INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES IN TEACHING STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE LEARNING DISABILITIES

NOOR SYAMIMIE BINTI MOHD NAWI

FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR

2017

INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES IN TEACHING STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE LEARNING DISABILITIES

NOOR SYAMIMIE BINTI MOHD NAWI

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF LINGUISTICS

FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR

2017

UNIVERSITI MALAYA

ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION

Name of Candidate: NOOR SYAMIMIE BINTI MOHD NAWI

Registration/Matric No: TGC 110006

Name of Degree: MASTER IN LINGUISTICS

Title of Project Paper/Research Report/Dissertation/Thesis ("this Work"):

INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES IN TEACHING STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE LEARNING DISABILITIES

Field of Study:

I do solemnly and sincerely declare that:

(1) I am the sole author/writer of this Work;
(2) This Work is original;
(3) Any use of any work in which copyright exists was done by way of fair dealing and for permitted purposes and any excerpt or extract from, or reference to or reproduction of any copyright work has been disclosed expressly and sufficiently and the title of the Work and its authorship have been acknowledged in this Work;
(4) I do not have any actual knowledge nor do I ought reasonably to know that the making of this work constitutes an infringement of any copyright work;
(5) I hereby assign all and every rights in the copyright to this Work to the University of Malaya ("UM"), who henceforth shall be owner of the copyright in this Work and that any reproduction or use in any form or by any means whatsoever is prohibited without the written consent of UM having been first had and obtained;
(6) I am fully aware that if in the course of making this Work I have infringed any copyright whether intentionally or otherwise, I may be subject to legal action or any other action as may be determined by UM.

Candidate's Signature   Date

Subscribed and solemnly declared before,

Witness's Signature   Date

Name:
Designation:

ABSTRACT

This research aims to study interactional norms and practices that take place between teachers and special needs students in the special education classroom. Additionally, it also aims to query the teachers why they interact with their students using certain interactional strategies. The roles that are portrayed by special education teachers in disseminating information and in nurturing the needs of children with learning difficulties in school is observed in order to examine whether the students are actually benefitting from the class. The study was conducted using qualitative research approach where a field research had been carried out on a weekly basis from October 2012 to January 2013. Eleven teachers were selected as the participants of this research to help with the analysis of various classroom interactions in a special education classroom. The findings pointed the presence of speech acts, motherese and humour in the special education classroom. The teacher participants have different teaching strategies but their interactions with special education students in the classroom are used to serve four main purposes which are to (i) improve students' comprehension, (ii) teach social interaction (iii) manage inappropriate behaviour in classroom and (iv) express disappointment and anger. It is hoped that the findings can provide an insight to the stakeholders to see whether or not the students are learning something in the classroom especially their personal development growth as the result of interaction. The quality of the interaction in the classroom explicates the actions in which the primary goal of schooling which is learning is realised.

Keywords: interactional strategies, teacher, students, special education.

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji norma-norma dan amalan yang terjadi antara guru dan para pelajar kelainan upaya di dalam kelas pendidikan khas. Selain itu, ia juga bertujuan untuk bertanya para guru tentang kenapa cara berinteraksi dengan pelajar-pelajar dilakukan mengikut amalan interaksi tersebut. Gambaranan akan peranan guru-guru pendidikan khas dalam menyampaikan maklumat dan memenuhi keperluan para pelajar yang mengalami masalah pembelajaran di sekolah akan di pantau untuk menilai sama ada para pelajar sebenarnya mendapat manfaat daripada strategi interaksi untuk pembelajaran di dalam kelas. Kajian ini telah dijalankan menggunakan kaedah penyelidikan kualitatif di mana kajian lapangan telah dijalankan setiap minggu dari bulan bulan Oktober 2012 hingga Januari 2013. Sebelas guru telah dipilih sebagai peserta untuk membantu dalam analisis kepelbagaian interaksi bilik darjah di dalam kelas pendidikan khas. Hasil kajian menunjukkan kehadiran lakuan tutur (speech act), 'motherese' dan jenaka di dalam kelas pendididkan khas. Para guru menggunakan strategi pengajaran yang berbeza tetapi interaksi mereka dengan pelajar pendidikan khas mempunyai 3 tujuan utama iaitu : (i) meningkatkan kefahaman pelajar, (ii) mengajar komunikasi social dan kemahiran hidup dan (iii) menguruskan maslaah tingkah laku dalam bilik darjah. Dapatan kajian diharap dapat memberi gambaran kepada pihak yang berkepentingan bagi melihat samaada para pelajar mempelajari sesuatu di dalam kelas terutama dari sudut pembangunan sahsiah diri dari hasil interaksi di antara guru dan pelajar. Interaksi yang berkualiti di dalam kelas menjelaskan tujuan utama pendidikan iaitu pembelajaran dapat direalisasikan.

Kata kunci : strategi interaksi, guru, pelajar, pendidikan khas

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful.

This study would not have been possible without the support of many individuals to whom I am most grateful and indebted.

First and foremost, I would like to express special appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. David Yoong Soon Chye for his continuous guidance and support and all the useful comments, remarks and engagement through the learning process of this master thesis.

I would like to express my gratitude my parents and all my family for all of the sacrifices that you've made on my behalf. Thank you all for the support throughout these years.

Lastly I would like to thank the following individuals who generously shared their time and help me in this journey:

- The teachers of Sekolah Kebangsaan Kubang Kerian 1
- My friends from UM, UiTM (you know who you are) who have supported me throughout entire process, both by keeping me calm and also helping me putting the pieces together.
- My 'Jelifornia familia' especially Husairi and Kak Sha for always being there for me with daily guidance when I was at my lowest point in life, to get me through all difficulties.

I am sincerely grateful to have people who always love, support and believe in me. Thank you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OFAPPENDICES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introduction

According to the United Nations Children's Fund or UNICEF (2006, p. 12), around 10 per cent of the world's children and young people have sensory, intellectual or mental health impairment. Census data from 2009 shows that there are about 14,487 registered children with disabilities aged 18 and below in Malaysia (Social Welfare Department, 2011, p. 1). However, this figure can be considered as a gross underestimation as registration is based on voluntary basis, meaning "an even larger number [to] go undetected" (Amar-Singh, 2008, p. 1). In Malaysia, there are seven categories of disabilities under the registration of Disabled People or '*Orang Kelainan Upaya'* (OKU). These categories are as follows:

Table 1.1: Type of disabilities based on Social Welfare department

No	Category	Brief Description
1.	Hearing impairment	A partial or complete loss of hearing even with the help of a hearing aid.
2.	Visual impairment	A partial or complete loss of vision.
3.	Speech impairment	A disorder which causes the inability to speak properly and cannot be understood by other people thus failed to meaningfully use language to communicate.
4.	Physical disabilities	Impairment in the ability to move or complete motor activities due to the loss or absence or disability of any body parts. It gives a physical limitation for the patient.

Table 1.1, continued

No	Category	Brief description
5.	Learning disabilities	A disorder related to processing information that leads to difficulties in reading, writing, computing and reasoning.
6.	Mental retardation	Significant limitations in intellectual ability and adaptive behaviour; this disability occurs in a range of severity.
7.	Multiple disabilities	The simultaneous presence of two or more disabilities such that none can be identified in category 1 to 6.

When Malaysia passed Act 685, the Persons with Disabilities Act (PWDA) in 2008, people with disabilities were granted equal access to seven domains of opportunities in order for them to promote and develop their quality of life. One of these domains is the access to education, as stipulated in Section 28 of PWDA. It says people with disabilities shall have the right to receive all levels of education on an equal basis. In order to oversee that children with disabilities are properly facilitated, the Ministry of Education established the Special Education Department to oversee the administration of special education at the pre-school, primary and secondary education levels.

In this research, the focus of special needs students is constrained to three types of disabilities; i) hearing impairment, ii) visual impairment and iii) learning disabilities. For students with hearing and visual impairment, they will have to attend special education schools for the deaf and blind. Learning disabilities sometimes can be referred to as 'intellectually-challenged' or 'learning difficulties'. In different countries, the labels might

vary. In United States, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act 2004 (IDEA 2004) excludes autism and intellectual disabilities from the learning disabilities category while in the United Kingdom, mental retardation is considered a learning disability (Yeo, 2007, p. 16-17). In Malaysia, learning disabilities group comprise of individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD), Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD), Down's syndrome, minimal retardation, epilepsy and specific learning difficulties like dyslexia, dyscalculia and dysgraphia. The UNESCO International Bureau of Education (2009, p. 4) reports that in Malaysia, only students with dyslexia are enrolled in the specific classes consisting of only dyslexic students while students with other types of learning disability like ASD, ADHD, Down's syndrome, minimal retardation are placed into the same classroom. In other words, these students will be taught under a general education plan which is not set according to the individual student's condition and capability. Putting students with different types of disabilities in a same classroom could be a questionable practice because the characteristics of each disability are different.

In the classroom, the most important person who holds responsibilities for all every interaction and activities in the classroom is the teacher. Teachers directly influence their students with their methods of interaction and instruction. Heward (2003, p. 3) adds that teachers plan, create teaching curriculum, arrange the flow of lessons, guide and evaluate learning, in addition to developing their students' potential in all aspect of development. Students with learning difficulties are cognitively impaired and they have limited motor abilities. Their speech competence is also affected by their disabilities. According to Sigafoos (2000) and Lee (2001), these children have limited communication skills which makes their interaction with other individuals tend to be misinterpreted and in some cases, people fail to recognise their intention. The lack of competence in interacting and

responding to people can affect their learning in schools and interaction with others in their communities (Schepis & Reid, 1995 in Chen, 2008, p. 1). When the students are lack of interactional competence, they will have difficulty in getting their messages across. In educational setting, one way of knowing the students understanding is by asking them questions. If the students are not able to give correct responses, hey are considered as not being able to follow the lesson.

According to Mercer (2005, p. 44), the success of teaching and learning depends on the contributions of teachers and students. However, since children with disabilities "have a limited repertoire of communication forms and functions and have quantitatively and qualitatively different profiles of communication" (Wetherby & Prutting, 1984 in Meadan, Helle, Ostrosky & DeStefano, 2008 p. 37), teachers are faced with a difficult task in disseminating information during lessons. Classroom interaction also has pervasive impact on children with learning disabilities. Studies done by Engelmann and Carnine (1982), Lloyd and Carnine (1981 cited from Hallahan & Kauffman, 1986, p. 11) show that special education teachers must attain special expertise so that students with disability will understand and respond appropriately. However, a study by Maddox (1997) reports that the teachers are not always aware of the meanings of these children's communication behaviours or in what ways their interactions with the children are being effective.

The establishment of the Special Education Integration Program in Malaysian public schools is a part of the betterment act for the special needs community. Despite the effort from the government, there are still issues and challenges in the provision of proper education. One common challenge is the location of the classroom. The UNESCO International Bureau of Education (2009, p. 4) also reports that, certain schools in Malaysia especially the schools in rural areas do not have proper facilities to place special education

classrooms, and some schools resort to converting utility rooms into these special education classrooms. This can be a problem because without a good classroom environment or setting, the stimulation of learning can be impaired (Santrock, 2009, p. 489). Based on preliminary observations of the research site of study, the special education classroom is located at the end of the schools compound and it is a wooden building, which was previously used by the Parents Teachers Association (PTA) to conduct their activities and meetings. The building is rather aged with poor ventilation. The level of light spectra in rather low and the classroom acoustics are not properly planned. This means the classroom is rather dark and you can hear the voice from the other classrooms clearly and sometimes it is louder than the observed classroom. These conditions are not conducive for the teaching and learning. Even a teacher said that the location of the classroom is not suitable as the building was previously affected by floods.

Apart from the classroom building condition, facilities also play an important role in helping the teaching and learning process. The teachers said that the lack of teaching equipment such as reference books and art and craft equipment is the main cause of stress in teaching children with special needs (Williams & Gersch, 2004, p. 159). Without the proper facilities, teachers commonly improvise to overcome the challenges. The research site also has limited number of furniture. Sometimes the number of students is higher than the number of desks and chair in the room and students need to get their chair from another classroom. The size of each classroom is rather small and students have limited space to move around. The condition is not very conducive for the teaching and learning.

Student success is related to the overall condition of the school's building. Furthermore, when a school's facility deteriorates or becomes worsen, student absenteeism increases thus reducing a student's likelihood of receiving a good quality education. In

addition, Roberts, Edgerton, and Peter (2008) examine the impact of the learning environment on student achievement in Canadian schools. They claim that the condition of the facility can affect student morale and teacher satisfaction thus affecting the climate of the school in general. In their survey of over 25,000 Canadian students and 1100 principals, a deteriorating infrastructure and worsening conditions in school facilities negatively impacted the morale of those within the buildings. Based on their research, teaching and learning is most effective when the morale and enthusiasm are high.

Additionally, in a research by Mohd Rizal and Muallimah (2011) one problem that teachers frequently face is the lack of proper teaching exposure. Teachers without proper training face difficulties in constructing or building their own teaching aids to meet the need of students with different types of learning disabilities. At the research site, some teachers without background in special education tend to resort to using the materials provided in the ordinary school children workbook and some will simply use the colouring book as their worksheets. The situation is better for the teacher with special education training as they are trained to handle special children. Even with the curriculum provided by the Ministry, it is still a difficult task to teach students with multiple disabilities in one classroom because their needs are different. In addition to teaching students in one classroom, teachers also need to conduct individual lesson to each students to monitor their development and without a suitable training, teaching and evaluating special education students can be challenging.

A substantial number of researches to date have examined either teachers or students in special education settings. For instance, William and Gersch (2004) studied the causes of stress in teaching children with special needs, and a study by Manisah *et al.* (2006) focused on students with learning disabilities that display classroom behaviour

6

problems. However, according to Chen (2008 p. 14) there is a lack of studies on the teaching and interactional norms of teachers interacting with their student and this provide the base for this study. Understanding interaction that takes place in special education classrooms will enable us to further understand the teachers' perspectives in catering the needs of the children with diverse disabilities and the 'how' and 'why' teachers act and respond in such ways. Taking cue from this, this study aims to unveil the teaching and interactional norms of special education teachers when they interact with children with diverse learning disabilities in the classroom settings. This study will examine how teachers with some experience (minimum two years) in teaching children cater the basic needs of the students with learning disabilities.

The needs of the students will be based on the Special Education of Standard Curriculum for Primary School's (*Kurikulum Standard Sekolah Rendah Pendidikan Khas, KSSRPK*) livelihood management component, that has four sub-components comprising of self-management skills, manipulative skills, behaviour modification and living skills.

1.2   Research Purpose and Research Questions

The study aims to look into teachers' interactional strategies in special education classroom by examining the three main categories of a) interactional organisation in special education classroom routines; b) teachers' specific linguistic strategies hen interacting learners with learning disabilities; and c) teachers' interactional preferences based on time of contact between students and them. This study also aims to seek for teachers' attitudes and reasons or the use of particular interactional strategies. Finally, the study compares teachers' interactional strategies in the two different institutional settings of normal and special education classrooms. These research purposes are driven by following research questions:

7

i.   How do teachers interact with the special children? (Chapter 4)

The first question has two objectives. It aims to document the interactional norms and practices in the special education classroom in a Kelantanese urban school, and possibly to understand why these norms are practised. This question will be answered using an ethnographic approach.

ii.   What do the teachers think of their method of interaction and why do these teachers interact with their students the way they do? (Chapter 5)

The second question examines the viewpoints of the teachers by probing the reasons they interact with the children in the way they do. This would be answered using a semi-structured interview method.

iii.   Do the interactional norms and practices in the special education classroom differ from those in general education classroom? (Chapter 5)

The final research question compares the differences and similarities between the ethnographic findings and literature on the interactional norms and practices of the general education classroom.

1.3   Significance of the Study

This study which examined the classroom interaction in special education classes would provide invaluable information to this field. It can provide a basis in creating an appropriate and effective educational environment which would best meet the needs of children in school. With clear understanding of the skills and needs of the children with diverse learning disabilities, it can benefit the teacher in bringing about improvements in classroom interaction thus allowing them to better meet each child's needs.

Another significance of the study is to create some level of awareness about learning disabilities in this country among professionals and the public at large. Awareness would help propel key players to provide substantive policy changes into bettering the education quality given to students with learning disabilities. It can be a revolutionary study for the Ministry of Education (MOE) in general and specifically to the Special Education Department to make the essential difference to special education because currently, only few studies have been conducted related to this area. Some issues in the area are still left uncovered. This shows that there is a great lack of the 'whole-picture' containing the information of special education. These stakeholders could also use the findings of this study to overcome the shortcomings in this area.

It is also noted that very little is known of the Malaysia point of view regarding special education classroom as most of the current literature gave and discussed this phenomenon from a western perspective. The detailed description of the interaction between teachers and students in the classrooms obtained from this study would provide a knowledge base on the interaction that took place in the special education classrooms and how the teaching and learning process is conducted.

1.4   A Brief History of Special Education in Malaysia

Special Education Programs were first initiated by charitable and missionary organisations in Malaysia. It started with the establishment of St. Nicholas in Malacca by the Angelican Church in 1926. The school was then moved to Penang in 1931. The school is for the primary students with visual impairment. The Princess Elizabeth School was the next school for the blind people and it was established in 1948 in Johor. Following this was the opening of The Federated School for the Deaf in 1954 in Tanjong Bunga, Penang. After

the Independence, more schools were established for the children with special needs of sensory impairment.

The Ministry of Education began to engage and play an active role in the special education program through the establishment of the Integrated Special Education Classes with the mainstream school for the vision impairment in 1962 and later in 1963 for the students with hearing impairment. In 1978, the Ministry of Education (MOE) established a special class category for slow learners to provide specialized training of the three basic skills: reading, writing and counting. In 1988, the first special education class for learning disabilities was established to cater the educational needs of this group. To cater for learning needs of children with disabilities who have difficulty accessing the National Curriculum, an alternative curriculum was designed and implemented in the MOE programme for learning disabilities.

In addition to that, students with learning disabilities who can adapt and cope with mainstream education are placed under the 'inclusion programme' where they will be taught in mainstream classes and provided minimum support services by the teachers. The inclusion was to support the 'Salamanca Statement' in 1994 which aims to increase the number of special education students in receiving mainstream education. However, the inclusive programme was not very successful because of the implementation in Malaysia is not at the same level with international standards as the acceptance of teachers and facilities are still the main concerns in inclusive education. In 1995, the Special Education division was established to manage schools for children with special needs under one roof. Apart from managing special schools, the division also coordinates integration and inclusive education programmes in mainstream schools. It also conducts research and develop curriculum for special education.

The registration process for the special education students is also very different from normal students. To be admitted as a student for the Special Education Program, strict registration processes need to be followed. The procedure in enrolling a student with special needs into a school with special education classes is based on the Special Education Guidelines Book (*Buku Maklumat Pendidikan Khas*, 2003). The procedures are as follow:

i.   Parents send their child to be diagnosed by medical professionals in a government hospital, health care centre or the private clinic in the first two years of birth.

ii.   After the certification of the child's disability, parents can opt to register with the Social Welfare Department.

iii.   Parents register the disabled child with the State Education Department (*Jabatan Pendidikan Negeri*) when the child is 3 or 4 years old.

iv.   The placement of the certified child will be handled by the State Education Department. The department will forward the necessary documents to the special education unit in the particular state.

v.   The special education unit will contact parents to decide on the special education program when the child is 6. The children will be place in either the special school or the special integration program.

vi.   The unit will then forward the child's name to the principle of the school concerned who will the contact the parents.

vii.   Once this is verified, parents will register their child in the school concerned.

viii.   School starts.

However, not all children can register for it. If a child has severe disability or failed to fulfil the requirement from the MOE, he or she will be referred to the Community Based

Rehabilitation (*Pemulihan Dalam Kommuniti PDK*). As for the students who have been placed in the Special Education Program, they will be given a 3-month probation period. The special education teachers will observe and decide whether the child is able to fit into the school within the first 3 months and the child could be asked to leave if he or she is not able to do so.

1.5   Demography of Kelantan

In this section, the demography of Kelantan is discussed briefly to provide the background information regarding the location and the subject of this study. Kelantan is a northern state of Peninsular Malaysia. It is positioned on the north-east of Peninsular Malaysia. It is bordered by Narathiwat Province of Thailand to the north, Terengganu to the south-east, Perak to the west, and Pahang to the south. To the north-east of Kelantan is the South China Sea. Figure below shows the map of the Kelantan bordering states.
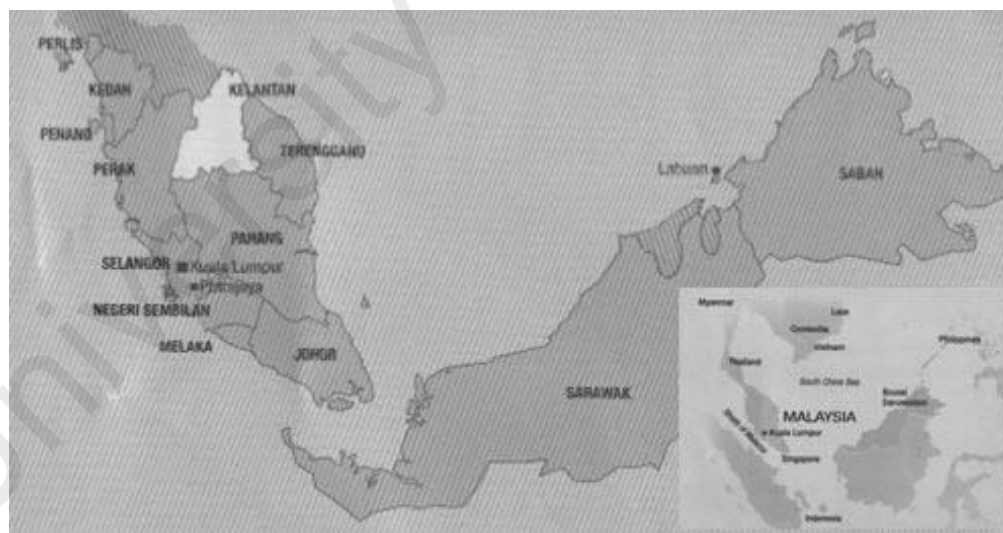
Figure 1.1: Map of the Kelantan bordering state

It has an area of 14,922 square kilometres and a population of about 1.68 million as of 2013. Ninety-five percent of the Kelantan populations are Malays while Chinese, Thais, Indians and Indigenous People (Orang Asli) constitutes the rest of the population.

For the administrative purposes, this state is divided into 10 districts called '*jajahan*' which are listed as follow:

1. Kota Bharu District
2. Pasir Mas District
3. Tumpat District
4. Pasir Putih District
5. Bachok District

6. Kuala Krai District
7. Machang District
8. Tanah Merah District
9. Jeli District
10. Gua Musang District

The figure below shows the exact location of each district of the state of Kelantan.

Figure 1.2: Administrative division of the state of Kelantan.

Kota Bharu is the state and royal capital and is also the biggest city in Kelantan. Kelantan is still depending mostly on the agricultural activities and the most common crops are paddy, rubber, tobacco and palm. The state also has rustic fishing villages which also contribute to the state's economy. The people here also manage to keep the old traditions and custom alive and make a living out of them. The cottage industries also contribute to

the economy of Kelantan. The handicraft production like batik, songket weaving, kite-making and woodcarving are also evident thus earning the state a reputation as the 'Cradle of Malay Culture'. In recent years, the tourism also contributes to the state's economy.

Another uniqueness of the people in Kelantan is the use of Kelantanese Malay dialect as the means of interaction. Even though Kelantanese Malay comes from the same of source of Malay (Adi Yasran, 2005, p. 10). This dialect is unintelligible even for some speakers of Standard Malay due to many differences in terms of phonological, morphological and lexical aspects. More discussion on Kelantanese Malay and Standard Malay can be found in Chapter 2.

1.6   The Research Site

The research was conducted at *Sekolah Kebangsaan Kubang Kerian* 1 or SKKK (1). It is located at *Jalan Istana Mahkota, Kubang Kerian*. The school has eight main buildings and the special education classroom is located at the back of the school compound (see Image 1). The Special Education Integration program in SKKK (1) was opened in January 2004 involving only two teachers and 14 students. In 2012, there were 58 students in the program. The summary of the student's details are shown in Table 1.2:

Table 1.2: Student's details (as for 2012)

(A)RELIGION	GENDER		(B) AGE	TOTAL	(C) CATEGORIES	TOTAL
	M	F	7 YO	8	DOWN'S SINDROM	16
			8 YO	5	MENTAL RETARDATION	10
ISLAM	35	23	9 YO	9	AUTISM	5
BUDDIST	-	-	10 YO	17	AHDH	7
OTHERS	-	-	11 YO	7	SLOW LEARNER	15
			12 YO	4	CEREBRAL PALSY	2
			13 YO	8	PHYSICAL	3
TOTAL	58			58		58

The image shows the aerial view of the school perimeters and the exact location of Special Education classroom of SKKK (1).

Figure 1.3: Location of S.E classroom

The students are assigned into six groups based on cognition, level of disabilities and age. Group 1 is for the younger, less verbal and the functioning levels are the lowest as compared to the other group. Group 6 is for the older and higher functioning students. The streaming processes are conducted in a sequential manner. After the registration, students

will have their first diagnostic test to decide their group for the first year of their schooling. Then for the following years, teachers will decide the group based on their performances in the previous years.

1.6.1 The Teachers and the Special Education Classroom

In 2013 there are 14 teachers whose age range between 30 to 51 years old. Their working hours are the same with the other primary teachers. Classes begin at 7.30 am and end at 1.30 pm. In addition to the teachers, the school also has four students' aides (*Pembantu Pengurusan Murid*) and their scope of work entails administration work like keeping the records, managing the stationery needed by the teachers and students, escorting students to the class and they are also in charge with the household maintenance. The staff are all Malay. The summary of the staff is shown in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: Staff details

SCHOOL'S NAME	NO OF CLASS	NO OF TEACHERS		TOTAL	NO OF TEACHER'S AIDES		TOTAL
		M	F		M	F	
SEK.KEB KUBANG KERIAN (1)	6	5	9	14	1	3	4

As for the classroom itself, the special education area of SK Kubang Kerian 1 is a self-contained area with a combination of two separate rooms. It has six classrooms, a hallway, a teachers' workstation-cum-kitchen and two toilets. The classrooms are separated using wooden screens and the size of each classroom is not bigger than 6m$^{2.}$ Each room has small tables set together; chairs, a whiteboard, a standing fan and a teacher's table (see Image 2). Some classrooms have additional side tables, which are used by the teachers to put the students' workbooks and other records.

The hallway is the first area that visitors will see upon entering. It has four desks for the teachers and the students' aides. It also acts as an activity area. After the recess, it would be a waiting area where the students will gather and watch television before entering the class.

