CHILD DIRECTED SPEECH: ANALYSIS OF TEACHER-PRESCHOOL CHILDREN DISCOURSE

NASIMAH BINTI ABDUL WAHAB

TGB100029

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Name of Candidate: Nasimah Binti Abdul Wahab

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ABSTRACT

A study on the characteristics of 'child directed speech' in the discourse between a preschool teacher and 12 preschool children in a Malaysian preschool was conducted to analyse the features associated in a classroom-oriented 'child directed speech'. Pilot study was done pre-recording to anticipate difficulties that might be encountered in the course of conducting the study and in the process of video-recording the discourse happening between the teacher and the preschool children. Appropriate solutions were selected by the researcher to overcome those problems noted in the pilot study.

Sampling was selected based on a given guidelines prepared by the researcher. The sampling was observed and recorded in the classroom setting. There was an interview conducted with the preschool teacher post-recording as to assess the obtained data. Questionnaire was given to the preschool teacher to collect the background information of the preschool children chosen for this study. Consent form was also distributed to the teacher to collect the teacher and the students' approval in participating in this study.

The findings indicate that six features of 'child directed speech' was found in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children and they were: prosodic, lexical, complexity, redundancy, content and code-switching features.

ABSTRAK

Satu kajian telah dibuat dengan mengkaji ciri-ciri ‘ucapan berpandukan kanak-kanak’ di dalam percakapan melibatkan seorang guru tadika dan 12 orang murid tadika di sebuah tadika di Malaysia untuk menganalisi ciri-ciri yang berkaitan dengan ‘ucapan berpandukan kanak-kanak’ yang melibatkan bilik darjah. Satu penyelidikan percubaan telah dibuat sebelum sesi rakaman untuk menjangkakan kesulitan yang mungkin berlaku sewaktu membuat penyelidikan dan sewaktu process menjalankan sesi video rakaman di dalam percakapan melibatkan seorang guru tadika dan murid-murid tadika tersebut. Penyelesaian yang berpatutan telah dicari oleh penyelidik untuk mengatasi masalah yang dijangka muncul sewaktu penyelidikan percubaan tersebut.

Peserta-peserta telah dipilih berdasarkan satu panduan yang telah dirangka oleh penyelidik. Peserta-peserta telah diperhatikan dan dirakam di dalam bilik darjah. Terdapat satu sesi soal jawab dijalankan di antara penyelidik dan guru tadika selepas sesi rakaman untuk menyoal tentang butiran yang diperolehi melalui rakaman tersebut. Borang soal selidik turut diberikan kepada guru tadika untuk mengumpul maklumat peribadi murid-murid tadika yang dipilih untuk kajian ini. Surat kebenaran turut diedarkan kepada guru tadika untuk mengumpulkan akuan janji guru tadika dan murid-murid tadika yang mereka berminat untuk terlibat dalam kajian ini. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa terdapat enam ciri-ciri ‘ucapan berpandukan kanak-kanak’ yang wujud di dalam percakapan melibatkan seorang guru tadika dan 12 orang murid tadika. Ciri-ciri tersebut adalah: prosodik, leksikal, kerumitan, pengulangan balik, isi kandungan dan pertukaran bahasa.

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Credits also should be given to those teachers and students who were involved in the pilot study as without their crucial input and suggestions, the recording would have many flaws that need serious adjustment. The involvement of all these key players made the research possible to be accomplished.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Child Directed Speech

As an introduction chapter to this research report, this chapter will focus on the following components: (1) the background of study; (2) the problem of statement; (3) the research objective; (4) the research questions; (5) the scope of study; (6) the significance of study; (7) the limitation of study; (8) and lastly the definition of terms.

In child language studies, 'child directed speech' is extensively studied as it showcases the kind of speech adopted by parents or caretakers when conversing with their children. According to Rosemarie and Thompson (2010), there were wide-ranging literature that shows the effectiveness of 'child directed speech' in attracting the attention of infants and young children. Snow (1995) as cited in Fahim and Rahimi (2013) mentions that 'child directed speech' is the modifications parents make when communicating with their children and some of its prominent features are simple syntactic structures and limited range of vocabularies.

'Child directed speech' is noticeable in adult–children interaction as its features and characteristics can assist a young child to master certain aspects of a language. For example, making referents to new objects. Fernald (1985) as cited in Faulkner, Lieven and Tomasello (2003) states that it is notably evident that infants, who are in the early stage of

language exposure, prefer 'child directed speech' to adult-kind of speech and they fare better in word and sentence segmentation. Thus, the role of 'child directed speech' in the developmental process of a child's language prowess is fundamental as this speech attract a child's attention in learning the complex details of a language which enable successful language acquisition.

Studies on 'child directed speech' begin very early. Faulkner, Lieven and Tomasello (2003) mentioned that in the 1970s, studies done in this area show that adults, especially Westerners, speak in a different way to young children compared to when they talk to other adults. Cross and Snow (1977; 1989) as cited in Kunert, Fernandez and Zuidema (2011) in their respective studies also mention that in the late seventies, researchers who studied language acquisition observed that speeches by adults were modified according to a child's linguistic level. Thus, based on these early studies, it can be said that 'child directed speech' has been adopted constructively by so many generations of adults, proving the effectiveness of utilizing this speech towards young children.

The process of speech modification gives the notion that 'child directed speech' evolved significantly over the course of time. This process of modifying or adapting to a child's level of comprehension is referred to as 'finetuning'. Snow (1989) as cited in Kunert, Fernandez and Zuidema (2011) defines finetuning as the adjustment of complexity level in 'child directed speech' in accordance to a child's own output's complexity level. For example, some young children could not understand embedded sentences as they may get confused in figuring out the meaning of the sentences, thus, an adult may finetune his or her sentences by producing simple sentences with no embedding elements.

According to Kunert, Fernandez and Zuidema (2011), several prominent studies have demonstrated that 'child directed speech' contain unique features such as being spoken at slower rate, has wider pitch range, fewer dysfluencies, simple syntactic constructions, ungrammatical structures, shorter sentences, uncommon complex structures and limited vocabulary. These features are normally constrained to fit a child's interests and to draw their attention.

Faulkner, Lieven and Tomasello (2003) characterized the features of 'child directed speech' as having higher pitch, exaggerated intonation, restricted range of conversational topics, and selective use of words and syntactic constructions. For example, an adult may introduce the object 'car' by giving a child a toy resembling a car, emphasizing the word 'car' by saying it in a very high pitch and may exaggerate the word as well in order to attract the child's attention.

As an area of language acquisition which has been rarely emphasized in the context of Malaysia, this research attempts to discuss the presence of 'child directed speech' in teacher-preschool children discourse.

1.1 Background Of Study

'Child directed speech' is more commonly associated with Lev Vygotsky's Social Interactionist Theory. According to Lourenco (2012), the Social Interactionist Theory supports 'child directed speech' as this theory says that language is easier to acquire in the presence of adults who can provide the child with social interaction that use language. In

this theory, the environment is regarded as the focal point for language growth and language acquisition (Piper, 1998) as cited in Matychuk (2005). For example, a child raised with many siblings acquire a language more effectively due to the constant interaction the child get with the siblings compared to a child raised in a household where only the mother interacts with the child.

According to Piper (1998) as cited in Matychuk (2005), social interactionists strongly believe that children play an active role in the course of communication with their parents. The social environment plays a huge part in helping children to acquire language due to the constant interaction and attention received by the children. Piper (1998) as cited in Matychuk (2005) adds that in a child's environment, learning is applied successfully within interaction that occurs between the child and the mother or the caregiver who play a prominent role.

The continuous usage of 'child directed speech' can enable parents or caregivers to form a bond between themselves and the child as this speech can be adaptable according to the linguistic level of a child. When interacting with young children, parents unconsciously accommodate their speech with the cognitive and linguistic levels possessed by a child in order to assist the child in acquiring a particular language (Piper, 1998) as cited in Matychuk (2005). For example, parents tend to talk about parts of body when communicating to a two-year-old child but hardly talk about the subject with a ten-year-old child who had already mastered it.

Cooper and Paccia-Cooper (1980) as cited in Bloom (1993) mentions that prosodic structure marks different syntactic notions, thus adult's modified intonation helps children to clearly distinguish and analyse the spoken form of a language. For example, when an adult utters the sentence 'do you want to sit' with the word 'sit' pronounced with a lowered intonation, a child is able to identify the sentence as interrogative (question form), but when the adult pronounced the word in an increased intonation, the child identify the sentence as imperative (command form).

This particular study focusing on the usage of 'child directed speech' was located in a preschool setting in peninsular Malaysia. Focusing on teacher-preschool children classroom interaction, 12 preschool children were selected for the study (refer to Section 3.2 for further information on the selection of the preschool children). Since 'child directed speech' contains certain elements including phonological and morphological aspects, this study set out to collect and adapt data which had occurred in a classroom setting.

1.2 Problem Statement

'Child directed speech' is more commonly related to parents and developing young children, judging by the extensive studies done in the recent years. According to Piper (1998) as cited in Matychuk (2005), social interactionists pinpoint, that apart from the parents, caregivers could also be a primary source for a child's language input. Touching on the relationship between adult and children, Mccune (2008) says that parents and caregivers contribute significantly by understanding and attuning to the children under their care for a better language development. For example, when talking to young children, adults tend to

speak in a slower rate, emphasising on certain words or phrases as they know that children need time and guidance to effectively process the information delivered to them.

According to Rhyner (2007), when it comes to adult–child communicative discourse, focus has been more on communicative interactions between parents and their children. Very little research focuses on adults who care for children in childcare centres. Rhyner (2007) states that since there is more spotlight on the communicative behavior of parents, it would be a one-sided view to summarise the same conclusion on childcare providers. Nevertheless, childcare providers hold the responsibility to facilitate the children's language development. Hence, it is crucial to evaluate their role and their communicative behaviors too.

A number of studies has been done in analyzing the interactions between childcare providers and the children they care for. Pellegrino and Scopesi (1990) as cited in Rhyner (2007) studied five caregivers in an Italian daycare centre. They identified the language alterations made by the caregivers in relation to the age and group size of the children they taught. The same study also found that there was an increase in the rate and complexity of the caregivers' utterances in relation with the children's ages. However, the level of linguistic complexity was lower with a majority of the children, notwithstanding their age. This implies that 'child directed speech' may be varied according to the children the caregivers interact with.

Girolametto, Hoaken, Weitzman and van Lieshout (2000) as cited in Rhyner (2007) studied eight preschool caregivers and analysed the structural and discourse features of the caregivers' language during a children's book reading and play session. Their findings indicate that the caregivers used significantly more directive language during the book reading session and the caregivers used significantly more interaction-promoting language during the play session.

Generally, there are limited studies on childcare providers and children's communicative discourse in the Asian context. Most studies focused on discovering the language structure or function of childcare providers (see Girolametto, et al. (2000) as cited in Rhyner (2007) and the frequency of verbal interactions of childcare providers (McCartney, 1984) as cited in Rhyner (2007).

Thus to fill this particular research gap, it is essential for a research to be conducted in Malaysia by focusing on childcare providers and their interaction with young children. The outcome obtained from this study can provide many benefits for young children in their quest to acquire a language. This study can also serve as a guideline for existing and future preschool teachers on how to interact with preschool children who are having early language development is shaped by the input of adults in their environment.

Furthermore, most of the description on 'child directed speech' was derived from data compiled from English-speaking monolinguals as can be seen from the countless studies on 'child directed speech' featured in this research. Thus, this study conducted in the

Malaysian setting, would substantiate the features of 'child directed speech' provided by the data collected from monolingual English speakers.

1.3 Research Objective

This study concentrates on the usage of 'child directed speech' in a preschool setting and it gives focus to the discourse happening between a preschool teacher and 12 preschool children. In that regard, the research objective to be achieved is to identify the characteristics of 'child directed speech' occurring in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children in a Malaysian preschool setting.

This study also focusses on discovering the common and least common characteristics that could be derived based on the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers data and data compiled from the usage of 'child directed speech' in a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children discourse.

1.4 Research Questions

In order to achieve the mentioned objective, the following research questions were formulated:

(1) What are the characteristics of 'child directed speech' in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children?

(2) What are the common characteristics as compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children?

3) What are the least frequent characteristics as compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children?

1.5 Scope of Research

This research tries to bring the focus of adult-child interaction on individuals, with the exclusion of parents, who integrate 'child directed speech' in the course of communicating with children. Taking the context of 'child directed speech' from the usual home domain to a classroom domain, the researcher aims to study on the features of 'child directed speech' among Malaysian preschool teachers in the course of interacting with their young students.

