches do, as stated previously. Studying the reasons for their switching answers the question of why they code-switch. Moreover, while the functions of teachers' switches can only be visible via observations and class recordings, the reasons for teachers' code-switching are usually found through three sources of information: observations , class recordings and teachers' explanations in, say, interviews. There were various factors that led to the teachers' code-switching found in a number of studies (Greggio & Gil, 2007; Kang, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005). Such factors examined in these research studies are grouped into two main categories: teacher factors and student factors.

Kim and Elder (2008) investigated the practices and perceptions of two cases of native speaker teachers (one is French and the other is Korean) of the TL in FL classrooms in New Zealand. Analysis of their participants' lesson transcripts showed that there were four factors that caused teachers to code-switch. The first factor was the teachers' attitude towards TL use, i.e., their view about language teaching and learning, their awareness of language use. The second factor was the teachers' physical or mental state (e.g., the teachers' impatience), the third factor was the teachers' language educational

background, and the fourth factor was the teachers' time pressure. Similarly, Kang (2013) examined two Korean elementary school EFL teachers' language use for classroom discipline. She also found some factors leading to teachers' code-switching to be the same as the ones that Kim and Elder (2008) had pointed out, i.e., the teachers' awareness about their language use and the teachers' educational background. The factors that caused teachers to code-switch found by these authors are teacher-related factors, which are also addressed in my study (see Chapter 5).

Other teacher factors arose from the classroom needs, e.g., to encourage students to speak (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005) to make sure of students' comprehension (Greggio & Gil, 2007) , or to perform procedural instruction (Macaro, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002). Teachers code-switched to their first language (Arabic) to deal with a cultural concept of, for example, Muslim people's religious cultural behaviour of performing ablution which occurs before praying because this concept does not have an exact equivalent in English (Khresheh, 2012). In particular, Le (2014) conducted a case study of a teacher in the Vietnamese university context, and found that the teacher code-switched because she underestimated the students' ability in the target language. Furthermore, based on the evidence of the teacher's unnecessary switches, he claimed that many of the teacher's switches from English to Vietnamese in his study were habitual and automatic.

The student-related factors that caused teachers to code-switch were found in far fewer studies. Kim and Elder (2008) found that the teachers in their study code-switched because of the students' poor level of English and the students' physical or emotional state, for example when they are unwell or unhappy. Other authors found that teachers code-switched because they wanted their students to be relaxed or less stressed (Greggio & Gil, 2007; Kang, 2013; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002). In these studies, the students felt more comfortable or more relaxed in many situations when their teacher code-switched. In other words, their emotional state can be seen as a motivation for their teachers to code-switch. This is a reason for teachers' to code-switch as Kim and Elder (2008) pointed out. The student factors that lead to teachers' code-switching are also discussed in my study (see Chapter 5).

Teachers' code-switching and students' language behaviour

Although teachers' code-switching functions have greatly attracted various researchers, it seems that the relationships of both teachers' code-switching and their students'

language behaviour have not yet drawn much attention from researchers. Few studies on such relationships have been investigated thus far, to my knowledge.

The first was conducted by Liu et al. (2004). They classified students' responses to teachers' code-switching into eight categories of what language the students used to respond to their teachers. These categories were aimed to find out the impact of the teachers' code-switching on their students' language behaviour. The authors found that the students reciprocated their teachers' use of language (either English or Korean), and concluded that students used "the same language as teachers" (Liu et al., 2004, p. 625), in their response. It is noted here that teachers' code-switching always involves two languages. However, the authors did not provide sufficient evidence of the effect of teachers' behaviour of code-switching on their students' language behaviour. Instead, the authors only focused on which language (i.e., English or Korean) the teachers used and in which language the students responded to their teachers. Furthermore, all the eight categories of language behaviour the authors found involved teachers' mono-language use (i.e., utterances either in English or in Korean); none of them involved teachers' code-switching practice in relation to their students' language behaviour. In some examples of teachers' code-switching, they only provided teachers' switching between two utterances, and indicated the students reciprocated their teacher's language of the switches (i.e., the language of the latter utterance). However, they did not mention how teachers' code-switching of other types (i.e., within an utterance and tag switching) affected students' language behaviour. Furthermore, they also indicated that students did not use the same language as their teachers. In this case, which language students used in their response depended on how difficult or complex the teachers' questions were. It should be noted here that the authors' finding about the students' reciprocation of their teachers' language can be seen as one of the students' language behaviours. Other behaviours might include: students' code-switching and students' non-response behaviour (i.e., students' silence).

The second study was carried out by Xu (2010). She only made a very general claim in her study that the teachers' language use seemed to affect students' language behaviour in class and that the students' decision on what language to use usually depended on how difficult and complex the teachers' questions were. That is, students tended to use their first language (Chinese) in their response to the teachers when the teachers' questions were difficult and complex. However, this author did not provide any evidence of the effect of teachers' code-switching on students' language behaviour in

her study. This is a gap in knowledge that the present study attempts to address. That is, the present study aims include an examination of the relationships between teachers' code-switching employment and their students' responding language behaviour (see Chapter 6).

2.4 Classroom language policy

Language policy has been approached from two main perspectives: "text" and/or "discourse" (Ball, 1993). Firstly, from the text perspective, language policy means that what influences language choice behaviour is a written text or document made by, for example, an authority. Thus, from this perspective, policy is considered at the text level, or the level of management in Spolsky's (2004, 2007) terms. Secondly, language policy is also viewed as discourse. That is, speakers' language beliefs and attitudes influence their language behaviour (Spolsky, 2004). Therefore, it is argued that policy should not be separated from practice and that language policy needs to combine both these two levels, i.e. text and discourse (Spolsky, 2004). In other words, it is necessary for language policy to focus on not only the management level but the level of actual practices as well.

Furthermore, in Spolsky's (2004, 2007) model of language policy, there are three interrelated elements: language management; language beliefs; and language practices. This is a third approach to language policy, which is referred to as "practiced language policy" (Bonacina-Pugh, 2012, p. 216). In the literature, at least three categories of recommendations for language policy in the classroom have been proposed based on one or two of the above perspectives:

- separation of language from content instruction (i.e., no code-switching);
- acceptance of controlled code-switching; and,
- incorporation of teachers' awareness of code-switching in the classroom.

The first recommendation is for a strict separation of language in content subject instruction. This discourages any form of code-switching. This recommendation seems to be supported by educational authorities. The reason is that SL acquisition is facilitated by students' consistent exposure to the TL (Ferguson, 2003). Authors such as (V. Cook, 2002, 2008) , or (Macaro, 2001) do not seem to advocate the separation of the two languages, but rather see the use of both languages, i.e. code-switching, as teachers' common and natural practice.

The second recommendation is for proposals for accepting code-switching under certain conditions. Faltis (1989) refers to this approach as the “New Concurrent Approach” which was developed in the United States for bilingual Spanish-English classrooms. Accordingly, code-switching is controlled in the following ways:

- only inter-sentential switching is permitted;
- all switching is teacher-initiated; and
- teacher switches must be in response to a consciously identified cue (e.g., praise, subject matter review, capturing students’ attention) (Faltis, 1989, p. 122).

These proposals seem to be impractical in, for example, the University FL classrooms in Vietnam because there are usually large crowded classes in this context. Moreover, while teachers’ code-switching occurs commonly as well as naturally in the classrooms, it is not clear how this phenomenon is to be controlled (Ferguson 2003).

The third recommendation, which was proposed by Addendorff (1993), is based on pragmatic practices. He stresses that that teacher education programmes could incorporate “consciousness-raising” of classroom code-switching as a phenomenon into their curricula (Addendorff, 1993, pp. 153-154). The aims of these implications, according to this author, are firstly, teachers could be aware of the existence of code-switching as a common behaviour. Secondly, they would be informed of some of the functions of code-switching, e.g., maintaining the atmosphere of the classroom or dealing with students’ behaviours so that they are aware of when and why code-switching is helpful or not to them and their students.

There have been studies of language use policies, e.g., code-switching employment, as it applies to educational settings. Examples of these studies are Ljosland (2011) , Willans (2011), Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2003), Kieu (2010), Rasckha et al. (2009), and Sultana and Gulza (2010). In most of these studies, initially the policies are approached from the authorities’ or management’s perspective, i.e., discouraging the code-switching phenomenon in the classroom. They all have another thing in common. That is, whatever the official policies were, the teachers still code-switched, using both languages in their classrooms. For example, Ljosland (2011) conducted a case study of a department in a Norwegian university. The study was done in a circumstance that all the teaching in this context is required to be conducted in English. He found that apart from English, Norwegian was being used in a number of settings despite the course being officially English-medium. These tend to be mainly spoken situations where all

speakers have a language other than English in common. Ljosland claims that a decision to make a certain course English-medium does not necessarily mean that all communication will be conducted solely in English. Similarly, Willans (2011) carried out research at one Anglophone secondary school in Vanuatu where students were banned from using any languages other than English or French, which are the languages of instruction. However, code-switching between the official language and the other language such as Bislama (the national language but not an official language of instruction) occurred commonly as a result of students' poor mastery of the medium of instruction.

In another study of two educational settings (Tanzania and South Africa) conducted by Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2003), their concern was how the language policies work in reality. They reported that whatever the official policies may be, the teachers will use the language they and their students feel most comfortable with. They found that when the policies come into practice in classrooms most of the learners struggle to learn academic content.

The conflicts of policy and practice were also found in other studies (Liu et al., 2004; Raschka et al., 2009; Sultana & Gulzar, 2010). An effective classroom language policy, according to Willans (2011), must be that firstly it allows and encourages the use of whichever language practices will best facilitate understanding and engagement with learning. Secondly, it promotes the effective teaching of English in a way that will enable students to pursue further education and participate in the "ever-globalizing world" (Willans, 2011, pp. 36-37). Since code-switching practice conflicts with the school policy, such useful practices are often carried out covertly and learning may actually thus be hindered by the language policy.

Kieu (2010) conducted a study in three universities in Vietnam, touching one level of the language policy for teachers of English in this context, i.e. teachers' attitudes toward the use of the L1 in the L2 classrooms. Her analysis of the surveys of 12 teachers showed that Vietnamese played an important role in these teachers' L2 classes in some situations, for example when teaching grammar, vocabulary or checking comprehension. It is apparent from Kieu's (2010) study that the notion of language policy as practice is necessary, because it is insufficient to consider language policy merely at the text level, i.e. the level of management. In other words, a language policy would work better when it combines both the management's role and the practitioners'

beliefs and practice. Teachers' views of the use of L1 and L2 are also addressed in my study (see Chapter 7, section 7.2) as one level of the classroom language policy for teachers in their FL teaching context as well as a source of reference for language policy-makers in Vietnam.

2.5 Summary

Overall, three main issues have been discussed in this chapter: code-switching in bilingualism, code-switching in classroom instruction, and classroom language policy.

Concerning bilingualism in which code-switching is a typical feature, there seems to be no perfect definition of bilingualism that serves all contexts. In this study context of FL education, bilingualism is defined with a stress on the speakers' ability to sufficiently perform two (one receptive and one productive) of the four skills of the TL.

Again, defining the code-switching phenomenon depends on the person making it. I use the term code-switching to cover both code-mixing and code-switching, to refer to the practice of using two languages alternately within the same or between utterances or turns. It is also necessary to consider borrowing as a form of code-switching. Code-switching types have been classified based on mainly sociolinguistic and linguistic aspects. The matrix frame model proposed by Myers-Scotton (1993, 2006) appears to be problematic when it comes to identifying the matrix language in turns involving multiple utterances. Code-switching serves various functions. Social and discourse functions of code-switching are common in the contexts outside classrooms. This phenomenon performs numerous functions which are also typical of language classroom. The most common functions that code-switching performs in the language classroom include: dealing with grammar and vocabulary, managing the classroom, maintaining the flow of instruction, clarifying instructions, and commenting on or evaluating students' tasks.

There have been debates, both pedagogically and empirically, on the teachers' use of the first and the FL/SL in the FL/SL classes. In theory, maximal use of the L2 is obviously encouraged, while in practice, the use of the L1 occurs naturally and unavoidably. As a result, the code-switching phenomenon frequently occurs in the FL classes. Educational researchers often focused on the linguistic rather than the social aspects to classify the types of teachers' code-switching in the classrooms. In the present study, I use the term 'form' to classify teachers' code-switching. Examples of

the switching forms are fillers/- tags, parts of utterances or whole utterances, and borrowing. I approach code-switching with a distinction between the situations (when teachers' switching occurs), the functions (what their switches do), and the reasons (why teachers code-switch). Less evidence of the relationships between teachers' code-switching and their students' language behaviour has been provided thus far in the literature. This study addresses this (see Chapter 6). The present study does not aim to provide a classroom language policy. However, it touches on this issue at one level, i.e., teachers' and their students' discussion of the issue of their beliefs in, and their opinions of, the teachers' practices and their wishes in regard to the teachers' professional development.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodological approach to the study and the issues related to it. The purpose of the first section is to restate the overarching research question, and sub-questions that the study addresses. The second section discusses the ethnographic research approach, which is applied as the methodology of this study. The next two sections justify the methodology adopted in this study and describe the study design in terms of the methods for collecting and analysing data. The fifth section deals with the ethical aspects of the study. The chapter ends with a summary of the key points presented in previous sections.

3.1 Research questions

As stated in Chapter 1, the present study addressed the overarching question:

How do we understand Vietnamese university EFL teachers' code-switching in their classroom instruction?

For readers' benefit, I copy here the sub-questions that were derived from the above overarching question:

- 1) In what situations do Vietnamese university EFL teachers switch between L1 (Vietnamese) and L2 (English) in their FL classes?
- 2) What form do the switches take?
- 3) What functions do the teachers' switches serve?
- 4) Why do teachers code-switch in their language classrooms?
- 5) What is the relationship between the teachers' code-switching and students' language behaviour in teacher-students interactions?

To investigate the issues expressed in the research questions above, I adopted ethnography as the methodology that informs the research procedures. The following section will first describe this approach and then justify the adoption of the approach in conducting the present study.

3.2 Ethnography as methodology

The term “ethnography” is used and understood in various ways, as: a theoretical research tradition, distinguishing among, for example, ethnography, grounded theory and phenomenology (Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002); a research approach (Creswell, 2007); a research strategy (Walford, 2008; Murchison, 2010); a social science practice, meaning doing ethnographic research (Madden, 2010); and a research methodology (Starfield, 2010). In my study, I considered ethnography my research methodology, framing what I researched into and how I did the research work, including the gaining of access to the research site, participant recruitment, data collection methods, data analysis methods, research procedures, presentation, discussion and interpretation of data.

A key term in ethnography, according to authors such as LeCompte and Schensul (1999), Walford (2008) and Creswell (2008) is culture. For these authors, ethnography focuses on an understanding of a culture by engaging and interacting with its members, as well as by observing these members in their daily activities. Ethnography, as a qualitative research approach, provides an answer to the question of what the culture of a group of people is (Patton, 2002). This culture can be a “small culture” (Holliday, 1999, p. 237), which consists of cohesive behaviours or practices within the individuals of that group. In particular, ethnography also investigates social situations such as classrooms (Burns, 2000). That is to say, ethnographic research seeks to gain an understanding of various situations and to answer a variety of questions about such situations. It is important that to gain this understanding of a culture, a combination of both insiders’ (emic) perspective and outsiders’ or researcher’s (etic) perspective be needed (Fetterman, 1998; Madden, 2010; Murchison, 2010). The ideas related to the concepts of culture and emic and etic perspectives, which framed the design of the present study, are presented below.

Given that the very first thing to bear in mind when considering ethnography is the notion of culture, one must consider the meaning of this term, which is defined in numerous ways. One of the most common definitions of culture describes it as “collection of behaviour patterns and beliefs” (Patton, 2002, p. 81). Similarly, the term is used to refer to language, beliefs, behaviours, and attitudes (Creswell, 2007, 2008; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999). That is to say, any group of people who share some of those components can be regarded as a cultural group, and such a group shares a

culture, hence it is a “culture-sharing group” in Creswell’s (2008, p. 473) terms. While there are contested definitions of culture, in this study I adopt Richards and Morse’s (2007) definition of culture, as “an abstract concept used to account for the beliefs, and behaviours of cohesive groups of people” (p. 53). By these notions, teachers in an educational setting, for example FL classes, can be considered a cultural group, or a professional group in which teachers share a behaviour of using both English, and Vietnamese as well as their beliefs about this common practice.

Stressing the flexibility of ethnography, Starfield (2010) notes that ethnographic approaches can be applied to investigate language practices within groups, or institutions. In the present study, I consider Vietnamese EFL teachers who work in the same university over a certain period of time to be a cultural group. This cultural group is familiar to me as I am one of the English teachers within the group. These teachers share a cultural behaviour: they practise code-switching, i.e. using both Vietnamese and English alternately to teach in their EFL classes. In addition, they share certain beliefs about their practice (e.g., their attitudes towards their use of both English and Vietnamese in their instruction of English). The focus of the present study is placed on the entire group of teachers who practise using the two languages alternately, rather than on an individual teacher’s practice.

In addition, LeCompte and Schensul (1999) highlight that ethnography:

- is carried out in a natural context;
- involves face-to-face interaction with participants;
- reveals participants’ perspectives or reflections in regard to their practices, and
- interprets results using the concept of culture as a lens (p. 9).

The natural context, also known as the “culture context” (Johnson, 1992, p. 134), in this study, involves the classrooms where teachers practise using both English and Vietnamese in their instruction of English. The natural context is also the setting where we (the research participants and I) discussed issues related to teachers’ use of English and Vietnamese in their English classroom. These natural places are the cafés, the teachers’ university campuses, or the teachers’ own houses, which are familiar to us. Being familiar with the context was advantageous to me in understanding it. In particular, we share the first language, Vietnamese, and we code-switch in our English classrooms while giving instruction. Face-to-face contact and interaction with the teachers throughout all the research procedures helped me to build rapport with them.

This was very useful because the teachers felt comfortable when I observed them in their classes. Furthermore, peer observation by colleagues is a common practice in this university (see also Chapter 1, section 1.3). I believe that my presence (though as a researcher) had caused little interference with this natural setting. Therefore, the possibility of changes in their code-switching behaviours did not appear likely to occur.

Ethnography focuses on developing or generating cultural understanding, i.e., explaining what people do, what they think, or what they believe. This is the local understanding as it is found within a single group in a specific location. Providing “thick description” is seen as the most suitable ethnographic reporting method (A. Mackey & Gass, 2005). According to these two authors, thick description means that the researcher presents his/her findings from multiple perspectives, particularly participants’ perspectives, to gain insights into the topic of the study. Thick description is used to refer to a feature of ethnography which an ethnographer applies to enhance transferability, a criterion for trustworthiness (see below). Discussing the third of the four features listed above (i.e., the participants’ perspectives or reflection), LeCompte and Schensul (1999) note that interpretations, usually with thick description, are drawn from the researcher’s own experience or professional disciplines after he/she discovers what the participants do and the reasons for their practices. Reflection is also referred to as “reflexivity” by some authors (e.g., Hammersly & Atkinson, 2010; Starfield, 2010). Reflexivity is described as “the researcher’s ability to reflect on their own positioning and subjectivity in the research and provide an explicit, situated account of their own role in the project and its influences over the findings” (Starfield, 2010, p. 54).

The participants’ perspectives are referred to as the “emic” or insiders’ perspectives by such authors as David (1995) and Mackey and Gass (2005), who emphasise the importance of the “emic” view for an ethnographic researcher. However, other authors (e.g., Fetterman, 1998; Heigham & Sakui, 2009; Murchison, 2010) claim that both an emic view, and an etic (i.e., the outsider’s or the researcher’s) view are necessary in an ethnographic study. An etic perspective is particularly important in doing an ethnographic research in a setting the researcher is familiar with (Madden, 2010) to avoid the likelihood of the researcher being over-biased by his/her own experiences and understanding of the setting. Furthermore, I made an effort to keep these two perspectives balanced. Firstly, the research involved teachers’ own accounts and perspectives, as well as my professional experience as an insider of the group. Secondly, teachers’ practice of code-switching was interpreted through an etic view,

i.e., my own viewpoints as the researcher on their practices. In this study, my role was both as an insider and outsider.

Despite the many benefits and insights that can be gained through ethnography, there are several disadvantages in adopting ethnography as the methodological approach. One is the difficulty of generalising the findings (Heigham & Sakui, 2009). This is because an ethnographic study aims for local knowledge and different cultural settings are different; thus, it is impossible to generalise how the findings of a specific study would apply in other contexts. A further weakness mentioned by many authors (e.g., Burns, 2000; Creswell, 2008; Patton, 2002) is bias, the lack of a neutral viewpoint. Recommendations have been provided by Denzin and Lincoln (2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, 2008) on ways to minimise these weaknesses and increase trustworthiness. In these authors' view, credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability can be regarded as four criteria for trustworthiness. These criteria are discussed below, particularly in terms of how they are related to the present study.

First, in the present study, in order to aim for credibility in investigating the issue of interest and answering the research questions, a well-based methodology has been selected (i.e., ethnography). Triangulation has been used in this study as, according to many authors, it strengthens credibility (Creswell, 1998, 2007; Stake, 2000; Starfield, 2010; Yin, 2003, 2009). Triangulation is defined by Fetterman (1998) as "the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspects of human behaviour" (p. 419). In the present study I triangulated by using the following sources of information: classroom observations; class recordings; field notes; interviews with teachers and interviews with students. In addition, to strengthen the credibility, though time-consuming, I used member checks (i.e., taking the interview transcriptions back to the participants and asking them to correct the researcher's misinterpretations, if any).

Second, to reinforce transferability, the research context and the participants were considered. Regarding the context of the research, Mackey and Gass (2005) note that the findings of a qualitative study might not be directly transferred to other contexts. However, a researcher's method of reporting thick description helps the readers to determine similar contexts so that readers can transfer findings from a particular study to their own contexts (A. Mackey & Gass, 2005; Starfield, 2010). Thick description, as discussed early in this section, consists of particular descriptions and general descriptions (David, 1995). Examples of particular descriptions are typical examples

from the data, and examples of general descriptions are commonalities of the practice of participants. Accordingly, a site that is common, but not unusual (i.e., the participants' EFL classes at the university), and participants who are typical, but not extreme (i.e., typical EFL teachers who volunteered for the study) were selected in the present study. Moreover, a thick description of the findings (e.g., typical examples of teachers' code-switching, and their beliefs about their practice) has been given in my discussions of the findings so that readers are able to compare the research situation in this study with their own research situation. That is, by being provided with such a description of the context, readers and researchers who are in contexts similar to that of the study can determine which findings may be applied to their own situations. For example, the ability to determine the level of similarity with contexts such as other universities, or even primary/secondary schools in Vietnam or countries with a similar sociocultural context, allows researchers to determine which findings might be applied appropriately to their situation (see Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7).

Third, dependability, according to some authors, involves, for example, clear research questions, concrete sampling criteria, or good relationships with participants (A. Mackey & Gass, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Dependability has been considered in this study to the extent that clear research questions have been formulated, and data from a sample that represented cross sections of the EFL teachers' population (i.e., in terms of participants' teaching experience and gender) were selected. In relation to the good rapport with the participants, explanations (e.g., about the researcher's role, status, and the aims of the research) were explicitly provided to the participants at the research site and these were provided before the study commenced, and before volunteers were sought.

Finally, to enhance confirmability, some aspects of the research are described in detail, such as those included by Miles and Huberman (1994), e.g., stages of collecting data and processes of analysing data. That is, general methods and procedures for collecting data, as well as methods for data analysis, are explicitly described in detail in the following section. Furthermore, my own biases in conducting the research were noted and are explicitly described in the interpretation of the participants' perspectives.

In terms of data collection methods, ethnography involves multiple techniques to obtain information, typically using observation, field notes taken in an authentic natural setting, and interviewing. Observation means being present in the natural setting and

taking note of what happens, and this is usually done along with the recording of field notes. By employing these methods, the researcher can get detailed information about what is being studied, for example, people's activities, behaviour and interactions (Patton, 2002; J. W. Willis, 2007; Yin, 2003, 2009). The meanings and perspectives of the participants are revealed via observation, and the researcher can gain insights and better understand the context where the participants interact (Patton, 2002; Starfield, 2010). Interviewing is also an effective technique to gain insights into people's behaviour and experience (Seidman, 2006). By combining these three techniques, the researcher can obtain more holistic interpretations of the topic being investigated (Merriam, 1998).

Ethnography also informs the methods of data analysis. Inductive analysis, which involves discovering patterns, themes or categories in one's data, is typically carried out from the early stages (Burns, 2000; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Murchison, 2010; Patton, 2002). These authors also refer to inductive data analysis as one of the main characteristics of an ethnographer who employs an ethnographic approach as the methodology. The methods for data collection and analysis, informed by the ethnographic approach, will be set out in greater detail in the study design described in the following section.

3.3 Data collection

This section describes the data collection phase, including a description of the research site, access to the research site, the pilot study, and the processes and methods used in collecting data.

3.3.1 Site and access

The university which was selected as the research site in this study is one of the regional universities of the country and is located in the north of Vietnam. Regional universities are comprised of different schools of various subject areas, and represent particular geographical areas in Vietnam. They are the most typical universities in Vietnam because of the subject areas taught as well as the large number of students studying there. Many other universities specialise in training subject majors, for example, the national music university or the medical university. The selected university, with its ten member schools, has approximately 9,000 students (mainly from the north of the

country) enrolling in every academic year. It is located in an urban area which can be seen as the centre of the northern mountainous provinces of Vietnam. As stated earlier in this chapter, I am one of the teachers in this university.

As described in section 1.1 (Chapter 1), English is an FL taught to and learnt by the vast majority of students in the selected university. For example, in the university school where I work, all the students learn English as a compulsory general course. Though English is widely taught and learnt in the university, English seems to be used only in the English classroom. It is apparent that students (and even their Vietnamese EFL teachers) seldom use English outside the classroom. This means that most students (except English-majored ones), with three English classes (each lasting 50 minutes) per week, do not have many opportunities to be exposed to and to use English.

To gain access to the research site (i.e., to be given permission to conduct the study in the university), I applied for permission to the Presidential Board, the highest management level of the university in the Vietnamese university organisational system. I met the Vice President who was in charge of academic and personnel issues and presented him with appropriate documents, i.e. my application for permission to conduct the study in the university, prepared sample Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form to be signed by those who would volunteer to be involved in the study, and Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) ethics approval (see Appendix 1). I also presented the purpose of the study and stressed my commitment to the protection of potential participants' confidentiality. The Vice President officially agreed for me to recruit teacher and student volunteers as participants and to collect data as I had proposed. Furthermore, I was also given a list of names of the English teachers in the university, including information of their career start dates (so I could know about each teacher's teaching experience, i.e. novice and experienced teachers, as I wanted to recruit both) and their contact details.

3.3.2 Pilot study

After gaining access to the research site from the University Vice-President, and prior to the official data collection phase, I conducted a pilot study to try out my research tools (i.e., the interview guide and the observation protocol I had designed), the procedure in recruiting participants, as well as the processes of recording data.

I contacted an experienced EFL teacher whose contact details were provided on the list of names that the Vice President of the university had given me and contacted the first teacher for my pilot project. She asked me to see her to talk about the research. I then went to her school, leaving the Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form (see Appendix 2a, and 3a) for her to read later because she was teaching at that time. She called me back by the end of that day to confirm that she agreed to participate in my pilot study and that I could come to observe her classes any day that week. We planned the pilot observation together and decided that she would introduce me to the class and tell the students about the purpose of my observation, as well as that she would give me five minutes at the end of the class to recruit a student participant from the students in her class by asking one of them to volunteer.

Before the observation, we discussed how to record her lesson. She decided not to wear the microphone I had brought along because she said that it was not comfortable for her and her students. Instead, she suggested that I leave the recorder on one of the empty front desks. She went to the class with me and introduced me as her colleague who wanted to attend and record the class hour of her teaching. All the students clapped their hands to welcome me, which is typical behaviour of how students react to any visitor to their class. I quietly found a spare seat at the back of the classroom, and started to take notes. It was not a very large class, with about 30 students, more than half of the students were females. That day the teacher was helping the students to revise some of the English verb tenses (Observation, T0, 12th January 2012). The teacher kept calling individual students to ask them to speak and to answer her questions about the grammatical points she was explaining. Her students seemed to speak very little, even when they were called on to answer individually, and some of them remained silent. They mostly responded to their teacher in chorus. My observation of this class also showed that some of the students seemed to get bored with their teacher's instruction because they started their private talks not related to the lesson in Vietnamese. In particular, several yawned and put their heads in their tables.

To recruit one of these students as a participant, I used the five or seven minutes their teacher gave me to talk briefly about the purposes of my research and the chance to recruit one of them as my participant. I was happy because there were many hands raised to show me that they wanted to be involved in the project. I quickly decided to choose the first student to raise his hand, provided him with the Participant Information

Sheet and Consent Form (see Appendices 2b, 3b). He and I arranged the plan for the pilot student interview.

The interview with the recruited student occurred right after the observed class in a spare classroom. I used the recorder to record the interview. We talked, in the Vietnamese language, about the issues as presented in the guide for student interviews: the student's opinion about his teacher's use of English and Vietnamese, how he felt about his teacher's use of these two languages, and the language(s) he used in response to his teacher in his English class. The reason for the use of Vietnamese in this interview was that I understood that the student would not be, at least, linguistically competent enough in English to understand my questions and prompts or to express his ideas. This interview lasted 15 minutes.

The pilot interview with the teacher was done in a café, which was the teacher's choice, in the following week. The interview lasted 45 minutes, and was based on the interview guide that I had prepared. In this interview, both the teacher and I used Vietnamese, and sometimes we switched between Vietnamese and English. I found that the use of Vietnamese and the switches made both of us feel comfortable in our conversation, particularly for the teacher to express her opinions and subtle ideas.

I had three weeks to transcribe the pilot observation and the two interviews, as well as to prepare for the official observations and interviews as that time was the New Year's holidays in Vietnam. This meant that all teachers and students had a break of three weeks. Thus, the first few weeks of the total of five months I spent in Vietnam were used for me to gain access to the research site, carry out the pilot study and transcribe the recordings of the pilot teacher and her student.

Concerning the transcription of the recordings, the sound quality of the observation recording files was very good. I could easily identify the teacher's instruction as well as the students' language in their response to the teacher. The interview recording files were less clear because of noise interference from vehicles and people's conversations. However, I had no difficulty hearing the teacher's and her student's voices due to the noise-cut function of the recorder. No change was made to the transcripts of the recordings other than changes to the field notes. That is, I decided to include time checks in my field notes of the next teachers' observations. This helped me to cross-check when I transcribed the observation recordings. The transcripts were brought back to the pilot teacher and her student immediately after their break for member-checking.

Both the teacher and the student agreed with my transcriptions, indicating that what I had transcribed was the same as what actually happened and what they said in the interviews. In addition, the teacher asked me for a copy of my transcript of her observed class. She seemed to be very interested in it because she had never seen any transcripts of classroom teaching before (Field notes, T0, 24th January 2012).

Thus, doing the pilot study was helpful to my main data collection phase. The pilot observation contributed to my observations in the main study in terms how to record the teacher's teaching practice in different ways, as follows. It appeared that when the recorder was placed on one of the empty front desks (which were for teachers to put the cassette-player or other teaching equipment on), it was strong enough to record both the teacher's and the students voices during a class. Furthermore, by sitting in a far corner in the classroom, I could observe everything that happened and took notes around teachers' practice without interfering with the lesson. The pilot interviews, with both the teacher and the student, helped me to reword the questions as well as to express myself better in the official interviews. Transcribing the interviews helped me to calculate how much time I would need to transcribe each interview, so that I could plan my data collection timeline in a way that would be most efficient and productive. Furthermore, looking at my field notes helped me see that recording times when things happened would be useful, and information I could add to future field notes.

3.3.3 Participants

I employed purposive sampling, the strategy of sampling that draws on appropriate sections of the population (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002) to recruit participants, i.e. EFL teachers and their students.

The criteria for the sampling of the teacher participants were based on the EFL teachers' gender and teaching experience. In the case of this research project, the teachers' teaching experience also reflected their age. Concerning the gender criterion, more female participants were recruited because this reflected the ratio of male and female EFL teachers in the university. Similarly, more teachers with five years of teaching experience and above were chosen than those with less than five years in their career for the same reason. The student participants were those at the low-intermediate level of English. This is because the majority of the students in this university were not English

major students, and they only studied English, at levels ranging from elementary to pre-intermediate, as one of the compulsory courses in their programmes.

Among the EFL teachers working in this university, a very small number of them are my former colleagues and friends who are frequently in contact with me, the researcher. However, to avoid any negative impact on the research design, they were excluded from this study. In addition, teachers in the university did not all know each other, and I myself did not know all of them because there are over one hundred EFL teachers in different schools in the university. These university schools are located in different places in the city. Therefore, the only relationship between the teacher participants and me in this study was a collegial relationship.

The recruitment commenced as soon as I had gained access to the research site. Vietnamese people are more familiar with cell phone-based contact rather than the internet-based contact such as email. Thus, in recruiting teacher participants, I contacted the participants by phone because it was more reliable than other ways. I approached potential teacher participants by phoning them to ask if I could see them first. Some of them wanted me to talk about my project on the phone, and others wanted me to send them the Participant Information Sheet (see Appendix 2a, and 3a). A smaller number of teachers preferred meeting with me to get the Participant Information Sheet. Some teachers called me back to ask me about the phenomenon of code-switching. It appeared that some of the teachers I was approaching became very interested in this topic. Others asked me about this phenomenon when they met me even though they had read the Participant Information Sheet. They only realised that what they were practising in their everyday English classes – that is, alternating between English and Vietnamese – was labelled “code-switching” after having conversations with me. This shows that some teachers who were aware of the phenomenon, but did not know its name.

During the process of recruiting teacher participants, I found that they were all willing to participate in the project, which was not what I had assumed. In fact, some of my friends who were EFL teachers in the site suggested that they would also like to be involved in the project. However, as explained previously, I did not choose them. I recruited 12 EFL teachers as teacher participants, and none of them withdrew from the project. Among them, there was only one female and two male teachers with less than five years of teaching experience; the other teachers had more than five years of experience. This male-female and novice-experienced teachers in the sample also

reflected the proportion of teachers in this university with regard to their gender as well as their teaching experience of the teachers in the site. In addition, regarding teacher participants' education, nine of them had a Master of Arts degree in English and the three others had a Bachelor of Arts degree in English.

The recruitment of student participants occurred when I was in the process of observing classes. That is, when I was doing the first of two observations of each teacher's class, I recruited one of this teacher's students as a participant by selecting the first student who volunteered each time. There were 12 students (four of them are male students) recruited for interviewing and none of them withdrew from participating in the research (see Table 3.1 below).

Table 3.1 Participants

<i>Participant</i>	<i>Teaching experience</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>No. of participants</i>
Teacher participants	0-5 years	Male	2
		Female	1
	5 years or more	Male	2
		Female	7
Total			12
<hr/>			
Student Participants		Male	4
		Female	8
Total			12

Data collection lasted over five months, starting in mid-January and finishing in late June 2012. I employed the following data collection methods:

- direct observation (i.e., in-class observation of teachers' teaching practices);
- class recording;
- field notes; and
- semi-structured face-to-face interviews with individual teachers and students.

These methods are described in detail in the next section.

3.3.4 Data collection

This section describes the data collection phase, including a description of the research site, access to the research site, the pilot study, and the processes and methods used in collecting data

Classroom observation

Observation is an advantageous means to obtain information from participants in natural settings. Firstly, through direct observation in a natural setting, a better understanding of the context as well as the participants' practice can be captured (Patton, 2002). Stressing this strength of observation, Mackey and Gass (2005) note that observation, a very common method in SL research, is a useful technique for obtaining in-depth information about, for example, language phenomena. Secondly, observation provides first-hand accounts of the setting and participants which encourages the researcher to be inductive when on the site (Merriam, 1998). Thirdly, the observer has an opportunity to see practices that participants may not be aware of. Fourthly, according to Patton (2002), the observer has the chance to learn what the participants would be unwilling to share in the interview.

In this study, I used classroom observation as the main method to collect data due to its advantages described above. In particular, in observations, I took notes about each class: teachers' teaching activities, their classroom behaviour, students' language behaviour in their interactions with teachers. Furthermore, I also took notes of the physical setting in which the class was taught, as well as what was happening around teachers' teaching practices, for example, teachers' and students' attitudes and feelings. Moreover, I was able to take notes on what was happening around the teachers' teaching practices, for example students unexpectedly being late for class, or the weather conditions, which may affect both the teaching and the learning. Observation notes facilitated the details of classroom recordings, and thus, helped me gain deeper understanding of the teachers' code-switching practice.

A very common disadvantage for an ethnographer when employing observation is the potential conflict between the need to observe the normal behaviour and the possibility of change in the observed person. That is, when there is an observer present, the participants may change their normal behaviour. Thus, the practice observed cannot fully represent the participant's typical behaviour. This conflict is referred to as the

“Observer’s Paradox” (Labov, 1972), participants’ reactivity (Harvey, Olortegui, Leontsini, & Winch, 2009), obtrusive observers (Heigham & Sakui, 2009), or the Hawthorne effect (J. A. C. Brown, 1954). For example, teachers may not code-switch as they usually do due to the researcher’s observation. However, this could be minimised by the researcher’s rapport with the participants during recruitment including discussion of the arrangement of time and location of classes to be observed. Moreover, classroom observation has become a very common practice for the teachers in this study where colleagues observe each other regularly due to the university policy. Therefore, they found the researcher’s presence in their class the same as the presence of other colleagues and did not appear to feel that my presence was an intrusion so they felt comfortable being observed. Moreover, the observed teachers’ practice of code-switching in their instruction in the present study was also triangulated with the other sources of data, i.e., interviewing, and field notes. This triangulation helped to minimise my own bias originating from observations. The number and length of observations (also the length of time of voice recordings) is given in the table below.

Table 3.2 Observations of teachers

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>No. of classes</i>	<i>Length of time (hours: minutes: seconds)</i>
T1	02	01:26: 11
T2	02	01:23: 11
T3	02	01:32: 57
T4	02	01:19: 48
T5	02	01: 44:49
T6	02	01:16: 38
T7	02	01:36: 27
T8	02	01:29: 10
T9	02	01:24: 03
T10	02	01:36: 52
T11	02	01:20: 59
T12	02	01:24: 11
Total	24	17: 35: 12

I observed 24 classes in total (each lasting approximately 45 minutes) taught by the 12 teachers (2 classes each) over the period of five months (as summarised in Table 3.1). The observations aimed to obtain information about:

- the situations where teachers code-switched;
- the forms of their switches;
- the functions of their switches;
- the reasons for their code-switching; and
- the relationships between teachers' code-switching and their students' language behaviour.

I was informed by the teacher of the class, the time and the location of the class being observed. I always came earlier and waited for the teachers before the classes commenced because every teacher wanted us to enter their classes together. As I noted earlier, whenever the teacher and I came in, all the students stood up to greet us. The teachers put my recorder on a table next to her or him and introduced me to the class. Some of them introduced me as their colleague; others introduced me as a researcher attending their class. Students always clapped their hands after their teachers' introduction. I quickly found a free place to sit at the back of the classroom, starting to observe and take notes by using the Observation Sheet (see Appendix 4).

The notes were taken on teachers' teaching practices, as well as the language students used in response to their teachers. As described, I also took notes on other aspects of their teaching lesson, for example, the number of students in the class, the number of female and male students, the teaching aids used by teachers, the arrangement of desks, what the students' attitudes appeared to be, or what happened when students were late for class and so on.

The duration of class time varied among the classes I came to observe: the shortest one lasted 35 minutes and the longest one lasted up to approximately 60 minutes. This was because every teacher had been assigned from three to six class hours per working day. Some teachers finished their classes a little earlier than other teachers, and some did not even have a short break between class hours. When the bell rang or the drum sounded, it was the signal for the classes to start or finish.

The number of students in each class was different among schools within the university. The smallest class had about 25 students, while the biggest one had over 60 students.

This difference was due to the difference in students' distribution among schools within the university. That is, each school arranged appropriate classes based on the majors in which their students enrol. Those who enrol in the same major will be studying together in the same class. For example, in the School of Agriculture and Forestry (a member school of the university), there is usually a greater number of students who enrol in the major of Environment Management than other majors each academic year. However, the school only offers a fixed number of classes for such majors. As a result, some classes can have up to 60 students each, while some of the other majors can only have 15 students each due to the smaller number of enrolments. Occasionally, two smaller classes are amalgamated.

Recording classes

Alongside observing the classes and taking notes on these classes, I recorded them using a digital voice recorder. These digital recordings were a key source of information in the present study. The transcripts of these recordings (see 3.4) provided instances of the teachers' practice of code-switching in their classroom instruction as well as the students' language behaviour in their interactions with their teachers. In addition, by listening to these recordings, I was able to understand better how the teachers used language in their instructions, e.g. their use of a raised voice, and their attitudes expressed in their pitch and voice. In particular, this understanding was useful in analysing instances of teachers' switches. Such instances (in the form of extracts) would be used to present and discuss findings in four chapters (i.e., from Chapter 4 to Chapter 7). As stated earlier in this section, in total, I recorded 24 classes which I observed and took notes in. The total length of the class recordings was over 17 hours (see Table 3.2).

Regarding the equipment for digitally recoding the classes, the teachers did not want to wear the recorder microphones. This was because they did not feel comfortable wearing them, or they did not wear clothes with a pocket to put the recorder in. In addition, I found that if the teachers wore the microphone, their voices could be identified clearly, but it would be difficult to hear their students' responses. While teaching in the classroom, teachers of English rarely stood at their table for the whole time. They preferred to stand near the board on the slightly raised platform or move around the classroom. In most classes I observed, the teachers had a desk and a chair on this slightly raised platform at the front of the classroom. The students always saved another front desk of the first row for their teachers to put their laptop or CD player on. The

teachers suggested that I leave the recorder on that front desk so that it could better record both them and their students. This arrangement worked very well to record both the teachers' voices and students' responses.

Writing field notes

Field notes were a third source of information in the present study. These notes helped me to gain a better understanding of the context in which the phenomenon of code-switching was investigated. Moreover, they supplemented other sources of information, i.e., observations and interviews, as well as helped me to record and present my reflection on the data collected. The field notes in this study included all of what happened to me during the field work procedures: gaining access to the field (i.e., the university); recruiting participants (both teachers and students); data collection processes; my reflection on the research procedures and the data I was collecting; and my first interpretation of the data in the preliminary data analysis (see 3.4).

Interviewing

Interviewing is an effective technique to gain understanding of, for example, educational issues through the participants' experience and their reflection on their practice (Seidman, 2006). This technique of data collection is advantageous in numerous ways (A. Mackey & Gass, 2005; Murchison, 2010). These ways are as follows. Firstly, interviews allow the researchers to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable, e.g., participants' self-reported opinions or attitudes. Secondly, interviews can be used to elicit information from participants who are not comfortable in the other modes of communication, for example, those who feel more comfortable with speaking rather than writing and providing more extended answers in a conversational style. Thirdly, in these exchanges between the participants and the researcher, the researcher has the opportunity to ask for clarification or follow up on the things that he/she has observed.

The semi-structured interview or "semistandardized interview" in Berg's (2009) term was chosen as one of the main methods of data collection because the teachers and their students would have a chance to reflect on and share their beliefs about their teaching and learning experiences, which facilitated my understanding. The semi-structured nature of the questions was designed to provide a less formal discussion format for the teachers and give them a broader window to discuss what was important to them as

English teachers who code-switched between English and Vietnamese in the classroom. Another advantage of semi-structured interviews is that they reflect both structured and unstructured features (Gillham, 2005, p. 70). That is, the same questions are able to be used for all participants involved (a feature of structured interviews). In terms of unstructured features, prompts (e.g. the supplementary questions) can be used with participants. In addition, during semi-structured interviews with the participants, my questions to them could be flexibly reworded, which meant I could clarify the questions to the participants in case they were not clear (Patton, 2002). I conducted 24 interviews in total of the 12 observed teachers and 12 of their students in different places. The duration of time and locations of interviews varied (as summarised in Table 3.3).

Furthermore, these interviews – as well as the observations – were the other main source of information, and they were then triangulated with the other information sources (i.e., field notes) to increase the trustworthiness of the study (Yin, 2009).

Regarding the choice of language, I decided to use Vietnamese in interviews with both teacher and student participants during the main phase of data collection. This is because I learnt from the pilot study that the use of Vietnamese, rather than English, could help both the participants and I (a Vietnamese speaker) feel comfortable in sharing ideas in these interviews in a conversational manner. Particularly, the use of Vietnamese in interviews with student participants was necessary because these students' English language proficiency was not yet sufficient enough for interviews to be conducted in English. However, in interviews with teacher participants, there were moments where both individual teachers and I switched between the two languages (Vietnamese and English). These instances could be found in the interview transcripts. In presenting data from interviews (i.e., excerpts from interviews) in chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7, I provide both what participants actually said and my English translation of each excerpt, as close to its original version as I could, showing instances of switches, if any, between the two languages.

Teacher participant interviews

The interviews with the 12 teachers were conducted after my completion of two observations of each teacher (see Appendix 7a of the excerpted sample of teacher interview). In my research proposal, I planned to interview teacher participants for around 60 minutes. In practice, however, I managed to cover all the questions and prompts in the interview guides for teachers and hear their ideas in around 40 minutes.

Table 3.3 Interviews of teachers and students

<i>Participants</i>	<i>Location of interview</i>	<i>Length of time (hours: minutes: seconds)</i>
Teacher participants		
T1	City café	00:23:07
T2	Teachers' meeting room	00:27:30
T3	Participant's house	R01: 00:41: 57 R02: 00:02: 47 Total: 00:44: 47
T4	Participant's house	00:39: 28
T5	Teachers' waiting room	00:37:20
T6	City café	00:35:20
T7	City café	00:42:57
T8	City café	00:35:37
T9	Classroom	00:32:34
T10	Classroom	R01: 00:31:33 R02: 00:04:05 Total: 00:35:08
T11	City café	00:35:19
T12	City café	00:36:12
Total		07:05:09
Student participants		
St1	Classroom	00:20:00
St2	University Café	00:22:30
St3	Classroom	00:13:10
St4	Classroom	00:16:50
St5	University ground	00:12:57
St6	Classroom	00:12:26
St7	City café	00:23:29
St8	Classroom	00:13:51
St9	City café	00:21:08
St10	Classroom	00:09:49
St11	Classroom	00:14:05
St12	Classroom	00:13:10
Total		03:13:25
Grand total		10:18:34
Notes: St: student T: teacher R: recording		

Two teachers (teacher 1 and teacher 2) were not very talkative, but I was able to get adequate answers. Noise interference during the teacher interviews varied because interviews were recorded in different venues of the teachers' choice, such as classrooms, cafés, or the participant's own house, and the recordings included the sound of music, people talking and shouting, traffic noise, and interruptions of participants' phone calls. However, I had no difficulty identifying what the teachers said due to the noise reduction function of the recorder.

The aim of the teacher interviews was to find out:

- their overall language use in their classroom instruction;
- the situations in which they code-switched;
- the reasons for their code-switching practice;
- their use of languages in the classroom and their students' language behaviour during their interaction with them; and
- their opinions about, and desire for, the classroom language policy within their university.

Three main questions that had been designed for interview guides were used in exchanges with teachers in order to obtain the information listed above. These questions included: when teachers code-switch, why they code-switch, and whether there is a policy of language for them in their university (see Appendix 5a). However, additional prompts were added to those three questions with most of the 12 teacher participants because after transcribing their observation recordings, I found that the teachers' use of English and Vietnamese differed between their two class hours which I observed. In addition, in many class hours, teachers kept checking on their students' comprehension by using, for example, "Understand?", "Okay?", "Right?" and then immediately moved on without waiting for their students' feedback. It was unclear whether that was a real question teachers wanted to ask their students, or just a rhetorical one. Thirdly, students seemed to have no response at various times when their teachers asked them questions, and normally only responded when teachers asked "yes" or "no" questions. Thus, three additional prompts were added to the teacher interviews in order to clarify these points.

In regard to the location of the interviews, some teachers wanted to choose a classroom to have a conversation, while many others preferred a café because, as they said, they felt much more relaxed to share their ideas with me in a café. Another advantage of

conducting the interviews in a café is that this made our conversation less formal. Two teacher participants suggested we talk at their own house. For example, at teacher three's (T3) suggestion, I had an interview with her on a summer morning at her own house where she lives with her family. This was also the last of my twelve interviews of teachers. She has been teaching over five years, and is teaching English at a member school to the south of the city. The interview took place in the study room of her house, lasting approximately 45 minutes. She was very comfortable when having the conversation with me. Occasionally our talk was interrupted by different types of noise because her house is near the road. Such interference arose from the noise of vehicles, and her parents' talking with her aunt and next door neighbours. There were also her phone calls which interrupted our conversation. She was concerned whether the interferences affected the quality of the interview recording, but I explained to her about the 'cut noise' function of the recorder. We used the interview prompts as guides that I gave her when my first observation of her was done. It seemed to me that she felt very comfortable in the interview and very interested in the topic we were discussing. She started sharing her own impression about her overall use of English and Vietnamese in her English classes, saying that she used an equal proportion of these two languages, but always tried to prioritise English. She recalled a number of situations in which she code-switched back and forth in her instruction, for example, when she was teaching English grammar, explaining vocabulary, introducing new lessons, wanting to build up a good rapport to be more intimate with her students, or encouraging them. She also explained numerous reasons why she used both English and Vietnamese, for instance, because of her students' poor ability in English she used Vietnamese to ensure all of the students understood her instructions. This teacher seemed to base her opinion of her students' poor ability in English on her own evaluation of teaching a class of about 60. Her valuation was based on her classroom teaching, for example when she asked her students a question, and they could or could not answer that question. In addition, this teacher admitted that she always told herself to use as much English as possible, but in practice it was not easy. When I asked her whether her theory of using as much English as possible was related to the language policy in her school, she explained that there was no language policy in her school. She and her colleagues believed only that they should use English as much as possible and they practised doing this. She also believed a policy of using both English and Vietnamese was more practical to the situation of her school. An additional prompt was my concern about why her students did not respond in class because according to my observations, she was one of the teachers who had

more non-responsive behaviour from students; she explained that was because students were shy, students did not understand her instruction, and students had a habit of avoiding talking.