Figure 1.4: The classroom and hallway
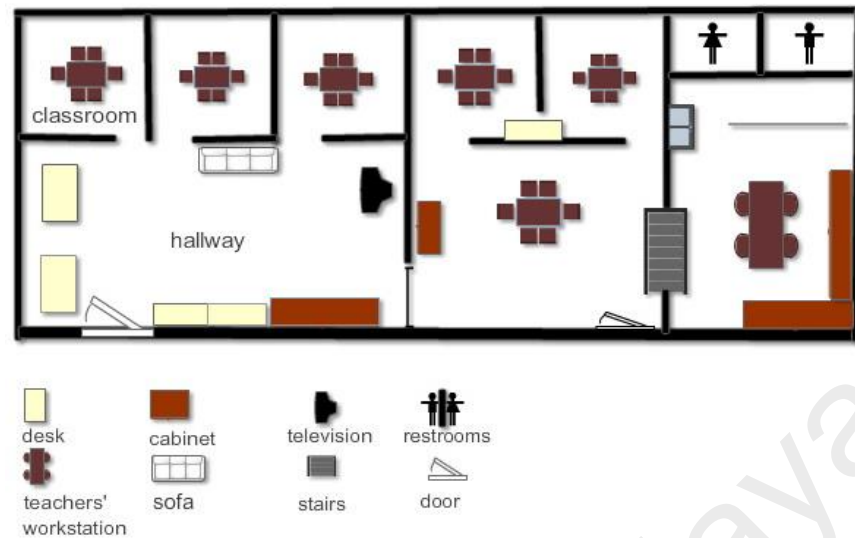
Figure 1.5: The floor plan of the area

1.7   Organisation of the Dissertation

This chapter introduced special education in general and also gave a description of the site of study and also the three research questions as well as the rational for the study. The following chapter (Chapter 2) provides a detailed review of relevant and important literature in order to guide the data analysis. While in Chapter 3, the description of the research methodology where design and implementation of the study is being discussed. In Chapter 4, the report of the data analysis to answer the first research question is being presented while in Chapter 5 discusses the findings or the second and third research questions. Lastly, Chapter 6 summarises the findings. Limitations and recommendations for practice and future research are also included.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

This chapter provides a review of literature regarded as important to the development of a framework of analysis to address the research questions, as stated in Section 1.2. There are two parts of presentation in this chapter. The first part emphasises the macro level, which is the social functions and structures of practices in the classroom. This part provides the following key discussion:

- Functions of Social Interaction in the Classroom (Section 2.2)

- Roles, Power and Interpersonal Control in Classroom (Section 2.3)

- Language Choices in the Classroom (Section 2.4)

The second part emphasises the micro level of the study, which is the linguistic manifestation of the macro level (or the first part). This particular part discusses the following ideas:

- Discourse Management in Teacher-Student Interaction (Section 2.5)

- Speech Acts in the Classroom (Section 2.6)

- Motherese as Teachers' Interactional Style in Intergenerational Classroom (Section 2.7)

- Humour as Pedagogical and Social Elements in the Classroom (Section 2.8)

2.2 Interactional Practices in the Classroom

Among others, the primary function of a teacher in the classroom is to disseminate information and model their students' behaviour in order for them to be integrated and functioning members of society. In order to understand how teachers perform their roles in the classroom, it is important to examine the nature of interaction. Interaction in a classroom is a structured communication which usually includes discussion, questions and answers, collaborative learning, debate and group work. According to Biddle (1967 in Sadegi *et al.*, 2012, p. 167), the term 'interaction' can imply an action-reaction or a two-way influence which may be between:

i. Two individuals like a teacher and a student or a student with another students; or

ii. Between an individual and a group like a teacher and students; or

iii. Between materials and individuals.

In this particular environment, the learning process occurs through the social interaction of people entrenched in a sociocultural context (Boardman, 2005; Wertsch, 1991). This statement is in line Vygotsky's (1978) views, that social interaction is essential in developing the cognitive abilities of a child. In his sociocultural theory, social interaction plays a significant role in the development of cognition context:

"Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people which is also known as inter-psychological and then inside the child or intra-psychological." (p. 57)

An important aspect of Vygotsky's theory is the concept of 'zone proximal development' or ZPD and it emphasizes the potential for cognitive development. ZPD is a level of development attained when children engage in social behavior' (p. 86). The development of ZPD is built on social interaction. The range of skills that are too difficult for the child to master alone is possible to be mastered with the guidance and assistance of adult or more skilled children. Hence, learning is a dyadic interaction and the teacher plays a significant role in assisting the students to reach ZPD.

There have been numerous attempts to lay out the components that comprise social interactions. Rummel (1976, p. 8) for instance, emphasises on three key terms which contributes to defining social interaction and they are acts, actions and practices. The first key term, 'act' refers to intention, aim or purpose, which is performed by a person which can affect emotions, beliefs or anticipation of an action of the addressee or receiver of the message. The 'act' is synonymous with Hymes' (1974) notion of 'goal' which is something that you want to achieve. The term 'act' should not be mistaken as 'speech act' as speech act is an utterance that has performative function in language and communication whereas an 'act' is a performance of someone and not necessarily be in form of utterance. It can involve non-verbal act.

His second key term is 'actions', and as the name implies, it refers to the performance done in order to accomplish the 'act'. An example of 'action' is when a teacher sings in the classroom to teach his students, or a girl putting on make-up to appear more attractive at her date are examples of social actions. Finally, 'practices' refer to the rules, routines, norms or rituals which govern the acts and actions. For example, when crossing a street, people are expected to look right, left and right again. This expectation becomes a norm. In order to accomplish the act of dispersing knowledge, actions need to be

performed. In the classroom, the most important person who holds responsibilities for all every interaction and activities in the classroom is the teacher. Teachers have significant effect on the child education because their method of interaction will have a direct influence on the teaching and also learning of the children (more of the roles of the teacher will be discussed in the next section).

Social interactions are interwoven with rules, routines, norms and rituals. These 'practices' are crucial because the need for structure is very strong in human life and it can be seen from various aspects of our lives. In fact, Goffman states that structure requires two things which are routines and ritual (1981, p. 14-15). According to Cuber (1955, cited in Yoong, 2010, p. 696), norms can be defined as 'the accepted or required behaviour for a person in a particular situation'. The norms will provide standard rules for acceptable interactional practices when individuals are trying to convey or interpret messages. The norms of interaction can be based on culture, local or group and relation (O' Sullivan & Flanagin, 2003, p. 80).

One example can best represent the importance norms, rituals and routines are from the religious services. The rituals are created to provide comfort and the sense of security in our lives. In most religious services, the ritual is highlighted by certain form of physical movements, music and also the use of incense. All these are the approach to help people to be comfortable with the routine.

In the educational field, students can connect with each other through the use of rituals. These rituals, when used consistently, become routines that can help teachers maintain the smooth flow of the classroom session and making the classroom more manageable. Both teachers and students need to understand classroom communicative

competence. This involves knowing and understanding classroom rituals that govern classroom interaction. Classroom rituals are activities that are done repeatedly and that students learn to expect as part of their time in the classroom. This provides a moment of unity and cohesion where all students can be redirected, especially if their prior state was not conducive to a positive learning environment as they are all in the same emotional state. Some of the rituals are explicitly stated (eg: raise your hand and wait to be called before you talk). Other times, they are implicit and children must learn them through observation and trial and error, just as they acquire communicative competence in their speech community. When students, or the teacher, lose interest, rituals can be changed at any time or they can be created when the new need arises.

Rituals are important for a few reasons. Rand (2012) states three benefits of classroom routines and rituals: (i) they provide comfort and safety (ii) they are efficient in terms of use of the mental resources and the development of self-control and (iii) community building. The most common daily ritual is the greeting by the teachers with a welcoming hello and a smile.

According to Greenberg and Murray (2014), personalised welcoming can ease the morning separation if someone 'official' smiled and greet both the parents and the children. She adds that there are two essential messages being delivered to the person you are communicating with by performing the welcoming ritual which are "i) we value and include all people, ii) we consider it good manners to great each person and good manners help others feel comfortable." In the case of the study, it is crucial to perform such ritual because the teacher's aide can actually support child's emotional and social well-being due to their condition.

23

When the teaching and learning take place, there are also rituals. For example, students are expected to listen to the teacher and can only perform or do something only when the teacher allows it. This is true in both traditional classrooms and in more open-ended whole-language classrooms. Saville-Troike (1982, p. 240) states that communication in traditional American classroom has been characterised by 'rigid turn-taking, with a raised hand to request a turn'; a definite 'spatial arrangement with children seated in rows of desks or around tables; and peer interaction which is initiated and controlled by adults'. Although the whole classroom provides student with more freedom (Goodman, 1989), the teacher still is the primary authority figure in the classroom. It is a fact that teacher's role and status differ from those other adults with whom the child has interacted or continues to interact thus teachers usually tend to be more absolute in their authority, controlling not only how the children verbally and nonverbally interact with them, but also controlling how the children interact with other children. Children have to learn how to get her attention, when it is appropriate to speak to her in private or in front of the group, how to respond appropriately, with whom they can interact and when and what is the different spatial arrangements are for different activities.

Sometimes, the rituals are also viewed as a way for teachers to harness the power in the classroom. Despite the best efforts of teachers, however, research from diverse perspectives has shown that disruption and defiance are ubiquitous and seemingly unavoidable (MacBeth,1990, p. 192).The use of power will be discussed in the following section.

2.3   Roles, Power and Interpersonal Control in Classroom

Every organisation (including in the classroom) is made up of individuals who are assigned specific roles to accomplish specific institutional goals. According to Ballantine

(2001, p. 158), the education system is arranged according to the following organisational structure:


```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│      Board of Education          │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
              ↕
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│        Status and Role           │
│        Administrators            │
│          Teachers                │
│          Students                │
│            Staff                 │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
```
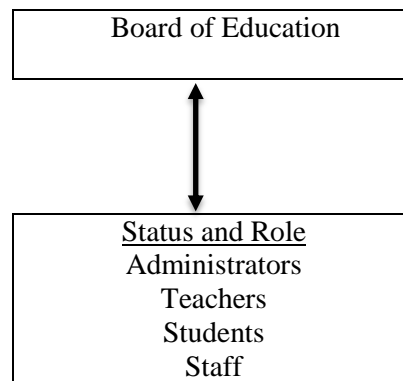
Figure 2.1: Hierarchy of positions

While this model is an American one, arguably such similar organisation structure also exists in the Malaysian education system because this arrangement is observable in Malaysian public schools. Institutional powers demand individuals in the system to conform to specific roles. There are repercussion for individuals who do not conform.

Brown (2000, p. 167) adds that teachers have numerous roles: They plan, guide and evaluate learning, develop their students' potential in all aspect of development, and they also create and arrange the learning environment to be suited with the students' diverse needs.

Since the teachers play an essential role in facilitating children's learning, research on social communication interactions between teachers and children with multiple learning disabilities should aim to find out not only the teachers' perspectives regarding teaching these special children, but also the influence from the environment in their decision making to the teaching process, as well as the way children's responses influence teachers' teaching. Previously, the use of communication intervention has been the focus with

students with learning disabilities but no study has investigated the social communication interactions between teachers and children with various learning disabilities. There is no platform for the public to view and understand the connection of teacher discourse and social interactions during communication intervention in classroom settings for these children. The lack of understanding of teacher-student interactions could lead to problems regarding the provision of suitable teacher training, as well as efficient special education services for children with multiple types of learning disabilities. Hence, there is an urgent need to investigate and discover the interactional strategies used by teachers to students with various learning disabilities in the teaching and learning. There has been awareness where the researchers are now directing the focus of attention from the fixation on the use of intervention in the classroom toward the social interaction nature of classroom discourse.

Part of being a teacher involved fulfilling obligations such as controlling, directing, managing, facilitating and resourcing students' needs, directions and behaviour (Brown, 2001, p. 166). Three out of five roles shows that the teacher takes a more directive role in dealing with students. As a controller, the teacher is expected to always in charge of every second in the classroom. The teacher is the 'master controller' who has the power to decide what the students should do and speak. The same goes to the role as director where the job is to ensure the teaching and learning process flowing smoothly and efficiently. The third role is the manager who is responsible in planning the lesson. The other two roles require the teacher to step away from the directive role. The facilitator is a less directive role where monitoring the process of learning and making it easier for the students by providing necessary help are of concern. The last role is 'resource' where the students approach the teacher and seek advice or opinions about something. These five roles are on the continuum of directive to non-directive, depending on the purpose and activity in the classroom. The

teacher has the upper hand as compared to students and possesses some degree of control of planning and managing the classroom. In addition, the teacher is not only has the power on the lesson or the subject that she or she is teaching but "also in the evaluation of the students' performance and reaction to their mistakes and breeches of norm" (Saharinen 2007, p. 261). The teacher has the authority to make assessment and evaluation about the students' behaviour and skills rather than just having control of the classroom over the flow of interaction. Because of these roles, it has been argued that teachers are like nurses, judges, coaches and so on (Oxford *et al.*, 1998 in Brown, 2001, p. 166).

From Figure 2.1, it is clear that the status of teachers is higher compared to the students. This is because teachers have many roles to play in their field of teaching. This is because apart from teaching, they also other spectrum of possibilities of roles in dealing kids and some roles are required to create a more conducive atmosphere in a classroom for teaching and learning to take place.

In an interaction, the power and status difference can be manifested by the ways the participants communicate (verbally or non-verbally) in order to control the interaction (Jones *et al.* 1999, p. 141). In the classroom, the teacher decides on the topic of the discussion and how it should be conducted. In addition, this statement is supported by Norrick and Klein (2008, p. 91) state that the most noticeable "difference between naturally occurring conversation and teacher-student-talk is that the right for the distribution of talk is not shared equally". Teachers are seen as having the power to control speech turns (which entails requiring silence). This interpersonal control strategy can also be realised through interruption, self-disclosure (Giles & Gasiorek, 2012, p. 6), or the use of address forms (Shepard, *et al.*, 2001, p. 36).

Teachers also have the power to control the use of space and time, initiate interactions and set the rules in a classroom. Thus the routines and rituals of the classroom and also the school represent the dominant value system that the school is passing on the students. The power can control and influences how the idea of culture is transmitted. Indeed, Bowles & Gantis (1976, p. 11-12) posit that:

"School foster types of personal development compatible with the relationships of dominance and subordinancy in the economic sphere...through a close correspondence between the social relationship which govern personal interaction in the workplace and the social relationships of the educational system".

The next section discusses another aspect of social functions and structures of practices in the classroom from the perspective of types of languages used in the classroom environment.

2.4   Language Choices in the Classroom

Since Standard Malay is the official language for school, some interesting linguistic phenomena occur especially to institution where Standard Malay is not the everyday language. For example in Kelantan, Kelantanese Malay is the mean of communication for most people in Kelantan. This leads to code-switching. Code-switching is defined as the use of two or more languages or dialect in the same utterances (Zuraidah, 2003, p. 21). This interesting language phenomenon happens because Malaysia is a multilingual and multi-dialectal country. Thus, Malaysian speakers need to make some language choice when interacting with people from the other races of people with different dialects. The social and cultural background of the speaker can be constructed with the availability of multiple languages and dialects.

Since Kelantanese Malay is used in the participants' interaction in this study, it is recommended to know few differences between the Kelantanese Malay (KM) dialect and standard Malay (SM). This is important because KM will occur as the examples in the data analysis section along with SM. The following sections discuss briefly about the nature of Standard Malay and also Kelantanese Malay and their differences.

2.4.1 Standard Malay and Kelantanese Malay

In Malaysia, the Malay language experienced standardisations. Standardisation as defined by Ferguson (1960, p. 8) is a process whereby a language becomes widely accepted as a norm, thus experiencing widespread influence into explicit codification and expansion of lexicon, and is made an official or national language (cited in Lee, 2002 p. 45). Standard Malay is the official language in the school.

According to Zaa'ba (Fazal, Zaharani, Nor Hashimah & Harishon, 2011), the number of dialects in Malaysia was eight, namely the dialects of Johor, Melaka, Negeri Sembilan, Perak, Kedah, Kelantan, Terengganu and Pahang. It has been attested that each state in Malaysia has its own local dialects. (Asmah, 1977, cited in Fazal Mohamed, Zaharani, Nor Hashimah & Harishon, 2011). These local dialects are a variation of the Malay language and differ in some linguistic aspects (Teeuw, 1961 cited in Abdul Hamid Mahmood, 1977 p. 43).

Within the Malay dialect itself, linguistic variations in phonetic descriptions, recorded texts, transcribed word lists, regional dictionaries and other features exist. Some of the reasons that explain these variations are historical (Asmah, 1981) and geographical factors (Abdul Hamid Mahmood, 1981), and also the social background of the speakers

themselves (Adi Yasran, 2005 p. 3). The regional dialects of Malaysia can be represented diagrammatically as follows:

```
              ┌──────────────────────┐
              │  Pre-Historic Malay  │
              │   (Melayu Purba )    │
              └──────────────────────┘
            ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
            │ Ancient Malay│   │ Parent  Malay│
            │ (Melayu Kuno)│   │(Melayu Induk)│
            └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘
        ┌──────────────────┐
        │  Classical Malay │
        │ (Melayu Klasik)  │
        └──────────────────┘
    ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────────┐   ┌───────────┐ ┌───────────┐ ┌───────────┐
    │  Modern  │ │ Johor dialect│   │ A Dialect │ │ B Dialect │ │ N Dialect │
    │  Malay   │ │              │   │           │ │           │ │           │
    └──────────┘ └──────────────┘   └───────────┘ └───────────┘ └───────────┘
```
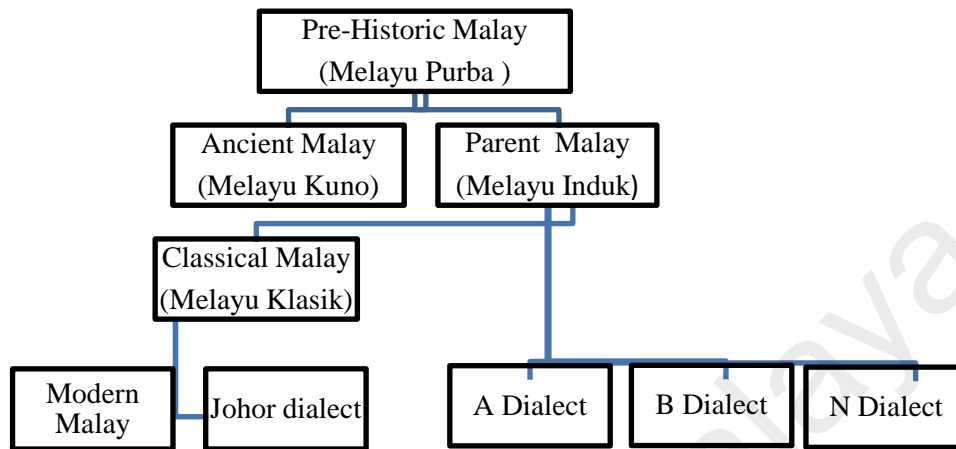
Figure 2.2: Classification of Malay dialects (cited in Asmah, 1985, p. 395)

Standard Malay had strong nuances of the southern dialect. According to Asmah, the influence of the southern dialect had spread due to the hegemony of the Johor Empire in the nineteenth century (1976, p. 4). The Johor Empire extended over areas around the vicinity of the Straits of Melaka, the eastern coast of Sumatera and its adjacent islands, Pahang, Melaka and Terengganu. The southern dialect is easily distinguished because of the final schwa /∂/ sound (Asmah, 1976). This characteristic of the southern dialect can be heard on the mass media even today. It can be seen that in Peninsular Malaysia, the geographical division mainly caused by the natural landscape of the country has resulted in people living in designated areas. People in these designated areas were unable to converse with people from other areas; hence, the differences in dialects arose (Bloomfield, 1967 cited from Abdul Hamid, 1977, p. 50).

The language form used in the interaction may also differ along a continuum from formal to dialect. In this particular case, the formal language was standard Malay (Bahasa Melayu), the national language of the country and the dialect was Kelantanese. It is a dialect particularly spoken by people who come from Kelantan a state on the east coast of Malaysia sharing its borders with Terengganu, Pahang, Perak and Thailand. It is also spoken by people living in areas at the borders of Kelantan Terengganu, Kelantan/Pahang and a few areas in Southern Thailand which are Yala, Narathiwat, Golok River and Pattani. (Abdul Hamid, 2006, p. 6).

According to Abdul Hamid (2006, p. 7), there are four aspects that differentiate Kelantanese Malay dialect and Standard Malay and they are phonology, morphology, sentences and lexical. However, the study will only discuss two aspects which are salient traits in understanding and recognising Kelantanese Malay dialect. From the phonological aspect, there are differences in pronouncing certain words in Kelantanese Malay in comparison with standard Malay. The tables below show examples of words in Kelantanese Malay regarding the pronunciation and the meaning in standard Malay and English.

Table 2.1: Words ending with '-an', '-am' and '-ang' are changed to e/ɛ̃/.

No	SM	KM	English
1.	Makan	Make /makɛ̃/	Eat
2.	Ayam	Aye /ayɛ̃/	Chicken
3.	Pisang	Pise / pisɛ̃/	Banana

Table 2.2: Words ending with '-ai' and '-au', the last vowels will be omitted.

No	SM	KM	English
1.	Sampai	Sapa /sapa/	Arrive
2.	Pisau	Pisa /pisa/	Knife

Table 2.3: Words ending with '-r' and '-l', the letters will be omitted.

No	SM	KM	English
1.	Pagar	Paga /paga/	Fence
2.	Ular	Ula /ʊla/	Snake
3.	Kapal	Kapa /kapa/	Ship
4.	Halal	Hala /hala/	Halal

Table 2.4: Words ending with 'a','p','r', 's' and 't'.

No	SM	KM	English
1.	Saya	Sayo /sayɔ/	I
2.	Lapar	Lapa /lapa/	Hungry
3.	Polis	Poleh /pɔleh/	Police
4.	Gelap	Gelak /gelaʔ/	Dark
5.	Buat	Buak /buaʔ/	Do

The next section discusses the differences of Kelantanese Malay and standard Malay from the lexical aspect. According to Abdul Hamid (ibid), the differences are:

i.   Words existed only in Kelantanese Malay and not standard Malay.

ii. One syllabic words.

iii. Same words but different meaning between Kelantanese Malay and standard Malay.

Table 2.5: Words that do not exist in standard Malay.

No	KM	SM	English
1.	Oyak / ɔyaʔ/	Beritahu	Tell
2.	Kecek /kkɛceʔ/	Bercakap	Talk
3.	Kelih /kəleh/	Tengok	Look
4.	Tok se /tɔʔse/	Tidak mahu	Don't want
5.	Igak /igaʔ/	Tangkap	Catch
6.	Puye /puyɛ̃/	Musim	Season
7.	Hungga /uŋa/	Berlari	Running

Table 2.6: One syllabic words.

No	KM	SM	English
1.	Lo /lɔ/	Sekarang	Now
2.	Lok / lɔʔ/	Biar	Let it be
3.	Nu / nu/	Sana	There
4.	So /sɔ/	Satu	One
5.	Bo /bɔ/	Cukup	Enough

Table 2.7: same words different meaning.

Bil	KM	Meaning in KM	English	SM	Meaning in SM	English
1.	Selalu	Segera	Immediately	Selalu	Kerap	Often
2.	Tey / tɛ̃ /	Pukul	Hit	Teh	Teh	Tea
3.	Rajin	Pernah	Used to	Rajin	Tekun	Hardworking

The next section discusses discourse management in teacher-student interaction.

2.5   Discourse Management in Teacher-Student Interaction

In ordinary conversation, any participant can have the floor at the end of the speaker's turn in two ways: being selected by the speaker or simply by beginning to speak before others, or what Sacks et al (1974) refer to as self-selecting. This is however not the case in the classroom as there is a specific turn allocation system which is essentially oriented to two participants: the students and the teachers. The floor is mainly controlled by the teachers and the students have temporary turns, which are allocated by the teachers. This is supported by Cazden (1988, p. 54) who says that, "teachers have the right to speak at any time and to any person; they can fill any silence or interrupt any speaker".

The most basic pattern classroom interaction is the three-part teacher-student interaction which is first described by Bellack et al. (1966, p. 193-219), and is also known by Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p. 21), Initiation-Reply-Evaluation (IRE; Mehan, 1979, p. 37) and the most recent is the triadic dialogue by Lemke (1990, p. 8).

This pattern of interaction occurs when the teacher initiates the interaction, the student responds and the teacher evaluates the student's response (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979). This pattern of interaction may occur in whole classroom settings, in small group settings or in teacher-students conferences. They are considered as part of discourse management strategies because they are concerned with the other party's conversational needs. From their study, is it clearly indicated that teacher talk is predominant in a classroom setting.

The IRF or Initiation-Response-Feedback is a pattern of discussion between the teacher and learner. The teacher initiates, the learner responds, the teacher gives feedback. The framework employed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) centres primarily on the description of the way in moves operation in a typical classroom exchanges. There are three move exchanges–"initiating 'moves (I) from the teacher, "responding" (R) moves from the students and a "follow-up" (F) (or evaluation or feedback) move again from the teacher. The focus on the function of acts and moves making up this three-part exchange system was within the parameters of that exchange. More recently, Tsui (1994) has expressed doubts over the interpretations of utterances confined to such limited stretches of talk. The exchange could constrict that interpretation of those utterances since topics re-emerge throughout the course of interaction.

This approach to the exchange of information in the classroom has been criticized as being more about the learner saying what the teacher wants to hear than really communicating. In the classroom this knowledge is most likely, in a strictly transmission style of teaching, to be held by the teacher, asking questions – opening exchanges with Initiations (I) –and providing follow-up moves (R) which evaluate student responses (F).

```
  ┌─────────────────┐      ┌─────────────────┐      ┌─────────────────┐
  │  initiation (I) │ ──▶  │  response (R)   │ ──▶  │  Feedback (F)   │
  └─────────────────┘      └─────────────────┘      └─────────────────┘
```
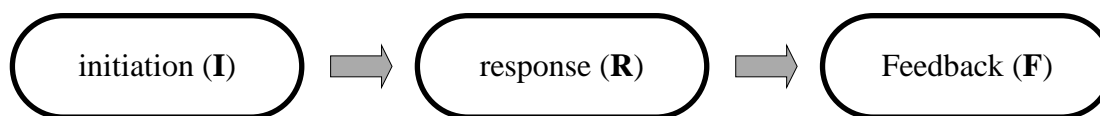
For example as shown below, Teacher may use IRF to request an answer from the student:

> Teacher : A, what is the answer for this question? (**INITIATION**)
>
> Student A: three (**RESPONSE**)
>
> Teacher : good job (**FEEDBACK**)

Apart from it, the teacher may use IRF in the classroom for clarification or to request unknown information from the student. For example:

> Teacher: B, were you absent yesterday? **(INITIATION)**
>
> Student B : uh-uh(**RESPONSE**)
>
> Teacher : Okay(**FEEDBACK**)

The two examples shown are adapted from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, p. 37). From the students' part, to avoid answering the question would be a breach of interactional conduct. This pattern of interaction tends to characterise most teacher-led lessons, whether the lesson is reading, arithmetic or social studies. (Cazden, 1988). Teachers tend to use questions and answers within this pattern of interaction to elicit known information from children in order to monitor their comprehension of material and to evaluate their performances (Cazden, 1988; Heath, 1982).

Lemke (1990) triadic dialogue has a little addition in which he adds to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Mehan (1979) by pointing out that in the third-turn; teachers do not only use to evaluate and provide feedback but also to make comments to repeat, rephrase,

or expand upon students' contributions. In fact, the typical triadic dialogue can be summarised as follows:

"The first part, spoken by the teacher, is a question about an academic topic and an indication of who should answer it. The second part is a child's reply to the question. The third part is the teacher's expression of approval or rejection of the response to the elicitation." (Griffin and Mehan, 1981, p. 193).