1.6 Significance of Research

This research will significantly trace the common features of 'child directed speech' used by Malaysian preschool teachers in facilitating the language development of preschool children. The UNESCO International Bureau of Education (2006) says that in Malaysia, early childhood education has developed very progressively from 2003 onwards when Malaysian Ministry of Education institutionalized the National Preschool Curriculum as compulsory in all preschools.

The progressiveness of preschools is inevitable as presently, most parents are working and have lesser time to interact with their children. Yet, some parents still remain sceptical about sending their children to these preschool institutions, preferring to teach on their own by starting home-schooling (Goh, 2013). There are also parents who only send their children to school from the age of seven onwards, the age when a child is compulsorily required to attend primary education. This could cause the child to lose out to those children who had attended preschool education, thereby having an early start comparatively.

The findings of this study can alert parents to the contribution of teachers in children's language development. From the findings, parents will be able to acknowledge the role teacher plays in ensuring that effective language learning takes place in a child's life. The findings of this study will also help children to identify strategies to grasp classroom language learning successfully and teachers can also reflect on the importance of adopting 'child directed speech' in their classroom to enable school-going children to acquire language successfully.

1.7 Limitations of Research

There are a few limitations which control this research and they are:

(1) Limited scope of research

This study is conducted in one preschool located in Perak, a particular peninsular state in Malaysia. Even though some may question the relevance of having one single preschool institution to be studied for this research, the research approach adopted in this study can be

replicated by analysing other preschool institutions. The researcher had also fixed several criteria in selecting the most suitable institution for this research (the criteria are clearly listed in Chapter 3).

(2) The nationality and the age of the sampling.

One of the criteria in selecting a preschool institution for this study is that the institution caters only to Malaysian children as children from other countries may affect the findings of this study due to the difference in their linguistic environment. Several institutions that the researcher met up declined to participate with the reason being this study may intrude into the children's personal life. Positively, there is one preschool institution who agreed to participate but they cater to Malaysian and non-Malaysian students. Hence, in the classroom selected for this study, there are 10 Malaysian students and two Sudanese students and the student also differs in age as they range from four years old to six years old.

1.8 Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the term 'child directed speech' is defined. 'Child directed speech' is a special way of talking adopted by adults to young children who are in the process of language acquiring (Whyatt, 1994). As for preschool, Ling-Yin (2006) defines 'preschool' as child care centres and kindergartens.

In child language studies, Matychuk (2005) defines input as the language which arrives at a child's sensory receptors and which may being directed or not being directed meaningfully at the child. As for output, Matychuk refers it as the language produced communicatively by a child.

1.9 Summary

This chapter is an overall view of the research undertaken by the researcher. The background information, problem statement, research objective, research questions, significance and limitations of the study were highlighted in order to ensure the relevance of the research. In the following Chapter 2, there would be review on articles and studies to further enrich knowledge on the subject being discussed. Some of the prominent research findings related to 'child directed speech' would be discussed in order to give credence to the decision of undertaking this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter, several perspectives of 'child directed speech' are elaborated. The focus of the discussion is firmly placed on the variation and the usage of 'child directed speech'. Before further exploration of 'child directed speech', it is essential to learn where the term is derived from and what the characteristics associated with it are in order to have a clearer picture of the term and its usage in child interactions.

Thus, the following subsections: (1) variations and usage of 'child directed speech'; (2) characteristics of 'child directed speech'; (3) teacher-preschool children discourse; and (4) the preschool system in Malaysia will be provided. They are meant to highlight the extent of child directed speech studies as well as to showcase the findings of previous studies that can help to substantiate the result of the current study.

According to Eisenbeiss (2010), when talking to children, adults mostly label objects and describe ongoing events for them. She also adds that such a variety of speech used by parents may also result in children making speech error as they struggle to make adult-like utterances. At such moment, parents unconsciously correct their children's errors. Likewise, Eisenbeiss (2010), says 'child directed speech' is also instinctive and does not differ much across cultures.

Looking at the features of this variety of speech, Eisenbeiss (2010) states that it is generally short, but can be mostly correct and complete utterances. It may be said slowly with longer pauses than adult-directed speech. It may also contain a high, varied pitch, with exaggerated intonation (in the context of this study it is termed as lengthened feature) and also stress where emphasis is given to identification of words and phrase boundaries. It also contains limited vocabulary and reference is often restricted to the here and now context with high quantities of imperatives and questions and more repetitions than adult variety.

2.1 Variations and Usage in 'Child Directed Speech'

'Child directed speech' is referred in many different forms such as infant-directed speech, motherese, parentese, caretaker speech, nursery talk, nursery language, and caregiver speech (Cattell, 2000) as cited in Matychuk (2005). According to Vosoughi and Roy (2012), child-directed speech is a speech that is directed by caregivers towards infants or young children. In child language development, various studies have demonstrated that this speech have special features such as exaggerated prosody and shorter utterance lengths when compared to speech directed to adults.

Calling it 'baby talk', Ingram (1989), says the term 'baby talk' is the language used specifically by anyone in the linguistic community when interacting with children. Owens (2008) further explains that 'baby talk' is the speech used by adults and children to infants, it is often systematically modified from the speech used in regular conversation to accommodate young children. According to Christine and Jensen (1990), a particular speech addressed towards small children represents a speech register which is very special and it was thus named as 'baby talk'.

Cattell (2000) mentions that linguists do not prefer the term 'baby talk' because they consider that the term becomes inept when infancy period is over and as the child matures into a more advanced stage. Even though the term 'motherese' has been frequently used to refer to 'child directed speech', some argue against this term since it is not only mothers who use this speech, but also fathers, relatives and strangers. Lund and Duchan (1993) state that not only do adults use this speech when interacting with children, but that older children also use it when interacting with younger children. Thus, linguists prefer to have the term 'child directed speech' to be used as an alternative.

Cohen (1999) mentions that 'baby talk' or 'child directed speech' is a culturally perpetuated approach. Cohen (1999) states that this speech reflects adults' attempt in producing comprehensible input for young children and their intention in using it is mainly to produce a 'register', which is a special way of talking to children. Lund and Duchan (1993) say that in 'child directed speech', adults respond to children's utterances by recasting it in a different form or by providing positive acknowledgement of the communicative attempt of the children.

Emphasizing the importance of exposing children to 'child directed speech', Schuster, Pancoast, Ganjoo, Frank and Jurafsky (2014) mention that in early childhood, the language environment and the language performance of a child are highly connected. For example, Weisleder and Fernald (2013) found out in their study that infants who come from low socioeconomic status families but are given exposure to child-directed speech demonstrated large vocabulary grasp by the time they turn to two years old, showing how the environment and not the background of the child plays a prominent role in the child's language development.

2.2 Characteristics of 'Child Directed Speech'

How to identify the characteristics of 'child directed speech'? According to Saxton (2008) as cited in Herat (2010), when speakers talk to young children, there is a wide range of modifications in these linguistic elements: phonology, lexis and syntax. Phonology refers to the sound of the words or speech used, lexis refers to the simplified vocabulary and syntax refers to the simplified sentence structures. More explanation on these linguistic elements will be provided in the following sentences.

Ferguson (1977) as cited in Lust (2006) says that people tend to modify their speech when talking to young children and these modifications are innate. Ferguson (1978) as cited in Lust (2006), suggests several features that could be categorized as 'baby talk register' and these features were: prosody (high pitch, exaggerated contours, slow rate), syntax (short sentences, parataxis, telegraphic style, repetition), lexicon (kin terms and body parts, infant games, qualities, compound verb, hypocorism), phonology (cluster reduction, liquid substitution, reduplication, special sounds), discourse (questions, pronoun shift) and extended uses (child speech, animals, adult intimacy).

According to Kaye (1980), there are five kinds of characteristics of 'baby talk': prosodic features (higher pitch, greater range of frequencies, more varied intonation), lexical features (special forms like *potty* and *nana*), complexity features (shorter utterances, fewer embedded clauses, fewer verb auxiliaries, etc.), redundancy features (more immediate repetition and more repetition of the same words/phrases over a period of time) and content features (restriction to topics in the child's world).

This study mainly adapted Kaye's (1980) model of features of 'child directed speech' (refer to Subchapter 3.1) as the features are well-balanced, encompassing some aspects of linguistic study such as phonology, morphology, syntax and discourse. Each of the features proposed by Kaye (1980) would be reviewed individually in the following subsections. The phenomenon of code-switching is also included as it is part of the findings of this study on preschool teacher-preschool children discourse.

2.2.1 Prosody Features

Touching on the phonological features of 'child directed speech', Dominey and Dodane (2004), mention that, in mother-child interactions, prosodic features are usually exaggerated forming a musical-kind of language in order to attract a child's focus. In Payne, Post, Astruc-Aguilera, Prieto and Vanrell (2009) study, seven prominent prosodic features were identified: higher pitch, lengthier pronunciation of individual words, noticeable final lengthening, slower speech rate, higher amplitude, longer pauses and pauses being positioned at phrase boundaries.

Focusing on prosodic aspects, Kajikawa, Amano, and Kondo (2004) who studied on speech overlap in the interaction between Japanese mothers and their children, mention that changes happen in the acoustic and temporal features in accordance to a child's development.

2.2.2 Lexical Features

In 'child directed speech', it has been noted that parents tend to reduce the lexicon or add special lexical items when talking to their children usually involving food, body parts, next of kin, animals, toys and games (Ferguson (1978) as cited in Lust (2006). Kuang (2012) also noted that these are the common areas of talk between parents and their young children. According to Ferguson (1978) as cited in Herat (2010), there are several types of lexical features such as diminutives (the word 'doggie' referring to 'dog'), onomatopoeia (the word 'woof-woof' referring to the barking sound produced by dog) and reduplicated words (the word 'nyam-nyam' referring to the notion of eating). Kuang (2012) also noted similar features, although in her work, it was found that some of the lexical features were reduced in terms of syllables, for instance, banana was reduced to 'nana' and helicopter was reduced to 'copter'. When the child was asked how the horse walked, the child also used 'onomatopoeia' to indicate his understanding on the subject being inquired.

Herat's (2010) study on the use of 'child directed speech' in a Singhala-English household showed how lexical features were adopted by the participants in the study. Herat (2010) noted that the lexical items, which were related to playing, feeding and reading activities, belonged to categories such as kinship terms, body parts, animals, common objects, food and drink. For instance, for kinship terms, she found that the word 'amma' refers to 'mother', while the word 'appa' refers to 'father'.

2.2.3 Complexity Features

Complexity features refer to the grammar or syntax of constructions. Looking at the syntactical aspects of 'child directed speech', Dominey and Dodane (2004) mention that mothers usually communicate in a specific manner such that the syntax is usually simplified. In most instances, the variety used with the child is of the simplest form. For example, Kuang (2012) found inverted question form such as 'where mommy?'. Snow and Ferguson (1977) as cited in McDonagh and McDonagh (1999) indicate that 'child directed speech' is simple and redundant as it contains the following syntactical elements: many questions, many imperatives, few past tenses and finally few coordinating or subordinating conjunctions.

As to why syntactical simplification is adopted by mothers when communicating with their children, Ninio (2010)'s explanation on telegraphic speech would help to address this issue. The term `telegraphic speech' is created by Brown and Fraser (1963) as cited in Ninio (2010) as a way to illustrate children's utterances in the early stage which resembles the structure of telegrams. In this stage, children tend to omit closed-class words such as articles, auxiliary verbs, copulas, prepositions and conjunctions. For example, a child saying the following to his mother 'Bring milk' or 'Go shop'.

In the stage of developing language, most children cannot remember all the words used by an adult with them, possibly because of their developmental age. Consequently, most children tend to be able to repeat the last few syllables such as 'where going mum?' instead of 'where are you going now mum?'. Like telegraphic speech, the function words such as

articles and modal verbs may not seem necessary to convey a meaning. Due to their young age, adults are also unable to use too many complex forms with them, as to words, it cannot be denied that as young growing up human beings, most children prefer open-class words such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives as these words express most of what the children intended to convey. For example, when a child feels hungry, the child simply say 'I hungry' instead of saying 'I am hungry'.

In the book 'A first language: The early stages', Brown (1973) as cited in Bowen (1998) lists the stages that a child normally undergoes in the linguistic development, especially in the acquisition of morphology, grammar and syntax. As the age of the preschool children selected for this study ranges from four to six years old, Brown (1973) as cited in Bowen (1998) put this age range in Stage Five of a child's linguistic development. In this stage, a child naturally has acquired the following grammatical components: third person irregular, uncontractible auxiliary, contractible auxiliary and contractible copula. In terms of morphological development, a child in Stage Five is expected to have mean length of utterance of about 4.00 morphemes.

Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (1977), who did a study on 'motherese' on 15 mothers and their young daughters, found that based on the utterances from the mothers, 18 percent were imperatives and 44 percent were questions. Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (1977) also noted the infrequent occurrence of the element of embeddings and conjunctions in the utterances of the mothers.

Supporting Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (1977) study in which interrogative form appear more frequently compared to other syntactical forms, in Broen's (1972) as cited in Faulkner, Lieven and Tomasello (2003) study, he analyzed all the maternal utterances, which occurred during the five minutes of free play between mothers and their children, and listed it into five separate sentence categories. The findings revealed that the percentage attributed for questions is higher (37 percent) compared to other sentence categories such as declaratives which is about 30 percent and while imperatives got 24 percent.

Kazakovskaya and Balciuniene (2012) also investigated on the functions and structures of questions formed by parents and addressed towards their young children. Focusing on functional and structural types of interrogatives in Russian and Lithuanian 'child directed speech', their study identified and compared the variety and distribution of the interrogatives. The findings stated that compared to imperatives, statements and exclamations, interrogatives appear more frequently in both Russian and Lithuanian 'child directed speech'.

The reason why interrogatives thrive more in 'child directed speech' than the other syntactical forms could be attributed to the fact that young children are more familiar with this particular syntactic form as they learn the objects surrounding them by asking the 'Wh'- question. The fact that interrogatives are more direct in meaning and are less complicated sentence structure, makes parents and caregivers to utilise this syntactic form in their communication with young children.

2.2.4 Redundancy Features

Touching on redundancy features, the researcher is mainly concentrating on repetition found in the discourse between the preschool teacher and the preschool children. De Boysson-Bardies (1999) as cited in Matychuk (2005) mentions that sentences found in the application of baby talk are simple, short, and repeated. In his study, Matychuk (2005) found that as many as 30 percent of the mother's utterances can be categorized as repetitions of one of the earlier sentences of the mother to the child. These repetitions are either partially (only some parts of the utterances being repeated) or completely (the whole utterance being repeated).

Matychuk (2005), in his explanation on mothers' speech addressed towards children in the age range between one to two years old, states that mothers have this tendency to repeat isolated phrases and words following the complete utterance. For example, a mother say to her young son 'why don't you pick up your toys and place it inside the box', the boy just kept on playing with his toys. Thus, the mother repeat her earlier utterance by uttering the imperative phrase 'pick up your toys'.

2.2.5 Content Features

Matychuk (2005) in explaining the nature of parents' speech towards their young children states that parents helps a child to focus on the environment surrounding the child by talking and elaborating on the objects found in the environment. This is known as the here-and-now concept as a child does not have the maturity to think beyond the unseen and

abstract notions. Generally, parents' strategy in employing conversational topics with a child depends on what a child is focusing at the moment or what is at the surrounding of the child.

For example, when a mother saw her young daughter riding a bicycle, the mother might say 'When you are riding the bicycle, look out for the rocks on the road or cats walking nearby as you may trip over them and fall'. The mother is clearly utilizing the here-and-now concept as she mentioned the objects that could be found in the environment surrounding the child.

2.2.6 Code-switching Features

Code switching is a common phenomenon of bilingual or multicultural countries such as Malaysia. Due to the accessibility of more than one language, speakers inadvertently use two languages within a conversation and likewise this also happens when adults speak to their children especially in this country. Kuang, David and Zuraidah (2006) have shown how mothers code-switch with their children. David, Kuang, Mclellan and Hashim (2009) have also demonstrated how common this communication strategy is among Malaysian families.

Although the term code-switching generally refers to the instance of speakers switching from one language to another language, within a conversation, there are various definitions offered by diverse scholars. Consequently, the term does not carry a definitive meaning since most linguists define the term in their own way of understanding.

Hymes (1974) as cited in Ayeomoni (2006), defines code-switching as the substitute use of two or more languages, varieties of a language or even speech styles while Bokamba (1989) as cited in Ayeomoni (2006) defines code-switching as the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two diverse grammatical components in the same speech situation. Heller (1988) as cited in Nilep (2006) says that code-switching is the use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative event. Ezarik (2002) as cited in Wheeler and Swords (2004), defines code-switch as choosing appropriate language form which suits the following elements: time, place, audience, and communicative purpose.

When it comes to the application of code-switching, Romaine (1989; Cenoz and Genesee 2001) as cited in Nilep (2006), mention that code-switching is used in the studies of language acquisition, second language acquisition, and language learning to describe two different entities: bilingual speakers' or language learners' cognitive linguistic abilities and classroom or learner practices involving the use of more than one language.

As mentioned earlier, code-switching is closely associated to bilingualism. According to Jakobson (1961) as cited in Auer (1998), code-switching can be equated to the adjustment made by a monolingual or bilingual to decode another individual's language code. Whereas according to Poplack (n.d.), code-switching refers to the act of bilinguals or multi-linguals collaborating two or more languages in discourse, and most commonly this collaboration happens with no change of interlocutor or topic and it could take place at any level of linguistic structure. However, Poplack (n.d.) adds that linguists are mostly drawn to the fact that the manifestation of this language collaboration happens within the boundaries of a single sentence, constituent, or even word.

When it comes to code-switching in classroom practises, in Ayeomoni's (2006) study, she investigated on what languages were acquired at the different living periods of a speech community's literate members. Through the use of questionnaire, she concluded that in this particular community, a child is exposed to bilingualism in the primary education stage. Thus, she found bilingualism make code-switching and code-mixing apparent in the linguistic performance of the child. She also advised English language teachers to invent methods that protect a child's language acquisition process from the drawbacks of code-switching and code-mixing.

In Lowi's (2005) study on bilingual Spanish/English speakers' telephone conversations, she researched on code-switching to undercover the following purposes: to identify the various types of code-switching that presents in those conversations, to evaluate the role of code-switching as a discourse feature and to describe their bilingual competency through the structures in their code-switching. Lowi (2005) analyzed qualitatively on her data on the forms and frequency of code-switching within the participants' bilingual discourse and interviewed participants on their bilingual backgrounds and on their approach towards bilingualism and code-switching. This study found code-switching functions for emphasis, topic change, and affection.

Touching on the presence of code-switching in 'child directed speech', Herat (2010) study on interaction between parents and a young child in a Sinhala/English bilingual household found that 'child directed speech' in a bilingual household is quite similar to a monolingual household's 'child directed speech' except for the existence of code-switching. Her study found that code-switching does not prevent achievement in a higher level in the languages

being learned, which in this case was the English language. In Herat (2010) study, it is noted that parents used code-switching to make themselves being clearly understood and to explain certain aspects to the child. It was also found that one of the parents used strategy to get the child to speak more in English which shows the conscious effort to make English as the language of the home domain.

As for this study, research concentrating on the use of 'code-switching' in the interaction involving preschool teacher and preschool children would enlighten the linguists on the impacts of the use of more than a language have in the classroom-oriented 'child directed speech'. If the findings indicate positive results, then teachers should not be too strict in admonishing the students for code-switching. However, if the findings indicate negative results, then teachers should prevent the occurrence of code-switching among the students. For example, teacher should make it a classroom rule where only the target language is used and whoever who breaks this rule would be punished as to emphasize the rule of using one language in classroom learning.

2.3 Teacher-Preschool Children Discourse

As this research mainly focuses on the teacher-preschool children discourse, studies conducted by other researchers will benefit this research in terms of the way other studies were conducted. For example, Masey (2004) highlights the conversation between teacher and children in preschool classroom in different contexts such as book reading, playtime and mealtimes. The findings revealed that the most productive times of day to promote oral language skills is during the book reading, playtime, and mealtimes.

Aukrust (2007) investigated the relationships between teacher-preschool children talk by focusing on children's second language vocabulary acquisition. Aukrust (2007) videotaped the teacher-preschool children interactions and classified teacher's lexical input as amount (density of word tokens), diversity (density of word types), and complexity (density of word types appearing within explanatory talk) of input. The study found very little relationships between the target children's immediate second language vocabulary skills and the amount, diversity, and complexity of teacher's usage of language.

Researches in teacher-preschool children interaction have also been conducted by Van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen (2010). Their extensive study focused on scaffolding which showcases the importance laid on understanding the relationship between these two divergent groups. Their findings suggest that scaffolding is effective based on students' metacognitive and cognitive activities. Scaffolding could also be found in parent-child interaction as Foster and Hund (2011) researched on the impact of scaffolding and overhearing on young children's use of the spatial terms.

Aside from preschool teachers, Rhyner's (2007) study focused on the interactions between childcare center caregivers and children. Her study showcases the different linguistic structures and communicative styles adopted by different caregivers. Rhyner highlighted the usage of declarative, imperative, compound/complex sentences, wh–question, yes/no, and choice questions in varying degrees by the caregivers in the course of communicating with the children. The findings discovered that caregivers tend to use either declarative sentences or *wh*– questions the most during children's book sharing session.

As for studies conducted in Malaysia, in terms of caretaker-child interaction, Khazriyati and Winskel (2012) studied on the usage of eight Malay shape-based numeral classifiers in interactions involving eleven caretakers and their child. The aim of the study was to identify the numeral classifiers, their frequency in the speech of the caretakers and the role that the usage of numeral classifiers plays in the acquisition of numeral classifier among Malay children. The findings show that in Malay caretaker-child interaction, the usage of Malay numeral classifier is not prominent, illustrating the variation of different numeral classifiers to different children due to the vast individual variation existing in the linguistic environment of the children.

When it comes to teacher-preschool children discourse, pinpointing the fact that there were more studies touching on other aspects of language rather than 'child directed speech', which can be considered as a research gap, the researcher decided to pursue a study on this particular area. Young children in Malaysia, especially school-going children, can gain so many advantages from this study on 'child directed speech' as it will shape their education system, the teacher's teaching methodology and finally the children's learning process.

2.4 Preschool System in Malaysia

Ling-Yin (2006) defines 'preschool' as child care centres and kindergartens which can be divided into: religious-based child care centres and kindergartens, workplace child care centres, private kindergartens, government-subsidised kindergartens, and child care centres that are operated either privately or by the government. According to Ling-Yin (2006), in

Singapore, the launch of the new kindergarten framework indicates the acknowledgement given by the Singaporean government for the importance of an early childhood experience.

Emphasizing on the importance of preschool and the impact they present on children, Lim and Torr (2008), mention in their study on literary teaching in preschool that preschool is the first formal introduction to the English language for children who rarely converse in English in their home domain. These children learn English at the same time as they learn to become literate in it. Supporting Lim and Torr (2008)'s study, Azman (2009) as cited in Musa, Lie and Azman (2012), mentions that in Malaysia, English literacy is mostly attained through the medium of school.

Azman (2009) as cited in Musa, Lie and Azman (2012) emphasizes that for school children, especially from rural areas, exposure to English language only happens during the English lesson. According to Azman (2009) as cited in Musa, Lie and Azman (2012), English literacy among Malaysian school children are mostly gained through school as in their eleven years of schooling from primary till secondary levels, they go through a formal and structured English learning process.

The recently revealed Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 states that there are 11 shifts to be undertaken. These education shifts are mainly developed for the purpose to boost English proficiency levels of school children (Shift 2) and to transform teaching into a profession of choice (Shift 4). In this blueprint, the government intends to expand literacy and numeracy programme to include English literacy; provide English teachers with more

exposure to the language; and encourage every child to learn a new language by 2025 ("Preliminary report", 2012).

The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 showcases the importance placed by the Malaysian government on the education system and the teaching system as well. Learning and mastering English is also given utmost prominence in order to increase the competitiveness level of the students in the international arena. Thus it is strongly suggested that students being taught from an early stage makes the blueprint easier to accomplish and preschool is the foundation stage for students to become exposed to English learning.

Out of the many studies done in Malaysia, it appears that most mainly touch on the policies and systems involved in the preschool institution. For example, Lihanna Borhan (2004) focused on Islamic preschool and analysed the Islamic values and teachings given to the children. Nevertheless, very few studies explore the on-going conversation or interaction happening between teacher-preschool children, the very much reason of why the researcher decided to explore more in depth into this subject.

In Mustaffa, Aman, Seong, and Noor (2011) study, the focus was on the classroom pedagogical discourse practices of English language lessons at primary school level in Malaysia. Through the application of discourse analysis, three case studies conducted in a particular state was discussed. Focusing on the teachers' and students' practices, observation and audio recording was utilized to derive the outcome. Meanwhile Musa, Lie and Azman (2012) studied on the problem and the practice of English language teaching

and learning in Malaysia, identifying the reasons for Malaysian learners' low achievement in English literacy.

