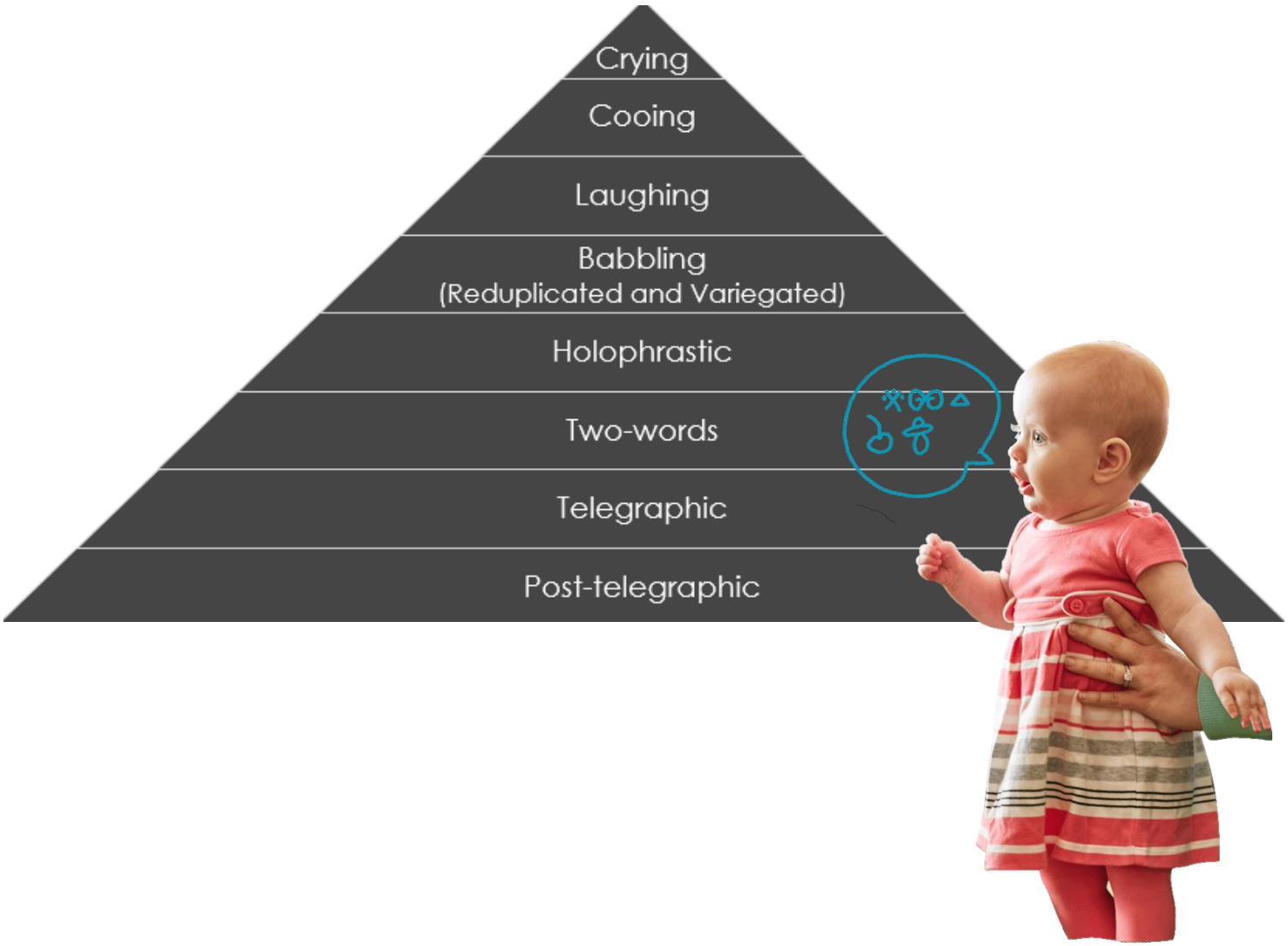
KNOWLEDGE ORGANISERS

Child Language Acquisition (Speech)