Despite of the ambiguity of the triadic dialogue, which according to Bloome et al (2008, p. 36) "has permeated classroom instruction broadly and for at least half a century", the opinion regarding its appropriateness and effectiveness vary considerably. The discussion or the differences of opinion regarding this theory are more often on the qualitative aspects of the implementation rather than the interactional management per se.

From one aspect, the act of asking question is good because the teacher can test the students' understanding there and then. In fact, Mercer (1992) states that frequent questioning is important in order for teachers to monitor students' learning thus making their teaching as effective as possible. This is further supported by Griffin and Humphrey (1978, p. 87) which state that rather than just using only informatives like lecturing, constructing the teaching and learning which uses elicitations allows the students to participate in the exchange of the information and it can also help the teacher to tailor information to the students.

One criticism of this theory is that when teachers keep asking too many questions, particularly when they already have the answers in their mind and expected it from the students, the teaching becomes more of a root learning where students need to know the teachers's expectation. According to Wood (1992, p. 205), the act of asking excessive

questions does "not only fail to promote intellectual activity in pupils but serve, if anything, to inhibit it".

It is important to note that the attack is not on the theory per se but merely on the implementation of it in the classroom setting. As Nassaji and Wells (2000, p. 400) state, the triadic dialogue is "an appropriate operationalisation of a wide variety of tasks, even across quite different teaching philosophies" making it can be used in a wide range of function. However, IRF is used as the main framework for this research because of two reasons which are i) to avoid confusion with the other two almost similar theories by Mehan (1979) and Lemke (1990) and ii) IRF is the basis and it can develop interaction in controlled environment.

The next section discusses another linguistic manifestation of the macro level which is the use of speech act in classroom.

2.6   Speech Act in Classroom

We perform speech acts when we offer an apology, greeting, request, complaint, invitation, compliment, or refusal. The act of speaking or using a language such as making statements, giving commands, asking questions and making promises are actually performing speech act (Searle, 1985, p. 16). In the classroom, teachers are bound to use certain types of speech act in order to control their students' behaviour and also to solicit cooperation from the students (Bach and Harnish, 1979). Since the functions of these acts may vary, teachers need to know how to use speech act accordingly while the students need to learn how to interpret the teacher's use of speech acts.

Speech act can perform actions. According to Searle (1979, p. 39), speech act is "the production of the sentence token under certain conditions". Speech act does not function to convey information but rather they can influence changes. For example, the

38

sentence 'You are fired' can mean, the hearer is no longer welcome at the workplace hence it can be a prohibitive. Searle (1969, p. 12-19) classified five types of speech acts and they are assertives, directives, commisives, expressives and declaratives. Assertives are statements that may be true or false and the function is to describe or to give information. The example for this class is a claim or a report. Directives are statements that will make the hearer to do a specific action like a request or a command. Commisives are the statements that commit the speaker to a future action. For example, it can be a promise or a vow. Expressives are the statements that show the speaker's sincerity. For example, it can be an apology, a complaint or praise. Declaratives are statements that can bring change to the world. An example of declarative is a declaration.

Searle then elaborated that there are three levels in which an utterance which can be analysed and they are locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary (May, 2009, p. 1011):

- **Locutionary** - 'The act of using words to form sentences, those wording making sense in a language with correct grammar and pronunciation'. It is basically to say something that carries certain meaning.

- **Illocutionary** - 'The intended action by the speaker, the force or intention behind the words within the framework of certain conventions'. For example, the speaker may be informing, ordering or giving a warning to the hearer. Statements, requests, promises and apologies are examples of the four major categories of communicative illocutionary acts: constatives, directives, commissives and acknowledgments. This is the nomenclature used by Kent Bach and Michael Harnish (1979, p. 39-57), who developed a detailed taxonomy in which each type of illocutionary act is individuated by the type of attitude expressed:

(1) Constatives: A constative is an utterance used to express the speaker's belief and his intention or desire that the hearers have or form alike belief. Constatives can serve assertives, predictives, retrodictives, descriptives, ascriptives, informatives, confirmatives, concessives, retractives, assentives, disentives, disputives, responsives, suggestives, and suppositives functions.

(2) Directives: A directive is an utterance used to express the speaker's attitude toward some prospective action by the hearer and his intention that his utterance, or the attitude it expresses, be taken as a reason for the hearer action. Directives are concerned with getting people to do things. Directives can be used to serve requestives, questions, requirements, prohibitives, permissives, and advisories functions

(3) Commissives: A commissive is an utterance used to express the speaker's intention and belief that his utterance obligates him to do something (perhaps under certain conditions). Commissives serve two main functions namely (1) promises (contract, bet, swear that, guarantee that, guarantee), (2) offers (volunteer, bid). A promise function is an utterance used to promise, to swear, to vow. An offer functions is an utterance used to offer, to propose.

(4) Acknowledgments: An acknowledgment is an utterance used to express feelings regarding the hearer or, in cases where the utterance satisfies a social expectation to express certain feelings and his belief that it does. Acknowledgments can serve apologize, condole, congratulate, greet, thank, accept (acknowledge and acknowledgment), and reject functions. Apologize function is an utterance of acknowledgment used to apologize. Condole

function is an utterance used to commiserate, to condole. Congratulate function is an utterance used to compliment, to congratulate, to felicitate.

(5) Didactives: A didactive speech act is speech act which is mostly used in teaching and learning context. Didactives speech acts is the term used by Edmonson-House (see Trosborg, 1994) In this research, it is found didactives speech acts. They are correct, repeat, and evaluate.

- **Perlocutionary -** 'The effect that an utterance has on the thoughts, feelings, attitude or action of the hearer'

Throughout the interactions with children, teachers also use certain types of speech act to control behaviour and solicit cooperation. Because the functions of these acts may vary from one context to the other, children have to learn how to interpret their teacher's use of these acts (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). For example, some teacher may pose a command as a question (eg: could you please close the door?). Thus, the students need to be able to know how to respond to this type of command. Usually there are students respond to it literally, interpreting it as a request that can be denied and not a command (Delpit, 1988; Heath, 1982).

Thus the analysis of speech act can be very helpful to explain the teachers' communication in dealing with special education students. Illocutionary act is the focus of speech act analysis of this study since it emphasises on the interactional strategies used by teachers in teaching special education classroom.

2.7 Motherese as Teachers' Interactional Style in Intergenerational Classroom

Another common interactional strategy is motherese. It is also known as child directed speech and it refers to the short, simple sentences that are uttered with exaggerated intonation and stress that are typically used to talk to young infants. Motherese happens when the speaker converge to 'adapt to the listener speech' (Coupland et al., 1988, p. 7) and in this case the children. Usually the shifting of speech style of the speakers to match the speech style of the people that they are interacting with occurs because of the need to have an effective communication or to be socially accepted by the listener. By using this interactional style, the speaker accommodates to the needs of the listeners.

The psychological distance can also be reduced when the speaker changes his speech to suit and sound like his listener's speech. Convergence happens when the speaker want to appear polite to the listener. However, the speaker needs to be aware that this strategy is only suitable when the listener's speech is "acceptable and worth imitating...and this is done using the same pronunciation and the same sort of vocabulary" (Holmes, 2001, p. 231 cited from Yoong, 2006, p. 46). The speakers usually use slow simplified speech, a high-pitched voice, a sing-a-song-like speech and much question and repetition.

Gleitman (1987) advocates that the use of single word utterances, topics that move from one subject to another, falling and rising intonation and simplification of language are typical of motherese. This kind of speech where simplification of vocabulary occurs can aid a student (Newport and Gleitman, 1977). They argue that the efforts in using motherese can capture the attention and also help children in their speech. They point out that adults make an unconscious effort to stretch the signals, exaggerate the sounds that capture the attention of the baby and help them in speech. When interacting with a baby, adults produce exaggerated rising and falling intonation as a way to communicate.

From the perspective of Accomodation Theory, Giles and Smith (1979, p. 46) says that 'convergence refers to the process whereby individual shift their speech styles to become more like of those they are interacting'. This assumption made in the development of accommodation theory then is that "speech style shift is with the purpose of encouraging further communication and decreasing he perceived differences between the interactors" (ibid).

Holmes (2001, p. 230) uses communication accommodation to explain the process when one person's speech converges towards the speech of the other person he or she is interacting with. Accommodation may occur consciously or unconsciously, mutually or non-mutually and partially or completely. For example, accommodation is involved when a person explains a technical jargon in simple terms (Holmes, 2001, p. 231). Accommodation is also practised when people pronounce certain words differently; depending on the manner the hearer pronounces the words in order to build solidarity. She accommodates her speech based on social groups and it signifies her desire to get on well with the clients and persuade them to make their booking with her company (ibid, p. 230-231).

2.8   Humour as Pedagogical and Social Resource in Classroom

To be successful, a teacher needs to be able to create a positive atmosphere to effectively achieve pedagogical objectives (Nguyen, 2007, p. 285). Humour can be utilized in order to bring about a good classroom atmosphere. According to Long and Graessner (1988, p. 37), humour is defined as "anything done or said, purposely or inadvertently, that is found to be comical or amusing". While based on Tannen (1984, p. 130), humour is considered as "one of the most highly distinctive aspects of any person's style". This is further explained by Richard (2006, p. 92), who states that humour, "serves as one of the most distinctive features of professional life, providing both a source of enrichment and

nourishment as well as serving as a key characteristic of a territory as seen and represented by its residents".

The data shows the use of humour initiated by both the students and the teacher as a way to interact in the classroom as it seems to be a social lubricant tool to accomplish certain goal. It requires the speaker to possess certain skills and can only be used in certain situations. Humour is a type of amusement created by speakers who manipulate discourse cues, prosodic and paralinguistic features (Holmes, 2000) which is also related to jokes. Jokes can be regarded as politeness expression in a number of ways as follow (Holmes, 2000, p. 163-167):

1. Humour as positive politeness

Humour can be used to take into account the hearer's positive face needs by expressing sense of belonging within group an friendliness such as collegiality and solidarity. For the speakers, humour can be used to save their positive face needs. It can also function as a self-disclosure means, especially of embarrassing or difficult information and situation.

2. Humour as negative politeness

In this sense, humour can be used to lessen the Face Threatening Act (FTA) towards the hearer face, for example by down-toning a directive speech act, criticism and insult.

According to Hay (2000, p. 717 cited from Larassati, 2013, p. 46), humour can be used to do three things which are: i) express solidarity ii) express power and iii) serve psychological functions. In terms of expressing **solidarity,** humour helps to create and reinforce social bonds through a few ways. Humour is used:

i. *To share*. Humour can reveal and share something about the speaker with members of the group and increase group solidarity.

ii. *To highlight similarities*. Humour can share experiences and other similarities between the speaker and the hearer(s).

iii. *To clarify and maintain boundaries*. Humour can express the boundaries of acceptability and solidarity. For example, a humour uses to make fun of a person who does not belong to the same group.

iv. *To tease*. Teasing has 2 purposes. It can be either an expression of solidarity or the expression of power toward others.

The second function of humour is to **express power.** Humour can be used to create and/or maintain power toward others, some ways include:

i. *To encourage conflict*. Humour is used to intentionally humiliate someone or to deliver an aggressive act such as express direct and clear disagreement with others.

ii. *To control*. This kind of humour invokes power towards other by trying to influence the behaviour of the other people.

iii. *To challenge and set boundaries*. This kind of humour usually challenges the existing boundaries within group.

iv. *To tease*. This kind of humour usually intended to attack personal details and assert genuine criticisms unlike the teasing which is used to express solidarity usually by using jocular and friendly manner.

The third function of humour is to express the **psychological reaction** of the speaker. This kind of humour are usually used:

i.   *To defend*. In this kind of humour, speakers protect themselves by showing their weaknesses before anyone else does.

ii.   *To cope with a contextual problem*. This humour usually used by the speakers to cope with the problems in context.

iii.   *To cope with a non-contextual problem*. This kind of humour usually deals with more general problem which is not included in the context.

From an educational perspective, humour is an effective assistant in education where using humour in the classroom not only can improve the classroom atmosphere by decreasing the level of tensions and creating a more friendly environment, in addition to improving relationship between teachers and students (Loomax & Moosavi, 1998, p. 55). In order to successfully facilitate learning, a teacher must learn to balance content and relational dimensions. This means that the teacher does not only need to be able to deliver the information to educate the student, but they also needs to be able to connect to students on a relational level (Kerssen-Griep et al., 2008; Frymier & Houser, 2000). The best way to achieve both objectives is by using humour. In fact, Hill (1988, p. 12) states that humorous teachers tend to make students feel relaxed and become more attentive listeners. In addition, Wells (1974, p. 156) states that humour helps to reduce tension, enhance student-teacher relationships, create warmth, and make school fun. As stated in Loomax and Moosavi's argument (ibid) humour eases the burden of daily study and occasionally provides a moment of deep, interpersonal communication between a teacher and a child.

Humour can be inserted into pedagogical instructions in many ways. In a classroom where the teacher and the students joke together, the humour is also a result of good classroom atmosphere, not only a reason for it. In Nguyen's (2007, p. 293-4) study, a

teacher resorts to humour in instruction in many ways. One example is correcting exercises, where a pupil makes some mistakes in her answer to which the teacher reacts by behaving as if he is truly disgusted by the mistake. Similarly, Saharinen (2007, p. 262) reports in her study of two high school lessons that there was laughter especially when the teacher repeatedly teased the students and the students also teased the teacher. Both studies show that humour allows teachers to draw their students' attention to the mistakes made while minimising potentially face-threats. In addition, it draws the attention of the other students to the task at hand and engages their interest. This shows that the use of humour in social interaction between the teacher and the students smoothed the path for the instructional tasks.

Humour is also used to avoid conflicts in classrooms when disciplinary actions are needed. Teachers can make positive remarks in the instruction and also reply to negative outcries with humour in order to relieve the stress in the classrooms. Such strategy does not ignore the pupils' expressions of emotion or reprimands the pupils for "talking out" (Norrick & Klein, 2008, p. 90).

In addition to that, the use of humour in the classroom has been found to increase attention and retention of learning, which leads to increased memory and cognitive learning. Nonetheless, different types of humour and placement of humour can elicit different rates of retention depending on the individual receiving the message (Wanzer & Frymier, 1999). For example, a research by Gorham and Christophel (1990) found that female students preferred humour in the form of personal stories that relate to the topic of the class while males preferred tendentious comments. Their study also found that female learning outcomes are less influenced by humour than male students' learning outcomes. Thus, teachers should consider managing impressions that not only establishes themselves

as a competent and credible authority figure, but also as individuals who are approachable and welcoming. Both teachers and students have to be aware that the success of their aims in teaching and learning depend on their negotiation and resolution of the conflict that arise during the session.

According to Servaite (2005, p. 81), humour can be categorised into two groups. Situational humour allows for different interpretation and thus creating what we called funny situation. Linguistic humour on the other hand happens when different linguistic means occurs and creates confusion between the speaker and the listener. Linguistically based humour can be identified based on linguistic items. In his research, Pocheptsov (1997, p. 13) states numerous specific types of humour based on different language phenomena like phonetical humour, morphological humour, lexico-semantic humour and syntactic humour.

Even though the main discussion of this session is based on the functions of humour in teacher talk, the discussion will also discuss some aspect on humour discourse as part of the analysis which is later discussed in Chapter 4. The discussion of humour discourse includes i) homonymy – words that are phonetically identical but semantically different. In short, two words that have the same spelling and pronunciation but have different meanings. Homonymy is the state of being a homonym. Homonyms can be divided into two main categories: homonyms proper and homographs although there is no clear distinction between them.

Homonyms proper are words that are pronounced and spelled in the same way with different meaning.

1) plain1 (a): clear;

2) plain2 (n): a large area of flat land

The discussion on humour discourse also includes ii) paronymy. According to Attardo (1994, p. 110-111) "two words are paronyms when their phonemic representations are similar but not identical." Nevertheless, this definition is not complete. This is because in certain aspect, paronymy can also be considered to be put under homonym category because of the definition. In fact, based on Nguyen (2011, p. 4), his definition of homophone is similar to the term paronymy defined by Attardo. This statement is supported by Marcu (2010, p. 202) when he states that "in linguistics, paronym may refer to: a word related to another word and derived from the same root for example the cognate words; this types of paronyms often lead to confusion" or "words almost homonyms but having slight differences in spelling or pronunciation – different prefixes or suffixes and added word syllables can change stress and elements of pronunciation - and having different meanings". In this research, the term paronymy refers to the words sharing the same pronunciation but having different spelling and meanings. For example, "right", "rite", "wright", "write" are pronounced the same but with different spelling because it is easier to differentiate when using different terms as compared to discussing the terms in multiple subdivisions.

The third aspect of linguictic humour is malapropism. The term defines the misapplication of a word or a phenomenon of ludicrous confusion between words. Malapropism is a universal slip. An example of malapropism as stated by Kim (2006, p.

126) is 'wow-wow' for 'volvo'. The last and another subcategory of humour is sarcasm. Attardo (1999) defines sarcasm as "an overtly aggressive type of irony, with clearer markers/cues and a clear target". Meanwhile, according to McDonald (1999, p. 486) sarcasm is an indirect form of speech intentionally used to produce a particular dramatic effect on the listener. The definition of sarcasm and irony can easily be confused. However according to Haiman (1988, p. 20) irony is used unintentionally and unconsciously but sarcasm is intentional and conscious. Sarcasm is usually used when the speaker feels challenged to engage in a battle of wits or/and to acknowledge the speaker's ability to banter. According to Katthoff (2006, p. 7) "in informal humour, special contextualisation procedures facilitate special cognitive inferencing processes which enable the joint production of activities such as mocking, parody, teasing, banter, narrating, tomfoolery, wisecracking, humourous, etc. Sarcasm not only can lead to amusement but also enhance ingroup solidarity".

In a classroom, the use of sarcasm in teachers' utterances can be identified with the use of context and intonation. Capelli (1990, p. 1824). The examples of sarcasm are 'nice job' and 'very funny'. The meaning can go both ways relying on the context as sometimes these phrases cannot be looked from the literal perspective only because from a different view, it can also be considered as sarcasm or verbal aggression 'coated with sugar'.

2.9   Summary

This chapter provides some fundamental coverage on relevant conceptual and theoretical issues in order to examine the data. At the macro level of the study which is the social functions and structures of practices in the classroom, sociocultural theory perspective and an interest in the influence of teacher's interaction of students with disabilities in special education classrooms are provided. For the second part which is the

micro level of the study which is the linguistic manifestation of the macro level. This is the essential part of this study as four main linguistic theories are discussed which are Initiation-Response- Feedback, Speech Act, Motherese and Humour. The next chapter outlines the methods used to collect and analyse data.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design employed to answer the research questions. There are two main components in this chapter. The first provides the items of inquiry in the ethnographic research design (Section 3.2). The second discusses the items for survey research design (Section 3.3)

3.2   Ethnographic Research Design

This research design is used to answer the first research question which is to see the ways the teachers interact with special children.

Initially, the data collection was conducted by observation and only after the permission was granted from the gate keeper, the video recordings were used and conducted concurrently with the observation.

For observation purposes, the participants for this study were selected based on the purposeful sampling method. According to Maxwell (2005, p. 88), it is "a strategy in which particular setting, persons or activities are selected deliberately in order to provide information that can't be gotten as well from other choices". The study has a sample of 11 primary school teachers teaching special integration programme in a government school. The main criterion for the selection was the participants were willing to take part and provide relevant information for this study. In addition to that, teachers must agree to be video and audio recorded and interviewed. The teachers need to have at least two years of experience in teaching special education. All the teachers are Malay. Table 3.1 indicates the participants' details.

Table 3.1: Teachers' background

Participant	Age	Gender	Highest education	Minor	Years of teaching
1	37	Female	Degree	Special education	2
2	37	Female	Degree	Special education	4
3	38	Female	Diploma	Mathematic	10
4	36	Male	Diploma	Islamic education	11
5	31	Male	Degree	Special education	5
6	32	Male	Degree	Science	6
7	30	Male	Degree	J-Qaf S.E	2
8	34	Female	Degree	Special education	5
9	32	Female	Degree	Special education	3
10	45	Female	Diploma	Islamic Education	3
11	31	Female	Degree	Special education	2

Since the focus of this research is based on the discourse of eleven teacher's discourse, who are labelled Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 3 up till Teacher 11 respectively. The students are not labelled individually.

This in-depth study was a field research had been carried out on a weekly basis from October 2012 to January 2013. The instruments that were used for this study were observation and the recordings in the natural setting. However, the observation was not conducted during December 2012 because of the school holiday. Approximately, 15 visits were made to the school which made up an average of 20 hours of recording data.

Observations were carried out by the researcher twice or thrice a week and depended on the length of the lesson period. One period is 40 minutes long. The observation focuses on the interaction between teacher and students in the classroom. The researcher acts as an outsider and did not interfere with the teaching and learning process in order to reduce the teachers' apprehension at being observed, and for the teachers to be able to go about with their daily duties without being self-conscious.

Observational technique was crucial in collecting data for the study. This is because the data can be collected in the natural way as the participants become more relaxed as the researcher spend more time at the site. When this occurs, the data could be collected with ease. Meanwhile the video-recording was also convenient as it captured the paralinguistic cues of the participants which the researcher might overlook. In addition, the recording could be replayed as often as necessary for analysis purposes.

For the purpose of conceptualisation and categorising, the data were chunked and labelled by finding and extracting the types of interactional norm occurred in the data from the classroom observation. The focuses of analysis were the individual teacher's strategies in interacting with the special students and student's respond to the teacher's interaction. The recording of the data in form of interviews and observations were coded, transcribed and translated. For the classroom observation data, the transcriptions included the verbal utterances and the paralinguistic features of teachers and students.

The transcription conventions that were used for this study is the Jefferson's transcription method (in Atkinson and Heritage, 2006, p. 158-165, cited from Yoong, 2010, p. 60). The detailed of the Jefferson's transcription method is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Jefferson's transcription legend (Source: Items 1-20 are Jefferson's transcription method as described in Atkinson and Heritage, 2006, p. 158-165). Cited from Yoong, (2010, p. 60).

No	Indicator	Description
1	A: text ⌐text B: └text	Simultaneous/overlapping utterances.
2	A: text ⌐text⌐ text B: └text┘	The beginning and end of an overlapping utterance.
3	A: text= B: =text	Contiguous utterances where the other interlocutor latches on immediately.
4	A: text ⌐text⌐ B: └text┘ = A: =text	This is similar to number 2 and is used especially when the initial utterance is too long and is moved to the next appropriate line.
5	A: text= B: = ⌐text C: └text	This is similar to number 3 and is used when more than 2 individuals in the interaction latches on simultaneously.
6	A: text (2.5s)	Intervals within and between utterances are placed within parentheses.
7	A: text.	The full stop indicates a stopping fall in tone prior to a pause.

No	Indicator	Description
8	A: text,	The comma indicates a short pause that indicates a continuing intonation i.e. not end of an utterance.
9	A: text↑	The arrow pointing up indicates rising inflection and intonation.
10	A: text↓	The arrow pointing down indicates falling inflection and intonation.
11	A: text!	The exclamation point indicates an animated tone.
12	A: text-text	A dash indicates halting, abrupt cut off that may indicate stammer.
13	A: text: text:::	Colons indicate prolong stretch of sounds.
14	A: text text	Underscore indicates emphasis.
15	A: text textTEXT	Capital letters are used to indicate an utterance, or part there of that is spoken much louder than the surrounding talk.
16	A: text °text° text	Degree symbols indicate an utterance, or part thereof that is spoken much softer than the surrounding talk.
17	A: text ((noise effect and paralinguistic features))	The double parentheses indicate an enclosed description of some phenomenon which provide paralinguistic features for example coughing, telephone ringing, pointing fingers.
18	A: text >text<	The 'less than' signs (i.e. '><') indicate a pace quicker than the surrounding talk.

Table 3.2 continued

No	Indicator	Description
19	A: text <text>	The 'more than' sign (i.e. '<>') indicate a pace slower than the surrounding talk.
20	A: text ( )(text)	Transcriptionist doubt is shown in the empty and filled parentheses.
21	A: text...text [...] A: text	The three full stops indicate ellipsis (by the transcriber). The horizontal full stops indicate ellipsis in the same turn, whilst the three horizontal full stops in parenthesis indicate omitted turns.
22	A: *text*	Italics represent non-Malay words.
23	A: **text**	Bolds indicate selection of text to be given additional attention.

Since the study was conducted in Kelantan, the original data was in non-standard Malay as the teachers and the students used their mother tongue, Kelantanese Malay. The data was then translated into English. For the purpose of this research, the coding for languages are Standard Malay is Palatino Linotype, Kelantanese Malay is Arial Italic and English is Times New Roman. Other dialect found in the data uses Italic Times New Roman. Both classroom observations and interviews are translated under the consideration to maintain the original meaning and not word-for-word translation. In addition, the paralinguistic features were also transcribed in English.

Data analysis was conducted in a variety of forms in order to gain the in-depth understanding of the dynamic of teacher-student interaction in special education classes.

This study considered the transcription of the classroom observations and the interviews as primary sources to corroborate or refute the finding of this study and the students' documents and field note were used to provide supportive evidences for the study. Discourse analysis and constant comparative analysis were utilised for data analysis. Classroom observation involved the microanalysis of discourse which is teacher-student language or initiation-response-feedback (IRF) by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) which was discussed in chapter 2. The focus of the classroom observation would be the serial interaction between teachers and students.

Constant comparative analysis (Glasser, 1965 & Mertens, 2005) is an inductive technique where the researchers need to compare one piece of data with another to find the similarities and differences. The type of analysis was employed to analyse the teacher interview data. The comparisons were made and the new meaning of the data would be drawn thus allowing the themes to emerge.

In all, the data from the primary sources was analysed in three phrases which were i) coding, transcription and translation ii) conceptualisation and categorising iii) combining the multiple data sources.

3.3 Survey Research Design

The second research design serves the purpose to answer the second and third research questions which are to examine the viewpoints of the teachers by probing the reasons they interact with the children in the way they do and to know whether there are any differences and similarities between the ethnographic findings and literature on the interactional norms and practices of the general education classroom.

The instrument for second research question is semi-structured interview. Cohen *et al*. (2007, p. 351) state that interview method is unique because data are collected through direct verbal interaction of individuals. An interview is also more personal. It is a suitable method to be used in this study because the researcher can discover the interviewees' interpretation of the interactional activities that they were involved.

The interview was carried out after the observation and recording session to gather relevant information regarding this study. The interview session took place at the school compound or in a room and the time was chosen by the participant for their convenience. The interviews were audio recorded. The interviews were approximately half an hour in length for the teachers. Students who are able to communicate were interviewed. For the students' interviews, the researcher stopped the interviews whenever necessary. The interviews were conducted in a very informal ways to ensure that the teachers and students were comfortable being interviewed. The teachers and students were interviewed on 30th and 31st of January 2013.

The purpose of having interviews with the participants and the students was to compare and contrast the data. By finding the similarities and differences of the data, the researcher was able to categories the data and finally found the themes of the data. The analysis of the interviews was mainly to answer two research questions – how do the teachers interact with the special education children? And what do the teachers' think of their method of interaction? The teachers' backgrounds were also considered as an element in this interview to make sure that the data collected represent the holistic view of the study. The students were involved in the interview in order to get their perspectives on the way interactional strategies presented in the classroom.