Through the mentioned studies on preschool system in Malaysia and how it works, society would recognize and realize the importance of sending young children to this type of school which enhance their learning process and shape these young learners into better human beings who are well-balanced in every single aspects.

2.5 Summary

This chapter primarily provide some of the available studies pertaining to 'child directed speech'. Past and present studies conducted in foreign countries and also in Malaysia were emphasized. In the following Chapter 3, there would be detailed explanation on the methodology used in order to derive credible and valid results.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Classified as a classroom research, this research is conducted mainly in the domain of a classroom setting focusing on the discourse between teacher and students. Wragg (1999) as cited in Dornyei (2007) illustrates that classroom research started to flourish in the late 1920's in the United States researching on teacher's language and behaviour. Back then, Schacter and Gass (1996) as cited in Dornyei (2007) say that the process of doing classroom research does not indicate explicitly the intricate details such as getting permission to start the project, the data collection process, transcription and so on.

This research can also be categorised as 'field research' as the researcher was present in the classroom, observing and taking notes, from where the obtained primary data would reveal the much needed information pertaining to this study. A qualitative design has been chosen as the research design to explain the ongoing classroom activities and to provide an overall picture of the research. The researcher observed the teacher-preschool children discourse through the use of audio and video recordings. In that aspect, data was extracted from the recordings and thus, analysis of the data was descriptive. The researcher then analysed the obtained data for the occurrence of elements associated with 'child directed speech' by adopting Kaye's (1980) model.

This chapter will focus on the following components: (1) the theoretical framework used in this research; (2) the sampling employed; (3) the undertaken pilot study; (4) the collection of data; (5) the analysis of data; and (6) the ethical aspects that were taken into considerations.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

Basically, the researcher analyzed the data by referring to Kaye's (1980) model which presents the five kinds of features of 'baby talk'. The researcher adapted this particular model as the theoretical framework of this study to identify and analyse the elements of 'child directed speech'. As 'baby talk' and 'child directed speech' are referring to the same notion, but only differs in the term used, the researcher decided this is the appropriate model to analyse the occurrence of 'child directed speech' in teacher-preschool children discourse.

Table 3.1: Features of 'Child Directed Speech' (Kaye, 1980)

Feature	Explanation
Prosodic features	Wider range of frequencies and more varied intonation
Lexical features	Special word forms like *mommy, daddy*
Complexity features	Shorter utterances and fewer embedded clauses
Redundancy features	More repetition of the same words or phrases over a period of time
Content features	Topics in the children's world
Code-switching (Parts of the findings)	Use of more than one language in the course of communicating

The adapted Kaye's (1980) model of 'child directed speech' list six features to be analysed: prosodic, lexical, complexity, redundancy, content and code-switching (refer to Table 3.1). As for code-switching, is was added to the features of 'child directed speech' as it was parts of the findings in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children.

3.2 Sampling

Touching on the types of sampling employed in this research, purposive sampling is used as the ideal sampling method. Formerly known as "theoretical sampling", Glaser and Strauss (1967) as cited in Dornyei (2007) says that this sampling is a flexible process of selecting suitable participants in which there were several criteria enlisted in the process of choosing the research participants.

The sampling was chosen in an area located nearer to the researcher's place of living. In research, it is vital to choose sampling who can be easily contacted as there would be occurrence where a researcher needs to meet up several times with the sampling for further discussion and reconfirmation of the collected data. The researcher selected a preschool institution existing nearby in order to make the data gathering process much easier to be accomplished.

The sampling for this study consisted of teacher and preschool children from a private kindergarten; the researcher had selected one female teacher, who is of Malay ethnicity, with her respective 12 young students to be observed. The teacher is selected based on these criteria: had been working in the preschool institution for more than a year (having enough work experience and exposure to students); and proficient in English as the researcher is going to concentrate on interaction involving the English language.

The teacher was given two different forms to be read and understood before the recording take place and they were: sample informed consent form and questionnaire for children in which the teacher assisted by filling in the relevant background information of the children (refer to Appendix A and B). The sample informed consent form clearly explains the nature of the study and the aspects that could be expected during the recordings on the classroom interaction and interview with the teacher. The consent form also requires the teacher's and the students' willing participation in the study and there is also the possibility of withdrawing from the study in the event the teacher or the students do not feel comply to participate in the study.

According to Dornyei (2007), there are two types of consent: active and passive. Active consent is where sampling is asked to read and sign a consent form which lists the essential information pertaining to the research while a passive consent is where sampling agree orally not to opt out from the research. Dornyei states that when it comes to classroom research, additional consent must be gathered from the parents when it comes to minors like young children. Though, it is best to use passive consent when the researcher deals with the parents by informing the nature of the study and the parents' consent is considered given if the parents did not object to the proposed research.

Thus, the researcher asked the teacher to briefly inform the parents regarding the nature of the study and as there were no objections, the research was carried out as planned in the early stage. The teacher also asked her students collectively for their willingness to participate in this study. The main reason for the researcher to use the teacher as the

intermediator is to facilitate the process of gaining trust and understanding from both parties: the parents and the students.

As Dornyei (2007) mention, interview can be categorised into three categories: structured interview, unstructured interview, and semi-structured interview. In this research, the researcher opt to use the semi-structured format. The questions were prepared beforehand but the researcher is able to ask the sampling to elaborate more on the given answers in order to reveal informative data.

The interview conducted with the teacher provided the following information: age, position, educational background, years of teaching, experiences in teaching preschool children, other related experiences, length of time been employed and academic qualifications. Based on the collected information, the teacher is a 23 year-old female who has worked for 5 years in the chosen preschool institution and has not worked in any other places before. Thus, the teacher meet the criteria of working in the selected institution for more than a year, making the students familiarised to her.

Furthermore, the teacher only had SPM qualification when she entered the workplace and revealed the intention that she might pursue a diploma in the coming years. She also has had taken a short course in early childhood education in order to be able to apply for the preschool teacher's position, a necessary requirement in the selected institution in order teachers are well-equipped with the problems that they may face when dealing with young students.

The questionnaire used for the 12 children mainly collects information pertaining to their gender, age, race, and languages spoken at home. Based from the information gathered, five were boys and seven were girls in the age range of four to six year old. The Malaysian students mainly use Bahasa Melayu and English occasionally in their daily conversation while the Sudanese students use Arabic primarily and English occasionally. Table 3.2 provides the additional information of the preschool children.

Table 3.2: Age, Nationality and Gender of Preschool Children

<table>
<tr><th>Student</th><th>Age</th><th>Nationality</th><th>Gender</th></tr>
<tr><td>S1</td><td>1 four-year-old</td><td rowspan="6">Malaysian</td><td rowspan="6">Boy</td></tr>
<tr><td>S2</td><td rowspan="3">3 five-year-old</td></tr>
<tr><td>S3</td></tr>
<tr><td>S4</td></tr>
<tr><td>S5</td><td>1 six-year-old</td></tr>
<tr><td>S6</td><td>1 four-year-old</td><td rowspan="2">Sudanese</td><td rowspan="7">Girl</td></tr>
<tr><td>S7</td><td>1 five-year-old</td></tr>
<tr><td>S8</td><td rowspan="5">5 five-year-old</td><td rowspan="5">Malaysian</td></tr>
<tr><td>S9</td></tr>
<tr><td>S10</td></tr>
<tr><td>S11</td></tr>
<tr><td>S12</td></tr>
</table>

The students are selected based on these criteria: their first language is not English and they had been enrolled in the preschool institution for more than a year to ensure that they are familiar with the learning environment. Prior to the recordings, the teacher asked the students to voluntarily attend the classes on the day the recording was scheduled to take place and the students were also briefed by the teacher on the recording session.

3.3 Pilot Study

A pilot study is fundamental in any type of research as the pilot study gives the researcher the opportunity to list all the factors that might fail the research completely or, on a positive note, factors that might make the research successful. A pilot study was conducted to make further improvement to the research. By piloting the study, the researcher is able to foresee the problems, such as unsuitable sampling, that might be encountered in the course of doing the research.

Prior to the preschool institution chosen for this research, the researcher conducted a recording in a different private kindergarten which was also located nearby. The recording was conducted during November 2012, which is almost nearing the end of the studying term for the preschool children. The researcher noticed that most of the students were not attentive during the learning period. From the conversation the researcher had with the teachers, it was noted that students were absent regularly when the studying term comes to an end due to several factors such as lack of motivation and completion of learning modules.

Thus, the teachers advised the researcher to conduct the research at the earlier month of the following year as students would be more focused and active during this particular studying period. The researcher only did a single-session video and audio recordings in this particular kindergarten, which is not sufficient as the research requires a minimum of two-session recordings. Therefore, the researcher used the recordings as a pilot study where the researcher seek ways to improve the research.

The recording was listened by the researcher and several of the problems noticed in the recording were identified. For example, in the recording, the teacher did not fully utilise the teaching period to have a meaningful interaction with the students but instead ask the students to do some colouring exercise. The researcher also could not hear properly some of the utterances of the teacher and the students as there was some background noise. Thus, the researcher came up with the guidelines for recording (refer to Appendix D) as to avoid all the problems noticed in this particular recording.

The guidelines for recording, which serve as a reference for the researcher on how to conduct the recordings, list the factors that need to be focused and given appropriate attention before the recoding starts. Seating arrangement, noise reduction and preparation of recording devices are some of the factors listed in the guidelines. Teacher and students' adherence to the guidelines would ensure the successfulness of the recording and avoid time wastage; recording does not need to be repeated for several times.

3.4 Data Collection

Based on the pilot study (refer to subsection 3.3), the researcher started doing the recordings in the earlier studying month of the preschool children. Therefore, the recordings took place on January 15 and 16 of 2013. As stated earlier, the recordings were done in two days. On each day, there were two sessions held: story-telling and talk about. Thus, the recordings for each day were taken twice as to record the two different sessions.

In the 'story-telling' session, students will utilise their listening skills by listening to the story being told by the teacher from a story book. Sometimes, teacher would ask questions based on the story book. While, the 'talk about' session is where the teacher would ask questions ranging from body parts to favourite food to encourage the students to practise their speaking skills.

The recordings in the classroom setting were done by the researcher. The video recorder was held by the researcher at the front of the classroom to ensure every students are captured in the video, with the exclusion of the teacher as the researcher was able to identify the teacher's voice. The recording was decided to be a maximum of three sessions (30 minutes per session) or a minimum of two sessions, in the case where the data collected is insufficient to be analysed.

On the first day of recording, the researcher noticed that the combined recording sessions took only an average of 30 minutes, thus recording was continued the following day to allocate at least an hour of transcription (refer to Table 3.3). Recording was done between 10am to 11.30am and there were some breaks given in between of the recordings so as to accommodate the students' needs in going to the bathroom.

Table 3.3: Duration and Date of Recording

	15 January	**16 January**
Duration (in minute)	05:45	05:53
	05:58	04:35
	02:29	03:18
	04:02	05:14
	05:46	05:52
	05:48	06:03
	05:46	-
Total (in minute)	35:34	30:55

Even though the recording for both sessions was to be an average of 30 minutes, when the recordings from the video camera were transferred to the computer to be analysed, the recordings were segmented into several files. This unexpected segmentation aid the researcher when it comes to transcribing as the researcher is able to transcribe efficiently due to the short time period of each recording file.

As this study wants to explore the sampling in their naturalistic context**,** the researcher used video recording as the main research instrument in this study. Video recording was undoubtedly beneficial in qualitative study as it provides the researcher with much valued information such as the facial expression, the body language, the environment, the eye contact and the interaction between the samplings.

According to Mccune (2008), audio recording enhances data analysis as it captures the vocalizations such as babblings and grunts and while for video recording, it records actions and gestures which makes meanings and communicative intentions easy to interpret.The video recordings helped the researcher to transcribe the conversation and to analyse any particular movements captured in the recordings.

Though video recordings have its benefits, it also have some flaws as well. According to Mackey and Gass (2005) as cited in Dornyei (2007) though classroom recording helps the researcher from the hassle of coding and transcribing at the actual time showing who is exactly uttering the said sentence in a particular conversation, unfortunately, it has its own sets of flaws such as unnatural behaviour of the participants due to anxiety. Zuengler, Ford and Fassnacht (1998) as cited in Dornyei (2007), illustrate two major problems encountered

in classroom recording. One of the problems is the distraction caused by the use of video camera. For example, sampling, students and teacher, may feel nervous due to the presence of video and the researcher itself.