Stages of Development

1.	Communicative competence	The ability to form accurate and understandable utterances using the grammar system, and to understand social context for using them.
Pre-verbal Stage (0-12 months):		
2.	Pre-verbal stage	Experimenting with noises/sounds but without producing recognisable words – it can be further broken down into the **vegetative state**, **cooing** and **babbling**.
Vegetative Stage (0-7 months):		
3.	Vegetative state	The baby makes discomfort sounds such as crying - this is instinctive to how a baby feels.
4.	Crying	The first noise a baby makes. They exercise the vocal cords to: learn to make different sounds, learn that making a noise will gain attention, and signal a physical need like hunger or tiredness. Parents suggest they are attuned to the different cries, but it has been suggested that parents actually just recognise when crying changes in intensity.
5.	Non-vocal interactions	Before communication can be achieved through speech, babies are able to communicate through gestures, such as pointing.
Cooing (4-6 months):		
6.	Cooing	Distinct from crying but not yet forming recognisable vowels and consonants. A baby experiments with the noises that can be made when the tongue and back of the mouth come into contact; the baby begins to develop control over the vocal muscles.
7.	Laughing	Starts at around 4 months.
Babbling (6-12 months):		
8.	Babbling	The baby produces phonemes, often in the form of combinations of vowels and consonants (eg. *ma, ga, ba, baba, gaga*), they are largely those that appear in the child's native language.
9.	CVC	Consonant-vowel-consonant construction – this is typical of early sound production.
10.	Reduplicated babbling	Appears first and consists of a child making the same sounds again and again (*eg. babababa*)
11.	Variegated babbling	Emerges later and involves variation in the consonant and vowel sounds being produced. This does not resemble recognisable words yet (*eg. daba, manamoo*)
12.	Proto words	'Made up' words that a child will use to represent a word they cannot pronounce (*eg. 'rayray' for raisin'*). These are not true first words as they have no semantic content.
Holophrastic Stage (12-18 months):		
13.	Holophrastic stage	A child conveys a whole sentence worth of meaning in just a single word or labels things in the environment around them. The child is deliberately conveying meaning through word choice, which differentiates it from babbling. The caregiver must interpret the child's meaning, based on the word used and other non-verbal cues; the caregiver will often expand on a child's utterance to model the accurate form and lend clarity to what the child has said.
14.	Holophrase	A single word expressing a whole idea which can act as a declarative, exclamative, interrogative, or imperative.
15.	Noun bias	The number of nouns exceeds the number of other word classes in early vocabulary.
16.	Overextension	When a word is used more broadly to describe things with similar properties, other than the specific item to which the word actually applies (*eg any round fruit may be an 'apple' or rats, squirrels, and rabbits are all 'mice'*).
17.	Underextension	When a word is used in a limited way which does not recognise its full meaning (*eg. knowing the word banana for one in real life but not for a bunch of bananas or a picture of a banana*).
18.	Hypernym	An overarching (category) noun which encompasses many other nouns.
19.	Hyponym	A noun with a narrower meaning which is part of a hypernym (category member).
20.	Gestalt expression	Compressing a string of words into a single utterance as they have not been able to segment (*eg. 'what's that?' = 'wassat?'*). It is also argued that these are **constructions** which the child is using as units of language.
21.	Segment	To be able to perceive the boundaries between words – this skill is gradually acquired.
22.	Comprehension	The ability to understand language, which might differ from how much an individual can produce.
23.	Production	The language that people produce, which might be different from how much they can understand.
Two-Word Stage (18-24 months):		
24.	Two-word stage	Using two-word combinations in a word order which often resembles adult speech. Grammar begins to be understood as they demonstrate some understanding of the relationship