The semi-structured interview was guided by the list of topics and the number of questions. It did not have to be adhered to systematically or completely based on the order of the questions. The participant's response would guide the following questions. The probing questions are as follows:

Teacher Participants

i. Age

ii. Years of experience

iii. Education background. Where did you receive your training

iv. Is this career by choice of your own? If so why did you choose this? Why do you want to work with special education children?

v. In your teaching, how do you usually interact with your students to cater their different needs?

vi. Do you think your style of interaction is suitable with the students' condition? Does it help with their learning?

vii. What is your view on the disability of the children? Does it affect the way you interact with them?

viii. How do you set your teaching goal for special education?

ix. How to know they have achieved teaching goal?

x. How have you monitored the progress of each child?

xi. How would you ensure that each individual child receive the maximum support he/she needs?

xii. How do you deal with students with behaviour problem?

Students

    i.   Do you like studying here?

   ii.   What is the best thing about studying here?

  iii.   Are the teachers being nice to you?

  iv.   Have they scolded you before? Why do you think they did that?

   v.   How did you react when the teacher scolded you?

3.4   Ethical Issue

In order to conduct this research, the researcher has considered some ethical aspects that will befollowed in a strict manner. They are:

1.   Before conducting this research, I will get the permission from the university as well as the school. Only after the permission is granted, the research will take place.

2.   The information about the research is provided to the samples before the research will be conducted.

3.   The recording will only take place after the researcher gets the permission from the gatekeeper.

4.   The anonymity and confidentiality of the data will be secured.

5.   The participation of the participant is voluntary and they can withdraw at any time without penalty.

Ethical considerations are of the utmost importance in protecting the rights of the participants and protecting their anonymity. The researcher was obligated to carry this study in a manner that was not only ethical but fair, just and honest.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide answers the first research question, that is, how do the teachers interact with children with special needs? The analysis of the observations will document the interactional norms and practices in the special education classroom.

This chapter is divided into three sections, which are as follows:

- Section 4.2 addresses the interactional organisation in classroom routines.

- Section 4.3 addresses the specific interactional strategies used by teachers when dealing with children with varying special needs.

- Section 4.4 addresses the teachers' interactional preferences according to the duration of time of contact between themselves and their students.

4.2 Interactional Organisation in Classroom Routines

This section focuses on the interactional organisation in special education classroom routines. This part of analysis covers the interactional norms of the classroom and how they are managed. Three specific topics are presented in this section.

- Classroom Routine and Ritual (Section 4.2.1)

- Initiation-Response-Feedback (Section 4.2.2)

- Choice of Code (Section 4.2.3)

4.2.1 Classroom Routine and Ritual

This section focuses on the progression of the teaching session from a macro perspective. From observations, there are common stages that the teachers adhere to when they teach students. These sequences are considered as routines as most, if not all teachers

follow the stages in order to ensure the teaching and learning process are running smoothly. The routines are illustrated in the following table.

Table 4.1: The classroom routines

Stage		Example of activities
Pre-lesson	Directing	Students are directed to their classes for specific subjects.
	Opening	Greet, Du'a recitation, checking attendance
Lesson		Lectures, students' presentation, colouring, drawing, role play, watch video, discuss students' works.
Post-lesson		Recapitulate the lesson

The teacher-student interaction can be categorised into three main stages as stated above.

The ritual when students arrive is to put their belongings in their bag (and sometimes lunch) in a designated place which in this case personalised cabinets. The students then are required to stay in the hallway until the school session starts. While waiting, they can watch television or involve in a free-play activity. This particular ritual contributes to the social development and also teaches the students to develop self-control.

In addition to the typical classroom routines where the teachers enter the classroom and start to teach, this special education classroom has one additional stage which is **directing**. During the transition of the subject, sometimes a group of students need to move from one classroom to another depending on the availability of the classroom. For example, Class Six needs to be in Room 2 for Malay Language lesson with Teacher 9. After the

lesson finishes, Class Six moves to Room 4 to have an Art lesson with Teacher 11. The process of moving from one class to another is assisted by teacher aides. Only after the students are in their respective classroom, the lesson begins. This is different from the general education classroom where the students will stay in one classroom and the teachers will come in to teach. The lessons that require the use of different set of facilities like the laboratories or computer rooms are the most common reasons for the students to move from their class to these facilities.

Another pre-lesson stage is the **opening**. The opening stage takes about three minutes of the total class time. This is a pre-teaching and learning session. The introductory of the class where usually the greetings take place first. Based on Bach and Harnish (1979 cited from Yoong, 2010, p. 134-135), greetings occur when the first speaker or interactant wants to acknowledge the listener or addressed interactants or to ensure that the discourse meets social and ritualised expectations. Greeting is a common practice to begin an interaction and usually it is reciprocated with greeting. With regards to the classroom interaction, greetings are performed by both teachers and students. Depending on the situation, sometimes the teacher performs a greeting upon entering the classroom to acknowledge the presence of students and other time, or the teacher lets the students to greet the teacher first.

Apart from greeting, one of the most common classroom rituals is that of attendance. In a short period of time it provides the opportunity for the teacher to interact with each student in an expected social manner. Not every teacher does it the same, but it is expected and students quickly adapt to each teacher's attendance ritual.

The **lesson** stage is where teaching and learning and the dissemination of information happens. This is where the main pedagogical activities take place. The accepted convention for the teaching and learning stage is the teachers' duty to teach the students first and then it will be followed with the second activity, which is usually related to the previous session. Activities are conducted in order to ensure the students focus on the lesson and this varies according to teachers and subjects. Based on observation, the most common tasks given by the teachers are the drawing and colouring task. The examples of teaching and learning activity are shown below.

The last stage in any classroom session is the **post-lesson** stage. At this stage, the teacher recapitulates and concludes the lesson. Sometimes questions about the topic of the day are asked to check the students' understanding. The closure of each lesson is almost the same for all the teachers and sometimes the teachers do not even have a proper conclusion their lesson for the day where the teacher abruptly stops the lesson and asks students to stand up and thank him/her for the lesson.

The progression of classroom routines for teacher participants is shown from the chart below. The session is taken from observations of teaching and learning session. The chart shows the time allocated for each stage of development based on each teacher.
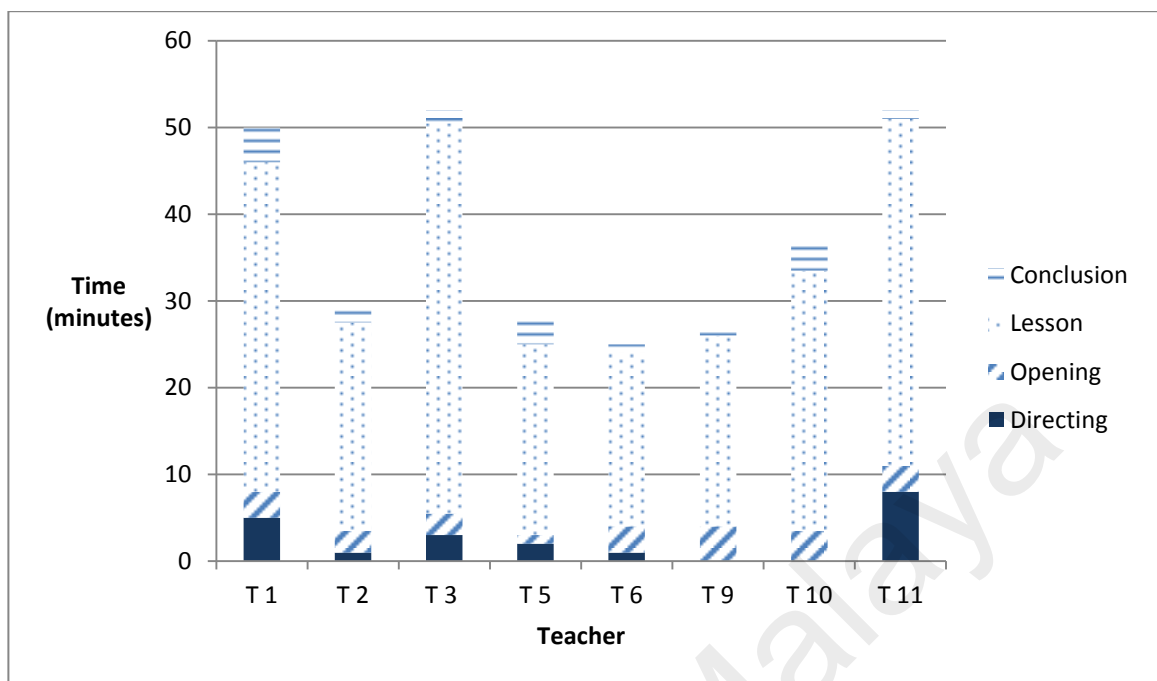
Figure 4.1: Teachers Progression of Classroom Routines

The teachers' progression of classroom routines is presented only for teachers with complete set of data, which means, their lessons start from the time the teacher enters the class until the time he/she leaves the classroom. This is why the data is limited. Based from the above figure, the bars that are below the 30 minutes indicate that the lesson is only for one period. During the observation, Teacher 2, Teacher 5, Teacher 6 and Teacher 9 are teaching 1 period lesson. While the bars above the 30 minutes indicate the teachers are having 2-period lessons as shown in Teacher 1, Teacher 3, Teacher 10 and Teacher 11. It is clear however, and obvious that lessons take up most of the interaction time.

In addition, the graph does not list all the teacher participants because of two reasons which are i) some observations are recorded after the lesson has begun, creating voids in the overall observation ii) some teachers are observed during their relief classes (substitute absent teacher). Thus there is no structured classroom routines observed as the teacher present is to control the classroom.

4.2.2 Initiation- Response-Feedback (IRF)

The following section discusses classroom routines from the perspectives of the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) Theory. As opposed to a class size of 30 to 40 in a normal classroom, students get more chances to interact with the teacher because there are only 10 students in the classroom. The biggest portion of talk in this study can be related to the Initiation-Response-Feedback theory.

The following data analysis shows the development stages discussed in Section 4.2.1 and it is accompanied with a discussion of the IRF theory. The examples are selected randomly and used to provide transcript evidence for every key point made.

a) Pre-lesson (Opening)

For pre-lesson, only the opening stage is discussed. This is because the interaction between teachers and students starts from this point onwards. The directing stage is usually handled by the teacher aides. For example, the excerpt taken shows the opening activity. It is from a living skills class and eight students are present.

Excerpt 4.1. Greeting
Date: 16.1.2013
Excerpt video: 00.03 – 00.06

Turn	Speaker	Malay (Original)	English (Translated)
1	T8	Assalamualaikum. Apa khabar semua?	Hello How's everybody?
2	Most	⌈ba:::⌉ ik	⌈ Go::⌉ od
3	S2	⌊sehat⌋	⌊Healthy⌋
4	T 8	Okay	Ok

The teacher asks the wellbeing of the students at the beginning of the lesson after she greets her students. This method of greetings is commonly found at the beginning of a teaching session.

In Turn 1 when Teacher 8 asks, "How is everybody?" majority of the students responded with "Good" except for S2 who said "Healthy". We can see from this excerpt that there is a sequence which involves a question being asked followed by answers given by the students. Both answers are acceptable because they are the pairs for the question asked by the teacher. These two are the expected answers when people ask about a person's wellbeing. The feedback occurs when the teacher responds to the students to show she acknowledges the answer from the students by saying "okay".

The next activity in the opening stage is checking of students' attendance but this activity is optional.

Excerpt 4.2: Checking attendance
Date: 29.10.2012
Excerpt video: 00:05 – 00:08

Turn	Speaker	Malay (Original)	English (Translated)
1	T5	*Semua mari ko hari ni? Sapo tok mari?*	Is everyone present today? Who is absent?
2	All	Semua mari	All present
3	T5	*Haa, gini la bagus*	Yes, good

From the above excerpt, Teacher 5 checks the students' attendance in Turn 1. Teacher 5 initiates an opening move by querying her students. The students reply in Turn 2. Since the response is appropriate, Teacher 5 then praises the students in his feedback as to

acknowledge the students response.

Apart from the normal interaction there is also an instance where a teacher corrects a student's response at the opening stage. This is shown in excerpt below.

Excerpt 4.3: Attendance checking
Date: 16.1.2013
Excerpt video: 00:11 – 00:13

Turn	Speaker	Malay (Original)	English (Translated)
1	T3	Mana S1?	Where is S1?
2	S1	Ni	This
3	T 3	Bukan ni. Saya, cikgu	Not this. Me, teacher
4	S1	° Saya cikgu°	°Me teacher °

The IRF strategy occurs in Excerpt 4.3 when Teacher 3 starts by asking "where is S1?" in Turn 1. This is followed with a reply which seemed to be inappropriate response and answering move according to the teacher. Teacher 3 follows up with a repair. In Turn 3, it is clear that the teacher rejects Student 1's answer by saying "Not this." She also provides feedback by providing appropriate response of the question which is "I am here, teacher" in Turn 3. This is a other-repair sequence. The teacher gets the answer but she feels compelled to correct the response, because she does not regard it as appropriate, and those with local knowledge would also know that it is an impolite expression. According to Nakamura (2008, p. 267) "repairs' may be understood as "conversational or interactional resources to collaborately manage turn-taking", or "alterations that are suggested or made by the speaker, the addressee, or the audience in order to correct or clarify a previous conversational contribution" (p. 278). In turn 4, the student automatically corrects his response after being repaired by Teacher 3.

69

The lesson sequence is where the teachers conduct activities related to formalised pedagogy. The teachers may choose activities that the students need to be engaged with. For instance, in this context where nine students and Teacher 9 are present, Teacher 9 describes a picture on a piece of paper and she wants her students to copy the words on the paper (see Image 4.1). The interaction is shown in Excerpt 4.4.
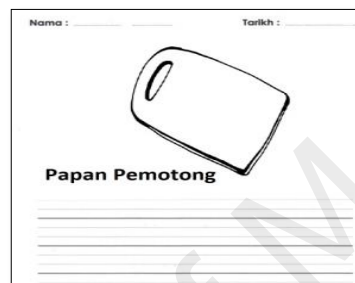
Figure 4.2: Classroom activity 1

The picture shows a chopping board and there is a word "papan pemotong" (chopping board). The students are required to copy the words on the provided lines.

Excerpt 4.4: Classroom activity
Date: 13.10.2012
Excerpt video: 10.03 – 12:04

Turn	Speaker	Standard Malay and Kelantanese(Original)	English (Translated)
		(Teacher distributed the hand out to the students)	
1	S1	*Buku ko ni?=*	Is this [a] book? =
2	T9	=Pa:pan pemo::tong	=Chopp:ing Boa::rd
3	S1	Oo	Oh

4	S3	Cikgu, cikgu, rumah kita ada ( ) e::r papan pemotong.	Teacher, teacher, my house got ( )e::r chopping board.
5	T9	*Dio guno untuk gapo ni? Potong sayur dok?=*	What is this for? To cut the vegetables, isn't it?=
6	S1	*=bawe bulih cikgu?*	=Onions can, teacher?
7	T9	*ho,potong bawe=*	Yes, cut the onions=
8	S2	*=Aye?*	=Chicken?
9	T9	*Ho, wat potong aye↑*	Yes, to cut chicken ↑
10	S 2	*Ike!?*	Fish! ?
11	T9	*((nodding)) Ha, tulis*	((Nodding)) Yes, Write down

The teacher first introduces the picture of chopping board to the students in Turn 2. She then discusses the use of chopping board with the students. The question in Turn 5 is to make the students participate and respond to the lesson. They are not afraid to ask questions and participate in the conversation. After the discussion, the teacher then asks the students to proceed with the writing activity. In Turn 10, the teacher asks the students to write down the words. This is done after she is satisfied that the students can identify the picture and mention the correct use of the item. The first set of IRF strategy occurs in Turn 1 when S1 asks the teacher about the picture. He thought that that picture is a picture of a book. In Turn 2, Teacher 9 latches on immediately to respond to student 1's inquiry by saying 'chopping board'. The student then provides a feedback by giving a short response of 'Oh' to show that he can now identify the picture.

The second set of IRF strategy in the abstract is in Turn 5 when Teacher 9 first asks a question to test the students' knowledge. She also provides the hint to her first question by

'disguising' an answer through a yes-no tag question: "To cut the vegetables, isn't it?".
Student 1 answers the question in Turn 6, but is uncertain if the answer is correct. Teacher 9
then gives feedback by saying "yes". This particular set shows that a question can also
takes the role of response in IRF. The responses not necessarily need to be in a form of
statement.

Another example of the classroom activity is shown below. For this context, six
students and Teacher 11 are present. Teacher 11 is demonstrating how to create a collage.
She is showing how to cut the coloured paper into bits and glued the bits to the paper. The
interaction is shown in excerpt 4.5.

Figure 4.3: Classroom activity 2

For this activity, the students are given small pieces of coloured paper which are to
be glued to a piece of paper to colour a picture of an apple as shown in Image 4.2.

Excerpt 4.5: Classroom activity 2
Date: 21.1.2013
Excerpt video: 03:21 – 04.03

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T11	*Nak buat ni kita perlukan gapo?*	What do we need for making this ((referring to the collage))
2	S3	*Em: epal*	Em: apple

3	T11	*((shake her head))*	((shake her head))
4	S1	*Kertah*	Paper
5	T11	*Kito keno ada:*	We need to have:
6	S1	*Kito keno ado kertah*	We need to have paper
7	T11	*Baguh*	Good

There is a set of IRF in the talk above but there are different occurrences of each element. The set is shown when Teacher 11 initiates the question on collage making in Turn 1. As for the response, there are 3 different responses in which two of them are wrong. The first response is in Turn 2 where Student 3 provides wrong answer and the second incorrect response is given by Student 1 in Turn 4 and lastly the final response is in Turn 6 given by Student 1 and the response is a respond that the teacher is looking for.

For the last element of IRF which is feedback, it can be seen from the abstract that there are 3 feedback turns. The first feedback is given by Teacher 11 in Turn 3 where she provides the non-verbal form of feedback by shaking her head. The second feedback also given by the teacher in Turn 5 when she provide assistance by giving a place of repair in Turn 5 when she says a part of the sentence "we need to have" to help the student construct a full sentence. The third kind of feedback is in Turn 7 with the right signal by praising the student because he is able to repair his sentence.

From the above excerpt, it shows that teachers use different strategies to help the students based on their performance and constantly give them feedback in verbal or non-verbal forms.

c) Post-lesson

The extract below shows the example of the concluding stage in a teaching and learning session. For this context, five students and Teacher 2 are present for their Malay Language lesson.

Excerpt 4.6: Summarise the lesson
Date: 22.1.2013
Excerpt video: 25.38 – 27.01

Turn	Speaker	Malay (Original)	English (Translated)
1	T2	*Tadi kito belaja gapo tadi?* Apa hok telah kito belajar hari ni?=	Previously, what have we learnt? What have we learnt today? =
2	S2	=Senyum?	=Smile?
3	T2	Ha, kita belajar ⌠emosi ⌡	Yes, we learn [about] ⌠emotions ⌡
4	S2	Emosi	Emotions
5	T2	Emosi *gapo*? =	What kind of emotions?=
6	S2	=Sedih	=sad
7	T2	Emosi gembira, emosi sedih, emosi ma::rah (hands on waist)	Happy emotion, sad emotion, anger emotion (hands on waist)

At this stage, the teacher sums up the lesson for the day in Turn 1 by asking Student 2 about the lesson for the day in order to summarise and check the students' understanding regarding the lesson. If the students manage to give the brief oral explanation of the topic, the aim of the lesson for the day is achieved. The IRF appears in this interaction as shown in Turn 1 when Teacher 2 asks "what have we learnt today?" to the class to which only Student 2 gives the response. Teacher 2 provides a feedback by saying "yes". She

acknowledges the response and then Teacher 2 repairs the student's response in Turn 3 by correcting the word "smile" given by Student 2 to the answer that she is looking for which is "emotions". She prompts Student 2 so that he can do immediate correction just like in Turn 4 where Student 2 corrects his answer.

4.2.3 Choice of Code

Malay is the official language for government institution and this includes national school. Thus, teachers are required to use Standard Malay in their interaction with the students. Teachers are not encouraged to use any non-standard Malay for their teaching and learning session. This requirement is interesting because there is some linguistic 'distance' between the standard Malay and Kelantanese Malay as shown from the previous sociolinguistic studies in Chapter 2, Kelantanese Malay is a common means of communication or the lingua franca among the Kelantanese (Zuraidah, 2003, p. 23) regardless of their socioeconomic status. Most people from Kelantan use the dialect at home when conversing with family member and also in school when interacting with teachers and friends with a few exceptions to subjects like English. In short, people from Kelantan use Kelantanese Malay when going about all their daily routines (ibid).

From an educational perspective, teachers have the freedom to code-switch because their goal is to disseminate the information to the students. However, the teachers' choice of code can reflect many things. This plays an important aspect in classroom interaction because it is associated with power and control of the teacher over the students. The teachers may maintain his or her code or use a different language altogether to deliberately mark differences from the students' speech style, to indicate authority. The examples below illustrate the teachers' choice of code in communicating with the students. The first excerpt

shows the use of standard Malay when interacting with students in special education classroom. In this context, Teacher 6 is teaching and six students are present.

Excerpt 4.7: Standard Malay

Date: 17.10.2012

Excerpt video: 06:00 – 07:25

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T6	Nah, pegang pensel ni. Pegang!.Pusing. (turn the student around facing the whiteboard). Okay	Here, hold this pencil. Hold!. Turn around. ((turn the student around facing the whiteboard)). Okay
2	S1	((S1 tries to write something on the board))	((S1 tries to write something on the board))
3	T6	Nanti dulu! Okay ((erase the answers)). Tulis. Satu sini. Okay, dua? Sini, bawah ni. Buat no tiga. Ha, buat kat sini, sini ((showing a place to write))	Wait! Okay((erase the answers)). Write number one here. Okay, number two? Here, down here. Do number three. Yes, do it here, here. ((showing a place to write))
4	S1	((S1 writes the wrong answer. 3 becomes Z))	((S1 writes the wrong answer. 3 becomes Z))
5	T 6	Hey↑, buat betul-betul. (Hold S1 hand and write number 3). Okay bagus. Okay, nombor empat. (Show place to write). Ha macam ni,	Hey↑, do it properly. Okay, good. Okay, number four. Yes, like this, like this. Yes, can?

		macamni. Ha, boleh?	
6	S1	((S1 looks at the teacher))	((S1 looks at the teacher))
7	T6	Nombor lima, tarik.	Number five. Pull

In this extract, Teacher 6 uses standard Malay throughout his conversation with the students. Both teacher and students' primary language is Kelantanese Malay. Although Teacher 6 knows that the students are more comfortable using Kelantanese Malay as compared to Standard Malay, he still uses the standard Malay to interact with the student. The main reason for this is Standard Malay is the main language in government schools. In a sense, it is arguable that this practise also demonstrates that the teacher wants to promote distinctiveness and self-regulation in order to show the power relation by differentiating his speech from that of the student because he could choose not to use standard Malay. By using the standard Malay, the teacher expresses low solidarity with the student and the formal relationship between teacher and students is clearly shown.

The next excerpt shows the use of Kelantanese Malay when interacting with students in the special education classroom. In this context, Teacher 11 is teaching and 8 students are present.

Excerpt 4.8: The use of Kelantanese Malay
Date: 21.1.2012
Excerpt video: 05:45 – 06:30

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T11	Tengok sini. Harini kita *buak* ni deh. ((showing a collage to the students))	Look here. Today, we are going to do this. ((showing a collage to the students))

2	S	*Gapo tu?*	What is that?
3	T11	*Kito buat epal. Ambik kertah ni, gam dale gamba epal. Gini. Pahtu buat lagi*	We are doing apple. [You] take this paper, glue it in the picture of apple. Like this. Then do it again.
4	S1	Oh *.Nok nok*	Oh, I want, I want
5	T11	Okay↑, *nok jadi lagu ni deh.* Tengok ni, nak jadi macam ni ((showing an example of art work to the students))	Okay↑, make it like this. Look here, make it like this((showing an example of art work to the students))
6	S1	*Tepek supo tu*?=	Glue just like that? =
7	T11	=Haa ni kelas enam. Boleh?.*Hok tadi dia wat sehari jah siap doh. Awok? Tigo hari*	=Yes, this is Class 6. Can? That one he did in one day. You? 3 days.

In the above excerpt, Teacher 11 uses Kelantanese Malay in all of her turns and generally throughout her lesson. She appears closer to the students because of her language choice. Students are able to participate in the conversation more because there is no language barrier and the students are at ease due to the fact that they are familiar with the language use and the language is the language that they use at home.

The following excerpt shows the use of other type of local dialect Malay when interacting with students in the special education classroom. In this context, Teacher 3 is teaching and 6 students are present.

Excerpt 4.9: Use of other type of local dialect.

Date: 15-1-2013

Excerpt video: 01:00 – 02:34

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1.	T3	Okay, lapan puluh sembilan. Ada gambar *ikang*	Okay, eighty nine. It has a picture of fish
2.	S4	Gamba ike? =	Picture of fish? =
3.	T3	=Ho, gambar *ikang*? Muka surat lapan puluh sembilan, ada gambar *ikang*. Oka::y, semua orang dapat?	=Yes, picture of fish? Page eighty nine. It has a picture of fish. Oka::y, does everyone got that?
4.	S3	Dapat	Got it
5.	T3	Gambar *ikang* deh. Toksey gambar nih, nak gambar *ikang*. Sape tak dapat lagi? Awak tak dapat lagi?	Picture of fish. Don't want this picure, I want the picture of fish. Who still don't get it? You don't get it yet?
6.	S1-S2	Ni↑ *Ike* ni. *Ike*. HEY buke hoktu	This↑ This fish. Fish. HEY, not that one.
7.		....	...
8.	T3	Muka surat lapan puluh sembilan. Ada gambar *ikang* tu.	Page eighty nine. It has that picture of fish

From the excerpt above, Teacher 3 uses code-switch of standard Malay and Terengganu Malay. She pronounced the word 'fish' as "ikang" instead of 'ikan'. This is because she is from Terengganu; the teacher preserves her own linguistic style. This can be seen in Turn 1, 3, 5 and 8 where the teacher kept mentioning the word 'ikang' to the

students. In Turn 2, S4's utterance was not regarded as a repair by the teacher when he says, "Gamba ike?" (Picture of fish), hence the teacher did not shift to standard Malay and maintained using her mother tongue while interacting with the students who have a different mother tongue.This is because Teacher 3 is focusing on the page number and the word 'fish' is rather a supplementary information to reinforce the instruction. In addition, the use of other dialect shows the variety of dialect and it can can help build relationships or put people at their ease.

4.3 Specific Interactional Strategies Used by Teachers in Special Education Classroom

This section focuses on the teacher-student dyad interactions. Since the teachers deliver their teaching in various styles, there are many possible linguistic angles that can be used to examine the strategies used by the teachers. In this research, the analyses look at teacher-student interaction from the following angles:

- Speech Act in the Classroom (4.3.1)

- Motherese as Teachers' Interactional Style in Intergenerational Classroom (4.3.2)

- Humour as Pedagogical and Social Elements in Classroom (4.3.3)

The main purpose of these themes is to analyse the strategies the teachers use in order to achieve their objectives in teaching the students. There are many objectives of teaching and some are: (i) to improve students' comprehension, (ii) to teach social communication and (iii) to control the students' behaviour in the classroom.