Student participant interviews

The interviews with the observed teachers' students were a supplementary source of information which confirmed the teachers' code-switching practice. These interviews were to obtain the students':

- reports/recall of their teachers' use of language(s) in their English classes;
- preferences for their teachers' use of language;
- opinions about the classroom language policy; and
- recall of the language(s) they used in response to their teachers in teacher-students interactions.

The 12 interviews with students were carried out in various Vietnamese settings after my observation of the first class hour of the teachers, e.g., in the classroom after students finished their class, in the teachers' waiting room, or in a café. Two of the four students had a talk with me in the teachers' waiting room while their teachers of English were present in the room. It was a very large room. Interestingly, however, their teachers' presence did not seem to affect their conversation with me. I noticed this because these two students were very comfortable and felt free to talk to me. Sometimes they had eye contact with and smiled at their teachers when they were talking about their teachers' use of languages in the class. These students' teachers were talking with other teachers, and I only realised this when the interviewed students told me that their teachers were in the group of teachers nearby. Thus, I believe that these students were feeling comfortable when they shared with me their ideas and information, and that I was gaining reliable information from them. For most of the student interviews, background noise came from students of the other classes, or those walking by. The two questions with prompts for student interviews were designed to learn about their opinions of their teachers' alternation of languages, their preferences for their teachers' use of language(s) in the English class, and their choice of language, i.e., English or Vietnamese, in response to their teacher (see Appendix 5b).

One of the typical interviews with students was done with student 8 in the teachers' waiting room after his class. Like other interviews recorded in the classrooms, there was

interference, for example, students' talking when they were walking nearby. He was very comfortable talking with me about his impression of his teachers' use of English and Vietnamese, and his opinion about it. He said in general that he liked his teacher to use both English and Vietnamese. This student recalled his former teachers' use of much more Vietnamese than English. He said he and his friends usually used the same language as their teachers, but occasionally they used a different language in their response to their teacher. However, this student did not explain why he and his classmates had different language behaviours in their response to the teacher.

3.4 Data analysis

Data analysis was in two phases: preliminary (Grbich, 2007) and post data collection analysis, i.e. thematic (Boyatzis, 1998; Gibson & Brown, 2009). This section describes these two phases.

3.4.1 Preliminary analysis

In an ethnographic study, a start to the analysis of data should be made as early as possible, preferably during the data collection phase (Gillham, 2005; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Patton, 2002; Seidman, 2006). My preliminary data analysis commenced once data collection started. This preliminary phase of data analysis involved transcribing the class recordings and the interview recording, as well as member checking with participants on the transcriptions. The procedure for my preliminary analysis is described below.

Firstly, to transcribe the recordings, I selected the method of unfocused transcription, which refers to the form of transcription that does not focus on particular sections of data, but on what was said in the voice recording (Gibson & Brown, 2009). This form of transcription provided me with a general overview and my initial understanding of what was happening in the classroom as well as in my interviews with the teachers and their students. I transcribed all the 24 class recordings and 24 interview recordings (see Appendices 6, 7a, and 7b). The transcribing of the student interviews was done immediately after I finished interviewing them so that I could have those transcripts member-checked when I came back for my second observation of the same classes. Observation recordings were also transcribed after I completed the two observations of each teacher and before the interview with that teacher. The transcripts of the class

recordings of the 12 teachers, from teacher 1 (T1) to teacher 12 (T12) were labelled as CR.Tr.T1.1, CR.Tr.T1.2, CR.Tr.T2.1, CR.Tr.T2.2, and so on. The transcripts of the interviews with the same teachers were labelled as I.Tr.T1, I.Tr.T2, and so on. Similarly, the interview transcripts with these teachers' students were labelled as I.Tr.St1, I.Tr.St2, and so on. All these transcripts (i.e., recording and interview transcripts) were checked by me. In particular, there were occasional sections in the observation recordings where the teachers spoke English that was unclear to me. These unclear utterances were marked in the transcripts and brought back to the teachers along with their teaching recordings for their checking and clarifying. This process helped me to identify the points which needed to be followed-up in the post-observational interviews with the teachers.

As mentioned previously, the interviews with both the teachers and student participants were carried out in many different locations, so the noise interference varied, as presented above (section 3.3.4). For example, when I was having a conversation (interview) with Teacher 3 in her house on the 2nd floor (her study room), there was a shout heard from this teacher's house gate. She (teacher 3) explained to me that was her aunt who lives nearby, and her aunt was looking for teacher 3's parents. Note that in Vietnamese culture, calling out the host's name is a very common practice when visitors, particularly older people, visit one's house. In addition, there was noise from the participant's telephone, vehicles passing by, or the horns of cars and motorcycles as this participant's house is close to the road (field notes, T3, 21st May 2012). However, these types of noise did not affect the sound quality very much nor did they disrupt what the speakers had to say.

Transcribing provided me with initial understanding of the teachers' code-switching practice as well as teachers and students' opinions about this practice. Some of the preliminary findings I obtained from the transcribing process were brought to the teachers for discussion. This was very helpful for me in the post-data-collection analysis phase when I closely examined the teachers' practices, to gain deeper understanding of their behaviour and their attitudes towards their code-switching practice.

Secondly, after transcribing these recordings (class recordings and interview recordings) I brought the transcripts to each related participant for member checking. This was for the participants to ensure that what I had typed in these transcripts was correct compared with what they said in the recordings.

The data-driven approach, i.e., developing a code (defined below) inductively, was adopted in using the thematic analysis proposed by Boyatzis (1998), for analysing the data in this study. He proposes three stages in the development of themes and codes: stage one refers to deciding on sampling and design issues, stage two relates to developing themes and a code, and stage three involves validating and using the code.

3.4.2 Thematic analysis

Once the data collection and preliminary analysis had been completed, the main phase of data analysis was carried out. For this post-data-collection analysis, I applied a thematic analysis method (Boyatzis, 1998; Gibson & Brown, 2009). Thematic analysis, in Gibson and Brown's (2009) view, involves generating similarities, differences and relationships across a data set. This process refers to a search for an aggregation of themes, or patterns found in the information. Thematic analysis is also seen as a process of reducing the data to make meaningful groupings (Grbich, 2007). A theme, according to Boyatzis (1998), can be identified at the manifest level, i.e. what can be clearly noticed or understood through what is directly observed. A potential theme was also sensed when I did the transcribing, as presented earlier (see 3.4.1). At the same time, as noted by Boyatzis (1998), a theme can also be identified at the latent level, i.e. the meaning hidden behind what is said or observed. In this study, I applied Boyatzis's (1998) stages and steps for developing codes inductively in post- data collection analysis. The data-driven approach consists of three stages, as follows.

Stage 1: Data Sampling

Two issues were considered in this stage, the unit of analysis and the subsamples. Boyatzis (1998) defines the unit of analysis as "the entity on which the interpretation of the study will focus" (p. 61). The unit of analysis in this study, therefore, was the cultural group, i.e., the EFL teachers of the university. The reason is that my focus has been placed on the practices of code-switching in classroom instruction of the cultural group of the EFL teachers within a university in Vietnam. That is, I did not investigate the code-switching behaviour of individual teachers, but rather looked for patterns and trends among the whole group of teachers. Information collected from individual teachers and students was aggregated during my analysis to discover the commonalities and differences regarding the phenomenon under study and their attitudes towards their practice with their group. In other words, this study focuses on the practice of code-switching of a cultural group of EFL teachers.

The second issue in relation to this stage concerned the forming of two subsamples. I believed making subsamples was useful because reducing the raw data within a subsample (i.e., the smaller number of participants) was easier than looking at the entire set of participants together at the same time. Moreover, creating these subsamples helped to avoid missing potential themes which may occur when dealing with too many transcripts from many participants at the same time.

The first subsample (Subsample A) included the observation and interview transcripts with field notes taken from three teachers and their students. Similarly, the second subsample (Subsample B) involved the observation and interview transcripts with field notes taken from the other three teachers and their students. Accordingly, Subsample A consisted of transcripts of teacher 3 (T3)-student 3 (St3) teacher 4 (T4)-student 4 (st4), and teacher 10 (T10)-student 10 (St10) and Subsample B was transcripts of teacher 1 (T1)-student 1 (St1), teacher 7 (T7)-student 7 (St7) and teacher 8 (T8)-student 8 (St8).

Stage 2: Developing themes and a code

A code in this case is understood as a code used for analysing data. Gibson and Brown (2009) define an analysis code as “a label that describes some general category of data” (p. 131). Boyatzis’s (1998) stage of developing themes and codes involves five steps:

- reducing the raw information;
- identifying themes within subsamples;
- comparing themes across subsamples;
- creating a code; and
- determining the reliability of the code.

Firstly, I summarised the information from the interview transcripts (i.e., teachers’ interviews and students’ interviews) in the two subsamples described above. For the class recording transcripts, I identified teachers’ code-switching by highlighting where teachers used both languages in the transcripts. Based on the issues investigated (i.e., the forms of teachers’ switching, the situations, the functions of and the reasons for their switching), I listed all instances of these teachers’ switches. Then I labelled each instance of teachers’ switching as, for example, an utterance, part of an utterance, a filler or a tag. I considered each instance of switching to answer the question of what the teacher was doing when he/she code-switched, and then I listed all situations in which they switched. Similarly, I noted down what each switch did in each situation and why

the teacher code-switched in that situation. Finally, I listed the students' different language behaviours in response to their teachers. Such behaviours included their use of a single language, two languages, their unfinished answers, and non-responsive behaviour which were also confirmed by my observation notes on students' language behaviours. This first step allowed me to sense or be aware of the potential themes that appeared in the information reduced within each subsample.

Secondly, I identified potential themes of the two types of data described above (the interview transcripts and class recording transcripts) in each subsample. That is, from the summary of information within the subsample, I could find the commonalities and differences in the information shared by the participants.

Thirdly, I compared these potential themes across the two subsamples (A and B), and rewrote these themes. The next step was for me to create a code based on the theme that I had just rewritten. Lastly, to determine the reliability of the code developed in this way, I asked a colleague of mine, who was not involved in the research project, to use the code on another subsample (subsample C) while, separately, I also used the same code on the same subsample. Subsample C was comprised of the data collected from one teacher (class recording, interview with that teacher and interview with that teacher's student, along with observation and field notes). This double coding helped me to determine the reliability of the code that I had developed. It also helped to minimise the possibility of missing themes. There were only minor differences between my colleague's work and mine when we coded independently in terms of wording. Based on the outcomes of the double coding work, I made some adjustment to the codes before moving to stage three (validating a code).

Stage 3: Validating a code

Validating a code is comprised of three steps:

- coding the remaining raw data;
- validating the code; and
- interpreting the results.

For the first step in this stage, I applied the reliable codes (see above) that I had developed to the remaining raw data (i.e. the data that had not yet been coded). The remaining data included information collected from the other five teachers and other five students, as well as my notes related to them. In the second step, to validate the

codes in a qualitative manner, I compared the differentiation on the subsamples (A, B, and C), and the remaining data set of the five participants in regard to the themes expressed in these codes. In Figure 3.1 below, I provide an example of a code that was already triangulated from three sources of information, i.e., classroom recordings, interviews with teachers and interviews with students. Note that the code provided in the example was developed from subsamples, then was applied to code the remaining raw data, and was validated.

- **Label:** A4 (Teachers' code-switching when providing instruction on teaching content)
 - **Definition:** the teacher alternately used English and Vietnamese when giving instruction on the language content (i.e., language teaching units).
 - **Indicators:** Code this when the teacher both reported and was observed to code-switch (alternately used English & Vietnamese) in one or more of the following situations, and his/her student confirmed this. Put in brackets the number(s) indicating the situation(s); put in brackets the number(s) with a minus (-) before the number indicating the situation(s) either not stated by the teacher or not observed or not confirmed by his/her student with an abbreviation for teacher interviewing (TI), teacher class recording (TCR) or student interviewing (SI). When a minus is added, the other sources are positive (i.e., if the student did not confirm a situation in the interview, and the teacher reported and was observed to code-switch in situation 1, then the code will be, for example, -1SI) . For example, T1 showed A4 (1, 2, 3); T2 showed A4 (1, 2, -3TCR), T3 showed A4 (-1SI, 2, -3TCR & SI), T4 showed A4 (1, -2TI, 3).
- (1) Explaining vocabulary
 - (2) Explaining grammatical rules
 - (3) Dealing with English pronunciation
- **Differentiation:** 11 teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T8, T9, T10, T11, T12) showed (1, 2, 3); One teacher (T7) showed (1, -2TCR, -3TCR).

Figure 3.1 Example of a code

Regarding the third step, the results I obtained through this process, together with my interpretation of the results, as well as my discussion will be presented in the following four chapters (from Chapter 4 to Chapter 7). Particularly the observation and field notes were used to supplement classroom recording and the interview data, providing greater insights into what I observed and what was reported by teachers and students. They also helped me to reflect on the data as well as the research procedures.

However, a big challenge for me in applying thematic analysis was that using data-driven analysis, I had to look for themes that emerged from a fairly large amount of data as well as from different sources of data. A careful application of Boyatzis's (1998) stages and steps, as described above, helped me proceed in my data analysis.

3.5 Ethical considerations

The study was given approval by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) on the 18th of November 2011, numbered 11/192 (see attached in Appendix 1). I strictly followed the research procedure as described in the ethics application that was approved by AUTEC. Because the study was conducted outside New Zealand (i.e., in Vietnam), strictly speaking the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi (a founding document of New Zealand) did not apply. However, the three principles (i.e., Partnership, Participation and Protection) derived from the Treaty are a useful ethical framework for this study, and my research procedure has conformed to them. The application of these principles in the study is described as follows.

Firstly, concerning Partnership - the relationship between the researcher and the participants - the researcher encouraged mutual respect and benefit by attempting to find participants who were willing, and who volunteered to participate in the study. In addition, I deliberately did not recruit participants who are my friends among the EFL teachers in the university. That is, the relationship between the teacher participant and me was strictly a collegial relationship. For recruiting student participants, I only recruited those who volunteered and those with whom I did not have a personal relationship, nor were the students dependent on me in any way. I also gave them the right to choose to continue to or withdraw from the research at any time during the process as well as to decide the classes for observations and the place and time for the interviews. I provided the participants with information about the purpose of the study, and the possible risk related to confidentiality (see below, "Protection"). However, all the participants chose to remain involved in the study.

Secondly, in relation to Participation, there was no dependent relationship between the researcher and the participants who were very experienced in their English teaching, and as such, held knowledge of their practices which they shared with the researcher. Participants were provided with interview transcripts which they were welcome to amend through member-checking. In actual practice, because I honestly transcribed

what the speakers in the voice recordings said, for this reason there were no amendments that needed to be made to the transcripts. They all agreed with my transcribing work and allowed me to use the transcripts in presenting and discussing the findings in my thesis as well as in potential further publications. They were told that a summary report of the research would be provided for all the stakeholders - those who share interests in the study, for example, teachers, and educators. This research had no bearing or influence on the outcome of their employment.

Thirdly, regarding Protection of participants, I strictly followed the research procedures as well as the constraints on my use of students' speech as described in my ethics application and in AUTECH's ethics approval. That is, my analysis and presentation of students' speech in the class recordings were limited to which language they used as well as how they used languages in their responses to their teachers. In addition, because the study focused mainly on teachers' practice of code-switching, I did not include the students' speech in terms of form and content in my transcripts, except the name of the language(s) they used, i.e. English and/or Vietnamese. How they used languages was recorded in the form of notes I took during the observations. I provided only information on which language the student(s) used in their interactions with teachers in the observed and recorded classes.

Furthermore, I attempted to maintain confidentiality. This was revealed via my gaining of access to the site, and in how the participants were contacted in person as described above. In addition, my concern was looking for patterns and trends across a vast array of data instead of the amount of code-switching done by each individual. The names of the participants were not revealed in this study; instead, I created a code for each participant (e.g., T1 and St1).

3.6 Summary

This study adopts ethnography as the research methodology. The characteristics of this qualitative approach appear to suit this study to a great extent. Firstly, the focus of the project is on a cultural group of teachers in a particular university in Vietnam. Secondly, the members of this cultural group share a common practice in their natural professional setting, i.e. they code-switch between English and Vietnamese in their classroom instruction of English. Moreover, they share beliefs regarding their practice. Thirdly, I myself am one of the members of this cultural group, having spent years teaching and

code-switching in my English classes. This provided a good opportunity for my colleagues and me to be reflexive about this practice. These are the advantages of adopting ethnography as the research methodology in the present study.

I collected data from various sources: classroom observations; class recordings; interviews with individual teachers and students; and writing field notes. These data sources were triangulated with each other. In analysing data, I applied the methods of preliminary and thematic analysis. This approach helped me to find out the commonalities, differences and the relationships between findings. Throughout the study, I followed the research procedures as approved and carefully considered ethical issues, particularly the three principles of partnership, participation and protection of participants.

Chapter 4

TEACHERS' CODE-SWITCHING: FORMS AND SITUATIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings along with discussion concerning two of the aspects of the teachers' code-switching in their classroom instruction of English: the forms of code-switching and the situations in which code-switching occurred. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section provides a description and discussion of different forms of the teachers' code-switching. The section is followed by an interpretation of the situations in which teachers code-switched. The main points discussed in these two sections are then summarised in the final section.

4.1 Code-switching forms

All the teachers participating in this study reported that they code-switched during their English classes, and they were observed to do so. These code-switching practices were also confirmed by their students in interviews. The present study identifies the forms in which these teachers code-switched on the basis of their utterances recorded in their classrooms. As discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.2.1), I determine an utterance based on such features as speakers' pause, pitch movement, and the meaning a chunk conveys. Thus, I consider discourse markers such as "Okay" or "Understand?" as words, and they can become utterances. Further detail on these two discourse markers will be discussed later (see 4.1.1, and 4.1.3).

In this study, a part of an utterance can either be a word/phrase, or an utterance subordinate to its superordinate one. Consider what teacher 1 and teacher 3 said to their students in their classes:

(The first line is original switching and the second line is the English translation)

- T1: *Có biết viết từ money không?*
<Do you know how to write the word money?>
- T3: *Câu hỏi thứ nhất trong phần một là what can you see in the photos chúng ta đã giải quyết được rồi.*
<The first question in section one, what can you see in the photos, we have already answered.>

Both these teachers' switches involve parts of utterances. That is to say, their switches occur within the utterances. While teacher 1's switch is a single word "money", teacher 3's switch is a subordinate utterance "what can you see in the photos", which functions as a constituent in its superordinate utterance in terms of meaning. In teacher 3's utterance, what the teacher said in English forms part of the whole utterance, and is embedded in it. Another example of a switch (teacher 11's) which involves the whole utterance is:

T11: How often do you visit your family?|| *Bạn có thường về thăm nhà không?*
 <How often do you visit your family?|| *Do you often visit your family?*>

In this teacher's turn, there were two whole utterances between which there was a pause. Here, the teacher started speaking in English, and then switched to Vietnamese for the whole second utterance. Her switch occurred between utterances.

In this study, I give a gloss and translation of the examples for the teachers' code-switching forms. That is, I provide the teachers' original utterance/turn in line(s) numbered 1, and then the literal translation of that utterance/turn in line(s) numbered 2. The whole English translation is provided last, but is not numbered. In those examples of teachers' switching which involve Vietnamese fillers, I provide the English translation for such Vietnamese fillers and put the translation in brackets in the original utterances. For other sections in this chapter and other chapters of this thesis, I only use the original utterances/turns and provide whole English translations, but not literal translations, by using the symbols <...>. This is because in discussing teachers' switching forms, literal translations are useful to show differences comparing English and Vietnamese linguistic structures. On the other hand, literal translations would be of little significance in presenting and discussing other issues of code-switching, (i.e., situations, functions, and reasons), and they might distract readers. Furthermore, I use regular font to represent English and italicised font to represent Vietnamese in teachers' transcribed speech of all the excerpts provided. However, student speech in the classroom is not provided, because this study only focuses on teachers' speech in their classroom instruction. The information about the students' language behaviour consists of only what language they used in their interactions with their teachers; their speech form and content was not analysed. For interview excerpts throughout the thesis, the participants' original speech will be italicised and English translations of such interview excerpts will be in regular font.

It is evident from my study that teachers practised code-switching in different forms. Table 4.1, below, summarises these switching forms which were aggregated from 12 teachers.

Table 4.1 Summary of teachers' code-switching forms

<i>Code-switching forms</i>	<i>No of teachers</i>
Fillers/tags	12
- Fillers	10
- Tags	7
Parts of an utterance (switching within an utterance)	11
Whole utterances (switching between utterances)	12
- Single switching	
- Mixed switching	11
- Double switching	12
	8
Marginal code-switching	9
Borrowing as switching	10

As can be seen in Table 4.1, all 12 teachers were observed to display switching in their English instruction. Their code-switching could be classified into five forms. The first form involved teachers' use of Vietnamese fillers, e.g., “À” (Ah), “Ờ” (Er), “Ờm” (Erm), “Ừm” (Umm) “Ừm (Umm), “Hừm” (Hmm, or Hum), and tags, e.g., “Okay?”, “right?”, “đúng không ạ?” (right?). The second form was related to part of an utterance, i.e., switching within an utterance and the third form involved their whole utterances, i.e., switching between utterances. The teachers' switching between utterances was subdivided into: single switching (i.e., one utterance was in one language, and the other utterance was in another language); mixed switching (one utterance was produced in one language, and there were one or more switches in the other utterance); and double switching (there were switches in both utterances). These three subdivided forms of switch are defined in greater detail in 4.1.2. In the present study, another switching form that is not described in the literature appeared, and I use the term ‘marginal code-switching’ to refer to this form. This is because this form is a borderline case between the ones involving part of an utterance (i.e. switches within an utterance) and those involving whole utterances (i.e. switches between utterances). The last form of

switching, borrowing, involved teachers' employment of words borrowed directly from English.

Teachers switched differently and their switching forms varied. Table 4.2 provides detail about individual teachers' behaviour: number of switches by each teacher in each form, and total switches by each teacher in the five different forms, total switches by all teachers using each form of switching, and total switches by all teachers using all five forms.

Table 4.2 Individual teachers' code-switching forms

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>No. of switches in each form (instances)</i>					<i>Total switches of each teacher</i>
	<i>Fillers & tags</i>	<i>Part of an utterance</i>	<i>Whole utterance</i>	<i>Marginal switching</i>	<i>Borrowing</i>	
T1	7	42	253	5	20	327
T2	1	7	94	0	7	109
T3	15	92	304	10	18	439
T4	6	5	44	3	23	81
T5	14	5	55	9	19	102
T6	2	34	163	0	7	206
T7	6	0	1	3	0	10
T8	1	30	215	0	34	280
T9	72	22	114	59	0	267
T10	21	43	256	17	7	344
T11	17	59	258	9	25	368
T12	11	38	170	6	10	235
Total	173	377	1927	121	170	2,868

There was a wide range in the number of switches by different teachers, from 10 to 439 instances in each teacher's recorded classes. However, teachers' qualification and their teaching experience did not seem to affect how much they switched. Regarding teachers' qualification, as stated in Chapter 3, nine out of the 12 teachers in this study had an MA degree in language, and the other three (T1, T3, and T7) held a BA degree

in language. It is worth observing that these three teachers included the lowest and the highest switching individuals. All 12 teachers studied for their degrees in Vietnam, and none of them had lived in an English-speaking country. Teacher 7, with a BA degree, code-switched far less often than his colleagues, even much less than the nine teachers holding MA degrees. There were only 10 instances of his switching in his two classes, while teacher 3, teacher 1, teacher 10, and teacher 11 code-switched much more often than other teachers, ranging from 327 to 439 switches in their two recorded classes. Teacher 3, with a BA degree, had the greatest number of switches. Similarly, teachers' experience did not help to predict the amount of switches in their classes. As described in Chapter 3, only three teachers (T2, T7, and T8) were novices (less than 4 years of teaching experience), and the other nine were experienced in teaching (5 years or more). Teacher 7, a novice, was observed to switch least of all. He used up to 99.7% of English in his classes; while teacher 1, an experienced teacher, used 36 % of English. Teacher 1 was also the only teacher in this study who used more Vietnamese than English in his classes (see Chapter 7, section 7.1.1). It might be argued at this point that teachers' levels competence and fluency in L2 (i.e. English) would have a direct impact on their code-switching practice in their classroom. However, in the present study, I could not measure this factor. Instead, teachers' English degree and their teaching experience could be seen as the best indicator available in my data of individual teachers' fluency, but I also recognised that this indicator was rather indirect as an index of fluency.

In addition, as presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.1), there were no placement tests to determine students' level of English within the university. The students' level of English was determined by the teachers' estimation of their students' ability in English. The same textbook was used for the entire number of students in each school of the university.

Therefore, the reason for the difference in individual teachers' switching could be the extent of priority they gave to English in their classes, as the data (interviews with teachers, class observations and recordings) showed. The number of instances of their code-switching varied. This means that teachers have translated their beliefs into practice, and some of them have done that to a greater extent than others (see 7.1 for more detail). Each of these forms of switching by teachers will now be considered in greater depth below.

4.1.1 Switching involving fillers/tags

In a study of a similar EFL context to this study, Tayjasanant (2014) analysed two Thai university English teachers' instructions and found that they practised extra-sentential code-switching (tag switching) more frequently than the other two types (i.e., intra-sentential-switching and inter-sentential switching). However, in my study teachers' code-switching of this form was far less preponderant than other two forms (i.e., switching involving parts of an utterance and whole utterances). In particular, the teachers' tag switching in my study only involved Vietnamese fillers and tags, as shown in Table 4.3.

Teachers tended to use fillers rather than tags as their switches. These fillers were typically Vietnamese ones, including “*À*” (Ah), “*Ờ*” (Er), “*Ờm*” (Erm), “*Ừm*” (Umm), “*Ừm*” (Umm), “*Hừm*” (Hmm) and were used by most of the teachers (10/12) in my observations and class recordings. In particular, some teachers employed these fillers in their English classes more than others, for example, teacher 9 used such fillers as her switches 72 times (out of the total of 162 instances of fillers used as switches by the 10 teachers who practised this).

Table 4.3 Individual teachers' switching involving fillers/tags

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Fillers and tags (instances)</i>		<i>Total switches of each teacher</i>
	<i>Fillers</i>	<i>Tags</i>	
T1	7	0	7
T2	1	0	1
T3	15	0	15
T4	5	1	6
T5	13	1	14
T6	0	2	2
T7	5	1	6
T8	0	1	1
T9	72	0	72
T10	21	0	21
T11	14	3	17
T12	9	2	11
Total	162	11	173

Teachers, outside their classrooms, used these fillers widely in their everyday use of Vietnamese, their first language. When teaching English in the classroom, nearly all teachers (10 out of 12) also inserted these fillers into their English utterances. In addition, only more than half of the 12 teachers (7/12) used tags as switches in their instruction, and their switches which involved such tags occurred in a limited number among individual teachers. The teachers' switching involving fillers/tags is depicted in Figure 4.1. In this figure, the teachers' switching which involves tags (Vietnamese or English tags) occurs at the end of the utterance, while their switching which involves fillers (always Vietnamese fillers) occurs around the middle of the utterance.

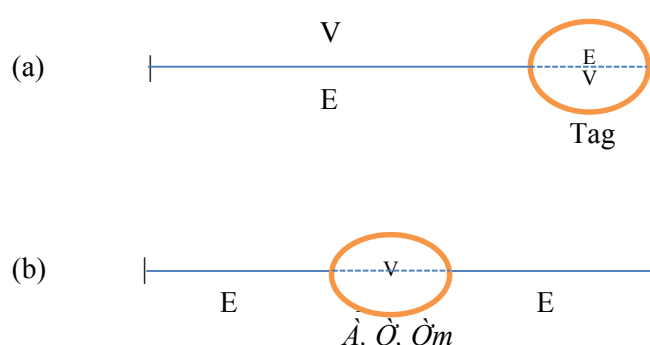


Figure 4.1 Switching involving fillers/tags

Note: L1: Vietnamese (V); L2: English (E)

The following examples (4.1- 4.4) illustrate the teachers' switching of this form.

Example 4.1: Class recording T10.1

T: I want you *Òm* (*Erm*) to look at the screen and tell me. [showing images] What are they?

Example 4.2: Class recording T9.1

T: Can you have any *Ò* (*Er*) guest [guess] for this exercise? Do you have any guest [guess]?

In both Examples 4.1 and 4.2, the teachers' switches which involve Vietnamese fillers “*Òm*” (*Erm*) and *Ò* (*Er*) were in the middle of their utterances, respectively. Although more than half of the teachers code-switched in a way which involved tags, there were only a small number of those switches, with 11 instances (out of 2,768 instances). The teachers' switches of tags involved both English tags, e.g., “right”, and a Vietnamese

tag, e.g., “*đúng không ạ?*” (which also means “right”), as shown in Examples 4.3 and 4.4.

Example 4.3: Class recording T6.1

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-----------------------|--------|
| T | 1 | <i>Bánh bích quy,</i> | right? |
| | 2 | <i>Cake biscuit,</i> | right? |
| E <i>Biscuit, right?</i> | | | |

Example 4.4: Class recording T8.2

- | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|--------------|-------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| T | 1 | Didn't sell, | <i>đúng không</i> | <i>ạ?</i> |
| | 2 | Didn't sell, | <i>right</i> | <i>interrogative particle politeness particle?</i> |
| E Didn't sell, <i>right?</i> | | | | |

In Example 4.3, the teacher checked her students' understanding of the meaning of the word “biscuit”. She switched to Vietnamese to translate the English word into Vietnamese (i.e. providing the Vietnamese equivalent of the word) then inserted an English tag “right” into that utterance. Similarly, the teacher in Example 4.4 inserted a Vietnamese tag “*đúng không ạ*” (right) into his English utterances when he was seeking agreement from his students. Both these two teachers' tags occurred at the end of their utterances.

Poplack (1980) contended that the segments functioning in discourse including fillers, interjections, tags, idiomatic expressions, and quotations, occurred freely at any point in the sentences and were found as switches in her data. It was evident from my analysis that the participants' switches involved only two forms of discourse markers, i.e. fillers and tags. No trace of the teachers' switches involving interjections or idiomatic expressions could be found. More significantly, the teachers' switches involved only Vietnamese fillers, but not English fillers. Though in Vietnamese there exist fillers similar to several English fillers in terms of pronunciation, for example, “*Ờ*” (Er), “*À*” (Ah), the majority of the fillers the teachers produced were identified as Vietnamese ones, not English. This is because the teachers produced them with their exact Vietnamese pronunciation, particularly with their Vietnamese tones. The teachers in their everyday communication in Vietnamese usually use such fillers in their conversations. The likely reason for this outcome is as follows. When teachers started

learning English in their childhood and later in their higher education, they would have learnt English by using textbooks. In these textbooks, model conversations by foreigners (usually English native speakers) were provided with natural use of, for example, interjections, or fillers. The learners would have attempted to imitate them so that they could be close to the TL use, at least in terms of speaking. However, outside the limited time for English classes, they were surrounded by the Vietnamese language environment. When teachers came to their English classes, they might try to speak English, but because of their frequent use of Vietnamese fillers in their natural conversations in Vietnamese, they would unconsciously use such Vietnamese fillers during their English instruction.

One reason for Poplack (1980) to label one of the three types of code-switching as extra-sentential or tag switching is that the tags (e.g., fillers) inserted are the segments that “are less intimately linked with the remainder of the utterance” (p. 596). In other words, such fillers only function as discourse markers in the utterances. Since these fillers have little connection with the rest of the utterance, switching involving fillers cannot be the same as switching within an utterance. In switching within an utterance, the switch is a word or a group of words, which are more closely linked with the utterance within which the switch lies.

One of the instances of tags in Poplack’s (1980) extra-sentential code-switching was a discourse marker “understand”. It is evident from the data set of my study, teachers used this discourse marker (“understand”) and another discourse marker “Okay” frequently. In addition, they used these two discourse markers in two ways. The first was when they lowered their pitch to utter “Understand”, and “Okay.”. They meant “next”, “go on”, “that’s it”, which was a way of continuing their instruction. The other occurred when teachers raised their pitch to ask “Understand?”, and “Okay?”. They meant “Do you understand what I said?”, and “Is that (what I said) right?”, respectively. However, in a number of situations, teachers usually continued to produce a new utterance in the same turn after they asked “Understand?”, and “Okay?” without waiting for students’ response. Therefore, their use of these two words was not really for checking understanding or accuracy. Rather, teachers’ use of these words in both ways is understood as marking their instructional moves. In other words, their use of these two discourse markers was in order to maintain the flow of their instruction. In this sense, they might be seen as tags in Poplack’s (1980) terms.

However, as I noticed when I was transcribing the class recordings and based on notes taken in my observations, in almost all cases when the teachers used these two words, they had paused in their speech, which indicates that they had finished their preceding utterance. That is, they produced an utterance in Vietnamese, paused to signal the end of the utterance, and then uttered either of these English words. Thus, the English words “Understand” and “Okay” they used are seen as an independent utterance from the preceding one. Therefore, these two words can only be seen as discourse markers (for the teachers to indicate their move to the next point in their instructions), but not as tags attached to the preceding utterance in Poplack’s (1980) way of understanding (see 4.1.2 for more discussion of teachers’ use of these two discourse markers).

4.1.2 Switching involving parts of an utterance

Switching involving parts of an utterance means that the teachers’ switches were in the form of a word or a group of words from one language that they inserted into an utterance in the other language. That is, teachers were speaking in one language and, in the same utterance, they inserted a word or a group of words of the other language into that utterance. All 12 teachers except one (teacher 8) code-switched in this form in my data (as shown in Table 4.4). Teacher 8’s switching involved mainly whole utterances.

Table 4.4 Individual teachers' switching involving parts of an utterance

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Parts of an utterance (instances)</i>
T1	42
T2	7
T3	92
T4	5
T5	5
T6	34
T7	0
T8	30
T9	22
T10	43
T11	59
T12	38
Total	377

In Examples 4.5 and 4.6 the teachers were speaking in Vietnamese, and they inserted the English words “desktop” and “mountains”, respectively, into their Vietnamese utterances. In other words, these teachers’ switches involving part of an utterance, i.e., single words in this case, occurred within an utterance.

Example 4.5: Class recording T11.1

T	1	<i>Hiểu</i>	<i>không</i>	<i>ạ?</i>	<i>Bà</i>	<i>mẹ</i>
	2	<i>Understand</i>	<i>interrogative</i>	<i>politeness</i>	<i>Grandmother</i>	<i>mother</i>
			<i>particle</i>	<i>particle?</i>		
	1	<i>Có</i>	<i>hiểu</i>	<i>khái niệm</i>	<i>desktop</i>	
	2	<i>Interrogative</i>	<i>understand</i>	<i>concept</i>	<i>desktop</i>	
		<i>particle</i>				
	1	<i>là gì</i>	<i>không?</i>			
	2	<i>is what</i>	<i>interrogative</i>			
			<i>particle?</i>			
E		<i>Understand?</i> Does the mother understand what the concept of a desktop is?				

Example 4.6: Class recording T1.2

T	1	<i>Và tất cả</i>	<i>các</i>	<i>con đường dẫn tới</i>	<i>mountains.</i>
	2	<i>And all</i>	<i>plural marker</i>	<i>road lead to</i>	<i>mountains.</i>
E		<i>And all the roads lead to mountains.</i>			

The teacher in Example 4.7 inserted a group of English words into her utterance when she checked her students’ understanding and sought responses from her students concerning the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns. In Example 8, the teacher started her utterance in English by quoting the question from the textbook (observation, T3, 24th April 2012), and then switched to Vietnamese to check her students’ understanding of that question.

Example 4.7: Class recording T10.2

T	1	<i>Bây giờ cô hỏi ngược lại, đó là</i>	<i>what is count noun and what is</i>
	2	<i>Now I ask reverse, that is</i>	<i>what is count noun and what is</i>
	1	<i>uncount [sic] noun.</i>	
	2	<i>uncount [sic] noun.</i>	

E *Now I am going to ask you the reverse question, and the question is what is count and what is uncount [sic] noun.*

Example 4.8: Observation transcript T3.1

T:	1	Listen to the following people talking	about	different
	2	Listen to the following people talking	about	different
	1	forms of communication	<i>là gì</i>	<i>nhĩ?</i>
	2	forms of communication	<i>is what</i>	<i>interrogative particle?</i>

E *What is listen to the following people talking about different forms of communication?*

Structurally, the two languages, i.e. English and Vietnamese, did not occur in an utterance equally. When both languages were involved within an utterance, two cases occurred. The first case was when English was the ML (or the base language) and Vietnamese was the EL. The second case involved Vietnamese as the ML, and English as the EL. Both these cases confirmed Myers-Scotton's (1993, 2001, 2006) point that it was the ML that provided the grammatical frame for the EL. My analysis indicated that teachers' insertions involved words, or phrases, or even independent clauses. Such insertions did not break the frame of the base language grammatically in some situations (as in Examples 4.5 and 4.7).

However, my analysis also indicated that the teachers' switches sometimes appeared to break Myers-Scotton's (1993, 2001, 2006) MLF model as they did not follow the grammatical rules of the base language in many other instances. This break occurs when there is the use of the plural form of nouns and when there are questions which involve interrogative words, e.g., "what". Examples 4.6 and 4.8 (above) are good evidence for these two cases. In Example 4.6, the teachers' base language is Vietnamese. However, their insertions of the English word "mountains" did not follow the Vietnamese grammatical rule. In Vietnamese, plural markers, i.e., noun quantifiers, are always placed before nouns. In this example, teacher 1 followed the English grammatical rule of the plural form of the noun. Similarly, teacher 3 in Example 4.8 did not follow the English grammatical structure of the question (English was the base language in this case). Instead, she followed the Vietnamese rules for forming questions (in Vietnamese, the interrogative words are always at the end of the sentence). Teachers' switching, as discussed, in these examples, appears to violate Myers-Scotton's (1993, 2001, 2006) principle of identifying the ML.

Here, I provide another example as the case in which the teacher's switch did not match the grammatical structure of the base language.

Example 4.9: Class recording T10.1

- T: 1 *Nhóm nào nói về jeans nhỉ?*
 2 *Group which talk about jeans interrogative particle?*
- E *Which group talks about jeans?*

Teacher 10 in Example 4.9 (above) switched to Vietnamese to repeat or translate her question when she was seeking her students' cooperation to perform a task. Her English insertion of "jeans" followed the grammatical rule of the plural noun of the TL (English), rather than the grammatical rule of Vietnamese, the base language. Here the teacher quoted this English word as it is in English. This word is also used popularly in Vietnam, but Vietnamese speakers do not usually say "jeans", as do English teachers in general and teacher 10 in particular. Instead, Vietnamese speakers say "jean". It is worth noting that in Vietnamese, the word "jeans" does not carry the plural form and meaning. Instead "jeans", a kind of trousers, is a singular noun in Vietnamese. Because "[a pair of] jeans" is grammatically a singular noun in Vietnamese, this word "*quần bò*" is usually preceded with a Vietnamese noun categoriser (i.e., grammatical particle that indicates, for example, animate or inanimate nouns) such as "*cái*" in Vietnamese, and this noun categoriser is always used before a noun quantifier (if a noun quantifier is required). Teacher 10's "jeans" is an instance of switching which involves a citation from the English textbook (see Chapter 5 for more detail in regard to teachers' switching functions as well as reasons for their switching).

4.1.3 Switching involving whole utterances

All the teachers were observed to display code-switching involving whole utterances. That is, their switches occurred between utterances and/or their turns. In my data teachers practised switching between utterances dominantly (Table 4.5). This is in line with other studies (Le, 2014; Rezvani & Raskh, 2011).

As shown in Table 4.5, this form of switching occurred more frequently among individual teachers than the other four forms. According to this table, their switching involving whole utterances made up more than two thirds of the total (1,927 out of 2,868) instances of switching. Teachers' switching between utterances and/or turns

could be classified into three types: single switching, mixed switching, and double switching.

Table 4.5 Individual teachers' switching involving whole utterances

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Whole utterance (instances)</i>			<i>Total switches of each teacher</i>
	Single switching	Mixed switching	Double switching	
T1	222	24	7	253
T2	87	7	0	94
T3	220	67	17	304
T4	35	8	1	44
T5	46	9	0	55
T6	144	18	1	163
T7	0	1	0	1
T8	192	21	2	215
T9	57	57	0	114
T10	210	41	5	256
T11	199	57	2	258
T12	132	36	2	170
Total	1,544	346	37	1,927

Single switching

Most of the teachers (i.e., 11) were observed to exhibit code-switching which involved single switching. Only one teacher (T7) did not code-switch in this form. As stated earlier in this section, teacher 7's switching involved mainly Vietnamese fillers (see Table 4.2). Teachers' single switching occurred when they were speaking in one language, and then shifted to another language in the whole next utterance (one utterance was made in one language, and the next utterance was in another language). Teachers were also observed to have a greater tendency to use (in terms of the number of instances) this type of switching than the mixed and double switching. That is, their single switching occurred three times as often as the other two types (i.e., 1544 instances were single switching, while 383 instances were mixed and double switching). Examples 4.10 and 4.11 below illustrate teachers' single switching.

Example 4.10: Class recording T5.2

- T: 1 “Language” is the first noun of the compound.|| *Ở đây có một*
 2 “Language” is the first noun of the compound.|| *Here exist one*
- 1 *cái danh từ ghép, đúng không ạ?*
 2 *classifier noun compound right interrogative politeness marker?*
particle
- E “Language” is the first noun of the compound.|| *There’s a compound noun here, right?*

Example 4.11: Class recording T8.1

- T: 1 *Thì bây giờ các bạn xem những*
 2 *So now plural marker friend see plural particle*
- 1 *cái từ còn lại xem là những chữ cái*
 2 *classifier word remain see is plural particle letter*
- 1 *nào trong từ đấy là chữ cái câm.|| So we*
 2 *which in word that is letter silent. || So we*
- 1 have to look at the spelling.
 2 have to look at the spelling.
- E *So now you examine the remaining words to see which letters in those words are silent.|| So we have to look at the spelling.*

Figure 4.2, below, illustrates teachers’ code-switching between utterances with single switching. V represents the teachers’ first language (i.e., Vietnamese) and E is their teaching and FL (i.e., English).

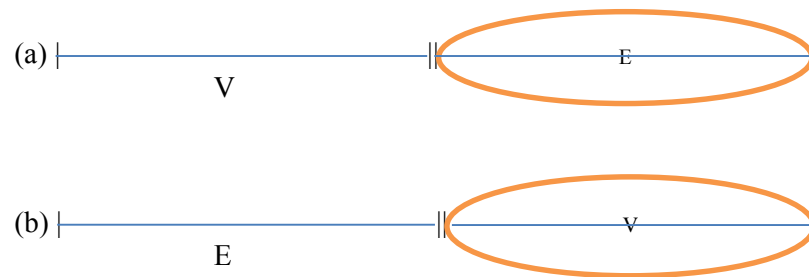


Figure 4.2 Code-switching between utterances: Single switching

Note: V: Vietnamese; E: English

In Figure 4.2, (a) represents the case in which the teachers speak in Vietnamese and then switch to English in the whole later utterance, and (b) represents the case in which the teachers speak in English and switch to Vietnamese in the later utterance.

Mixed switching

Mixed switching involved the teachers' switching at the boundary of the two utterances, and in one of these two utterances they also used two languages. That is, the teachers' switching occurred at the boundary of the two utterances, with one or more than one switch in either utterance, while the other utterance was completely in one language. Figure 4.3 shows the teachers' mixed switching. Each circle represents a switch.

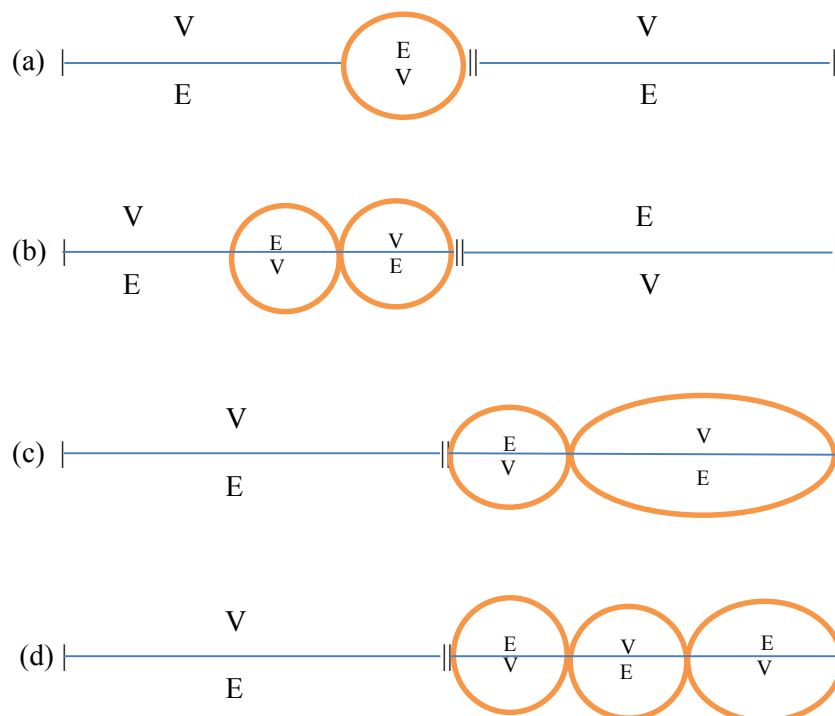


Figure 4.3 Code-switching between utterances: Mixed switching

Note: V: Vietnamese; E: English

In (a) the teachers start speaking in one language (V or E), they switch to another language to finish that utterance, and then in the second utterance they switch back to the language that they used in the beginning of the first utterance. The switch occurs within the first utterance and at the boundary of the two utterances. Example 4.12 is provided to illustrate teachers' code-switching under category (a).

Example 4.12: Class recording T1.2 (a)

- T: 1 *Bên dưới là thung lũng thì cả thung lung ấy* the eyes
 2 *Below is valley is whole valley that* the eyes
- 1 cannot see.|| *Mắt không thể nhìn thấy được*
 2 cannot see.|| *Eye negative see ability particle*
- 1 *bởi vì sao, bởi vì nó quá rộng.*
 2 *because why, because it too large.*
- E *Below is the valley and that whole valley, the eyes cannot see.|| The eyes can not see.|| Why?|| Because it is too large.*

Here, teacher 1 started speaking in Vietnamese “*Bên dưới là thung lũng thì cả thung lũng ấy*” (Below is the valley and that whole valley), he switched to English “the eyes cannot see” in his first utterance, and then switched back to Vietnamese in his second utterance “*Mắt không thể nhìn thấy được bởi vì sao, bởi vì nó quá rộng*” (We cannot see it with eyes. Why? Because it is too large). His switch in English was at the boundary of the two utterances.

In (b), there are two switches in the first utterance, and the second utterance is a single language. One of these two switches occurs at the boundary of the two utterances (the second utterance is in one language). Teachers' switching in category (b) is shown in Example 4.13. Here, teacher 2 started (in her first utterance) speaking in Vietnamese “*Những cấu trúc sử dụng*” (We have just learnt how to use structures), switched to English (1st switch) “would rather, would prefer”, switched back to Vietnamese (2nd switch, occurring at the boundary) “*mà chúng ta vừa mới học giờ trước*” (in the last period), and then switched to English in her second utterance.

Example 4.13: Class recording T2.1

- T: 1 *Những cấu trúc sử dụng* would rather, would prefer

- 2 *Plural marker structure use* would rather, would prefer
- 1 *mà chúng ta vừa mới học giờ trước.||* Now who can read the
- 2 *But we just learn hour before.||* Now who can read the
- 1 sentences use [sic] would rather or would prefer
- 2 sentences use [sic] would rather or would prefer
- E *The structure using would rather, would prefer we just learned in the last period.||* Now who can read the sentences use [sic] would rather or would prefer to.

In (c) or (d), teachers' switching only occurs in the second utterance (the first utterance is in only one language, either V or E). There are two or more switches in the second utterance, and one of these switches occurs at the boundary of the two utterances. I exemplify teachers' switching of these two categories in the two examples below (Examples 4.14 and 4.15)

Example 4.14: Class recording T3.1

- T: 1 *Các em biết chỗ này là người*
- 2 *Plural particle younger sister know place this is people*
- 1 *Việt Nam chúng ta biên soạn thêm cho nên là nó có*
- 2 *Vietnamese we edit add so is it have*
- 1 *một số lỗi.|| Analysis là danh từ chứ không phải là động từ.*
- 2 *some error.|| Analysis is noun but negative is verb.*
- E *You know this section was written by our Vietnamese people so there are some mistakes.|| Analysis is a noun, but not a verb.*

Example 4.15: Class recording T11.1

- T: 1 *How many [sic] with plural nouns.|| Câu hỏi how many cộng với*
- 2 *How many [sic] with plural nouns.|| Question how many plus*
- 1 *danh từ dạng gì nhỉ?*
- 2 *noun form what?*

E How many [sic] with plural nouns.|| *In question with how many you use with what kind of noun?*

In Example 4.14, teacher 3 spoke in Vietnamese in her first utterance “*Các em biết chỗ này là người Việt Nam chúng ta biên soạn thêm cho nên là nó có một số lỗi*” (You know this section was edited and added by Vietnamese so there are some mistakes). She switched to English “analysis” in her second utterance (her first switch, occurring at the boundary), and then switched back to Vietnamese to finish that utterance “*là danh từ chứ không phải là động từ*” (is a noun, but not a verb). Similarly, in Example 4.15, teacher 11’s first utterance was in only one language (in English in this case), she switched to Vietnamese “*Câu hỏi*” (The question), back to English “how many”, and then back to Vietnamese to finish her second utterance “*cộng với danh từ dạng gì nhỉ?*” (you use with what kind of noun?). In mixed switching teachers’ switches only occur in one of the two utterances (either the first or the second). There is always a switch at the boundary of the two utterances

Double switching

Double switching refers to instances of code-switching where teachers shifted from one language to another language at the boundary of the two utterances, and in both utterances they used two languages. In other words, there was a switch at the boundary of the teachers’ utterances, and other switches in both these utterances. The teachers’ double switching is illustrated in Figure 4.3 (each circle represents each switch) and in Examples 4.16, 4.17, and 4.18 below.