		between two words and the vocabulary range will start to include more verbs, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns.
25.	Productive vocabulary	The language which can be used (they will understand far more than this): • 18 months – 50 words • 24 months – 200 words • 36 months – 2,000 words
26.	Naming insight	Children begin to realise that everything around them has a name.
27.	Vocabulary spurt	A child displays a sudden growth in their vocabulary between 24-36 months; they switch from learning approximately two words per week per week to suddenly acquiring and using around 20 new words per week.
28.	MLU	Mean Length of Utterance – This is measured in morphemes (not syllables); Roger Brown found that between 12 and 26 months, children are expected to have MLU's of about 1.75
Telegraphic Stage (24-36 months):		
29.	Telegraphic stage	Utterances become longer; children convey ideas through content words and an emerging use of grammatical words, which are often omitted as they are not needed for meaning.
30.	Content word	Content words convey meaning.
31.	Grammatical word	Needed for structural accuracy but not for meaning so are often omitted and gradually acquired.
32.	Virtuous error	Errors in morphology that have some underlying logic to demonstrate that learning has taken place (*eg. I runned, Three mens*).
33.	Syntactic inversion	Reversal of the normal order of the words and phrases in a sentence, learnt when forming a question (*eg. 'I can eat the cake' (S;MAV;V;O) becomes 'Can I eat the cake?' (MAV;S;V;O)*).
Post-telegraphic Stage (36+ months):		
34.	Post-telegraphic stage	Children are able to use grammatically more complex combinations.
35.	Normal non-fluency	Hesitation whilst mental processing occurs, especially when attempting more complex constructions or recounting stories (*eg. she runned after it – and – and – and the bird…)*
Phonology:		
36.	Biological noises	Vomiting, coughing, burping, crying, a low cooing sound, etc. These are common to the whole human race: there are no Icelandic burps or Thai cries.
37.	Melodic utterances	Melody, rhythm and intonation. Parents assume that these sounds have different functions: questioning, exclaiming, greeting etc. Babies of different nationalities sound increasingly different from each other.
38.	Early-8	Speech sounds develop at different rates; aged **1-3** they should become familiar with: /m/ /n/ /j/ /b/ /w/ /d/ /p/ /h/.
39.	Middle-8	Speech sounds develop at different rates; aged **3-6½** they should become familiar with: /t/ /ŋ/ /k/ /g/ /f/ /v/ /tʃ/ /dʒ/.
40.	Late-8	Speech sounds develop at different rates; aged 5-**7½** they should become familiar with: /ʃ/ /ʒ/ /l/ /r/ /s/ /z/ /ð/ /θ/ + clusters.
41.	Assimilation	Swapping one consonant/vowel for another (*eg. borry = lorry*)
42.	Consonant cluster/Reduction	Reducing phonologically more complex units into simpler ones – from two (or more) consonants down to one (*eg. dis = dish; fis = fish*).
43.	Deletion	Omitting a particular sound within a word, usually the final consonant or a weak syllable (*eg. jamas = pyjamas; tephone = telephone*).
44.	Diminutive	Adding a suffix to make a word phonologically easier to say (*eg. doggie*).
45.	Metathesis	Swapping sounds in a word (*eg. relevant = relevant*).
46.	Reduplicated words	Repeating words (*eg. bye bye; moo moo*).
47.	Reduplication	Repeating consonants clusters or vowel clusters in a word (*eg. snowwowman*).
48.	Substitution	Swapping one sound for another which is easier to pronounce (*eg. wok = rock*).
49.	Th-fronting	Replacing th- sounds (/ð/; /θ/) with /f/ or /v/ (*eg. fink = think; vem = them*).
50.	Order of mention	When the sequence of clauses parallels the sequence of events – it is the basis for storytelling and children find this easy to follow, especially if they are given instructions (*eg. A happened, then B happened, then C…*).
51.	Reverse order of mention	When the sequence of clauses does not parallel the sequence of events – this is often achieved using conjunctions such as before/after, and time adverbials (*eg. 'Before you go outside, put your books away'* – some children find this reverse order hard to decode).

Stages of Development Theories

Babbling:				
1.	Petitto and Holowka (2002)	They videoed infants and noted that most babbling came from the right side of the mouth which is controlled by the left side of the brain. This side of the brain is responsible for speech production; their findings suggest that babbling is a form of preliminary speech.		
2.	Desmond Morris (2008)	For the first 6 months of a baby's life gurgles and babbles will be the same, regardless of the baby's nationality or how much parental input the child had had. Deaf children will also create the same sounds. By 6 months, the child will be increasingly attuned to variations in language being used around them and the babbling will start to resemble this more closely.		
Holophrastic Stage:				
3.	Katherine Nelson (1973)	Nelson placed the early words of children in to four categories: naming, action, social and modifying (descriptions). She found that around 60% of a child's first 50 words were nouns.		
4.	Bloom (2004)	Bloom says the supposed **noun bias** merely reflects the frequency of nouns in our language; nouns outnumber verbs by 5:1 in dictionaries.		
5.	Jean Aitchison (1987)	Aitchison identified three stages that occur during a child's acquisition of vocabulary:		
		6.	Labelling	Associating sounds with objects in the world around the child Linking words to things Understanding the concept of labels
		7.	Packaging	Starting to explore the label
		8.	Network Building	Making connections between the labels they have developed Understanding opposites and similarities, relationships and contrasts
9.	Eve Clark (1973)	Clark found that common adjectives (e.g. nice and big) are developed in the first 50 words, however, spatial adjectives are acquired later (e.g. wide/narrow). She also hypothesised that overextension was based on two main criteria:		
		10.	The semantic features hypothesis	This means that the baby overextends on the basis of the features that combine to give an object meaning, for example, colour, shape, sound, movement, etc. So any moving thing with four legs could be called 'cat'.
		11.	The functional similarities hypothesis	Overextension results from similarities in the uses to which objects are put. Things used to hold liquid might all be called 'cups'.
12.	Leslie Rescorla (1980)	Rescorla further explored overextension, collecting concrete data:		
		13.	Categorical overextension	Most common form of overextension which occurs by mixing of hyponyms with the hypernym. It is only when a child picks up other hyponyms that this form of overextension disappears.
		14.	Analogical overextension	Found in about 15% of overextensions. Relates to the 'packaging' element of an object and the properties it has. A scarf might be called 'cat' because it is soft when the child strokes it.
		15.	Mismatch/Predicate statements	Found in about 25% of overextensions. They convey abstract information and show a high level of awareness of the connections between objects that are not always obvious to the listener. A cot might be called 'doll' because the doll can often be found in the cot but wasn't on this occasion.
Two-Word Stage				
16.	John Braine (1963)	At the two-word stage, children use patterns of two-word utterances that seem to evolve around certain key words. He called this a **pivot schema** - children use key words as a 'pivot' to generate utterances e.g. allgone: 'allgone dinner', 'allgone milk'.		
17.	Roger Brown (1973)	He identified the syntactic structures of two-word utterances and suggested that the combination of words places together follow a limited range of patterns:		