Zuengler, et al. (1998) as cited in Dornyei (2007) mention the second problem touches on 'literal blind spots', in which the video camera used only capture the images where it had been directed at, leaving the background uncaptured in the camera. Thus, Zuengler utilised two cameras: a moving camera taken at the back of the classroom capturing the teacher and a static camera located at the front of the classroom covering the students' faces. The use of two cameras add additional cost to the research thus video images were combined by synchronizing two video tapes.

However, in this study analysing on 'child directed speech' in the discourse between preschool teacher and preschool children, only one video camera could be utilised by the researcher. The use of tripod could enable the researcher from not being present during the recording and lessen the sampling's anxiety. However, tripod was not utilized as the students kept on moving. Therefore, the researcher resorted to hold the recording device throughout the recording session.

A handy cam and a voice recorder were used in the recording process. The researcher resorted to using these two audio devices as to provide an efficient transcription. The rationale behind using two different recorders was to ensure the data could be recorded appropriately. In the case where the sound is not heard clearly in the video recorder, the researcher could resort to the audio recorder to transcribe the recorded data.

3.5 Data Analysis

Data from the video recording was transcribed broadly by integrating Dubois (1991) as cited in Schiffrin (1994) transcription convention which shows the occurrence of overlap and the lengthening of word's pronunciation. Some may argue that a narrow transcription would be appropriate to cover all the characteristics of 'child directed speech' such as pitch, rhythm and intonation. As the researcher was clearly interested in studying certain aspects of 'child directed speech' and as there were several recordings that need to be transcribed, doing a narrow transcription would be time-consuming.

Before data analysis could be carried out, it is essential to look into the variables that have played a major role in affecting the results obtained in this study. Identifying these variables enables the researcher to considerate their role in the analysis. Dornyei (2007) defines a dependent variable as the target variable to be compared, such as work achievement while an independent variable is the grouping variable that has as many value as the number of groups being compared, such as a variable with certain values representing certain elements.

Variables are the factors that could interrupt the obtained results or findings of a study, for example, sampling's ethnicity, gender or age. In this study, particularly, there are two notable variables that might affect the results and they are the preschool children's age and ethnicity. On the other hand, since the focus of the research is more on the characteristics of 'child directed speech' (which is more on the teacher), these variables do not have a tremendous impact on the outcome of the study. Nevertheless, future studies, of this type of research, could take these variables into consideration and try to eliminate them.

The data was analysed by the researcher by providing several examples for each feature noted in the data and then discussed on the presence of this feature in the interaction between the teacher and the preschool children. As this is a qualitative study, the focus of the researcher was more in acknowledging the occurrence of this feature rather than a statistical study which focused more on acquiring the numerical data.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

As there were young children participating in this study, none of the preschool children's names was revealed in order to protect the privacy of the preschool children. In the analysis, the researcher identified the preschool children merely by using the numbering system, for example, Student 1, Student 2, etcetera.

The researcher informed the teacher of the need for conducting this study, not only to allow the society have a look on teacher-preschool children discourse, but also for the society to realise the impact of this discourse on the language development of a child. The researcher also asked the teacher to inform the preschool children that their cooperation is pertinent in accomplishing the study's goal which would greatly benefit other preschool children and teachers. The preschool children was informed by the teacher that their participation pave the path for other future possible researches concentrating on preschool children.

3.7 Summary

This chapter primarily touches on the systematic way the research is carried out: the framework chosen, the suitable sampling, the pilot study, the data collection and the data analysis. Following that, Chapter 4 would look at the obtained results and an in-depth discussion on the findings.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will look at the data obtained from the recordings and the analysis done by the researcher to derive at valid conclusions. The analysis begins by looking at each of the features of 'child directed speech' and this is then followed by a discussion of the features that emerged. In the transcripts, there are some key symbols incorporated to show the actual conversation between the teacher and the students. Table 4.1 illustrates the explanation given for the key symbols noted in all of the following examples provided throughout this particular chapter.

Table 4.1: Key Symbols in Transcription

Key Symbol	Meaning
T	Teacher
S	Student
AS	A majority of the students
Italicised words	The words are not in English
( )	Translation of words which are not in English
(=)	Lengthening of the pronunciation of a word
(( ))	The researcher's observation
[ ]	The occurrence of overlap

For the key symbol 'S' which means 'student', due to time-constraint, the researcher has indicated only in the analysis which student utter which sentences (for identifying the students' age, gender and nationality, refer to Table 3.2 in Chapter 3). In transcription, there was no indication of this particular detail.

4.1 Prosodic Features

According to Vosoughi and Roy (2012), a particular theory points out that prosodic exaggeration in 'child directed speech' (CDS) helps attract the attention of children and this has been attributed to the emphasis of Garnica (1977) as cited in Foulkes, Docherty and Watt (2005) on the social functions attached to CDS. Foulkes, Docherty and Watt (2005) have also mentioned that the common features found in CDS include a wide pitch range and high-rising terminals and this has been attributed to prosody. Kaye (1980) also mentioned that prosodic features encompass a higher pitch, a greater range of frequencies and a more varied intonation. All these features are related to phonological aspects which are fundamental in learning process as through the listening and speaking skills, input and output are examined and analysed for successful language acquisition.

In the following analysis, six examples are provided to illustrate the prosodic features found in the interaction between the teacher and the preschool children. For prosodic features, due to time constraint, the researcher would analyse more on the lengthening of a word's pronunciation and minimally on intonation.

Example 1

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 1' in Appendix E).

12	**T:**	Haa ahh. Do you know who is this? ((Points out at the book)) Who is she? Mrs (=)
13	**AS:**	Mrs. (=)
14	**T:**	[Boot (=)]
15	**AS:**	[Boot (=)]
16	**T:**	Ok, who is Poppy?
17	**S2:**	Poppy (=)

In Example 1, the teacher lengthened the pronunciation of the name of character (Mrs Boot) in the children's story book in Turn 12 and Turn 14. Following the teacher, several of the students also lengthened their pronunciation when mentioning the character's name in Turn 13 and Turn 15. S2 lengthened his pronunciation in Turn 17 when the teacher mentioned another character's name (Poppy) even though the teacher did not lengthen the name of 'Poppy' in Turn 16. The reason for the teacher to lengthen the pronunciation of 'Mrs Boot' in Turn 12 and Turn 14 was to enable the students to recall from their memory the character's name. By lengthening the pronunciation, the teacher had tried to make the students focus on the story and also to renew their memories on what had been learned in the previous lesson. For the students, repeating and lengthening the pronunciation was an exciting exercise and it enabled them to register the information that was delivered to them as the prosody features got their attention.

Example 2

The following example was taken from the "talk-about" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 1' in Appendix E).

3	**T:**	Parts of our (=) body (=). Ok first (=) I need one person to be a volunteer to stand here, haa (=) and I'm going to give, ah the, and we're going to recognise all the parts of the body. Who wants to be a volunteer? Put up your hands (raises the hand).
4	**AS:**	((Many put up their hands))
5	**T:**	I think (=) I will (=) choose (=) small (=) one. Haa (=) Haaa (=) ok Hanif come.
6	**S3:**	((Comes up to her))

In Example 2, the teacher lengthened her pronunciation for the words 'our' and 'body' in Turn 3. As 'parts of our body' was the topic that was being discussed, the teacher lengthened the words in pronunciation so as to attract the students' attention. In Turn 5, several words were lengthened in pronunciation in one single utterance. When interviewed by the researcher, the teacher said that she was merely taking her time to think on what to say as the reason for the lengthening of the several words.

Example 3

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 5' in Appendix E).

18	**T:**	No (=) You cannot eat sheep (=)
19	**S12:**	No (=)
20	**T:**	You cannot eat sheep (=) why (=)
21	**S2:**	Cannot eat Lego (=)
22	**T:**	Le Lego (=). Ok, can we eat sheep (=)
23	**AS:**	No (=)
24	**T:**	Why (=)
25	**S1:**	Because (=) it's too **fat** ((pronounced as /fat/))
26	**T:**	It's too fat (=)
27	**S1:**	Yeah (=)
28	**T:**	We can cut it.
29	**S1:**	Too high ((Raises the hand))

In Example 3, data show that in the midst of discussing of what could be eaten, S1 had mispronounced the word 'fat' in Turn 25. The teacher provided the correct form of pronunciation for the word 'fat' in Turn 26 and to accomplish this, the teacher lengthened the pronunciation of the word as a way of enabling S1 to be aware of the error. Post-recording, S1 was asked by the teacher about his answer in Turn 27 in which he indicated agreement. S1 acknowledged the corrected pronunciation made by the teacher and this suggests that there is importance in the teacher lengthening the pronunciation of the word.

Example 4

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 1' in Appendix E).

78	**T:**	Rusty (=). And what what ok what is the Mrs Boot ask (=) for? Mm Mr. Mrs. Boot (=) ask Poppy and Sam to stay (=) in (=)
79	**S2:**	In the house (=)
80	**T:**	In the house (=) why?
81	**S2:**	*Terbakar*
82	**T:**	[Because (=)]
83	**S2:**	[Fire]
84	**T:**	Because (=) it's on (=)
85	**AS:**	Fire.
86	**T:**	What is on fire?
87	**S1:**	The house
88	**T:**	[Barn] (=) ((lengthened pronunciation)) is on fire.
89	**S4:**	[Barn]

In Example 4, the teacher was providing some information about the story to her students in Turn 78. However, when S2 and S1 said 'the house' in Turn 79 and Turn 87, the teacher provided the correct answer which is 'barn' in Turn 88. The teacher had lengthened the pronunciation of the word 'barn' in order to draw the student's attention to the correct answer. Here, the teacher lengthened her pronunciation to indicate the correct answer to the students.

The teacher also lengthened the word 'because' in Turn 82 so as to acknowledge the fact that S2 was code-switching in Malay as he provided the Malay word 'terbakar' in Turn 81. As a result of the teacher's lengthened pronunciation, S2 was able to provide the English word 'fire' in Turn 83. In this context, the teacher's action of lengthening the word made S2 realize that he had code-switched the word. It was noted that immediately upon being corrected, S2 rectified the situation by providing his answer in English.

Example 5

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 4' in Appendix E).

94	**T:**	The naughty sheep. This is apple tree farm. This is Mrs Boot, the farmer, she has two (=) children (=) called (=)
95	**S9:**	Poppy (=)
96	**T:**	Poppy and (=)
97	**AS:**	[Sam (=)]
98	**T:**	[Sam (=)] and a dog called (=)
99	**AS:**	((No response))
100	**T:**	What is the dog name (=) Rus (=)
101	**AS**:	[Rusty (=)]

In Example 5, the teacher lengthened the last three words of the utterance, 'two', 'children', and 'called' in Turn 94. In Turn 96, the word 'and' was lengthened and in Turn 98, the words 'Sam' and 'called' were lengthened and in Turn 100, the words 'name' and 'Rus' were lengthened. All these words are the cues for the answers expected by the teacher from the students. In this example, by lengthening the final words, the teacher guides the students to provide the answers anticipated by the teacher.

Example 6

The following example was taken from the "talk-about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 7' in Appendix E).

68	**T:**	Pink colour. Alright, thank you. Come ((softly))
69	**S9:**	((Shakes her head))
70	**T:**	Come, introduce yourself, last one. Last one, come on. ((short pause)) Ok, stand here, ok. Ok, introduce yourself.
71	**S9:**	*Malekum.*
72	**T:**	*Waalaikumsalam.*
73	**S9:**	My name is Iman.
74	**T:**	Mmhmm. How old are you?
75	**S9:**	Five years old.
76	**T:**	Ah ok, when you grow up? Oh ((Softer tone)) when I grow up, I want to be (=)
77	**S9:**	Fairy.

In Example 6, the teacher was directing some of her students to come to the front of the class and answer several questions. The teacher had uttered the word 'come' in a softer tone in Turn 68. The teacher also softened her tone when she uttered the word 'oh' in Turn 76. The most reasonable explanation for this occurrence would be the teacher had wanted to make S9 feel at ease with her rather than being intimidated by her. When the teacher was interviewed by the researcher about her use of softer tone, she explained that sometimes, when she deal with students who are quite shy, especially female students, she would talk in a softer tone so as to make the students feel less nervous as anxiety would affect the learning process.

4.2 Lexical Features

According to Khazriyati and Winskel (2012), when it comes to language development, the application of lexical terms in the linguistic environment of children play a huge role, more so if interaction is involved. According to Kempe, Brooks, and Pirott, (2001), in the process of expressing the feeling of endearment and affection to young children, people tend to use diminutive derivations such as *Patty*, *doggy*, or *beddy*.