4.3.1   Speech Act in the Classroom

This section examines the use of speech acts (with a focus on the illocutionary force) of the teachers when they are interacting with the students with special needs during the teaching and learning session. In the following subsections, the teachers exhibit various types of speech acts that can be found in the data. The following sections are classified according to the illocutionary force relevant and apparent in the data:

a) Prohibiting

b) Admonishing

c) Requiring

d) Informing

e) Praising

f) Questioning

g) Thanking

All of these speech acts are present in teachers' interaction and the organisation of these speech acts are based on taxonomy of speech acts of the four groups proposed by Bach and Harnish (see Appendix A).

a) Prohibiting

According to Bach and Harnish (1984, p. 41-53 cited from Yoong, 2010, p. 257), the verbs to represent prohibitive are 'enjoin', 'forbid', 'prohibit', 'proscribe' and 'restrict'. Prohibition aims to get a hearer to comply with the speaker's directives. One common way prohibitives are practiced is through negative imperative forms such as "do not" and "cannot". An example of a speech act strategy is shown in the following excerpt when the teacher prohibits to a student in Mathematic class from doing a certain action.

Excerpt 4.10: Prohibition

Date: 23.1.2013

Excerpt video: 04:43 – 04:58

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T6	S1, bangun. Mari dekat cikgu. Mari tempatcikgu.	S1, stand up. Come near me. Come to my place
2	S1	((Walks to the front))	((Walks to the front))
3	T6	Jangan hisap jari lagi. Faham?	Don't suck your thumb . Understand?
4	S1	((Nodding))	((Nodding))
5	T6	Faham ke <u>tak</u>?	Do you understand or <u>not</u>?
6	S1	((Nodding))	((Nodding))

As stated by Bach and Harnish (1979, p. 47), in uttering a prohibition, the speaker prohibits the addressee from performing certain actions. The excerpt above shows the use of a prohibition. The point of prohibition is exemplified in Turn 3, when the teacher says, "*Jangan hisap jari lagi. Faham*?". The teacher uses the word 'don't' to prohibit the student

from sucking his thumb. The question 'faham' or 'understand?' is a way to get confirmation as well as a mitigative cue to soften the prohibition so that it would not sound too harsh for the student.

Another example of a prohibitive act is when the teacher prohibited a student to colour a picture freely. Excerpt 4.21 in this section is taken from a Visual Art class.

Excerpt 4.11: Prohibition
Date: 14.1.2013
Excerpt video: 15:00 – 15:37

Turn	Speaker	Malay (Original)	English (Translated)
1	S1	cikgu, cikgu, *kito nok wat warna-warni*	Teacher, teacher, I want to make it colourful
2	T5	*Tange awak warnagapo?=*	What colour is your hand?
3	S1	*Nok wat warna-warni*	I want to make it colourful
4	T5	*Tange awak warna gapo?* (2s) Ada Warna merah? 2s Ada warna kuning?*	What colour is your hand? Is it red? Is it yellow?
5	S1	((shaking head))	((shaking head))
6	T5	*Ah takdop. Jadi warna gapo tange awak?* =	Ah no. so what colour is your hand?
7	S1	koko, coklat =	coco, brown
8	T5	Jadi wat warna koko.	So do it coco

Teacher 5 disallows the student from colouring the picture according to her own will and at the same time the teacher limits the floor while interacting with Student 1. In Turn 1, S1 tells the teacher that she wants to make the picture colourful. In Turn 2, Teacher 5 asks Student 1 "what is the colour of her hand?" Student 1 appears to exhibit resistance and does not answer Teacher 5's question and repeatedly insists, "I want to make it colourful" in Turn 3. The teacher asserts his power by repeating his question in Turn 4. He then adds two more questions to emphasise his point of why he is not allowing S1 to make the picture colourful. He stops for 2 second before adding "*ada warna merah? Ada warna kuning?*" The two questions seem to be strategies the teacher use to rationalise why the teacher refused S1's desire to make the picture colourful. The questions also function as a tool to limit responses because they are yes-no question. In Turn 4, Student 1 only shakes her head to indicate 'No'. After making his point, the teacher then adds another question in turn 6 when he question Student 1 "*ah takdop. Jadi warna gapo tange awak*?" In Turn 7, Teacher 5 finally managed to get Student 1 to colour the picture brown.

b) Admonishing

According to Bach and Harnish (1984, p. 42 cited from Yoong, 2010, p. 188), admonishing is an advisory speech act because the speaking interlocutor advises the adressee to perform an action when the speaker expresses:

i. The belief that there is (sufficient) reason for the addressee to perform the action.

ii. The intention that the addressee takes the speaking interlocuor's s belief as (sufficient) reason for him to perform an action.

Excerpt 4.12: Admonishing

Date: 13.10.2012

Excerpt video: 10:03 – 10:08

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1.	S1	Cikgu, tengok S2 ni=	=Teacher, look at S2.
2.	T 9	=S2 ↑, *JANGE dok ngenak ore gak.* Buat *kijo kito tu*↑,	=S2 ↑, DON'T disturb other people please. Just do your job ↑,
3.	S2	((Smile))	((Smile))
4	T9>S2	Duduk↑	Sit ↑

Teachers control classroom interaction and they usually want to ensure that lessons progress smoothly. In Turn 1, Student 1 complains to the teacher that Student 2 is bothering her. Teacher 9 then complies by using directive and disciplinary speech in Turn 2. Turn 2 has two different directives. The first is to prohibit S2 from 'bad behaviour', and this is accentuated with a raised volume, while the second is to order S2 to do her task. According to teacher 9, scolding misbehaving students is meant to create control in the classroom and to aid teachers in conducting smooth lessons and at the same time to prevent the future misbehaviour. Admonishments also ensure that the other students did not participate in the misbehaviour. Student 2 smiles at the teacher and this could indicate Student 2's behaviour as being cheeky. In Turn 4, the teacher orders Student 2 to sit down and continue doing his work.

c) Requiring

Requiring is a type of requisite speech act, and it demands compliance from the addressee. It is commonly used by people with authority to exert power over their addressees. The requiring speech act carries a stronger degree of illocutionary force. Bach and Harnish (ibid.) write that in a requiring speech act, the SI presumes that "he has the authority over the addressee (physical, psychological or institutional). An example of this speech act strategy is shown in Excerpt 4.13 when the teacher requires to a student in Mathematic class to sit and wear her socks after returning from restroom.

Excerpt 4.13: Requiring

Date: 17.10.2012

Excerpt video: 30:14 – 30:18

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T6	s1 !sini sini S::: 1 sini. Awak dok sini..duduk. Pakai stokin..nanti dulu. Pakai stoking. Duduk elok-elok	S1 !herehere S::1 here. You sit here. Sit. Wear the socks. Wait, wear the socks. Sit properly.
2	S	Ho	Yes

The example above happens in the middle of the lesson when the student enters the class after her toilet break. Student 1 leaves the class during the transition of lesson and she is not in the class when the teacher entered the room. Teacher 6 abruptly stops the lesson and keeps his focus on S1. He directs S1 to properly settle down by showing her a place to sit, asks her to wear her sock first and to sit properly in Turn 1. The teacher suspends the class to make sure that the child conforms to the expected behaviour. Teacher 6 tells

86

Student 1 of what to do upon her entrance to the class to calm her down because the new routine had started. For Student 1 who was diagnosed with autism, she has difficulty in adapting to changes. Therefore, the teacher directs the student to help her accept change and at the same time reduce her challenging behaviour like making noises or screaming in the classroom.

d) Informing

An informing speech act is a type of informative speech act (see Section 2.6). Bach and Harnish (1979, p. 42 in Yoong, 2010, p. 188) write that in uttering an informing speech act, the SI informs the addressee of a proposition if the SI expresses:

i.   The belief in a proposition, and

ii.   The intention that the addressee forms the belief in that proposition.

An example of an informing speech act is when the teacher informs the students about a water shortage and the toiletry needs of students. Excerpt 4.13 in this section takes place in a Living Skill class and eight students are present.

Excerpt 4.14: Informing
Date: 16.1.2013
Excerpt video: 03:38 – 03:42

Turn	Speaker	Malay (Original)	English (Translated)
1	T2	*Okay, Hari ni sapo nak gi tandas oyak awal-awal. Tandas takdop air hari ni.=*	Okay, Today who wants to go to the toilet let me know early. The toilet has short water supply =

2	S	=*Tokleh gi tandas la arini* ⌐*cikgu?*	=Cannot go to the toilet today is it ⌐teacher?
3	T 2	└*Keno gi tandas kat luar*	└Use the toilet outside

Before starting the lesson, Teacher 2 informs the students that if they wanted to go to the toilet, they need to let her know in advance because of a water supply shortage. In Turn 3, the teacher also informs her students that if they want to use the toilet, they will have to go to the toilet in another building. Teacher 2 said in the interview that she took this action in order to avoid future complication. If the students went to the toilet and were unable to clean themselves, the teacher would have to interrupt the lesson and address the toiletry needs of that individual student.

e) Praising

Praises are commonly used by the teachers when interacting with their students. This strategy is useful to aid the students' motivation as well as to increase the students' self-esteem. Most praises used by the teachers contain words like "good" and "clever". The following excerpt demonstrates praises. In this context, eight students and Teacher 11 are present. Teacher 11 is asking the students to draw a picture of their liking. The interaction is shown in Excerpt 4.15.

Excerpt 4.15: Praising

Date: 13.10.2012

Excerpt video: 02:38 – 02:46

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T11	buatlah kereta ke, (0.5s) gunting, ah ni pensil, ⌐pembaris	Just do car, (0.5s) scissors, ah this, pencil, ⌐ruler
2	S1	Pembaris	Ruler
3	T11	*Gapo?* =	What? =
4	S3	=burung	=Bird
5	T11	= bagus. Pandai pandai	=Good. Clever, clever

The excerpt shows Teacher 11 using specific strategies when interacting with her students. She uses shorter phrases to aid the students' comprehension. She also uses slower speech rate and pauses to give the students more processing time to understand the task as well as the speech. For example in Turn 1, Teacher 11 divides her sentence into four different segments with a stress put on each noun like 'car', 'scissors', 'pencil' and 'ruler'. She also pauses in Turn 1to give time for the students to comprehend her instructions so that they can respond and perform well to the task. In Turn 6, the teacher praises Student 3 because of the feedback given in Turn 4. The act of praising the student is important to the teacher to show that she is trying to maintain a relationship with the student. The praise also acts as the expression of the approval from the teacher**.**

f) Questioning

According to Bach and Harnish (1979, p. 48), questioning is a special case for request because the speaker's intention is to obtain information from the addresses when he/she is using the questioning speech act. Questioning can usually be identified through question markers like '?' and in the common forms of question markers in Malay, 'bila', 'apa', 'bagaimana', 'siapa' and 'dimana'. In most cases, the question in Malay is followed by particle '-kah' to emphasise on the question. Another way to identify question form is by the raise of tone at the end of the sentence. The following excerpt shows the speech act of questioning in thespecial education classroom. Teacher 4 is teaching Bahasa Melayu and 5 students are present.

Excerpt 4.16: Questioning
Date: 02.11.2012
Excerpt video: 02:16 – 02:42

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T4	*Harini kito akan belaja (1s) caro nok beratur. Tau↑? Tau↑ caro nok beratur? ((Looking at S2)) ((tap pen on the table 3 times))*	Today, we are going to learn (1s) way to queue . [Do you] know↑? [Do you] know ↑ how to line up? ((Looking at S2)) ((tap pen on the table 3 times))
2	S3	*ado kat perhimpune*	Have it at the assembly
3	T4	*Bilo kito aah nak beratur? Bilo kito ah maso bilo kito nok beratur ni?*	When we aah need to queue? When we ah when do we need to queue ?

4	S3 and S5	*Perhimpune*	Assembly
5	T4	*Maso; bilo? (3s) Pertamo maso kito nok gi, nok gi mano?*	Whe::n, what? (3s) first, when we want to go where?
6	S5	*Perhimpune*	Assembly
7	T4	*Okay, perhimpune. ((turn and write down on board)). Pahtu mano lagi?* *Bilo bilo? Maso bilo kito keno beratur?*	Okay, assembly. ((turn and write down on board)). Then, where else? When, when? When do we need to queue?

The excerpt shows Teacher 4 asking questions every turn she speaks. The act of asking questions is to elicit students' responses. In Standard Malay, apart from using the 'wh-question', sometimes the use of rising tone can also indicate that there is a question in the utterance like in Turn 1, the first '*tau*' is a question itself. When the students do not respond to the first question, Teacher 4 constructs the question by asking '*tau caro nok beratur?'*. After the reconstruction and repetition of the question, only the student provides the answer in Turn 2. Next, the teacher uses the question marker *'bila'* or 'when' when he is asking questions in Turn 3. The question of 'when' is considered a semi-closed question. The teacher asks semi-closed question as the answer for the question is limited but it still requires the students to think of possible answers. This can develop the students' critical thinking and also increase the class participation.

Through classroom observation, it is found that the purpose for teachers to ask display questions is usually to check students about the learnt knowledge. While teachers ask referential questions to let students practice more English and have more chances to participate in classroom interaction. When students are given more referential questions, they can be encouraged to provide obviously longer, syntactically more complex answers, and get more opportunities to give their own ideas.

When the both Student 3 and Student 5 provide the answer, Teacher 4 still repeats the same question in Turn 5 because the teacher only wants one volunteer to answer the question. In Turn 6, Student 5 answers the question. Then Teacher 4 repeats the same question because he wants a different answer. From the overall interaction, it can be seen that Teacher 4 performs the lowest level of complexity in asking question according to Bloom Taxonomy as the students only need to recall information (Santrock, 208, p. 411).

g) Thanking

Thanking usually occurs when the speaker wants to express gratitude but it can also be used in the opening and closing of a conversation. However, according to Jung (1994, p. 7), the use of thanking expression in opening and closing a conversation is more frequently used in "one-to-many relationships" and in other situations such as formal addresses, special lectures, conferences or TV shows. The following excerpts show the speech act of thanking in two ways.

Conversational Closing

The following excerpt shows thanking being used to close conversations. In this context, seven students and Teacher 9 are present. Teacher 9 tells the students that the class session is almost coming to an end. The interaction is shown in excerpt below.

Excerpt 4.17: Thanking of conventional closing
Date: 15.10.2012
Excerpt video: 53:11 – 53:15

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T9	*Okay. Masa habih doh. Wat esok pulok. Terima kasih semua*	Okay. Time's up. We'll do [it] tomorrow. Thank you all.
2	S (all)	*((standing up)) Terima: ka:sih cikgu*	((standing up)) Thank: you: teacher.

In this excerpt, the speech act of thanking serves two functions which are to express the gratitude and to close a conversation at the same time. In Turn 1, Teacher 9 gives two signals of closing which are "Masa habih doh" or "time's up" and "thank you" and shows that she is getting ready to leave. The form of thanking does not differ much from the form of thanking in the appreciation of benefit. In Turn 1, the teacher thanks the students for their attention and following rituals, she expects the students to echo the words also to show their gratitude.

Appreciating benefits

The following excerpt demonstrates thanking to appreciate benefits. In this context, 5 students and Teacher 2 are present. At the beginning of the class session, Teacher 2 asks student to get her book in the next room. The interaction is shown in the excerpt below.

Excerpt 4.18: Thanking to appreciate benefits
Date: 15.10.2012
Excerpt video: 02:04 – 02:07

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T2	*Sapo bulih gi ambik buku cikgu?*	Who can go and take teacher's book?
2	S1	*Sayo*	I [can]
3		*[...]*	[...]
4	S1	*Hoh ((handing the book to the teacher))*	Here ((handing the book to the teacher))
5	T2	*Baguh. Terima kasih S1.*	Good. Thank you S1.

From this excerpt, Teacher 2 requests Student 1 to do something for her in Turn 1. In Turn 5, Teacher 2 thanks the student. The thanking in this situation is not as lengthy because of the distance relation between the teacher and the student. The interaction result a shorter and a kind of formal thanking. In Turn 5, Teacher 2 includes the gratitude expression to enhance rapport or solidarity between the teacher and the student as well as to make the student feel good.

4.3.2 Motherese as Teachers' Interactional Style in Intergenerational classroom

Talking has always been fundamental in order to develop the ability in using a language. One style of interaction which can be used to develop a child's ability to understand talk is by using the exaggerated speech which is often called motherese. This is because the role of a mother is rather socio-emotional than reliant on professional expertise. This type of interactional style combines authority with care-giving. The same can be applied to the teachers when teaching children as they are expected to provide the service of comforter and sympathiser to students especially if they are teaching small children or child of special needs.

The following examples show motherese as part of the observed teachers' interactional strategies. The data focus on the specific characteristic of motherese.

a) Adapting to the students' speech style

One description of motherese is when the speaker tries to adapt or fit in with the language need of the adressees or listeners. According to Coupland et al. (1988, p. 7), the most prominent aspect of motherese is "when the speaker converge to adapt to the listener speech". The following excerpt shows the teacher's strategy to adapt to the students' speech style. The teacher is teaching Bahasa Malaysia and 5 students are present.

Excerpt 4.19: Adapting to student's speech style

Date: 13.10.2012

Excerpt video: 05:50 – 06:05

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T9	Wat molek, sayang	Do it properly, my dear
2	S1	((showing the picture. making	((showing the picture. making

		sounds to attract the teacher's attention))nahhhnahhh	sounds to attract the teacher's attention))nahhhnahhh
3	T9	((looking at the student)) haaa, panda pom	Yes, clever
4	S1	((continue writing))	((continue writing))

As Except 4.19 shows, Teacher 9 adjusts her language when interacting with her students. She adapts to the students' interactional style and register by using Kelantanese Malay when speaking to Student 1. In Turn 1, she directs Student 1 to do his work properly in a motherly-like tone. Her utterances are very clear as she speaks in a word-by-word manner when communicating with Student 1. When Student 1 finishes his work and shows it to Teacher 9, he makes sounds to get the teacher's attention because he has language deficiency where he could not produce proper sentences. He uses body language and makes sound to attract and respond to people. In turn 3 Teacher 9 praises S1 after checking his work by saying, "yes very clever."

b) The use of questions

Another aspect of motherese is the use of questions. The data show that questions are commonly used to mould and encourage the students' responses. Excerpt below shows the use of questions in interaction. The teacher is monitoring the students for 'relief class' and 15 students are present.

Excerpt 4.20: Questions

Date: 29.10.2013

Excerpt video: 00:51 – 01:13

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1.	T5	*Ha, sapo* dulu? *Sapo* ⌐dulu?	Yes, who's first? Who is ⌐first?
2.	All	∟*Kito* dulu, *kito* dulu = ((raise up their hands))	∟Me first, me first=((raise up their hands))
3.	T 5	=°Shhh °, kalu bising cikgu tak bagi main ((show quiet gesture))	=° Shh °, if you're noisy, I won't let you play ((show quiet gesture))
4.		...	…
5.	T 5	S1 na:k ? S1 na::k ? Okay S1 wat dulu.	S1 wa:nt ? S1 wa::nt ? S1 do first

Example 4.20 illustrates a scene where Teacher 5 asks the students who want to go first to play Angry Bird, a computer game. He repeats "who's first?' in turn 1 and "S1 wants?" in Turn 5 twice. Teacher 5 initiates small talks at the beginning of his session by asking basic questions to the students. The questions often lead to participation in the activity as shown in Turn 2 where many students volunteer to go first. However, since many students actively answer to the question, the class become noisy thus the teacher uses "shh" as exclamation to call the students for silence in Turn 3. Rather than just use the exclamation, the teacher further provides a more accurate instruction when he says "if you are noisy, I won't let you play". The sentence structure used by the teacher is very simple

and can easily be comprehended by the students. This can be seen when the students can give proper response to the questions. He also shows the quiet gesture to strengthen his instruction.

Since the teacher does not address the students individually by name and the question is directed to the whole class in Turn 1, Teacher 5 initiates a question which requires only S2 to answer in Turn 5 in order to get response from S2. This shows that questions can also be used to improve linguistic and communicative competence of students with learning disabilities. This is because questions are used to prompt students in participating more in classroom interactions and at the same time to check their understanding of the lesson for the day.

c) Prolonging enunciation to show syllabic distinction

Excerpt below shows the use of prolonging enunciation in the classroom which is another characteristic of Motherese language. The teacher is teaching Bahasa Malaysia and 6 students are present.

Excerpt 4.21: Prolonging enunciation
Date: 13.10.2012
Excerpt video: 10.03 – 10.08

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T9	Haa (2s) tengok macam S1 wat, S3 panda skalo, S3 pandai =	Haa,(2s) look at how S1 did it. S3 is usually clever. S3 is clever
2	S4	=buku ke ni?	=Is this book?
3	T9	Pa:pan pemo::tong	Chopping board

From this excerpt, the teacher adjusts her speech rate to make sure that the students understand what is being said. In turn 1, her speech rate is rather slow as compared to a normal pace. The pronunciation is word-by-word and in Turn 3, Teacher 9 uses prolonged stretches of sound. This is to help the students to appear to detect such things as syllable and phrase boundaries better and this can help the students to identify the syllables better. The teacher's ability to discriminate the syllable structures of 'papan pemotong' or chopping board that leads to better ability to learn word.

d) Repetitions of own utterances

Another characteristic of motherese is repetition. Excerpt below shows the use of repetition in the classroom. The teacher is teaching Mathematic and 7 students are present.

Excerpt 4.22: Repetition
Date: 16.1.2013
Excerpt video: 13:15 – 14:01

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T6	Lukis bulat dekat papan	Draw circle on the board
2	S1	((Avoid eye contact))	((Avoid eye contact))
3	T6	S1 .((looking at S1)) Buat bulat, tengok betul betul. Buat bulat. BULAT. (1.5s) Bulat↑. Bulat. Bulat. Bu:lat↓	S1, .((looking at S1)) do circle. Look carefully. Do circle. CIRCLE. (1.5s) Circle↑. Circle. Cir:cle↓
4	S1	((starts drawing circle))	((starts drawing circle))
5	T6	Pan:dai. Bentuk bulat macam mana? Macam bo::la	Cle:ver. How is the shape of circle ? Like ba::ll

Teacher 6 asks Student 1 to draw circle on the board. After realizing that Student 1 is not able to perform her task, Teacher 6 repeats the word 'circle' 6 times in Turn 3. His intonation also varies when he mentions each word. There are some rising and falling tones on the word ball. In Turn 3, Teacher 6 also uses pauses in his utterance to make sure that Student 1 can follow his instruction to give more time for her to comprehend the instructions. Teacher 6 also keeps his eye contact at neutral level, which is not too intent and not too free when interacting with S1 as stated in Turn 3.

Teacher also uses praising word like "clever" in Turn 5 to indicate that the student is doing a good job because she is able to perform her task correctly. In addition to that, Teacher 6 also describes the shape of circle just like a ball (referring to 2-dimensional picture). The teacher is trying to relate the lesson with authentic things that S1 are familiar with to aid her comprehension.

e) Echolalia

One characteristic of motherese which is quite similar to repetition is echolalia. If repetition is the duplication of words and can present in single turn, echolalia requires at least two turns because echolalia means echoing or repeating what another person has said. Excerpt below shows the use of echolalia in the classroom. The teacher is teaching Islamic Studies and 5 students are present.

Excerpt 4.23: Echolalia

Date: 22.1.2013

Excerpt video: 00:46 – 02:34

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T10	Alif Ba Ta Sa Jim Ha Kho. Haa cepat S2 S2 S2. Aaa	Alif Ba Ta Sa Jim Ha Kho. Ha, hurry. S2 S2S2. Aa
2	S2	Aa	Aa
3	T10	Ba?	Ba?
4	S2	Ba	Ba
5	T10	Yeee, panda S2 ((clapping hand)). Haa S1 S1	Yeay, clever S2 ((clapping hand)). Haa S1 S1?
6	S1	Aa	Aa
7	T10	Ba	Ba
8	S1	Ba	Ba
9	T10	Ta	Ta
10	S1	Ta	Ta
11		...	...
12	T10	Haa pandaS1 ((clapping hand)). Ni cikgu sayang ni	Haa clever S1((clapping hand)). This is why I love you.

In this excerpt, students are tasked to imitate the teacher's utterances. They echo the requested Arabic character name and also matching the characters to its name. Teacher practises immediate echolalia, which is the repetition of words or phrases that occur immediately or very soon after the original words are spoken (Mize, 2008). In Turn 1, Teacher 10 names all 7 characters that they would cover for the day. She then request Student 2 to imitate her words which also occurs in Turn 3. In Turn 5, Teacher 10 praises Student 2 for highlighting his attribution of completing the required task perfectly before asking Student 1 to perform the same task. Starting from Turn 6, we can see that S1 only repeats what S10 have said and nothing more. S10 is a student ADHD while S1 is diagnosed with minimal retardation. According to Mize (ibid), there are many research now that think echolalic speech can serve a purpose for children with autism but here it can cover the students with multiple learning disabilities as a whole.

These excerpts show six common ways used by the teachers in order to address Motherese strategies during the teaching and learning session. They are: i) accommodating to students' speech style, ii) the use of simple sentence structure, ii) the use a lot of questions, iv) using clearer enunciation, v) repetitions of own utterances and iv) echolalia.

4.3.3   Humour as Pedagogical and Social Elements in Classroom

According to Servaite (2005, p. 81), humour can be categorised in two groups. Situational humour allows for different interpretation and thus creating what we called funny situation. Linguistic humour on the other hand happens when different linguistic means occur and create confusion between the speaker and the listener.

This section explains the presence of humour in the teaching and learning session and how the teachers and students use it as a tool to build social rapport with teach other. Since

most of the interactions have humorous topics and they contribute to the characteristics of interactional norms at the research site, this section also analyses the occurrences of humour and their effect on the participants' (both teacher and students) interactions.

a) **To Tease**

Teasing can function to express solidarity and rapport (Strahle, 1993; Hay, 1994 cited in Hay, 2000, p. 720). Some teasing can reinforce solidarity and expresses rapport, while other teases serve to maintain the power of the speaker or the teaser. The next example shows the function of humour which is used to tease. From what Radcliffe-Brown (1952) terms as a 'joking relationship', this type of teasing when occurs can reinforce solidarity. Individuals routinely tease or insult each other in such most relationship. This serves a number of functions, and is primarily a strategy for expressing solidarity (see Hay, 1994).

Excerpt below shows the use of humour in teasing. The teacher is conducting an Islamic Studies class and 6 students are present.

Excerpt 4.24: Teasing

Date: 22.1.2013

Excerpt video: 16:42 – 17:15

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T10	Ni Lam Alif, gini! (point to the alphabet)	This is Lam Alif
2	S4	*La:lif*	La:lif
3	T10	*Hamzah mana?*	Where is Hamzah?
4	S3	Ta:u	Don't know

5	T10	Ni, ni Hamzah (points to alphabet). Ya mana Ya?	This, this is Hamzah (points to alphabet). Ya, where is Ya?
6	S4	(points to S2) Ya Ya:	(Points to S2). Ya Ya:
7	T10	Buke Ya tu, ni ha Ya. Tu Ya lain	Not that Ya. This is Ya. That is another Ya.

The humour aspect occurs in this excerpt when the two similar words "Ya" differ in meaning which cause Student 4 to be confused. In Teacher 10's line in Turn 5, the word "Ya" should be understood as the last alphabet in Arabic whereas the second instance is a direct reference to Student 2 who goes by the name 'Ya'. Student 4 teases both the teacher and Student 2 when he points his finger at Student 2. This phenomenon of humorous word play is called homonymy and it happens when two words that have the same spelling and pronunciation have different meanings. By merely hearing the utterances without looking at the situation, the difference cannot be seen thus it is required to know of the situational background for the homonymy to be properly understood and in this particular case, the act of Student 4 pointing at his friend, Student 2.