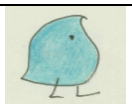
Combination	*Example*	*Combination*	*Example*
Agent + Action	Daddy go	Object + Location	Teddy chair
Action + Object	Make cake	Possessor + Possession	Granny gloves
Agent + Object	Billy bike	Object + Attribute	Coat soft
Action + Location	Run garden	Demonstrative + Object	Here chair

Telegraphic Stage:				
18.	Roger Brown (1973)	**Question development stages:** 1) Only prosodic features (r**ising intonation)** indicate the interrogative mood: 'Daddy come…?' 2) Interrogative pronouns (**wh- words**, such as *when, where, what*, *how)* are used at the start of sentences: 'where baby…?' 3) **Syntactic inversion** of the **auxiliary verb** (*can, is, did – tense will not always be correct)* and the **subject** of the sentence (e.g. *You, Daddy*) produce the correct form: Is Daddy gone?		
19.	Roger Brown (1973)	**Morpheme acquisition stages:** 1) Inflection -ing (*Playing*) 2) Plural – s (*Trains*) 3) Possessive – s (*Billy's book*) 4) Definite and indefinite articles (*The/a*) 5) Past tense -ed (*Walked*) 6) Third person singular inflection (*She walks*) 7) Contraction of the verb be (*He's happy*)		
20.	Ursula Bellugi (1967)	**Negation development stages**: 1) Uses 'no' or 'not' at the beginning of end of the sentence – "No shoes!" 2) Puts 'no' or 'not' inside the sentence –"I no wear shoes!" 3) Attaches negatives to auxiliary verbs - "I won't wear shoes!" NB the ***main verb*** *is not always yet in the correct tense*		
21.	Ursula Bellugi (1967)	**Pronoun usage stages:** 1) Uses their own name – "Katherine play." 2) Recognises I/me pronouns – "I play", "Me up" 3) Uses pronouns according to whether they are the subject or object position – "I play with the toy."/ "Give it to me."		
Pragmatic Development (Functionalism):				
22.	MAK Halliday (1978)	He proposed the functions of child language can be categorised. The most commonly used is instrumental and regulatory, which are learnt, along with interactional and personal, at a young age. Representational is used by 6-8+ year olds.		
		23.	Heuristic	"Tell me why"- uses language to explore environment/ seeking information *('Why don't stars fallout of the sky?')*
		24.	Imaginative	"Let's pretend" - imaginative language, used with play, to create imaginary world *('I'm Batman.')*
		25.	Instrumental	"I want"- expressing needs/wants *(David (14 m) points to the refrigerator door and says 'door')*
		26.	Interactional	"Me and you" - speaking to other, establishing personal contact *('Hello' said Catherine — holding out her doll)*
		27.	Personal	"Here I come"- child expresses their feelings/expressing personal preferences *('I hate that!')*
		28.	Regulatory	Do as I tell you" - requesting/asking for things *(Miriam says 'Daddy push' telling her father to push her on the swing)*
		29.	Representational	"I've got something to show you" – used to communicate information *('I got four Barbie dolls at my birthday party')*
30.	John Dore	Describes language functions through focussing more on categorising individual utterances.		
		31.	Answering	Responding to an utterance of another speaker
		32.	Calling	Getting someone's attention
		33.	Greeting	Greeting someone
		34.	Labelling	Naming a person, object or thing
		35.	Practising	Using language when no adult is present
		36.	Protesting	Objecting to requests from others
		37.	Repeating	Repeating an adult word or utterance
		38.	Requesting Action	Asking for something to be done for them
Discourse Development:				
39.	Brown and Levinson	Brown and Levinson suggested that politeness in children centres around two aspects of 'face':		
		40.	Positive face	Where the individual desires social approval and being included
		41.	Negative face	Where the individual asserts their need to be independent and make their own decisions