Kaye (1980) have provided a list of lexical features and it includes special forms of words like *potty* and *nana*. These special forms sounds more interesting compared to the actual word forms because they appear more musical.

In the following analysis, four examples are provided to illustrate the lexical features found in the interaction between the teacher and the preschool children.

Example 7

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 7' in Appendix E).

90	**T:**	Mmhmm, Do you like do you love your mama? How about your papa?
91	**S9:**	((Nods))
92	**T:**	Thank you.

In Example 7, the teacher was asking S9 some questions about her family. The teacher used the words 'mama' and 'papa' in Turn 90. The teacher said that she had heard some of the students addressing their parents as 'mama' and 'papa' rather than the conventional address

term ‘mother’ and ’father’. Thus, the teacher chose to use these terms when talking to the students so as to draw their attentions and to extract their understanding by making reference to the more affective terms of ‘mama’ and ‘papa’ instead of ‘mother’ and ’father’.

Example 8

The following example was taken from the “story-telling” session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to ‘Story 5’ in Appendix E).

88	**S7:**	I have cat.
89	**AS:**	((The few students who remains close to the teacher now shifts back to their places))
90	**T:**	Ok (=) haa (=) many of you have cats at home as a pet, isn’t it?
91	**S12:**	Yes.
92	**T:**	Got baby cat, mama cat, papa cat haa (=) isn’t it?
93	**S2:**	Hmm (=).

In Example 8, the teacher was talking about the subject of pets. When S7 told the teacher about her cat, the teacher inquired more on the subject. Rather than saying the words ‘kitten’, ‘female cat’ and ‘male cat’, the teacher preferred to use the words ‘baby cat’, ‘mama cat’ and ‘papa cat’ in Turn 92. The reason for the teacher’s choice of words could be attributed to the fact that children always associate the objects around them with the concepts familiar to them. Thus, the teacher associated the earlier words on the ‘cat’ topic to words that are related to the concept of family such as ‘baby sister’, ‘mama’ and ‘papa’. The teacher had used one of the features of CDS with the young students so as to show affinity while talking to them.

Example 9

The following example was taken from the "talk-about" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 2' in Appendix E).

8	**S:**	You eat eat eat eat the mouth.
9	**T:**	With mouth (=) Ok, what is your function ah what is the teeth function? Teeth teeth teeth teeth um um um um ((shows the motion of chewing))
10	**S:**	((Unclear word)). Ah (=)
11	**T:**	To (=)
12	**S:**	To [eat]

In Example 9, the teacher was in the midst of discussing the subject of body parts and their functions with the students. In Turn 9, the teacher asked the student about the function of teeth. To further clearly illustrate the parts of body that was being asked, she reduplicated the word 'um' several times to show the motion of chewing food. Quite often, adults prefer to reduplicate certain words to implicitly inform children about an ongoing activity such as 'nyam nyam' to show the motion of eating. Thus, in this sense, the teacher's word reduplication brings meaning to a word which is meaningless when being presented in a single entity.

Example 10

The following example was taken from the "talk-about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 7' in Appendix E).

61 **T:** Fairy tale? Fairy? You want to ((coughs)) You want to be? Ok when you grow up, you want to be?
62 **S:** ((Unclear)). Fairy.
63 **T:** Fairy (=) Oh, you want to be fairy (=)? Mmhmm. Help (=) the other people outside there? ((Laughs softly)) With your bling-bling?

In Example 10, the teacher was asking a student about her ambition. When the student replied in Turn 62 that she wants to become a fairy, the teacher inquired more on her ambition in Turn 63. The teacher reduplicated the word 'bling' to exemplify about the 'magic wand' used by fairies. When interviewed by the researcher of the reason for using the word 'bling' rather than 'magic wand', the teacher said that sometimes, it is vital for an educator to substitute certain words with words that the children are more familiar with. Later on during the learning process, the real words can be taught to the children.

4.3 Complexity Features

Kaye (1980) stated that complexity features are those having shorter utterances, fewer embedded clauses and fewer verb auxiliaries. All these features are connected to the syntactical aspects of language which are essential to be mastered as these aspects are prominent in many language-related skills.

In parents-children interaction, utterances are tailored, in terms of the length and complexity aspects, in order to adapt to the child's linguistic prowess and this commonly use simple, short and grammatically correct sentences (Matychuk, 2005). According to Piper (1998) as cited in Matychuk (2005), in language acquisition, accommodation in parents' speech is done according to the children's cognitive and linguistic levels. Examples of complexity features are provided to illustrate this point.

In the following analysis, three examples are provided to illustrate the complexity features found in the interaction between the teacher and the preschool children.

Example 11

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 5' in Appendix E).

8	**T:**	Today, I want you to talk about yourself. You need to introduce your name, how old are you, what is your ambition when you grow up, what you want to be
9	**S1:**	[((mumbles))]
10	**T:**	[Ha what is] your hobby? Haa (=) [you can tell everything**]**
11	**S2:**	[((Unclear words)) movie (=)

In Example 11, the teacher started the talk-about session by giving instruction to students in what needs to be said by the students during the session. The teacher's utterance in Turn 8 may seem long as it consisted of 31 words, it was stated because she wanted her students to be able to follow her instructions. The teacher's utterance can be broken into several short sentences (Today, I want you to talk about yourself / You need to introduce your name / how old are you / what is your ambition when you grow up / what you want to be). Rather

than constructing a single sentence which could be complex and difficult to understand by the students, the teacher had constructed a list of several single sentences.

Interestingly, rather than put the instructions fully in the declarative form, the teacher had decided to put some of the instructions in the interrogative form (how old are you / what is your ambition when you grow up / what you want to be). Since children are more exposed to interrogative form as they need to ask the why, where, who, which and how question to learn and acquire knowledge, the teacher's choice of the sentence form shows that teacher accommodates to the student's familiarity to 'wh'-questions and so, points out the fact that these simple wh-questions are more direct and easier for the students to comprehend.

Example 12

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 6' in Appendix E).

28	**T:**	Introduce yourself. What is your name?
29	**S7:**	((Says softly)) Reen
30	**T:**	Say my name is Reen. What is your name?
31	**S7:**	Reen.
32	**T:**	Ok, how old are you?

In Example 12, the teacher constructed wh-questions in Turn 28 (What is your name?), Turn 30 (What is your name?) and Turn 32 (How old are you?). The sentence construction is very simple and does not incorporate any embedded clauses. The reason for the simplicity in the teacher's sentence structure is to accommodate S7's ability to comprehend the provided questions.

Example 13

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 5' in Appendix E).

62	**T:**	A lot of flowers (=).
63	**S12:**	((Goes up to teacher and speaks softly)) My house to pluck flowers pink
64	**T:**	Oh (=) pink (=). Reen likes to pluck flowers in pink colour. Aaa (=) Ok. Wah (=) look at this. Got a gate. Ha (=) got two birds. Drink some water (=) Hmm (=) What is the bird err (=) this is crow isn't it?

In Example 13, S12 had uttered a grammatically wrong sentence in Turn 63. The teacher, realizing the mistake made by S12, provided the grammatically correct sentence intended by S12 in Turn 64. In this example, the teacher demonstrates her role as a teacher in which she not only converse in grammatically correct simple sentences but also shows the students on how to rectify a grammatically wrong sentence.

4.4 Redundancy Features

According to Dore (1974, 1975) as cited in Gerber and Wankoff (n.d.), repeating is one of the speech acts of children at the one-word stage of language. Kaye (1980)) indicated that redundancy features are seen as more immediate repetition and more repetition of the same words or phrases over a period of time. Repetition is a speech feature that frequently happens in the learning process as it enforces input and output received and delivered by a learner. In the subsequent examples, by saying redundancy features, the researcher meant repetitions.

In the following analysis, four examples are provided to illustrate the redundancy features found in the interaction between the teacher and the preschool children.

Example 14

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 7' in Appendix E).

1	**T:**	Ok, introduce yourself. What is your name? What is your name?
2	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
3	**T:**	Ha?
4	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
5	**T:**	Ha?
6	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
7	**T:**	Ha? Eh (=) they can't hear you, are you hear?
8	**AS**:	[No]
9	**T:**	[No], say it loudly, what is your name?
10	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
11	**T:**	Ha?
12	**S10:**	((Remains silent))
13	**T:**	Ah what is your name?
14	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
15	**T:**	Ha?
16	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
17	**T:**	Ok, how old are you?
18	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
19	**T:**	Ok, when you grow up, what you want to be?
20	**S10:**	((Mumbles))
21	**T:**	Barbie (=)? Alright what is your favourite colour?
22	**S10:**	((Mumbles and then goes to sit))

In Example 14, the teacher was asking S10 to introduce herself. In Turn 1, the teacher repeated the question 'what is your name' twice and this was repeated again in Turn 9 and Turn 13. As S10 mumbled throughout the conversation, the teacher repeated this particular question four times. The teacher repeated the question several times as she did not get an appropriate answer from S10. In this example, the teacher's repetition also indicates to S10

that her answer is not comprehensible to the teacher, thus S10 needs to provide a clear answer.

The teacher also repeated the word 'ha' and this repetition is done for the purpose of expressing to S10 that she did not understand S10's answer. Repetition of the word 'ha' by the teacher was seen in the following Turns: 3, 5, 7, 11, and 15.

Example 15

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 2' in Appendix E).

107	**T:**	Oh (=) different *lah (=)* ok (=) so. Heart (=) Ok. What is in your tummy (=) Ha what is in your tummy (=)
108	**AS:**	((Keep silent))
109	**T:**	Where's your tummy (=) Show me your tummy (=)
110	**AS:**	((Pat and hold the tummy))
111	**T:**	Haaa (=) what is in your tummy?
112	**AS:**	((Some keep silent while some chat silently with other students))
113	**T:**	Guys (=) what is in your tummy (=)
114	**S2:**	Ah (=) food (=)
115	**T:**	Food (=)

In Example 15, the teacher repeated twice the question 'what is in your tummy' in Turn 107. As the students did not provide any response in Turn 108, the teacher asked this question 'where's your tummy' in Turn 109 followed by an imperative to show their tummies. When the students responded by patting and holding their tummies in Turn 110, the teacher repeated the earlier question in Turn 111 but this was met with silence from the students in Turn 112. Thus, the teacher repeated the question 'what is in your tummy?' in Turn 113 again. Finally S2 responded in Turn 114 by saying the answer 'food' which was acknowledged by the teacher in Turn 115.

In this example, interestingly, the teacher did not repeat the question continuously as illustrated in Example 14. Instead of repeating the question, the teacher chose to test the students' knowledge on the subject being inquired through repetitions only. In this way, the students had been guided by the teacher to know what is being talked about and this is followed by a question on the subject being talked about.

Example 16

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 4' in Appendix E).

58 **S12:** I am tired
59 **T:** You're tired, ok last one, last one. When I, ok follow my instructions, ok? Ok. Sit, sit properly, sit properly, sit properly. Sit properly, sit properly over there. Over there Danish, sit. Ok, I want, ok when I say (=) the word, ok (=)
60 **S2:** I'm not tired.

In Example 16, the teacher repeated the phrase 'sit properly' for five times in Turn 59. The reason for this teacher's repetition could be attributed to the fact that some of the students are tired as mentioned by S12 in Turn 58. The teacher's repetition of the imperative phrase 'sit properly' emphasize the need for the students to follow the teacher's order no matter in what situation. Repetition of the phrase also indicates that some of the students had not succeeded in performing the action required by the teacher. Consequently, the teacher had to repeat the particular phrase till the students accomplished what the teacher had asked for.

Example 17

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 5' in Appendix E).

22	**T:**	[Because everybody want] to know about you. Alright. Ok. Starting from who? Who want to start first? Ok. Danish. Stand up.
23	**S1:**	((Mumbles))
24	**T:**	Stand up (=) Stand up (=) Ok Ok tell us your name first.
25	**S1:**	((Stands up)) Err my name [is (=)]

In Example 17, the teacher verbalized the imperative 'stand up' in Turn 22. However, S1 did not comply with the teacher's request, 'Stand up', and only mumbled in Turn 23. As S1 did not respond, the teacher repeated the imperative twice in Turn 24. S1 obliged by standing in Turn 25. In this example, similar to Example 16, repetition enforces the need for the students to obey the teacher's word.

4.5 Content Features

According to Piper (1998) as cited in Matychuk (2005), parents help a child to acquire language by making the child become aware of her surroundings. Parents tend to use the surroundings as the topic to be discussed as to make the child easy to comprehend the topic. Kaye (1980) pointed out content features as restriction to topics in the children's world. For example, a young child might never had heard of molecular biology as it is never part of the child's learning words, thus, an adult may restrict their conversation by not saying anything related to molecular biology.