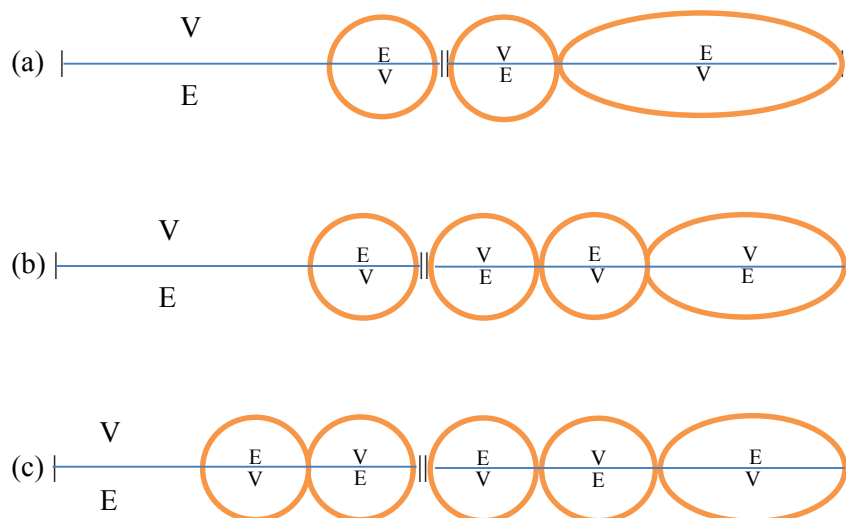


Figure 4.4 Code-switching between utterances: Double switching
Note: V: Vietnamese; E: English

Examples 4.16 and 4.17 illustrate teachers' double code-switching of category (a) and (b), respectively in Figure 4.4.

Example 4.16: Class recording T12.1

- T: 1 *Thế còn học năm năm thì gọi là engineer.* || *Các*
 2 *So and learn five years is call is engineer.* || *Plural particle*
- 1 *Ngành kỹ thuật là engineer.*
 2 *Major engineer is engineer.*
- E *So for the five year programme we call engineer* [sic-engineers degree]. || *Technology discipline is engineer* [sic-engineering].

Example 4.17: Class recording T1.1

- T: 1 *A đúng rồi,* to make money or to earn money. || *Có*
 2 *Ah right already,* to make money or to earn money. || *-Interrogative particle*
- 1 *biết viết từ money không?*
 2 *know write word money -interrogative particle?*
- E *Ah, that's right,* to make money or to or to earn money. || *Do you know how to spell the word money?*

In Example 4.16, there was a switch in the teacher's first utterance "engineer" (also the switch at the boundary). This teacher (teacher 12) switched to Vietnamese in his second utterance "*Các ngành kỹ thuật là*" (Engineering discipline is), and then switched back to English "engineer". Similarly, teacher 1 (Example 4.17) switched to English in his first utterance "to make much money or to earn money", switched to Vietnamese utterance, back to English, and then to Vietnamese in his second utterance. In Example 18 category (c), there were two switches in the teacher's first utterance "*và gì ạ*" (and what), "apple juice", and three more switches in her second utterances, "*Động từ*" (the verb), "to be", "*của chúng cũng khác nhau*" (used with them is also different).

Example 4.18: Class recording T10.2

- T: 1 *Apple và gì ạ* apple juice. || *Động từ to be*
 2 *Apple and what - politeness particle* apple juice. || *Verb to be*

- 1 *của chúng cũng khác nhau.*
 - 2 *of they also different each other.*
- E Apple and what apple juice.|| The verb to be used with them is also different.

Concerning switches at the sentence level, fluent bilinguals tend to switch by inserting a word or phrase within a sentence, and non-fluent bilinguals prefer switching between utterances, i.e. inter-sentential switching (Poplack, 1980). In support of this view, Brice (2000) explains that linguistically, inter-sentential switching is less complicated than intra-sentential switching. However, the reason for teachers to switch across utterances or turns in my study could be that they aimed for simplicity in their use of language. The key purpose of this practice was to facilitate the comprehension of their students, particularly those with low levels of English as these teachers reported (see Chapter 5, section 5.3.2), rather than resulting from teachers' own levels of fluency in the two languages. As a result of this, the teachers' switches between utterances involved a great number of short utterances, most of which were related to their Vietnamese translation of their English instruction.

The teachers' switches between utterances involved repeated single words or phrases in their instruction. This was practised in most of the teachers' observed class hours. Examples of these single words/phrases are "*được chưa*" (all right), "*đúng chưa*" (right), "*nào*" (now), "now", "and now", and "Understand?". Noticeably, the most regular single word employed repeatedly by the teachers as their switches was "Okay". The teachers' use of this word has been treated as part of borrowing, one form of code-switching in the present study (see 4.1.4 for more detail). Teachers' use of this discourse marker helped to make their instruction more cohesive. Consider a typical example of a teacher's repeated use of "Okay":

Example 4.19: Class recording T8.2

- | | | | |
|----|---|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| T: | 1 | <i>Hợp thời trang, đúng không ạ?</i> | Okay. Are there any new |
| | 2 | <i>Fashionable, right interrogative particle - politeness particle?</i> | Okay. Are there any new |
| | 1 | word [sic] in the first text? Transmit. It's | a verb and <i>truyền phát</i> |
| | 2 | word [sic] in the first text? Transmit. It's | a verb and <i>transmit</i> |

1 ở đây là tín hiệu, đúng không nhỉ?|| Okay.
 2 where here is signal, right no question particle?|| Okay.

1 And producer, sản xuất, đúng không?|| đây là
 2 And producer, produce? right that is
 interrogative particle?||

1 nhà sản xuất.|| Okay
 2 house produce.|| Okay

E Fashionable, right?|| Okay.|| Are there any new word [sic] in the first text?|| Transmit.|| It's a verb and transmit, here it means signal, right?|| Okay, and producer, produce, right?|| That's producer.|| Okay.

In this example (Example 4.19), Teacher 8's switching using "Okay", can be understood as "next", "next point", or "go on". It appeared that this teacher uttered "Okay" whenever he finished his instruction in Vietnamese and moved to English instruction. Therefore, his use of "Okay" functioned as continuing his instruction. Another word teachers used in the same way as their use of "Okay" is "Understand?", as shown in Example 4.20. Teacher 6 repeated "Understand?", and her switch here was used as a way of moving forward with the instruction, rather than a way of checking the students' comprehension.

Example 4.20: Class recording T6.2

T: 1 Understand?|| Như vậy là cũng không mua được
 2 Understand?|| So is too negative buy ability

1 bánh pigia.|| Thế rõ ràng
 2 cake pizza.|| So clear

1 là bà ấy không có bánh pigia.|| Understand?
 2 is grandmother person deixis negative have cake pizza.|| Understand?

E Understand?|| So he can't buy pizza. So it is clear she hasn't got pizza in her shop.|| Understand?

As discussed previously in this section, although these two words are discourse markers, I do not consider them to be tags in this study because teachers usually paused at the boundary of their utterance and then proceeded to their "Okay" or "Understand". Their switching involving these words, along with the single words listed above, occurred between utterances.

Teachers' repeated use of single words, as described above, was noticed during the time I observed them and transcribed the class recordings. In order to gain a better understanding of their use of such single words, I added a question to the interview guides on why teachers repeatedly used such word(s) when I interviewed them after the observations. Most of the teachers who were asked that question, explained that they used such words or phrases to check their students' understanding, to confirm their students' responses, or to remind their students to pay attention to the lesson. Only one teacher (T5) considered her use of such repeated words as a hesitation strategy. Another interesting explanation given was that one teacher (T7) said that he had got into the habit of using it when giving instructions. Further details of the functions and reasons for the teachers' switching involving those repeated words will be discussed in Chapter 6.

4.1.4 Marginal code-switching

The three types of code-switching according to Poplack's (1980) classification (extra-sentential, intra-sentential, and inter-sentential code-switching) have been adopted by a number of authors (e.g., Baker, 2006; Hamers & Blanc, 2000; Hoffmann, 1991; Romaine, 1995). These three types of code-switching were also found in some other studies of classroom code-switching (e.g., Greggio & Gil, 2007; Le, 2014; Lee, 2010; Merritt et al., 1992; Xu, 2010). In my study, apart from these three types, another form of teachers' switches was found. I provisionally refer to this switching form as marginal switching, which is illustrated in Figure 4.5.



Figure 4.5 Marginal code-switching

Note: V: Vietnamese; E: English

As can be seen from this figure, teachers started speaking by using a Vietnamese filler (e.g., À, Ò) or an English interjection (i.e., Okay), and then they immediately switched to English or Vietnamese, respectively, to finish their utterance. Their switching of this form is different from their extra-sentential switching, i.e. switching involving Vietnamese fillers or tags. Though marginal code-switching involves the use of Vietnamese fillers as well as English interjections, it needs to be distinguished from tag

switching. In tag switching, teachers' switches are on those fillers/tags. Here, in the marginal switching category, the Vietnamese fillers or English interjections are not switches. Instead, the switches are the whole utterances in the other language (i.e. English or Vietnamese, respectively) that follow these fillers or interjections, rather than in the language of the fillers or interjections themselves. I exemplify teachers' marginal code-switching in Examples 4.21, 4.22, and 4.23 below.

Example 4.21: Class recording T9.1

T: *A* (*Ah*) ...are you clear about the things in this one?

Example 4.22: Class recording T8.1

T: \dot{O} (*Er*)...this is the national holiday in the US.

Example 4.23: Class recording T11.2

T: 1 Ok, *cái* *ngọn hải đăng* *gì* *nhỉ*,
 2 Ok, *noun categorizer* *lighthouse* *what* *question particle*,
 1 *cổ*, *đúng* *không* *ạ?*
 2 *old*, *right* *interrogative particle*
politeness particle?

E Ok, *the lighthouse is how, old, right?*

In Examples 4.21 and 4.22, the teachers uttered Vietnamese fillers to start their instruction, and then they switched to English to finish their instruction. Note that these fillers here were not switches, because these fillers began a turn and an utterance, and the switches (in English) followed these fillers. These instances are different from extra-sentential code-switching, in which fillers are switches. Their switches in the marginal switching form were full utterances in English or Vietnamese. In Example 4.23, teacher 11 started her instruction by using the English interjection “Okay”, but then switched to Vietnamese for the rest of her instruction. The teachers’ employment of Vietnamese fillers in their English utterances was related to their habitual practice of using them in their everyday conversations in Vietnamese. Their common use of these fillers affected their use of English in their classrooms. The reasons for the teachers’ code-switching will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5 (see section 5.2).

4.1.5 Borrowing as switching

Two-thirds of the teachers (i.e. 8) were observed to display code-switching which involved words they borrowed directly from English when they were speaking Vietnamese in their instruction. Those are very popular English words that are being used by young Vietnamese or the media. Examples of such words are “hot”, “internet”, “video clip”, “TV”, “jeans”, “Okay”, “stop”, “tick”, “pizza”, “web”, “search”, “check”, “desktop”, and proper nouns (e.g., product brands, music bands, English song titles, websites, and places). Examples 4.24, 4.25 and 4.26 are three of the many instances of teachers’ switching which involves such borrowed words.

Example 4.24: Class recording T3.1

T: 1 *Bạn đã nhận được bao nhiêu emails*
2 *Friend past tense particle receive how many emails*
1 *rồi?*
2 *already?*

E *How many emails have you received so far?*

For instance, in Example 4.24 the teacher was asking her students to translate a question in the text-book into Vietnamese. She confirmed her students’ answer by repeating their response in Vietnamese. However, she switched to English using the very popular word “emails” in its plural form instead of translating that word into Vietnamese or using the Vietnamese rule for pluralising nouns. In this instance, Vietnamese (the base language) did not provide the grammatical frame for the English word (i.e. “emails” in its plural form). In other words, in this example, there is a lack of the teacher’s adaptation to Vietnamese grammatical structure for the plural word. In Vietnamese, the indicator of a plural noun is always used before that particular noun, but not after the noun. Here, teacher 3 still followed the English grammatical rule of plural nouns when she inserted “emails” into her Vietnamese utterance. Again, this challenges Myers-Scotton’s (1993, 2001, 2006) Matrix Language Model.

Example 4.25: Class recording T10.2

T: 1 *Okay.|| Ra chơi rồi chúng ta sẽ xem*
2 *Okay.|| Break after we future watch*
1 *một cái video clip về mua sắm.||*

- 2 one noun categoriser video clip *about shopping*.||
 1 *Giờ chúng ta nghỉ giải lao nhé.* || Okay.
 2 Now we break alignment marker. || Okay.

E Okay.|| *We will watch a video clip about shopping after the break.*|| *Let's have break now.*|| Okay.

In Example 4.25, when the teacher heard the bell ring, which signalled that the class was over (observation, T10, 26th April 2012), she ended her instruction by introducing the upcoming activity after the break to her students. Instead of speaking in Vietnamese, she switched to English, i.e., “video clip” to tell her students what they were going to be watching. It is worth noting that this teacher still pronounced “video clip” as it is in English, but not as it is adapted to Vietnamese pronunciation.

The teachers’ switches which involved borrowing some English words, as shown in these examples, were not due to the lack of Vietnamese equivalent words. It is probably because such words are becoming more and more popular and widely used around the world and in Vietnam in particular. Vietnamese young people and teachers of English appear to use such English words since they feel it is more convenient compared to when they use the equivalent words in Vietnamese. Moreover, they do not have to remember the Vietnamese translation for the word. As a result, both the teachers and the students have become more familiar with such words borrowed directly from English rather than the local equivalent vocabulary.

Example 4.26: Class recording T6.2

- T: 1 *Chúng ta phải nghe và đánh dấu tick vào*
 2 *We must listen and mark tick in*
 1 *những thứ nào mua được,*
 2 *noun quantifier thing which buy ability particle*
 1 *thứ nào không mua được*
 2 *thing which no buy ability particle*
 1 *và giải thích tại sao không mua được*
 2 *and explain why negative buy ability particle*

E *You have to listen and tick the things you can buy, and you can't buy, and explain why you can't buy them.*

Another example of a teacher's switch involving the borrowed English word "tick" was provided previously (Example 4.26). This switch in English occurred within the teacher's utterance in Vietnamese – she was specifying her requirement for the students to perform a task, i.e., ticking the right box which is more common activity in English classrooms than Vietnamese ones. A very common word used as teachers' switching was "Okay". Here is a typical example.

Example 4.27: Class recording T11.1

- | | | | |
|----|---|-------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| T: | 1 | <i>Một cái bản đồ kho báu.</i> | Okay? Look at the map below |
| | 2 | <i>One noun categoriser map treasure.</i> | Okay? Look at the map below |
| | 1 | and search the italic ones to complete | the instructions. |
| | 2 | and search the italic ones to complete | the instructions. |
| E | | | |
| | | <i>A treasure map.</i> | Okay? Look at the map below and search the ones in italic to complete the instructions. |

Noticeably, the teachers' employment of the word "Okay" (borrowed directly from English), as described above as a discourse marker, carried two meanings. The first meaning was "understand?" or "agree?" or "is it right?", which was recognised as teachers raised their pitch to signal their questions (as in Example 4.27). Even though the teacher raised her pitch when she said "Okay?", she did not mean to seek a response from students because she went on teaching. The second meaning was "next", "and next", "go on", "that's it" which could be distinguished when teachers lowered their pitch (Example 4.26). In both these examples, the teachers' use of "Okay?" or "Okay" can be understood as their way of continuing their instruction. In these two cases, like all the other instances of teachers' use of "Okay" in their instruction, teachers still pronounced "Okay" as is it in English /əukei/ instead of adapting it to Vietnamese pronunciation (in Vietnamese "Okay" is pronounced /o-ke/.)

The first three forms of teachers' code-switching found in my study (i.e., switching involving fillers/tags, switching involving parts of an utterance, and switching involving whole utterances) are in line with Poplack's (1980) three types of code-switching (i.e., extra-sentential, intra-sentential and inter-sentential switching), respectively. However, my classification of teachers' extra-sentential switching is a little different. That is, I base my judgement on teachers' pauses and pitch changes to decide whether their discourse markers are tags or not. I argue that extra-sentential/tag switching can involve

discourse markers (e.g., fillers, tags), but not all discourse markers can be extra-sentential/tag switching in specific instances, for example the discourse markers “Okay” or “Understand”, in my study. In addition to these three forms, there are two other forms of teachers’ switching: one I tentatively term “marginal switching”, which needs to be confirmed in future research, and the other I term “borrowing as switching”. Teachers’ switching of the five forms described occurred in different situations in their instruction. Such situations are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

4.2 Code-switching situations

In this study, code-switching situations refer to when the teachers code-switched in their classroom instruction. The findings about situations were obtained from three main sources: classroom observations; class recordings; and interviews with both the teacher and the student participants. The data set showed that the teachers practised code-switching in two main groups of situations in their classroom instruction. The first group consisted of situations where they provided content-related instruction, i.e. instruction involving language teaching units (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation). The second group included situations where the teachers gave instruction on classroom process, i.e. how they teach what they teach. Their instruction on classroom process included when they dealt with instruction management and classroom management. In other words, the first group was related to what the teacher taught, while the second one concerned how they taught what they taught. This categorisation is summarised in Table 4.6, below.

Table 4.6 Summary of teachers' code-switching situations

<i>Code-switching situations</i>	<i>No. of teachers</i>
Teaching content (language teaching units)	
○ Vocabulary	11
○ English pronunciation	7
○ English grammar rules	8
Classroom process	
○ Instruction management	12
○ Classroom management	10

These two main groups of code-switching situations are presented and discussed in the rest of this section (in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2).

4.2.1 Teaching content

Almost all teachers (except teacher 1) were observed to exhibit code-switching related to instruction of content, i.e. teaching language elements, or language units. These language teaching units included vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.

Vocabulary

Regarding vocabulary matters, teachers explained the meaning of words, word spellings, parts of speech, word forms or utterances. Their explanations of these points were usually in the form of translating such explanations, or asking their students to translate words or utterances (normally from the textbook) into either English or Vietnamese. The following examples (4.28 - 4.30) from the teachers (T3, T10, and T1) show their switches when they were dealing with vocabulary explanations.

Example 4.28: Class recording T3.1

T3: *Analysis là danh từ chứ không phải là động từ.|| Các em sửa lại.|| Analysis is a noun, not a verb.|| Danh từ sự phân tích.|| Receive là động từ nhận, nhận được.|| Nhận được thư.|| Deliver là động từ giao, phát.|| Key board là danh từ bàn phím.|| Annoying, adjective, làm phiền, phiền toái.|| Reach.|| Reach is a verb, với tới đạt tới.|| Assassination is a noun.|| Sự ám sát.|| Demonstrate is a verb, điều hành.|| Incredible, adjective.|| Không thể tin được.|| Now please read again.|| Analysis.*

<Analysis is a noun not a verb. || Correct it. || Analysis is a noun, not a verb. || The noun analysis.|| Receive is a verb, receive, receive.|| Receive a letter.|| Deliver is a verb, deliver, distribute. || Keyboard is a noun, keyboard.|| Annoying, adjective, causing annoyance.|| Reach.|| Reach is a verb, reach, accomplish.|| Assassination is a noun.|| Assassination.|| Demonstrate is a verb, demonstrate.|| Incredible, adjective.|| Incredible.|| Now please read again.|| Analysis.>

Sts: [reading after teacher]

In Example 4.28, the teacher switched to Vietnamese when she explained the part of speech of the word “analysis”, and translated this word into Vietnamese. Similarly, she switched to Vietnamese, explaining the part of speech and translated a series of words “receive”, “deliver”, “keyboard”, “annoying”, “reach”, “assassination”, “demonstrate”,

and “incredible”. In a number of situations, teachers code-switched in their questions, asking their students to translate the meaning of a word or an utterance into another language. Example 4.29 provides a teacher’s question in relation to a translating task.

Example 4.29: Class recording 10.2

- T10: *Thế còn cái tomatoes?*|| *What does it mean?*
 <*What about tomatoes?*|| *What does it mean?*>
- Sts: [replying – V]
- T10: Okay.|| *À, (Ah,) transport, what does it mean?*|| Transport.
- Sts: [replying – V]
- T10: *Vận tải.*|| Okay.|| What is *xăng dầu* in English?
 <*Transport.*|| Okay.|| What is *petrol* in English?>
- Sts: [replying – E]

Teacher 10 switched from Vietnamese to English to ask her students the meaning of “tomatoes” in Vietnamese, and from English to Vietnamese to ask the meaning of “*xăng dầu*” (“petrol”) in English. In other words, this teacher asked her students to translate those words into the other language. In my data, whenever the teachers asked their students the question “what does it mean?” they expected that their students would translate that word into the other language. Thus, the teachers’ question “what does it mean?” could be simply understood as “how do you say it in Vietnamese/English?”, or “what is it in Vietnamese/English”. As a result, in every situation where the teachers asked “what does it mean?” their students usually translated the word into Vietnamese or English instead of explaining that word. Another excerpt (Example 4.30 below) exemplifies this.

Example 4.30: Class recording T1.2

- T1: “*They think that I start at one end, paint our end and start again.*”.|| What does that mean?|| *Gì nhĩ, khi tôi tell à...gì nhĩ, khi tôi nói với với người ta rằng tôi làm sao nhĩ?*|| Paint, paint?
 <“*They think that I start at one end, paint our end and start again.*”.|| What does that mean?|| *What, when I tell ah...what, when I tell people that I what?*|| Paint, paint?>
- Sts: [replying-V]

In most of the cases, the words or utterances that the teachers required their students to translate were from the textbook. Teacher 1 in Example 4.30 read out a sentence from the reading text in the students' book, and asked his students in English "What does that mean?" Then he switched to Vietnamese to restate his question "*Gì nhi*" ("what"), and started to translate what he had read out from the book. Suddenly, he paused to switch to English "Paint, paint?" to ask his students to finish translating that utterance "paint our end and start again" into Vietnamese. His request worked when his students translated it into Vietnamese in their response to him.

English pronunciation

In addition to dealing with vocabulary item(s), the teachers code-switched when they facilitated their students' English pronunciation. Examples of the teachers' facilitations arise when they help their students with how to pronounce an English word, or they correct their students' pronunciation of an English word. In Example 4.31, the teacher was asking her students to read aloud the new words which appeared in the reading passage (observation, T3, 24th April 2012).

Example 4.31: Class recording T3.1

- T: *Từ kết nối các em có thể đọc là associate [ə'səʊfiət] hoặc là associate [ə'səʊfɪt] là động từ liên kết.*
<You can pronounce the word associate as associate [ə'səʊfiət] or associate, [ə'səʊfɪt], it is a verb and it means connect.>
- (...)
- T: *Động từ đấy có phải đọc là resign [rɪ'zɑːn] không em?||*
[checking a student about his pronunciation of the word "receive"]. Đọc là receive [rɪ'siːv].|| Ờ...do you understand these questions?
<For that verb, is the pronunciation [rɪ'zɑːn], dear?|| *[checking student about his pronunciation of the word "receive"].*
Pronounce it receive [rɪ'siːv].|| Er...do you understand these questions?>
- Sts: [no response]

After the students read aloud the new words, in chorus, after her, she started calling on some students to read aloud those words to check their pronunciation. Pointing to a student to signal him to stand up and read the new words again (observation, T3, 24th April 2012, she firstly showed how to pronounce the first word ("associate") to the designated student, and the whole class. She started her instruction in Vietnamese, and

then switched to English to model the pronunciation of the word. That is, she switched to English to give the English pronunciation of that word. Another student was asked to continue to read these words. He (the required student) mispronounced one of the words, i.e. “receive”, and actually pronounced this word “resign” (/rɪ'zain/). As a result, the teacher interrupted the student, switching from Vietnamese to English to correct his pronunciation of this word (receive).

Here is another typical example of teachers’ code-switching in facilitating students’ comprehension of English pronunciation.

Example 4.32: Class recording T12.1

- T12: Next is typical. Typical. *Cái từ này đọc... rất là... khó nhớ, đúng không? Thường thì chữ “y” đọc là gì?*
 <Next is typical. Typical. *This word is pronounced...it is very...difficult, right? How is “y” usually pronounced?>*
- Sts: [E]
- T12: [wai]. *Chúng ta đọc là type [taɪp], loại kiểu. Đây là cái từ bất quy tắc. Chúng ta đọc là typical [ˈtɪpɪkəl].* Now read after me. Typical.
 < [wai]. *We pronounce it type [taɪp], type. This is pronounced differently. We pronounce it typical [ˈtɪpɪkəl].* Now read after me. Typical.>

Teacher 12 in the example above was introducing the word “typical” to his students. His switch to Vietnamese in his first turn to comment on this word was that it was difficult (for students) to remember how to pronounce this word. He then sought a response from his student by asking “*Thường thì chữ ‘y’ đọc là gì?*” (How do you usually pronounce the letter “y”?). He switched to English in his second turn to confirm his students’ response “[wai]”, switched back to Vietnamese in his second and fourth utterances, and then to English, in the second turn, while facilitating the students with how to pronounce the word “type” and “typical”, respectively. Similarly, teacher 3 in Example 5.2 switched to English “*Ở đây chúng ta không đọc là [ri:d], phân từ 2 chúng ta phải đọc là [red]*” (Here we don’t pronounce it as [ri:d], when it’s the participle we pronounce it as [red]). Her switch in this case occurred when she was distinguishing between the pronunciations of the word “read” when it is an infinitive and when it is a past participle form.

English grammar

It appears that the teachers code-switched to their first language, i.e. Vietnamese, while giving instructions which involved explanations of English grammatical rules. In most of the situations where teachers gave instructions on an English grammar point, they usually mentioned the grammatical terms (single words) in English and then explained the rules and/or the use of those terms in Vietnamese, as shown in Examples 4.33 and 4.34.

Example 4.33: Class recording T6.2

- T6: Uncount [sic].|| Okay.|| Uncount.|| Coffee ở đây là danh từ
 không đếm được, vì vậy chúng ta dùng gì nhỉ?|| Much.||
 Understand?||
 <Uncount [sic].|| Okay.|| Uncount.|| Coffee here is an
 uncountable noun, so what do we use?|| Much.|| Understand?>
- Sts: [replying – E]

Example 4.34: Class recording T10.2

- T10: These và those là số nhiều của this and that.|| Can you guess
 noncount [non-countable] noun?|| Do we have “this, that” or
 “these, those”?
 <These and those are plural form of this and that. Can you guess
 noncount [non-countable] noun?|| Do we have “this, that” or
 “these, those”?>
- Sts: [replying - V]

In Example 4.33, teacher 6 was repeating and confirming her students’ response in English. Instead of continuing to speak in English, she switched to Vietnamese to explain the use of the word “coffee”, saying that it is an uncountable noun. In a similar situation (Example 4.34), teacher 10 switched to Vietnamese when she was dealing with her explanation of the English grammar rule for the two English determiners (in their plural forms) “these” and “those”.

Other examples in which two teachers code-switched when they were explaining English grammar rules were introduced previously in this chapter (see 4.1.3, Example 4.15 and Example 4.18). In Example 4.15, teacher 3 started her instruction in English, and then she switched back and forth “*Câu hỏi how many cộng với danh từ dạng gì nhỉ?*” (What kind of noun do you use in questions with “how many?”). In a similar way, teacher 10 switched back and forth between English and Vietnamese “*Apple và gì à apple juice. Động từ ‘to be’ của chúng cũng khác nhau*” (Apple, and what, apple juice.

The verb ‘to be’ used with them differs). Her switches occurred during her instruction on explaining to her students about the rules of using the verb “to be” with the countable noun, “apple” and the uncountable noun “apple juice”.

4.2.2 Classroom process

Teachers were also observed to exhibit code-switching when they were dealing with classroom processes which involved their instruction management and classroom management.

Instruction management

Teachers’ instruction management means the way they give instruction on what they teach, i.e., the language units (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation). The teachers in the present study usually managed their instruction with a number of activities. Examples of these activities are:

- joking
- organising/introducing/explaining a (new) activity/task/piece of information
- seeking students’ agreement or responses
- commenting
- checking understanding or readiness
- confirming students’ responses
- exemplifying

The following examples (4.35 - 4.40) illustrate teachers’ code-switching in the activities listed above. Some teachers usually code-switched when they joked with their students or told their students about things that were not related to the lesson they were teaching. In Example 4.35, the teacher (T1) managed his classroom, joking with his students by inserting an English word “goodbye” (the title of an English song) in his joke in Vietnamese. In other words, this teacher code-switched while he was joking with his students. However, his English switch here performed a specific function namely “quoting”. That is, he quoted the English pronunciation of the title of the song “Good bye” in his Vietnamese utterance “*Hoặc cho nó nghe bài Good bye*” (Or offer her the song Goodbye), without any adaptation to Vietnamese pronunciation. Further interpretation of the function of his switch in this situation will be discussed in Chapter 5 (see 5.1.1).

Example 4.35: Class recording T1.2

T1: *Đúng rồi.|| Anh thà làm em đau còn hơn là làm em khóc.|| Mừng tám tháng ba chép nhanh lên.*
<*That's right.|| I would rather hurt myself than ever make you cry.|| Eight of March's coming, so write down quickly.*>

Sts: [laughing]

T1: *Hoặc cho nó nghe bài Goodbye. [loud laughing].*
<*Or offer her the song Goodbye [loud laughing]*>.

Examples 4.36 and 4.37 (below) illustrate the teachers' switching which occurred when they sought responses from and commented on their students. In Example 4.37, teacher 6 was teaching listening skills. After turning the CD on for her students to listen to it, she paused and asked for volunteers (i.e., students) to give an answer in English. Her switch into Vietnamese occurred when she was seeking a response from students.

Example 4.36: Class recording T6.2

T: Who can?|| *Các em nhìn vào đi, nào, gạo nào, nhìn vào đi, nào chúng ta thấy còn nhiều không?*
<Who can?|| *Look at this, look, rice, look at rice, now can you see much rice?*>

Sts: [replying – V]

It seems that teachers tended to comment in Vietnamese in their classes. Their comments were usually on, for example, the students' poor English, students' errors or unwillingness to engage in the lesson. They usually switched to English immediately after their comment in Vietnamese, like teacher 5 (Example 4.37).

Example 4.37: Class recording T5.1

T5: *Các bạn còn không nhớ cả bảng chữ cái nữa.|| Okay, number 3 please.*
<*You don't even remember the alphabet.|| Okay, number 3 please.*>

My data also show that teachers code-switched when they checked their students' comprehension, confirmed students' responses and provided them with examples, as shown in Examples 4.38, 4.39, and 4.40.

Example 4.38: Class recording T6.2

T6: Understand?|| *Như vậy là cũng không mua được bánh pi gia.*
<Understand?|| *So he couldn't buy pizza either.*>

In Example 4.38, the teacher code-switched to Vietnamese when she was checking her students' comprehension "Understand?".

Example 4.39: Class recording T4.2

T4: What is drive when it is a verb?

St: [V]

T4: Okay, *lái xe*.
<Okay, *drive*>

In a similar way, the teacher in Example 4.39 also code-switched to Vietnamese "*lái xe*" (drive) while confirming her students' answer. Her use of "Okay" here means "that's right".

Example 4.40: Class recording T3.2

T: *Vi dụ* [28] if you need to contact someone urgently, you can make a phone call or send a text message.
<For example, if you need to contact someone urgently, you can make a phone call or send a text message.>

Teacher 3 (Example 4.40) switched into a long English utterance when she was demonstrating for her students by using a phrase in Vietnamese "*Vi dụ*" ("for example"). Further interpretation of this teacher's switching in this situation will be discussed in Chapter 5 and 7.

Classroom management

In addition to instruction management, teachers' code-switching occurred when they were dealing with classroom management, i.e., classroom routines which are typical in the formalised context of the Vietnamese classrooms. Such routines include teachers' starting and ending their class hours (e.g. introducing a new lesson, lead-in questions or activities, giving homework, closing instructions), welcoming visitors to their classes, sharing personal matters, dealing with situations such as students' coming late, students' performance of tasks, and arranging students' seating. Most of the teachers (i.e. 10) used both English and Vietnamese when they organised classroom procedural activities.

Examples 4.41 and 4.42 illustrate the teachers' code-switching related to starting and ending their class hours, respectively. In Example 4.41, teacher 1 came into the class, starting his instruction with a lead-in question and an introduction of the observer to the

class in Vietnamese. He switched to English to introduce the new lesson that the students were learning that day.

Example 4.41: Class recording T1.2

- T1: *Bây giờ chúng ta chuyển sang bài số mười đúng không?|| Giới thiệu với các em cô H lại lần thứ hai dự giờ với lớp chúng ta [laughing].*
<Today we are learning unit ten, right?|| Let me introduce Ms H coming to attend our class again [laughing].>
- Sts: [clapping hands]
- T1: On the job [writing on board].|| Look at the title and tell me what we are going to learn.

In a similar way, teacher 8 in Example 4.42 was explaining and eliciting responses from his students in Vietnamese. He switched to English to assign homework to his students when the bell rang, signalling the end of the class hour (observation, T8, 22nd March 2012).

Example 4.42: Class recording T8.1

- T: *Tức là gì, lại để làm gì?|| Thì rõ ràng đây là?|| Về nhà làm nhé.*
<So it means, it means?|| So what is it?|| Do it at home>
- Sts: [E] [bell ringing]
- T8: Okay, so this is your part at home.

Other typical classroom routines are exemplified (Examples 4.43 and 4.44). In such situations which involved short responses the teachers commonly used English, not Vietnamese. The most typical response in their interaction with students was their “yes” answer. The teachers used the English “yes” when, for example, their students finished a task even though both the teachers and students were previously speaking in Vietnamese. The “yes” was, in particular, used by the teachers when they accepted their students’ request for permission to go out of the classroom, or to come in during a class hour, as shown in Example 4.43.

Example 4.43: Class recording T3.2

- St: [V – coming in]
- T: *Sao đi muộn thế?|| Yes.|| It is put on another machine, like this.*
<Why so late?|| Yes.|| It is put on another machine, like this.>

She (teacher 3) was explaining in Vietnamese about a kind of machine in the textbook, and a student came to the door. This student was late for class (10 minutes late according to my notes), and he asked the teacher for permission to come in. The teacher immediately switched to English, saying “yes” to that student after asking him “*Sao đi muộn thế?*” (Why so late?). It should be noted that in the Vietnamese culture students are expected to ask for their teacher’s permission when they want to come in or go out during class hours. In addition, it is considered polite or obligatory for students to stand up to greet their teacher when he/she enters the class at the beginning of the first class hour of the teacher in the day. In Example 4.44, after greeting the students in English, teacher 4 told them to sit down. It was a large class with 18 long tables arranged in three lines. However, only a few students were present that day; many others were absent from class (observation, T4, 21st March 2012). Realising that her students were sitting at the tables at the back of the classroom and leaving the front tables empty, the teacher switched to English telling the students to “move up” and then switched back to Vietnamese to translate her requirement.

Example 4.44: Class recording T4.2

T4: Yes, sit down please.|| *Các bạn* move up.|| *Chuyển lên trên này*
 <Yes, sit down please.|| *You over there* move up.|| *Move up*
here.>

A question about situations in which the teachers code-switched was included in the interview guides for teachers. All of them recalled that they switched when they gave content-related instructions on, e.g., vocabulary, and English grammar. This was also the situation confirmed by all of these teachers’ students (i.e. 12 students) in my interviews with the students. However, fewer teachers (i.e. six) acknowledged that they practised code-switching when they were giving instruction related to classroom process (i.e., instruction management and classroom routines). Although the other half of teachers did not acknowledge their code-switching in this situation, numerous instances of these six teachers’ switching occurred in their lessons I observed (e.g. teacher 5, teacher 6, and teacher 4 as presented in Examples 4.37, 4.38, 4.39 and 4.44 above). Most of the teachers associated their use of both languages with other situations, for example, when they built relationships with students, encouraged students, emphasised information, and exchanged personal information with their students. However, in this study, I identified such points (reported by half of the teachers as the

switching situations) as the functions of their switching (see Chapter 5, section 5.1 for more detail about these functions).

4.3 Conclusion

It seems that researchers who investigate the phenomenon of code-switching in the classroom context have preferred to classify code-switching into types based on linguistic criteria. Three such types (i.e., extra-sentential, intra-sentential and inter-sentential switching) involve whether the switch occurs within an utterance or between utterances. The extra-sentential, or tag switching, is not seen as occurring across sentences. Rather, it looks more like the type of switching within a sentence. However, the switching segments are not closely linked with the rest of the sentence they are in. Therefore, these switching segments are separated from the other two types.

In approaching the classification of teachers' code-switching, I employ the term "form" instead of "type" as it is commonly used in the literature. This is because "form" in this study refers to where the teachers' switches occur (i.e., within an utterance or across utterances). In addition, "form" also includes in itself such language units as discourse markers and borrowed words that are involved as switches. The bottom-up analysis of the 12 teachers' code-switching in the classroom showed that their switching occurrence was of various forms, two of which (i.e., switching involving parts of an utterance and a whole utterance) were also reported in the literature. Furthermore, my data indicate that not all discourse markers are tags, for example the two discourse markers, "Okay" and "Understand" are not "tags" in this study. Therefore, I have not considered teachers' switching which involved these two discourse markers as extra-sentential code-switching. I regard teachers' use of "Okay" and "Understand" as separate utterances because rather than being attached to the previous utterance, there was a pause before each. The extra-sentential code-switching in this study only involved Vietnamese fillers, and tags (in both English and Vietnamese).

There is one form that did not appear to exist in the previous studies but was found in this study. I tentatively refer to this as marginal code-switching. This form is distinguished from the extra-sentential in that the teachers employ Vietnamese fillers or an English interjection when they start an utterance, and then immediately switch to English/Vietnamese to finish that utterance. Their switch is a whole utterance (in extra-sentential code-switching, teachers' switches are fillers or tags). The marginal switching

form might need more evidence from further research. In addition, the teachers' switching in this study, which involves words borrowed directly from English without any adaptation to Vietnamese, is seen as one form of code-switching.

Two main categories of situations in which teachers practised code-switching have been identified as: instruction of content which involve language teaching units (i.e., vocabulary, English grammar rules and English pronunciation) and classroom process which contains teachers' instruction management (i.e., by a number of activities) and classroom routines. I believe that the situations of teachers' code-switching need to be distinguished from the functions that their switching performs. Teachers' code-switching functions will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5

TEACHERS' CODE-SWITCHING: FUNCTIONS AND FACTORS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the functions of and reasons for teachers' code-switching based on classroom observations, class recordings, and interviews. The first section describes and discusses a vast array of functions of teachers' code-switches in the different situations which were categorised in Chapter 4. The second section focuses on the reasons why teachers code-switched in their English classrooms, from both teachers' and students' perspectives. It also includes an evaluation and discussion from my own perspective of these functions and reasons.

5.1 Code-switching functions

Providing instruction can be seen as one of the main roles of the teacher in their classrooms. There are two aspects to language teachers' instruction: language content, i.e. teaching what they teach such as language units and skills as well as their management of that instruction, i.e. how they teach what they teach. Their formalised classroom context could be seen as a small society. In this classroom society, it is not only that teachers give instructions, but also that the interactions between them and their students can tell us about their relationships. These relationships might be reflected in how teachers establish contact with their students or the way they show their attitudes towards their students.

Thus, in this study, the functions of the teachers' code-switches were categorised and described on the basis of the situations where teachers code-switched and the tasks that teachers were expected to perform in their classrooms. As defined previously in Chapter 4, code-switching situations refer to when the teacher code-switched during their classes; while functions of code-switching mean what their switching does in these particular situations. My categorisation of the functions of their switching is summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Summary of teachers' code-switching functions

<i>Function categories</i>	<i>Functions</i>	<i>No. of teachers</i>
Instructional functions	○ Quoting	10
	○ Retaining English proper nouns	11
	○ Modelling pronunciation	10
	○ Repeating and reformulating/modifying information	12
	○ Shifting action/task	12
	○ Self-correcting or hesitating	12
Total		12
Social functions	○ Establishing good rapport	11
	○ Showing shifts in attitude	8
Total		11

As can be seen in Table 5.1, there are two main categories of functions of the teachers' code-switching: instructional functions and social functions. These functions were found both when teachers were dealing with the teaching content (i.e., language units) and when they were managing the classroom process (including both instruction management and classroom management). Greater detail about such functions is presented below.

5.1.1 Instructional functions

The instructional functions of teachers' code-switching in this study contained five sub-functions: quoting; retaining English proper nouns; modelling English pronunciation; repeating and reformulating/ modifying information; shifting action/task; and self-correcting or hesitating. All 12 teachers' switches were observed to perform these functions, which are described and discussed below.

Quoting

Quoting occurs when one speaker repeats another speaker's speech. Quotation is referred to as a function of a speaker's code-switching by Gumperz (1982), who emphasises that a message is not always quoted in the code (e.g., language) in which it is said, as discussed in Chapter 2. However, instead of quoting someone's message as in natural discourse as Gumperz (1982) notes, the teachers in this study appeared to quote in a distinctive way: their quotations involved a word, a group of words, or parts of a task requirement from the textbook. Here, I regard anything quoted from the textbook as someone else's speech. Examples 5.1 and 5.5 below I justify my explanation in regard to teachers' switching, as serving a quoting function.

Example 5.1: Class recording T3.1

- T: *Các em biết rằng câu hỏi* when did these events happen *là gì nhỉ?*
<As you know, what does the question when did these events happen mean?>
- Sts: [discussing in both V and E]

Example 5.2: Class recording T11.1

- T: *Ngoài cách nói mà dùng to infinitive này thì ta có thể có những cách nói khác để chỉ mục đích của hành động.*|| *Vì dụ như ta có thể thay thế là* to find *này bằng so... as to* [talking and writing on board], *in order to, hoặc là chúng ta sử dụng mệnh đề* because you have found out [sic] *opened, file opened.*
<Apart from using the to infinitive, like this, to show purposes, we can use other expressions.|| For example, we can use so... as to [talking and writing on board], in order to, instead of using to find, or we can use a clause because you have found out [sic] opened, file opened.>

In Example 5.1, the teacher switched to English, quoting a question from the textbook (observation, T3, 24th April 2012) while she was seeking response from her students by asking them to translate the quoted question into Vietnamese. In my observation, the teachers tended to quote English grammatical terms when they were explaining English grammatical rules in Vietnamese, or providing information for their students. In Example 5.1 and 5.2, teacher 11 switched to Vietnamese when she was dealing with language teaching units, explaining a grammatical point in regard to verbs showing purposes, e.g., “to find”.

Retaining English proper nouns

As discussed in Chapter 4, the teachers tended to employ English proper nouns directly to insert into their instruction in Vietnamese. These proper nouns included names of brands, music bands, song titles, or special occasions/events. When inserting such English words they did not adapt them to Vietnamese pronunciation, but rather they retained the English pronunciation of these nouns (the reasons for this are discussed in the next section). Examples (5.3-5.5) show this function.

In Example 5.3 the teacher was asking her students about Levi jeans, and then she switched to Vietnamese to explain that brand of jeans to her students. In her Vietnamese explanation she switched to English, using the brand name of “Levi” and pronouncing it as /livai/ instead of Vietnamese popular pronunciation /le vit/.

Example 5.3: Class recording T10.1

T: So who is he, do you know? Look at this picture.|| He is...?|| Do you know Levi?|| Do you know Levi Strauss?|| *Chúng ta biết là rất nhiều cái quần bò của hãng tên là Levi.*|| So he is Levi Strauss.|| He invented jeans.|| Okay.|| He invented jeans, Levi Strauss.|| Now what are they?|| What are they?
<So who is he, do you know?|| Look at this picture.|| He is...?|| Do you know Levi?|| Do you know Levi Strauss?|| *We know a lot of jeans named Levi.*|| So he is Levi Strauss.|| He invented jeans.|| Okay.|| He invented jeans, Levi Strauss.|| Now what are they?|| What are they?>

In a similar way, the teacher in Example 5.4 uttered the name of a western special occasion by pronouncing it as /h'æləʊw'i:n/, but not as Vietnamese pronunciation (/haloguin/). He also retained his English pronunciation of an event associated with this occasion “trick or treat” and did not translate this phrase into Vietnamese.

Example 5.4: Class recording T8.1

T: *Ngày Halloween là đêm 31 tháng 10.*|| *Và trong cái ngày này thì bọn trẻ thường chơi một cái trò là trick or treat.*
<Halloween is the night of 31 October.|| And on this day, children usually play trick or treat.>

In addition, teachers’ switches related to retaining function involving English words that were very popular and widely used by the media or the young in Vietnam, as shown in Example 5.5.

Example 5.5: Class recording T1.2

T: No.|| Goobye của ban nhạc Air Supply.|| Và nhiệm vụ của chúng ta là về nhà search bài này, nghe bài này sau đó chép lại bài này cho tôi.
<No.|| Goodbye is by Air Supply.|| And your homework is search this song, listen and write its lyrics down for me.>

Sts: [shouting]

Example 5.5 above is another example of the function of retaining the pronunciation of English proper nouns. Teacher 1 in this example retained the English pronunciation of the name of a music band “Air Supply” and then he switched to Vietnamese to give homework to his students. In cases where teachers used words such as brands and names of music bands, both the teachers and their students seemed to be familiar with those words. The reasons for the teachers’ switching which involved the retention of the English pronunciation to model it for their students will be discussed in the next section of this chapter.

Modelling English pronunciation

Vietnamese was usually used as the base language when teachers started helping their students with English pronunciation of words, for example, modelling or correcting students’ errors. Teacher 3 in Example 5.6, below, was helping her students with English pronunciation. Her switch “read” /ri:d/ and “read” /red/ within her explanation in Vietnamese were in order to provide her students with the model of correct English pronunciation of the verb “read” as a past participle.

Example 5.6: Class recording T3.2

T: Ở đây chúng ta không đọc là read /ri:d/, phân từ 2 chúng ta phải đọc là read /red/.|| Yes, number 8.
<Here we don’t pronounce it as /ri:d/, when it’s the participle we pronounce /red/.|| Yes, number 8.>
St: [reading aloud – E]

Another example of the teacher’s code-switching which served to model correct English pronunciation for students is given in Chapter 4 (see Example 4.32). In this example, the teacher corrected her students’ pronunciation of the words “associate” and “receive”.

Repeating and reformulating/modifying information

Repetition and reformulation/modification of information means that one repeats (by means of translation) and expands or specifies in another language what he/she has just

said. The teachers in the present study were observed to do this both when they were teaching language units (i.e., vocabulary items and English grammatical points) and when they were dealing with classroom process (i.e., managing their instruction and the classroom).

Regarding their explanation of word meanings, the teachers were observed to repeat the meanings by translating the TL (i.e., English) words they were trying to explain into Vietnamese. That is, when the teachers needed to explain a word (e.g., the English noun “analysis”, as described in Example 4.29) to their students, they provided the Vietnamese equivalent of that word instead of explaining it in English. This practice is shown in Example 5.7. In this example, after asking her students to read some new words after her (mostly from the textbook, according to my observation) the teacher went on explaining, switching back and forth to translate the meaning of words into Vietnamese.

Example 5.7: Class recording T3.1

Sts: [reading after T]

T: Pay attention.|| *Chú ý.*|| Similarity.|| *Tương tự.*|| Revise.|| *Ôn tập.*||
 Section.|| *Khu vực.*|| Now read again please.|| Communication!
 <Pay attention.|| *Pay attention.*|| Similarity.|| *Similarity.*||
 Revise.|| *Revise.*|| Section.|| *Section.*|| Now read again please.||
 Communication!>

In addition, the teachers’ switching as repetition also occurred when they were dealing with classroom process. They tended to provide a close translation of their instruction, normally translating instructions in English into Vietnamese. In Example 5.8, the teacher asked a student, by giving him a signal to stand up and answer. She spoke in English, asking the student a question about his previous response, and then reiterated her question by translating into Vietnamese exactly what she had just asked that student in English. Her switch into Vietnamese occurred when she was seeking a response from students, which functioned as a repetition.

Example 5.8: Class recording T5.2

T: You keep the same word?|| *Em vẫn giữ cái từ đấy à?*
 <You keep the same word?|| *You keep the same word?*>

The excerpt below (Example 5.9) is a good example of a teacher's code-switching from English to Vietnamese when her switch functions as explaining an English grammatical rule (a language unit). She was explaining the basic rule for using English countable and uncountable nouns, using "orange juice" as an example to illustrate her explanation. In her explanation, "orange juice" was an uncountable noun, so it could not be counted, but when it was used with quantifiable expressions (e.g., "a glass of") numerals (e.g., one, two, three) could be used with it. (Note that "orange juice" can be used as a countable noun as well, but with the meaning of "a glass of orange juice".)

Example 5.9: Class recording T6.1

- T: No, you cannot count because these nouns are singular- oh, sorry, uncountable nouns, Okay.|| Uncountable nouns.|| Okay, understand?|| So, we cannot count.|| *Vì là những danh từ này là những danh từ gì, không đếm được, tức là chúng ta không thể đếm được số lượng cụ thể của những danh từ này, đúng không ạ.*|| *Không thể, cốc nước cam, nhưng không thể đếm 1 nước cam hay là 2 nước cam, 3 nước cam, đúng không ạ?*
 <No, you cannot count because these nouns are singular- oh, sorry, uncountable nouns, Okay.|| Uncountable nouns. Okay, understand?|| So, we cannot count.|| *Because these nouns are what, uncountable, that is we can't count them directly, right.*|| *We can count a glass of orange juice but we can't count one orange juice, two orange juice, three orange juice, right?>*

It appeared that teachers did not use only English when explaining an English grammar point. They tended to employ both languages, prioritising the use of English first and then translating their English explanation into Vietnamese. Thus, their switches in this case performed the function of explaining, normally in the form of translating the English grammar rules so that their students could understand them. This was typically practised in their English classes in my observations and class recordings. The teachers usually lengthened their switches, i.e. their Vietnamese translation, to explain an English grammar point. Their expanded explanation in Vietnamese in the example above (Example 5.9) included exemplification, e.g. "nhưng không thể đếm một nước cam hay là hai nước cam, ba nước cam" (but you can't count one orange juice, two orange juice or three orange juice), a way of clarifying their instruction which involved English grammar rules. The first language (Vietnamese) appeared to be indispensable for teachers to deal with the language teaching content for several reasons, which will be discussed in a later section of the chapter.