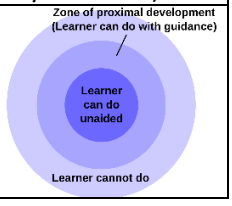
Child Language Acquisition (Speech) – Key Theories

Key Terminology			
1.	Operant conditioning		A positive or a negative response given by a caregiver can influence the way in which a child talks on future occasions
2.	Positive reinforcement		Encouraging or establishing a pattern of behaviour by rewards and praise
3.	Negative reinforcement		Stopping a child from repeating a mistake through correction, punishment, ignoring or a denial of wants (eg. being told off for forgetting 'please')
4.	Universal grammar		All human languages possess similar grammatical properties which the brain is hardwired to be able to decode and use
5.	LAD (Language Acquisition Device)		1. Baby is born with an innate knowledge of language so already knows linguistic rules 2. Baby hears examples of his/ her native language 3. The linguistic rules help Baby make presumptions about the language it is hearing 4. From these estimations and presumption Baby works out grammatical sets of rules. As more language is heard the grammar becomes more and more like adults
6.	Critical period hypothesis		The crucial time to acquire a first language; if language input does not occur until after this time, the individual will never achieve a full command of language, especially grammatical systems
7.	Egocentric		A child is unable to see a situation from another person's point of view or mentally process the concept that something can exist outside their immediate surroundings
8.	Object permanence		A child understands something can exist without having to see it
9.	Piaget Stages	Sensorimotor (up to 2)	Experiences the physical world through the senses and begins classifying the things in it; lexis tends to be concrete; **object permanence** develops
10.		Pre-operational (2-7)	Language and motor skills develop; language is egocentric
11.		Concrete operational (7-11)	Begins thinking logically about concrete events
12.		Formal operational (11+)	Abstract reasoning skills develop
13.	Interpersonal speech		Also termed social speech, this is external communication used to talk with one another.
14.	Intrapersonal speech		Also termed private speech, this is communication that a person directs at themself – typical from age 3.
15.	Silent inner speech		What happens when private speech is internalised – typical at around age 7.
16.	Intentional reading		When language is spoken, the child understands the meaning and intentions around them from the language and gestures being used (eg. children identify the words communicating the most meaning and use these in the holophrastic stage)
17.	Pattern finding		On reaching the two-word stage, a child can understand the effect of particular word pairing and patterns (eg. more + noun), developing grammatical accuracy.
18.	Constructions		Chunks of language (such as slot-and-frame constructions)
19.	Slot-and-frames		Constructions with a reliable pattern which can be populated with different variables (eg. 'it's a X/ where's X' with X being the variable that can be filled by different items)

Behaviourism (Nurture)		
20.	Skinner (1957)	Skinner believed that biology plays almost no part in the way children learn language. He experimented on rats and believed his findings on **operant conditioning** could be extended to language development. He stated that all behaviour is conditioned through **positive reinforcement** and **negative reinforcement**. *Criticism: Chomsky questioned the validity of experiments on rats and pigeons to offer comment on humans' capacity to learn.*
21.	Albert Bandura (1989)	Bobo Doll Experiment - When children saw violent treatment of a doll prior to a period of play with the doll, they were far more likely to imitate this behaviour. Bandura explicitly emphasised the importance of language modelling – the language to which a child is exposed is likely to be imitated by the child in the same way as behaviour.
Nativism (Nature)		
22.	Noam Chomsky	Chomsky stated that children are born with an innate knowledge of language and **universal grammar**. This innate ability to learn language is governed by the **LAD** which he suggested needed activating and is the reason children sometime over regularise and put grammar into utterances when they are not needed. *Criticism: Tomasello called Chomsky an armchair theorist as his ideas were only speculative.*