In the following analysis, four examples are provided to illustrate the content features found in the interaction between the teacher and the preschool children.

Example 18

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 2' in Appendix E).

22	**T:**	Haa aah (=) They're cooking what? Cooking what. What is that
23	**S2:**	((Mumbles))
24	**T:**	Sausage
25	**S1:**	Ya
26	**T:**	Do you do you like to eat sausage?
27	**AS:**	Ya. Yes.
28	**T:**	Wow. What kind of err (=) ah sausage flavour
29	**S2:**	Mmm
30	**T:**	Cheese (=) with cheese
31	**S2:**	Ha cheese ((raises hand))
32	**T:**	Black peppers (=)
33	**S4:**	Hmmmm
34	**T:**	Original [flavor]
35	**S2:**	[Ha] *nak* original
36	**S12:**	[**Blead]** ((pronounced as /blaed/))
37	**T:**	[Original]
38	**S2:**	I like original
39	**S1:**	[I like **blead]** ((pronounced as /blaed/))
40	**T:**	[You can eat] sausage with what
41	**S12:**	**Blead** ((pronounced as /blaed/))
42	**T:**	Bread ((teacher emphasizes on the word "bread")) [Ooo] (=)
43	**S1:**	[I like **blead]** ((pronounced as /blaed/))
44	**T:**	With some sauce

In Example 18, the conversation involves the topic of food as can be seen in the following Turns: 24, 26, 28, 30, 31, 32, 36, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43 and 44. Compared to abstract intangible concepts which require children to think and feel, tangible concepts such as food make more sense to children as they can see, touch, taste, and smell it. Food is also something

that children are used to as they consume it on a daily basis. Thus, in this example, the teacher asked many questions on the subject of food.

Example 19

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 3' in Appendix E).

80	**T:**	**[**Ok what are], ya, PSP cannot eat, you just can play with it.
81	**S4:**	Yeah.
82	**S2:**	((Gestures using hands playing car race video game and makes some noises as well)
83	**S4:**	Ha iPad.
84	**T:**	Huh?
85	**S2:**	iPad don't eat
86	**T:**	Ha, iPad also cannot eat.
87	**S1:**	[TV]
88	**T:**	[Cannot] process it in your stomach.
89	**S1:**	Ha TV? TV?
90	**T:**	No (=).
91	**AS:**	((Some students laugh))
92	**T:**	You eat TV?
93	**S1:**	No (=).

In Example 19, the conversation involves the topic of electronic gadget as can be seen in the following Turns: 80, 83, 85, 86, 87, 89 and 92. Nowadays, children are more exposed to the existence of electronic gadgets as almost everyone is using it in their life. Parents also tend to purposely expose children to these gadgets for learning and entertainment. Fully aware of this current trend, the teacher thus spoke a lot on the subject of electronic gadgets in this example.

Example 20

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 4' in Appendix E).

49	**S2:**	[I saw the sheep]
50	**T:**	Saw the sheep
51	**S12:**	((Unclear sentences)) I I saw tiger (=).
52	**T:**	Tiger (=)
53	**S12:**	((Nods the head))
54	**T:**	Oh (=) you don't see uh [you don't saw a sheep but you saw a tiger (=)]
55	**S2:**	**[**Tiger and (=) a tiger and a *zirafah]*
56	**S9:**	I saw [elephant]
57	**S12:**	[((Unclear sentences))]
58	**T:**	**[**Elephant (=)]
59	**S2:**	An elephant err (=) *zirafah* and tiger.
60	**T:**	Tiger animal [giraffe (=)]
61	**S12:**	[Tiger] and swan.
62	**T:**	Tiger and swan (=) Ohh (=)

In Example 20, the conversation involves the topic of animals as can be seen in the following Turns: 49, 50, 51, 52, 54, 55, 56, 58, 59, 60, 61 and 62. As explained earlier, children are keen to learn on tangible concepts as these concepts are simpler and easier to grasp for small children. Children, in most cases, are fascinated by moving tangible objects, either animate or inanimate objects, such as vehicles and animals. In this example, the teacher's speech was directed towards discussing the types of animals known by the students.

Example 21

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 4' in Appendix E).

79	**T:**	Ok now, when I show to you, you ask me no I mean you answer it, ok you show it to me. Ok, what is this? ((Touches the shoulder))
80	**S2:**	Shoulder.
81	**AS:**	Shoulder (=)
82	**T:**	What is this? ((Touches the cheek))
83	**AS:**	((Remains silent))
84	**T**:	Cheek (=).
85	**AS**:	Cheek.
86	**T**:	What is this? ((Touches the armpit))
87	**AS**:	((Chuckles))
88	**S9**:	[Arm (=)]
89	**T**:	[Armpit (=)]
90	**AS:**	Armpit (=)
91	**T:**	Haa (=) what is this? ((Touches the tummy))
92	**S9:**	Tummy (=)
93	**AS:**	Tummy (=)

In Example 21, the conversation involves the topic of human anatomy as can be seen in the following Turns: 79, 80, 81, 82, 84, 85, 86, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92 and 93. Body parts are something that children can relate to as it is part of their body. In this example, the teacher was able to direct the students' attention to human anatomy by merely focussing on the contents which involve several parts of their body which students are able to feel and touch.

4.6 Code-switching Features

According to Lowi (2005), code-switching refers to the use of language resources in multi-linguals' speech. Code switching was also identified by many researchers (David, 2000; Kuang, David and Zuraidah, 2006; Kuang, 2006; Kuang and David, 2009) as a communication strategy among Malaysian families. Code switching was found to exist in

the language spoken by a bilingual child before two years of age, by young children in making requests and between husbands and wives.

In the following analysis, five examples are provided to illustrate the code-switching found in the interaction between the teacher and the preschool children.

Example 22

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 7' in Appendix E).

70	**T:**	Come, introduce yourself, last one. Last one, come on. ((short pause)) Ok, stand here, ok. Ok, introduce yourself.
71	**S9:**	*Malekum.*
72	**T:**	*Waalaikumsalam.*
73	**S9:**	My name is Iman.

In Example 22, when S9 said the greeting 'malekum' ('greetings on you' in Arabic language) which was actually supposed to be said 'assalamualaikum' to the teacher in Turn 71, the teacher responded by replying 'waalaikumsalam' ('same to you' in Arabic language) in Turn 72. This example shows that the teacher code-switched from English to Arabic as a way of greeting her student. It is also interesting to note that the greeting was initiated by S9 and not the teacher herself. In Islam, it is compulsory for a Muslim to answer another Muslim's greeting, thus the teacher who is a Muslim answered the greeting initiated by her Muslim student. Here, the teacher code-switched as a form of accommodation and religious observance.

Example 23

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk about 5' in Appendix E).

2	**T:**	Ok. Good morning everyone.
3	**AS:**	Good morning Miss Izyan.
4	**T:**	Alright. *Alhamdulillah*. Ok, so today we are going to have another section of ok we are going to have talk (=) a (=)

In Example 23, the teacher uttered the Arabic word 'Alhamdulillah' in Turn 4 which means 'all praises belong to Allah'. The teacher, in this example, code-switched from English to Arabic as a way of expressing her gratitude to God. The reason why she uttered the Arabic word rather than saying the equivalent in English may be attributed to the factor that even though she is in an English speaking environment, she is used to saying the phrase in Arabic in her daily life. Thus, code-switching happens as it is the norm for the speaker.

Example 24

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 16, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 5' in Appendix E).

64	**T:**	Oh (=) pink (=). Reen likes to pluck flowers in pink colour. Aaa (=) Ok. Wah (=) look at this. Got a gate. Ha (=) got two birds. Drink some water (=) Hmm (=) What is the bird err (=) this is crow isn't it?
65	**AS:**	((Multiple unclear utterances))
66	**T:**	Do you think this is a crow?
67	**AS:**	No (=)
68	**T:**	Then what kind of bird are this?
69	**S2:**	Fish (=)
70	**T:**	No, I mean the bird. What kind (=) of bird (=) are this? I think it's a crow (=). *Burung gagak.*
71	**S1:**	Which colour
72	**T:**	Because it's black in colour. Crow [is black in colour isn't it?]

In Example 24, the teacher was in the midst of discussing a topic on a particular bird. In Turn 70, she code-switched from English to Malay by uttering the words 'burung gagak'. Interestingly, she had mentioned the word 'crow' (the meaning of the Malay words 'burung gagak' in English) in Turn 64, Turn 66 and Turn 70 itself. Nevertheless, code-switching still happened and this could be attributed to the fact that despite the teacher mentioned the word 'crow' several times, the students do not seem to recognise the bird. Thus, the teacher provided the translated word of the English word 'crow' in Malay so that the students could easily identify it as a majority of the students are Malay.

Example 25

The following example was taken from the "talk about" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Talk About 2' in Appendix E).

103	**T:**	Ok. Feel it, feel it. How is it? Is it beat? Dug dug dug ((holds the chest))
104	**S2:**	Dugdugdugdugdugdugdug ((sings continuously))
105	**T:**	Eh that one is like a train (=) dugdugdugdug ((faster tempo))
106	**S2:**	No train choo choo (=)
107	**T:**	Oh (=) different *lah (=)* ok (=) so. Heart (=) Ok. What is in your tummy (=) Ha what is in your tummy (=)

In Example 25, the teacher added the Malay suffix '-lah' to the word 'different' in Turn 107. Though the suffix '-lah' is originally derived from the Malay language lexicon, nowadays, the suffix has been generally accepted by linguists as belonging in the Manglish language (a mixture of the Malay and English language). It is also important to note that Manglish is commonly used in an informal situation. Thus, the teacher's act of code-switching from English to Manglish denotes that even though the teacher is conducting a class in English which requires the teacher and the students to converse in English, the situation is more to informal as it was a talk about session. Thus, the teacher's act of code-switching indicates to the students that they are in an informal situation and this lessens their anxiety in speaking and sharing their views during this particular session.

Example 26

The following example was taken from the "story-telling" session on January 15, 2013 (for full transcript, refer to 'Story 2' in Appendix E).

59	**S12:**	Marshmallow
60	**T:**	Mmm (=) marshmallow. Oh put some marshmallow also on it. Emm
61	**S2:**	*Kat hotel dia makan* marshmallow
62	**T:**	You eat at hotel? Emm
63	**S12:**	Me…*makan* marshmallow. ((Keeps on mumbling in Malay and English while teacher responds wordlessly)) Marshmallow *je*. ((Keeps on mumbling))

In Example 26, the conversation suddenly focused on the topic of marshmallow and S2 uttered '*Kat hotel dia makan* marshmallow' (means 'she eats marshmallow at the hotel') in Turn 61. The teacher responded by translating some of his words in Turn 62 as to confirm S12's answer in Turn 59. In this example, though it is not the teacher who code-switched but the teacher's decision to translate S2's words in Malay to English make S2 to recognise that he had code-switched and he needs to speak in English.

4.7 Discussion

An analysis would not be complete if it is not discussed appropriately and thoroughly in order to seek out the answers of why certain aspects happen in the way it is. Thus, the researcher discussed the following aspects of 'child directed speech' noted in the findings: the prosodic features, the lexical features, the complexity features, the redundancy features, the content features and the code-switching features.

4.7.1 The Prosodic Features of 'Child Directed Speech'

Based on the analysis on lengthening of word, one of the elements in prosodic features, the following was the reasons why the teacher lengthens her words: to make the students to focus on the topic/story being told, to renew the students' memories on what have been learned in the previous lesson, to make the students recognize their errors, to point out the word that had been wrongly pronounced, to draw the students' attention on the correct answer, to make students realize of their code-switched words, and to guide the students to provide the answers anticipated by the teacher. As for the utilisation of tone, the teacher used it to make her students to be at ease with her.

Thus, teacher's simple act of lengthening her words play a crucial role in language learning as the lengthened pronunciation of word serves many functions in classroom discourse. Students would always be alert of their action or their answer whenever the teacher lengthened her pronunciation of a particular word. Students also would feel less humiliated whenever they did something wrong as the correction was provided by the teacher indirectly. For example, when a student pronounced a word wrongly, rather than communicating directly by saying 'you have pronounced the word wrongly', the teacher merely lengthened the actual pronunciation of the word to indicate to the student of the error.