Teachers' repetition also took the form of restating their instruction with some modification. That is, they narrowed or expanded their reiterations in another language. Examples 5.10 and 5.11 illustrate this form of repetition. In Example 5.10, the teacher provided quite a long instruction in English, asking her students to do an exercise in the textbook (observation, T11, 21st March 2012). Her switch (to Vietnamese) was the translation of part of the instruction she had just given "*Cố gắng hoàn thiện các câu sau đây ở bài số ba*" (Try to complete the sentences in exercise three). In her Vietnamese utterance she apparently shortened the requirement that she stated in English, intending that simplification would be more comprehensible to her students.

Example 5.10: Class recording T11.1

T: Okay.|| And choose ...choose sentence beginning and only things and compare your sentence with your partner, so the task is try to complete the sentence.|| *Cố gắng hoàn thiện các câu sau đây ở bài số ba.*|| For example I use my computer to search for the information.|| Okay?
<Okay.|| And choose ...choose sentence beginning and only things and compare your sentence with your partner, so the task is try to complete the sentence.|| *Try to complete the sentences in exercise three.*|| For example I use my computer to search for the information.|| Okay?>

Sts: [speaking in V]

In contrast, the teacher in Example 5.11 reiterated her instruction in Vietnamese by restating her English instruction. She had just communicated with a student, telling the student to "sit down". (It was noted previously that in the Vietnamese culture, students are expected to stand up whenever they are called upon by their teacher.) The teacher confirmed a student's response to the whole class and moved to the next section by reading aloud the instruction in the textbook in English. She switched to Vietnamese to restate that particular instruction, lengthening it in her Vietnamese restatement. This reiteration in Vietnamese was to clarify and specify the requirement for her students to perform a task.

Example 5.11: Class recording T2.1

T: It's true.|| Yes, thank you.|| Sit down please.|| Number six is true, and now part D, make a word on the left with a definisôn [sic] on the right [teacher read aloud the requirement in the book].|| *Bài tập phần D người ta cho các bạn một từ và người ta cho định nghĩa ở cột bên cạnh, các bạn hãy xem những định nghĩa đó là của từ nào ghép lại với nhau dựa vào bài khóa bên trên.*|| Okay.|| One minute, more minute for you.

<It's true.|| Yes, thank you.|| Sit down please.|| Number six is true, and now part D, make a word on the left with a definition [sig]on the right [teacher read aloud the request in the book].|| *Parts D, there are words given in one column, and their definitions in another column, you have to make a word with its definition using the text above.*|| Okay.|| One minute, more minute for you.>

The repetitive function of code-switching is described by numerous authors (e.g., Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Romaine, 1995), as the speakers repeat what has been said in another language or even more than one other language. The purpose of this repetition is, according to these authors, to emphasise or clarify a message. Reiteration is one of the most common functions found in the studies of code-switching in teachers' instruction (Flyman-Mattson & Burenhult, 1996; Merritt et al., 1992; Then & Ting, 2011). In my study, the teachers' reiteration was in many cases via the translation of their instruction into Vietnamese, and in some situations with reformulation or modification of what they had just said (usually in English) by shortening or expanding the information in the other language (i.e., Vietnamese).

Shifting action/task

As discussed in Chapter 4, classroom management was identified in this study as classroom routines (e.g., teachers' starting and ending their class hours, welcoming visitors to their classes, sharing personal matters, dealing with situations such as students' coming late, students' performance of tasks, and arranging students' seating). Examples 5.13 and 5.14 (from teacher 3's class recording) illustrate teachers' code-switches when they were arranging seats and dealing with an individual student, respectively. Example 5.13 highlights a teacher's routines in starting a class.

Example 5.13: Class recording T3.2

T: *Hai bạn chuyển lên cho cô* [01] [Back ground noise].|| I'd like to, to introduce to our class teacher NTH from TN University of Agriculture and Forestry to attend our class today.
<*You two move up here* [01] [Back ground noise].|| I'd like to, to introduce to our class teacher NTH from TN University of Agriculture and Forestry to attend our class today.>

This teacher came into the classroom, and one of the very first things she did was to arrange students' seating when she saw some empty desks in the front rows (observation, T3, 7th May 2012). A follow-up activity was, conventionally, introducing

the visitor (i.e., the observer) to her students on that day. This teacher's switch (to English) in the introduction indicated that she was dealing with one of the classroom routines (teachers always introduced visitors to their classes in English). This switch functioned as a shift in action to maintain the classroom procedure.

Teachers also tended to speak in English employing very short and formalised expressions when they dealt with individual students, for example, in responding to a certain student when he/she finished the task set for him/her. One of the most common utterances was "thank you, sit down" as teacher 3 produced in Example 5.14.

Example 5.14: Class recording T3.2

- T: Which questions below is each person answering *là gì em?*
<What is meant by which questions below is each person answering?>
- St: [V]
- T: *Mỗi người trả lời câu hỏi nào dưới đây?||* Thank you, sit down please.
<Each person answers which question below?|| Thank you, sit down please.>

This teacher pointed to a student as a signal to ask him to stand up and give his answer (observation, T3, 7th May 2012). She was checking to see whether that student understood the question, in Vietnamese in her first turn, by quoting that question in English. She checked the student's comprehension again in Vietnamese in her second turn and then switched to English to conventionally allow the student to return to what they were doing before being asked the question by telling that student to "sit down" in English.

From my observations, classroom routines appeared to exist in many of the classroom contexts. Teachers' switches, either to the target or the first language, to deal with such classroom routines, e.g., starting and closing instruction, were identified in some studies (e.g., Arthur, 1996; Canagarajah, 1995). It was apparent from my data that the teachers distinctively switched to English, but not to Vietnamese, to perform this kind of routine. The reason might be that such routine utterances are usually very short and simple phrases that every teacher uses every class hour. In the same way, these same phrases are also used by teachers in primary school and secondary school, so students are accustomed to hearing and understanding them. Those English utterances are spoken by

the teachers as a habit, from semester to semester, and from class to class. Gradually, such utterances have become very familiar to students and fixed sayings for the teachers of English in the Vietnamese language classroom context.

Teachers' switching which served to show a shift of task was found to be prevalent in my study. Teachers practised this via a number of activities, typically: resuming instruction; introducing tasks; checking comprehension; and making sure of students' readiness.

The following examples (5.15 - 5.16) illustrate the teachers' code-switching serving to show a shift to resume instruction.

Example 5.15: Class recording T4.1

- T: Do it please.|| You don't have to write, practice.|| Talking.|| You talk about your friends, okay, you would like to write?|| No problem [telling a student] [29].|| So okay.|| Are you, you can write down, write down please.|| What the matter with you? [asking a student].|| You should go home.|| You should go to see a doctor.|| Now you should go to the clinic.|| No?|| Okay. [30] [31].|| *Các em nhìn trong bài số mười viết rõ.*
- <Do it please.|| You don't have to write, practice.|| Talking.|| You talk about your friends, okay, you would like to write? No problem [telling a student] [29].|| So ok.|| Are you, you can write down, write down please.|| What the matter with you? [asking a student].|| You should go home.|| You should go to see a doctor.|| Now you should go to the clinic.|| No?|| Okay. [30] [31].|| *Class look, it is written clearly in exercise ten.*>

In Example 5.15, teacher 4 was instructing her students to do an exercise in the textbook. A student seemed to be unwell as he rested his head on the table and hugged his stomach with his arms. The teacher turned towards the student, starting to advise him, in English, to go home or to see the doctor. The student shook his head, meaning that he needed neither to go home nor to see the doctor (observation, T4, 9th March 2012). It is worth noting that in this case the student's shaking of his head did not mean his lack of understanding his teacher's advice. This is because in the Vietnamese culture, when students do not understand their teachers' question in the class, they tend to remain silent, but not shake their heads. In addition, that day the class was practising how to give advice in English (using "should"). The teacher asked him to confirm what he meant by shaking his head and produced the short question "No?". She then switched to Vietnamese "Các em nhìn trong bài số mười viết rõ" (Class look, it is written clearly

in exercise ten) to bring the class back to the on-going activity which was interrupted as she had just dealt with that individual student.

In a similar way, the teacher in Example 5.16 was giving instruction by providing information about a machine. Note that part of this teacher's excerpt was previously discussed in Chapter 4 (see Example 4.45). She commenced her elicitation in Vietnamese, switched to English to restate it and switched back to Vietnamese to reiterate part of her English restatement. Recalling that a student was at the door (he arrived 10 minutes late, according to my notes, and was asking for permission to come in), the teacher turned to that student, switching to English, saying "yes", and then switched back to Vietnamese "*Hình ảnh này là hình ảnh của cái máy gì?*" (What kind of machine is this image?) Her switch to Vietnamese, after her "yes" to the individual student at the door, functioned as resumption of her interrupted reiteration.

Example 5.16: Class recording T3.1

- T: Các em thấy đây là hình dạng của 1 cái điện thoại.|| It looks like a phone, and it is putting on another machine.|| *Nó đang được đặt trên 1 cái máy khác như thế này.*
<As you can see this looks like a telephone.|| It looks like a phone, and it is putting on another machine.|| *It is put on another machine.*>
- St: [V - arriving-asking for coming in]
- T: Yes.|| *Hình ảnh này là hình ảnh của cái máy gì?*
<Yes.|| *What kind of machine is this image?*>

The teachers were also observed to code-switch showing task shifts. They tended to switch from Vietnamese to English in this case and they usually used language moves, such as "now", "and now", "let's", "what about", and so on, as exemplified in examples 5.17 and 5.18.

Excerpt 5.17: Class recording T11.1

- T: *Giải thích thì bà ấy mới hiểu.*|| And now we come to another part.|| Four.
<*She understands after he explained.*|| And now we come to another part.|| Four.>

Example 5.18: Class recording T8.2

T: *Bây giờ các bạn trở lại cái phần sách bài tập.*|| Let's correct the last period's exercises.
<Now return to the sections in your workbook.|| Let's correct the last period's exercises.>

Another teachers' switching practice that served to show a shift in action/task involved their checking students' comprehension or readiness to start the activity or to answer the question (as illustrated in Examples 5.19, 5.20 and 5.21 below). In Example 5.19, the teacher confirmed her explanation of an answer choice after playing the CD again as the students had given an incorrect answer previously. She switched to English to make sure of her students' comprehension by asking "Understand?".

Example 5.19: Class recording T6.2

T: *Thế rõ ràng là bà ấy không có bánh pi gia.*|| Understand?
<It is clear she hasn't got pizza.|| Understand?>

In Example 5.20, after explaining the rules of a game that the students were playing, the teacher switched to English to check her students' readiness "Now are you ready?" In a similar way, teacher 2 (Example 5.21) switched to Vietnamese "*Xong chưa?*" (*Finished?*) to make sure of her students' readiness to move to the next activity.

Example 5.20: Class recording T10.1

T: *Các em không được dịch, không được nói, đúng không nhỉ.*|| Mà phải sao ạ, mô tả dùng các động tác liên quan đến động từ đấy để cho các bạn hiểu, đúng không nhỉ?|| Now are you ready?
<You can neither translate nor speak, right. But how, use gestures to describe those verbs, right?|| Now are you ready?>

Example 5.21: Class recording T2.1

T2: Yes or no?|| All class.|| *Xong chưa?*
<Yes or no?|| All class.|| Finished?>

Some authors (e.g., Flyman-Mattson & Burenhult, 1996; Raschka et al., 2009) refer to teachers' switching using such interactional moves as topic switch. This involved the teachers' switches to deal with a new topic that teachers were about to discuss. In my study, the teachers' switching (as in examples 5.17 to 5.12) did not really involve introducing a new topic to discuss. Rather, their switching using interactional moves showed their shift to another action or classroom task.

Self-correcting or hesitating

It was apparent that the teachers in this study code-switched as self-correction and as a hesitation strategy. Firstly, there were numerous examples from the class recordings in which the teachers used corrected themselves when they switched between English and Vietnamese. Teacher 8 in Example 5.22 (below) is a good case. He was explaining the meaning of the words related to some western special occasions by translating these words into Vietnamese. However, he mistranslated the word “Thanksgiving” and translated it as “Easter”. He continued his explanation by switching to English, saying “sorry” and then went on to give the correct Vietnamese translation of “Thanksgiving”.

Example 5.22: Class recording T8.1

T: Thanksgiving [raising voice] là ngày lễ phục sinh, I’m sorry, là
ngày lễ Tạ ơn
<Thanksgiving [raising voice] is Easter, I’m sorry, it is
Thanksgiving.>

Teachers in the present study self-corrected in two ways. The first was by saying “sorry” in English, as teacher 8 in the example above (Example 5.22). It is interesting that teachers apologised in English when they corrected themselves, but not in Vietnamese. This might be because this single word is rather easy for teachers to utter, or might be that they were familiar with using the word in such situations. Like other routine words, they used “sorry” frequently semester after semester, and it might have become a fixed word for them to use to excuse any mistakes that they make in their English classroom.

It is interesting to note that teachers also corrected themselves using Vietnamese fillers. As stated in Chapter 4 (section 4.1.1), the teachers’ employment of Vietnamese fillers, instead of English ones, was identified based on their tones and their routines in using Vietnamese fillers in their everyday communication in Vietnamese. In Example 5.23, teacher 10 inserted a Vietnamese filler “*à*” (*ah*) into her instruction when she was introducing information to her students. Her insertion of this filler meant “sorry” as she actually would have said “the first word” but made a mistake, saying “the first verb”. She went on instructing and repeated the mistake, and inserted “*ò*” (*er*), which also meant “sorry” in this case, to correct herself.

Example 5.23: Class recording T10.1

T10: Okay.|| The first verb, à (*ah*) the first word is cloth.
 (...)
 She dress ò (*er*) ... her dress is very fashionable.

Secondly, teachers were observed to code-switch as a hesitation strategy. For example, teacher 9's use of the Vietnamese filler “ò” (*er*) in example 5.24, below, shows this.

Example 5.24: Class recording T9.1

T9: Can you turn to page ò (*er*)... skill four, okay, three.

Teacher 9 inserted “ò” in her lead-in utterances. Her “ò” here does not mean “sorry”, as it did with teacher 10 in Example 5.23. Rather, she used it as a strategy of hesitation, and this can be understood as her way to move on or to continue her instruction. Teachers' hesitation using certain Vietnamese fillers in their English instruction may come from their habit of using them in their everyday conversations in Vietnamese. Further discussion regarding the reasons for teachers' use of such fillers is presented later in this chapter (see 5.2.1).

5.1.2 Social functions

The social aspect of classroom interaction involved various activities that the teachers did to establish rapport with their students. It was also identified via teachers' shift of attitudes towards particular students, i.e. the way in which the teachers thought or felt about their students and how they reacted in their classrooms in response to their students' behaviour. My data indicated that the teachers' code-switching also served social functions, alongside instructional functions as presented in the previous section. These social functions were not reported in Le's (2014) study of a university EFL teacher in the Vietnamese context. In the present study, the social functions of teachers' code-switching included establishing good rapport with student and showing a shift in attitudes towards students.

Establishing rapport with students

The teachers were observed to establish a connection with their students by social interaction with them in their classrooms in order to build rapport. Examples of their socialising activities were joking, using warm-up questions, telling students about their own personal issues, and encouraging or praising students.

Example 4.35 provides a good illustration of a teacher's code-switch when he was joking with his students. In this example, the teacher (teacher 1) introduced to his students a grammatical structure that he was going to teach in his next class the following week. The upcoming grammatical point was "would ... rather". He set the homework for his students to search the song "Goodbye" by the band "Air Supply". In this song there is a sentence in the lyrics "I would rather hurt myself than ever make you cry." He joked to the male students in the class, telling them to write down that example of lyrics and give it to their girlfriends as a present because there was an upcoming event in Vietnam on the 8th of March. (This day is the celebration of Women's Day, and is very popular in Vietnam. On this special day, men, especially young men, usually give their partners or girlfriends presents.) The teacher went on joking by telling his male students "or offer them the song Goodbye" by inserting the name of the song "Goodbye". His joke meant that on that occasion, the students would visit their girlfriends, and instead of giving good wishes, they would say good bye (i.e. end the relationship), to their surprised girlfriends (their girlfriends would expect presents, flowers or good wishes that day). As a result, his students laughed loudly (observation, T1, 25th February).

Other examples involving teachers' switches to Vietnamese to make a joke during their instruction are shown below (Examples 5.25, 5.26, and 5.27). In Example 5.25, the teacher was eliciting responses from her students on identifying some of the most important inventions. She confirmed the students' responses and asked them to give their reason. Suddenly she switched to Vietnamese to joke with them without waiting for her students' responses.

Example 5.25: Class recording T10.1

T: Jeans?|| Why, why jeans?|| *Không mặc quần thì ta mặc cái gì?*
 <Jeans?|| Why, why jeans?|| *What do you wear if not trousers?*>

Sts: [laughter]

Example 5.26: Class recording T12.1

T12: *Có con gì quý hiếm không ạ?*|| Yes?|| Panda.|| Panda.|| From?||
 From China.|| *Công phu Pan da* [joking]
 <*Any are animals?*|| Yes? Panda.|| Panda.|| From?|| From China.||
 Kung Fu Panda [joking]>

Sts: [loud laughter]

Teacher 12 in Example 5.26 was also seeking a response from his students by asking in Vietnamese if they knew any rare animals. Then he switched to English to elicit his students' response, telling them the name of a species of bear, "Panda". This species reminded him of a Chinese movie which also contained the word "Panda", so he switched to Vietnamese "*Công phu Pan đả*" (Kung Fu Panda) to joke with his students. Note that this film, about martial arts, is one of the Vietnamese boys' and young men's favourites. Many students have spent hours watching the film even when they have to take their examinations the following day.

Teachers' using switches as a joke appeared to work well and had a positive effect on the students: they laughed and had fun. That is to say, more correctly, such teachers' switches helped to develop a good rapport with their students. This effect could be the key factor to building up a good rapport between teachers and their students' in the formalised context of the classroom where building up students' knowledge and skills, pedagogically, is the main task of the teachers. Here is another example:

Example 5.27: Class recording T1.1

- T1: Yearly?
- Sts: [V]
- T1: *Đúng rồi, các em thông minh thế nhỉ, không thể tưởng tượng được!*
 <Right, how intelligent you are, unbelievable!>
- Sts: [loud laughter]

Teacher 1 (Example 5.27 above) was checking the meaning of the word "yearly". His students immediately translated that word into Vietnamese. He switched to Vietnamese to praise his students. Actually, his switch in this case was not quite the same as praise. Rather, this teacher was adopting primary teachers' way of giving encouragement to children. That way of complementing, saying "*Đúng rồi, các em thông minh thế nhỉ, không thể tưởng tượng được!*" (Right, how intelligent you are, unbelievable!) is very popular in many Vietnamese primary schools. Children will be very happy when their teachers say such an utterance (in Vietnamese) to them. However, more grown-up students will find it humorous, but not sarcastic, if they are praised like primary school children as this teacher had done. Instead, his switch of ironic praise (in Vietnamese) created a funny moment for his students, and as result, they laughed more loudly. Note that for most of the instances of teachers' jokes with their students, teachers switched

into Vietnamese. The reason is that humour can be said to be culture bound, so it is much safer to joke in your L1. There is only one example (Example 4.35), where teacher 1 switched to English to quote the name of the song “Goodbye” because students are very familiar with the name of this English song. Further interpretation of the reasons for their code-switching is discussed in the next section. Another typical teacher’s switch which functioned as an encouragement for her students was exemplified (in Example 5.28).

Example 5.28: Class recording T5.1

T: Potential, potential.|| *Có nghĩa là tiềm năng.*|| *Cái điều mà tốt nhất chúng ta có thể có nếu chúng ta đáp ứng được điều kiện gì đó.*|| Okay, good.
<Potential, potential.|| *It means potential.*|| *The best thing you can get in a good condition.*|| Okay, good.>

Here in this example, teacher 5, in his first switch, was to translate the meaning of the word “potential” into Vietnamese. She went on providing further explanation, and then switched to English as an encouragement for her students to keep giving feedback. As discussed, teachers were observed to use Vietnamese fillers as switches which implied different meanings, for example as a signal of self-correcting or a strategy of hesitating. Below are two additional examples which illustrate their switching involving fillers to perform another meaning.

Example 5.29: Class recording T12.1

T: Yes?
St: [replying – E]
T: *À (Ah)*, yes, thank you.|| H [name of the student] thinks “for” means “because”

Example 5.30: Class recording T10.1

T: [38] Women didn’t, didn’t what?
St: [E]
T: *À (Ah)*, didn’t see picture in magazine.

In the two examples above, teacher 12’s and teacher 10’s switches involved the Vietnamese filler “*À*” which could be understood as “yes”, or “that’s right”, or “good”.

Their employment of this filler here served as a way of praising the students or encouraging their students to speak. Their switch using Vietnamese fillers in this case showed that teachers were pleased with their students because their students were not only willing to respond to them, but also gave correct answers in English.

Showing shifts in attitudes toward students

Baker (2006) considers one social function of speakers' code-switching as marking changes in attitudes or relationships with each other. In the present study, the teachers' change of attitudes by code-switching sometimes indicated a shift to a negative attitude rather than to a positive one. It was evident from the data that when teachers shifted their attitudes towards their students in their class, they indicated that they were not satisfied or pleased with their students at a particular time. The attitude shift included: commenting, criticising or even warning, normally in Vietnamese. Consider the following examples:

Example 5.31: Class recording T5.1

T5: Obviously.|| Thank you, come back to your seat.|| *Các bạn còn không nhớ cả bảng chữ cái nữa.*
<Obviously.|| Thank you, come back to your seat.|| *You don't even remember the alphabet.*>

Example 5.32: Class recording T12.2

T: Thank you.|| Do you think so?|| Who think [sic] it's the same meaning?|| "As if" the same meaning with "because"?|| Same meaning?|| Now, follow me, "as if"

Sts: [no response] [4 seconds]

T: *Không ai theo tôi à?* [pitch raising]
<*No one follows me?* [pitch raising]>

Sts: [reading aloud]

In Example 5.31, the teacher called four students to the board to do a vocabulary exercise. She asked one of them to read aloud the given words and then spell those words for the other three students to write on the board (they were not allowed to see each other's work). She thanked the four students and told them to return to their seats when they finished some of the given words and then switched to Vietnamese to comment on some of the four students who could not write out the spelled words. Her criticism "Các bạn còn không nhớ cả bảng chữ cái nữa" (You don't even remember the

alphabet) showed that she was not satisfied with what they had done. Similarly, the teacher in Example 5.32 asked his students to read aloud “as if” after he explained it to them. However, no one followed him (all students remained silent and did not show any reaction). As a result he switched to Vietnamese, raising his voice (and frowned at students, according to my notes). His switch here could be understood as a comment or as a reminder to students that they needed to follow his instruction.

In the formalised classroom context, teachers occasionally dealt with unexpected situations, e.g. sorting out students’ unanticipated behaviours. Again, consider the following example to see how a teacher managed her students’ “no response” behaviour. Her switching occurred between utterances and turns.

Example 5.33: Class recording T2.2

- T2: Who can?|| Now you please [teacher pointed a student].|| *Nào bạn áo đỏ.*|| You please.|| Stand up.|| Have you finished your homework?|| Yes or no?
<Who can?|| Now you please [teacher pointed a student].|| *Now the girl in red.*|| You please.|| Stand up.|| Have you finished your homework?|| Yes or no?>
- St: [no response]
- T2: What did you do last night?
- St: [no response]
- T2: What did you do last night?
- St: [7 seconds] [no response]
- T2: *Nào cả lớp, hình phạt cho những anh không trả lời câu nào là như thế nào đây?*|| *Hỏi làm bài tập chưa, không nói gì, hỏi ai vắng cũng không nói gì, hỏi tối qua làm gì cũng chưa trả lời.*|| What did you do last night? [10 seconds].|| *Nào bây giờ trả lời cho cô.*|| What did you do last night?
<Now class, what is the punishment to those who did not respond?|| I asked if you did homework yet, you had no response, if anybody was absent, you had no response, I asked you what you did last night, you did not respond, either.|| What did you do last night? [10 seconds].|| Now answer me.|| What did you do last night?>
- St: [no response]
- T2: *Hả?* [loud voice, high pitch]|| Now answer my question.|| What did you do last night?
<What? [louder voice, higher pitch]|| Now answer my question.|| What did you do last night?>

St: [12 seconds] [no response]

The teacher of this class appeared to come into the classroom in a bad mood. I noted that she looked rather unhappy (observation, T2, 24th February). She started the class by checking the students' homework. Two students who volunteered to read aloud their homework in front of their classmates raised their hands. The teacher asked other students to volunteer to report on what they had done at home. However, there was no response from any more students (except the two already called). She walked around the classroom and pointed to some students, but they could not do anything but stand and keep silent. She told those students to sit down, and it seemed she was getting upset (she raised her voice) as she went on asking other students to answer. She then stopped at a desk at which four students were sitting and pointed at one of them. Her first switch into Vietnamese was to identify a student for her instruction "*Nào bạn áo đỏ*" (Now the girl in red). In her first question, she asked this student "Have you finished your homework? Yes or no?". This student did not respond. The teacher went on to ask "What did you do last night?". There was no response. Even though she repeated this question, she still did not get any reaction from this student. She switched to Vietnamese, turning to the whole class and starting a long comment by warning "*Nào cả lớp, hình phạt cho những anh không trả lời câu nào là như thế nào đây?*" (Now class, what is the punishment to those who did not respond?). She used the word "*hình phạt*" (punishment) and went on complaining. She switched back and forth to repeat her question. Surprisingly, her students still did not produce any response. Again, one more time she switched to Vietnamese "*Hả*" (What?), and this time her voice was much louder and higher. She put down her book with a frown. Her students still did not respond! It was clear that this teacher was getting upset due to her students' behaviour that day. Her switches showed her negative attitude to her students at the time, i.e. she was unhappy with them for being so reluctant to speak. The students' silence appeared to make the teachers' bad mood even worse, and her negative attitude towards her students, in this example, probably contributed to the students' lack of motivation for speaking up.

Researchers (e.g., Flyman-Mattson & Burenhult, 1996; Sert, 2005) employ the phrase "socialising function" to refer to teachers' switches that signal friendship or solidarity with their students. Teachers' switches to reveal their emotions, (e.g., showing anger, or expressions that are said spontaneously) are labelled affective functions by these authors. Both these two groups of functions, socialising functions and affective functions, were also found in the present study. However, in this study I refer to both of

them as social functions. Teachers switched both to establish and maintain a good rapport with their students and to show their displeasure (e.g., anger and disappointment) for something the students had done or had not done.

All the code-switching functions described and discussed above mainly emerged from the analysis of my observations of the teachers' teaching practices and of class recordings. Section 5.2, below, presents and discusses factors leading to teachers' practice of code-switching in their classroom instructions.

5.2 Factors leading to teachers' code-switching

Researchers tend to combine the functions of and the reasons for teachers' switching, or see these two aspects as overlapping; there is no clear distinction between these two. It might be argued that the functions of and reasons for teachers' code-switching would be better separated in this study. Here, function refers to what the teachers' switches do in a situation where they switch. These functions were derived from my observations of the teachers' classroom teaching practices. The factors leading to or the reasons for their switches were from what the teachers and their students described and from my own perspective based on my observations as well.

In order to find out why teachers code-switched in their classroom instruction, interviews were carried out with all 12 teachers after observations of their lessons. One of the three main questions designed in the interview guides for teachers aimed to find out the factors leading to their code-switching in their instruction of English (See Appendix 5a).

Two main groups of factors that caused the teachers to code-switch were evident from the teachers' and students' perspectives in the interviews, which were triangulated with my observations and class recordings. These factors are categorised into: those related to teachers and those related to students, and are summarised in Table 5.2. The table also provides the number of teachers and students who reported these factors. Note that in all the excerpts from interviews (in Vietnamese) with teachers and students, I provide the participants' own words in their original Vietnamese version first (in italicised font), and then the English translation (in regular font). In the excerpts where teachers code-switched to English, I use the regular font for what they said in English.

Table 5.2 Factors leading to teachers' code-switching

<i>Factors</i>	<i>No. of teachers</i>	<i>No. of students</i>
Related to teachers		
○ Classroom-related factors	12	
- Linguistic needs	8	
- Other classroom needs	12	
○ Teachers' personal factors	12	
○ Environmental and curricular factors	11	
○ Teachers' own past education and practice	12	11
Related to students		
○ Students' English ability	11	8
○ Students' motivation	5	

5.2.1 Factors related to teachers

There were various factors related to teachers that led to their code-switching practice. These factors included: classroom-related factors; teachers' personal issues; environmental and curricular factors; and teachers' own past education and practice. All the factors related to teachers were reported by themselves, and one factor, i.e. teachers' own past education, was reported by both these teachers and their students (as shown in Table 5.2).

Classroom-related factors

All the teachers explained that they code-switched due to classroom factors. These factors included their linguistic needs, students' comprehension needs, and other classroom needs, such as checking or confirming students' comprehension and saving time.

Linguistic needs

Concerning teachers' linguistic needs, two thirds of the teachers explained that using Vietnamese could be of help when they found it difficult to express themselves or explain things in English, especially when teachers were not be able to find or remember English words. For example, when asked why she would switch from

English to Vietnamese, teacher 11 said the following as one of the reasons for her code-switching:

Đối với giáo viên cũng có những cái từ ví dụ như mình bị chẳng hạn, mình cũng không thể nào mà diễn đạt được ((laughs)) bằng tiếng Anh, mình cũng phải sử dụng tiếng Việt [Để đảm bảo là ...] đảm bảo là đưa ra một cái thông điệp hết sức là rõ ràng, tường minh.

For teachers in general and for me in particular, there are some words that are difficult to explain or express ((laughs)) in English, we have to use Vietnamese [To make sure that ...] to ensure that we give a very clear explanation or message.

One reason reported by these teachers for their code-switches to Vietnamese was because they could not find words to express themselves in English. However, my observations did not show evidence of this. That is, there were not any moments where the teachers code-switched because they had difficulty in explaining in English. The reason might be that the teachers planned to give their instruction following what was presented in the textbook they were using. That is, the teachers came to class and tried to cover the content provided in the textbook. They tended to use simple English to speak to their students, whose English proficiency was low in their view (see also 5.2.2), and avoided using complicated words or expressions that were difficult for them to explain and for their students to understand. Another possible reason was that because I repeated class observation twice for each teacher I might not have the opportunity to observe such instances. That is, what the teachers explained concerning their lack of English vocabulary was not witnessed during my observations, but it might occur elsewhere in other classes they taught.

The reason from teachers' perspective in this study is different from the reasons for teachers' code-switching found in previous studies (Khresheh, 2012; Merritt et al., 1992; Raschka et al., 2009). For example, in Merritt et al.'s (1992) research, teachers' code-switching occurred largely due to the lack of vocabulary in the local languages (i.e., either Luo or Dholuo, the mother tongues in some areas in Kenya). In my study, teachers practised code-switching not because of a lack of Vietnamese lexicon or the Vietnamese equivalent translations for the English words the teachers meant to use. Rather, they code-switched between English and Vietnamese in their instruction due to the reasons they explained above.

Although there was no evidence of the teachers' code-switching due to gaps in their English vocabulary, as they stated in interviews, the data showed that they code-

switched because of another linguistic need: for teachers' convenience. That is, it would be faster and more convenient for them to use a number of English words instead of finding their Vietnamese equivalents. For example, teacher 11 (Example 5.2) switched to English to quote the grammatical concept "to infinitive" and the structure used with "so as to". Similarly, teacher 3 (Example 4.24) switched to "emails" and teacher 10 (Example 4.25) switched to "video clip". Such concepts, structures and words are originally western rather than Vietnamese. Therefore, it could save teachers' time to use them when they were speaking in Vietnamese, without searching for a Vietnamese translation or explanation of these concepts and words, particularly when their students were already familiar with these units.

For proper nouns, for example, names of Western special occasions or events such as "Halloween" or "trick or treat" (as shown in Example 5.6), teachers still retained the pronunciation of them in English even though there do exist Vietnamese translations for these words. This is because such events or occasions are not widely celebrated or even well known in Vietnam. Sometimes Vietnamese translations of those words sound a little unusual. Thus, instead of translating the names of occasions or events originated from western cultures into Vietnamese, teachers tended to switch to retain foreign words and then explained them in Vietnamese. Similarly, teachers rarely translated names of English songs, for example "Good bye" and names of music bands, for example "Air Supply" (teacher 1, Example 5.7), into Vietnamese even though such names are occasionally translated into Vietnamese by the media. T1's quotation of the song "Good bye" in his joke in Vietnamese created humour for his students. Here, if this teacher had translated "Good bye" into Vietnamese, it might have decreased the humour outcome. This is a rare example of a teacher who switched to English to joke, and it was mostly because he was naming a well-known English song from a world famous music band. The other teachers usually switched to Vietnamese when joking to establish a good rapport with students. The teachers in this study tended to code-switch to English for those words with western origin, for example names of special occasions, as discussed above. The teachers pronounced these English words as they are in English within their instruction in Vietnamese without adapting them to the Vietnamese pronunciation. Furthermore, teachers' switches by retaining foreign words also occurred in the interviews. They used English words such as "pair work", "group work", "skill", or "cross-cultural communication" in their interviews conducted in Vietnamese. All these words express western ideas, not ideas originated from Vietnam. Such retainment

of English pronunciation of proper nouns appeared to be common among Vietnamese teachers of English.

It is very interesting that when explaining the reasons for their practice of code-switching, teachers mentioned only their switches from English to Vietnamese, and did not talk about their switches from Vietnamese to English. This might be because the majority (11 out of 12) usually prioritised English use in their instruction, seeing English as their main classroom language. Another important reason is related to teachers' understanding of the code-switching phenomenon. That is, they were not fully aware of the nature of the phenomenon: switching back and forth between two languages. In their mind, switching only occurred in one way, from English to Vietnamese, and this could explain why some teachers (for example teacher 1, teacher 5, and teacher 4) felt guilty when they were asked why they did code-switch in the situations which I observed in their classrooms and brought to discussion with them. In their classes, they code-switched back and forth, and their switches to English served numerous functions, which were different from their switches to Vietnamese. One of those functions was retaining English proper nouns which has been discussed in the previous section in this chapter (see 5.1).

Other classroom needs

Other classroom needs reported by all the teachers were related to teachers' management of classroom activities. These activities were: checking, confirming students' understanding, saving time or sorting out unplanned classroom situations. Teachers code-switched to make sure of their students' understanding when they guessed or felt that their students did not understand even though they said they did. In addition, it would save time when teachers explained difficult points or complicated concepts. Using Vietnamese helped teachers quickly gain responses from their students. In spontaneous situations, using Vietnamese worked well when teachers corrected their students' behaviour. Again, teacher 7 said:

Tức là trong 1 số cái trường hợp mà sinh viên cũng không chủ động, không tích cực ấy, mà mất nhiều thời gian, và kiểu như để thực hiện 1 cái nhiệm vụ nào đó, một cái task nào đó thì sẽ mất nhiều thời gian cho nên là chuyển sang tiếng Việt. Chuyển sang tiếng Việt thì nó sẽ nhanh hơn và sinh viên nó dễ hiểu và sẽ hiệu quả hơn.

I mean many situations where students are not active, not willing, and that's a waste of my time, and the aim is just for students to perform a task, then I will switch to Vietnamese. Speaking in Vietnamese at that

time will save time and students will easily understand so it will be more effective.

Although some teachers (e.g., teacher 7 in the quote above) explained that they code-switched to correct students' behaviour, there were no evidence of teachers' switches to correct students' behaviour in the data. Such examples, however, might have occurred in other classroom teaching situations.

Teachers' personal factors

Teachers' personal factors include, among other factors, their emotional state (e.g., when they feel comfortable, closer to their students, or happy with their students), and their state of health (e.g., when they were unwell). Recall that in the previous section I referred to one of the social functions of teachers' code-switching as establishing rapport with students. The classroom recording excerpts containing such switches were brought to the teachers in the interviews for discussion. All the teachers, when asked why they code-switched in the given instances in the excerpts, gave the same reason: they wanted to be in a friendly relationship with their students. For example teacher 4 said:

Có lẽ là có 1 cái rất là hay như thế này: Khi mình dùng tiếng Việt vào ấy, mình có 1 cái cảm giác là we are Vietnamese, we are very close cho nên là không tạo cái khoảng cách.

Perhaps there's a very interesting thing like this: When I insert Vietnamese into my instruction, I feel that we are Vietnamese, we are very close so that reduces the distance.

It appeared that whenever these teachers wanted to be closer to their students, they would use Vietnamese. When using Vietnamese in their instruction, teachers could lessen the distance or the power difference between them and their students. The students would find their teachers more open and so they did not hesitate to ask them questions or to answer their questions. "*Dùng tiếng Việt chứ. Dùng tiếng Việt thì sinh viên thấy dễ gần gũi và dễ tiếp cận hơn*" (Of course [I] use Vietnamese. When I use Vietnamese, my students feel closer to me and it is easier for them to understand what I say), teacher 7 said. Teachers felt that students would better understand their instruction, and therefore they would feel comfortable when seeing that their students understood their instruction. Teachers' code-switching can be seen as a way of being friendlier with their students. It can also be understood as their way of expressing solidarity with their students in the classrooms as, for example, Hoffmann (1991) and Auer (1998) note. The

teachers' explanations of this reason for their switching, i.e. to be closer to students, were reflected in their classroom teaching. In my study, teachers' code-switching was to signal their good rapport with their students by joking, complimenting, and encouraging. For the cases in which teachers employed Vietnamese fillers (as in Examples 5.29, 5.30), the reason for the teachers' switches was that they wanted to be closer to their students. However, closely examining the teachers' use of such fillers, I argue that there is an additional reason for their switching in such cases, i.e. their habitual use of Vietnamese fillers in their English utterances, and this habitual practice could carry specific meanings in certain situations.

Moreover, not all instances of teacher's switching to Vietnamese was because of being friendly with students. In some other situations, they switched to Vietnamese because they were displeased with their students, as seen in Examples 5.31, 5.32, and 5.33 above. In particular, the in-bad-mood teacher (Example 5.33) switched to a Vietnamese, producing a long utterance, and "*Hả?*" (What?) when she failed to gain a response from her students.

In addition, teachers explained that their state of health was another factor that caused them to code-switch, particularly to Vietnamese. However, observations of teachers' classroom teaching showed the opposite. For example, though teacher 1 used more Vietnamese than English (approximately 64% Vietnamese compared to 36% English, see 7.1.1), he did not appear to be tired during his classes. Another example is teacher 3's classes. Teacher 3 sounded and looked tired (on a hot and humid summer day) but used less Vietnamese than English (35% Vietnamese and 65% English). Furthermore, the situations where teacher 3 switched from English to Vietnamese did not show any evidence of fatigue, but served different functions (as presented in 5.1).

In my study, teachers' personal factors which caused them to code-switch were also identified as reasons for teachers' code-switching and use of more or less English by Kim and Elder (2008) and Kang (2013). Further discussion regarding teachers' state and their view on their use of English and Vietnamese will be presented in Chapter 7.

Environmental and curricular factors

Nearly every teacher in the conversations mentioned constraints on their teaching activities. These constraints included the teaching and learning environment, the

crowded classes, and the time and content load in each of their class hours. Stressing these restrictions, one teacher said:

Ờ... thứ hai là về mặt tổ chức. Nếu mà chị muốn dạy nghe cho tốt thì chị không thể dạy một lớp 50 người. Mà rất nhiều nơi họ đang dạy tiếng Anh cơ sở bằng hội trường. Mà hội trường thì chị xem cô giáo nói tiếng Anh sẽ như thế nào. Chỉ 10, 20 đứa hiểu còn những đứa khác không hiểu thì sẽ không thi được tể là cô giáo đành phải nói tiếng Việt. Đây là vấn đề của tổ chức. Ngoài ra là còn áp lực về mặt chương trình nữa. Chương trình là như thế tôi phải dạy như thế. Bây giờ học sinh của tôi thì đông như thế mà tôi chỉ có ngần ấy thời gian thôi. Vậy đương nhiên tôi phải làm cách gì đấy, làm cho nó xong nhiệm vụ. Và tôi chuyển sang nói tiếng Việt cho nhanh, cho nó dễ.

Er...the second thing I want to say here is the organisation issues. If you, for example, teach listening skills well, you can't do it with a class of 50 students. I know many schools are teaching English for students using big halls. How can you imagine the teachers can handle teaching in such big hall? Only 10 or 20 students can understand, and the others can't understand what teachers say, so teachers of course have to speak in Vietnamese. That is the problem caused by the organisers. Apart from that, there's pressure on the amount of the content that teachers have to cover. My class is so crowded and I have only a little time, so obviously I have to find the way to solve that problem, to accomplish my task. And then I switch so that it is much faster and easier. (Teacher 9)

One constraint on the teachers' teaching is that they depended on the decision of the authorities or the university management who see English the same as the many other university courses. These courses are usually taught in big rooms. In such huge lecture halls, the teachers sometimes have to use amplifiers and microphones so that their students can hear them. This is a problem for teachers of English in general because only a few students can understand their teachers' English instruction, and there is no opportunity for students to practise speaking English. Therefore, teachers seek a solution to ensure that all the crowded classes with, for example 50 students, can understand them by speaking in Vietnamese. This solution is a practical reason for the teachers to switch to Vietnamese. The problem here is that English has been taught under less desired conditions, i.e., in a big hall, with a great number of students. It is indeed a problem for the teachers, which is caused by the decisions of educational management.

As stated in Chapter 1 and Chapter 3, management staff of the university arrange classes and then assign teachers. Similar to teacher 9, all the other teachers in the interviews complained about the time pressure on their instruction. That is, they had

only a limited amount of time allocated by their schools in one semester to complete the teaching content. They appeared to consider the teaching content in the textbook they had to teach in a semester, for example, as their curriculum. They believed that they had to complete that “curriculum”, i.e. to cover the textbook from the beginning to the end within the time frame allowed, and to the students they were assigned to teach.

Interestingly, more than half of the students (7) shared a similar view to their teachers. For example, student 4 said: “My class is so big, with over 90 students and is divided into two groups.” According to these students, English was just a basic and compulsory subject which they had to learn for grades and examinations. They would like to learn English well but it was really difficult because of their over-crowded classes. Students also acknowledged that their teachers were under the pressure of covering the entire content to be taught to students, but according to them, this did not ensure their complete understanding. Another constraint that close to half of these students (5/12) reported was that they were affected by the way of teaching and learning they had experienced in their secondary schools. That is, they had become more familiar with the form of teaching and learning with a focus on English grammar.

Some teachers saw the difficult content they taught, i.e. difficult skills, and what they considered unimportant sections (e.g., lead-in questions, according to teacher 10) as another constraint. In addition, they were afraid that they would not be able to complete the teaching content that had been prepared in their lesson plans. Many of these teachers reported using only English in some situations. However, they were observed to code-switch in such situations, and their explanation of what they said and what they did seems to be inconsistent. For example, one teacher said that she did not code-switch when introducing a new lesson or new activities to students, i.e. she used only English to do this. However, in my excerpt of the transcript brought to her, I asked her about a specific switch, which she explained:

Vâng, thực ra ở trong đây nó có cái từ đó là inventions thì có thể là có 1 số học sinh nó nhớ được đây là phát minh, có thể 1 số học sinh lại không nhớ được, và cái lớp đấy thì cũng là khá là đông, thì lúc đấy mình cũng- thực ra thì cái phần này nó là 1 cái phần nó không quan trọng, chủ yếu là mình muốn học sinh nói ra được những cái phát minh. Phần này gọi là phần những câu hỏi mào đầu đấy, mình dịch.

Yes, actually there's a word. The word is inventions. I think some of my students remember, and some others cannot. One more thing is the class is crowded at that time. In fact this is not a very important section. What I want is just students can tell me some of the inventions

they learnt already. These are just my lead-in questions, so I translate.
(Teacher 10)

Once again, teacher 10 assumed that not all students remembered the word they had learnt in the previous lesson. Another reason was that her class was too large. In her opinion, reading and listening were difficult skills and the lead-in questions were not important so she translated her lead-in questions into Vietnamese. In my observations and recordings of this teacher, in her class she focused on listening and speaking skills, and in the second she focused on teaching grammar. She was also one of those who code-switched continuously. Basically, language skills are combined in a language class. It is hard to say that these skills are separated from each other. It would be also hard to say which “section” in the textbook (or skill) is important and which is not in language teaching and learning. Teacher 10 appeared to contradict herself because she reported on use of language (only English) in one of the phases (introducing tasks by lead-in questions) in her classes. However, she had a contrasting explanation for her use of language in a specific situation in the excerpt I have provided. This is one example of the evidence that teacher’s code-switches were unplanned and largely unconsciously.

Teachers’ own past education and practice

All the 12 teachers made comments concerning their own former education and their practice. In the interviews, nearly every student (11/12) of these teachers also confirmed this point. However, this theme emerged from teacher and student participants’ voices through interviews, and there were no further information sources (i.e. class recordings and observations) to support this.

Regarding past education, teachers commented on their former secondary school teachers of English who used mostly Vietnamese to teach English and just focused on teaching English grammar rather than other language skills. In addition, teachers acknowledged that they themselves had experienced the same form of English learning as their current students did. As a result, teachers seemed to be more or less affected by the way of teaching and learning they had had at secondary school. One teacher in particular recalled her internship time at a secondary school where her supervisor (i.e., an English teacher working there) also taught in the same way as her former secondary school teachers. Furthermore, these school teachers, as her supervisors, criticised her when she tried to use more English than she had been expected by the supervisors in the class she was practising teaching. She said:

Ở trường phổ thông cô giáo hầu như không sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng bài, và hơn thế nữa là cái việc học ở trường phổ thông là nó thường chỉ tập trung nhiều vào học cấu trúc ngữ pháp hơn, và từ vựng thôi, cho nên là nó cũng không có phát triển các kỹ năng khác. Học sinh ít có cơ hội để nói tiếng Anh. Lấy ví dụ từ bản thân tôi, thực tế là, ngày trước tôi học ở một cái trường- một cái lớp là cái lớp chọn tiếng Anh, có nghĩa là đây cũng là cái môi trường tiếng Anh tương đối lý tưởng hơn so với các bạn khác ở cùng trường rồi, thế nhưng mà cái phần sử dụng tiếng Anh ở trên lớp thì rất là hạn chế, rất là ít. Thế còn đến lúc mà tôi đi thực tập, về 1 cái trường, lớp bình thường, phổ thông bình thường thì cô giáo dạy tiếng Anh ở đó là hầu như là không sử dụng tiếng Anh mấy. Đến nỗi mà nếu mà tôi sử dụng tiếng Anh thì gọi là 1 cái gì đấy nó rất là bất thường ở trong lớp học. Thế nên là thành ra là tôi không dám sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp nữa ((laughs)).

In secondary or high schools, teachers rarely instructed in English. What they focused on is just teaching English grammar and vocabulary, but not skills. Students didn't have chances to listen to teachers speaking English. My case is an example. When I was a student at a secondary school, and my class was chosen for learning English more than the other classes, [other classes are chosen for maths, physics, etc.), even though, the teachers used very limited English in the class. When I became a student at teachers' training university and practised teaching during my internship at a secondary school, the teachers who guided me used very little English. It was so serious that when I spoke English in my class, it became an odd behaviour and my guide teacher gave me negative comments on my teaching practice. I didn't dare to use much English then ((laughs)). (Teacher 5)

More than half of the teachers (7/12) willingly admitted that their practice of code-switching had become something they automatically did in their classes, without being conscious of the practice. They explained that the practice of switching between the two languages had become their “habit” (as in the following interview extract) as a result of repeating the same practice from class to class and semester to semester of teaching. One teacher was not satisfied with his code-switching, implying it was a bad practice. He said:

Thực ra thì cái chuyển mã ở đây thì cũng rất là bình thường thôi, bởi vì nó cũng là cái gì đấy mà nó thành thói quen ấy mà, nó thành thói quen. Mà cái thói quen này thì là cái thói quen mà nó, nó, nói như thế nào được nhỉ, nó do, hình thành trong quá trình dạy mà mình phải sử dụng tiếng Việt để cho sinh viên hiểu hơn. Chứ bản thân tôi, trong thâm tâm tôi cũng không muốn sử dụng như thế, thâm tâm là không muốn sử dụng như thế.

Actually my switching here is very normal because it's something like a habit, yes, a habit. And this habit is just, it, what can I say, it is caused, or formed during my teaching career that I have to use Vietnamese for my students' understanding. I myself, from the bottom of my heart, I don't want to code-switch as such, yes, really don't want that at all. (Teacher 1)

Code-switching appears to be a natural and habitual behaviour for teachers. However, teachers, in particular teacher 1 above, self-evaluated their practice and they saw their code-switching sometimes as not a good habit. This is another example of the teachers who do not appear to be fully aware of the nature of code-switching which goes both ways (as discussed above). This teacher's switching arose from concern for his students' comprehension. He switched to Vietnamese to facilitate his students' understanding. Similar to his colleagues in his university, he always assumed that if he did not use Vietnamese in his English instruction, his students could not understand his instruction. His switches to Vietnamese were to ensure that all students understood what he taught. His assumption was applied to class after class, and from one time to the next time in his teaching career. His switching to Vietnamese was practised so regularly that he considered it to be "normal" even though he did not seem to be happy with what had been practised. In my observations of the two class hours of this teacher (teacher 1), there were a number of instances of his switches to Vietnamese resulting just from his unconsciousness. That is, he switched to Vietnamese to translate whatever he said in English usually even though many of his utterances did not seem to be difficult for his students to understand.