23.	Jean Berko Gleason (1958)	Wug Test - When faced with a picture of an imaginary 'wug':  • 76% of four-to-five-year-olds formed the regular –s plural. • 97% of five –to-seven-year-olds formed the regular –s plural Berko Gleason found that even very young children are able to connect suitable suffixes—to produce plurals, past tenses, possessives, etc.—to nonsense words they have never heard before, implying that they have already internalized systematic aspects of the linguistic system.
24.	Steven Pinker (1994)	In 'The Language Instinct', Pinker suggests that rather than being a human invention, language is an innate human ability because: • Deaf babies "babble" with their hands as others normally do with voice, and spontaneously invent sign languages with true grammar. • Even in the absence of active attempts by parents to correct children's grammar, accurate speech develops.
25.	Nicaraguan Sign Language (1980s)	Deaf children in Nicaragua spontaneously collaborated to form their own sign language, suggesting an innate capacity to create a new language with quite sophisticated grammar systems
26.	Eric Lenneberg	Lenneberg proposed that the capacity to learn a language is innate but that if a child does not learn a language before the onset of puberty, the child will never master language at all; this is known as the **critical period hypothesis**. Evidence for Lenneberg's theories emerged from studies on feral children such as **Genie** and **Oxana**.
27.	Genie (1961)	A 13-year-old Los Angeles girl who had been locked away from all social interaction. Following her rescue, attempts to teach her English only ever produced partial success, and she never achieved full grammatical competence.
28.	Oxana (1991)	An 8-year-old who had lived with a pack of dogs, when she was found she could hardly speak and ran on all fours barking. Since being taught language; her speech is odd, without rhythm, inflection or tone. She speaks flatly, as though it's an order, and can still communicate through barking.
Cognitivism		
29.	Piaget	Piaget stated that children need to develop certain mental abilities before they can acquire particular aspects of language, so they cannot be taught before they are ready. Until around 18 months, children are **egocentric**, and then they begin to realise that things have **object permanence**. He proposed four development stages: **sensorimotor**, **pre-operational**, **concrete operational**, **formal operational**. *Criticism: Some people with learning difficulties are still linguistically fluent so cognitive development and language development are not always as closely connected as Piaget suggests.*
30.	Lewis & Ramsay (2004)	They found that pronoun development during a child's second year will depend on the extent to which the child has a sense of identity and can recognise the notion of self, particularly within the context of imaginative play.
31.	Repacholi & Gopnik (1997) *Criticism of Piaget's egocentricity*	In an experiment involving food, broccoli and crackers were offered to infants aged between 14 and 18 months, who preferred the crackers. When offering a snack to the researcher: • 14-month-old would offer the cracker, irrespective of whether the researcher expressed an interest for broccoli or crackers. • 18-month-old was able to identify the researcher had indicated a preference for broccoli and offered this. This suggests that from a very young age, children are sensitive to the needs and desires of others and are not entirely egocentric in their behaviour.
32.	Vygotsky	Vygotsky believed that sociocultural environment (interactions with adults, cultural norms, and environment) plays an important role in how children develop cognitively. He believed that when they learn that talking out loud is considered anti-social or eccentric, their **intrapersonal** speech 'goes underground', and becomes the **'silent inner speech'** that adults use to think with.
Usage-Based		
33.	Tomasello (2003)	Tomasello proposed a focus on the inter-connectedness of language development with **intentional reading** and **pattern finding**.
34.	Ibbotson (2012)	Ibbotson believed that instead of picking up single words and then learning to combine them according to a pre-programmed set of abstract grammatical rules, children pick up **constructions** which they are then able to adapt.
35.	Berko & Brown (1960)	'Fɪs phenomenon' - A child called his toy fish fɪs. When asked: "Is this your fɪs?", he said no. But when asked: "Is this your fɪʃ", he said: "Yes, my fɪs." This is evidence that children's perceptual abilities are often in advance of their productive abilities.