There are many occasions where the class introduces other humorous topic to become more entertaining through teasing, as the following example shows when Teacher 1 is teaching Malay Language. 5 students are present here.

Excerpt 4.25: Teasing

Date: 22.1.2013

Excerpt video: 06:32 – 06:46

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T1	Biasa benda ni (0.5s) jua mana?	Usually this thing (0.5s) [is] sold where?
2	S2	((Point his finger to S3))	((Point his finger to S3))
3	S3	((Raise up her hand))	((Raise up her hand))
4	T1	Buke jua Najwa. Ni kita boleh dapat mana ((point to a picture of bread)) roti ni. Dekat ka:n=	Not bought Najwa. Where can we get this ((point to a picture of bread)) this bread. At [the] ca:n=
5	S1	=ti:n	=te:en
6	T1	Ho. Roti ada dijual di ka:ntin	Yes, the bread is sold at the canteen.

The excerpt above shows the humour occurring when the students fail to understand the teacher's intention. In this particular excerpt, the teacher is asking the class where bread is commonly sold. In Kelantanese Malay the word 'jual' is sometimes shorten to 'jua' (figuratively sold) and this created confusion for the students because one of the students is also called 'Jua'. The two similar words (jua/Jua) differ in meaning. This homonymy is even clearer and more humourous for the speaker when Student 2 rises up her hand assuming that Teacher 1 is calling her.

The next example shows teasing as an expression of solidarity when the teacher teases the student playfully with intention to be amusing. For this context, five students and Teacher 9 are present. Teacher 9 is asking about their daily routines.

Excerpt 4.26: Teasing
Date: 29.10.2012
Excerpt video: 03:11 – 03:35

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T9	Ok, lepah kita bangun kita wat gapo?	Okay, after we get up, what do we do?
2	S2	*Gosok gigi*	Brush teeth
3	T9	*Ha, gosok gigi. Gano gosok gigi ?Gini (shows brushing teeth movement). Lepah tu?*	Yes. Brush teeth. How to brush teeth? Like this (shows the brushing teech movement). After that?
4	S3	Gi mati	Go die
5	T9	Haah? Mati ? Mati gapo?	What ? Die? What die?
6		(all laugh)	(all laugh)
7	T9	Mandi la S3. Mandi buke mati	Go [take a] bath S3. Bath not die

The excerpt above shows the situation starts when Teacher 9 asks question about things the students do after they get up in the morning. The first response from S2 in Turn 2 is correct and acceptable. The humourous part occurs when the students use the incorrect word in place of one that is almost similar in pronunciation as shown in Turn 4. This linguistic aspect of incorrect placing is also known as malapropism where the replaced

106

word has a very different meaning from the intended meaning. Instead of saying '*mandi*' or bath, S3 says '*mati*' or die when the teacher asks what is next after brushing the teeth.. The teacher teases Student 2 when she asks for clarification and later corrected the error. Even though the humour aspect is from the student but the ability to recognise and utilise the error creates a lively situation in the classroom as everyone is aware of the error made and all laugh.

Another example of teasing to establish solidarity is by using sarcasm. Intuitively, the sarcastic meaning is the "contrary" or "opposite" of the literal one. In a classroom, the use of sarcasm in teachers' utterances can be identified with the use of context and intonation (Capelli, 1990, p. 1824). An example of sarcasm is 'nice job' and 'very funny'. The meaning can go both ways relying on the context. One example on the use of sarcasm to tease students is shown in the excerpt below. Teacher 11 is asking one student to sing a song while waiting for the other students to come back from recess.

Excerpt 4.27: Sarcasm to tease
Date: 30.10.2012
Excerpt video: 00:53 – 01:21

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T11	Haa, nyanyi la. Lama tok dengar S1 nyanyi.	Yes, please sing. It has been a while [since we] heard S1 sing
2	S	*Nok lagu gapo?*	What song?
3	T11	*Lagu gapo pun. S1 panda lagu gapo? Haa, lagu Anuar Zain*	Any song will do. What song do you know S1? Yes, Anuar Zain's song

4		(singing)	(Singing)
5	T11	Oh panda S1 nyanyi. Supo Anuar Zain doh (laugh)	Oh, S1 is really good. Sound exactly like Anuar Zain (laugh)

The situation starts when Teacher 11 jokes with Student 1 by daring him to sing a song. In Turn 2, student asks the teacher whether she has a particular song that she wanted him to sing. Student 1 is trying to show respect by doing so. Teacher 11 answers by asking Student 1 to sing a song from Anuar Zain. In Turn 5, the teacher teases S1 using sarcasm in two ways which are by jokingly saying that "really good" and his voice sounds exactly like Anuar Zain (a famous Malay singer).

Accordingly, the teachers tend to be direct and sarcastic without the fear of offending the students because the teacher has more control in term of power. However calling students by sobriquet names and jokingly insult each other using crude forms do not occur in the classroom. As for students, sarcasm is not expected to occur in their interaction. No matter how informal their interactions are, students need to treat their teachers in respectful way.

b) To clarify and maintain boundaries

Humour can express the boundaries of acceptability and solidarity among group members, which can be used to clarify group belonging. The following excerpt shows the example of humour to clarify boundaries. The teacher is talking with the Student 1 during recess. Student 1 is not allowed to go out for recess and the teacher volunteer to get his food from the canteen. Teacher 3 is handing over the food to student.

108

Excerpt 4.28: Clarify group belonging

Date: 14.1.2013

Excerpt video: 02:34 – 02:40

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T3	Ha:, cikgu pun ado kepok ↑ juga. Kita make skali ye?	Yes, I also have [fish] cracker↑ too. Can we eat together?
2	S1	Haha, make ((laugh))	Haha, eat ((laugh))
3	T3	*Ho la, make ddua deh kito? Jange baik nga ore lain. Dia xdop kepok. Padey muka*	Yes, just the two of us? Don't [be] friend with others. They don't have [fish] cracker. Serve them right
4	S1	((smile))	((smile))
5	T3	Ho suko dia.	Yes, you [can]laugh

The excerpt shows the use of humour as jokes to make fun of outsiders who do not belong to the same group to show the boundary. This can be seen twice from the teacher's utterances. In Turn 1 when the teacher asks whether the student wants to eat with her, as she also has a fish cracker. She then jokingly says in Kelantanese Malay that only two of them have the fish cracker thus making them special and that they should not eat with the other students. The punch line of this humour is when Teacher 3 says "serve them right" for not having fish cracker as their snack. She creates a scenario that cracker is the means of differentiating groups between students.

c) Mitigate the harshness of the prohibitive act.

Humour can be used to reinforce norms and values and make explicit the boundaries of acceptability. It is similar with the power set of functions. The following analysis discusses the boundary humour which increases or reinforces the speaker's power.

One example on the use of humour to control the students is shown in the excerpt below. Teacher 3 is teaching Mathematics and 5 students are present.

Excerpt 4.27: Mitigate harshness of prohibitive act
Date: 16.1.2013
Excerpt video: 21:45 – 21:53

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	S1	*Cikgu, lambat lagi ko nok rehat?*	Teacher, how long is it for the recess?
2	T3	*Eh awok ↑, sayo baru masuk jah ni. Nok rehat doh?Mana boleh gini.*	Hey you ↑, I have just entered. [you] want to have a recess already? This can't be.
3	S1	*Perut kita bunyi kruk, kruk, kruk dah ni.* ((hold his stomach))	My stomach is rumbling kruk, kruk, kruk already. ((hold his stomach))
4	T3	*Yo ko? Bunyi sokmo perut awok tu ((Smile)) Tokleh tubik lagi. Duduk dulu. Nati dia bereti la bunyi tu*	Really ? Your stomach [is] always rumbling ((Smile)) [You] can't go out just yet. Sit first. The sound will stop soon.

The situation starts when the class has just finished discussing one question and suddenly Student 1 asks the teacher about recess. As a respond to that, Teacher 3 adds one humourous comment in Turn 2 when she said "I have just entered. You want to have a recess already?. This can't be" and the student then explains that he is hungry by saying the sound of his stomach. The teacher feedbacks in Turn 4 appear that Teacher 3 is using humour to maintain her control of the class when she responds by saying "Your stomach is always rumbling". Teacher 3 manages to influence the behaviour of Student 1 when she politely says "No" and asks Student 1 to sit as the rumbling of his stomach will stop soon. Teacher 3 softens the prohibitive act using humour even though she can simply say "No" to Student 1.

d) Maintain the face of the listener and speaker

Humour can also be used to maintain the face particularly during the face-threatening act (FTA) like correcting the mistakes done by students. The use of humour can lighten up the mood in the classroom as it can function as the coping mechanism in teaching and learning. The following excerpts show the use of humour by the teachers and students to deal with the problems in context.

The example is the use of humour to deal with the student's misunderstanding regarding the topic. For this context, nine students and Teacher 9 are present. Teacher 9 is describing things that can be found in in the kitchen.

Excerpt 4.28: Maintain face

Date: 21.1.2013

Excerpt video: 08:54- 09:25

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T9	Gambar gapo tu? Hok kito guna kat dapur	That is the picture of [what]? The one we use in kitchen
2	S2	*Puyuk*	Pot
3	T9	*Buke la. Ni hok wat go:reng.*	No. This is for frying.
4	S2	Puyuk kecik	Small pot
5	T9	Salah. Wat go;reng. Kua:? Kua:=	Wrong. For frying. Pa:? Pa:?
6	S2	Kuali	Pan
7	T9	Ho, kua:li	Yes, pa:n

In this particular example, the humour occurs when the teacher starts to ask about the kitchen utensils in Turn 1. Student 2 relates kitchen utensil with pot. In Turn 3, the teacher gives her feedback by saying that the answer is wrong and continues to give hint to the student. The humour occurs when Student 2 fails to understand the hints and keep referring the utensils to a pot. In Turn 4, knowing that his earlier answer 'pot' is wrong, he changes his answer to 'small pot'. Student 2 uses a metonymy to refer all kitchen utensils as pot or 'periuk' in standard Malay and 'puyuk' in Kelantanese Malay.

The next example shows the use of humour to curb with student's confusion regarding what is formal and what is informal. In this context, one student and Teacher 11 are present. Teacher 11 is asking personal information about S1 for the administrative purposes.

Excerpt 4.29: Maintain face of the listener

Date: 15.1.2013

Excerpt video: 00:53 – 01:17

Turn	Speaker	Malay (original)	English (translated)
1	T11	Ayah Li namo gapo?	What is your father's name, Li?
2	S1	*Mat Ju. Papa*	Mat Ju. Papa
3	T11	*Maju?*	Maju?
4	S1	Ma::t Ju:	Ma::t Ju:
5	T11	Nama dia eh? (1.5s) Fazli bin gapo?	What is his name? Fazli bin who?
6	S1	Ilyas	Ilyas
7	T11	Mat Ju eh? Ilyas tu sapo?	Mat Ju is it? Who is Ilyas?
8	S	Tok tahu	Don't know

The data above is recorded when Teacher 11 is asking Student 1 of the name of his father. Even though Teacher 11 already has the information, she wants to ask the student. In Turn 1, she asks the question and in Turn 2, Student 1 gives the nickname or the 'street name' of his father as he is more aware that most people call his father 'Mat Ju'. The first humourous situation occurs when the teacher pretends to mishear the name and asks for clarification in Turn 3. Student 1 responds again and when the teacher asks the name of his father again in Turn 5 by stating his name as well, "Fazli bin gapo?", Student 1 automatically answers the real name of the father which is Ilyas. The second funny

situation occurs when Teacher 11 reconfirms the name, by mentioning 'Mat Ju' and asking "who is Ilyas?". Student 1 answers "I don't know" as if like he doesn't know who is Ilyas.

e) Highlight similarities

Humour can also be used to share experiences and other similarities between the speaker and the hearer thus creating a solidarity and sense of belonging to a certain group. In fact, Ziv (1984, p. 34) defines one of the functions of humour as 'sharing similarities between self and others'. This category of humour identifies or celebrates shared ideas, shared interests and other similarities between speakers. In this category, there is an inclusion of references to and reminiscences about shared experiences. Examples include humour which refers to shared experiences and humour which highlights similarities. The class is talking about Coca-Cola. Teacher 9 is capitalizing on this shared experiences.

Excerpt 4.30: Highlight similarity
Date: 15.1.2013
Excerpt video: 09:41 – 12:09

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T9	Gelas ni pun kita guna untuk air sejuk *ho,ho tok leh air panah. Pandai↑pom* ((pointing finger to s6))	We use glass for cold water. Yes yes, not hot water. Clever↑((pointing finger to s6))
2	S6	*Air sejuk,,buke air panah*	Cold water not hot water
3	S3	*Air geh ,air geh*	Soft drink, soft drink
4	T9	Ha? Allah S3, *air geh sokmo*=↑	Ha? Allah S3, always soft

			drink=↑
5	S6	=tau	=right
6	T9	*((smile))Air geh air geh air geh tu* tak elok *,tok molek*	((smile))Soft drink. Soft drink soft drink is not good. Not good
7	S6	*Air geh tu* mabuk	Soft drink is intoxicate
8	S1	Air ribena?	Ribena?
9	T9	((laugh)) Ha, air ribena *tak po* .	((laugh))Yes, ribena is alright
10		…….	
11	T9	Sebenarnya tak leh minum air gas ni sebab diakan bergas dop? ⌐bila kita hulur⌐	**Actually (we) can't drink soft drink because it is carbonated right? When we hold**
12	S3	⌐haa⌐ ((nodding)) =	⌐yes⌐ ((nodding)) =
13	T9	= *geh dia tu tubik*, dia jadi berbuih((hand gesture moves upwards)) *,* jadi mcm tak molek-molek la. *Pahtu denge dia wat gano kita tok tahu*. Haritu *deh* , awak rajin dengar? coca cola. Cikgu dengar la dalam *berito* pasal coca cola. =	**=The gas is out, making it bubbly.** ((hand gesture moves upwards)) **It becomes not good-good. Then we do not know the ingredients. Previously, have you heard? Coca-cola, I heard from the news about coca-cola=**
14	S3	=SAYA ((raise up the hand))	=ME((raise up the hand))
15	T9	= *Dio oyak gapo S3*? ((looking at	**=What does it say, S3? How**

		the student)). *Dio oyak gano?* Air coca-cola tu	**does it say? That coca-cola drink**
16	S3	*Dia kocok, dia kocok* ⌐urm air tu¬	**It shakes, it shakes ⌐mmm the water¬**
17	T.> S3	⌊*dok molek gak*⌋	⌊Sit properly⌋
18	T9	*Gini. Dengar deh, tak tau la betul ko dok, tapi aritu masuk dalam berito.* Cikgu dengar la. *Awok jangan oyak ko ore lain. Mace oyak dengar dengar*	**Like this. Listen here, don't know whether its true or not but previously, they were in the news. I heard, you cannot tell other people. Said like your heard somewhere**
19	S6> S3	<u>*Diye la*</u> ((noise))	<u>Quiet</u> ((noise))
20	T 9	*Dok <u>diye</u> la. Air coca cola (1 s) Kenal ke tak air coca cola? Warna gapo?* ⌐air di okoko¬	**Keep <u>quiet</u>. The coca-cola drink (1s) you know coca-cola? What colour? The water is brownish**
21	S7	⌊koko⌋ =	**Brownish**
22		…	…
23	T 9	*Cikgu dengar ari tu dia kata hmm tok leh minum air tu sebabnya ade ore mati dalam tangki dia. hah, tak dengar lagi deh? Tangki hok dia*	Previously, I heard it said hmm (we) can't drink that water because there was a dead person in the tank. Hah, never heard of

		wat air dekat kile: dia tu haaa=	it yet right? The tank that they use to make water at their factory:haa=
24	S6	=Ore jatuh	= people fell
25		…	…

Although Teacher 9 decided on the topic of the lesson, students can introduce or rather shift the focus of the conversation by asking questions. For example, in turn one, the teacher was still teaching the topic for the day which was serving appliances. However, when they discussed the use of glass, the topic began to move into another direction when S3 mentions 'soft drink' in her response in Turn 3. The first humourous situation is in Turn 4, when teacher 9 pretends to be mad when S3 keeps mentioning about soft drink and this later further continues with S6's allegation. The second humour occurs in Turn 9 when the teacher laughs because of the remark made by S6 that the soft drink is not good because 'it is intoxicated', in addition to the question by S1 when he asks about the condition of Ribena because the drink is his favourite drink. The teacher continues the new topic in Turn 6, when she advises her students that soft drink is not good for health.

The topic then shifted when the teacher tells a story in Turn 13 regarding Coca-Cola. She changes the focus in order to keep the student feeling contented because the conversation about the unpleasant effect of Coca-Cola was a bit too heavy for the students. In order to make sure the students reduce the intake of soft drink, the teacher reciprocates by telling them a story.

From the extract, the students are very keen to hear the advice. They are responding

to the teacher's call for calm and order. From this, it can be inferred that the students are happy to listen to the story because they know they can relate to the story because of shared similarities.

The following sub-section is the analysis on the time of contact between teachers and individual students and also the types of teacher's interaction in the special education classroom.

4.4   Time of contact between teachers and students

The following analyses discuss the interactions that took place in a special education classroom specifically the interactions between the teachers and students with multiple learning disabilities. The lessons were observed and the time of contact between teacher and students were measured in a broad manner. Both lesson-related and non-lesson-related interactions were observed. A lesson-related utterance is interaction that was related to learning either the talk to check the understanding of the topic or the inquiry on the ways to finish a task. Meanwhile, the non-lesson-related is the interactions that have no relation to the lesson of the day. Examples of the non-lesson-related are student being scolded because of behaviour problems, teacher asking students to run errand like cleaning the board and students asking unrelated questions during the lesson and the teacher still respond to the questions.

The focus of the data analysis was how much time the teachers are interacting with their students. The analyses present how many minutes are given to a specific student and if the teacher addresses everyone then the students will get the equal time. Apart from presenting time of contact between the teacher and students to show the overall rate of interaction, this section also includes the context in which the interaction takes place.

118

Following are exemplary instances of the time of contact between teacher and each student in two different classrooms.

4.4.1 Teacher 3

The following analysis shows the interaction between Teacher 3 with individual students in her classroom. The analysis encompasses two parts which are time of contact and also types of teacher interaction. The session is one period which is 30 minutes however from the analysis, the total time contact is less than 30 minutes because the teacher needs to organise the classroom before starts with teaching and learning session.

The analyses below show two data which are (i) types of teacher's interaction and (ii) the time of contact between Teacher 3 and her students. The tables and figures of data are to assist the understanding by providing visual aid. The following will then be further supported by the explanations of the data presented.

Table 4.2: Types of teacher's interaction

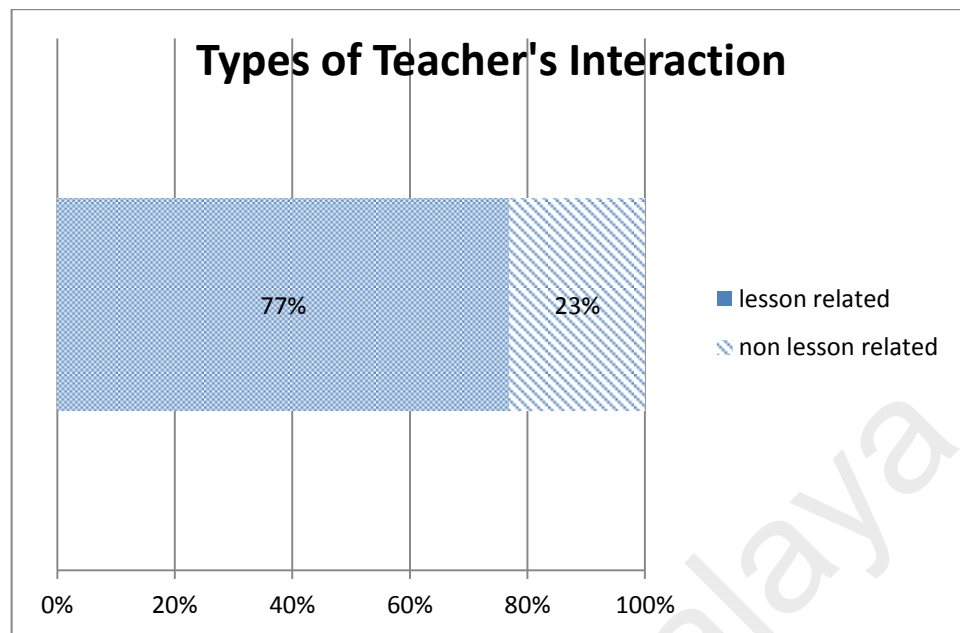| Subject	Time (seconds)	Percentage (%)
Lesson related	1066	68
Non-lesson related	502	32
Total	1568	100

Figure 4.4: Types of teacher's interaction

Teacher 3 taught mathematics in Class 6. The talking in this classroom was initiated and controlled by the teacher. The teacher did a lot of the talking in the classroom. Many of the lessons involved Teacher 3 standing in front of the class. The teacher conducted lesson by lecturing and asking individual students questions to check their comprehension and expect the students to produce precise answers. A lot of interactions in this classroom were lesson-related because the teacher wanted to gauge the student participation during the teaching and learning session.

The following table shows time of contact between Teacher 3 and her students. The class is one period session and there are 8 students present.

Table 4.3: Time of contact between Teacher 3 and the students

Total contact – 26 minutes 8 seconds	
Total class time	10.22
Students	Time of individual contact (minutes)

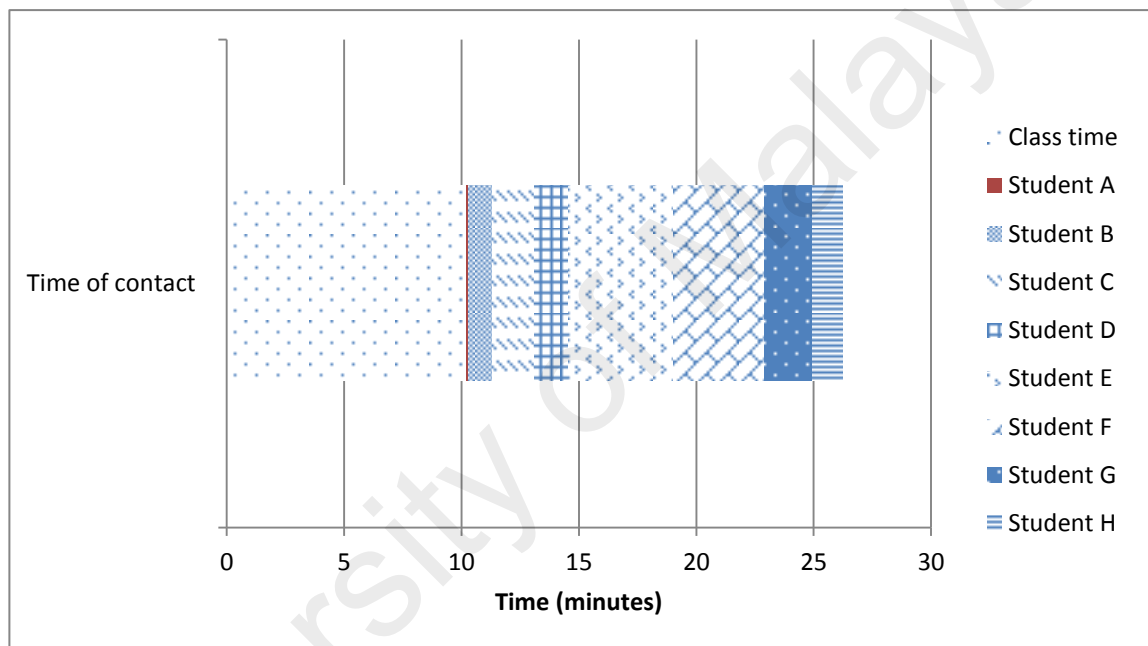| A | 0.1 |
B	1.0
C	1.77
D	1.45
E	4.5
F	3.85
G	2.07
H	1.28

Figure 4.5: Time of contact between Teacher 3 and the students

Students were called by the teacher to give their answer or to read out loud their answers to the whole classroom. Students E and F had the highest number of interaction with the teacher because they need to re-read their answers because they have done mistakes on their first trial. These two students (E and F) were also very active in the classroom and they volunteered responses to the teacher's questions. For example in this particular setting, the teacher asked "who wants to answer first?", student E and F both raised their hands , the teacher called student E and E attempted to give the answer . That is

also one of the reasons why their time contacts with the teacher were higher as compared to the other students. The reluctance of other students to pose and answer the questions in the classroom could be interpreted by the teacher as inattentiveness and lack of information thus making Teacher 3 focused on the more capable students.

Student E and student F are also school prefects. Student G is the class monitor. The three are slow learners. However, in comparison with the other students, these three are among the most capable students in the special education classroom. They are well trusted by the teachers to take care of the other students or to help out in class and were usually given the opportunity to run the school errands.

Most of the time, Teacher 3 did not give many feedback to students especially if the answer is right. The teacher would only provide comment when the students gave incorrect answers. She would then ask the students to repeat their answer until they got it right.

4.4.2 Teacher 5

The next analysis shows the interaction between Teacher 5 with individual students in his classroom. The analyses encompasses two parts which are types of teacher interaction as well as time of contact between the teacher and individual students.. The session is two periods which is 60 minutes however from the analysis, the total time contact is less than 60 minutes because the teacher enters the class late as he need to wait for the students to enter the class during the transition time. He also needs to organise the classroom before starts with his session.

Table 3 shows the types of teacher's interaction and Table 4 presents the time of contact between Teacher 5 and his students. Each of the tables of data is followed with a

chart in order to assist the understanding by providing visual aid. The following will then be further supported by the explanations of the data presented.

Table 4.4: Types of teacher's interaction of Teacher 5

Subject	Time (seconds)	Percentage (%)
Lesson related	2084	77
Non-lesson related	623	23
Total	2702	100
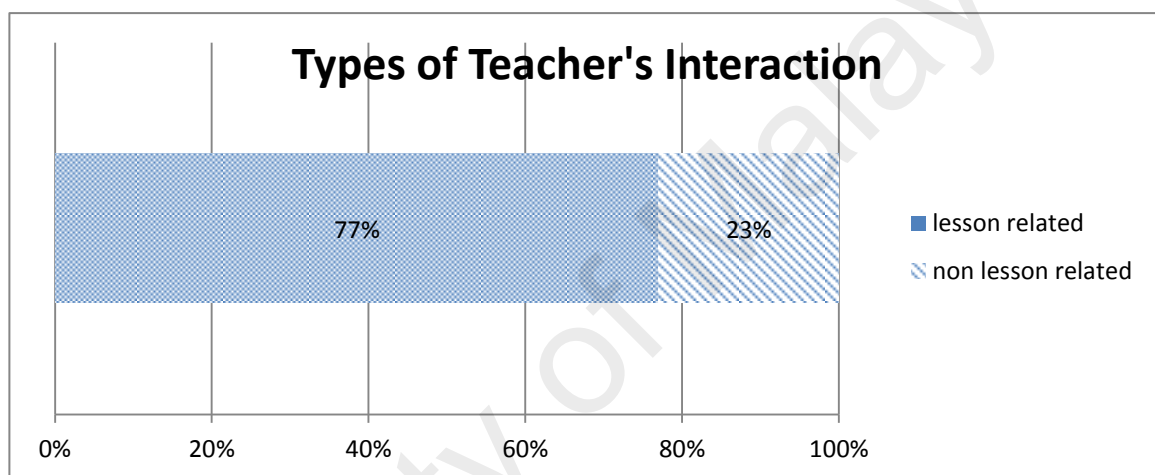
Figure 4.6: Types of teacher's interaction

Teacher 5 taught Living Skills in Class 4. From the analysis, it is clear that the talking in this classroom was initiated and controlled by the teacher. Teacher did a lot of the talking in the classroom. However, Teacher 5 also involved his students in his teaching and learning session. The following table and figure show time of contact between teacher 5 and his individual student during the teaching and learning session.