Similar to teacher 1, other teachers who considered their code-switching to be normal, also highlighted that using Vietnamese in their English classroom was as a natural reaction or something that was spontaneous. When they found it hard to maintain their use of English, they would use Vietnamese – the language they felt ready to speak first. This was one reason why what teachers reported on their use of language in certain situations was inconsistent with their explanations for their switches. Another excerpt comes from teacher 4 (as in Example 5.15) (teacher 4 is one of the teachers who code-switched frequently in the interview). She found the transcript of her code-switching very interesting (field notes, T4, 27th April 2012). After looking for a while, she laughed and said:

I do not remember exactly. *Bài số mười viết rõ à?* ((laughs)) I don't know why I do so... *Và đôi khi dùng tiếng Việt là vì một cái habit, tôi không nhớ.*

I do not remember exactly. *It is written clearly in exercise 10?* ((laughs)) I don't know why I do so... *And sometimes I use Vietnamese because it is a habit, and I don't remember.* (Teacher 4)

Teacher 4 seemed to be surprised at her switch to Vietnamese in this case (she laughed) and she did not know why she code-switched to Vietnamese in that situation in her recorded class. Functionally, this teacher's switch here (Example 5.15) served to show a shift in action. She continued by resuming her instruction which had been interrupted because she had just talked to one of her students (the student looked unwell). Reasonably, from this teacher's perspective, she switched to Vietnamese there because of her "habit" – an automatic practice (Le, 2014) that she was not aware of. Her explanation was also in line with my understanding of the reason why she switched in this case where she talked to the sick student: for both pedagogical and habitual reasons.

The reason that teachers gave as causing them to code-switch was in most cases related to their doubt of their students' comprehension. They sought a solution for this fear of their students not understanding them by switching to Vietnamese in the most typical form, i.e., translating what had just been said. Their personal philosophy of being superfluous (and providing unnecessary translations) rather than being inadequate, over time, formed their habitual practice. That is, teachers would rather translate what they had just said in English into Vietnamese than be unsure whether all their students understood or not. Teachers' doubt about or occasional underestimation of students' comprehension resulted in their practice of translating whatever said into Vietnamese. Their translations into Vietnamese in many cases restricted students' opportunities to develop listening and speaking skills. The habit of translating whatever was said in certain situations without any consideration for whether it was necessary or not became a practice of the teachers. For example, teacher 3's switch to Vietnamese (in Example 4.28) functioned as repetition, i.e. translating her requirement. At this teacher's explanation in the interview, she thought her switch to Vietnamese was to ensure the comprehension of all students. She repeated the same message in the same way, at least three times in both languages, English and Vietnamese. The function of her switch to Vietnamese (her translation of the instruction) was now rather to emphasise the requirement for students to perform her instruction. Pedagogically, her switch in this case was to repeat or emphasise her instruction for the students' comprehension. However, it did not seem that the students had problem understanding her instruction, as shown in this example, because her requirement was given in simple classroom language was repeatedly used in the classroom. This means that her students were already familiar with the language she used. It can be argued that there is an additional reason: her switching here was an instance of her habitual and unconscious practice of

code-switching. I provide another example below in attempt to show that apart from the reason of students' comprehension, the teachers' switching was due to their habitual and unconscious practice.

Example 5.34: Class recording T10.2

T: Can you count teacher? *Các em có đếm được giáo viên không nhỉ?*
<Can you count teacher? *Can you count (the word) teacher?*>

Sts: [replying - V]

Teacher 10 (above) asked her students a question in English and immediately switched to Vietnamese to translate her question without waiting for her students' response. Her question in English did not seem to be difficult for her students to understand as the structure and vocabulary were familiar to them as well as they only needed to say "Yes" or "No". It was evident that the inability of the students to understand this question was not a realistic possibility even though teachers were afraid it was. Not surprisingly, students responded to their teacher's Vietnamese instructions in Vietnamese. It was entirely possible that if this teacher had not translated her question into Vietnamese, her students would have responded in English. (Further interpretation regarding students' language response will be discussed in Chapter 6).

Very typical teachers' habitual switches were when they employed Vietnamese fillers and used a word directly borrowed from English, "Okay". When asked why they used such Vietnamese fillers or "Okay" in their instruction, most of the teachers admitted that was because of what they called "habit". Recall that I discussed in Chapter 4 (see 4.1.4) and earlier in this chapter, teachers used such fillers in their Vietnamese conversations outside of the classroom very frequently, and as a habit they used them in their English classrooms. When employing these fillers and this interjection (i.e., Okay) as switches, the fillers performed a discourse function. In addition, some teachers explained that they exhibited such fillers or "Okay" as their hesitation strategy i.e., giving them time to think what they were going to say next in a few cases, which confirmed my observations in regard to the function of such switches. My observations also indicated that the teachers' use of fillers as switches also functioned as praising or encouraging or self-correcting.

The teachers' explanations were in line with my observations concerning the reasons for their code-switching to a great extent – their classroom code-switching was for both

pedagogical and unconscious or habitual reasons. In terms of teachers' habitual practice, it might sometimes not be good for teachers to practise repetition by unnecessarily translating their instruction into Vietnamese, as discussed in some examples in Chapter 4 and this chapter (Examples 4.28, 5.9 and 5.34). This is because unnecessary repetition, in particular in Vietnamese, does not always support the students' learning of English. That is, this does not motivate students to listen to English, to understand, and then to speak English. Teachers' practice of Vietnamese fillers in their English instruction, however, should not be regarded as a negative habitual practice because it did not seem to affect the students' learning of English.

5.2.2 Factors related to students

Teachers' code-switches involved not only those related to teachers themselves, but also those related to their students. Student-related factors included their ability to speak English that was perceived by their teachers and their motivation for learning English. As shown in Table 5.2, the factors related to students' ability in English were reported by most of the teachers (11/12) and two third of the students (8/12), while the factor of students' motivation for learning English was acknowledged by the teachers only.

Perceived students' ability in English

Teachers acknowledged that they code-switched (typically from English to Vietnamese) because they perceived that their students' English ability was poor and uneven among students. They thus assumed that instruction completely delivered in English would cause problem for their students' understanding. They believed that without Vietnamese use, their students would not understand the lesson or what they were asked to do. Regarding students' unequal ability in English, some teachers reported that in a large class, there were some students who were good at English while many others who were not. Because of students' poor ability in English, teachers always feared that not all students would understand if they delivered their lessons only in English, as they explained. In addition, they felt that it would become more complicated in some situations if they kept speaking only in English. When their students were able to understand everything, teachers would feel more comfortable. Therefore, teachers code-switched (to Vietnamese) in order to facilitate their students' understanding.

Moreover, teachers felt that they would provide sufficient information or that they transmitted adequately what they were meant to if sometimes they used Vietnamese,

particularly for something “full of Vietnamese culture” as, for example, teacher 7 and 9 explained. This was in line with my observations when teachers switched to Vietnamese to joke with their students in the classroom (as discussed in Examples 5.26, 5.27, 5.28, and 5.29 above). In these examples, students might not have appreciated the humour or laughed at the jokes if their teachers had not code-switched to Vietnamese. If the teachers were not Vietnamese (e.g., if they were native-speakers of English), they would miss some aspects of the culture of the students. It appears that teachers’ jokes, particularly in the above-mentioned examples, are of value only when both the teachers and their students share both the same language and culture.

To gain insight into what motivated teachers to code-switch, excerpts of some specific situations in which they code-switched in their recorded classes were brought to them for discussion in the interviews. To my surprise, many teachers were very excited to see their switches transcribed, and were willing to share what they thought and believed concerning these switches (field notes, 21st May; 15th March; 9th May 2012). Most of the teachers (i.e., 10/12) explained that they code-switched to make sure that their students understood their instructions or the point they were making in the content of the lesson. That is, the teachers realised or were afraid that their students had problems with understanding. Therefore, they switched to Vietnamese to “ensure that all the students could understand” (Teacher 3, Teacher 5 and Teacher 10). For example, I provided a teacher with some excerpts from the transcript of her class recordings, one of which showed that she gave a long instruction in English to set a language task for her students. I note here that the requirement this teacher was explaining was the one from the textbook, according my notes on one of her class hours. She called a student to perform the activity and switched to Vietnamese “*em nói to lên cho các bạn nghe*” (please speak up so that your classmates can hear you). It is noted again that this requirement had been repeated in both languages by this teacher several times before in this class hour. When asked why she switched in that situation, this teacher explained that she thought both the student she pointed to and his classmates could not understand what she was saying if she gave her instruction in English. Saying it in Vietnamese, she wanted to make sure that all her students could understand what she asked them to do. This teacher admitted that theoretically she told herself to use as much English as possible but in practice she could not. She laughed and asked me whether she was one of “the top teachers using the most Vietnamese” when teaching English. (Data showed that this teacher, T3, used approximately 65% English and 35% Vietnamese in her

recorded classes – see 7.1.1 for further information.) This teacher and her colleagues in this study, pedagogically, reported that they tried to use English as much as possible, and they always prioritised English in their classes (this will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 7). However, they still code-switched continuously. This confirms that code-switching occurs naturally in many contexts, and the classroom context is no exception.

The students' poor ability in speaking and understanding English was also confirmed by the students themselves in the interviews. They saw their poor ability in English as one of the drawbacks. These drawbacks were identified as:

- their teachers' teaching habit;
- their poor learning outcome; and
- lack of opportunities for them to practise English.

Concerning teachers' teaching habit, the students commented that their teachers placed a great focus on teaching English grammar. Some students, for example student 1, complained that their teachers rarely provided information about cultural aspects when teaching them English. Stressing their inability to speak English well after such a long time learning English, and lack of opportunities to practise English, a student admitted:

Em học tiếng Anh cũng phải được được bảy năm rồi nhưng bây giờ chỉ nói được những câu hết sức đơn giản và cũng không thể lưu loát được. Em không có cơ hội để nói tiếng Anh.

I have been learning English for 7 years now, but I can only communicate in English in very simple situations, and cannot speak fluently. I don't have chances to practise English. (Student 8)

This student was afraid that he would be unable to communicate or use English outside of university or after finishing university. His fear was in line with those of his classmates, as he said, and other interviewed students. Having an environment to practise English appeared to be another concern for students because the only place for them to practise English was their classrooms during English lessons, and they were not given the opportunity to do this (mainly giving short answers, typically single-word ones, to their teachers).

Most of the students (11/12) in the interviews talked about their previous education including their past teachers, (i.e., their teachers at secondary schools). They compared

the differences between their past and present learning of English in that their secondary teachers overwhelmingly used Vietnamese in English classes and just focused on teaching English grammar. “My secondary school teachers used mostly Vietnamese to teach English, they just spoke English occasionally, focusing on teaching grammar rather than on other skills, and just when reading a text from the book in English”, student 4 said. However, two (student 3, student 7) of these 11 students who acknowledged their former teachers saw no difference between their past education and current education. They criticised their teachers’ ways of teaching, seeing no differences between their current teachers and their former teachers. In particular, according to student 3, “Teaching English at secondary school and university is the same, not different at all” and “My teacher teaches us English in the same way as she is teaching Vietnamese”.

Students’ comprehension, i.e., their poor ability in English, was one of the pedagogical factors that led to teachers’ code-switching, as reported by both the teachers themselves and the students, see early in this section. This finding was also consistent with what I observed in their classes to some extent. However, as discussed, there were numerous cases in which the teachers switched for the unconscious reason, as discussed above.

Students’ motivation

Nearly half of the teachers reported on their students’ lack of motivation (their negative attitudes) as a factor of teachers’ code-switching. By “negative attitudes”, these teachers meant that in their English classroom, many students were reluctant to learn English. Furthermore, they seemed to believe that many students did not listen or pay attention to them when they taught in mainly English.

These teachers also considered student embarrassment as a negative attitude. Some students had a reaction to their teachers when teachers tried to use too much English. A teacher recalled that when she had been trying to use as much English as possible in her classes, her students gave negative feedback after the semester on their teachers’ use of language.

Có những đối tượng học sinh quả là không hiểu gì khi mà mình nói bằng tiếng Anh, thậm chí một lớp học mà tôi mới nhận mà tôi bắt đầu sử dụng tiếng Anh thì học sinh còn cười ồ lên và nó phản ứng bằng cách là nó không nghe gì luôn, bởi vì nó không nghe được mà, nó cười ồ lên - đầu tiên là nó cười ồ lên, sau đấy là nó phản ứng là nó không nghe. Rất là kỳ lạ là như thế, giờ tiếng Anh, và trong cái phiếu nhận

xét điều tra của các em thì hầu như là các em đều viết là “cô phải nói tiếng Việt nhiều hơn” ((laughs)). “Cô phải nói tiếng Việt nhiều hơn”, đây là phiếu nhận xét của các em ghi phản hồi lại cho tôi.

There are some classes I have taught, students didn't understand what I said in English, even there's a class I taught who started laughing out loud when I spoke in English and they reacted by not listening to me. Because they couldn't understand, they laughed out - first they laughed then they reacted by not hearing me. That's strange, in my English class and in the feedback sheet after that the semester my students wrote “you need to speak more Vietnamese” ((laughs)). That's their feedback on my teaching. (Teacher 5)

Although teacher 5's situation, as she reported above, did not occur with all teachers, it happened with one third (4/12) of them, particularly in the first class for a new group of students. Students had a negative reaction to teachers when their teachers only spoke in English because they were more familiar with their former teachers who spoke both English and a lot of Vietnamese. When they first experienced a different way of teaching, for example like teacher 5, they found it strange. It was a dilemma because if teachers went on speaking in English, students would have a negative reaction, which would make teachers feel uncomfortable. But if teachers pleased students and spoke mostly in Vietnamese, this might lead students to rely on teachers' Vietnamese instruction and reduce their learning of English. Interestingly, one teacher had the opposite opinion. In her explanation, teachers' use of Vietnamese was a teacher-related issue, not because of, for example, the students' English ability and motivation. She said:

Tôi thì không cho rằng vì... tại học sinh mà mình dùng, tại vì giáo viên khi mình cảm thấy mình như thế, và đôi khi có lẽ là cái công tác chuẩn bị bằng tiếng Anh nó chưa được thấu đáo, cho nên là có xu hướng chuyển sang tiếng Việt, hoặc là có những cái gọi là rất là habit thì sử dụng nó thôi. Chứ còn tôi không cho rằng là học sinh... nếu mình dùng toàn bộ là tiếng Anh thì điều đấy làm cho học sinh quá khó khăn đâu, vì dần dần học sinh nó sẽ quen với cái vấn đề như thế. Và nếu mà giáo viên sử dụng ngôn ngữ trong giảng dạy nó clear, rõ ràng, đơn giản thì tôi tin rằng là sẽ thành công. Tôi không hoàn toàn..., không có 1 cái chút gì đấy tức là áp đặt về phía người học đâu, mà là chính là vấn đề là ở giáo viên.

I don't think that teachers have to use Vietnamese because ...because of students' low language level. It is just teachers feel that, and sometimes they haven't been well-prepared for their instruction in English, so they tend to switch into Vietnamese or something like their habit, they use Vietnamese because of their habit. I don't think that students... it will be not too difficult for them if we use only English because they will be getting familiar with that. And if teachers' classroom language is clear, clear and simple, then I believe they will be successful. I am not completely ..., I do not see that the problem lies in the students, but it lies in the teachers. (Teacher 4)

What teacher 4 said might be a solution to the situation of teacher 5 and some other teachers to the extent that speaking more English would help students because they would be exposed more to spoken English. While most of the teachers regarded students' comprehension problems as one of the main factors which led to their code-switching, one teacher believed that the reasons for her code-switches stemmed from herself. It is noted that this teacher stressed that switching was just her "habit" when she discussed some of the excerpts from the class recordings I provided in the interview with her. For most of the teachers, students' lack of motivation in learning English was considered a reason to code-switch. It is not surprising that the interviewed students did not identify this as a reason. However, class recordings and observations indicated that there was evidence of students' lack of willingness to speak English, and a number of possible reasons to explain this. Their reluctance to speak, or their lack of motivation (as reported by their teachers), could be seen from the perspective of their language behaviour. Chapter 6 discusses this in greater depth.

5.3 Conclusion

I started this chapter by covering a large number of functions the teachers' code-switching performed in various classroom situations. Two main categories of functions were identified and termed instructional functions and social functions. Accordingly, the instructional functions involved teachers' switches serving as quoting, retaining proper nouns, modelling English pronunciation, reiterating and reformulating information, shifting action/task, and self-correcting and hesitating. The second main functional category consisted of social functions such as developing good rapport with students and expressing negative attitudes towards students. Particularly, teachers' switches in dealing with language teaching content, i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, appeared to be the most common function found in the literature. This was also evident in the present study, but regarded as a situation where teachers practised code-switching, rather than a function. Their code-switching in this situation performed an instructional function which was sub-categorised into five functions, as listed.

The reasons for the teachers in this study to code-switch varied, and many are pedagogical reasons: linguistic needs, classroom needs (i.e., checking, confirming students' understanding, saving time or sorting out unplanned classroom situations), environment and curriculum, students' poor ability in E, and students' lack of

motivation. In this light, the teachers' classroom code-switching in the present study could be considered to be pedagogical strategies for teachers, as indicated in previous studies (Gulzar, 2013; Ibrahim et al., 2013; Makulloluwa, 2013; Wu, 2013). In addition, there was evidence of teachers' code-switching not really because of the students' problem of comprehension, or the reasons given, but rather because teachers underestimated their students' ability in understanding their English instruction. Thus, numerous instances of their switching appeared to be unconscious, or automatic. This confirms Le's (2014) study in a similar Vietnamese context that teachers' switching is also a "habitual" practice other than pedagogical purposes.

Concerning the students' level of English – one of the key reasons for teachers' code-switching, the students had learned English for at least three years at school. However, when they entered the university, they started learning English from the beginning again. This was because the teachers assumed that if their students were taught by them using a higher level of English, they would not be able to follow that high level. It was noted that the assessment of students was set by individual schools, i.e. there was no shared criterion for assessing students' language proficiency used across the schools within the university. Teachers in different schools within the university selected the textbooks (all were for elementary level learners) for their students and this selection was also based on their own assumption. There were no placement tests for students in the university to determine students' levels of English so that they could be placed in appropriate English classes at different levels. This might mean that some students were bored because the class was too easy for them, and could explain some students' negative attitudes towards learning English. In other words, this affected their motivation in learning English, which was another important reason given for teachers' code-switching (see Chapter 6). Students' poor ability in English, whether it was a fact or it was just perceived by the teachers, and their motivation for learning English might make it necessary for the university management, as well as teachers, to reconsider how English should be taught and learnt.

Chapter 6

TEACHERS' CODE-SWITCHING AND STUDENTS' LANGUAGE BEHAVIOUR

6.0 Introduction

This chapter interprets the relationship between the teachers' code-switching and their students' language behaviour based on the analysis of the class recordings, field notes and interviews. Because of the ethical constraints on the study, I was not allowed to transcribe, analyse or present students' speech, and I could only take notes of the forms of students' responses to their teachers and which language(s) they used. Thus, this relationship was analysed only to the extent of indicating which language(s) the students used as a result of teachers' code-switching. Instances where the teachers used one language (either English or Vietnamese) in their turns were considered as well, because this helped to gain a better understanding of the effect of their code-switching on their students' language behaviour. The first section begins with a presentation of the teachers' use of language and students' reciprocation behaviour. The second section discusses the teachers' language use and students' non-reciprocation behaviour. The third section covers other forms of students' language behaviour (giving unfinished answers and remaining silent).

I focused only on the teachers' final utterances in their turns to identify the relationships between the teachers' code-switching and their students' language behaviour. This is because the reading of the class recordings showed that the students tended to rely on their teacher's questions or instructions to respond to. The teachers, except in their short turns, started their instructions by giving background information, or by explaining the content from the textbook, and then finished their turns by questioning or making a requirement for what the students had to do. In turns which consisted of two or more utterances, their questions or requirements were at the end.

Concerning the teachers' switches between the final utterances in a turn, two cases were considered. The first case was when the teachers switched between the two final utterances, and the other was when the switch occurred between two of the three final utterances. This is because in the class recordings, there were a large number of

situations in which the teachers finished their turns by repeating their questions in the same language. That is, they uttered two questions but with the same content in the same language, either Vietnamese or English. So the second identical question in the same language appeared to be repeated for emphasis. Therefore, I first examined the teachers' very last utterance in a teacher's turn, and then the second-last utterance. If the previous one had the same content as the very last one, and these two final utterances (i.e., the very last utterance and its preceding one) were spoken in the same language by the teachers, then the third-last utterance was considered. Doing this enable me not to miss teachers' switches in the last utterances in their turns. In the three excerpts below I exemplify the two cases discussed.

Example 6.1: Class recording T11.1

- T: What for?
- Sts: [replying - E]
- T: To study?|| No?|| *Có để học không?*|| Have you ever studied with it?
<To study?|| No?|| *For studying?*|| Have you ever studied with it?>
- St: [replying - E]

Example 6.2: Class recording T10.2

- T: Yes.|| What does this mean?|| This.|| This.|| *Cái này, đúng không nhi?*|| *Cái này, người này.*|| It is near or far from the speaker?|| Near or far from the speaker?
<Yes.|| What does this mean?|| This.|| This.|| This, right?|| *This thing, this person.*|| It is near or far from the speaker?|| Near or far from the speaker?>
- Sts: [replying - E]

Example 6.3: Class recording T3.2

- T3: Photo C.
- Sts: [replying – E]
- T3: B, yes.|| *Ở đây gợi ý câu trả lời là C nhưng mà chỉ là gợi ý thôi.*|| Send a card.|| Send a card.
<B, yes.|| *Here my suggestion is C but just a suggestion.*|| Send a card.|| Send a card.>
- Sts: [replying – E]

Example 6.1 is the first case, also the most common one, i.e. switching between the two final utterances. Examples 6.2 and 6.3 illustrate the second case, in which I considered the teachers' switches as extending to the last three utterances in their turns. Here, the teacher repeated the same utterance in English twice, but had switched to Vietnamese just prior to this, so I had to look not just at the final two utterances but at the previous utterance as well. In Example 6.2, I first examined the very last utterance "Near or far from the speaker?". I looked at the previous one "It is near or far from the speaker?". This previous utterance was spoken in the same language as the very last utterance (English) in its turn and contained the same content. My examination, thus, would be extended to its preceding one, "*Cái này, đúng không nhi?*" Therefore, the teacher's switch here was between the first two of the three final utterances. Similarly, in Example 6.3 teacher 3's switch was found in the three final utterances in her turn: "*Ồ đây gọi ý câu trả lời là C nhưng mà chỉ là gọi ý thôi. Send a card. Send a card.*" I consider only her three ending utterances but not more than three in their turns as a cut-off to examine their switching. This is because teachers often repeated their instruction in the same language twice, and then they switched. There were no instances where they repeated the same utterance three or four times in their turns and then switched to the other language.

The three teachers in the above examples all started their turns by explaining or giving background information, and then they finished by questioning the students or eliciting their responses. The students' responses were based only on the teachers' questions or requirements (i.e., they only answered what their teachers asked). Therefore, only teachers' use of language in the last utterances in their turns was considered to see how this was related to their students' language behaviour. It is worth noting again that this study focused on the teachers' practice of classroom code-switching. Therefore, students' detailed speech was not analysed. For the students' language behaviour, I only presented and discussed which language(s) they used, what were the form of their answers, and what other behaviours were in their responses to their teachers.

6.1 Teachers' use of language and students' reciprocation

The students' reciprocation of teachers' language use, i.e. using the same language(s) as the language(s) their teachers used, in responding to their teachers occurred in two cases: when teachers used a single language and when they code-switched. Table 6.1 summarises these two cases, with the number of teachers whose students had this type

of language behaviour. Instances of the teachers' monolingual and bilingual use and their students' language use in each case are provided as well.

Table 6.1 Teachers' use of language and students' reciprocation

<i>Teachers' use of single language and students' reciprocation</i>	<i>No. of teachers</i>	<i>No. of instances</i>
○ Teachers in English & students in English	12	1,725
○ Teachers in Vietnamese & students in Vietnamese	11	97
Total	12	1,822

<i>Teachers' code-switching and students' reciprocation</i>		
○ Teachers in two languages and students in two languages	4	9
Total	4	9

When teachers used a single language, either English or Vietnamese, the students tended to reciprocate their teachers' language, i.e. they usually responded using the same language as their teachers. For example, when teacher 7 asked a question in English, his students responded in English, as shown in Example 6.4, below. When teacher 11 (Example 6.5) asked her students in Vietnamese “*Các bạn có thể sử dụng máy tính của mình để tra cứu thông tin không hay chỉ có nghe nhạc?*” (Do you use your computer to search for information or just to listen to music?), her students responded in Vietnamese.

Example 6.4: Class recording T7.1

- T7: What?|| So what are your problems?|| What did you find it difficult about this kind of task?|| And you please [teacher called a student] Talk about your problems.|| So what are your problems about this kind of task?
- St: [E]
- T7: Time?|| Listening?|| What else?
- St: [E]

Example 6.5: Class recording T11.1

- T: *Các bạn có thể sử dụng máy tính của mình để tra cứu thông tin không hay chỉ có nghe nhạc?*

<Do you use your computer to search for information or just to listen to music?>

Sts: [V]

Note that examples of when teachers spoke in English and students also responded in English are preponderant in my data (in 1,725 instances where they used English compared to 97 instances where they used Vietnamese), as shown in Table 6.1 above. This preponderance of English was also prevalent among individual teachers, (illustrated in Table 6.2, below).

Table 6.2 Individual teachers' single language use and students' reciprocation

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Single language and students' reciprocation</i>		<i>Code-switching and students' reciprocation</i>
	in E and students in E (instances)	in V and students in V (instances)	
T1	150	12	2
T2	153	4	0
T3	128	9	0
T4	157	6	0
T5	142	8	0
T6	136	5	0
T7	219	0	0
T8	104	14	0
T9	195	5	0
T10	117	14	2
T11	101	9	3
T12	123	11	2
Total	1,725	97	9

There was no great difference in the number of instances among individual teachers' use of English and students' use of English to respond, except in teacher 7's classes. Teacher 7 seldom switched in his instructions, least often among all the teachers. He

was also the one who had the most English-only turns (i.e., 219 instances), and the only teacher who used no Vietnamese-only turns.

Example 6.6: Class recording T11.2

T: *Đễ thôi mà.*|| *Trên bảng có rồi.*|| You, T! [calling a student by name].
<*It's easy.*|| *It's on the board already.*|| You, T! [calling a student by name]>

St: [V politeness marker- E]

The students seldom reciprocated their teachers' code-switching. Although one-third of the teachers had students who reciprocated their code-switching, there were a very limited number of these instances of switches. My analysis showed that there were only 9 instances in which the students code-switched in their response, as shown in Table 6.2 above. There were only four teachers who had students practising the same code-switching behaviour as their teachers. The students' only form of switches involved Vietnamese politeness markers to show respect to their teachers, as illustrated in Example 6.6. Examples of such phrases were “em thưa cô”, “em thưa thầy” (in English they mean Ms/Mr, teacher), which were inserted before their responses in English (observations, T11, 28th March; T12, 4th April 2012).

6.2 Teachers' use of language and students' non-reciprocation

Observations and class recordings also provided evidence that in many situations students did not reciprocate their teachers' language use. That is, they sometimes responded in a different language from the language their teachers used to question them. This occurred both when the teachers used a single language and when they code-switched, as shown in Tables 6.3 and 6.4.

Students' non-reciprocation of their teachers' single language occurred less often than their reciprocation of their teachers' monolingual use (241 versus 1,822 instances). As can be seen from Table 6.3 and Table 6.4, all 12 teachers used English but their students used Vietnamese in their responses. Almost the same number of them (i.e., 11 teachers) used Vietnamese and their students used English to respond to them. As mentioned (see 6.1), teacher 7 was the only teacher who did not use the Vietnamese-only turn, and thus, he received no instance of “non- reciprocation” in regard to teacher “in Vietnamese and students in English” (Table 6.4).

Table 6.3 Teachers' language use and students' non-reciprocation

<i>Teachers' single language use</i>	<i>No. of teachers</i>	<i>No. of instances</i>
○ Teachers in English & students in Vietnamese	12	144
○ Teachers in Vietnamese & students in English	11	58
○ Teachers in either English or Vietnamese & students in both languages	8	33
Total	12	241
<i>Teachers' code-switching and students in one language</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>313</i>
Total	11	313

Noticeably, eight teachers had students who code-switched when these teachers used a single language. It is worth noting that the students' code-switching occurred in only one form, as presented in section 6.1 above.

Table 6.4 Teachers' language use and students' non-reciprocation

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Single language and students' non-reciprocation</i>			<i>Code-switching and students' non-reciprocation</i>
	<i>in E and students in V (instances)</i>	<i>in V and students in E (instances)</i>	<i>in E or V and students in both languages (instances)</i>	<i>in two languages and students' in one language (instances)</i>
T1	31	11	3	59
T2	7	3	0	12
T3	12	4	3	38
T4	5	2	0	7
T5	14	8	7	12
T6	4	2	0	32
T7	2	0	3	0
T8	9	4	2	16
T9	3	1	0	19
T10	37	13	7	47
T11	11	5	5	43
T12	9	5	3	26
Total	144	58	33	313

Nearly all teachers code-switched but their students used only one language to respond. However, there were fewer instances of students' code-switching (i.e., 33 instances) than the other two types of non-reciprocation. Some teachers had more students who did not reciprocate teachers' code-switching than others, for example teacher 1, teacher 10 and teacher 11 (Table 6.4, above).

Example 6.7: Class recording T1.2

- T1: And now I will give you more.|| Okay.|| *Tôi cho các em thêm một vài từ nữa.*|| *Có tuyết là gì?*|| *Tuyết là gì?*
 <And now I will give you more.|| Okay.|| *I will give you more words.*|| *What is snowy?*|| *What is snow?>*
- Sts: [E]
- T1: Snow.|| *Có tuyết là gì nhĩ?*|| Snowy.|| *Có mây?*|| *Mây là gì?*||
 <Snow.|| *What is snowy?*|| Snowy?|| *Cloudy?*|| *Cloud?>*
- Sts: [E]
- T1: Yes.|| Cloudy.|| Mưa?|| *Có mưa?*
 <Yes.|| Cloudy.|| *Rain?*|| *Rainy?>*
- Sts: [E]

The students' responses in the language which was different from their teachers' in many situations could be explained by the teachers' questions or requirements involving translation tasks. A very typical translation task involved teachers asking students for the meaning of a certain word (see 5.2.1). This was observed in nearly all of the teachers' classes. For example, the teacher (in Example 6.7) was giving instructions involving a language teaching unit, i.e. introducing and revising vocabulary items. His first Vietnamese ending utterance in the first turn was to check his students understanding of the meaning of “*tuyết*” (snow) in English. Similarly, his next Vietnamese ending in the next turns required his students to translate the given words “*mây*” (cloud), and “*mưa*” (rain) into English. As a result, all the students' responses were in English.

It appeared that whenever teachers asked students to translate the meaning of words from Vietnamese to English, students responded in English but they really had no choice. Sometimes, the language of the students' responses differed from the language their teachers used to question them, and this was not due to the teachers' request for the meaning of words. For example, the teacher in Example 6.8 sought responses from her

students by asking them in English. Her students responded in Vietnamese. She switched to Vietnamese in her next question, “*Theo em thì những phát minh nào là quan trọng nhất?*” (In your opinion, what are the most important inventions?). But this time her students responded in English.

Example 6.8: Class recording T10.1

- T: How many hours do you watch TV a day?|| How many hours?
- Sts: [V]
- T: *Theo em thì những phát minh nào là quan trọng nhất?*
 <In your opinion, what are the most important inventions?>
- St: [E]

This example of students’ language response was in contrast to Example 6.7 because in Example 6.7 students responded in Vietnamese and English because they had no choice when teacher 1 asked for the meaning of words “*Tuyết là gì?*” (What is snow [in English]?) “*Mây là gì?*” (What is cloud [in English]?), and “*Có mưa?*” (Rainy [in English]?). It might be that the teacher’s first question in her first turn touched on a topic that her students were interested in. There was no possibility that the students were lacking the English vocabulary or they did not understand their teachers’ question “How many hours?” in this situation because her question required only a simple answer. As a result, they responded by speaking together in Vietnamese as soon as their teacher finished the question. Their use of Vietnamese to respond to their teachers was, rather, a natural reaction when they found something that interested them, i.e. when they were asked about their everyday activities, for example watching TV. The teacher’s second question in Vietnamese seemed to be closely related to what her students had just learnt. On that day they were learning about some of the important inventions (observation, T10, 22nd March 2012). This is also one of the instances of the teachers’ use of Vietnamese which was not necessary. The students did not reciprocate this teacher’s use of Vietnamese (they named the inventions in English) because they could all remember the names of some inventions in English or could find them back in the previous lesson in their textbooks. The question asked by this teacher, if spoken in English, might not be a difficult one for her students to understand. Interestingly, she (teacher 10) reciprocated her students’ language by switching to Vietnamese to ask her students. Her switch here was not because of the students’ comprehension problem. Her switching, as well as her students’ response in Vietnamese, and then in English, was rather a spontaneous

reaction, or in other words, her habitual practice (see 5.2 for a more detailed discussion of habitual practice).

It was evident that the students did not tend to reciprocate their teachers' code-switching, because there were only nine instances found regarding this practice, while there were 313 instances in which the students used one language in their responses. In addition, their switching was distinctive in one form, i.e. using Vietnamese politeness marker within their English responses. It appeared that the teachers' code-switching did not help to predict which language the students would use in their responses or whether they would code-switch.

The reasons for students' non-reciprocation of their teachers' code-switching (i.e., students only used one language) were as follows. The first reason, as I mentioned earlier in this chapter (see 6.0), was the teachers' style of language use in their turns. That is, they tended to start their turns by giving background information, or an explanation of a task or requirement, then finished that turn by posing a question or requiring the students to, for example, answer a question or perform a task. Note that their questions were mostly in the closed form, which required very short answers, e.g., just "yes", "no", or single words. The students always relied on their teachers' questions or requests for their responses. As a result, their responses were very short. Students might have had a chance to code-switch if they were given an opportunity to produce longer utterances in responding to their teachers.

Secondly, and more importantly, the teachers' teaching activities tended to focus on only the content of the lesson rather than on creating situations for the students to communicate with each other in order to learn the TL. The content of the lesson, from a textbook, was usually the language units such as vocabulary items and grammatical structures or reading and listening texts with comprehension questions. The questions that the teachers asked their students were usually not different from the content in their textbook. Their questions, therefore, tended to focus on the students' accuracy, i.e. requiring correct answers. Interactions between teachers and students in the classes were restricted to teachers' giving information and then asking questions and students' answering based on their teachers' questions, usually closed ones. This style of teaching and learning could have become a habitual practice for both the teachers and their students.

Another language behaviour of students that could be seen as their habitual practice was their distinct form of code-switching: inserting Vietnamese politeness markers into their English responses. Students' code-switching in responding to their teachers occurred both when their teachers used one language and when they code-switched in their questions. The students' use of Vietnamese insertions originates from their culture. In Vietnamese culture, students are always expected to respect teachers. As mentioned, one of the most common ways for students to show respect is by using an address word or phrase, e.g. "*em thưa cô*" or "*em thưa thầy*" (meaning Ms/Mr, or 'teacher', in English) before giving an answer or saying something. This can be explained from a cultural perspective. These are the very common phrases Vietnamese students use in their everyday conversations with their teachers in their classes, universities or even when they meet and talk with their teachers in other places, e.g. in the street. These forms of showing respect in communicating with teachers are commonly used and have therefore become a habit for students. Thus, in this study, similar to the teachers' use of Vietnamese fillers, students could have brought their use of such addressing forms into the English classroom and inserted them into their English utterances in responding to their teachers. In the interviews, some teachers also mentioned their students' use of such Vietnamese address forms in English lessons. For example, one teacher said:

Tôi đã nói rất nhiều lần với sinh viên là không cần phải như vậy khi nói tiếng Anh nhưng lần sau gọi lên trả lời thì vẫn cứ "em thưa cô", "em thưa thầy". (Teacher 5)

I have told my students many times that they don't need to use "Ms", "Mr" when they speak English, answering my questions, but they still do it when I ask them questions. (Teacher 5)

Teacher 5's situation (as she said in the interview), i.e. when she told her students that they did not need to include such Vietnamese politeness markers, was the same as for many other teachers in this study. One further reason could be that students were afraid that if they did not use those address words, they would not be demonstrating respect to their teachers, without considering whether it was appropriate in the English classroom or not. It is the cultural practice of using such Vietnamese politeness markers that formed students' distinctive way of switching.

The students' use of both the same language as, and a different language from, their teachers' language were confirmed by both teachers and their students in interviews. My interview guides for teachers were not designed to ask questions concerning the

language(s) that their students used in response to them as teachers. However, close to half of the teachers (5/12) mentioned this in the interviews and stated that their students' language depended on their own use of language. That is, when the teachers spoke in English, their students would respond to them in English, and when teachers spoke in Vietnamese, their students used Vietnamese. The teachers also recalled that their students' use of language did not always depend on their own choice of language. This means that sometimes when teachers spoke in English, students spoke in Vietnamese, and when teachers spoke in Vietnamese, students spoke in English, or when teachers spoke in English, students spoke in both languages. In particular, teachers also acknowledged their students' lack of responses, i.e. they did not provide an answer when the teachers asked a question (this will be discussed in more detail in the next section in this chapter). Additionally, the students also recalled their use of language(s) in similar terms to what their teachers mentioned above, e.g. they responded to their teachers by both reciprocating and non-reciprocating their teachers' language.

6.3 Teachers' use of language and students' other language behaviour

The other forms of the students' language behaviour that were evident in this study included giving an incomplete answer, or unfinished response, and remaining silent when asked by their teachers.

6.3.1 Students' unfinished responses

Nearly half of the teachers (5/12) had students who produced incomplete answers. These students started their answers, but did not complete them, and thus their responses were unfinished. Table 6.5 aggregates the number of teachers who received this type of language response from their students as well as the number of instances of this type of language behaviour. As shown in Table 6.5, students' behaviour of giving an unfinished response did not seem to be affected by their teachers' code-switching. It occurred both when the teachers used a single language and when they code-switched. In particular, two teachers (7 and 9) in this study had more students who produced such kind of language behaviour.

Table 6.5 Teachers' use of language and students' unfinished response

<i>Teachers' use of language & students' unfinished response</i>	<i>No. of teachers</i>	<i>No. of instances</i>
○ T in one language & Sts' unfinished response	5	24
○ T in two languages & Sts' unfinished response	4	18
Total	5	42

Note: T: teacher Sts: students

It is worth noting again that teacher 7 was observed to code-switched far less than his colleagues in this study. He was also received the most instances of the students' unfinished answer of all (14 out of 41 instances). Next to teacher 7 was teacher 9 who also had more students' incomplete response than the others did. According to my observations, these two teachers, especially teacher 7, organised more tasks in their lessons for their students than the other 10 teachers. They also used more open questions to ask the students than their colleagues did. However, giving incomplete answers might not be a typical behaviour of the students as it was found in a small number regardless of the ways in which their used languages. Furthermore, there was no tendency in terms of the effect of teachers' single language use and code-switching on their students producing unfinished responses.

As I discussed previously in this chapter (section 6.0), the teachers' question style, i.e. using mainly questions which required very short answers, e.g., "yes", "no" or just single word/phrases, affected the students' responses. The teachers' open questions were considered more difficult, requiring students' longer and more informative responses. Consider the following example.

Example 6.9: Class recording T9.2

- T: Yes, yes, yes.|| And the last type.|| Located in China, within twenty to thirty?
- St: [E]
- T9: Degrees.|| *Đúng rồi.*|| *À*, and how about the day and night?
<Degrees.|| *Right.*|| *Ah*, and how about the day and night?>
- St: [E, unfinished answer] [the student started to answer and then stopped, leaving the answer unfinished]

In Example 6.9, teacher 9, in a listening activity, was seeking a student's response after she played the listening file twice on her laptop for her students to listen to. The student had no difficulty answering the question (the answer involved a single word, "degrees") because of the teacher's alternative question in the first turn. The teacher confirmed her student's response and then she asked "and how about the day and night?". This question was more difficult because it required more from that student – not only the information she picked up from the listening but also her ability to express what she had just heard. The answer seemed to be there in this student's mind because she quickly returned to her teacher's question in English. However, she could not finish her English response due to her lack of ability in producing what she had got from the listening.

One reason for students not being able to finish their answers in English was related to their ability in English. The answer may be there in their mind but expressing themselves, saying what they thought, appeared to be a challenge to them. Another reason for students not finishing their answers may be that they had not yet been ready for the answer, i.e. they had not found the whole answer. In addition, the students seemed to feel under pressure to have the right answers because, as mentioned, the teachers' questions tended to require correct answers which were error-free. As a result, students usually focused on the accuracy of their answers rather than the language skills to be practised. They were afraid that their answer would be wrong if they were to go on speaking. If their answer was wrong, it was likely that their friends would make negative comments on their response. Unfinished answers might be neither what students wanted nor teachers expected, but at least they made the students feel safer. Rather surprisingly, students did not use Vietnamese to respond to their teachers. This might be because they wanted to speak English better, so they kept that in mind and tried to take advantage of those opportunities to practise their English.

6.3.2 Students' lack of response

An unexpected type of language behaviour of the students found in this study was the extent of their non-responses, i.e. the students kept silent when their teachers asked them questions (in the interactions between teachers and students). The number of instances where students did not respond to their teachers when required varied among the individual teachers' classes, as summarised in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6 Individual teachers' language use and students' non-response

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Single language & students' non-response (instances)</i>		<i>Code-switching & students' non-response (instances)</i>
	<i>in English</i>	<i>in Vietnamese</i>	
T1	1	0	17
T2	25	4	21
T3	8	5	9
T4	14	0	4
T5	15	0	4
T6	6	0	0
T7	32	0	0
T8	0	0	2
T9	12	0	15
T10	7	2	5
T11	8	1	12
T12	8	0	7
Total	136	12	96

As can be seen in Table 6.6, instances where the students kept silent when they were expected to respond to their teachers occurred in the observed classes taught by nearly all of the teachers (11 out of 12 teachers'). This type of language behaviour occurred both when the teachers used one language, either English or Vietnamese, and when they code-switched. They usually used only English and rarely used only Vietnamese in their questions to their students. Specifically, some individual teachers had a dominant number of "no response" (silence) from their students, while several others had fewer instances. For example, teacher 7 had the most instances of student lack of response when he used only English in his questions; teacher 2 had 50 instances of her students' non-response behaviour in total (Tables 6.6). One teacher (teacher 8) had in total only two instances of non-response behaviour from her students, of which none occurred when he used one language in his final utterances in his turn, and both occurred when he code-switched.

Since my concern was why students did not give their answers when asked to, this issue was added to the interview guides for those teachers whose students showed non-responsive behaviours. The teachers were willing to explain their students' non-responsive behaviour from their own perspective. One reason for students' absence of response in various situations, in teachers' explanation, was related to teachers' questioning style. They reported that in many situations they often asked rhetorical questions, which did not really seek for students' answers, but just for checking, reminding students of prior knowledge, and calling students' attention. Other reasons were related to their students: they were not yet ready to answer and they were reluctant to speak. The teachers' viewpoints on why their students did not respond in a variety of situations did match with my observations and the class recordings to a large extent. Examples 6.10 to 6.12 illustrate these reasons for students' silence.

Example 6.10: Class recording T7.1

- T7: [00] Okay, right?|| Can you start again?
- Sts: [no response]
- T7: Now, yes, what do you just speak?|| Or let me set up the time for you.|| Do you remember?
- Sts: [no response]
- T7: How many seconds do you have?|| How many seconds do you have?|| What is it?
- Sts: [E]

Teacher 7 (Example 6.10 above), when hearing the bell ring (i.e., the sign of the start of a class), came into his classroom after a short break to continue his third class (this was one of the four classes he taught for the same group of students that day). His students were waiting for him then. He called for attention from his students by asking them: "Can you start again?" His question was neither for information from students nor really one requiring a response. Note that during my observations, this teacher used the same question when he taught the classes after a break. It might be that he also used such questions extensively in his other classes. The reason here to explain why he did not get a response from them was not his students' non-readiness. He continued reminding students of the on-going task in which the students practised speaking English with the time set by him. He reminded his students of the length of time that he set. In my observational notes, this teacher always set 30 seconds for each students-self speaking

practice task and this was his explanation in the interview. He asked “Do you remember?”, and students did not respond. Their lack of response here was not because they were not ready or did not remember. The reason was rather that the students were reluctant to speak in this situation. They knew that the answer was not just “yes” or “no” here, but they had to tell their teacher the length of time, so their answer would be expected to be a little longer than “yes” or “no”. It is worth noting here that the teacher asked the whole class at that time, and if they responded they would do so in chorus. It was more difficult to respond in chorus with a long answer. As a result, when he asked “How many seconds do you have? What is it?”, his elicitation worked because it was easy for the thirty students (of his class) to answer together “thirty” (observation, T7, 28th February 2012) .

Example 6.11: Class recording T11.1

- T: *Và thường chúng ta sử dụng các câu...[16] cái câu hỏi nào để trả lời cho các động từ nguyên thể nhỉ?|| Hỏi câu hỏi nào được nhỉ?*
<And what question do you usually use so that in your answer you can use the to infinitive?|| What question is it?>
- Sts: [No response]
- T11: What question to be used?|| What question to be used?||
 What question?
- Sts: [No response]
- T11: *Dùng câu hỏi nào để hỏi đây ạ?||* What question?
<What question do you use?|| What question?>
- Sts: [No response]

In Example 6.11, the teacher’s first turn involved only Vietnamese, and the second turn was entirely in English. In her third turn, she spoke in Vietnamese (in the first utterance) and then code-switched to English (in the second utterance). In these turns this teacher sought a response from her students. However, there were no responses. This may be because the students were not yet ready for their answer. Note that before asking students these questions, teacher 11 had just taught them how to use the to-infinitive verb in expressing one’s purpose. However, she only taught this grammatical point in the affirmative form, but not in the question form. Therefore, her students were not yet ready to answer because they did not know what question was usually used to ask for the to-infinitive verb. It is worth noting that, in this example, teacher 11 repeated the questions in her three turns in Vietnamese, English and both languages. However, all

her options received “no response” from her students. On that day, by the time this teacher asked her students the questions (in the excerpt above), some of the students turned to their classmates and talked in Vietnamese, asking each other about “the questions used to ask with the infinitives” (observation, T11, 21st March 2012).

A number of instances of students’ non-response reaction from the data show that students had “no response” due to their reluctance to speak. Their unwillingness to speak might be caused by their feeling fatigued or bored with the lesson. Here is a typical example:

Example 6.12: Class recording T3.1

- T3: Do you understand these questions?|| Yes or no?
- Sts: [no response]
- T3: When did these events happen?|| Do you understand?||
Yes?|| How long did it take people to receive the news?||
Do you understand this question?
- Sts: [no response]
- T3: Yes or no?
- Sts: [no response]

I came into teacher 3’s class (Example 6.12 above) on a day that was very hot. It was a tropical summer afternoon, the temperature was up to around 35 degrees Celsius indoors. Her class was a large one with approximately 60 students, with 30 long desks and benches, and eight ceiling fans working (observation, T3, 24th April 2012). The teacher started a new lesson that day by asking her students to look at a list of 31 vocabulary items (including 30 words and one phrase, “pay attention”) in their textbooks. She read aloud each item from the list and asked her students to read after her in chorus. In this activity, the teacher asked her students to read these 31 items in chorus up to 105 times in total. Then she explained those items, mainly by translating them into Vietnamese, although their Vietnamese equivalents were already included in that list. After that she called some students to read aloud and explain the meaning of some of these items in Vietnamese. The purpose, as she explained in the interview after the observation, was to help her students remember those words. By the end of this activity, some students seemed to be tired, resting their heads on their desks. Some others seemed to be bored and started individual talk with the students sitting next to them. Then the teacher moved to another activity which involved questions about

pictures in the textbook. She asked her students to read out the questions below each picture and translated them into Vietnamese. Then she checked their understanding, asking “Do you understand these questions? Yes or no?”, as seen in Example 6.12. The students did not respond. She repeated her question. They still did not respond. She went on eliciting responses from her students, asking “Yes or no?”. However, there was no indication of her students’ reaction. The students’ non-response reaction here was not because of the reasons explained in the teacher interviews (i.e., rhetorical questions, or students’ readiness to answer). Rather, it was because they got tired and bored with the lesson, and thus became reluctant to speak.

It appeared that the students’ poor understanding was not always the main reason for their lack of response. This was because the teachers usually tried to make their instructions, particularly their questions, simple so that they would be more comprehensible to their students. One of the reasons for the students’ lack of response according to all the teachers could be linked to what they reported in the interviews about their students’ motivation, i.e. negative attitudes about learning English, which led to their code-switching (see 5.1.2). Students’ physical or emotional state was seen as one of the reasons for teachers’ code-switching by some authors (e.g., Kim & Elder, 2008). However, in my study, students’ physical or emotional state did not appear to explain why teachers code-switched. Rather, the students’ physical or emotional state resulted in their language behaviour of silence. This behaviour occurred regardless of whether or not teachers code-switched.

Interestingly, the students’ reluctance to speak involved some cultural reasons, because they did not tend to speak out when they were not sure of the answer. Psychologically, the students might be afraid of being assessed or criticised, probably by the teachers or their peers, if their answers were incorrect. As a result, they chose to remain silent and avoided talking as a safe solution. Their silence, i.e. non-response behaviour, could be seen as a sign of collectivism, the degree to which a culture relies on a group, according to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005). As these two authors note in an educational context, collectivism is visible via students’ behaviour in the class, for example, in a university classroom the behaviour of not speaking up even when the teachers ask questions. Here, the students tended to speak only when they were asked to do so by their teachers. If they responded, they would rather do so together, in chorus, than individually. This resulted in the students’ reluctance to speak individually. This habitual practice more or

less affected the students' opportunity to answer individually. That is, they just waited to be asked to at or just waited for others to speak in chorus. In Example 5.35, I illustrated a teacher's requirement for his students to read aloud in chorus after him. The teacher commented "*Không ai theo tôi à?*" ("No one follows me?") as his students remained silent and did not follow his instruction. These students' silent behaviour may be because they did not feel interested in the activity of reading aloud in chorus. As a result, some of them (but not the whole class) followed their teacher unwillingly, reading out the word in chorus.

6.4 Conclusion

In this study, both when the teachers used one language and when they code-switched, the students had different language behaviours. In different situations, they:

- reciprocated; or
- did not reciprocate; or
- did not finish the response; or
- remained silent.