Social Interactionism & CDS

1.	Social Interactionism	Social interactionism believes that carers **scaffold** conversation and interaction with children and that it is only through their interactions with adults that children learn the social pragmatics of language use.
Key Theorists		
2.	Bard & Sachs (Jim)	Bard and Sachs studied a boy called 'Jim', who was son of two deaf parents. Although he was exposed to TV and radio, his speech development was severely retarded. It demonstrated that simple exposure to language (e.g. from television) is not an effective stimulus to language learning; human interaction is necessary to develop speech
3.	Patricia Kuhl (TED Talk -The Linguistic Genius of Babies (2011))	Kuhl found that babies learn language best in social settings and that TV is not a substitute for interaction. In experiments using American and Japanese babies, those only watching TV or listening to audio did not show the ability to distinguish sounds in the same way as those who had human interaction. She also has asserted that the "critical period" for learning language is from birth until 7 years old and that from 6 to 12 months, babies have an incredible ability to distinguish different sounds no matter what the language.
4.	Clark-Stewart (1973)	Clark-Stewart found that children whose mothers talk more have larger vocabularies.
5.	John Macnamara	Macnamara stated that rather than having an in-built language device, children have an innate capacity to read meaning into social situations; it is this that makes them capable of understanding and learning language, not the LAD.
6.	Cruttenden (1974)	Cruttenden compared adults and children to see if they could predict football results from listening to the score. He found that adults could successfully predict the winners by the intonation placed on the first team, but the children (up to the age of 7) were less accurate
7.	Vygotsky	Vygotsky suggested that for children to learn they need an **MKO** who supports the child in moving beyond their **ZPD**, encouraging them to move beyond what they already know to what is not yet known by the means of **scaffolding** and support.
8.	Catherine Garvey	Garvey asserted that **sociodramatic play** usually begins when the child is around four-years-old and fulfils Halliday's imaginative function. In their re-enactments they use subject specific lexis and structure them in some of the formulaic ways that adults use in real-life situations, suggesting they can observe and imitate adult behaviours.
9.	David Crystal	Crystal states that 80% of interaction between parent and child is language play in the first year (eg. lullabies and nursery rhymes). Early play routines also demonstrate how language complements the patterns of visual and tactile contact (eg. nuzzling and tickling routines, finger walking, peeping sequences, bouncing games are accompanied by highly marked forms of utterance). He believes this language play continues throughout life, with children experimenting with phonetic play, prosodic variations, rhyming, nonsense words and morphological variations.
10.	Jerome Bruner	Bruner states that language learning is an innate ability but that, crucially, it needs activating through the **Language Acquisition Support System (LASS)**. This is exemplified by how parents often use books and images to develop their child's naming abilities and their ability to get involved in conversation: • Gaining attention - drawing the baby's attention to a picture • Query - asking the baby to identify the picture • Label - telling the baby what the object is • Feedback - responding to the baby's utterances
Key Terminology:		
11.	Scaffolding	The active support provided by caregivers/MKOs (eg. modelling). Children will initially be heavily reliant upon support but as they become more competent, the support can be reduced.
12.	MKO	<u>More Knowledgeable Other:</u> Someone who is able to offer support in language acquisition (this is not necessarily an adult!)
13.	ZPD	<u>Zone of Proximal Development:</u> The area between what a child can already do and that which is beyond their reach – it is where the MKO enables the child to progress by offering the necessary support through scaffolding. 

14.	Sociodramatic play	In play, children adopt roles and identities, acting out storylines and inventing objects and settings, whilst practising social interaction with clear rules and reflecting real world behaviour.
15.	LASS	<u>Language Acquisition Support System:</u> Caregivers support their children's linguistic development in social situations, by interacting and encouraging the child to respond (by pointing, asking questions).
16.	Child Directed Speech (CDS)	First proposed by Catherine Snow, Child Directed Speech's key aims are to: • attract and hold the baby's attention • encourage a child to interact and respond • help the process of breaking down language into understandable chunks • make the conversation more predictable by keeping the conversation in the 'here and now' and referring to things the baby can see It is also called motherese, fatherese, carese, baby talk, parentese.
Key Theorists for CDS:		
17.	Catherine Snow (1970s)	Snow's research focussed on the ways in which mothers talk to their children and the connection to the child's age. She initially proposed the idea of child directed speech.
18.	Mark Vandam (2015)	Vandam distinguished between 'motherese' and 'fatherese' by stating that male talk to children is more likely to resemble that used to other adults, and is less likely to have the sing song intonation and simplification that is perhaps more attributable to a female caregiver.
19.	Hirsh-Pasek and Treiman (1982)	Hirsh-Pasek and Treiman found that even four-year-olds adjust their language when speaking to a two-year-old and that the way that adults talk to babies is similar to the way they talk to dogs.
20.	Schatz	Only 4% of children's errors corrected by caregivers
21.	Bryant and Clark Barrett (2007)	They undertook research which suggested that intentions can be recognised in CDS, regardless of whether the meaning is actually understood. For example, Shuar adults (South America) were able to successfully differentiate between child-directed and adult-directed speech even if the language being used was unknown so the words themselves could not be understood. They could sense whether the utterance was intended to prohibit, approve, comfort, or provide attention.
Features of CDS:		
22.	Higher pitch	
23.	Exaggerated intonation patterns for key content words as children tend to imitate the stressed words	
24.	Frequent use of the child's name and an absence of pronouns.	
25.	Questions and commands (getting the child to do something)	
26.	Questions where the w-word doesn't appear in its usual place but where the baby must replace with a word (eg. you ate what?)	
27.	Repeated sentence frames. This occurs when the parent uses the same structure over and over, filling in part of it with a different word each time, e.g. 'That's a … '	
28.	Absence of past tenses (e.g. threw, ran, played).	
29.	One-word utterances.	
30.	Use of simple sentences (e.g. Shoogle is a nice cat)	
31.	Omission of inflections such as plurals and possessives	
32.	Fewer verbs, modifiers (adjectives in front of nouns) and function words (e.g. at, my)	
33.	Use of concrete nouns and dynamic verbs	
34.	Simplification of lexis to become more general (eg. calling tulips, roses and bluebells 'flowers')	
35.	Repetition and partial repetition of the adult's own words.	
36.	Use of re-castings — where the baby's vocabulary is put into a new utterance.	
Criticism of CDS:		
37.	Papua New Guinea	In the Kaluli Tribe in Papua New Guinea, adults speak to children as they speak to adult, and children acquire language at the same pace as elsewhere.
38.	Samoa	In some tribes of Samoa, parents do not speak to their children until they reach a certain age. These children still go through the same developmental stages at roughly the same time provided there is exposure to language.

