CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION [Later 20cl. A term in linguistics for the process in which a child, in the course of normal devel opment, learns a first language (or often, two or more languages). There are several methods for studying the subject. One strategy is to record samples of child speech and to analyse the emerging patterns of language which these sample display. Another is to set up experimental simations in which children are asked to carry our various tasks involving speech production or comprehension. Analysis is also carried out of the input language used by adults when they talk to children (motherese or caretaker speech) and of the nature of the interaction between them The investigation may involve single children studied over extended periods of time (losgitudinal studies) or groups of varying sizes, compositions, and ages studied at a particular point in time (cross-sectional studies).

Child development. It is commonplace to talk 'milestones' in relation to child development general, but this metaphor does not work as procisely for the development of speech. Sounds grammar, vocabulary, and social linguistic skill are emerging simultaneously but at different rates, and significant progress can be made or several fronts in a matter of days. There an also many individual differences in the order acquisition of specific features of language which need to be taken into account. However, more children appear to follow a similar path as the acquire sounds and grammatical structures, broad similarities have been observed in relate to types of vocabulary and conversational still The aim of child language research is to explain the basis of this common order of emergence allowing for the complex kinds of individual variation which are readily apparent.

Theoretical approaches. Several approaches been applied to child language data. Certain tures of the data seem to be the result of children imitating what they hear in adult spec (for example, some of the early attempts sound patterns, and the acquisition of words), but very little of grammatical structure is learned by simple imitation. This was noticed by researchers, who pointed out child coinages such as mouses for mice or for gone could not have been produced that a process of imitation (for adults do not say things), but must represent the child's

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acquired. furthermore, direct correction and coaching have very little effect, showing the important role the child's own efforts. Various ways of addining this internal ability were proposed. most notably Chomsky's argument that children be credited with an innate language acquisdevice: a set of outline principles about the language is structured and a procedure for according the remainder. Investigators such as Paget argued for the importance of relating the marrence of children's language to their underintellectual or cognitive development. Othstressed the importance of analysing the of the input presented to them by adult meakers. It is now apparent that each of these factors has a role to play in guiding the course of acquisition, but the nature of their inter-Argendence is far from clear.

seges of development. At a descriptive level, amaderable progress has been made, especially English, in establishing the order of emerof sounds, grammatical structures, and (to lesser extent) vocabulary, and determining the ancholinguistic principles involved. The focus been on the earliest years, including the preinquistic period of the first year. Between birth and 12 months, several stages can be detected in stad's emerging sound-producing and perabilities, beginning with a range of basic belogical noises reflecting such states as hunger, discomfort, and contentment (0-8 weeks), and proceeding to a stage of cooing and laughing weeks), vocal play (20-30 weeks), babbling weeks), and the first melodically shaped merances (9-18 months). At around a year, first appear, though these are not easily idenwith the words of the adult lexicon, but to have idiosyncratic meanings and to be s primitive sentences (holophrases). Dada, said with appropriate intonation sesture, might mean 'There's daddy' or daddy?' or 'Pick me up, daddy'. Morethe word dada might refer at this stage not to the male parent, but also to the female or to other adults, or to certain animals, to objects. From 12 months, an express-** **cabulary is acquired which by 18 months around 50 words in size. By that time, understand far more words than they estimates suggest three or four times as In the next six months, expressive vocabapproaches 200 words, and in the third moves into the thousands. Detailed of the growth in vocabulary size in older are as yet unavailable, though several been made of the processes which to affect children's lexical progress, such as of meaning, as when dog is used

for all animals, and *under-extension*, as when *dog* is used for one kind of dog only.

Pronunciation and grammar. Most research time has been devoted to the emergence of pronunciation and grammar. Children do not learn all their sounds in an identical order, but seem to share certain general tendencies. Most English consonants are acquired between the ages of 2 and 4 years. Moreover, within this sequence, certain important trends have been established. For example, consonants are more likely to be first used correctly at the beginnings of words, with final consonants emerging later. Several processes of simplifying pronunciation have been identified in early speech, such as the avoidance of consonant clusters (sky pronounced without the s), the dropping of an unstressed syllable (banana pronounced as nana), or the replacement of fricative sounds such as [f] and [s] by plosive sounds such as [p] and [t]: for example, shoe as /tuz/ and fish as /pz/. During the second year, some children make great use of a process of reduplication, with the different syllables of a word being pronounced in the same way, as when (in one child) sister became [sisi] and mouth became [muzmuz]. Patterns of intonation also develop in the early years (such as the difference between stating and questioning, using the melody of the voice only), but some of the more subtle intonation patterns are still being learned as late as the teenage years, such as the difference between I THOUGHT it would rain (and it has) and I thought it would RAIN (but it hasn't).

Grammatical patterns in the early years are fairly well established for English. A stage of single-word sentences appears from just before 12 months of age until 18 months, such as bye, gone, teddy, and mama. At around 18 months, children begin to put two words together, to make simple 'telegrammatic' sentences such as dada bye, want car, and mine lorry. Sentences increase in complexity during the third year, with more advanced features of clause structure being introduced. Clauses add extra elements, stabilizing word order, and developing a clearer subject-verb-object structure; and the hierarchical structure of a sentence develops, with phrasal complexity emerging within clauses, and ridding the sentences of their telegrammatic appearance. My daddy do kick that ball is a typical sentence for a 2-year-old. Each of the elements (subject, verb, object) appears as more than one word (a phrase), so that the sentence now has two layers of structure. By age 3, there is still greater complexity, in the form of linked sequences of clauses, using such words as and, but, cos (for 'because'), and then.

Narratives, sometimes of great length, now make their appearance. As sentence control

develops, so more attention is paid to the more subtle aspects of grammar, such as the learning of the irregular forms of nouns, verbs, pronouns, and other parts of speech. At 3, most children are making errors in the use of certain pronouns (such as me not like that mouse); by 4, most such errors have been eliminated. During the early school years there are still several aspects of English grammar to be acquired, such as the rarer irregular forms, more complex patterns of sentence connection (such as the use of although), and the use of multiple subordinate clauses. There is evidence of grammatical development right through the primary school years until, as the teenage years approach, all that is left is the learning of more subtle aspects of grammatical style and the building up of vocabulary.

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Other skills. The task of language acquistion requires more than the learning of the structural skills of sounds, grammar, and vocabulary. Children must also learn to use these structures appropriately in everyday situations. They need to develop conversational skills, the rules of politeness (such as when to say please and thank you), the correct use of forms of address, and how to make requests in a direct or indirect manner ('I was wondering if you could . . .'). Older children need to be able to handle such 'manipulating' features of language as well, you know, and actually, to learn to decode and use more subtle interactional features (such as sarcasm), and to cope with such stylistic differences as formal and informal speech. School brings an encounter with learning to read and write, though for many children considerable awareness of written language has come from reading materials at home. Finally, children have to develop a set of metalinguistic skills (the ability to reflect on and talk about language), through the use of a range of popular, semi-technical, and technical notions, such as sound, word, page, sentence, capital letter. The task of language acquisition is complex. The fact that it is largely complete by puberty makes it one of the most remarkable (if not the most remarkable) of all learning achievements.

See ANALOGY, BABBLING, BABY TALK, HALLI-DAY, LANGUAGE LEARNING, LANGUAGE PATHO-LOGY, PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, READING, SPELLING. D.C. [EDUCATION, LANGUAGE].

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