4.7.2 The Lexical Features of 'Child Directed Speech'

Referring to Kaye's (1980) model which presents the five kinds of features of Baby Talk, the researcher noted that out of the five features that were list down in the model, only the lexical features was not prevalent in the discourse between the teacher and preschool children. From the entire conversation between the teacher and her students, most of the words used by the teacher are conventional, except for the following words found in Example 7, Example 8 and Example 10: 'mama', 'papa', 'baby cat', 'mama cat', 'papa cat' and 'bling'.

The most possible explanation that could be given of why the teacher did not utilise much on the lexical features that are commonly associated to the 'child directed speech' is the fact that the discourse is a classroom oriented. The teacher, though recognises that she is educating young children, wanted to use words that are used in real world rather than uses words that may sound interesting to young children. Parents tend to use lexical features as to draw the children's attention to learn new words. However, in a classroom setting, a teacher need to provide real knowledge which make the foundation for future learning.

4.7.3 The Complexity Features of 'Child Directed Speech'

As on the complexity features, the teacher mostly used simple grammatically correct sentences in the discourse. In instances where she utilised long utterances, she broke down the utterances into several short simple sentences with fewer embedded clauses. Generally, the teacher preferred to create many single sentences that are simple and easier for the students to understand. Young children have short attention span as they tend to get distracted by the objects surrounding them. By minimizing the sentences, the teacher is

actually helping the children to concentrate on what the teacher is saying rather than constructing long sentences which could be harder for the children to grasp and concentrate on.

Children are more exposed to wh-questions as they gather their knowledge by asking their parents about the things surrounding them. The teacher accommodates to the student's familiarity to wh-questions by constructing a majority of her sentences in interrogative form. This form of accommodation helps the students to comprehend input provided by the teacher.

4.7.4 The Redundancy Features of 'Child Directed Speech'

The teacher used the redundancy features such as repetition when the answers provided by the students are not comprehensible. By repeating, the teacher inform indirectly to the students that they need to provide answers that are comprehensible and sensible. The teacher also repeat whenever the students failed to perform the action required by the teacher. Thus, teacher's repetition informs students of what the teacher wants the student to say or perform. Similar to prosodic features, repetition also acts as an indirect approach in lessening the anxiety factor in the process of learning and acquiring language.

4.7.5 The Content Features of 'Child Directed Speech'

When it comes to content features, the teacher accommodated by guiding the conversation to revolve around subjects that interest the students such as food, electronic gadgets, animals and body parts. Children are mostly drawn to tangible concepts such as food as

they can see, touch, taste, and smell it. Children are also fascinated by electronic gadgets as these gadgets stimulate the children's auditory, kinetic and visual senses. While for animate objects such as animals, children draw a sense of satisfaction by seeing another living being performing certain acts that the children can do such as running, sleeping, and eating. As for body parts, children are familiar with it and almost every child, including infants, has an urge to explore their body parts. Thus, the content features suggest that the teacher mainly utilised content which can be accessible and understandable for the students as when the object of reference is not abstract, it is much easier to grasp the concept.

The teacher also utilised stories and activities in the students' daily life during the classroom learning such as telling a story from a story book and talking about the students' experience in visiting a zoo. By talking about something that the students are experiencing or had experienced, the teacher is able to guide the students to remember and reinforce the knowledge that is being delivered to them.

4.7.6 The Code-switching Features of 'Child Directed Speech'

As the sampling in this study are not native speakers of English, this situation made other languages to be used in the discourse between the teacher and the preschool children. Thus, it would be useful to acknowledge the role that code-switching plays in a classroom-oriented 'child directed speech'.

The teacher's act of code-switching is generally based on the function it serves in a particular situation. The researcher noted that three languages were used besides English in the discourse and they are: Malay, Arabic and Manglish. When the teacher code-switched

from English to Arabic, the act of code-switching serves as a form of accommodation, religious observance and the norm for the speaker. While, when the teacher code-switched from English to Malay, the teacher accommodated to the fact that a majority of the students are Malay. As for the act of code-switching from English to Manglish, the teacher indirectly inform to the students that in that particular time, learning is conducted informally to lessen the students' anxiety. Even though the teacher code-switched in these three languages, mainly the teacher used English the most to deliver her teaching to the students. The teacher, as an educator, made the effort to converse in English almost for the entire discourse and resorted to other languages minimally as to emphasise to the students that English is the language intended in the classroom.

In the instances where the teacher translated some of the students' words in Malay to English, the teacher's act made the students recognise that they had code-switched, thus the students rectified by conversing in English again. The teacher also assisted the students in knowing the suitable English words to be used whenever they code-switched in Malay, thus broaden the students' English vocabularies.

4.8 Summary

This chapter generally analyses the obtained results from the data collection. A thorough discussion of the main elements present in the results is also captured in this chapter. The conclusion is neatly yet precisely summarized in the final chapter, which is Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter brings the research report to a conclusion. However, before this can be done, it is necessary to review the previous chapters of this research which aimed to discuss the features unravelled on the application of 'child directed speech' as revealed in the preschool teacher-preschool children discourse.

In the introduction chapter of this research report, the following components were discussed in Chapter 1: the background of the study which stated the relevant information of this study. It began by looking at the problem of statement which paved the way for this research to be conducted in the first place. Chapter 1 also provided the research objective which illustrated the intention of this research. Three research questions which guided the researcher in choosing the appropriate research materials and tools to conceptualize the research were also highlighted in Chapter 1. The scope of the research was also mentioned. The significance of this research which showed the prominence of conducting this research and the limitation which showed the weaknesses associated with this research were also mentioned in Chapter 1. Finally, the definition of certain terms used in this research was also elaborated on.

As for Chapter 2, the following components were elaborated to enhance understanding on the nature of this study: the variation in 'child directed speech' which showed the different terminologies associated with 'child directed speech'; the characteristics of 'child directed speech' which showed the features of 'child directed speech', and teacher-preschool children discourse conducted in other studies involving teacher and young children. Chapter 2 also elaborated on the preschool system in Malaysia and the many studies involving preschools in Malaysia were also highlighted.

In Chapter 3, the following components were discussed and explained adequately: the theoretical framework used in this research the sampling employed, the details and criteria involved in the selection of the sampling; the pilot study which showed the importance of having one before conducting the actual research; the collection of data which showed the procedures involved in collecting the research data; the analysis of data which shows how the analysis was carried out; and the ethical aspects which upheld the integrity of the research sampling.

Meanwhile in Chapter 4, which focussed on the analysis of data, it was also mentioned that the current research would adopt the framework proposed by Kaye (1980) model of 'child directed speech'. Chapter 4 then illustrated with examples extracted from the data the following six features of the analysis which include: prosodic, lexical, complexity, redundancy, content and code-switching. Examples provided were also discussed accordingly as seen in the exchange between teacher-preschool children discourse.

A research must have its closure and this is achieved through the conclusion, the most anticipated aspect in a research as it brings the research report to an end highlighting what were found, how it contribute to knowledge significantly or not and to what extent can the research be made better in the future. The conclusion chapter allows the researcher to summarise the findings and discussions in the conclusion, highlighting the key points of the concluded study. Thus, to conclude this research, the following conclusion was provided to sum up the entire process of this research which concentrates on the usage of 'child directed speech' as seen in the discourse between a preschool teacher and 12 preschool children.

5.1 Research Conclusion

In this study, the focus of the research was on identifying the features of 'child directed speech' as identified in the discourse occurring between a preschool teacher and 12 preschool children in a Malaysian preschool setting. The objectives in identifying the various features or characteristics of 'child directed speech' were mainly derived based on what were seen in the exchange of discourse. As mentioned earlier, six features or characteristics of 'child directed speech' proposed by Kaye (1980) were detected.

Three research questions were proposed in Chapter 1 and this chapter aims to answer all the research questions by making reference to the analysis of data as discussed in Chapter 4.

Referring to the first research question 'What are the characteristics of 'child directed speech' in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool

children?', the researcher found all six features of 'child directed speech' listed in the adapted Kaye's (1980) model in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children. The six features found in the discourse are as following: prosodic, lexical, complexity, redundancy, content and code-switching.

Relating to Herat's (2010) study in which she investigated the application of 'child directed speech' in an English-Singhala speaking household in Sri Lanka, it was found that some of the features of 'child directed speech' listed in Kaye's (1980) framework were noted and these include prosodic, lexical, complexity, redundancy, and code-switching features which emerged in the current study. The similarities between the current study and Herat's (2010) findings indicate that 'child directed speech' is a common phenomenon. Further, the similarities could also be attributed to the possibility that Sri Lanka and Malaysia are both Asian countries that have diverse races speaking many languages at one time, hence explain the occurrence of code-switching features in both studies. Even though Herat's (2010) study focussed on parents-child discourse and this study focussed on teacher-preschool children discourse, it appears that other facets of child directed speech exist in both of these studies.

Moving to the second research question 'What are the common characteristics as compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children?', prosodic, lexical, complexity, redundancy and content features are the common characteristics that could be found in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children when compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual

English speakers. As for what are the most common characteristic that appeared in the teacher-preschool discourse when compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers, prosodic features and complexity features appear in a majority of the discourse.

According to Snow and Ferguson (1977); Gallaway and Richards (1994) as cited in Kazakovskaya and Balciuniene (2012), most of the earlier studies on 'child directed speech' were based on English data. Code switching is not prevalent in the literature of English-speaking Westerner's 'child directed speech' as most of the English data were compiled from monolingual speakers. However, in Malaysia, there are monolinguals, bilinguals and multi-linguals. Thus, this explains why, when compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers, code switching is not one of the common characteristics in the preschool teacher-preschool children discourse.

When it comes to the third research question 'What are the least frequent characteristics as compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children?' it appears that lexical and code-switching features were the least frequent characteristics as compared to the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children.

While code switching is almost non-existent in the description of 'child directed speech' based on monolingual English speakers, the lexical features occurred in a very minimum

level in the discourse between a Malaysian preschool teacher and 12 preschool children. The reason for this low level of participation could be attributed to the fact that this is a classroom oriented 'child directed speech'. Thus, compared to other features such as prosodic, complexity, redundancy, content and code-switching, lexical features were not adopted positively by the teacher due to the teacher's role as an educator who helps students to achieve their learning goals and not being misinformed in the acquisition of knowledge. For example, by substituting the word 'dog' with 'doggy', even though the second form of word sounds interesting, but it misled a child in associating the animal dog with this word form.

Based on the adapted Kaye's (1980) model which presents the six features of 'child directed speech', the researcher noted that these five features: prosodic, complexity, redundancy, content and code-switching, occur frequently throughout the entire classroom discourse. Based on these results, it can be said that these five features are the most useful features to adopt by a teacher who wants to utilise the 'child directed speech' in a classroom discourse in Malaysia. Basically, these five features enhance the students' learning experience as can be seen through the teacher's frequent adoption of the features.

This study established the powerful role held by a teacher in guiding young students in classroom learning through the application of the features in 'child directed speech' that ultimately led to successful language acquisition.

5.2 Implications of the Study

Even though the language utilized for communicating and teaching was English, code-switching still occurred in the discourse between the preschool teacher and the preschool children. The presence of code-switching among other features associated with 'child directed speech' raised the concern for the utilization of code-switching in a classroom oriented 'child directed speech'.

Code-switching normally occur in a situation where people involved in the discourse have the ability to converse in two or more languages as shown in Herat (2010) study. The need to utilize another language, apart from the language intended in the communication, inferred that though code-switching does happen in the classroom discourse, the act of code-switching does not affect the process of language acquisition. This is because the teacher upheld her role as an educator by maintaining to the target language that need to be acquired and code-switching minimally only when the situation requires it. As for students who tend to code-switching, they learn and got exposed to new English vocabularies by the teacher.

5.3 Recommendations for Future Study

This research was mainly conducted to examine the discourse between a preschool teacher and 12 preschool children in a Malaysian preschool setting. Conducting this type of study is highly valuable as this study can benefit teachers and students, exposing them to elements that could be expected in a classroom oriented 'child directed speech'. This study also provides them the platform to gain an insight in the conduct of classroom discourse.

There are several limitations that could be addressed for the reference of other researchers in their future studies involving this type of discourse. For example, the sampling selected for this study has several flaws that could have made a difference in the results obtained from this study. The preschool children differs in terms of their nationality and age, thus future researchers could take this factor into consideration and try to find sampling which are equal.

Another prominent limitation was that this study was conducted in a preschool located in Malaysia. Though the research approach of this study can be replicated, the results obtained from this preschool cannot be generalized to other preschool institutions as the research scope is very small. Thus, future researchers might conduct the study in a variety of preschool institutions and compare the results obtained between the institutions. Future researchers might also opt a longitudinal study in order to gain a new insight in this area of discourse.

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