Table 4.5: Time of contact between Teacher 5 and the students

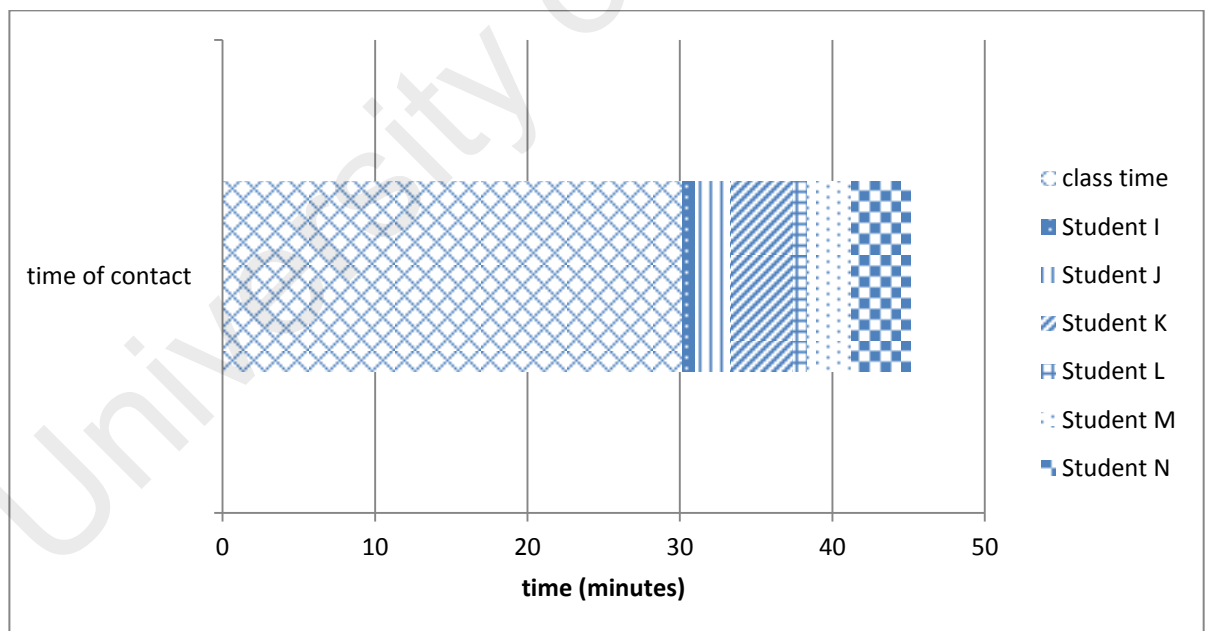| Total contact – 45minutes 7 seconds	
Total class time	30.18
Students	Time of individual contact (minutes)
I	0.83
J	2.28
K	4.15
L	0.9
M	2.95
N	3.85

Figure 4.7: Time of contact between Teacher 5 and the students

In terms of individual time of contact in the classroom, it can be said that although Student J, Student K, Student M and Student N are all verbal children, Student J and Student M said very few words, and Student N said words that were different from the others, so they all became used to interacting with others using physical actions. For that reason, guiding the children to use appropriate language might be necessary as well as to encourage the students to talk instead of using their actions in place of words. For example, while Teacher 5 instructed the child to draw, he usually allowed the student to make choices and requested the child to talk about what he wanted. Teacher 5 knew that Student N could speak, so when Student N responded to him by nodding his head, he asked the student to respond to him by speaking. Since the students were all able to communicate, Teacher 5 also had the tendency to focus more on the student who could respond well to his questions and that was the reason why Student K had the highest time allocated to interact with the teacher followed by Student N. For the case of Student N, the contact time was high because Teacher 5 was constantly asking him questions in during the session to initiate a conversation in relation to the topic of the day.

4.4.3 Conclusion for time of contacts between teachers and students

From both of the findings, it can be concluded that the class participation is dominated by the more capable students. The classroom participation especially the act of asking question is usually raised by these students. Because they participate more, the time of contact of these students are higher as compared to their less capable peers. The teachers also give more attention to capable students. This can be seen from the time of individual contact of each student where the more capable students receive more attention from both teachers teaching different subjects.

Although limited examination has been done, the examples suggest that the students' performance does impact the teachers' mean on interaction when teaching the classroom fill with students with various disability. Looking at exposure of time of both teachers, it can be concluded that the interest of interactions are more on the lesson-related communication. This may be because through this kind of interactions, students are able to acquire new knowledge and can use the information for their development. in addition to that, the interactions that focuses on the syllabus and the lesson of the day will enable the teacher to collect relevant information to know how the students are doing academically and the classroom interaction will be an important source for teacher to evaluate the students' progress as the school does not have the monthly test to measure the students' development. The school only conducts informal testing and evaluation for students and teachers' feedback are used to stream the students.

Because of the students' conditions, they may not accomplish some of the work given to them; this is where the teacher-students interaction comes in hand. The time of contact with the student can also help teachers to evaluate the students' academic development.

4.5   Summary

This chapter presents a qualitative analysis of various classroom interactions in a special education classroom. Analysing the various types of teachers' interaction is essential because it can enable us to understand the nature of teachers talk in special education classroom and the ways the people in the classroom conform to the specific situation. This chapter describes teachers' interactional strategies in special education classroom by examining the three main categories; (i) interactional organisation in

classroom routines, (ii) specific linguistic strategies used by teachers when interacting with children with varying special needs and (iii) teachers' interactional preferences according to the duration of time of contact between themselves and their students.

In the discussion for interactional organisation in classroom routines, three components discussed are the protocol and procedure, initiation-response-feedback (IRF), and choice of code. In the classroom, there are three stages that the teachers adhere to when they are teaching the students which are pre-lesson, lesson and post-lesson. These stages are considered as routines as most, if not all teachers follow the stages in order to ensure the teaching and learning process can be conducted efficiently. In addition to that, the teachers also use IRF in their classroom repeatedly thus making IRF is part of the routines in classroom where teacher will first initiate the interaction by asking question and the student will respond by answering the teacher's question followed by a feedback from the teacher to either agree with the answer or to correct the student. In term of choice of code, generally teachers should use Standard Malay as their medium of instruction but other code like Kelantanese Malay also occurs in the classroom interaction making code-switch a common phenomenon in classroom.

The analysis of teachers' specific linguistic strategies to interact with students in the special education classroom deals with three main aspect in classroom which are the use of speech acts, motherese and humour in interacting with students with varying special needs. For the speech act analysis, it identifies the use of speech act of the teachers and the students and with the focus is more on the teachers. Among the speech acts covered in this research are the speech acts of prohibiting, admonishing, requiring, informing, promising, questioning, and thankings. The use of motherese is done to enable the teachers to interact

127

with the students according to their level of competency, as this is a way to 'step down' one's interactional style. Motherse's speech comprise of short simple sentences that are uttered with exaggerated intonation and stress that are typically used to talk to young infants. Humour enables the teachers to not only creating a positive environment, but is a source of enjoyment for the teachers and students. The analysis humour can be used to three main things which are to express solidarity, express power and serve psychological functions.

As for the teachers' interactional preferences, the analysis of the lessons covers the time of contact between teacher and students, and time in both lesson-related and non-lesson-related interactions. A lesson-related utterance is interaction related to learning involves either checking the understanding of the topic or the inquiry on how to complete a task. From the analysis, the teachers talk focus more on the lesson related subject as compared to the non-lesson related subject.

The following chapter discusses three issues, which are i) the teachers' perspective in practising such interactional strategies, ii) the reasons they adhere to certain interactional strategies and iii) the discussion whether not there are similarities and differences of interactional strategies used by the teachers in this study with the teacher teaching the normal classroom.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1   Introduction

This chapter addresses the second and third research questions of this study and discusses the findings presented in Chapter 4. The answers elaborated are presented in two main sections. Section 5.2 is a discussion from the teachers' perspective and the reasons they adhere to certain interactional norms and 5.3 deliberates whether or not there are similarities and differences of interactional strategies used by the teachers in this study with the teacher teaching the normal classroom. For each subsection, the themes that emerged from interviews and observations of teacher-student dyad interactions are presented.

5.2   Teachers' Perspective and Purposes of their Interactional Strategies

Teachers use their discourses as instructional strategies in teaching and learning sessions. These strategies are used in order for them to achieve their objectives. All the teacher participants expressed that their communication strategies were used depending on the students' different type of disabilities. For example, Teacher 11 says her teaching had varied foci, "depending on the students' ability and cognitive level". Likewise, Teacher 9 says she would "understand the students first and take the individual differences into account when communicating with the students to ensure teaching and learning sessions can be conducted smoothly". Teacher 6 insists that "teachers need to understand students' capability and [she] usually communicate to [her] students based on that". The teacher participants have different teaching strategies but from the interviews and observations, their interactions with special education students in the classroom can be categorised by four main purposes. The teachers used communication strategies to (i) improve students'

comprehension, (ii) teach social communication and living skills and (iii) manage inappropriate behaviour in classroom (iv) express disappointment or anger.

5.2.1 Improve Students' Comprehension

Based on the classroom observations, the majority of the teacher participants frequently used Kelantanese Malay (henceforth will be known as KM) with the students to interact. In addition, the students also spoke Kelantanese Malay to the teachers except for three students who used Standard Malay (SM) in their interactions. Teacher 11 says that she usually use KM in her interaction with the students and will only switch to SM whenever she feels like doing so, even though she knows that SM is the official language at school. In addition, Teacher 11 explains:

"As most students in this class use KM in their daily interaction and some students are not familiar with SM so speaking to students with KM would enhance the students' understanding of the teacher's instruction".

Teacher 11 also adds that even if she uses SM in the classroom, when the students spoke KM to her, she would reply them in KM. Teacher 3 also agrees. She says:

"Usually I am using normal language. SM along with KM. For SM, the level is not so high but not too low, so far [I have] no problem. The kids can understand".

Teacher 2 adds that code-switch could be helpful to get the students' attention and instruct them because they can understand the teachers' intentions better. Communication strategy like using motherese when interacting with the students can evoke the students' attention and motivate them to take part in the classroom activity. For example, in an interview with Teacher 4, he says:

"I like to appear happy and talk like animation because I know the kids like it. When [we] do something that they like, they will concentrate more. Using simple language that they [the students] are familiar with can help them to participate in the lesson".

According to the teachers, the students with special needs have a very short attention span and the teachers have to think of strategies to interact with the students and hold their attention and motivate them to become involved in group activities. For Teacher 7, he would integrate the use of teachnology in his teaching. Teacher 7 says:

"I play sing-along video for my teaching because the students can learn and have fun at the same time. The music and graphic will make them concentrate to the lesson longer. We can sing during the lesson. It is easier to teach this way and the students can learn better".

5.2.2 Teach Social Interaction

Learning occurs through the social interaction of people entrenched in a broader sociocultural context (Boardman, 2005, p. 32). This shows that the environment and adults' speech and behaviour can affect the children in language learning and development of behaviour tremendously. Teachers of special education use multiple strategies to teach appropriate social interaction and living skills to their students. Their main targets of classroom interactions are first, to replace the students inappropriate use of language and disorderly behaviour and secondly to improve the students' interactional skills so that they can adapt to their surroundings.

The teachers' communication strategies presented in the previous chapter (Chapter 4) helps to elicit the students' social communication reactions. One example is in the observation of Student 1.

Student 1 is 7 years old, ADHD and a new student. He cusses excessively and does not like to mix with other students. He has very limited interaction with teachers. He even calls the teachers and teachers' aides "bodoh" or "stupid". Apart from that, the student is very physical. If he is not happy with someone, he will hit that person. Teacher 10 says he might have learned these words from family members or television. In addition, the child might have acquired rude attitude from how others treated him or from his observation of adults' interacting with one another. To re-direct children's inappropriate behaviours, the teachers apply certain strategies. For example, Student 1 likes to monopolize things and push or scold other children by saying "you, go away! This food is mine". They would interrupt and ask the child to say "I want it too. Can I [have it]?". They would tell him that food needs to be shared and if he wants more, he needs to answer more questions. Teacher 10 agrees that Student A might not understand what the cussing meant thus it is their responsibility as teachers to ensure that Student 1 learn how to interact with people in an acceptable manner.

Another method of teaching social communication is by giving choices to students. The teachers say that by doing so, the students will have to speak rather than just nod or shake their head to show their agreement or disagreement. The following example shows the interaction between Teacher 11 and her student in trying to teach the student to make choice. Teacher 11 instructs the child to draw and allow the child to make choices and request the child to talk about what he wanted.

132

Excerpt 4.31: Giving choices

Date: 21.1.2013

Excerpt video: 06:41 – 07:03

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T11	*Lukih la gapo pon. Bakul ko, bunga ko. ((while draw basket and flower on the board)) Aki nok lukih gapo?*	Just draw anything. A basket, a flower. ((while draw basket and flower on the board)) Aki, what [do you] want to draw?
2	S1	*Tu ((shows to the picture of basket))*	That((shows to the picture of basket))
3	T11	*Tu tu gapo? Ba::kul*	What is that? Ba::sket
4	S 1	*Bakul*	Basket

Apart from teaching the student to communicate, the teacher gives choices to the students to help the child develop a sense of autonomy or feel in control. Teacher 11 realises that by giving S1 limited choices, she is building his confidence in himself and at the same time eliminate the negativity that is associated with the student's ability.

Another example is shown by Teacher 3, when she knew that S1 could speak, so when S1 responds to her by nodding his head, she asks S1 to respond to her verbally.

Excerpt 4.32: Elicit verbal respond

Date: 12.1.2013

Excerpt video: 07:41-07:55

Turn	Speaker	Malay	English
1	T3	*...Buka mukasurat 15. Semua jupo mukasurat 15? Akil, jupo dok?*	Open to page 15. [Does] everyone found page 15? Akil, [do you] found it?
2	S1	*((Nodding))*	((Nodding))
3	T3	*Jupo ko dok? Jawap la cikgu tanya ni*	Found it or not? Answer me when I ask
4	S1	*Jupo*	Found [it]

In classroom interaction, the teachers ask a lot of question. When they were asked of the reason behind it, they say that questions are a way to stay engaged with their students. That is why the teachers encourage students to speak instead of giving nonverbal cues. This way, students have no choice but to speak and develop their social skills.

For the teachers, social communication is crucial especially when they need to deal with a case like Student 2. She is a child with autism and she is accustomed to screaming to get her message across. She also likes to make sounds like "u:::" and "a:::" as part of her way to communicate with others. She has limited eye contact and her utterance is very slow. The teachers need to guess her intention. When teaching students like Student 2, Teacher 1 says "We are teaching them to be as normal as possible. They need to learn how to interact with other people".

In addition to that, the special education classrooms also focus on the teaching of living skills. This is to ensure that the students can function independently. The teachers teach the most basic skills like the toilet training, identifying household objects and their functions. As stated by Teacher 5:

"Usually, I relate my lesson with their surroundings. Things they see at home, things they do and should do".

Teacher 8 says:

"It is easier to teach when we use the terms that the students are familiar with".

For the teachers, when they use the things that the students are familiar with, they are encouraging more responds from the students as the students already have the schemata regarding the lesson. This will make the lesson more meaningful and at the same time can reduce the students' anxiety.

5.2.3 Manage inappropriate behaviour

In this study, the students exhibited many inappropriate behaviours in class like standing up and walking out from the class during the teaching and learning session, not paying attention to the teachers, making noise, interrupting lessons, taking off their clothes during lessons, resting their heads on the table, or fighting with their peers. For the teachers, apart from setting up class routines, they also provide the positive reinforcements to the students and provide them with different instructions and demands to manage the students' inappropriate behaviours.

One strategy to maintain the class control is by using reinforcement. Most teachers tend to display an array of expression through their choice of words. For example, touching

and words like "*sayang*" (love) is sign of intimacy and commonly associated with children. The observation suggests that the teachers' way of displaying affection towards 'good' students as one way to show to the other students that if they are well behaved, they would get more of the teacher's attention in the classroom. However, some might view this as favouritism as from one perspective, education is for all and there should be no bias in classroom.

In order to maintain classroom control, teachers utilise various ways of teaching and learning. Many types of reinforcements are used in special education classroom. Teacher 9 says she needs to try many ways to attract some students to join the class activities. Similarly, Teacher 11 also mentions that she felt it takes a lot of effort to help these young children to pay attention to her teaching. In addition, due to the fact that the students have a short attention span, she has to try many reinforcement strategies to attract their attention and extend their motivation to continue in the class activities.

Praising is a good reinforcer to encourage the children to continue to work on their task. Most teachers used praise the most as reinforcement. Other types of reinforcement strategies used by the teachers are giving candy to the students, give extra attention to well-behaved students, allowing student to be the class leader for the lesson. As stated by the teachers:

Teacher 11

"I realise that some students misbehave because they want the attention. I will tell them straight that if they want me to be good, they need to behave or else I will scold them. I also acknowledge the good students by praising them during my

teaching. This will make other students behave well too because they also want to be praised".

Teacher 5

"I like to address good students because I want to show the other students that if they behave during my lesson, they too will get my focus".

The teachers also use tangible items like food or stickers to encourage the god behaviour. This kind of motivator is used to motivate Class 1 student, the youngest and less capable students.

Teacher 10

"Usually I give reward like food when they can answer my questions or when they are able to respond. I think it's good because I can see my students participate more in the classroom activity".

When the teachers were ask about being selective in giving the reinforcement to students is related to the act of favouritism, one teacher said that:

"This is not favouritism. Teachers are also human. Sometimes we need to feel good about ourselves and that is why we show affection to good students".

Providing positive reinforcements might be effective to deal with children's inappropriate behaviours. However, to quickly stop children's interruptions, it was sometimes necessary for the teachers to respond differently, like scolding the students, using opposite words or ignoring the inappropriate behaviours, or demanding that the children work on another task.

Apart from using reinforcement, the teacher can also use their power relation with the students. The teachers have the power to decide what to teach and who can participate in their lesson. By establishing the power in classroom, students will participate more in teaching and learning session.

Teacher 11 observed that S1 liked to get together with others, so sometimes she would use power to encourage him to join the class. For, example, she would say, "We will have class in the canteen today and you do not have to come. You can stay here". By stating that, teacher is manifesting her power to S1. S1 will not be able to participate to the outside the classroom activity because of his misbehaviour.

Upon hearing this, S1 would say, "No, I want to go too". When the children attempted to get the teachers' attention by exhibiting challenging behaviours, the teachers would ignore their behaviour and exclude them from the next class activity to stop their inappropriate behaviours.

Teacher 11

"Some students are very stubborn like Student A. He does not afraid of scolding. You can scold him as much as you like but he will ignore it. Since we can't do physical punishment, we use this one method called reverse psychology".

According to the teacher, one way to make the student listen to her instruction is by threatening him by "Excluding Student A from certain activity". He needs to stay in the classroom while the rest of the student went out. For the students, going out from the classroom is a privilege. This is because during the school session, they are excluded from the normal school activities and they are required to be in their classroom's area. In fact,

during recess, only a few students are allowed to go to the canteen and buy food and these students need to also buy food for their less capable friends.

To sum up, to manage these young children's inappropriate behaviours, the teachers execute many linguistic strategies. Their ways of setting their classroom routines by demanding class rules and providing a complete lesson plan before teaching the academic lessons. The teachers also provide positive reinforcement to enhance children's attention or comfort their mood. Further, differentiating consequence/response, using reverse psychology or ignoring inappropriate behaviours, and allowing the children to work on another task to calm the students down are the strategies that the teachers adopt in their teaching and these are manifested in their interaction with the students.

5.2.4 Express disappointment and anger

The teachers also express their anger and disappointment to students as well and these are triggered with the students' misbehaviour. The teacher would express their anger by the use of prohibitive marker and raising their voice. According to a teacher, the act of scolding the students is to make sure that the lessons can be conducted smoothly and at the same time to prevent the future misbehaviour. In addition, it is also used to ensure that the other students don't 'join' the misbehaviour.

For some teachers, a simple prohibition works instantly as stated by Teacher 3, " I usually scold the students when they do not pay attention to the lesson and create noise that can disturb other students or other class but my tone is not high. A simple 'do not do that' will do the trick for some students". However, this may not be apply to all situation as some teachers face different problems where students refuse to listen to them. In fact, Teacher 4 said, "These kids are more afraid of male teachers so they will follow our instruction

better". This indicates that the female teacher needs to raise the voice in order to gain control of the classroom.

5.3   Comparing Interactional Strategies in Special Education and Normal Classroom

After exploring the teachers' interactional patterns and their purposes of instruction, this section examines the similarities and differences (if there is any) of the interactional strategies of this study from the normal classroom. The analysis for this section is based on the observation of the special education classroom with the researches of the same subject matters. This section will not only focus on the organisation in the classroom routine and linguistic strategies used by teachers in teaching as presented in Chapter 4 but will also highlight the other matters in relation to interactional strategies.

5.3.1   Teacher talks more

Undoubtedly, most of the time spends in the school by teachers is by talking to and with students. As a matter of fact, the majority of talk that takes place in classroom is controlled by the teachers. For example in managing behaviour or telling students what to do and when to do it, presenting information and followed by assessing students' understanding by listening to them, providing feedback, and using talk to scaffold the comprehension and understanding.

Many researches have been carried out on teacher interactional strategies and styles. The researches are largely based on English classroom setting but these can also be used to reflect on the real classroom teaching through teacher talk. Based on an analysis of a research by Kim and Suh (2004), the middle school teachers in Busan, Korea dominate the 60% of the classroom talk on average and talk about 17 times a minute, which is 4.5 times

more than the student talk. The findings also show that the teacher talks in the teacher-centred classroom more.

Even though interactions vary by classroom, this study finds no differences in the amount of interactions between teachers teaching normal classroom and special education classroom as the teachers in special education classroom that were observed also use the teacher-centred approach and control the overall classroom interaction. However, in special education classrooms, it is notable that teachers spent vast amount of time engaging in behavioural and procedural interactions. This is supported in a previous study by Chapman, et al. (1979), which states that many interactions in special education classroom are behavioural or procedural in nature. This is because the students require teacher aides in order to navigate their way through in the classrooms whether it is lesson related on non-lesson related. Without the help from teachers, special education students will lose focus and quickly become off-task and appear to drift from the teaching and learning session. However, there is a need to mention that only a few of the learning disabled students in this study stood out as having "behaviour problems" but from the teachers' point of view, these problems are not serious.

5.3.2 Speech Act

One of the most common speech act uses in classroom is directives. The teachers use directives to make students do something and the common types of speech act use are command, request, warning and advice. In fact, Park (2005) who analysed teacher talk in primary EFL classrooms in Korea concludes that apart from questions and feedback, directives speech act is generally used in teachers' talk. This is further supported by

Merdana et all (2013, p. 3) who state that teachers in SDN 10 Pringgasela Indonesia use 44.11% of directives in the classroom interaction during the teaching and learning process.

In special education classroom, working on a required task is a form of compliance with the teachers' directives. It may not directly relate to the communication with others, yet it is a way to verify a child's understanding of teachers' intentions and is also a basic element of communication. The teacher participants also use directives as part of their interactional strategies in dealing with students with various learning disabilities. In this study, whenever a student was in conflict with others, he or she would not be allowed to join the activity and he had to enter the classroom to practice writing. The teachers want students to know they obey the teachers' instruction and only then he or she could join activities or go out to the canteen during recess because leaving the classroom during recess is a privilege as only a few students have the permission to go out for recess while the rest need to stay in.

5.3.3 Questioning

One study of special education instruction comes from observations of one teacher over a two-year period (Levine & Mann, 1985). Patterns in her questioning behaviour revealed what seem to be emphases on communicative interactions rather than on eliciting correct answers in response to instruction, contrasting with what occurs in a general education classroom.

Sadler and Mogford-Bevan (1997) reveal that the number of child turns within a conversation strongly correlated with the number of teacher turns. This suggests that the amount of teacher talk is directly related to the amount of child talk addressed to the teacher. This has serious implications for children's learning opportunities, especially for

142

those students who are less loquacious, because they may not have the same opportunities to speak with the teacher that are provided to more outspoken students. This phenomenon also occurs in this classroom where teachers talk only to certain students (see Section 4.4). Analysis reveals she would address the group more often than individuals; it seemed acceptable for just one student (who was "representative" of the group) to answer the question correctly rather than all students giving the correct answer. This focus on routine in the classroom has important implications for behaviour management as well as student learning opportunity.

5.3.4 Humour

Humour can contribute a great deal to the teaching and learning. It enables teachers to not only creating a positive environment, but it is a source of enjoyment for the teachers and also students. According to Chiasson (2002, p. 1) "humorous situations allow the students to express themselves without fear of ridicule and criticism". Anxiety and stress are reduced and the students are able to take more risk in their learning with the use of humour. Similarly, Rareshide (1993, p. 1) find that the most common reasons for using humour are behaviour management, sparking interest, implementing instruction and building or strengthening teacher and student relationships.

In relation to humour, teachers teaching special education classroom agree that sarcasm should never be used unless it is of a playful nature; also, that the use of humour varies with students' sophistication, intelligence, and maturity levels. The situation does not differ much on the use of humour in special education classroom.

Regardless of the students' condition, whether they are ordinary or special need, the teachers perceive the exercise as a light-hearted moment in the course of their lesson plans.

143

Humour should be an integral part of a positive learning classroom environment. Specific goals and objectives must be pre-established and clear in the mind of the teacher. Humour should be one of the many useful tools used by teachers to make their classrooms more conducive to learning. This is supported in a research by Roininen (2010) who looks at upper secondary school English in Foreign Language (EFL) lessons. The function of humour in classroom is discussed by Roininen. The production of humour by the teacher or both the teacher and the students provide positive effects on the use of humour

5.4   Summary

From the analysis, it can be summarised that there seems to be no significant difference in the teachers' interactional strategies in normal classroom and special education classroom. This is also supported by studies that find no difference in the amount of interactions with students with and without disabilities (Alves & Gottlieb, 1986; Chow and Kasari, 1999; Richey & McKinney, 1978). Many of these researchers interpret their findings to represent undifferentiated instruction in which teachers treat all students the same.

However, this is a good thing because special education needs to play a vital role in helping children face extraordinary challenges in education until entering the working world. By communicating with students using the normal style of interaction which is used in everyday conversation, students can learn the language and interactional skills better. Every special child benefits from an enriched language environment, and a classroom is a perfect child-centred environment to provide this enrichment. Using these interactional strategies, special education students can gain new competency through natural, meaningful interactions with the teachers as well as their friends.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The data analysis in the previous chapters show that teachers use different strategies in disseminating information to the students with special needs and they are motivated by several aspects. This chapter provides the conclusion of the findings and the implications of the study. It also put forth recommendations for future research. This chapter is divided into four subsections: Section 6.2 summarises the research and its findings, Section 6.3 discusses the implication of the study, Section 6.4 provides the limitation of the study and Section 6.5 presents the recommendation for future research.