Milestones in CLA

Approx. Age	**Function / Pragmatics**	**Phonology**	**Syntax/Morphology**	**Lexis** and **Semantics**
0 -9 Months	Mainly **instrumental** and **regulatory**; **attention-seeking**; basic **statements** and **requests**	**Babbling** Basic exchanges of **pre-verbal sounds** between parent and child rehearse basic **patterns of conversational turn taking**. Basic **intonation patterns** emerge even pre-verbally. This will allow **holophrases** to be used to express different **functions** and **meanings**. Some **consonant** and **vowel phrases** appear, often very inconsistently (e.g. */b/, Id/, /m/, Iii, /a/, /u/).* **Repetition** of groups of similar sounds or **reduplication** (e.g. baba = baby, or nana - grandma) may be common.		
9 -18 Months	**Interactional**, **instrumental**, and **regulatory** functions start to be served by **verbal** as well as **non-verbal utterances**. Early language includes **basic statements**, **labelling** and **requests**.		The '**one-word' stage**. Most **utterances** consist of a single item - **holophrases** - e.g. mamma, juice, teddy, though they may carry more **pragmatic meanings** (e.g. dada = I want daddy to play with me).	Much **naming** of people and objects in the **immediate environment**. **Semantic fields** include food, the body, clothes, family members and toys. **Meanings** are **context- and —phonology dependent**.
18 months - 2 years	Speech may start to include **exchanges of information** (**representational language**)	Some use of **stress** to distinguish **meanings** (e.g. MY car not anyone else's). More **phonemes** appear, though words may be quite different from adult speech.	The '**2-word' stage**. Speech includes many such combinations including basic questions (where teddy?). **Word order** becomes important (e.g. 'teddy play', 'play teddy'). First **grammatical suffixes** (**inflections**) e.g. -ing -s (**plurals**) –ed (**tense**).	Much **classification**. **Spatial location** (up, down, in, out etc). **Attributes** of objects (hot, cold, big, small etc).
2 - 2½ years	More **complex requests**.	**Vowel sounds** becoming more consistent; **pronunciation** generally closer to speech as most **phonemes** appear and **reduplication** disappears. **Intonation/stress**/other **prosodic features** continue to develop.	**Sentences** expand to three or more **elements** - the beginnings of the so-called **telegraphic stage**. E.g. 'Daddy drive car', 'Harry fall down'. More **grammatical inflections** (-s, -ing etc) begin to appear.	Lots of **actions** — sometimes in the **past**, less often in the **future**. '**Function' words** like *the, is, a* begin to appear more frequently.
2½ - 3 years	**Requests** for **explanations** ('why?!') may mark increasingly **heuristic** and **imaginative** functions. **Indirect requests** ('Can I have..?')	Continuing **stabilisation** and **development** of **phonemic** and **prosodic** aspects - though some **consonants** (such as I, r, th) still not acquired, especially in **combinations** e.g. *thick* in which /f/ is likely to be substituted for /ɵ/	Sentences expand to four or more **elements**. **Simple sentences** complete. **Inflections** on verbs and nouns becoming more consistent. Use of **auxiliary verbs**.	More **abstract** ideas and relationships
3 - 3½ years	A full range of **functions** now, including **representing feelings and attitudes.**	Increasingly subtle use of '**meaningful' intonation patterns** ('do I HAVE to?')	More **complex sentences** emerge, including confident use of **pronouns** E.g. I want the car daddy bought me.	**Conditional** or **hypothetical meanings** ('what if…?') Specific **references** to **time past, present** and **future**.
3½ - 4 years	Continued development in sophisticated use of **interactional**, **heuristic** and **imaginative** language functions.	Acquisition of **phonemic system** completed; some subtleties of **intonation/ stress patterns** continue to be acquired with further development and **social** experience.	More consistent use of **irregular verb** and **noun** endings; and **auxiliary verbs** (e.g. in questions and negatives); **Over-generalised forms** (e.g. I falled) **self-corrected**.	Continued development in ability to use more precise, abstract and varied **vocabulary** and **meanings**.
4½ years onwards	Basic **grammatical structures** in place. Later development will show increasingly stylistic versatility and adaptability.			