In particular, the students tended to reciprocate teachers' single language use, but not teachers' code-switching. In other words, there did not seem to be any relationships between the teachers' code-switching and these students' different language behaviours. Rather, some other factors led to the students' different practices.

The reasons for the students' production of such forms of behaviour regardless of whatever their teachers' language choice was varied. In terms of the students' non-reciprocation, the reasons are the teachers' question types, and the students' habitual practice, rather than the complexity of teachers' questions as found in Liu et al.'s (2004) and Xu's (2010) studies. For teachers' questions which involved a translating task, the teachers decided what language was to be used by the students. For example, when teachers asked their students the Vietnamese equivalent of an English word, the students were expected to speak Vietnamese. Teachers used only English or both English and Vietnamese in their questions asking for the meaning of words. Note that the teachers' questions, formularised as "what does X mean?", always implied that they wanted their students to translate the word (X) into Vietnamese or to give a Vietnamese equivalent (as discussed throughout Chapters 4 and 5). For teachers' questions which seemed to be

on a topic students were interested in, they had a tendency to use a different language from their teachers (as illustrated in Example 6.7). In addition, it is the students' routine of using Vietnamese politeness marker(s) to show respect to the teachers in the Vietnamese environment that caused students to bring such Vietnamese insertions into their English classrooms regardless of whether this practice is really needed or wanted by teachers.

The reason the students' incomplete responses was their non-readiness to answer which may be partly due to the level of difficulty of the questions. This, to some extent, might reflect students' English ability. In particular, for the students' lack of response, the key reasons were the teachers' use of rhetorical questions, and more importantly, students' lack of motivation. Moreover, avoiding speak out, particularly when unsure of the correctness of the answers, was employed as a safe solution by the students. They would rather say nothing than say something wrong. This finding could imply that a lack of motivation or fear of making errors can result in students' reluctance to speak out.

Another important finding was that the level of difficulty or complexity of the teachers' question did not appear to be related to the students' non-reciprocation of their teachers' language use. Specifically, using Vietnamese (L1) to deal with difficult or complicated questions asked in English (L2) by the teachers was not a strategy the students selected. Instead, they practised two language behaviours. The first was their unfinished English utterances, and the second their non-response behaviour. This finding seems to challenge Liu et al.'s (2004) claim that students tend to use their L1 to deal with their teachers' difficult and complex questions, particularly those asked in L2.

Chapter 7

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE POLICY AND PRACTICE

7.0 Introduction

This chapter presents issues concerning classroom language policy for teachers and their practice within their teaching context. The first section describes teachers' use of languages, their views and practice, in their classrooms. In particular, it outlines teachers' overall language use, from both teachers' and students' perspectives, as well as teachers' amount of actual use of English and Vietnamese. It also discusses teachers' views on the use of languages in the classroom. The second section aims to deal with classroom language policy from the teachers' beliefs about the "English-only" policy as well as their opinions concerning a classroom language policy in their English teaching environment. Section 7.3 provides a summary of the chapter.

7.1 Teachers' use of languages in classrooms

The teachers' practice of code-switching was evident in my classroom observations, recordings, and confirmed in interviews with the teachers and their students. However, to gain insights into teachers' beliefs about their practice of code-switching in the EFL classroom, the third main question in the interview guides concerned classroom language policy and teachers' opinions about their use of each language (i.e., English and Vietnamese). Furthermore, class recordings also provided direct data on the amount of each language that teachers used in their classroom instruction. Teachers' classroom language use is discussed below.

7.1.1 Overall language use

To understand how teachers used L1 (Vietnamese) and L2 (English) in their classrooms, it is important to know how much of each language they used, according to their impressions and their actual practice, as well as from their students' perspectives. In addition, it is also necessary to know about teachers' awareness of their own practice of alternately using the two languages and about how their students viewed this practice.

Proportion of use

Teachers' proportion of use of English and Vietnamese in their classrooms came from two types of data: interviews with teachers, and students and class recordings. Data from interviews showed how teachers and students described the proportion of the two languages used by teachers. The class recordings showed how much each language, measured in numbers of words, was actually used by teachers. Findings about the proportion of teachers' use of languages were triangulated across these data forms.

Regarding interviews, though both the participants and I were aware that there was no exact prescription for the proportions of English and Vietnamese that should be used in the EFL classroom, we discussed how much each language they thought they used, in terms of the percentage of use. That is, we talked about an estimation of the proportion of each language they believed they used in their classroom instruction. Furthermore, I also asked these teachers' students, in interviews with individual students, to describe the teachers' distribution between their students' use of English and Vietnamese in the classroom. Teachers' beliefs on their use of English and Vietnamese, and students' beliefs on their teachers' use of both languages, are summarised in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Teachers' and students' report on teachers' use of English and Vietnamese

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>English (%)</i>		<i>Vietnamese (%)</i>	
	teachers' estimate	students' estimate	teachers' estimate	students' estimate
T1	65	50	35	50
T2	90	65	10	35
T3	50	80	50	20
T4	80	70	20	30
T5	60	-	40	-
T6	70	75	30	25
T7	90	-	10	-
T8	70	40	30	60
T9	90	75	10	25
T10	60	80	40	20
T11	65	75	35	25
T12	70	65	30	35
Average	72	67	28	33

Note: - not stated

From Table 7.1, one can see that on average the distribution between English and Vietnamese from both teachers' and students' perspective was roughly 70% versus 30% (between teachers' 72% and students' 68% estimates of English, and between teachers' 28% and students' 33% estimates of Vietnamese). In particular, the students gave a slightly higher estimate (5%) of the amount of Vietnamese the teachers were using than the teachers did. While half the estimates by teachers and students were similar, in half of the cases they differed by 20% or more. Clearly, These teachers and students have somewhat different impressions of teachers' language use.

Compared this with teachers' actual use of the two languages in their recorded classes, as described in Table 7.2, below.

Table 7.2 Word counts of teachers' use of English and Vietnamese

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>English words</i>	<i>English percent (\approx %)</i>	<i>Vietnamese words</i>	<i>Vietnamese percent (\approx %)</i>	<i>Total words</i>
T1	1,455	36	2,593	64	4,048
T2	3,505	87	501	13	4,006
T3	4,274	65	2,303	35	6,577
T4	4,367	96	188	4	4,555
T5	8,338	90	887	10	9,225
T6	4,341	75	1,431	25	5,772
T7	4,184	99.7	12	0.3	4,196
T8	2,478	51	2,389	49	4,867
T9	5,737	89	719	11	6,456
T10	5,500	78	1,509	22	7,009
T11	3,142	70	1,353	30	4,495
T12	2,681	69	1,223	31	3,904
Average	4,167	77	1,259	23	5,426

As can be seen from Table 7.2, an average teacher produced more than 5,400 words, in both English and Vietnamese, in his/her two recorded classes. Comparing the proportion of English and of Vietnamese this average teacher used, one can observe that the average teacher produced about three times as much English (roughly 3.3 times) as Vietnamese (4,167 English words compared to 1,259 Vietnamese words). That is, the ratio between English and Vietnamese used by an average teacher was approximately 77:23. It should be noted that among the 4,167 English words produced on average,

some were words that teachers read from their textbook (i.e. vocabulary items, phrases, sentences and instructions printed in the textbook), as shown in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3 English words spoken and read out from textbooks

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>English words spoken by teachers</i>	<i>Percent (~ %)</i>	<i>English words read from textbooks</i>	<i>Percent (~ %)</i>	<i>Total English words</i>
T1	1,290	88.7	165	11.3	1,455
T2	3,200	91.3	305	8.7	3,505
T3	3,559	83.3	715	16.7	4,274
T4	4,313	98.8	54	1.2	4,367
T5	8,262	99.1	76	0.9	8,338
T6	4,268	98.3	73	1.7	4,341
T7	4,115	98.4	69	1.6	4,184
T8	2,393	96.6	85	3.4	2,478
T9	5,728	99.8	9	0.2	5,737
T10	5,188	94.3	312	5.7	5,500
T11	2,754	87.7	388	12.3	3,142
T12	2,443	91.1	238	8.9	2,681
Average	3,959	93	207	7	4,167

On average, the teachers read aloud 207 words from the textbook, accounting for 7% of the total amount he/she produced in English in two recorded classes. This figure might mean that in general the teachers did not seem to be strictly constrained to sentences and words as printed in their text books. Teachers' reading out aloud from their textbooks also varied in terms of the amount of words counted, ranging from 0.2% to 16.7% of the English words they produced. Teacher 9, as shown in Table 7.3, read the smallest amount of words from the textbook (9 out of 5,737 English words produced), while teacher 3 read out the largest number (715 out of 4,274).

The ratio of teachers' actual use of English and Vietnamese (77:23) confirmed the average distribution between the two languages as described by, particularly, teachers to a great extent (72% - 28%), and by students, to a lesser extent (67% - 33%). Overall teachers tended to underestimate the amount of English they used rather than overestimate it.

Table 7.4 Teachers' language use (in percentage)

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>English actual percentage</i>	<i>Teacher estimate</i>	<i>Student estimate</i>
T1	36	65	50
T2	87	90	65
T3	65	50	80
T4	96	80	70
T5	90	60	-
T6	75	70	75
T7	99.7	90	-
T8	51	70	40
T9	89	90	75
T10	78	60	80
T11	70	65	75
T12	69	70	65
Average	77	72	67

Tables from 7.1 to 7.4 show the overall tendency in teachers' language use in their classroom instruction. In general, most teachers (i.e. 11 out of 12) reported that they prioritised English in their classroom instruction, and this was proved true via the classroom recording data. They tended to code-switch continuously and to use more English than Vietnamese as observed. Only one teacher (T1) held the opposite view, stating that he prioritised Vietnamese in his English classrooms, and in practice he did use more Vietnamese than English in his classes. Particularly, in his two recorded classes, this teacher produced 4,048 words, in which the number of English words was 1,455 (including 165 words he read from his textbook) and that of Vietnamese words was 2,593. This means that he used roughly 64% Vietnamese and 36% English. In addition, teacher 1, similar to his colleagues, code-switched continuously in his classes.

For most cases, both teachers and their students believed that teachers' proportion of English use was greater than that of Vietnamese in the classroom. Furthermore, their class teaching practice also confirmed their claims related to the distribution between English and Vietnamese use. Specifically, seven teachers (T2, T4, T6, T9, T10, T11, and T12) reported that they used mostly or more English than Vietnamese in teaching, and their students confirmed this in the interviews. Word counts (see Table 7.2) showed that these teachers used much more English than Vietnamese in their actual teaching

practice, ranging from 69% to 96% English. For instance, teacher 4 said “*Khi tôi dạy tiếng Anh cho sinh viên của tôi trên lớp, tôi luôn luôn dùng nhiều tiếng Anh hơn*” (When I teach English to students in the class, I always use more English than Vietnamese”, and “I usually use English first”). She said that she used about 80% English in her class. Her student confirmed this, saying that “*cô giáo em dùng nhiều tiếng Anh hơn tiếng Việt và em nghĩ là cô dùng khoảng 70% tiếng Anh*” (my teacher uses more English than Vietnamese, and I think she uses about 70% English). In practice, as indicated in her two recorded classes, teacher 4 used up to 96% English (and 4% Vietnamese). The proportions of English and Vietnamese that teachers estimated and students felt about their teachers’ use of these two languages did not exactly match each other in terms of the percentage, as in the case of teacher 4 and her student. However, it could be difficult to estimate such percentages, and students’ confirmation of these seven teachers’ use of English and Vietnamese was in agreement to the extent that their teachers used more English than Vietnamese in their English classes.

Information from five (T1, T2, T3, T8, and T10), however, was not confirmed by their students. For example, teacher 1 (T1) said he used more Vietnamese, and less English, but his student said her teacher was using an equal proportion of English and Vietnamese. The recordings of this teacher showed that he used much more Vietnamese than English (approximately 64% Vietnamese and 36% English), which confirmed the teacher’s report. Teacher 3 (T3) said she thought she used an equal proportion of the two languages for the classes she was teaching. Nevertheless, her student said that this teacher was using much more English than Vietnamese. In practice, this teacher (T3) used roughly 65% English and 35% Vietnamese (4,274 English words and 2,303 Vietnamese words) in the two classes recorded. However, it should be noted that among the 4,274 English words teacher 3 produced, there were up to 715 words she read from her textbook, including vocabulary items and sentences as well as tasks printed in the textbook. Particularly, in one 50-minute class she modelled the pronunciation of English words from a list in the textbook 133 times by reading out loud these items, one by one, so that her students could read after her in chorus. Teacher 8 (T8) reported that overall he used more English, while his student (St8) disagreed with this, saying that he felt his teacher used more Vietnamese than English. Teacher 8’s two recorded classes showed that he used the two languages with mostly equal proportions (approximately 51% English and 49% Vietnamese, or 2,478 English words, including 85 words he read from his textbook, and 2,389 Vietnamese words).

One teacher (T5) said that she was using an approximately equal proportion of English and Vietnamese (60% and 40%, respectively), but her student (St5) did not explicitly describe the distribution between the two languages, just saying that she preferred her teacher to use around 60% English. However, the recordings of teacher 5's classes showed that she used up to nearly 90% English (i.e., 8,338 English words out of the 9,225 words she produced). It is interesting to note here that teacher 5 produced the greatest number of words compared to the other teachers, nearly twice the average number (9,225 compared to 5,426). In her two classes, she talked at length, mainly in English, explaining grammatical rules, meanings of vocabulary items, organising and explaining rules of games for her students, as well as modelling the pronunciations of words. Another student (St7) did not state how much English his teacher (T7) used. This student said, "I prefer my teacher to use more English than he is currently using" (Student 7), and yet his teacher reported that he used about 90% English in his classroom. This teacher actually used up to 99.7% English (i.e. 4,184 English words out of the total 4,196 words he produced, and 12 Vietnamese words) in two classes. He was the one who code-switched far less than his colleagues, and his switches mainly involved Vietnamese fillers (see Chapter 4, section 4.1). However, his student (St7) seemed to want him to use only English as shown in the quote above.

As discussed, there were differences in the percentage of English and Vietnamese comparing what teachers reported and what their students' reported. In addition, some students had a different impression of their teachers' language use, and a few teachers had the opposite impressions of their own use of language, as presented above. This was because both teachers and their students did not know exactly how much English and Vietnamese teachers used. Rather, the proportion they acknowledged was only based on their estimation of their teaching practice. However, it was evident from word counts that overall, most teachers (10 out of 12) used more English than Vietnamese in their instruction of English, ranging from 65% to 99.7% English. The practice of using more L2 (i.e. English) than L1 (i.e. Vietnamese) in the language classroom by most Vietnamese EFL teachers could help to provide students with more opportunities to be exposed to L2. This effort to maximise L2 use (with consideration of L1 use) as well as to optimise L2 and L1 use would be useful for students in their L2 learning (Cook, 2001, 2008; Macaro, 2001, 2014). One teacher used less English than Vietnamese, and one teacher used these two languages roughly equally. Thus, we can see that the 12 teachers used from 36% to 99.7% English (measured in terms of words produced) in

their classroom teaching. This range of L2 use of Vietnamese EFL teachers was thus narrower than the range reported in Duff and Polio (1990), which was from 10% to 100%, but wider than that found by Turnbull (2000), from 24% to 72% (measured in teachers' talking time).

There are two behaviours observed in their classes that might explain the higher proportion of English use than Vietnamese use for most teachers. Firstly, they usually prioritised English, i.e. they started their instruction in English in their turns. Secondly, they did not always translate every turn they spoke from English into Vietnamese. For the turns they code-switched to Vietnamese, they did not always translate the whole turns, but some of the utterances (e.g., translations of words or explanations of English grammar points) in such turns into Vietnamese. In addition, none of the teachers used 100% English in their classroom teaching (including teacher 7, who was very close to 100%), and all of them code-switched to varying extents.

Teachers' awareness of using languages and students' evaluation

The questions in the interview for the teacher participants were not designed to ask whether they were aware of their own practice of code-switching, using both English and Vietnamese alternately in their classrooms. Nevertheless, three of the teachers mentioned this in their conversations and reported their lack of awareness of their practice. For example, one said:

Em chỉ thấy là thực sự lúc chưa gặp chị thì em không biết cái này nó là cái gì cả, switch, code. Sau khi được nói chuyện với chị thì em thấy là đúng là nó là một vấn đề rất là thú vị. Và thực chất là chưa bao giờ em từng để ý đến nó. Em chưa từng bao giờ để ý xem là mình cần xem, hay là thu âm xem mình sử dụng bao nhiêu tiếng Anh, tiếng Việt trong một tiết học.

I actually found that I had not had any ideas about this, [terms such as] switch and code, until I had a talk with you. After having conversation with you about it, I found it very interesting. In fact, I have never thought about it. I've never thought of measuring or recording [my classes to see] how much English or Vietnamese I am using in my classes. (Teacher 8)

As expressed in her quote above, teacher 8 admitted that he was not aware of the fact that he code-switched in her classes or the amount of each language (i.e. English and Vietnamese) he used in her classrooms (also shown in Table 7.2 in the previous section). Nor he was familiar with the term code-switch, either. It appears that prioritising English use in the English classroom has become teachers' own philosophy

according to what they reported in the interviews. This was also visible from my observations and class recordings. As described, teachers tended to use English first whenever starting a turn, and as discussed previously, though they code-switched continually during their lessons, it was evident from my data that they used more English than Vietnamese.

The students in their interviews had different opinions about their teachers' use of the two languages in the class. These students' opinions were categorised into two groups: those who were satisfied and those who were dissatisfied with their teachers' use of these languages in the classroom. Nearly half of them (i.e. 5/12 students) said that they were pleased with their teachers' current proportion of English use. For example, student 6 said that she would like her teacher to use both English and Vietnamese in the way the teacher currently used them (75% English in her opinion). It is interesting to note that this student's teacher, T6, did use approximately 75% English in her two recorded classes as shown in Tables 7.4 in the previous section, an exact match with the students' estimate. That is, this student would like her teacher to use more English than Vietnamese in the classroom, with an English-Vietnamese ratio of 3:1 (75% English and 25% Vietnamese). Student 6, thus, thought that this practice was suitable for her and her classmates. She and her classmates would find it easier to understand when their teacher used the two languages alternately. Stressing her and her peers' poor ability in English, she said that she was afraid that if their teacher only spoke English, they would not be able to understand everything. This student's concern coincided with most teachers' concerns, i.e. they were afraid that their students would not understand what they said if they did not use Vietnamese in their instruction (see 5.2.1.1). Once again, the students' concern of understanding was an issue for both students and teachers.

Contrary to the first group of students who were quite happy with their teachers' current use of English and Vietnamese, the second group (consisting of 6/12 students) were not satisfied. They stated that they would prefer their teachers to use more English, or only English. For instance, student 4 and student 10 said they wanted their teachers to use more English than their current use. According to these two students, 80% English or so was a suitable proportion. Note that these students felt that their teachers' current use of English was about 70%, and that in practice teacher 4 used 96% English and teacher 10 used 78% English (see Table 7.4). Thus, in fact, these students were only asking for a small increase in their teachers' English use. Two students (St 7 and St 9) thought that their teachers' use of Vietnamese in their classes (0.3% and 11% for each corresponding

teacher as shown in the class recordings) was not necessary. “[Our teacher using] Only English is better for us because we are good enough to understand when our teacher was only speaking in English,” student 7 said, using the first person plural form to express his opinion. Teachers speaking only in English would create a better language learning environment for students, in student 9’s opinion. She said “if I can have a choice, I would like my teacher only to use English in my class.” These two students’ English was likely to be stronger than other students. Thus, they had different opinions from their classmates. Students had different opinions about their teachers’ use of language, and this was related to the students’ uneven ability in English. This was also one of the reasons for teachers’ code-switching, as I discussed previously in Chapter 5 (see 5.2.2). Surprisingly, one student (St12) wanted his teacher to use more Vietnamese (i.e. more than 31% Vietnamese as found out from the class recordings of teacher 12’s two classes). Particularly, he wanted his teacher to use Vietnamese in situations such as checking attendance and giving homework, because then he could be sure what he needed to do at home. He explained that if he did not understand what his teacher wanted him to do, he would get bad marks from his teacher. This student seemed to focus only on comprehension, wanting to understand everything that the teacher said, aiming to achieve better outcomes in terms of marks.

7.1.2 Teachers’ views on Vietnamese and English use

Regarding the use of Vietnamese, teachers’ and students’ L1 in the English classroom, teachers pointed out both its advantages and its disadvantages. All of them mentioned various advantages of using Vietnamese. Some of the advantages of using Vietnamese in teachers’ English classes could be seen as factors which lead to their code-switching, as discussed in Chapter 5 (see 5.2).

The first advantage, according to all 12 teachers, was facilitating students’ understanding. That is, by speaking Vietnamese, they thought that they could help their students understand their instruction and the lesson more easily. “*Thay vì nói tiếng Anh, tôi nói tiếng Việt, vì thế tất cả sinh viên của tôi đều hiểu*” (Instead of speaking English, I speak Vietnamese, so all of my students can understand), teacher 9 said. Some teachers seemed to offer a pragmatic reason by stressing the students’ purpose of understanding the English they were learning – to pass their examinations. This was also reported as one of the constraints for both teachers’ teaching practice and students’ learning, as

discussed. For example, teacher 1 thought that whatever the teachers did was for their students to understand so that they were able to do well in their examinations. He said:

Cái thuận lợi mà khi tôi đạt được là, nó gọi là, cho sinh viên học một cách thực dụng, có nghĩa là nó học như thế nào thì nó sẽ thi như thế. Bởi vì nếu mình nói tiếng Anh mà chúng nó không hiểu bài thì đấy là một cái lỗi, theo tôi. Thực ra ở đây tôi nhấn mạnh rằng là không phải tôi sử dụng tiếng Anh sai, mà do sinh viên nó không hiểu. Không hiểu ở đây cũng không phải là do tôi sử dụng tiếng Anh nó không đúng. Thì đấy, thì tôi muốn nói là tôi sử dụng tiếng Việt là mục đích của tôi để làm cho sinh viên nó hiểu bài hơn.

The advantage it [using Vietnamese] has is ... it is called providing my students a practical way of learning. I mean that my students learn what they will have to do in the exams. If I speak English but my student cannot understand, that is a mistake, I think. It doesn't mean that I use incorrect English, just because of the students' problem of understanding. So I use Vietnamese in order that my students can understand.

It appears that learning for examinations was not only a constraint but it also became a philosophy of both teachers and their students.

The second advantage of using Vietnamese, according to more than half of the teachers, was related to compensation for their deficiency in English. That is, when they had problems expressing themselves in English or when they could not remember English words, using their first language, Vietnamese, could help. Teacher 5 emphasised this point:

Sử dụng tiếng Việt đối với tôi thì đơn giản hơn nhiều so với tiếng Anh ((laughs)). Đây là thực tế. Rõ ràng là nếu trong những lúc nó khó quá chẳng hạn thì mình có thể chọn tiếng Việt, bởi vì như thế mình cảm thấy người giáo viên dễ dàng kiểm soát những cái hoạt động của mình hơn, ví dụ lời nói của mình hơn.

Using Vietnamese for me is much easier than using English ((laughs)). That is a fact. It's clear that in too difficult situations [for me to use English], for example, I choose Vietnamese, because doing so I feel that I can control my activities, for example, what I say.

It can be seen that these teachers believed that they were not Vietnamese-English equal bilinguals, mastering both languages equally (Hoffmann, 1991; Romaine, 1995), though they appeared to be fairly fluent in their L2 (i.e. English). They thus thought that switching from English to Vietnamese was a solution to their lack of proficiency in their L2. This could mean that they, particularly teacher 5 in the above quote, did not fully see the role of L1 in learning L2 for their students. It can be argued that teachers being (fully) fluent in students' L1 (Vietnamese in this study) is of great benefit for students.

This is because teachers' own knowledge and use of L1 can facilitate students' L2 learning (Cook, 2001, 2008; Khresheh, 2012; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005) as well as developing language capacity in general.

Five teachers touched on the psychological advantage of using Vietnamese in their English classes. That is, they reported that they would feel happier when seeing that all their students could understand them. In addition, they felt that they were closer to students, and more comfortable and less tense when they got positive feedback from their students.

The last advantage of using Vietnamese, according to two thirds of the teachers, was in relation to classroom needs. They explicitly stated that their use of Vietnamese was a way to help them solve other classroom issues, e.g. breaking the tension, making the class more exciting, creating a positive learning atmosphere, saving time for teachers, and being more flexible and effective. For example teacher 1 said, “*nhiều khi cái cách tôi nói tiếng Việt tạo sự hài hước và không khí học tập cho sinh viên của tôi*” (many times, the way I speak Vietnamese creates fun and learning atmosphere for my students). Another illustration of this advantage was provided by teacher 4, who said:

Có cái cảm giác là học sinh sẽ nhanh chóng đáp ứng những mong đợi của mình. Ví dụ khi mình đặt câu hỏi với học sinh khi mình có một vài cái gợi ý bằng tiếng Việt thì học sinh nhanh hơn.

I feel that my students will quickly meet what I expect from them. For example when I question them and give them a couple of prompts in Vietnamese, they will respond to me faster.

It seemed that Vietnamese played an important role in these teachers' English classes. Their opinion about their use of the first language coincided with Cook's (2001, 2002, 2008) belief that the first language can be used as a valuable tool in the FL classes. In particular, teachers' use of Vietnamese to joke with their students could be of value because they share a cultural background and the same sense of humour (e.g., teachers 10, 12, 11 in Examples 5.26, 5.27 and 5.28, respectively, which were discussed in Chapter 5). Using Vietnamese appeared to be the most helpful way for the teachers to facilitate their students' understanding. This was also the key purpose of the teachers in their classrooms. However, it is arguable that using L1 is not the only way for the teachers to help their students' comprehension. In other words, L1 use can only work well in a language classroom when it supports the students' learning of L2.

Though L1 can be seen as a useful tool to facilitate students' learning of L2, its overuse or inappropriate use should be discouraged (Cook, 2008; Macaro, 2001). For the teacher participants, using the first language had its own advantages as discussed above; however, the potential downsides of using it varied. For example, all the teachers, except one, described the disadvantages of using Vietnamese. They described their use of Vietnamese as obstructing students' learning of English. These disadvantages included students' reliance on Vietnamese in learning English, students' passiveness, and failure to create an English environment in the classroom. Here is one teacher's statement which highlights this point:

Thế nhưng mà nếu mình sử dụng quá nhiều tiếng Việt thì nó tạo cho sinh viên một cái thói quen chai lỳ, ỳ ra và không chịu suy nghĩ. Khi mình nói câu tiếng Anh mình lại nói kèm theo câu tiếng Việt thế là nghiêm nhiên nó chẳng để ý gì đến câu tiếng Anh trước của mình, nó chỉ [Nó chỉ chờ cô nói tiếng Việt] đấy, nó chờ cô nói tiếng Việt và lần sau nó cũng cứ nghĩ là cô sẽ làm cái việc như vậy.

If we use too much Vietnamese, we will create a bad habit for our students. They will become passive and lazy. When we say something in English and translate it into Vietnamese, students will not pay attention to our first sentence in English, but just wait for the second one in Vietnamese. Next time they will be waiting [for the Vietnamese translation], yes, that's it because they know for sure that their teachers will definitely do so. (Teacher 10)

As shown in the quote, teacher 10 seemed to be very logical in her thinking concerning the disadvantages of overusing L1, particularly translating whatever was said (in L2) into L1. For her, this way of using L1, Vietnamese, could cause students' reliance on their teachers' translation without needing to think about what teachers said in L2, English. Interestingly, the teachers all saw translating their instruction into Vietnamese, as teacher 10 explained, as one of the obstructions to their students' learning of English. However, it was evident that their instruction involved a great number of situations in which teachers translated their instruction regardless of whether it was really needed. The point here is that teachers were all aware of the negative impact of their translating practice on their students' learning, as they explicitly stated in the interviews, but they still translated their instruction into Vietnamese excessively in their English classrooms. As I discussed in Chapter 5, teachers assumed that if they did not translate what they said, their students would not be able to understand it. Their apprehension regarding their students' low ability to understand spoken English seemed to result in their practice of translating almost everything they said into Vietnamese. However, this way of using languages could cause their students to feel bored. It can be argued that when

students are bored with teachers' lessons, they will be reluctant to speak English. Thus, teachers' repetition of their instruction through translation does not always motivate their students' learning. In contrast, it may result in students' lack of motivation for learning English.

Nearly half of the students confirmed that their teachers reiterated by translating instructions into Vietnamese, and they considered this a very common practice of their teachers. Some students were in favour of their teachers' practice of translating English utterances into Vietnamese; other students were not. For example, one said: "Ms Q. always translated for us, so we don't have to worry about not understanding her English. We feel sometimes we're lazy" (Student 10). It is clear that this student saw their teachers' translation as a guarantee of understanding. However, some of the students did not take their teachers' translation for granted, and saw their teachers' repeated practice as uninteresting: "I don't know why my English teachers translate into Vietnamese all the time. Many times, it's easy for us to understand but they had translated before we spoke, and sometimes we feel bored" (Student 7). This could show that comprehension was not always a problem for students. According to some of these students, their teachers' translation was not only boring, but also demotivating for them to learn English.

Four of the 12 teachers mentioned their use of Vietnamese as a hindrance to their use of English in classroom instruction. That is, there was an interruption to the flow of the lesson if they were speaking English and then shifted to Vietnamese. That practice of using Vietnamese had a negative effect on the teachers' own performance in teaching English. In teacher 9's opinion, "teachers need much practice [in speaking and using English] so that they could have good English. If they do not practise, they are restraining their ability". Teacher 9 meant that if teachers of English in general used too much Vietnamese in their English instruction, they would reduce their ability to speak or give instruction in English.

However, one teacher (teacher 7) had a very different point of view, saying that he saw using Vietnamese as something that was natural. He said that he never thought of using it as something he liked or disliked, but as something spontaneous. Interestingly, he used very little Vietnamese in his instruction, only 0.3% (see Table 7.2).

My observations and class recordings showed that the use of English varied among the teachers, as shown in Tables 7.2 and 7.4. As this was one of my concerns in this study, a prompt was added to the interview guides for teachers. When asked which factor would affect teachers' use of more or less English, they provided three main reasons: students' English level and/or the lesson content; students' attitudes towards learning English; and the teachers' emotions. The students' level of English was related to the content of the lesson, according to the teachers. That is, if students had a low level of English and the content of the lesson was difficult, teachers thought it was better to translate everything or more of what they said what they said in English into Vietnamese. These reasons were discussed in Chapter 5 as factors which led to teachers' code-switching (see 5.2). Most of the teachers explained that it was the students' level of English or the content of the lesson (e.g. how difficult they thought the content was for their students, what skill was being taught) that decided their use of more or less English. Concerning the students' level of English, all the teachers commented on their students' poor English though students had all started learning English at high school, or earlier (at primary school). Teachers, thus, relied on what they judged to be the level of each class to decide their proportion of English to be used. "For classes which are better at English I will use more English," said teacher 6. Such a class, in this teacher's opinion, was one containing students who were willing to speak. For difficult lessons, teachers saw using their first language as a good solution, and in such cases they would use less English.

Có lẽ còn ỳy thuộc vào nội dung cái bài mà tôi dạy. Nếu tôi thấy có bài mà...để cho sin h viên thì tôi sẽ cố gắng chỉ dùng tiếng Anh, nhưng mà nếu mà bài phức tạp hơn hoặc quá khó thì tôi dùng tiếng Việt như là trợ cứu.

Perhaps it depends on the content of the lesson I am teaching. If I see that there's a lesson that ... is easy for the students to learn, I will try to use only English, but if the lesson is more complicated, or too difficult for them, then I use Vietnamese as a rescue. (Teacher 4)

Thus, Vietnamese appeared to be a great tool for teacher 4 to deal with some difficult situations in her English classes. Teaching English grammar and certain skills seemed to be difficult, according to some teachers. For example, teacher 10 related her use of less English (more Vietnamese) with teaching English grammar and reading skills. Sharing the same opinion about using more Vietnamese when teaching English grammar and providing an opposite view about teaching reading skills, teacher 1 said:

Theo quan điểm của tôi, thì như tôi nói ban đầu là học theo kiểu thực dụng nhá, cuối kỳ thì chúng nó thi viết nhá, thi với những bài có ngữ

pháp nhiều thì tôi sử dụng tiếng Việt nhiều hơn để các em hiểu bài hơn. Đây, thế còn với những cái bài mà nó thiên về nói, hay đọc này, thì tôi sử dụng tiếng Anh nhiều hơn.

In my opinion, as I said earlier in our discussion that I teach in a practical way, my students do a written test at the end of each semester, so for teaching English grammar, I use more Vietnamese so that my students can understand well. That's it, and for teaching speaking and reading I use more English.

In practice, teacher 1 did use much Vietnamese in every situation, but not only teaching grammar for his students (as shown in Tables 7.2 and 7.4). He switched forth and back during his classes. Teacher 1 and his colleagues were again concerned about students' understanding. It appeared that when mentioning teaching English, what would come first to teachers' mind was teaching "English grammar" rather than teaching skills. This is partly because the method of assessing students was by using a written test which also focused mainly on English grammar, but not on skills like reading, writing, speaking or listening. One-third of the teachers mentioned their students' mood or attitude (e.g., when students were nervous or stressed) as another factor affecting teachers' use of English. In this situation, they would use Vietnamese (as discussed above) because according to them when they spoke to their students in Vietnamese it would mean that their students "did not have to learn". That is, their students did not have to concentrate very hard on what they were meant to do. "If I realise that my students feel tired or nervous, I make them relaxed by speaking less English, more Vietnamese", teacher 9 said. Here it appears that the reason for teachers' use of more or less English was not just due to the students' attitudes, but more importantly for the students' benefit.

If the first two factors (i.e., students' ability in English and/or the lesson content, and students' attitudes towards learning English) originated from students, then the third originated from teachers' personal feelings. Nearly half of the teachers (i.e. 5/12 teachers) reported that their personal feelings were a factor. These five teachers held two different opinions. Four of them reported that they increased their English use when they were happy, and decreased it when they were unwell or in a bad mood. "When I am happy I use more English; when I am excited about something and feel well I speak more English," said teacher 3. To these teachers, speaking English sometimes made them more exhausted when they were unwell or unhappy. When asked why their mood and state of health affected their use of more or less English, they gave a psychological reason. For example one teacher laughed and said "When one is unwell or unhappy, one doesn't want to have to think or to try at all." It seems from these teachers that speaking

only English in the class for teachers is sometimes challenging, particularly when they are unwell, both physically as well as psychologically. Although in the classroom teachers keep in mind that they prioritise English use, the mother tongue is still the dominant language to them. When teachers are not in a good mood, it is more difficult for them to control the amount of Vietnamese they use. As a natural reaction, their dominant language is the one to come first. However, one teacher (i.e., teacher 2) said, “When I get annoyed I use English, yes, speak English in order to release my annoyance”. When asked why she used English in such a situation, she explained: “I’m afraid that if I speak Vietnamese at that time I cannot control myself and might utter inappropriate words [in Vietnamese]”. It is understood with this teacher’s answer that she theoretically chose to use English when she was not in a good mood as a solution to avoid discouraging, criticising, or even insulting her students. Interestingly, in my observation and the recording of this teacher’s class, she switched to Vietnamese to make comments and warnings when she was upset with her students (shown in Example 5.35), but not in English (the switch to English in this excerpt was just to repeat her question to get response from student, but not to show her anger). This means that although this teacher said that she would use English when she was upset with her students, she actually used Vietnamese as evidenced in her recorded class. Thus, some teachers’ behaviour, thus, did not always match their beliefs in the classes I observed.

7.2 Classroom language policy

This section attempts to cover classroom language policy at just one level: the perspectives of teachers and students. The teachers’ beliefs seemed to be related to their use of English and Vietnamese in their classrooms. All the teachers were very interested in discussing the language policy within their university. Their discussion included their opinions about the policy of “English-only” use and of using both Vietnamese and English.

7.2.1 Teachers’ and students’ perspectives on “English-only” policy

The “English-only” policy was included in the interview guide questions for the teachers in order to gain their opinions about classroom language policy. This single language policy has been applied to many educational contexts around Asia. Some of the teachers in the present study had heard about the policy which excludes the use of the first language from the English classrooms. All except one teacher were in favour of

an “English-only” policy. These 11 teachers thought that such a policy would be good for both teachers and students. However, the one who was not in favour of this policy (T7) voiced his opinion that teaching English was just the same as teaching other courses, and that it was not necessary to use 100% English. He believed that a proportion of 90-95% English was suitable, and in practice he used close to 100% (99.7%) in his two recorded classes. For this teacher, though his actual amount of English use was nearly 100%, it was only slightly higher than his targeted proportion. It might be that he used less than this in some other classes. When all the teachers were asked what they thought would happen if the policy was applied to their schools, although they were in favour of that policy, two-thirds of these teachers thought the policy would be good but impractical for their university. According to them, the policy of “English-only” use was unrealistic for their university due to various problems, namely the student-related problems, the teacher-related problems, and other problems such as the language environment and circumstances. These problems are seen as the factors leading to their code-switching (see 5.2).

Regarding the first problem that was identified as a student-related problem (i.e., their poor ability in English), these eight teachers stated that the policy would be very difficult to apply to students whose level of English was very low. Another problem related to students was that it would take students a very long time (perhaps years) to get used to learning English with the majority of instruction given in English. This was because their students were very familiar with learning English when Vietnamese was used mostly to explain the rules of English prior to coming to the university. These students’ English learning was formed by the teaching practices of their former teachers, i.e. their primary or secondary teachers. Teacher 5 said:

Có một cái lý do là ở trường phổ thông cô giáo hầu như không sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng bài, các em không có cơ hội được nghe tiếng Anh nhiều, và hơn thế nữa là cái việc học ở trường phổ thông là nó thường chỉ tập trung nhiều vào học cấu trúc ngữ pháp hơn, và từ vựng thôi, cho nên là nó cũng không có phát triển các kỹ năng khác. Học sinh của tôi đã quen với hình thức học đó rồi nên thay đổi thói quen là rất khó (...). Chúng tôi không phải là được gieo mầm mà là chúng tôi đang định hình một cái cây nó rất là to rồi, cho nên nó rất là khó khăn để uốn [Không thể uốn], khó uốn chứ không- có thể có, nhưng mà nó phải có- rồi những cái điều kiện, không thể như thế được.

There’s another reason that at secondary school, my students’ secondary teacher used Vietnamese mostly in their English class hours. Those teachers just focused on teaching grammar, but not other skills for students. My students have got used to listening to Vietnamese in

their English class, so changing their habit is a big challenge for me (...). We are not the people who sow seeds, but we are looking after the plants which have already grown, and it's difficult to bend or curve such grown plants.

Teacher 5 in the above excerpt used a very interesting metaphor to express her and her colleagues' situation, describing the difficulty in changing someone's habit. She raised a question which related to teaching and learning English at other levels of education. Other teachers in the interviews also had similar view as teacher 5. According to them, the students had limited English learning before entering the university, so they were not ready for full immersion in an English-only classroom. This English-only policy, in these teachers' view, was only suitable for students who already had a high level of English because their major at university was English. They were also afraid that if the policy of only speaking in English applied to their students who were non-English majors, the "learning outcome will be low", as teachers 3 and 8 pointed out. The learning outcome in these two teachers' view was how much their students would understand if they speak only in English. Students' "outcome" appeared to be measured by the teachers' judgment of their students' understanding, as well as exam results. Teachers' desire was that their students could pass examinations with high scores, and did not want their students to fail examinations because they did not understand what teachers taught. There were, therefore, three points that made the "English-only" policy appear very difficult to apply to these teachers' schools:

- the students' present level of English;
- the students' past learning habits; and
- the students' future learning outcome (e.g., students' results after exams, and their ability to speak English after university).

These problems could be mutually related. To change students' ways of learning could be a challenge because they have experienced years of learning English with teachers who used a considerable amount of Vietnamese. On the one hand, a sudden shift to learning only in English might cause problems concerning students' comprehension of their teachers' lessons due to their poor ability in English; and as a result, this would negatively affect their learning outcome. On the other hand, as Macaro (2014) notes, teachers' code-switching can be seen as an "everyday phenomenon" (p.11). This means that classroom code-switching occurs frequently and naturally, and the purpose is for teachers not only to communicate with their students but also to facilitate their students'

learning. In this light, the no-first-language policy in the English classroom appears to be impractical for teachers in this university.

While a greater number of teachers believed that the policy of 100% English was impractical due to student-related problems, one-third (four teachers) blamed teachers' own problems. These teacher-related problems included teachers' lack of English proficiency and teachers' unwillingness to learn to change. One of these three teachers emphasised this:

Cùng ngồi chung với nhau, nhưng áp dụng rất khó, bởi vì sao? Ngay ở trong bộ môn, cũng có người trình độ này, trình độ nọ. Tôi không đánh giá người này người kia không tốt hay là người kia tốt, mà đây tôi muốn nói đây là cái ý thức của họ. Họ tự bằng lòng với những cái việc họ làm, họ tự bằng lòng, à, như vậy là được rồi, cũng không phải cố gắng nhiều hơn nữa, vậy tự nhiên là nó cứ mai một đi dần.

We are in the same boat, but it's hard to apply it, so why? Even in my teachers' group, the teachers' proficiency in English varies. I don't mean to criticise or assess one from another, but what I mean here is their willingness. Some of them seem to be satisfied with what they have been doing. They find what they are doing is fine, so they don't need to try anymore. (Teacher 1)

Arguing that the level of English differed among his colleagues seems to be this teacher's personal judgement. What he said was based on what he observed during his teaching time in his context. It is worth noting that teacher 1, however, used the largest amount of Vietnamese of all teachers in his instruction, 64% (see Table 2). These teachers, mentioned above, seemed to have negative attitudes towards their colleagues' reluctance to change. Another reason that could be seen as a hindrance to the "English-only" policy was the language environment. They thought that this policy could not work in a non-English speaking country such as Vietnam. Teacher 10, for example, voiced her opinion that it was even impractical in the future because of a lack of opportunities for students to practise English outside the classroom. She said:

Hơn nữa là vừa mới ra khỏi lớp học thì, chị biết đấy, người nước ngoài thì chẳng có mà giao tiếp, toàn người Việt thôi. Bây giờ cũng bảo sinh viên là chào mình thì chào bằng tiếng Anh, nhưng những người khác người ta nhìn vào thì đúng là sinh viên cảm thấy rất là ngượng, và bản thân mình thì cũng thấy là các em ấy không thoải mái lắm thì sao mình lại cứ phải bảo thế. Lúc đầu nói thật với chị là mới đi dạy là em cũng nói là bây giờ cậu ra ngoài, xin ra ngoài lớp, xin vào lớp hoặc là ra đường nhìn thấy cô phải chào cô bằng tiếng Anh, xong

thì chúng nó thấy một là ngại, thứ hai là nó thấy đấy là cái kiểu trò cười.

One more thing is, as you know, when students get out of their classroom, there are no foreigners for them to communicate with, and there are only Vietnamese people around. I have told my students to greet me in English when they saw me, but other people looked at me, so I feel embarrassed, and my students didn't feel comfortable when they did as I told them to do. People outside there feel our behaviour as something that is odd. (Teacher 10)

This situation, as described by teacher 10 in the quote above, seemed to be a problem for students to have further opportunities to use and to be exposed to English outside the classroom. Using English in the wider society outside the classroom among Vietnamese people would still be an uncommon practice in Vietnam.

The “English-only” policy was also discussed in the interviews with these teachers’ students in order to get their opinions. Most of these students said they approved of the policy of using only English in the EFL class. Though students would also like to have such a policy, similar to their teachers, half of them believed a policy of “no Vietnamese” was impractical. Understanding was their key problem. These six students, though they liked this policy and thought it was good, were afraid that they would not be able to understand if instructions were only in English. They also said that the policy should have been applied from lower levels of education, e.g. primary or secondary schools. The students’ concern is also in line with their teachers’ explanation of the reasons why they thought the “English-only” policy is unrealistic at their university.

All this can imply that both teachers and students may be right when they all believe that changes should be made earlier before students enter the university. If this policy is applied now, it is not assured that all teachers will use only English in their classrooms. Even when such a policy is applied, with the banning of the first language, many teachers still tend to use the first language, i.e. code-switching between L1 and L2 (Raschka et al., 2009). One reason for the conflict between the teachers and the policy was that their code-switches served various positive pedagogical functions. The point here is that it might be hard to apply the policy of 100% English since, as the teachers in the present study admitted, it would be the teachers to break the rule first because of the various reasons discussed above. This is in line with Le (2014) to the extent that a policy of 100% English is unrealistic for EFL teachers in Vietnam universities.

7.2.2 “English and Vietnamese use” policy: Teachers’ wishes and needs

All the teachers reported on the unavailability of official language policy or guidance concerning which language was to be used in the classroom for the teachers of English within their university. When asked what helped teachers to decide which language to use in many situations in their classes, all the teachers stated that it was their own beliefs that drove their use of either English or Vietnamese. Teacher 3 mentioned a general idea that teachers should use English as much as possible. She said she believed in that idea due to her teaching experience and her observation of her colleagues. “Teachers believed that this is good, that is not; so they do, but they do not have official policy or guidelines”, teacher 7 said. Teachers aimed to use English as much as possible. The use of as much English as possible, according to teacher 9, was based on the teacher’s assumption of her students’ ability in English, and the teacher’s ability in teaching English. That is, if she spoke English, her students could understand and give feedback, and so this proved this teacher’s high ability in English. Stressing the lack of an official classroom language policy and teachers’ belief as a driving force of their use of language in their classes, another teacher said:

Thế thì thực ra ấy chỉ là ở mức độ là góp ý về chuyên môn trong tổ thôi, còn về một tài liệu chính thống là yêu cầu, hoặc là quy định, hoặc là hướng dẫn là khi nào nên sử dụng tiếng Việt hoặc là chỉ sử dụng tiếng Anh thì là nói thật là đến thời điểm này là chưa có. Đa số chỉ dừng lại ở cái mức độ là nhận xét về chuyên môn.

When teachers gave comments on their colleagues, they had their own opinions, but not based on any official documents because there are no guidelines for them to see in which situations they should use Vietnamese, which situations they should avoid Vietnamese and use English. (Teacher 10)

Most of the teachers (i.e., 11/12) expressed a desire for official guidance as well as opportunities for them to improve their English language proficiency. For example, one teacher said:

Thì cần xây dựng một cái- cái gọi là gì nhỉ- cái quy định [Thống nhất], vâng, xem là giáo viên sẽ nên sử dụng tiếng Anh ở chỗ nào, chỗ nào tránh tiếng Việt. (...) Hi vọng tương lai sẽ là chị sẽ tổ chức một cái workshop cho bọn em.

There should be a...a what...an agreement, yes, for teachers to consider where English should be used and where Vietnamese should be avoided. (...) I wish in the future there will be more workshops held for teachers in my university. (Teacher 11)

Most of the teachers in the interviews approved of having official guidelines in regard to the use of language in the English classroom. They had the same opinion with regard to improving teaching practice. In addition, they all expressed their desire for an official language policy, and according to them, learning about this via workshops was a good method.

However, one teacher (T9) voiced the opposite opinion. She stated that it was not necessary to have an official language policy because she and her colleagues knew that they were using as much English as possible. Defending her opinion, this teacher said: “Those who devote their lives to their teaching career will still try to do well without having a policy or guideline”. This teacher, though not taking much consideration of the policy, provided various suggestions which were similar to other teachers’ in the interviews regarding how the guidance or policy should be applied. The teachers’ first suggestion was that the policy must be detailed and flexible to apply to different levels of students. “It is necessary to have guidance for teachers of English in Vietnam, but not just based on assumptions or the Western approach”, teacher 7 said.

The teachers’ second suggestion involved the way in which the policy would be communicated to them and their colleagues. Stressing this, 11 of the 12 teachers agreed that the best way was by issuing documents or via workshops for teachers. Two teachers held the view that the guidance should be added to the training programmes of future teachers. Two-thirds of the teachers considered the policy a long-term strategy. That is, the policy should be applied step by step. They mentioned consideration of when to apply such a policy, what kinds of students were needed, and what preparation was needed, i.e., the policy should be applied to lower levels of education, such as starting at primary school, and preparations for the policy were needed such as teacher training to improve their English and increase their confidence in using English. More than half of them (7/12) wanted a flexible policy if it was applied to their university. That is, the policy should be suitable for students of different English levels. Two teachers (T7 & T9) held the same view that the policy should be just guidance for teachers to consider, but should not be an obligation. In addition, two-thirds of the teachers (8/12) expressed their wishes in regard to the authorities’ approval of more investment in training and developing professionalism for teachers (e.g. providing more opportunities, time and money, for teacher professional development, more workshops for teachers, and more chances to improve their English and teaching skills).

7.3 Conclusion

Based on observations, it is evident that overall, teachers used more English than Vietnamese in their English instruction. My observations that teachers always prioritised the use of English in their classrooms were in line with both what the teachers and their students acknowledged. Teachers saw both the positive and negative side of their use of Vietnamese in English classes. It appeared that Vietnamese was indispensable in some situations for the teachers because of its significant role, for example, facilitating students' comprehension and helping both teachers and students feel more comfortable. However, as the teachers noted, overuse of Vietnamese could result in obstructing their students' learning of English. Furthermore, it could be a hindrance for teachers' own English-speaking practice. Factors affecting teachers' use of more or less English varied. The key factors included students' level of English, students' motivations, and teachers' emotions.

Regarding language policy for teachers, the "English-only" policy appeared to be less relevant to the teachers and their students in this study because of the many reasons stated by both the teachers and their students above. These teachers' and students' perspectives seemed to support Willans's (2011) viewpoint that in the language classroom it is not important which language is to be used, provided that it support L2 learning and acquisition. However, they also supported the idea of L2 maximisation in the view of authors such as Cajkler and Addelman (2000), Turnbull (2001), Turnbull and Arnette (2002), Stern (1992), and Willis (1996). In addition, even when the "English-only" policy could be applied to these teachers' university, it might be hard to have "code-switching police" who control teachers' code-switching. Teachers in general are encouraged to be aware of their use of both languages. A classroom language use policy for teachers can be practical only when it reflects their realities, i.e. their opinions, their practice and their wishes. Thus, language policy for the EFL teachers can be acceptable to the extent that it considers the use of both English and Vietnamese in the English classes, but not a policy that insists on EFL teachers using only English in their classrooms.