6.2 Summary

This study presents the classroom interactions between teachers and their students with various disabilities. The focus is on the teacher interactional strategies. Three research questions are created to examine the instructional practices of the teachers' teaching special education classroom and to provide the explanations of how and why the teachers applied and adjusted specific strategies and the differences of the interactional strategies in special education and the general classroom.

The result is presented in thematic arrangement as there is no main framework used to analyse the data. The basis of this study is classroom discourse thus the interactions that took place are discussed using four main theories which are: Discourse Management focusing on Initiation-Respond-Feedback (IRF), humour, motherese and speech acts.

First, the teachers produce more utterances than students to explain certain thing to the students and ask the students to do or not to do something. It seems that the teachers use such utterances as directives function in which the teachers control and regulate the students (Halliday, 1976).

The findings show that from a macro perspective, the teachers adapt very well to every student in terms of general communicative style and register. Kelantanese Malay (KM) emerge as the teachers' code choice in the classroom instruction and code-switching occurs in majority of the classroom interaction. Thus, most analysis of the interactions occurs in KM even though SM is the official language. There exists a conflict between the language policy and the actual use of SM and KM in the classroom. Most importantly, the findings have served as a basis for any language training needs for the teachers to enable them to teach. As shown by the students' response, the language of teaching can affect the process of learning.

The analysis chapter also presents from the micro perspective, the description of teacher-students engagement and interaction based on the following themes. In term of the use of motherese as teachers' interactional style, it can be concluded that in special education classroom, the teachers use child-directed speech or motherese to communicate with the students. Motherese refers to the short and simple sentences that are typically used to talk to young children and it is also characterised with the exaggerated use of intonation and stress. In relation to the classroom discourse, the motherese influences the ways the teachers interact with their students as this type of speech can affect the students' attention by making it clear what to pay attention to, what is important and what is less important in

146

different lesson aspects and subsequently causing the students to behave in order to control the classroom.

The use of humour and laughter can contribute to the teaching and learning activities in special education classrooms as it can be used as an element in pedagogical and social. It can provide a positive learning environment for teachers and students. However, the effects and the ways of using humour and laughter vary according to the teacher's interactions in special education classrooms.

More specifically, teachers use humour and laughter in classroom to establish solidarity, express power and serve psychological reaction (Hay, 2000, p. 717 cited from Larassati, 2013 p. 46). Generally, the combination of functions mention by Hay can reduce the tension and stress as well as to create a positive environment. Additionally, in these special classrooms, who using humour may differ according to different situations existed.

Furthermore, the time of using humour should be considered when using of humour and laughter. Teachers can decide the time and the quantity of using humour according to students' feedbacks. That means that the students' feedbacks are important for the use of humour. Moreover, in the special education classrooms, students' cognitive ability is highlighted when speaking of the factors which influence the use of humour and laughter. Because of students' abilities, the extent to understandings and interpretations of humour varies. According to the interview, when the teachers used some types of humour which related to complex meanings and traditions, the students from low-context cultures could not understand and as a result, the embarrassment rose between both sides.

Another factor, which should be highly considered, is that the mental state of the students may influence the use of humour and laughter. Some students who are very sensitive may have negative reactions (such as silence or resistance to learning) because of improper use of laughter. The teachers should consider if they use or how to use laughter as an effective way to assist teaching.

Finally, feedback is also an important factor which affects the use of humour and laughter. It can measure the result of the use of humour and laughter. It can be continuously used if humour and laughter has a positive influence.

In terms of speech act usage in classroom, direct speech is frequently use in conducting teaching and learning session. However, this is considered appropriate since the intention is to benefit the students. Authority role of teacher indicated the vertical status difference in the classroom. Directives are mostly used by the teachers other than the students. It is common if the teachers ask the students to do the orders. To ask the students to say a sentence, to answer the questions, and to follow the teachers' instruction are common orders from the teachers. The expectation of the teachers in using directives in the classroom is the students' compliance. The teachers tend to believe that the whole instructional process in the classroom with regards to direct and indirect speech act is to benefit the students. The functions of the teachers' directives speech acts in special education classrooms are control, organizational and motivational or evaluative functions. These released in utterances to ask the students about certain information, to check the students' knowledge about certain information, to request the students to do certain action, to command students, to check the students understanding, about certain information, to focus the students' attention, to ask the students ability to do something, to warn the

148

students, to suggest students in positive way, to ask permission, and to suggest the students in negative way.

Directives speech acts in the classroom were used to manage and control the students' behaviour during teaching learning process. Teachers' directives demand the students' compliance.

6.3   Limitations and Recommendation for Future Research

Although this study presents information pertaining interactional norms between of teachers teaching special education classes, it has several limitations that may emerge and can affect the result of the research. Firstly, this study only involves one school and the finding may not be reflective of what takes place in other schools of similar characteristics. As such, a generalization of the result might be a little difficult. Bassey (1999, cited in Grosvenor 2001 p. 72) "an important consideration for the case study researcher is that of generalization because it is unlikely to provide information which is generalisable beyond the confines of the school being studied". Given the nature of qualitative study, the findings of this study are only drawn from a special education class with 10 teacher participants. The results are limited in that they are based on the exploration of the practices of only 10 teachers providing communication strategies to students with learning disabilities in a primary school, special education class. Moreover, the sociocultural contexts of the settings and participants, and the use of two languages (Kelantanese Malay and Standard Malay) by the teacher participants limit the transferability of the findings to similar settings. Nonetheless, efforts have been made to provide detailed descriptions of the contexts, teachers, and students, so the transferability of these findings through the relevant detailed descriptions of the participants and settings within a similar context.

The second limitation is the observer's paradox. It is possible that some of the observed interactions are influenced by the researcher presence in the classroom. Some of the teacher participants feel uncomfortable at the beginning. However, because of the considerably prolonged study period (about three months) and numerous classroom observations, as well as the efforts from the researcher to make the teachers know that the study is to learn about their communication strategies, the teachers became more open. The students were only curious at the beginning of the observation and later they were not bothered with the presence of the researcher and the video camera during the teaching and learning session.

Third, the research faces apparent constraint of time. As stated by Rose & Grosvenor (2001, p. 30) "for small-scale researchers the possibilities of devoting a great deal of time to a direct approach like observation is not possible". Since the study is conducted within a limited time thus the result may not be very accurate. The time frame in which this study is conducted is another limitation in that observations conducted may not be representative of the whole school year.

Finally, the definition used to explain the term learning disabilities varies across countries. The definition is different between the available literature and the local context. The local definition encompassed a wide variety of disabilities such as autism, mental retardation, ADHD, specific learning disorder and Down's syndrome. Compared to Malaysia, the western countries included only certain disabilities into the group. Since some literature used for this study was carried out in the western countries, the material need to be chosen with much caution.

Lastly, all parties in education - parents, school staffs, administrators, and students themselves are very interested in the relationship of the time students spend learning in school. This study has attempted to explain and describe that relationship. An extensive body of research and literature has pointed out and examine this topic from many perspectives. The purpose of this paper is to focus on how teacher-student contacts time in special education classroom. The results of the review of the literature may not be conclusive but they do provide evidence that apart from interactional strategies, effective use of teacher-student contact time can enhance student learning and improve academic achievement. It is specifically recommended that schools and classroom teachers focus on enhancing student engagement and on strategies that make better use of allocated learning time which ultimately leads to more and better academic learning time.

These two factors, taken together, can maximize student learning. Ways on the currently allocated time is used that can make the difference in student performance to improving student learning instead of the amount of time allocated for student learning and that more hours or days in the school year . By emphasizing student engagement and reducing obstacles to such teacher-student contact, opportunity-to learn will be improved. It is the role of policy-makers to support educators' attempts to enhance engagement and the educators' responsibility to ensure teacher-student contact is focused on learning opportunities.

This study increases our understanding about the nature of teacher-student interaction regarding teachers' instruction patterns, as well as the purposes of the instructions. More research is needed to explore related topics. The following recommendations provide a possible direction for future investigate:

1. Since the primary focus of this study was the teachers and their interactions with the students, data about students and parents are not examined. The additional information and knowledge of students with developmental disabilities and their parents' expectations will help the understanding of how teachers perceive students with developmental disabilities and how this influences their instruction decisions.

2. The result shows that in the teacher participants' speech, they frequently use child-directed speech with the students. Hence, future research may investigate the use of motherese of teachers in affecting the rate and quality of language acquisition for various students with disabilities.

3. Choice-making is an important factor for teaching individuals' self-determination, which is also one of the current zeitgeists in the field of developmental disabilities (Singh *et al*., 2003). This study does not spend much effort to investigate the topic of choice-making because it was not the focus; however, the results showed that the teachers provided few choice-making opportunities to the children due to their high control and teacher-centered instruction. For this reason, it will be essential for future research to investigate the strategies of choice making used by teacher in special education classroom.

4. Given the small sample size of this study, it is important that more research studies are conducted on the nature of the interaction between teachers and students with disabilities across languages, settings and geographical regions. Future research should explore the nature of the interaction between teachers and children with

learning disabilities across language, settings and geographical regions to compare the differences among them.

5. There is limited research has been conducted to explore social communication skills for students with multiple learning disabilities, more research needs to address teachers' understanding of the meanings of young children's nonverbal behaviours and how their interpretation of the children's body language affects their practice.

Some crucial issues arise from the findings regarding how to formulate strategies to develop an easy way to teach the children to learn in special education classroom. Some principles of responsive pedagogy apply to this. The teachers' use of the native language was consistent with principles of bilingual education. The results of this study confirm that examined teacher-student discourse from a sociocultural perspective providing understanding of how cognitive, social cultural, emotional, and interactional factors impact instruction (Forman & McCormick, 1995; Kraker, 2000). Implication to teacher education should adopt the training programs that suitable to Malaysian cultural beliefs and practices in order to ensure the teachers will be willing and easily to execute in classroom settings in order to teach special education children.

REFERENCES

Abdul Hamid Mahmood. (2006). *Sintaksis dialek Kelantan*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

Act 685, *the Persons with Disabilities Act* (PWDA) in 2008,

Adi Yasran Abdul Aziz (2005) *Inventori Konsonan Dialek Melayu Kelantan: Satu Penilaian Semula*, in Jurnal Pengajian Melayu vol. 16 (p 200-217)

Adi Yasran Abdul Aziz, (2011). *Suku Kata Dasar Dialek Kelantan Berdasarkan Teori Optimality*, GEMA Online™ Journal of Language Studies, Vol.2, Issue 2, retrieved on September 12 2014 from http://academicpublishingplatforms.com/article.php?journal=GEMA&number=2&article=1134

Amar-Singh HSS (2008). *Meeting the needs of Children with Disability in Malaysia, Medical Journal of Malaysia*, Vol.63 No.1, March, accessed from www.crc.gov.my/documents/J08-50_MeetingtheNeedsofChildrenwithDisabilityinMalaysia.pdf on 26 July 2011

Asmah Haji Omar. (1985). *Susur galur bahasa Melayu (Edisi pertama).* Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

Asmah Haji Omar. (1992). *The linguistic scenery in Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur*: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka

Asmah Hj. Omar. (1977). *The phonological diversity of the Malay dialects*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

Attardo, S. (1994). *Linguistic Theory of Humour*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter

Attardo, S. (1999). *The place of cooperation in cognition*, European conference of Cognitive Science (ECCS'99). Sienna, Italy, October. 27-30: 459-464

154

Bach, K., & Harnish, R. M. (1979*). Linguistic communication and speech acts* (Vol. 4). Cambridge, MA: MIT press.

Barraja-Rohan, A. M. (2011*). Using conversation analysis in the second language classroom to teach interactional competence*. Language Teaching Research 15(4): 479-507.

Bloome (Ed.). *Literacy and schooling.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Bloome, D. (2007). *Words and power.* Language Arts, 85 (2), 148-149.140

Bloome, D., Carter, S., Christian, B., Otto, S., & Shuart-Faris, N. (2008*). Discourse analysis and the study of classroom language and literacy events: A microethnographic approach*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Boardman, A. G. (2005). *Interactions between teachers and students with learning disabilities in general education classrooms*. ProQuest Information and Learning, DAI-A 65/08, 2894.

Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2 ed.). New York : Longman .

Brown, P & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Cazden, C. B. (1988*). Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning. Portsmouth*, NH: Heinemann.

Chapman, R. B., Larsen, S. C., & Parker, R. M. (1979). *Interactions of first grade teachers with learning disordered children.* Journal of Learning Disabilities, 12, 225-230.

Chen, YS (2008) *The Nature of Teacher-Student Interactions during Communication Intervention for Young Children with Developmental Disabilities Including Severe/Multiple Developmental Disabilities*. Doctorate, The University of Texas, Faculty of the Graduate School.

Cohen, A., & Court, D. (2003). *Ethnography and case study: A comparative analysis.* Academic Exchange Quarterly, 7, 283-287.

Coupland, N. (1998). *What is sociolinguistic theory?.* Journal of Sociolinguistics, 2(1), 110-117.

Coupland. N., Coupland J., Giles. H. &Henwood.K. (1988).Accomodating the elderly: Invoking and extending a theory. Language in Society 17.(1-41). Retrieved on October 4 2012 from http://www.jstor.org/discover/10.2307/4167896?uid=3738672&uid=2129&uid=2&uid=70&uid=4&sid=21101296947057

Delpit, L. (1988). *The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children*. Harvard Educational Review, 58, 280–298.

Delpit, L. (1995). *Other people's children*. New York: The New Press.

Department of Social Welfare (2012).Masalahpembelajaran in BukuPanduanPendaftaran Orang KurangUpaya.

Donahue, M.(1987). Interaction between linguistic and pragmatic development in learning disable children. In Rosenberg, Advances in applied psycholinguistic. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Dukmak, S. (2010). *Classroom interaction in regular and special education middle primary classrooms in the United Arab Emirates*. British Journal of Special Education 37(1): 39-48.

Final Rule. Department of education. Federal Register, 71 (156), Rules and Regulations, 34 CFR Parts 300 and 301, RIN 1820–AB57.

Forman, E. A., McCormick, D. E. (1995). *Discourse analysis*. Remedial & Special Education, 16(3), 150-158.

Frederickson, N. (2010). *Bullying or befriending? Children's responses to classmates with special needs.* British Journal of Special Education 37(1): 4-12.

Gasiorek, J., & Giles, H. (2012*). Effects of Inferred Motive on Evaluations of Nonaccommodative Communication*. Human Communication Research, 38(3), 309-331. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2958.2012.01426.x

Gleitman, L (1987). *The current status of the motherese hypothesis.* Journal of child language. 11 43-79

Goffman, E. (1955). *On face-work: An analysis of ritual elements in social interaction. Psychiatry*: Journal for the Study of International Processes 18, 213-231.

Goodman, K. (1989). *The truth about DIBELS: What it is, what it does*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Greenberg, M.T. , Murray, C., (2014). *Relationships with teachers and bonds with school: Social emotional adjustment correlates for children with and without disabilities*. Psychology in the Schools, 38(1), 25-41.

Gregor, E. M. C. and E. Campbell (2001). *The Attitudes of Teachers in Scotland to the Integration of Children with Autism into Mainstream Schools.*. Autism 5(2): 189-207.

Hallahan, J. B., & Kauffman, J. M. (1986). *Classrooms for students with learning disabilities: Realities, dilemmas, and recommendations for service delivery*. In B. 214 Wong (Ed.), Learning about learning disabilities (2nd ed.). San Diego: Academic Press.

Haniz Ibrahim (n.d). Special education, inclusive practices and the teaching of sciences and mathematics to children with special needs.UniversitiPendidkan Sultan Idris, Retrieved October 3, 2012, from http://www.recsam.edu.my/cosmed/cosmed07/AbstractsFullPapers2007/keynotes%20&%20plenary%5CPL001F.pdf

HasnahToran,Mohd. HanafiMohd.Yasin,Mohd. MokhtarTahar,&NoraniSalleh, (2010) *Tahaplatihan,pengetahuandankeyakinan guru-guru pendidikankhastentangautisme.*JurnalPendidikan Malaysia, 35 (1). p. 19-26.

Hay, J. (2000). *Functions of humor in the conversations of men and women*. Journal of Pragmatics, 32(6), 709-742.

Heath, S. B. (1982). *What No Bedtime Story Means: Narrative Skills at Home and School. Language in Society*, 11(1), 49-76.

Helps, S., et al. (1999). *Autism: The Teacher's View*. Autism 3(3): 287-298.

Helps.S., Newson-Davis I.C. &Callias.M. (1993). Autism: The teacher's view. Autism 3(287-298). Retrieved on October 4, 2012 from http://aut.sagepub.com/content/3/3/287

Henderson, H., et al. (2006). *Response monitoring, the error-related negativity, and differences in social behavior in autism*. Brain Cogn 61(1): 96-109.

Heward, W. L. (2003). *Ten faulty notions about teaching and learning that hinder the effectiveness of special education*. The journal of special education, 36(4), 1-20

Holmes, J. (2001). *An introduction to sociolinguistics* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.

Hymes, D. (1972). *Models of the interaction of language and social life*. In J. Gumperz and D. Hymes (eds.). Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication (pp. 35-71). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (2006). Assistance to States for the Education of Children with Disabilities and Preschool Grants for Children with Disabilities; Final Rule. Department of education. Federal Register, 71 (156), Rules and Regulations, 34 CFR Parts 300 and 301, RIN 1820–AB57.

Jones, E., et al. (1999*). Strategies of Accommodation:: Development of a Coding System for Conversational Interaction*. Journal of Language and Social Psychology 18(2): 123-151.

Kim, J. H. (2006). *Issues of corrective feedback in second language acquisition.* Working papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 2(4), 1e24.

Kotthoff, H. (2006) *Gender and humor. The state of the art.* Journal of Pragmatics 38, 4–25.

Kraker, M. J. (2000). *Classroom discourse: Teaching, learning, and learning disabilities. Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16(3), 295-313.

Larassati A. (2013). *Entertaining male clients in an Indonesian karaoke café: a study of accommodation strategies*. Unpublished M.A dissertation. The University of Malaya

Lee, K. (2001). *Study on the effect of environmental arrangement to promote communication in severely handicapped children* .Taiwan Electronic Theses & Dissertations System, National library system number: 89NTNU0284010.

Lemke, J. L. (1990). *Talking science: Language, learning and values*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Levine, J. M., & Wang, M. C. (Eds.). (1985). *Teacher and student perceptions: Implications for learning*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

MacBeth, J., Galton, M., Steward, S., MacBeath, A. & Page, C. (2006) *The Costs of Inclusion: Inclusion Policy and Practice in English Primary, Secondary and Special Schools*. Cambridge: Victoire Press.

MacKenzie, H. (2008). Reaching and teaching the child with autism spectrum disorder using learning preferences and strengths. London: Jessica Kingsley

Maddox, J. I. (1997). *Mother and special education preschool teacher perceptions of the communicative competence of children with severe, multiple disabilities* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1997). Dissertation Abstracts International, 58(2):422.

Manisah, M.A, Ramlee, M. & Zalizan, M.J. (2006).*An empirical study on teachers' perception towards inclusive education in Malaysia*.Interntional Journal of Special Education.21(3). Retrieved October 1, 2012, from

http://www.experts.scival.com/ukm/pubDetail.asp?t=pm&id=33750047200&n=Z alizan+Mohd.+Jelas&u_id=1472

Marchant, P., et al. (2006). *Autistic Spectrum Disorders and Asian Children*. British Journal of Educational Studies 54(2): 230-244.

McKinney, S. E., Campbell-Whately, G. D., & Kea, C. D. (1978). *Managing student behavior in urban classrooms*. Clearing House, 79(1), 16-20.

Mehan, H. (1979). *"What time is it Denise?": Asking known information questions in classroom discourse.* Theory into Practice, 18(4), 285-294.

Mehan, H. (1998). *The study of social interaction in educational settings: Accomplishments and unresolved issues*. Human Development, 41, 245-269.

Mercer, N. (1992). *Guiding the construction of knowledge: Talk amongst teachers and learners*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.

Mercer, N. (2005). *Words and minds: How we use language to think together*. London: Routledge.

Mertens, D. M. (2005). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology* (2nd edition). London: Thousand Oaks.

Mohd Rizal, M.S., & Muallimah, A. (2010). *Problems faced by special education integration program teachers in teaching and learning of Life Skills in secondary schools, Kota Tinggi district, Johor state*. Retrieved May 15, 2013 from http:eprints.utm.my/11011/1/Masalah_Guru_Pendidikan_Khas_Program_Integras i_Dalam_Pengajaran_Dan_Pembelajaran_Kemahiran_Hidup_Di_Sekolah_Menen gah.pdf

Monroe. D.M. (2009) *Literacy and autism: Case studies of two kindergarten children, their teachers, and their parents*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania.Retrieved October 3, 2012, fromhttp://dspace.iup.edu/bitstream/handle/2069/227/Dana+Monroe.pdf;jsessioni d=913D08B43EC65CEBAE7DD778CC924C39?sequence=1

n.d (2001). *JKM kemas kini pendaftaran OKU. Utusan Malaysia,* p.1. Retrieved on June 3, 2013 from http://www.utusan.com.my/utusan/info.asp?y=2011&dt=1103&sec=Timur&pg= wt_02.htm

n.d (2008). *Persons with Disabilities Act 2008 (Act 685)*, accessed from www.mind.org.my/images/upload/file/Persons%20With%20Disabilities%20Act %202008.pdf on 6 October 2010.

Newport, E. L., H. Gleitman, & L. R. Gleitman (1977). *Mother, I'd rather do it myself: Some effects and noneffects of maternal speech style*. In C. Snow and C. Ferguson, eds., *Talking to children: Language input and acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Newport, El & Gleitman H (1977). *Maternal self-repitition and the child acquisition of language*. PRCLD 13, 40-55

Nguyen, T. P. (2007). *Cross cultural pragmatics: Refusals of requests by Australian native speakers of English and Vietnamese learners of English*. Unpublished M.A dissertation. The University of Queensland. Retrieved December 14, 2013 from

Norrick, R.N.& J. Klein 2008. *Class clowns: talking out of turn with an orientation toward humor*. Lozd Papers in Pragmatics 4 (1)/ Special Issue in Humour, 83-107.

O'Sullivan, P. B & Flanagin, A. J. (2003). *Reconceptualizing 'flaming' and other problematic messages*. New media & society, 5(1), 1461-4448. DOI: 10.1177/1461444803005001908

Peppé, S., et al. (2006). *Assessing prosodic and pragmatic ability in children with high-functioning autism*. Journal of Pragmatics 38(10): 1776-1791.

Peter, T. ,Edgerton, J. D., & Roberts, L. W. (2008). *Back to basics: Socio-economic, gender, and regional disparities in Canada's educational system*. Canadian Journal of Education, 31(4), 861-888

Rose, R. & Grosvenor, I. (2001) *Doing Research in Special Education*. London: David Fulton.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A. & Jefferson, G. (1974). *A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation*. Language 50, 696-735.

Sadeghi, S., et al. (2011). *Application of Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis (CCDA) in Analyzing Classroom Interaction*. English Language Teaching 5(1).

Sadler, R. (1989). *Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems. Instructional Science*, 18(2), 119-144.

Saharinen, K. (2007). *Huumoria koulussa – kiusoittelu opettajan keinona suhtautua oppilaan virheisiin*. In L. Tainio (ed.), Vuorovaikutusta luokkahuoneessa. Näkökulmana keskusteluanalyysi. Helsinki: Gaudeamus, 261-287.

Santrock, J. W. (2008*). Educational Psychology* (3rd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Saville-Troike, M. (2003). *The ethnography of communication* (3rd ed.). Malden, MA: Basil.

Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge: C mbridge University.

Searle, J. & Vanderveken, D. (1985). *Foundations of illocutionary logic*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.

Servaite,L. (2005).*The Anatomy of A Joke*. Retrieved on September 2014 from http: www.vddb.laba.lt\fedora\get\Lt-elaba-0001 DS.002.1.02.ARTI

Shepard, C. A., Giles, H., & Le Poire, B. A. (2001). *Communication Accommodation Theory*. In W. P. Robinson (Ed.), *The New Handbook of Language and Social Psychology* (p. 33-56). Chichester, England: Wiley.

Sigafoos, J. (2000). *Communication development and aberrant behavior in children with developmental disabilities*. Education and raining in Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities, 35(2), 168-176.

Sinclair, J, & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Toward an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sirota, K. G. (2004). *Positive politeness as discourse process: politeness practices of high-functioning children with autism and Asperger Syndrome*. Discourse Studies 6(2): 229-251.

Snow, C. E. (1977). *Mother's speech research: from input to interaction*. In C.E. Snow & C. A. Ferguson (Eds.). Talking to children: language input and acquisition (p. 1- 167.23). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Tannen, D. (1989) *Talking Voices: Repetition, Dialogue, and Imagery in Conversational Discourse.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Teoh H.J., Cheong S.K. &Woo P.J. (2008)Student learning disability experiences, training and services needs of secondary school teachers. The Malaysian Journal of Psychiatry 17 (2) 1-14. Retrieved October 20, 2012, fromhttp://www.mjpsychiatry.org/index.php/mjp/article/viewFile/37/37

UNESCO International Bureau of Education (2009), Malaysia : Differentiating instruction for students with learning disabilities. In Sub-regional workshop on "Building inclusive education system to respond to diverse needs of disabled children". JakartaRetrieved October 20, 2012, fromhttp://www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Inclusive_Education/Reports/jakarta_09/malaysia_inclusion_09.pdf

United Nation International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF)(2006) NVT: *Child disability survey 1998*. New York, USA

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wells, G. (1974). *Dialogic inquiry: Toward a sociocultural practice and theory of education.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wells, G. (1987). *The negotiation of meaning: Talking and learning at home and at school*. In B. Fillion, C. N. Hedley, & E. C. DiMartino (Eds.), *Home and School:Early Language and Reading* (p. 3-25). Norwood: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Wertsch, J. V. (1991). *A sociocultural approach to social shared cognition*. In L. B. Resnick & J. M. Levine & S. D. Teasley (Eds.), *Perspectives on socially shared cognition* (p. 85-100). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Whyte, E. M., et al. (2013). *Learning of idiomatic language expressions in a group intervention for children with autism.* Autism 17(4) (p 449-464)

Williams, M. & Gersch, I. (2004). *Teaching in mainstream and special schools: are the stresses similar or different?* British Journal of Special Education, 31(3), (p.157-162)

Wood, L. & Kroger, R. (2000). *Doing Discourse Analysis: Methods for Studying Action in Talk and Text*. London: Sage.

Yeo. W.H. (2007).*Development of multimedia learning resources for childrenwith learning disabilities in an undergraduate specialeducation technology course*.Malaysian Education Deans' Council Journal. 1, 29-36.

Yoong, D. (2010). *Orderliness and Disorderliness of Interaction During Question Time in the Malaysian House of Representatives*. Doctorate, La Trobe University, School of Communication, Arts and Critical Enquiry Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences.

Ziv, A. (1984) *Personality and Sense of Humour*, New York: Springer

Zuraidah Mohd Don. (2003*). Language-dialect code-switching: Kelantanese in a multilingual context*. Multiligua, 22, 21-40