Chapter 8

CONCLUSION

8.0 Introduction

Teachers' code-switching in the language classroom is a common practice in most language teaching contexts world-wide as can be seen in studies such as Canagarajah (1995), Eftekhari (2001), Merritt et al. (1992), Raschka et al. (2009), Then and Ting (2011), Macaro (2014), and McLellan (2003, 2014). This practice is particularly common when the teacher is competent in students' first language or shares the first language with the students. Previous research has shown that teachers' code-switching occurs in various forms, from inserting a single word of a language into an utterance in another language to alternately producing utterances in different languages. In studies of classroom context, code-switching was found in almost all classroom situations, for example, managing the classroom, checking understanding, providing explanation, and socialising with students. It serves numerous functions, both instructional and social, and is driven by various factors such as classroom needs, students' language ability, and students' motivation.

The present study aimed to examine EFL teachers' practice as well as their beliefs in switching between English and Vietnamese in their classrooms in a Vietnamese setting. Particularly, it looked into the form of teachers' code-switches, the situations in which they code-switched, the functions their switches performed, the reasons why they switched in such situations, and how teachers' language use affected their students' use of languages. I framed the study within an ethnographic design, considering the EFL teaching staff in the selected university a cultural group, sharing certain professional beliefs and practices. To collect data, I observed the participants (12 Vietnamese EFL teachers) in their daily professional activities, focussing on their classroom teaching. I also interacted with them in the form of interviews to further understand their perspectives. I recorded each participant's classes, took fieldnotes, and interviewed one student of each participant as another source of information. Bottom-up data analysis was applied to the collected data, meaning that the themes, as presented and discussed in the thesis emerged from the data. The findings were presented and discussed in the four previous chapters (from Chapter 4 to Chapter 7).

This chapter consists of four main sections. The first section presents the contributions of the study to knowledge, both in practice and in theory, highlighting the key findings from the study. The second section provides suggestions and recommendations for EFL teachers and policy makers in regard to classroom language use. This section is followed by a description of the limitations of the present study, which helps to inform the content of the following section in terms of suggestions for further research to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study.

8.1 Summary of key findings

As presented in Chapters 4 to 7, the findings from the study were presented under categories related to the forms, situations, and functions of teachers' code-switching, as well as the reasons for their switches and the effect of teachers' language use on their students' language behaviour. The key findings are summarised in Table 8.1.

Firstly, concerning the forms in which the teachers' code-switching took, the study found that teachers' code-switching involved fillers/tags, parts of an utterance, whole utterances, marginal code-switching, and borrowing. Particularly, a new form of code-switching which has not yet been reported in other studies and which is distinctive among Vietnamese EFL teachers was found in my study. I tentatively term it marginal code-switching, and, as discussed in Chapter 4, this form needs to be confirmed by further research. In this form, teachers used Vietnamese fillers (e.g., “*À*” (Ah), “*Ờ*” (Er)) or an English interjection, i.e. Okay, when they started an utterance, and then immediately switched to English (if they used a Vietnamese filler), or Vietnamese (if they used “Okay”) for the remainder of the utterance. In marginal code-switching, teachers' switches were not Vietnamese fillers or English interjections, but instead, the switches were the whole utterances in English or Vietnamese that followed these fillers or interjections. Thus this form is different from and should be distinguished from tag switching in which the switches are fillers or interjections themselves.

Secondly, teachers switched in two main categories of situations: providing content-related instruction (on English grammatical rules, vocabulary or pronunciation) and managing the classroom process. Teachers' code-switching when giving instruction of classroom process included managing instruction (by a number of activities) and managing the classroom (e.g., dealing with classroom routines).

Table 8.1 Summary of findings

<i>Code-switching forms</i>	Fillers/Tags Parts of utterance Whole utterances Marginal Borrowing
<i>Code-switching situations</i>	Teaching content (language teaching units) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vocabulary - English grammar - English pronunciation Classroom process <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Instruction management (e.g., joking, introducing tasks, checking understanding/readiness, commenting, exemplifying) - Classroom management (e.g., starting/finishing lessons, dealing with individual students, arranging seats)
<i>Code-switching functions</i>	Instructional functions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Quoting - Retaining English proper nouns - Modelling English pronunciation - Repeating and reformulating/modifying - Shifting actions/tasks Social functions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Building good rapport with students - Showing shifts in attitudes towards students
<i>Factors leading to code-switching</i>	Factors related to teachers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classroom-related factors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Linguistic needs + Others - Teachers' personal factors - Environmental & curricular factors - Teachers' past education and habitual practice Factors related to students <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students' ability in English - Students' motivation
<i>Teachers' code-switching and students' language behaviour</i>	Reciprocation Non-reciprocation Unfinished English response No response
<i>Classroom language policy and practice</i>	Teachers' classroom language: more English use No policy Approval of English-Vietnamese policy

Thirdly, in the above situations, teachers' code-switching served numerous functions which could be categorised under instructional functions and social functions. Instructional functions included quoting, modelling English pronunciation, repeating and reformulating or modifying information, shifting action or task, and self-correcting or hesitating. It should be noted that most of the teachers were observed to repeat in another language what they had just said, in many cases, with some reformulation or modification of the information they had just given. That is, they reiterated the information in another language by, for example, simplifying, expanding or further specifying the information. The social functions of teachers' code-switching included establishing good rapport with student and showing a shift in attitudes towards students.

Fourthly, in relation to the factors which lead to teachers' code-switching, it was found that teachers code-switched for reasons which related both to themselves and to their students. Teacher-related factors included classroom-related needs (i.e., teachers' linguistic needs, students' comprehension facilitation, or other classroom needs such as making sure of students' understanding), teachers' personal issues, environmental and curriculum factors and teachers' own past education. In terms of factors related to students, teachers practised code-switching because of what they perceived as their students' poor ability in English and lack of motivation to learn English. All these factors could be described as pedagogical reasons (Makulloluma, 2013; Wu, 2013). However, numerous instances of their switching appeared to be unconscious and habitual or automatic, which is similar to what Le (2014) found in a study in a Vietnamese university. For example, they unnecessarily translated into Vietnamese what they had just said in English, though what they said in English seemed to be simple and easy for their students to understand without Vietnamese.

The fifth finding concerns the effect of teachers' choice of languages on their students' language behaviour in using English or Vietnamese or both in their responses. There did not seem to be a relationship between teachers' code-switching and students' language behaviour. Instead, there were other reasons which caused students to display different types of language behaviour. These included teachers' question types, students' habitual practice, students' not being ready to answer, and students' lack of motivation to speak English. In addition, the level of difficulty and complexity of teachers' questions did not seem to affect students' non-reciprocation of teachers' language choice, as found in, for example Liu et al.'s (2004) and Xu's (2010) studies. Contrary to this, in my study when teachers asked their students questions which were difficult in English or in both

English and Vietnamese, students either responded in one language, English (not Vietnamese), but did not finish their response, or they remained silent (producing no response).

Finally, concerning classroom language policy, the study found that although teachers code-switched continually in their instruction, it was observed that they used much more English than Vietnamese in their English classrooms (around 77% English compared to 23% Vietnamese on average). This distribution could mean that Vietnamese teachers seemed to optimise their use of languages (Macaro, 2014), acknowledging of the value of Vietnamese in their classroom teaching and using more English. Furthermore, teachers wanted to have a policy of using both English and Vietnamese, rather than an “English only” policy for numerous reasons, for example, students’ perceived poor and uneven ability in English, students’ previous learning or the lack of an environment for practising English.

8.2 Implications

The findings of the present study may serve as sources of information on classroom language use and, particularly, code-switching for language teachers, both pre-service and in-service, and for language teacher developers and policy makers in Vietnam, as well as in other countries which have a similar socio-cultural context.

8.2.1 Recommendations for language teachers

For teachers of English within the university as well as in other universities in Vietnam, it is useful to be aware of their code-switching behaviour as a common practice in the EFL classroom. When teachers are aware of the positive as well as the negative functions of their switching, they can consider in what situations they should use only English and not switch to Vietnamese. They also have an opportunity to be reflective about their teaching experience. That is, teachers could gain insight into their code-switching based on the present findings about the reasons why they code-switch. Teachers may find it useful to see why students have different language behaviours, in particular silence in their English classrooms. Furthermore, the findings may suggest that teachers consider doing a placement test of their students’ English ability. This test could help teachers to better determine their students’ level of English rather than just being based on their assumption about students’ English proficiency. Teachers can, thus, apply more appropriate teaching methodology in order to motivate their students’

EFL learning. Concerning students' perceived language proficiency, I would urge teachers, instead of taking the "maximal position", to adopt the "optimal position" in Macaro's (2014) framework. That is, instead of treating students' poor ability in English as the key reason for their use of the first language, teachers should generally consider both the advantages and disadvantages of code-switching so that their use of the first language can facilitate their teaching and students' learning of English.

It is obvious that the policy of "English-only use" is not suitable for these teachers' university. However, the teachers were eager to have an official policy for using both English and Vietnamese in their classes. Numerous suggestions have been made by authors on using both the L1 and L2 in the FL classroom by teachers elsewhere around the world. Such suggestions involve code-switching used as teachers' teaching strategies (Brice & Roseberry-McKibbin, 2001) in which they are encouraged to use the first language in every situation in the classroom, for example dealing with English grammar, English vocabulary, English pronunciation and instruction management. If so, it will not be necessary to avoid the first language. This might result in teachers' excessive use of the first language. Therefore, a number of other authors have argued that teachers should be encouraged to maximise the use of the SL/FL and minimise their use of the first language (V. Cook, 2001, 2002, 2008; Polio & Duff, 1994; J. Willis, 1996). However, how much of the second and the first language is the right proportion seems to be difficult to determine. Teachers were found to switch in various situations and their switches served a great number of functions in the present study. However, the language use of teacher 7, who used up to 99.7% English and seldom code-switched in his recorded classes, might have its own advantages and disadvantages for his teaching. His nearly 100% English proportion could help to maximise the exposure of his students to English. However, it might be challenging for some of them in terms of comprehension (especially when students are not tested to determine their level of English before being placed in different EFL classrooms). I consider teachers' switching for pedagogical reasons as having positive functions, and their switching for habitual reasons as having mainly negative functions. Accordingly, many of their switches are to be encouraged and many others are not. Recommendations concerning the situations and the functions of the teachers' switches are provided below.

Regarding instruction of teaching content, teachers could be free to use both languages in this phase, for example, when teachers insert a Vietnamese word or phrase into their English utterance to ask for the English equivalent (see Example 4.29) "What is xăng

dầu in English?” (What is petrol in English?). Another example of when teachers can use both languages is when they explain the meaning of vocabulary. Teachers may use translation between the two languages because it will save time for them and be clear to students. However, I suggest that teachers avoid giving their translation excessively, e.g. of the meaning of target words. Instead, they can use other ways of explaining the word or use synonyms in the FL as a priority where possible, or try to elicit a word’s meaning from students before giving, if necessary, the Vietnamese translation. In the present study, teachers tended to employ Vietnamese and it seemed that using the first language was indispensable for them to deal with FL language grammar and pronunciation. Again, taking advantage of using the FL in a simple way is a good choice.

In terms of classroom process, teachers’ instruction consists of their instruction management, i.e. how they give instruction on the content (e.g., language units), and classroom management, i.e. how they deal with classroom routines or disciplines (e.g., introducing visitors to class, dealing with individual students coming late, or arranging seats for students). Various activities in regard to teachers’ instruction management were discussed in Chapter 4. Of those activities, joking was the only one where I would completely encourage teachers’ use of both languages. The reason is the humour brought by using the first language might not be the same in the FL in certain situations and vice versa, as humour often does not cross cultural boundaries (see Example 4.35, 5.25, 5.26, and 5.27). In all these examples, teachers used both English and Vietnamese. Their switching performed a positive function, joking with students and establishing good rapport with them.

However, teachers should be discouraged from using both languages in several other classroom activities, instead, using only English. Consider example 4.39 (see Chapter 4), the teacher could be expected to confirm her explanation in English, instead of saying “Okay, *lái xe*” because the word “*lái xe*” (drive) was not difficult for the students to understand, and had been introduced previously.

Over-translation of instruction into Vietnamese should not be encouraged except for some cases, e.g. emphasising instruction or explaining complicated concepts, or rules or information. The reason is that teachers’ repetition through translation may result in students’ heavy dependence on their teachers’ use of Vietnamese, and this does not help to expose students to as much English as possible. Students are not likely to feel that

they are in an English classroom environment if there is always translation into Vietnamese. In addition, teachers' over-translation into Vietnamese may lead to student boredom, and demotivate them to learn English.

English-only use can be encouraged for teachers when they deal with classroom routines. This is because the teachers' instructions on classroom routines are used regularly and repeatedly by the teachers and are thus very familiar to students. A number of examples are provided above regarding teachers' code-switching in this situation, but their code-switching here could be avoided. For example, the teacher in Example 4.44 (see Chapter 4) code-switched when she was arranging seats for students "Yes, sit down please. *Các bạn* move up" (You move up here). Her use of Vietnamese is not necessary. Instead, she could speak in English and show which seats she wants her student to move to because her students could easily understand her instruction.

In summary, I believe that being aware of both the advantages and disadvantages of the phenomenon of classroom code-switching will benefit language teachers and students in the Vietnamese EFL context in particular and other similar language education contexts in general.

8.2.2 Recommendations for language teacher developers and policy makers

The findings from the study can also be useful for language teacher developers in relation to teacher professional development. That is, recommendations can be applied to in-service teachers at universities as well as other levels of education, such as primary schools or high schools, to discuss, for example, in annual workshops, seminars or training courses for teachers of English. Samples of authentic situations from the recordings where teachers code-switched can be used to help teachers discuss and identify the functions of code-switching, as well as the reasons why they code-switched in particular situations, and whether this switching was actually necessary.

Based on their discussions of these issues, teachers can become more aware of what they need to do so that their code-switching, instead of being a signal of deficiency in using English, or becoming a habitual practice that hinders their students' learning, becomes a valuable tool for their English teaching and their students' learning. Teacher developers need to increase teachers' awareness of code-switching that could be used pedagogically, and that habitual code-switching should be generally avoided.

It would be useful for language policy makers in Vietnam to consider both English and Vietnamese use in issuing a particular document regarding an official classroom language policy for EFL teachers at different levels of education in Vietnam. In order to have such a policy, it is necessary to note that teachers should be consulted, because, as reviewed in Chapter 2 and presented in Chapters 6 and 7, it is teachers who are the important factor in classroom language use and the practice of code-switching. Teachers in the present study practised their own classroom language policy, based on their personal beliefs. Thus, from the findings of the study, I recommend that policy makers should first take into consideration the maximal and optimal positions of target language use in the classroom (Macaro, 2014). Then they should be in a two-way communication with educational institutions and, particularly, classroom language teachers (as well as students) to understand their perspectives on this issue.

8.3 Limitations

The present study had four main limitations which relate to longitudinal observation, multiple sources of information, transferability of the findings, and students' speech.

Firstly, though ethnographic study traditionally consists of longitudinal observations (Creswell, 2007), I managed to observe each participant twice only in their classroom teaching (in two classes with the same students). Thus, the data collected from these observations (as well as the class recordings) might not provide the very detailed information that more longitudinal observations would.

Secondly, the study involved EFL teachers and their students as participants with different forms of data collected (classroom observations, classroom recordings, interviews, and field notes). However, other sources of information, for example from university or school management and education authorities, could have helped to generate a better understanding of the targeted group. Specifically, such further sources could have provided more information on the issue of classroom language policy (e.g., other stake holders' perspectives and policy-making process).

Thirdly, because the study examined a group in a single socio-cultural context, i.e., EFL teachers in one Vietnamese university, it generates specifically local knowledge. However, the findings from this study might be communicated and transferred to other language teaching education contexts that are similar to the one in this study (e.g., EFL teaching at the secondary level in Vietnam and in other Vietnamese universities).

Finally, because of the ethical constraints on conducting this study, I was not allowed to transcribe and analyse students' detailed speech in the recorded classes, except for notes taken on their language of their responses. Therefore, I could not present and discuss the data related to students' language behaviour in detail. This explains why in Chapter 6, the analysis of the effect of teachers' language use on students' language behaviour was limited to how students responded to their teachers and which language(s) they used in their responses.

8.4 Further research

There are four suggestions for further research that have emerged from the present study concerning teachers' code-switching practice. Firstly, in the interviews, both teachers and their students acknowledged their code-switching, their own belief about their practice, and their view on the use of both English and Vietnamese in their English classrooms. However, there was still a gap in the present study: the educational authorities' voice. Therefore, further research could involve seeking input from educational authorities about the language policy for EFL teachers. Particular studies involving these authorities could focus on their view of the current policy making process, their role in this process, as well as on their perspective on teachers' classroom language use.

Secondly, there were numerous instances where teachers seemed to code-switch just because this was their habitual practice, but not because it was necessary. For example, many teachers spontaneously translated whatever they had just said in English into Vietnamese though in many cases this translation did not seem to benefit the students' learning. This practice might be the result of their past English education and teaching experience. The teachers' pattern in this study was also partly formed due to their students' ingrained way of learning, which was developed in lower levels of education (i.e., students' primary and tertiary education). This suggests that further research needs to investigate teachers' use of language in their English classes and educational authorities' perspective on teachers' use of language at the lower levels of education.

Thirdly, as presented and discussed in Chapter 7, the interviewed students held two different views regarding their teachers' use of languages and code-switching practice. Half of the students were satisfied with their teachers' current levels of use of the two languages, while others felt that they were not satisfied, wanting their teachers to use

more English in the classroom. However, the present study has not explored in detail how students perceived, for example, the situations and functions of their teachers' code-switching practice in the classroom. Therefore, further research could be conducted into students' beliefs about teachers' code-switching as well as how they, as stake holders in language education, could contribute to the development of a particular classroom language policy.

Finally, as presented in Chapter 4, many of the teachers' switches were categorised as marginal switching. However, this form of code-switching still needs confirmation from other studies. Future research studies may replicate the present study to look for further evidence of this form. For example, a study could be conducted in a different context such as secondary school EFL teaching, or similar context in another Vietnamese university. Studies that follow up this finding could also be carried out in language teaching contexts other than Vietnam.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethics Approval



M E M O R A N D U M

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

To: Allan Bell
From: **Dr Rosemary Godbold** Executive Secretary, AUTEC
Date: 18 November 2011
Subject: Ethics Application Number 11/192 **A study of EFL teachers' code-switching in classroom instruction in Vietnamese Universities.**

Dear Allan

Thank you for providing written evidence as requested. I am pleased to advise that it satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) at their meeting on 8 August 2011 and I have approved your ethics application. This delegated approval is made in accordance with section 5.3.2.3 of AUTEC's *Applying for Ethics Approval: Guidelines and Procedures* and is subject to endorsement at AUTEC's meeting on 12 December 2011.

Your ethics application is approved for a period of three years until 17 November 2014.

I advise that as part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to AUTEC:

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics>. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 17 November 2014;
- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics>. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 17 November 2014 or on completion of the project, whichever comes sooner;

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are reminded that, as applicant, you are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

Please note that AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to make the arrangements necessary to obtain this. Also, if your research is undertaken within a jurisdiction outside New Zealand, you will need to make the arrangements necessary to meet the legal and ethical requirements that apply within that jurisdiction.

When communicating with us about this application, we ask that you use the application number and study title to enable us to provide you with prompt service. Should you have any further enquiries regarding this matter, you are welcome to contact me by email at ethics@aut.ac.nz or by telephone on 921 9999 at extension 6902.

On behalf of AUTECH and myself, I wish you success with your research and look forward to reading about it in your reports.

Yours sincerely

Dr Rosemary Godbold

Executive Secretary

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: Thi Hang Nguyen knf6543@aut.ac.nz

Appendix 2a: Participant information sheet for teachers

Participant information sheet *For teachers* (English version)



Date Information Sheet Produced: July 25th 2011

Project title: Vietnamese University EFL Teachers' Code-Switching in Classroom Instruction

An Invitation

My name is Thi Hang Nguyen, a PhD student of Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand. I am conducting this research for the thesis for a doctoral degree. I would like to invite you to participate in the project. Your participation in this research is voluntary. If you do not want to be involved in the project, you do not have to and you can withdraw from the project at any time without adverse consequences.

What is the purpose of this research?

This research aims at gaining an understanding of the alternation of languages (Vietnamese and English) by university English teachers in classroom instruction: when this occurs, and what functions it serves in classroom instruction. The research's purpose is neither to assess nor criticise teachers' practice of this form of language alternation. This research project will be the fulfilment of my PhD Thesis, and the findings from this research will also be presented at seminars and conferences, as well as in academic publications (e.g., books, articles, and book chapters) during and after the write-up phase of the project, and after I have completed my PhD programme.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You were identified as your name, as a general rule of publishing names of all teachers within your university, your teaching start date, your telephone and email contacts, have appeared in the "teachers' name list" of your university's website. You were also invited to participate in the project because you have met the project criteria of gender and teaching experience (by year). However, your participation is voluntary and you can decide not to volunteer, or to withdraw from the project at any time prior to the completion of data collection phase.

What will happen in this research?

This project involves classroom observations and interviews with English teachers. Therefore, I wish to observe two of your English classes, and interview you (for approximately 60 minutes) about the issues of your teaching practices, not about other things related to your career or your personal matters. I will also audio-record and take notes during my observations of your teaching and interviews with you, as well as transcribe the interviews and observed classes. I will sit at the back of the classroom while observing you teaching, and not involve myself in your lessons, or do anything that affects your teaching practices. You may decide both when and where it is appropriate for you to be observed and which two of your classes you want me to observe, as well as when you are ready for the interview. You will also need to spend about half an hour to check whether the transcribed information from the recordings is accurate.

What are the discomforts and risks?

There should be no discomforts and risks because I, the researcher, will come to your classes for observing your teaching English practices, not to criticise or observe other things concerning your career. Furthermore, the interviews are only about code-switching practices (that is, your alternation use of English and Vietnamese in giving instruction) related to your English teaching, not about other things such as personal matters. The transcriptions will be returned to you after the interview. At this stage, you can object to, or correct, what was recorded. Any data that you object to will not be used for the development of the project.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

Because I am also a Vietnamese EFL teacher at this university and I also switch between English and Vietnamese, I am hoping you will also find this interesting. As a teacher, I know what it is like to be observed. If you want me to stop the observation or recording at any time, you can tell me and I will stop. But I hope that, like me, you are interested in this phenomenon and will be happy to participate in the project, and feel comfortable during the project.

What are the benefits?

The benefits of the project are firstly to the teachers of English within the university. The findings will raise our, the EFL teachers', awareness of the alternation of languages used in teaching EFL. Teachers of English in other universities may also be interested in the findings of the project as the issues are related to their teaching profession. To a larger extent, it is believed that the study will give suggestions, e.g., via workshops, about using languages (English and Vietnamese) in EFL classes to teachers and educators, making certain contributions to English teaching and learning at the tertiary level of education.

How will my privacy be protected?

Your information you share with me will be confidential, unless you ask me, the researcher, to reveal it to others. I, the researcher myself, will transcribe the interviews and use codes (initial letters and number) instead of your name for analysing the data. The transcribed data and the recording will be kept for six years in locked storage at AUT University in New Zealand, and in my house in Vietnam after my PhD completion.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The only cost of participating in the project is your time: your class time for me to observe (100 minutes) and for interviews (around 100 minutes: 60 minutes for the interview, about 30 minutes when I come back to you for your checking or correcting my understandings of the interview, and 10 minutes to discuss arrangements for my observations of your classes as well as the time and location of the interview).

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

You will have a week from the time I ask you to consider participating in the project. If you need more time, you can have more time.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

You will need to sign a Consent Form (after having had the project explained, and time to read the Participant Information sheet) which I, the researcher, will bring to you before the class observation is performed and the interview is conducted.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

Yes. The transcription of teaching and the interview will be returned to you for checking to see if anything needs to be corrected. If you are interested in the research results, I will provide you

a copy of the summary of the research findings. However, the research findings will not be reported back to your university.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisors:

Professor Allan Bell

Director of Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication (ICDC), AUT University, New Zealand, WT 1110

Email: allan.bell@aut.ac.nz

Tel number: 64-9-921-9683

Private bag: 92006, Auckland 1142

Dr. Lynn Grant

Email: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz

Tel number: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

And the researcher: Thi Hang Nguyen

Email: hangtnu@yahoo.com

Tel number: 64-0220657178, or 84-984505097

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary, AUTECH:

Rosemary Godbold

Email: ethics@aut.ac.nz

Tel: 64-921 9999 ext 6902.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Thi Hang Nguyen, PhD student, room WT1107, Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication, Faculty of Applied Humanities, Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand.

Email: knf6543@aut.ac.nz, or hangtnu@yahoo.com

Tel number: 84-984505097, or 64-0220657178

Researcher Contact Details:

Thi Hang Nguyen, PhD student, room WT1107, Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication, Faculty of Applied Humanities, Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand.

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Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Professor Allan Bell

Director of Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication (ICDC), AUT University, New Zealand, WT 1110,

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Dr. Lynn Grant

Email: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz ; Tel number: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

Thông tin
Dành Cho Giáo viên Tham Gia Công trình Nghiên cứu
(Vietnamese version)



Thông tin được hoàn thành ngày 25 tháng 7 năm 2011

Tên đề án: Chuyển mã Ngôn ngữ Trong Giảng dạy Tiếng Anh Như Một Ngoại ngữ Của Giáo viên Đại học ở Việt Nam.

Lời mời tham gia

Tôi là Nguyễn Thị Hằng, hiện là nghiên cứu sinh ngành ngôn ngữ của khoa Nhân văn Ứng dụng Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand. Nghiên cứu này của tôi là việc hoàn thiện luận án Tiến sĩ. Tôi mong muốn có được sự chấp nhận của Thầy/Cô tham gia vào đề án nghiên cứu này của tôi. Việc tham gia của Thầy/Cô vào đề án là tự nguyện. Nếu Thầy/Cô không sẵn lòng tham gia, sẽ không có bất kỳ sự bắt buộc nào. Trong quá trình tham gia, Thầy/Cô có thể rút khỏi

Mục đích của nghiên cứu này là gì?

Nghiên cứu nhằm mục đích tìm hiểu hiện tượng chuyển mã ngôn ngữ trong lớp học ngoại ngữ của giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh tại trường Đại học ở Việt Nam. Nghiên cứu cũng đồng thời tìm hiểu chức năng của hiện tượng này trong việc dạy tiếng Anh ở trường đại học, và việc áp dụng như thế nào vào dạy học ngoại ngữ. Các nguồn thông tin sẽ được thu thập thông qua việc dự giờ quan sát hoạt động dạy học của Thầy/Cô kèm theo phỏng vấn. Người nghiên cứu sẽ là người duy nhất được sử dụng nguồn dữ liệu này cho luận văn tốt nghiệp, và có thể dùng để viết báo cũng như các xuất bản khác.

Thầy/Cô được biết đến như thế nào và tại sao Thầy/Cô được mời tham gia nghiên cứu?

Thầy/Cô được biết đến thông qua quy định của Trường về việc công khai danh sách, địa chỉ email, số điện thoại của giáo viên trên hệ thống mạng của toàn đại học. Thầy/Cô được mời tham gia vào nghiên cứu do đáp ứng các tiêu chí của thông số về giới tính và năm kinh nghiệm công tác. Như đã nói đến ở trên, việc tham gia của Thầy/Cô là hoàn toàn tự nguyện.

Thầy/Cô sẽ làm gì trong nghiên cứu này?

Thầy/Cô sẽ quyết định lớp để người nghiên cứu đến dự giờ (người dự sẽ ghi chép và ghi âm), thời gian và địa điểm rồi thông báo cho người nghiên cứu các thông tin đó.

Thầy/Cô tham gia phỏng vấn sẽ trả lời các câu hỏi. Thời gian Thầy/Cô giành cho việc phỏng vấn khoảng sáu mươi (60) phút. Trong khi phỏng vấn, Thầy/Cô sẽ được ghi âm. Việc ghi âm là để giúp người nghiên cứu không bị sót thông tin khi không ghi chép kịp. Thầy/Cô có quyền quyết định địa điểm và thời gian phỏng vấn.

Bất tiện và rủi ro có thể gặp là gì?

Không có bất tiện hay rủi ro nào có thể xảy ra vì tôi, người nghiên cứu, sẽ chỉ đến lớp học của Thầy/Cô để quan sát hoạt động dạy học, không nhằm mục đích phê phán hay theo dõi các hoạt động khác liên quan đến nghề nghiệp của Thầy/Cô. Hơn nữa, người nghiên cứu chỉ phỏng vấn Thầy/Cô vấn đề liên quan đến việc dạy học Tiếng Anh, không phỏng vấn các vấn đề mang tính riêng tư, cá nhân. Bản ghi lại nội dung phỏng vấn sẽ được gửi đến Thầy/Cô sau khi phỏng vấn khi người nghiên cứu đã sao chép ra. Khi đó, Thầy/Cô có thể sửa lại hoặc không tán thành nội dung phỏng vấn đã được ghi lại. Những phần ghi âm lại mà Thầy/Cô không tán thành sẽ không được phép sử dụng tiếp cho nghiên cứu này.

Những bất tiện và rủi ro sẽ được hạn chế như thế nào?

Bản thân tôi cũng là giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh ở trường Đại học và tôi cũng chuyển mã ngôn ngữ, từ Tiếng Anh sang Tiếng Việt hoặc ngược lại, nên tôi rất hy vọng Thầy/Cô quan tâm tìm hiểu về hiện tượng này: khi nào chúng ta thực hiện việc chuyển mã, tại sao chúng ta chuyển mã, các loại chuyển mã đó là gì. Với tư cách là một đồng nghiệp của Thầy/Cô, tôi hiểu tâm lý của Thầy/Cô khi có người khác đến dự giờ. Trong trường hợp Thầy/Cô muốn dừng việc dự và ghi âm, Thầy/Cô có thể yêu cầu người dự giờ, và khi đó, người nghiên cứu sẽ dừng việc dự giờ. Tuy vậy, tôi hy vọng rằng, cũng giống như tôi, Thầy/Cô cũng quan tâm đến hiện tượng này, và sẽ thấy thoải mái, hứng thú khi tham gia vào nghiên cứu này.

Những lợi ích là gì?

Lợi ích của đề án này trước hết thuộc về các Thầy/Cô dạy Tiếng Anh trong trường. Kết quả nghiên cứu sẽ giúp Thầy/Cô hiểu rõ việc lựa chọn ngôn ngữ trong giảng dạy Tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ trong lớp học. Ngoài ra, Thầy/Cô dạy Tiếng Anh ở các trường Đại học khác cũng có thể quan tâm đến kết quả nghiên cứu liên quan đến hoạt động dạy học của mình. Hơn nữa, tôi tin rằng, nghiên cứu sẽ đưa ra những gợi ý tích cực cho những người làm công tác giáo dục, các cấp quản lý trong trường Đại học về việc sử dụng tiếng mẹ đẻ (Tiếng Việt) trong lớp học Tiếng Anh, đóng góp một phần nhỏ trong việc nâng cao chất lượng dạy và học ngoại ngữ ở bậc đại học.

Vấn đề cá nhân của Thầy/Cô được bảo vệ như thế nào?

Tên của Thầy/Cô sẽ được bảo mật, trừ phi Thầy/Cô yêu cầu người nghiên cứu tiết lộ cho người khác. Tôi, người nghiên cứu, là người duy nhất sao chép, gõ băng nội dung phỏng vấn, và tôi sẽ dùng mã ký hiệu khi phân tích. Toàn bộ dữ liệu sẽ được bảo mật ở tại một khu riêng biệt của trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand.

Thời gian Thầy/Cô dành cho nghiên cứu là bao nhiêu?

Thầy/Cô dành khoảng một giờ cho phỏng vấn và nửa giờ cho việc kiểm lại nội dung bản gõ băng.

Thời gian để Thầy/Cô quyết định tham gia đề án là bao nhiêu?

Thầy/Cô sẽ có một tuần kể từ khi có lời mời tham gia của người nghiên cứu. Nếu Thầy/Cô cần thêm thời gian để cân nhắc, Thầy/Cô có thể trả lời sau hơn một tuần.

Thầy/Cô đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu bằng cách nào?

Thầy/Cô sẽ cần phải ký vào bản Đồng ý tham gia (mẫu do người nghiên cứu cung cấp). Sau khi Thầy/Cô đã xem kỹ thông tin về nghiên cứu, tôi sẽ mang mẫu đồng ý để Thầy/Cô ký trước khi dự giờ và phỏng vấn tiến hành.

Thầy/Cô có được nhận bản tóm tắt kết quả nghiên cứu này?

Bản gõ băng nội dung dạy và phỏng vấn sẽ được gửi lại để Thầy/Cô kiểm tra xem đã chính xác chưa và có cần bổ xung hay sửa chữa không.

Thầy/Cô làm gì nếu quan tâm hơn nữa về nghiên cứu này?

Thầy/Cô quan tâm đến bất kỳ vấn đề gì trong nghiên cứu này, xin hãy liên hệ với những người hướng dẫn nghiên cứu:

Giáo sư Allan Bell

Giám đốc Viện Nghiên cứu Văn hóa, Diễn ngôn và Giao tiếp, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, phòng WT1110

Địa chỉ: allan.bell.@aut.ac.nz

Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9683
Hòm thư riêng: 92006, Auckland 1142

Tiến sỹ Lynn Grant
Địa chỉ: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz
Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

Và người nghiên cứu:
Nguyễn Thị Hằng
Địa chỉ: hangtnu@yahoo.com
Số điện thoại: 64-0220657178, hoặc 84-984505097

Ngoài ra, Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ với Thư ký chuyên trách của Hội đồng đạo đức nghiên cứu Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland:

Rosemary Godbold
Địa chỉ: ethics@aut.ac.nz
Số điện thoại: 64-921 9999 ext 6902.

Thầy/Cô cần liên lạc với ai để biết thêm thông tin về nghiên cứu này?

Nguyễn Thị Hằng, Nghiên cứu sinh, phòng WT1107, Viện nghiên cứu Văn hóa, Diễn ngôn và Giao tiếp, Khoa Nhân văn Ứng dụng, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand
Địa chỉ: knf6543@aut.ac.nz , hoặc hangtnu@yahoo.com
Số điện thoại: 84-984505097 hoặc 64-0220657178
Địa chỉ liên lạc chi tiết của người nghiên cứu
Nguyễn Thị Hằng, Nghiên cứu sinh, phòng WT1107, Viện nghiên cứu Văn hóa, Diễn ngôn và Giao tiếp, Khoa Nhân văn Ứng dụng, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand
Địa chỉ: knf6543@aut.ac.nz , hoặc hangtnu@yahoo.com
Số điện thoại: 64-0220657178 84, hoặc 84-984505097

Địa chỉ liên lạc chi tiết của giám sát nghiên cứu

Giáo sư Allan Bell
Giám đốc Viện Nghiên cứu Văn hóa, Diễn ngôn và Giao tiếp, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, phòng WT1110
Địa chỉ: allan.bell@aut.ac.nz ; Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9683
Hòm thư riêng: 92006, Auckland 1142

Tiến sỹ Lynn Grant
Địa chỉ: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz ; Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

Appendix 2b: Participant Information Sheet for students

Participant Information Sheet *For students* (English version)



Date Information Sheet Produced: July 25th 2011

Project title: Vietnamese University EFL Teachers' Code-Switching in Classroom Instruction

An Invitation

My name is Thi Hang Nguyen, a PhD student of Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand. I am conducting this research as my fulfilment of the thesis for a doctoral degree. I would like to invite you to participate in the project.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. If you do not want to be involved in the project, you do not have to and you can withdraw from the project at any time without adverse consequences.

What is the purpose of this research?

This research aims at gaining an understanding of the alternation of languages (Vietnamese and English) by the English teachers in classroom instruction: when this occurs, and what functions it serves in classroom instruction. The research's purpose is neither to assess nor criticize teachers' practice of this form of language alternation.

This research project will be the fulfilment of my PhD Thesis, and the findings from this research will also be presented at seminars and conferences, as well as in academic publications (books, articles, book chapters, etc.,) during and after the write-up phase of the project, and after I have completed my PhD programme.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You are identified as your teacher is teaching English in your class. You were also invited to participate in the project because you have met the project criteria of age and your level of English. However, your participation is voluntary and you can decide not to volunteer, or to withdraw from the project at any time prior to the completion of the data collection phase.

What will happen in this research?

This project involves classroom observations of and interviews teachers' teaching practices. Therefore, I will observe your teachers' teaching practices and interview them. In addition, I will also interview you about the language you use to respond to your teachers as well as your opinions/wish of your teachers' use of language, not other things related to your learning and personal matters. The interview will be only around 20 minutes. During my interviews with you, I will record and take notes.

You may decide both when and where it is appropriate for you to be ready for the interview. You will also need to spend about 10 minutes to check whether the transcribed information from the recordings is accurate.

What are the discomforts and risks?

There should be no discomforts and risks because I, the researcher, will only interview you about the language your teachers use in classroom instruction and the language you use to respond to them as well as your preference of their teachers' use of language, but not about other things, e.g., related to your learning and personal matters. My interviews with you are to criticize neither your teacher nor you, rather for an understanding of your teachers' and your alternation of language in the classroom.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

I will come to you to discuss with you the time and location for interviewing after you accept to be involved in the interview. The transcriptions will be returned to you after each interview. At this stage, you can object to, or correct, what was recorded. Any data that you object to will not be used for the development of the project.

What are the benefits?

The benefits of the project are firstly to the teachers of English within the university. The findings will help to gain the university EFL teachers an understanding of the alternation of languages used in teaching EFL. Teachers of English in other universities may also be interested in the findings of the project as the issues are related to their teaching profession. To a larger extent, it is believed that the study will give suggestions about using Vietnamese and English in EFL classes to educators and universities' management, making certain contributions to English teaching and learning at the tertiary level of education.

How will my privacy be protected?

Your information you share with me i.e., the language (English or Vietnamese) you use to respond your teacher and your opinions/wishes about your teachers' use of languages in classroom instruction will be confidential, unless you ask me, the researcher, to reveal it to others. I, the researcher myself, will transcribe the interviews and use codes (initial letters and number) instead of your class name for analyzing the data. You will also not need to let me know your name. The transcribed data and the recording will be kept for six years in locked storage at AUT University in New Zealand, and in my house in Vietnam after my PhD completion.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The only cost of participating in the project is your time spent on reading the information of this project, around 20 minutes you spend on the interview, and 10 minutes on checking the transcript of the interview to see whether you need correct what I have transcribed.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

You will have a week to consider the invitation in the project. If you need more time, you can have more time.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

You will need to sign a Consent Form (after having had the project explained, and time to read the Participant Information sheet) which I, the researcher, will bring to you before the interview is performed.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

No. The transcription of the interview will be returned to you for checking to see if anything needs to be corrected. However, the research findings will not be reported back to you or your university.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisors:

Professor Allan Bell
Director of Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication (ICDC), AUT University, New Zealand, WT 1110
Email: allan.bell@aut.ac.nz
Tel number: 64-9-921-9683
Private bag: 92006, Auckland 1142

Dr. Lynn Grant
Email: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz
Tel number: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

And the researcher:
Thi Hang Nguyen (hangtnu@yahoo.com)
Tel number: 64-0220657178, or 84-984505097

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary, AUTECH:
Rosemary Godbold
Email: ethics@aut.ac.nz
Tel: 64-921 9999 ext 6902.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Thi Hang Nguyen, PhD student, room WT1107, Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication, Faculty of Applied Humanities, Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand.
Email address: knf6543@aut.ac.nz, or hangtnu@yahoo.com
Tel number: 84-984505097, or 84-984505097

Researcher Contact Details:

Thi Hang Nguyen, PhD student, room WT1107, Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication, Faculty of Applied Humanities, Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand.
Email address: knf6543@aut.ac.nz, or hangtnu@yahoo.com
Tel number: 84-984505097, or 84-984505097

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Professor Allan Bell
Director of Institute of Culture, Discourse and Communication (ICDC), AUT University, New Zealand, WT 1110
Email: (allan.bell@aut.ac.nz) ; Tel number: 64-9-921-9683
Private bag: 92006, Auckland 1142

Dr. Lynn Grant
Email: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz ; Tel number: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

Thông tin
Dành Cho Sinh viên Tham Gia Công trình Nghiên cứu
(Vietnamese version)



Thông tin được hoàn thành ngày 25 tháng 7 năm 2011

Tên đề án: Chuyển mã Ngôn ngữ Trong Giảng dạy Tiếng Anh Như Một Ngoại ngữ Của Giáo viên Đại học ở Việt Nam.

Lời mời tham gia

Tôi là Nguyễn Thị Hằng, hiện là nghiên cứu sinh ngành ngôn ngữ của khoa Nhân văn Ứng dụng Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand. Nghiên cứu này của tôi là việc hoàn thiện luận án Tiến sĩ. Tôi mong muốn có được sự chấp nhận của bạn tham gia vào đề án nghiên cứu này của tôi. Việc tham gia của bạn vào đề án là tự nguyện. Nếu bạn không sẵn lòng tham gia, sẽ không có bất kỳ sự bắt buộc nào.

Mục đích của nghiên cứu này là gì?

Nghiên cứu nhằm mục đích tìm hiểu hiện tượng chuyển mã ngôn ngữ trong lớp học ngoại ngữ của giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh tại trường Đại học ở Việt Nam. Nghiên cứu cũng đồng thời tìm hiểu chức năng của hiện tượng này trong việc dạy tiếng Anh ở trường đại học, và việc áp dụng như thế nào vào dạy học ngoại ngữ. Các nguồn thông tin sẽ được thu thập thông qua việc dự giờ quan sát hoạt động dạy học của bạn kèm theo phỏng vấn. Ngoài ra, phỏng vấn cũng sẽ được tiến hành với sinh viên. Người nghiên cứu sẽ là người duy nhất được sử dụng nguồn dữ liệu này cho luận án tốt nghiệp, và có thể dùng để viết báo cũng như các xuất bản khác sau này.

Bạn được biết đến như thế nào và tại sao bạn được mời tham gia vào nghiên cứu?

Bạn được biết đến nhờ cô/thầy giáo đang dạy bạn. Hơn nữa, bạn cũng đáp ứng các tiêu chí về độ tuổi và trình độ ngoại ngữ. Như đã nói đến ở trên, việc tham gia của bạn là hoàn toàn tự nguyện.

Bạn sẽ làm gì trong nghiên cứu này?

Nghiên cứu này có liên quan đến việc dự giờ hoạt động dạy học của giáo viên. Vì thế, tôi sẽ dự giờ tiết dạy và phỏng vấn giáo viên của bạn. Tôi cũng sẽ phỏng vấn bạn, về ngôn ngữ bạn dùng để trả lời thầy, cô giáo của bạn trong lớp học, những mong muốn của bạn. Tôi sẽ không phỏng vấn bạn các vấn đề khác.

Bất tiện và rủi ro có thể gặp là gì?

Không có bất tiện hay rủi ro nào có thể xảy ra vì tôi, người nghiên cứu, sẽ chỉ đến lớp học của bạn để quan sát hoạt động dạy học, không nhằm mục đích phê phán hay theo dõi các hoạt động khác liên quan đến việc học của bạn.

Những bất tiện và rủi ro sẽ được hạn chế như thế nào?

Bản thân tôi cũng là giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh ở trường Đại học tôi hiểu tâm lý của bạn khi có người khác đến dự giờ. Trong trường hợp bạn không muốn tôi dự giờ và ghi chép, bạn hay cho tôi biết trước.

Những lợi ích là gì?

Lợi ích của đề án này trước hết thuộc về các giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh trong trường đại học. Kết quả nghiên cứu sẽ giúp giáo viên hiểu rõ việc lựa chọn ngôn ngữ trong giảng dạy Tiếng Anh với tư cách là một ngoại ngữ trong lớp học. Ngoài ra, giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh ở các trường đại học khác cũng có thể quan tâm đến kết quả nghiên cứu liên quan đến hoạt động dạy học của mình. Xét một cách rộng hơn, tôi tin rằng, nghiên cứu sẽ đưa ra những gợi ý tích cực cho những người làm công tác giáo dục, các cấp quản lý trong trường đại học về việc sử dụng tiếng mẹ đẻ (Tiếng Việt) trong lớp học Tiếng Anh, đóng góp một phần nhỏ trong việc dạy và học Tiếng Anh ở bậc đại học.

Vấn đề cá nhân của Bạn được bảo vệ như thế nào?

Tên của bạn sẽ không được ghi lại. Tôi, người nghiên cứu, là người duy nhất gõ băng nội dung dự giờ. Khi gõ băng tôi sẽ chỉ ghi lại lời nói của giáo viên, không ghi lại lời nói của các bạn. Dữ liệu gõ băng này sẽ được giữ tại một nơi trang bị khóa ở trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand.

Thời gian Bạn dành cho nghiên cứu là bao nhiêu?

Bạn chỉ phải mất rất ít thời gian để đọc thông tin về đề án này.

Thời gian để Bạn quyết định tham gia đề án là bao nhiêu?

Bạn sẽ có một tuần kể từ khi có lời mời tham gia của người nghiên cứu. Nếu Bạn cần thêm thời gian để cân nhắc, bạn có thể trả lời sau hơn một tuần.

Bạn đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu bằng cách nào?

Bạn sẽ cần phải ký vào bản Đồng ý tham gia (mẫu do người nghiên cứu cung cấp). Sau khi Bạn đã xem kỹ thông tin về nghiên cứu, tôi sẽ mang mẫu đồng ý để Bạn ký trước khi dự giờ tiến hành.

Bạn có được nhận bản tóm tắt kết quả nghiên cứu nay?

Không, vì kết quả nghiên cứu này chỉ tập trung vào giáo viên.

Bạn làm gì nếu quan tâm hơn nữa về nghiên cứu này?

Bạn quan tâm đến bất kỳ vấn đề gì trong nghiên cứu này, xin hãy thông báo trước hết cho những người giám sát nghiên cứu:

Giáo sư Allan Bell
Địa chỉ: allan.bell.@aut.ac.nz
Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9683

Tiến sỹ Lynn Grant
Địa chỉ: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz
Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

Và người nghiên cứu:
Nguyễn Thị Hằng
Địa chỉ: hangtnu@yahoo.com
Số điện thoại: 64-0220657178

Bạn quan tâm đến việc thực hiện nghiên cứu này, xin hãy liên lạc với Thư ký chuyên trách của Hội đồng đạo đức nghiên cứu Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland:

Rosemary Godbold,
Địa chỉ: ethics@aut.ac.nz

Số điện thoại: 64-921 9999 ext 6902.

Bạn cần liên lạc với ai để biết thêm thông tin về nghiên cứu này?

Nguyễn Thị Hằng, Nghiên cứu sinh, phòng WT1107, Viện nghiên cứu Văn hóa, Diễn ngôn và Giao tiếp, Khoa Nhân văn Ứng dụng, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand
Địa chỉ: knf6543@aut.ac.nz , hoặc hangtnu@yahoo.com
Số điện thoại: 64-0220657178

Địa chỉ liên lạc chi tiết của người nghiên cứu:

Nguyễn Thị Hằng, Nghiên cứu sinh, phòng WT1107, Viện nghiên cứu Văn hóa, Diễn ngôn và Giao tiếp, Khoa Nhân văn Ứng dụng, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, New Zealand
Địa chỉ: knf6543@aut.ac.nz , hoặc hangtnu@yahoo.com
Số điện thoại: 64-0220657178

Địa chỉ liên lạc chi tiết của giám sát nghiên cứu

Giáo sư Allan Bell
Giám đốc Viện Nghiên cứu Văn hóa, Diễn ngôn và Giao tiếp, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland, phòng WT1110
Địa chỉ: allan.bell.@aut.ac.nz ; Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9683
Hòm thư riêng: 92006, Auckland 1142

Tiến sỹ Lynn Grant
Địa chỉ: lynn.grant@aut.ac.nz ; Số điện thoại: 64-9-921-9999, Ext 6826

Appendix 3a: Consent form for teachers

Consent Form

*For teachers
when observations and interviews are involved
(English version)*



Project title: Vietnamese University EFL Teachers' Code-Switching in Classroom Instruction

Project Supervisor: Professor Allan Bell and Dr Lynn Grant

Researcher: Thi Hang Nguyen

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 25 July 2011.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the observations and interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed, but names will be removed and a code used to identify participants.
- ☐ I understand that I will be able to check the transcripts to make sure that they accurately reflect what I was saying in the interview.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including recordings and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- ☐ I agree to the researcher observing my teaching practices and interviewing me
- ☐ I agree that the information so obtained can be used for the researcher's PhD thesis, related presentations, and academic publications.
- ☐ I agree that the data can be retained for six years
- ☐ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one):
Yes ☐ No ☐

Participant's signature:

Participant's name:

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate)

.....

Date

Đồng ý

*Của giáo viên được dự giờ và tham gia phỏng vấn
(Vietnamese version)*



**Tên đề án: Chuyển mã Ngôn ngữ Trong Giảng dạy Tiếng Anh Như một Ngoại ngữ
Của Giáo viên Đại học ở Việt Nam**

Hướng dẫn Đề án: **Giáo sư Allan Bell và Tiến sỹ Lynn Grant**

Người nghiên cứu: **Nguyễn Thị Hằng**

- ☐ Tôi đã đọc và hiểu rõ thông tin về đề án nghiên cứu này trong Bản Thông tin ghi ngày 25 tháng 7 năm 2011.
- ☐ Tôi đã có cơ hội được hỏi các câu hỏi và đã được giải đáp các câu hỏi đó.
- ☐ Tôi hiểu rằng người đến dự giờ của tôi sẽ ghi chép và sẽ phỏng vấn tôi sau khi hoàn thành việc dự giờ. Trong quá trình dự giờ và phỏng vấn, họ sẽ ghi âm và sao chép lại nội dung ghi âm.
- ☐ Tôi hiểu rằng tôi sẽ kiểm tra phần gõ băng nội dung ghi âm xem có chính xác không
- ☐ Tôi hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút khỏi, không tiếp tục tham gia vào đề án này vào bất cứ thời gian nào trước khi việc thu thập số liệu hoàn thành mà sẽ không gặp bất cứ bất lợi nào.
- ☐ Nếu tôi rút khỏi đề án tôi hiểu rằng toàn bộ thông tin bao gồm băng ghi âm, nội dung gõ băng hoặc những gì liên quan sẽ được hủy bỏ.
- ☐ Tôi đồng ý tham gia vào đề án này, đồng ý để người thu thập số liệu dự giờ và phỏng vấn
- ☐ Tôi đồng ý thông tin thu thập được sẽ dùng cho luận văn, trình bày và các xuất bản khác của người nghiên cứu
- ☐ Tôi đồng ý dữ liệu thu thập được sẽ giữ lại dùng trong sáu năm
- ☐ Tôi muốn nhận được bản sao báo cáo về nghiên cứu

(Xin hãy đánh dấu vào một trong hai khoanh tròn dưới đây).

Yes ☐

No ☐

Người tham gia ký:

Họ và tên người tham gia :

Địa chỉ liên hệ của người tham gia :

Ngày :

Appendix 3b: Consent for for students



Consent Form

For students when interviews are involved
(English vesion)

Project title: Vietnamese University EFL Teachers' Code-Switching in Classroom Instruction

Project Supervisor: Professor Allan Bell and Dr Lynn Grant

Researcher: Thi Hang Nguyen

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 25 July 2011.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed, but names will be removed and a code used to identify participants.
- ☐ I understand that I will be able to check the transcripts to make sure that they accurately reflect what I was saying in the interview.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including recordings and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- ☐ I agree to the researcher interviewing me
- ☐ I agree that the information so obtained can be used for the researcher's PhD thesis, related presentations, and academic publications.
- ☐ I agree that the data can be retained for six years

Participant's signature:

Participant's name :

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate)

.....

Date:

Đồng ý

*Của sinh viên được gia tham gia phỏng vấn
(Vietnamese version)*



**Tên đề án: Chuyển mã Ngôn ngữ Trong Giảng dạy Tiếng Anh Như một Ngoại ngữ
Của Giáo viên Đại học ở Việt Nam**

Hướng dẫn Đề án: Giáo sư Allan Bell và Tiến sỹ Lynn Grant

Người nghiên cứu: Nguyễn Thị Hằng

- ☐ Tôi đã đọc và hiểu rõ thông tin về đề án nghiên cứu này trong Bản Thông tin ghi ngày 25 tháng 7 năm 2011.
- ☐ Tôi đã có cơ hội được hỏi các câu hỏi và đã được giải đáp các câu hỏi đó.
- ☐ Tôi hiểu rằng người nghiên cứu sẽ phỏng vấn tôi. Trong quá trình và phỏng vấn, họ sẽ ghi âm và gõ băng nội dung ghi âm.
- ☐ Tôi hiểu rằng tôi sẽ kiểm tra phần gõ băng nội dung ghi âm xem có chính xác không
- ☐ Tôi hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút khỏi, không tiếp tục tham gia vào đề án này vào bất cứ thời gian nào trước khi việc thu thập số liệu hoàn thành mà sẽ không gặp bất cứ bất lợi nào.
- ☐ Nếu tôi rút khỏi đề án tôi hiểu rằng toàn bộ thông tin bao gồm băng ghi âm, phần gõ băng hoặc những gì liên quan sẽ được hủy bỏ.
- ☐ Tôi đồng ý tham gia vào đề án này, đồng ý để người thu thập số liệu phỏng vấn tôi
- ☐ Tôi đồng ý thông tin thu thập được sẽ dùng cho luận văn, trình bày và các xuất bản khác của người nghiên cứu
- ☐ Tôi đồng ý dữ liệu thập được sẽ giữ lại dùng trong sáu năm

Người tham gia ký:

Người tham gia ký:

Địa chỉ liên hệ của người tham gia :

Ngày :

Appendix 4: Observation sheet

Observation sheet

Date of observation:.....Class:.....

Teacher's name/code:.....

Lesson details:

Activities/Situations	Language teacher uses	Language students use in responses	Others

Appendix 5a: Interview guide for teachers

Interview guide for Teachers

Time: 60 minutes

English version

Questions	Prompts
<i>When do you switch in classroom teaching?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you use mostly Vietnamese or English in the classroom for English teaching? • Do you use Vietnamese at some points when teaching English to students? • What language do you use when you: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - introduce lessons to students - teach, or explain, or expand vocabulary - explain grammar rules - find difficult communicating with students - want to build relationships with students (e.g. expressing emotion, making students relaxed, encouraging students, expressing humour, building solidarity or gaining intimate relationship) - manage, or organize classrooms - make sure, or clarify students' understanding, or highlighting important information • What other situations do you use Vietnamese when teaching English to students in the classroom?
<i>Why do you switch?</i>	<p>➤ <i>Now, let's see this excerpt from a recorded lesson you taught on....</i></p> <p>.....</p> <p><i>Why did you switch here? Were your switches to explain grammar, or to encourage your students, or for other reasons?</i></p> <p>.....</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the advantages of your use of Vietnamese at some phases of English teaching in the class? • What are the disadvantages? • What language do your students usually use to respond <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - when you ask them in English? - when you ask them in Vietnamese? • How do you feel when you use Vietnamese at certain points to teach English to students? • What is your opinion about "using English only" in English language teaching classroom?
<i>Are there any official policies or regulations that are used as guide to teachers' use of 1st/2nd language in the classroom?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In your university? • In your country? • Is it a necessity for teachers in your country in general and your university in particular to have such policies or regulations? • What is your suggestion?

Câu hỏi	Gợi ý
Thầy/Cô chuyển mã ngôn ngữ vào những lúc nào trong khi dạy học trên lớp?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thầy/Cô sử dụng hầu hết Tiếng Việt hay Tiếng Anh trên lớp khi dạy học? Thầy/Cô có lúc nào dùng Tiếng Việt khi dạy Tiếng Anh cho sinh viên không? Thầy/Cô dùng ngôn ngữ nào khi: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> giới thiệu bài cho sinh viên dạy, hoặc giải thích hay mở rộng từ vựng giải thích quy tắc ngữ pháp thấy khó giao tiếp với sinh viên muốn tạo/xây dựng mối quan hệ với sinh viên (ví dụ, khi muốn bày tỏ cảm xúc, tạo không khí thoải mái, giúp sinh viên bớt căng thẳng, khích lệ sinh viên, thể hiện sự hài hước, tạo tinh thần đoàn kết hoặc bày tỏ sự thân mật). tổ chức lớp học muốn kiểm tra (để chắc chắn) xem sinh viên đã hiểu bài chưa nhấn mạnh các thông tin quan trọng Thầy/Cô có dùng Tiếng Việt khi dạy Tiếng Anh Trên lớp trong tình huống nào khác nữa không
Tại sao Thầy/Cô chuyển mã ngôn ngữ?	<p>➤ Thầy/Cô xem một đoạn sao chép từ phần ghi âm sau:</p> <p>.....</p> <p>Tại sao Thầy/Cô chuyển mã ở đây? Có phải để....hay vì lý do khác?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Xin Thầy/Cô cho biết những thuận lợi gì khi sử dụng Tiếng Việt trong một số tình huống khi dạy Tiếng Anh trên lớp? Những bất lợi là gì? Sinh viên thường đáp lại Thầy/Cô bằng thứ tiếng nào khi: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thầy/Cô hỏi các em bằng Tiếng Anh? Thầy/Cô hỏi các em bằng Tiếng Việt? Thầy/Cô cảm thấy như thế nào với việc dùng Tiếng Việt trong một số tình huống khi dạy Tiếng Anh cho sinh viên? Ý kiến của Thầy/Cô như thế nào về việc “chỉ dùng Tiếng Anh” trên lớp khi dạy Tiếng Anh cho Sinh viên?
Hiện nay có chính sách hay hướng dẫn chính thức cụ thể nào về việc sử dụng Tiếng Việt/Tiếng Anh cho giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh trong lớp không?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trong trường đại học của Thầy/Cô? Ở Việt Nam? Theo Thầy/Cô, cần có các chính sách hay quy định cụ thể không về việc sử dụng ngôn ngữ cho giáo viên dạy Tiếng Anh trong nước nói chung và trong trường của Thầy/Cô nói riêng? Thầy/Cô có những gợi ý như thế nào?

Appendix 5b: Interview guides for students

Time: 20 minutes

English version

Questions	Prompts
<i>In general, how do you feel of your teacher's alternation of Vietnamese and English during his/her classroom instruction?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Which language does your teacher use in teaching English: English, Vietnamese, or both?• Do you prefer it when your teacher alternately uses English and Vietnamese during her/his instruction?• Do you think it is good for you, as a student of English, when your teacher use English and Vietnamese alternately?• Do you have any preference concerning which language your teacher use in teaching English? And in what situation? (e.g., in explaining vocabulary, grammar rules, highlighting information...• Do you prefer it when your teacher uses English only while teaching English to you?
<i>What language do you often use to respond to your teacher when he/she speaks to you in English/Vietnamese?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Do you often use Vietnamese or English to respond to your teacher when he/she speaks to you in English?• Do you often use Vietnamese or English to respond to your teacher when he/she speaks to you in Vietnamese?• Do you ever use Vietnamese to respond to your teacher when he/she asks you a question in English?<ul style="list-style-type: none">- If yes, Why? Can you remember a time you did so?- If no, can you explain why you have never/will never use Vietnamese to respond to your teacher's question that is in English?• Do you ever use English to respond to your teacher when he/she asks you a question in Vietnamese?<ul style="list-style-type: none">- If yes, Why? Can you remember a time you did so?- If no, can you explain why you have never/will never use English to respond to your teacher's question that is in Vietnamese?

Câu hỏi	Gợi ý
<i>Nói chúng, em cảm thấy thế nào khi thầy cô của em dạy tiếng Anh và Tiếng Việt trên lớp?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Khi dạy Tiếng Anh cô giáo của em dạy tiếng gì? Tiếng Anh? Tiếng Việt? Hay cả hai? • Em có thích việc thầy cô của em dạy lần lượt cả tiếng Anh và tiếng khi dạy tiếng Anh không? • Em có nghĩ là sẽ tốt cho sinh viên học tiếng Anh như em khi thầy cô dạy cả tiếng Anh và Tiếng Việt không? • Em thích sự lựa chọn nào về ngôn ngữ khi thầy cô của em dạy tiếng Anh cho em? Trong những tình huống nào? (ví dụ,...) • Em có thích việc thầy cô của em chỉ dạy tiếng Anh khi dạy không?
<i>Em dạy tiếng nào để trả lời khi thầy cô của em nói với em bằng tiếng Anh/tiếng Việt?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Em thường dùng tiếng Anh hay tiếng Việt để trả lời khi thầy cô nói với em bằng: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - tiếng Anh? - tiếng Việt? • Em có khi nào dùng tiếng Việt để trả lời khi thầy cô của em hỏi em bằng Tiếng Anh không? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Nếu vậy thì tại sao? Em có nhớ lần nào đó không? - Nếu không, em có thể giải thích vì sao em không bao giờ/sẽ không bao giờ dùng tiếng Việt để trả lời khi thầy cô hỏi em bằng tiếng Anh không? • Em có khi nào dùng tiếng Anh để trả lời khi thầy cô của em hỏi em bằng Việt không? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Nếu vậy thì tại sao? Em có nhớ lần nào đó không? - Nếu không, em có thể giải thích vì sao em không bao giờ/sẽ không bao giờ dùng tiếng Anh để trả lời khi thầy cô hỏi em bằng tiếng Việt không?

Appendix 6 Excerpted sample of class recording

Class recording transcript of teacher 10 (C.R.Tr.T10.1)

Participant: Teacher 10, class hour 1 (T10.1)
Class: K4B
Observer: Thi Hang Nguyen
Recorded: 21/03/2012
Transcribed: 3/04/1/2012
Checked: 7/04/2012
Length: 52 minutes 28 seconds
Sound quality: Good. Occasional noise of students in other classes walking across
V: Vietnamese
E: English
St(s): Student(s)

Teacher's Signature:

St: [00] [talking in V]

T10: Yes, thanks, take a seat at the back [telling the observers]

St: [talking in V]

T10: What?

St: [talking in E]

T10: Oh yes.|| You're welcome. || *Ờ* ...I want to introduce some teachers attend [attending] our class today. || Let's welcome them.

<Oh yes.|| You're welcome. || *Er* ...I want to introduce some teachers attend [attending] our class today. || Let's welcome them.>

Sts: [clapping hands] [talking in V]

T10: [01] Now students, how are you?

Sts: [no response]

T10: You are...Are you worried? || Are you nervous?

Sts: [no response]

T10: So this is the second period. || Second period, we remember, and in this lesson, this lesson you will practice, we will practice, further practice the past simple verbs.|| [02] Okay. || And you will practice your speaking, listening and reading skill. [skills] || Okay. || Do you want to play a game?

Sts: [no response]

T10: Do you want to play a game? || Yes or no?

Sts: [E]

T10: That's good. || The name of the verb is...what's the verb and its simple past form.

Sts: [talking in V]

T10: Two teachers [joking]. || Okay, so I want to divide the class into two teams. || Okay. || Class two teams. || This group, okay I want to divide you. || Okay, group one, okay, group A, yes || [03] this one, and the left is group B.|| Okay. || B. || I want two groups to give one person, okay, to go to the board.|| We share the board.|| So group A, who come [come] to the board?|| Group A?|| One person.

Sts: [talking in V]

T10: Okay, now, group B.|| Who?|| Quickly.

Sts: [going to the board]

T10: Okay, let's see.|| Can you?|| Okay.|| A, B. ||Okay.|| [dividing the board into two parts and writing A and B on each part]. Now I have some verbs on the screen, okay,|| I have some verbs on the screen [04].|| You describe the verbs for your friends.|| Do you understand?

Sts: [E]

T10: Describe the verbs but do not tell them the verb [verbs] [bell ringing], do not tell them the verb [verbs].|| You use your action, action, and the other words [other words], Okay?|| Do you understand?

Sts: [E]

T10: Use action of other words related to the verb but don't tell them the verb.|| And two of you do not look at the screen. || Don't look at the screen, Okay? || I want your friends; I want your friends to write the verbs and the past simple form of the verb.|| Do you understand?

Sts: [E]

T10: So write the verbs and past simple form.|| This's also verbs, [theses are also verbs] sorry...past simple forms [writing on board].|| [05]. Now look at example, Okay.|| Now look at this.|| Do not look at the screen, Okay.|| Do not look at it.|| So I want you to describe the verb, for example I describe to you. [doing as an example for student first]|| This one, like this, action.|| And you can say "bye bye", or you can say "move right", okay, and your friend will- "write" and "wrote".|| Do you understand?

Sts: [E]

T10: Are you ready?|| Are you ready?

Sts: [E]

T10: Okay, now, number one, number one.|| Look at this. ||Again.|| Can you speak...ở...can you translate ...can you translate in to Vietnamese?|| Yes or no?

< Okay, now, number one, number one.|| Look at this. ||Again.|| Can you speak...Er...can you translate ...can you translate in to Vietnamese?|| Yes or no?>

Sts: [E]

T10: No.|| Can you...ờ...speak Vietnamese?|| Speak in Vietnamese?
 <No.|| Can you...er...speak Vietnamese?|| Speak in Vietnamese?>

Sts: [E]

T10: Can you speak the verb “write”?

Sts: [E]

T10: No. Use your action, or the other words related to the verb [06].|| *Các em không được dịch không được nói đúng không nhỉ?|| Mà phải sao ạ, mô tả dùng các động tác liên quan đến động từ đấy để cho các bạn hiểu, đúng không nhỉ?*|| Now are you ready?
 <No. Use your action, or the other words related to the verb [06].|| *You are not allowed to translate [the word] or to speak, right?|| [You] must do what, describe [it], using gestures related to the verb so that others can know what it is,right?*|| Now are you ready?>

Sts: [E]

T10: Number one.|| Quickly, okay?|| You will have a winner.|| Các bạn sẽ có một đội thắng, and a loser, và 1 đội thua, okay?
 <Number one.|| Quickly, okay?||You will have a winner.|| *You will have a winner, and a loser, and a loser, okay?*>

Sts: [laughing]

T10: Now number one.|| Are you ready?

Sts: [E]

T10: This one quickly.

Sts: [making gesture and laughing]

T10: Quickly.

St: [talking in V]

T10: So who is faster?

St: [V]

T10: N, [name of the student]. Okay.|| B is faster.|| Okay.|| Now number two.
 (. . .)

T10: Name some famous inventions.|| *Em có thể kể tên một số phát minh lần trước chúng ta học không ạ?*|| What are they?
 <Name some famous inventions.|| *Could you please name some inventions that you learned about the last time?* || What are they?>

Sts: [no response]

T10: For example, you remember, for example,...what is it?|| TV.|| Drink.|| Coca cola.|| Coca cola.|| What else?

Sts: [E]

T10: What else?|| What else?

Sts: [E]

T10: TV, Coca cola, plane, computer.|| What else?

Sts: [E]

T10: Mobile phone.|| Car.|| What else?|| What do you think is the most important invention?|| What is the most important information, invention.|| Information of invention.|| What does it mean in Vietnamese?|| What does it mean in Vietnamese?|| [12] *Theo em thì những phát minh nào là quan trọng nhất?*

<Mobile phone.|| Car.|| What else?|| What do you think is the most important invention?|| What is the most important information, invention.|| Information of invention.|| What does it mean in Vietnamese?|| What does it mean in Vietnamese?|| [12] *Which inventions do you think are the most important?>*

St: [E]

T10: Jeans?|| Why, why jeans? *Không mặc quần thì ta mặc cái gì?*

<Jeans?|| Why, why jeans?|| *What would you wear if not jeans?>*

Sts: [laughing]

T10: You can wear dress, trousers, Okay.|| What else?

Sts: [E]

T10: Why?|| Because you can, you can...you can watch the news, movies.|| What else?|| A lot of things.|| Okay.|| So they are famous inventions.|| And this period we study inventor.|| Inventor.|| *Ờm...*I want you to look at the screen and tell me.|| [showing images] What are they?|| What are they?

<Why?|| Because you can, you can...you can watch the news, movies.|| What else?|| A lot of things.|| Okay.|| So they are famous inventions.|| And this period we study inventor.|| Inventor.|| *Erm...*I want you to look at the screen and tell me.|| [showing images] What are they?|| What are they?>

Sts: [E]

T10: Jeans.|| Do you like jeans?

Sts: [E]

T10: Yes.|| I love jeans.|| And of you know who invented jeans?|| [13] I love jeans.|| Who invented jeans?|| [A] Vietnamese person?|| Yes or no?

Sts: [E]

T10: So who is he, do you know?|| Look at this picture.|| He is...?|| Do you know Le Vis?|| Do you know Le Vis Strauss?|| *Chúng ta biết là rất nhiều cái quần bò của hàng tên là Le Vis.*|| So he is Le Vis Strauss.|| He invented jeans.|| Okay.|| He invented jeans, Le Vis Strauss.|| Now what are they?|| What are they?

<So who is he, do you know?|| Look at this picture.|| He is...?|| Do you know Le Vis?|| Do you know Le Vis Strauss?|| *We know that many jeans are with the trade mark Le Vis.*|| So he is Le Vis Strauss.|| He invented jeans.|| Okay.|| He invented jeans, Le Vis Strauss.|| Now what are they?|| What are they?>

Sts: [E]

T10: Do you have TV at home?|| Yes or no?

Sts: [E]

T10: Yes.|| Do you like watching TV?

St: [E]

T10: How many hours do you watch TV a day?|| How many hours?

Sts: [V]

T10: *Theo em thì những phát minh nào là quan trọng nhất?*

<What are the most important inventions to you?>

Sts: [E] [14]

T10: *À...who invented TV?*

<Ah...who invented TV?>

(. . .)

Sts: [V] [18]

T10: *À...she's a movie star.|| She dress ở her dress is very fashionable.|| Rất là hợp mốt, hợp thời trang đúng không nhỉ?|| Yes.|| Cô ấy là một diễn viên điện ảnh.|| Quần áo cô ấy rất hợp mốt, hợp thời trang.*|| Okay, now look at jeans again.|| All the dates in the text are incorrect.|| All the dates are incorrect, are wrong, Okay.|| I want you to listen and correct the dates here.|| Do you understand?|| The dates.|| What does it mean, dates?

<Ah...she's a movie star.|| She dress *er* her dress is very fashionable.|| *Very fashionable, right?*|| Yes.|| *She is an actress.*|| *Her dress is very fashionable.*|| Okay, now look at jeans again.|| All the dates in the text are incorrect.|| All the dates are incorrect, are wrong, Okay.|| I want you to listen and correct the dates here.|| Do you understand?|| The dates.|| What does it mean, dates?>

Sts: [no response]

T10: *Ờ, thời gian đúng không nhỉ.|| Tất cả những dữ liệu về thời gian sai.||* I want you to listen and correct the dates.|| Are you ready?

<Er, the dates, right?.|| The dates are all wrong.|| I want you to listen and correct the dates.|| Are you ready?>

Sts: [E]

T10: Do you understand?

Sts: [E]

T10: *Dữ liệu về thời gian ở trong đây sai, chúng ta nghe và sửa lại theo cái băng nhé.||* Are you ready?

<The dates here are wrong, and you listen and correct them according to the tape.|| Are you ready?>

Sts: [E]

T10: Ok, now listen.|| [19] [playing the listening file].|| [20] Okay.|| So what is number one?|| Made the first jeans in?|| Number one?

Sts: [telling the date in E].

T10: In eighteen ninety three.|| *Ờ ... number two.||* In ...?

<In eighteen ninety three.|| Er ... number two.|| In ...?>

Sts: [telling the date in E]

T10: Forty five or thirty five?

Sts: [E] [21]

T10: *Ờ...some say thirty five some say in nineteen forty five.||* Number three.

<Er...some say thirty five some say in nineteen forty five.|| Number three.>

Sts: [E]

T10: In the ...?

Sts: [E]

T10: Nineteen seventy.|| Now listen again and check.|| *Chúng ta cùng chữa xem đúng hay sai nhé.||* [playing the listening file again] [22].Nineteen... forty five or thirty five?

<Nineteen seventy.|| Now listen again and check.|| Let's check to see if it right or wrong.|| [playing the listening file again] [22].Nineteen... forty five or thirty five?>

Sts: [E]

T10: Forty five or thirty five?

Sts: [E]

T10: Now again.|| This one again.|| [playing and pausing for students to check]. Ah thirty five.|| Okay, nineteen thirty five, not nineteen forty five.|| Look at the screen.|| Nineteen thirty five.|| Next, number three.|| Nineteen thirty five.|| [playing and pausing the listening]. In the ...?

Sts: [E]

T10: Nineteen seventy, that's correct, Okay.|| Who got three correct answer [answers]?|| Who got three correct answer [answers]?|| *Ai có ba câu trả lời đúng?*|| Raise your hand.|| No one.

<Nineteen seventy, that's correct, Okay.|| Who got three correct answer [answers]?|| Who got three correct answer [answers]?|| *Who has got three correct answers?*|| Raise your hand.|| No one.>

(. . .)

T10: Okay, answer, boy [calling a student]|| What...what did the philosopher call the twentieth century?|| *Nhà triết gia người Tây Ban Nha gọi thế kỷ thứ hai mươi là gì ấy nhỉ?*

<Okay, answer, boy [calling a student]|| What...what did the philosopher call the twentieth century?|| *What did the Spanish philosopher call the twentieth century?*>

St: [E]

T10: Now class at home do exercise one and four. Okay, thank you for listening [52]|| *Bài chúng ta dừng lại ở đây nhé.*

<Now class, at home do exercise one and four.|| Okay, thank you for listening [52]|| *Let's stop our lesson here.*>

((End of recording))

Appendix 7a: Excerpted sample interview transcript of teacher

Interview transcript of teacher 4 (I.Tr.T4)

Participant: T4
Interviewer: Thi Hang Nguyen
Location: Participant's house
Recorded: 27/04/2012
Transcribed: 27/05/2012
Transcriber: Thi Hang Nguyen
Checked: 1/06/2012
Length: 39 minutes 28 seconds
Sound quality: Good. Occasional noise of vehicles (cars, motorcycles) passing by, honking of vehicles.
Int: Interviewer
T4: Teacher 4

Teacher's Signature:

(. . .)

T4: Vâng, mình cũng có thể bắt đầu luôn, chị ạ.
<Yes, I think we can start right away, Ms>

Int: *Thế thì chúng ta bắt đầu luôn. Trước hết là tôi muốn hỏi cô giáo xem là trên lớp khi mà dạy tiếng Anh cho sinh viên ấy thì cô giáo sử dụng hầu hết là tiếng Anh hay tiếng Việt?*
<So we start. Firstly, I'd like to know which language, English or Vietnamese, you mostly use to teach English in the class?>

T4: Trên lớp khi mà giảng dạy tiếng Anh cho học sinh sinh viên thì tôi luôn luôn là sử dụng tiếng Anh nhiều hơn là tiếng Việt.
<When I teach English to students in the class, I always use more English than Vietnamese.>

Int: *Tiếng Anh nhiều hơn tiếng Việt. Và trong quá trình mà sử dụng 2 cái thứ tiếng như vậy thì cô giáo thường sử dụng tiếng Anh trước hay là tiếng Việt trước?*
<More English than Vietnamese. So which language do you usually use before the other, English or Vietnamese?>

T4: Thông thường thì tôi sẽ sử dụng tiếng Anh trước.
<I usually use English first>

Int: *Tiếng Anh trước. Như cô giáo vừa nói là sử dụng tiếng Anh nhiều hơn tiếng Việt. Theo cá nhân cô giáo thì cô giáo sử dụng khoảng bao nhiêu phần trăm tiếng Anh?*
<English first. You've just said that you used more English than Vietnamese, so how much English do you think you often use?>

T4: Tiếng Anh nó chiếm khoảng độ 80%.
<It holds about 80%.>

Int: *80%? còn lại 20% thì [20% là tiếng Việt] tiếng Việt.*
<80%? And the left 20% is? [20% is Vietnamese] Vietnamese.>

- T4: Cũng tùy, cũng có thể là cái tỉ lệ đấy, tỉ lệ tiếng Việt sẽ ít hơn, nhưng tùy từng đối tượng học sinh, bởi vì có những lớp học sinh khá thì có thể sử dụng tiếng Anh được nhiều hơn [*hơn 80% 1 chút?*] hơn 80%.
<It depends, perhaps that percentage, or lower percentage of Vietnamese, but it depends on students' level because for students whose English is better, I can use more English [*more than 80%?*] yes, more than 80 %.>
- Int: (. . .) *Khi sử dụng song song cả 2 thứ tiếng khi dạy học như thế, tất nhiên Tiếng Anh nhiều hơn, vậy cô giáo cảm thấy như thế nào?*
<(. . .) *So how do you feel when you use both languages alternatively, of course more English, during your instruction?>*
- T4: ((laughs)) Có lẽ là khi mà thêm vào phần tiếng Việt thì có cái cảm giác là học sinh sẽ nắm tốt hơn, không biết có phải thực tế là như thế không, chưa tìm hiểu cụ thể. Nhưng nhiều khi là tôi cảm thấy mình thoải mái hơn, bởi vì có cảm giác là học sinh đều hiểu.
<((laugh)) Perhaps when I insert Vietnamese into my instruction, I feel that my students will understand better. I am not sure whether it is right or not, but many times, I feel more relaxed because I think all of my students understand my instruction.>
- Int: *Hiểu được cái gì mà mình muốn [Đúng rồi, truyền đạt]. Thực ra trên lớp thì nó có rất là nhiều các hoạt động, sự tương tác giữa thầy và trò. Thế thì tôi cũng thống kê được 1 số các tình huống như thế này, tôi muốn hỏi cô giáo 1 chút là vào lớp, khi mà giới thiệu bài cho sinh viên ấy thì cô giáo thường sử dụng ngôn ngữ gì để giới thiệu bài cho sinh viên?*
<Understand what you want [Yes, exactly, what I want to transmit]. In class, actually, there are various activities, or interactions between the teacher and his/her students. I have listed these situations which frequently occur in the class. So what language do you often use for the lead-ins to lessons?>
- T4: Giới thiệu bài thì tôi sẽ dùng tiếng Anh.
<I use English for the lead-ins.>
- Int: *Tiếng Anh, tức là hoàn toàn bằng tiếng Anh để giới thiệu bài [Vâng ạ]. Thế còn trong quá trình dạy mở rộng luyện tập từ vựng thì sao?*
<English, do you mean you use complete English to introduce lessons? [Yes]. What about teaching, expanding and practicing English vocabulary?>
- T4: Về từ vựng thì 1 số các cái từ nó trừu tượng thì tôi sẽ sử dụng tiếng Việt thêm vào để có thể dễ dàng, nhanh chóng để học sinh có thể nắm được.
<For vocabulary, for some words that are abstract, I insert Vietnamese in so that my students can easily and quickly understand.>
- Int: *Thế còn... thế trong quá trình dạy từ vựng như thế thì khi mà sử dụng cả tiếng Việt vào thì cô giáo sử dụng khoảng bao nhiêu phần trăm tiếng Việt?*
<So...so you use Vietnamese as well in the situation of teaching vocabulary, and what percentage of Vietnamese do you think you use?>
- T4: Trước tiên là tôi sẽ cố gắng để diễn tả bằng tiếng Anh, đặt câu để học sinh có 1 cái đoán biết về nghĩa của cái từ đấy. Nhưng tiếng Việt đưa vào cũng hạn chế thôi, nhưng mà chắc là cũng với các cái từ trừu tượng đấy có lẽ phải sử dụng đến 60% tiếng Việt. [*60% tiếng Việt ở khi dạy từ vựng*] Khi dạy từ vựng trừu tượng, chứ còn những cái mà từ vựng cụ thể, hình tượng cụ thể thì mình có thể sử dụng real objects hay bằng cách nào đó để học sinh- còn trừu tượng thì xu hướng sử dụng tiếng Việt rất là nhiều.

<First of all, I will try my best to express the word in English, and make sentences using that word so that my students can guess what the word means. However, limited Vietnamese is used, but for those words which are abstract, I probably use up to 60% Vietnamese. [60% Vietnamese for vocabulary teaching?] Yes, just when I teach the abstract words, but for those words which are concrete I use real objects or other ways to help students understand, and I tend to use more Vietnamese to teach abstract vocabulary items>

(. . .)

Int: Thì tôi- thực ra tôi đã transcribe 2 cái giờ mà tôi được dự của cô giáo. Đây là 2 cái đoạn trích, không phải là tất cả, mà là 2 cái đoạn trích của 2 cái giờ mà tôi đã từng được dự, và tôi có highlight ở những cái chỗ mà cô giáo chuyển mã. Chúng ta cùng xem, và có gì cùng trao đổi. Ví dụ như cái này- cái chỗ này chẳng hạn, chỗ đầu tiên mà tôi highlight đấy thì cô giáo đang nói tiếng Anh, đúng không ạ? Sau đó chuyển qua nói tiếng Việt. “Right”, xong lại “đúng không ạ”. Ví dụ như thế này là chuyển mã, đúng không ạ? [Vâng] Vì sao cô giáo lại chuyển mã ở chỗ này, cô giáo có thể ...?

<I have transcribed the recordings of the two class hours I observed. These are two excerpts from my observation of the two class hours you taught. I have highlighted where you code-switched. Let’s see and discuss together. For example, this one, this place that I highlighted, you were speaking English, right? Then you switched to Vietnamese, “right” and then “right?” This is your switch here, right? [Yes, exactly]. So can you tell me why you switched here? Can you...?>

T4: Có lẽ là có 1 cái rất là hay như thế này: Khi mình dùng tiếng Việt vào ấy, mình có 1 cái cảm giác là we are Vietnamese, we are very close cho nên là tạo cái khoảng cách gần gũi hơn.

<Perhaps, it is very interesting, like this: when I insert Vietnamese into my utterance, I have the feeling that we are Vietnamese, we are very close, and this removes the distance between us.>

Int: Tạo cái khoảng cách gần gũi hơn, mặc dù là nếu ...

<Making you and your students closer to each other though if...?>

T4: Học sinh hiểu được cái từ “right”, nhưng mà đôi khi vẫn thêm 1 cái gì đấy. Có lẽ cảm thấy là cái việc đưa thêm vào có 1 cái tác dụng, we are Vietnamese.”

<My students can understand the word “right”, but I still want to add something. Maybe I feel that my insertion of Vietnamese has a good effect, we are Vietnamese.>

Int: Yes. Nó gọi là solidarity, cái tính đoàn kết hay cái gì đấy, đúng không? [Đấy, đấy] Thế rồi, đấy, cô giáo đang nói tiếng Việt, đúng không ạ?

<Yes, it is called solidarity, solidarity or something like that, isn’t it? [Yes, yes that’s it]. Then, here, you are speaking Vietnamese, right?>

T4: Vâng.

<Yes.>

Int: Xong lại chuyển sang nói tiếng Anh. Đây, như thế này: Chúng ta ... thế rồi “too” và “enough” thì để nói về cái gì, xong “problem”. Tóm lại ở chỗ này là chuyển mã, đang tiếng Việt thì chuyển qua nói tiếng Anh. Thì đây cũng là chuyển mã. Thế thì tại sao chỗ này cô giáo lại chuyển mã ở đây?

<Then you switched to speak English. Here, like this: We...then “too” and “enough” are used to talk about what, then “problem”. In short, you switched here, from Vietnamese to English. This is a switch. Can you tell me why you code-switched here?>

- T4: À, có lẽ là to be quick, để nhanh chóng cho học sinh có được câu trả lời, từ học sinh.
<Well, perhaps because I want to be quick, quickly to have the answer from my students.>
- Int: *Cái chỗ này là cô giáo đang dẫn dắt [Đang dẫn dắt đây ạ], dẫn dắt, đúng không, và để muốn tiết kiệm thời gian thì cô làm như vậy đúng không. Và dưới này thì cũng tương tự như vậy. Chuyển sang cái trang thứ 9. Ở chỗ này là có 1 em sinh viên nó mệt thì cô giáo hỏi nó là làm sao và khuyên nó là đi về, vân vân. Cô giáo có nhớ hôm đấy không?*
<You are guiding in this situation. [Yes, I am guiding, right]. Guiding, and you did that in order to be quick, and save time, didn't you? This situation is similar to the one above. Please turn to page nine. In this situation, one of your students felt tired, you advised him to go home and take a rest. Do you remember?>
- T4: Có.
<Yes, I do>
- Int: *Đây, [Vâng] đoạn này. Phần này tôi highlight hơi ít. Now ((unclear)), vân vân xong gọi 1 em sinh viên lên trả lời xong thì nói là “bài số 10 viết rõ”, xong lại chuyển qua nói tiếng Anh luôn [thế à] ((laughs)). Rất là thú vị, đúng không ạ? Vì sao chỗ đấy cô giáo lại chuyển qua nói tiếng Việt? Cả 1 cái câu rất là dài, cả 1 cái đoạn như thế này, nó có rất là nhiều cái utterances và nói tiếng Anh như thế này, xong thì đột nhiên 1 cái 1 cái cụm tiếng Việt, xong lại nói tiếng Anh tiếp.*
<This one, [Yes], this part. I highlighted this section, but not a lot. You said now, and so on, then called on a student to answer, and told him in Vietnamese “it’s written clearly in exercise ten”, and then switched to English [oh, really?] ((laughs)). It’s interesting, isn’t it? Why did you switch in that situation? It was such a long section with many utterances you spoke in English, and suddenly inserted a Vietnamese phrase, and then switched back to English.>
- T4: I do not remember exactly. Bài số 10 viết rõ à? ((laughs)) I don’t know why I do so. Và đôi khi dùng tiếng Việt là vì một cái habit, tôi không nhớ.
<I do not remember exactly. I said “it’s written clearly in exercise 10”? I don’t know why I did so. And sometimes I use Vietnamese just because it’s something like my habit, I don’t remember>
- Int: *Cô giáo cũng không biết là vì sao lại chuyển mã ở chỗ này, đúng không? Cô có nghĩ là do cái thói quen của mình không?*
<You do not know why you code-switched here? Do you think that it is a habit?>
- T4: Có, có thể.
<Yes, maybe>
- Int: *Cũng không biết là tại sao.*
<You don’t know why.>
- T4: Đúng rồi, ((switches to English)) habit, ((switches back to Vietnamese)) thói quen đấy.
<Yes, exactly, a habit, that’s a habit.>
- Int: *Giờ thứ 2. Giờ thứ 2 đây này [À]. Giờ thứ 2 thì vẫn là cái lớp đó thì mình vào lớp và sau khi mà bảo học sinh ngồi xuống, và bảo các bạn là “move up” bởi vì cái lớp hình như rất là ít sinh viên, đúng không ạ? Cũng có 1 số bạn nghỉ, sau đó nói tiếng Việt là “chuyển lên trên này”, vân vân. “Lớp nhỏ như thế này”, sau lại chuyển sang nói tiếng Anh: “This is the smallest class I have been ...” vân vân. Vì sao cô giáo lại chuyển mã ở chỗ này?*

<The second class hour. This is the second class hour [well]. The second hour of the same class. You came in, told your students to sit down, and said “move up” because there seemed to be fewer students than there were in the first class hour, right? Some students were absent from class. Then you switched to Vietnamese “chuyển lên trên này” (“move up here”), and so on. And you said in Vietnamese “Lớp nhỏ như thế này” (“this is such a small class”), then you switched to English “This is the smallest class I have been ...” etc. Why did you switch in this situation?>

T4: I don’t know. [Don’t know] ((laughs)).
<I don’t know. [don’t know] ((laughs)).>

(. . .)

Int: Trang 5 có 1 chỗ nữa là, cô giáo giờ trang 5 tiếp. Có 1 cái đoạn là mình đang nói tiếng Anh: “vital ... vân vân,” evidence, OK” thế xong lại “trong câu nào thể hiện điều đấy” thế xong “which sentence ...” các thứ. Thế thì vì sao cô giáo lại chuyển mã ở chỗ này nữa. Cũng có hơi nhiều, hơi nhiều và bắt cô giáo phải nghĩ, nhưng mà cơ bản [rất là thú vị], tôi cũng thấy là [lần đầu tiên được xem lại 1 cái transcript dự giờ]. Trong cả 2 giờ ấy, tôi không bỏ sót cái trang nào cả, cứ chỗ nào switch là in ra để trao đổi, vì thấy nó rất là thú vị.
<Page five. Could you turn to page five please? You were speaking English here: “vital ... etc.” evidence, OK”, then you switched to Vietnamese “trong câu nào thể hiện điều đấy” (which sentence shows that”), then switched back to English “which sentence...”, and so on. So, again, why did you switch here? Sorry, I am asking you too many questions, and you have to think, but basically I [no I find it interesting] find it... [this is the first time I’ve ever seen an observation transcript]. Actually, I have to transcribe all the observation recordings. For my transcripts of your observations, I printed every section where there are your switches to discuss with you because they seem to interest me a lot.>

T4: Chỗ này, chỗ này thì có lẽ là vì có 1 số em cũng hơi lúng túng, tôi đưa câu hỏi này ra bằng tiếng Việt.
<Here, in this situation, perhaps because some students looked embarrassed, so I asked them in Vietnamese.>

(. . .)

Int: Chúng ta tiếp nhé, ở đây nhé. Thế thì rõ ràng là có việc là mình sử dụng tiếng Việt, đúng không ạ? Qua cái như thế này, cũng trao đổi với nhau các thứ. Thế thì xin cô giáo cho biết là những thuận lợi khi mà sử dụng tiếng Việt trong 1 số tình huống là gì?
<Let’s go on. It is clear that there is your use of Vietnamese, isn’t it? Can you tell me the advantages of using Vietnamese in some situations in your instruction?>

T4: Có cái cảm giác là học sinh sẽ nhanh chóng đáp ứng những mong đợi của mình. Ví dụ khi mình đặt câu hỏi với học sinh khi mình có 1 vài cái gợi ý bằng tiếng Việt thì học sinh nhanh hơn. Hay là khi mình dạy từ mới thì mình có cảm giác là học sinh sẽ nhanh chóng biết cái từ đấy là gì để sử dụng đúng ngữ cảnh.
<I feel that my students will quickly meet what I expect from them. For example when I question them and give them a couple of prompts in Vietnamese, they will respond to me faster, or when teaching them new words, I use Vietnamese, I feel that my students will know those words more quickly and they will be able to use them appropriately in contexts.>

Int: Thế còn có bất lợi gì không khi mà sử dụng tiếng Việt như vậy?
<What about the disadvantages when using Vietnamese to teach English?>

T4: Sử dụng tiếng Việt cũng có cái bất lợi. Trong học sinh thì có những học sinh thì hoàn toàn hiểu bằng tiếng Anh rồi, cho nên là vẫn có những cái bất lợi nhất định, ví dụ học sinh sẽ có tư duy bằng tiếng Việt. Đôi khi cũng tạo nên thói quen, học sinh có thể là sử dụng tiếng Việt.
<There are also disadvantages in using Vietnamese to teach English. Some students are also able to understand when I speak only English, so there are certain disadvantages, for example students will still think in Vietnamese. Sometimes that forms a habit of using Vietnamese for students.>

(. . .)

((End of recording))

Appendix 7b: Excerpted sample of interview transcript of student

Interview transcript of student 8 (I.Tr.St8)

Participant: Student 8 (St8)
Interviewer: Thi Hang Nguyen
Location: Teachers' waiting room.
Recorded: 22/3/2012
Transcribed: 23/3/2012
Checked: 24/3/2012
Transcriber: Thi Hang Nguyen
Length: 13 minutes 51 seconds
Sound: Good. Occasional noise (sound of students talking outside, and interruption of a student's voice)

Interviewee's signature:

Int: (. . .) Trước hết cô muốn hỏi em là khi dạy tiếng Anh trên lớp thì thầy cô của em dùng tiếng Anh, tiếng Việt hay cả hai thứ tiếng?
<(. . .) First of all, can you tell me what language does your teacher use while teaching English in the class, does he use English or Vietnamese, or both?>

St8: Thưa cô là dùng cả hai thứ tiếng.
<He uses both, Ms.>

Int: Trong quá trình dùng cả hai thứ tiếng thì thầy cô giáo của em dùng tiếng Anh hay tiếng Việt nhiều hơn?
<Which language, English or Vietnamese, does your teacher use more than the other?>

St8: Em nghĩ là cả hai đều song song với nhau. [song song với nhau? em có thể nói rõ hơn một chút chỗ này được không?]. Thứ nhất là thầy cô nói ra những cụm từ hoặc là câu bằng tiếng Anh sau đó là nói cái nghĩa tiếng Việt của câu đấy. [khi đó thì thầy cô thường sử dụng tiếng nào trước?]. Tiếng Anh trước ạ. [theo em thì tỉ lệ giữa tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt là bao nhiêu?]. Em cảm thấy tiếng Anh chỉ khoảng 40% thôi ạ. [tiếng Việt] thì 60%.
<I think both are parallel. [Parallel? can you tell me a bit more about this?]. The first thing is my teacher says a phrase or sentence in English, then restates what he has said in Vietnamese [what language does he use first in that situation?]. He uses English first [what is the rate of his use of English and Vietnamese?]. I feel he only uses about 40% English. [and Vietnamese?] about 60%.>

Int: Em có thích việc thầy cô giáo dùng luân lượt cả hai thứ tiếng khi dạy tiếng Anh cho các em không?
<Do you like it when your teacher uses both languages alternatively to teach English to you?>

St8: Ừm...theo ý kiến cá nhân em thì dùng như thế này là chấp nhận được ạ. [tức là em có thích không?]. Thích ạ.
<Umm...in my opinion it is acceptable. [so do you like it?]. Yes, I do.>

Int: Em có nghĩ là sẽ tốt cho sinh viên học tiếng Anh khi cô giáo dùng luân lượt tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt không? [interruption of a student from outside asking the location of her class]. Cô nhắc lại nhé vì có một bạn vừa hỏi. Tức là khi thầy cô dạy tiếng Anh dùng luân phiên hai thứ tiếng thế thì có tốt cho các em khi học tiếng Anh không?

<Do you think it is good for you to learn English when your teacher alternatively uses English and Vietnamese? [interruption of a student from outside asking the location of her class]. I'll say that again. I mean is it good for you to learn English when your teacher alternatively uses both languages?>

St11: Em nghĩ là như thế thì cũng không tốt lắm. Đây là một giờ tiếng Anh thì nếu để mà tốt nhất thì chỉ dùng một thứ tiếng thôi, là tiếng Anh thì sẽ đạt hiệu quả cao hơn. Nhưng theo em thì cách tiếp cận bằng cả hai thứ tiếng thì sẽ dễ dàng hơn. [*cá nhân em thì em có thích việc đó không?*] Em nghĩ là có ạ. [*vì sao em lại thích?*]. Bởi vì từ thời phổ thông thì thói quen học tập của em gắn liền với hình thức giảng dạy này nhưng mà bây giờ mà tiếp cận với cách chỉ dạy bằng tiếng Anh thì nó cũng khó khăn, rồi khả năng tiếp thu của bọn em.

<I don't think that is very good. This is an English class, so it is the best if you only use one language; I mean the English language. That will be more effective. But I think it is easier for us to approach a lesson by using both languages. [do you personally like that?] I think I like it. [why is that?]. Because my leaning habit at secondary school is related to this form of teaching, so now if I have another approach, that is the teacher only speaks English, I'll find it difficult, and it's because of our not good ability to acquire a foreign language as well.>

Int: *Em vừa nhắc đến phổ thông, đúng không? [vâng]. Cô lại muốn trao đổi với em một chút về phổ thông. Em học tiếng Anh tính đến nay được bao lâu rồi?*
<You've just mentioned your learning habit at school, right? [Yes]. I would like you to tell me a bit more about that. How long have you been learning English so far?>

St: Em học tiếng Anh cũng phải được được bảy năm rồi nhưng bây giờ chỉ nói được những câu hết sức đơn giản và cũng không thể lưu loát được. Em không có cơ hội để nói tiếng Anh. Cũng phải được 7 năm rồi ạ. [*Bảy năm. Vậy hỏi ở phổ thông thì các thầy cô dùng tiếng Anh hết hay cả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt?*] Cả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt ạ. [*thế ở phổ thông thì các thầy cô dùng tiếng Anh nhiều hơn hay tiếng Việt nhiều hơn?*]. Tiếng Việt nhiều hơn ạ. [*nhiều hơn nhiều không em?*] Có ạ.

<I have been learning English for 7 years now, but I can only communicate in English in very simple situations, and cannot speak fluently. I don't have chances to practise English. For seven years now, Ms [Seven years, so did your school teachers only use English or both English and Vietnamese?]. Both languages, English and Vietnamese, Ms [so which language was used more than the other by your teacher?]. More Vietnamese. [did they use much more ?] Yes, they did, much more Vietnamese than English>

Int: *Em nghĩ sao nếu thầy cô dạy tiếng Anh trên lớp dùng hoàn toàn tiếng Anh?*
<What do you think if your current teacher of English uses English completely in the class?>

St11: Em nghĩ em cũng đồng ý với cách dạy đấy nhưng mà để sinh viên có thể tiếp cận và hiểu được thì có vẻ khó khăn. [*vì sao lại khó khăn hả em?*]. Bởi vì khi nói như thế thì ảnh hưởng đến thói quen học tập ấy ạ vì khi chỉ nghe bằng tiếng Anh thì có nhiều chỗ mình không hiểu thì khó khăn để hiểu. [*khó khăn để hiểu ?*] Vâng. [*Với khoảng thời gian học tiếng Anh như vậy thì các em có nghĩ đã đủ khả năng giao tiếp bằng tiếng Anh chưa?*]

<I think I approve of that way of teaching, but it seems to be difficult for all students to approach and understand. [why do you think it is difficult?] Because that way of teaching will affect our learning habit, that is, if we only listen to English, we cannot understand everything, and it is very difficult to understand. [difficult to understand?]. Yes. [do you think that you are able to communicate in English after years of leaning English?>

St8: Em nghĩ là có thể trong một vài tình huống đơn giản thì có thể giao tiếp được nhưng mà để mà nói trôi chảy thì không thể nói được.
<I think I can in certain simple situations, but to be fluent is impossible.>

(. . .)

Int: Ở một số nơi trên thế giới thì người ta đã nghiên cứu về hiện tượng này và đưa ra được những hướng dẫn, hoặc chính sách về ngôn ngữ trong lớp học tiếng Anh mà buộc mọi người phải tuân theo. Ví dụ như chính sách “chỉ sử dụng tiếng Anh” trên lớp. Em nghĩ gì về chính sách này?
<There have been studies of code-switching around the world, and researchers have provided guides or policies of using language in the English class for teachers and students. For example, the policy of “English use only”. What is your opinion about this policy?>

St8: Em nghĩ là chính sách xét về mặt lâu dài để đạt hiệu quả cao thì phải dùng từ cái bậc học thấp hơn [*bậc học thấp hơn*]. Vâng, chứ còn em đã học tiếng Anh tiếng Việt từ trước mà bây giờ hoàn toàn bằng tiếng Anh là điều khó khăn.
<I think this policy, for a long term, in order to be effective, should have been applied to lower educational level, I mean secondary school. [*lower educational level?*] Yes, so I have learned English in both languages, but now if I have to be complete in English it is a great challenge, really>

Int: Ý em là vấn đề là từ khi các em bắt đầu học tiếng Anh chứ không phải là từ đại học?
<Do you mean that such a policy should have been applied since you started learning English, but not when you are at university?>

St8: Vâng.
<Yes.>

Int: Theo em nếu giờ mà đưa chính sách “chỉ sử dụng tiếng Anh” vào môi trường của các em thì có phù hợp không?
<What do you think if, right now, the policy of “English use only” is introduced and applied to your university?>

St8: Em nghĩ là cái này là cả một quá trình giáo dục từ bên dưới bậc thấp hơn chứ còn chỉ làm với mỗi hệ đại học thì lại khó khăn hơn.
<I think this problem should have been solved since we were at secondary school, and it will be more difficult to be done at only university level.>

Int: Ý em là tại thời điểm này thì...?
<You mean by this point of time...?>

St8: Em cũng không muốn có chính sách chỉ sử dụng tiếng Anh hoàn toàn.
<I would not like such English use only policy.>

(. . .)

((End of recording))