

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

## 1.1- Aims and scope

This study seeks to provide an insight into how children acquire their first language in case of Portuguese language, with particular reference to *Imaculada Lussati Soca*, simply ‘*Clénia*’, a young girl of 2 years and 6 months old an Angolan child who speaks Angolan Portuguese. So the present study focuses on one aspect of language development, namely the phonological one. Since it can be observed that the emergence of articulatory skills in the child begins around six months of age with the onset of babbling, it may be said that at thirty months of age, noticeable changes may be observed.

O’Grady (1996:467) says *it is likely that babbling provides children with the opportunity to experiment with (...) their vocal apparatus – an important prerequisite for later speech, so children who are unable to babble for medical reason can subsequently acquire normal pronunciation, but their speech development is significantly delayed.* Despite obvious differences among the languages to which they are exposed, children from different linguistic communities exhibit significant similarities in their babbling.

O’Grady (op. cit.: 464) asserts that

One of the most intriguing phenomena studied by linguists is children’s acquisition of language. So rapid and commonplace is that it is taken for granted by most people. In fact, language acquisition is a major intellectual achievement.

In recent decades, an increasingly large amount of linguistic research has focused on the question of how children the world over are able to master the complexities of human language in the space of a few short year.

In this way, the study aims to tackle the following research key question:

***- How do children acquire the basic sounds unit of their mother tongue?***

In so doing, emphasis will be stressed on *Clénia* linguistic development from the age of thirty months old to thirty six months. This may be said to be a short period indeed, but enough for the child’s linguistic competence to exhibit obvious and thorough visible changes.

Cho and O'Grady (op. cit.:464) assert that

Human brains are so constructed that one brain responds in much the same way to a given trigger as does another brain, all things being equal. This is why a baby can learn any language; it responds to triggers in the way as any other baby.

The study falls in psycholinguistics domain which broadly speaking studies the *relationship between linguistic behaviour and the psychological processes (e.g. memory, attention) thought to underlie it* (Crystal, 1987:412). In other words, it uses the theoretical and empirical findings of both psychology and linguistics towards the study of the mental processes underlying the acquisition and the use of language.

Accordingly, it should be recalled that linguistics deals with the description of the structure of language. So this structure includes speech sounds and their meanings, and the complex systems of grammar which relate sounds and meanings.

Dealing with the 'elements of psycholinguistic', Garman (1990: 3) states that

It is convenient to think of most types of observable language behaviour as comparing three levels: (a) *the language signal*, which we still take to cover all the forms of language expression which are generated and perceived by language users, including writing as well as speech; (b) *the neurophysiological activity* involved in the first and the next level; (c) *the language system*.

Garman speaks of psycholinguistics as a psychologist; besides, he does not deal with the process of language acquisition at all.

Furthermore, psychologists want to know how children acquire the functioning of such systems when people produce and understand utterances. Thus, psycholinguistics is interested in the underlying knowledge and ability that people must have to learn to use the language in their childhood in one hand; it aims to find out the structures and the processes which underlie human's ability to speak and to understand the language, on the other hand.

The term underlying can be accounted for from the fact that language, like all systems, can be understood from a careful study of overt behaviour. This distinction then is expressed by the concept of language and speech or *langue* and *parole* to use De

Saussure terminology (Chomsky has introduced the terms competence and performance instead).

In this connection, if we say that «she speaks Portuguese language», this means that she is able to produce meaningful sounds that are related to something called ‘Portuguese language’.

Among the many topics that psycholinguistics deals with we may mention the investigation of children’s language or the way language develops in them. In this connection, Crystal (op. cit.: 228) States that:

For over 200 years, scholars have shown an interest in the way children learn to speak and understand their first language, several small-scale studies were carried out, specially towards the end of the 19th century, using data recorded in parental diaries.

## **1.2 Significance**

According to Chomsky (2006:24):

The study of universal grammar so understood is a study of the nature of human intellectual capacity i.e. it tries to formulate the necessary and sufficient conditions that a system must meet to qualify as a potential human language conditions that are not accidentally true of the existing human language, but that are rather rooted in the human language capacity.

The mystery of how children learn to speak a language has puzzled adults and especially scholars for over 20 Century, Therefore, many of them have embarked upon the study of child language with the main purpose of finding out the factors which enable them to acquire language.

This study suggests that the present research work aims to check if Clénia follows the Portuguese’s guidelines of how language is acquired in Portuguese linguistic environment compared to Universals guidelines based on language acquisition process. Meanwhile, it meant to be my contribution to the issue of language acquisition process through my own experience, and the understanding of how the process of language acquisition takes place. As matter of fact, many studies are still being carried out in that domain. This means that we have not yet had all the answers to this phenomenon, so we

still need more case studies in this respect. It is also meant to be a contribution to the knowledge, generally speaking.

Consequently, the choice of the present topic should be considered as my contribution to the issue of language acquisition process through my own experience gained during the research work, by bringing more information related to this particular issue. It is also meant to shed more light on the phonological development in the child, in the context of a 36 Months old Angolan girl who speaks Angolan Portuguese in the context of African Portuguese precisely from Cabinda province. Though, many researches have been made in this domain, but we still lack of data, because it is a complex issue and also complex scope of study in describing and explaining the basic sound units in the child acquisition of language process.

### **1.3 Methodology**

This section deals with methodological issue, which refers to the type of data I have collected for the sake of this study with an indication of how they were gathered, and the approach chosen to analyse them.

#### **1.2.1 Type of data**

This study deals with language development in the child, based on the naturally occurring speech produced by the target child. So this corpus is called Clénia data.

#### **1.2.2 Data collection methods**

Generally speaking, two methods can be used in recording child's speech: the analytic and naturalistic methods. Regarding the former, a researcher may visit individual children on a regular basis and record (or videotape a sample of utterances, perhaps one hour every second weeks over a period of five months. As for the latter one, investigators will observe and record the children's spontaneous verbal behaviour. One type of naturalistic investigation is the so-called diary study, in which a researcher (often a parent) keeps daily notes on the child's linguistic progress.

In order to obtain the relevant data, I have resorted to the naturalistic approach. This means that I worked with my niece who was thirty months of age when I started this research work, observed the child and recorded everything she said spontaneously. In

addition to the recording made by her parents, I used to be present in order to observe the child's behaviour and her speech circumstances, and also make the record by myself, whenever I could. Thereby, this recording began on 16th April 2015 and finished on 30th September 2015, when the child was 36 months age, that is three-year-old.

### **1.2.3 Theoretical framework**

Generally speaking the theoretical framework used to explain and describe the data is descriptive one. In other words, the main purpose here is to report what the child produces in terms of speech and describe it objectively. This will be followed by the necessary relevant comments relating to the main purpose of the study.

The dissertation is composed of five chapters:

Chapter 1 Specifies the aims, scope and significance of the study, followed by the methodology;

Chapter 2 provides some background information about the language that is involved in the present study;

Chapter 3 reviews some relevant literatures;

Chapter 4 describes and analyses the data collected from the child's linguistic competences;

Chapter 5 concludes the study

The next chapter focuses on the background information

**CHAPTER 2:**  
**BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

The main object of this chapter is to provide some diachronic facts about the target language, which is Portuguese, its classification, present-day location, Portuguese as an official language, main varieties and some key phonological features. I shall start with the history of the language

## **2.1 History of the language**

According to Hutchinson (2003:241) we cannot speak about the history of Portuguese without referring to Portugal. To begin with, Portuguese is classified within the Indo-European family, a group of language that is believed to have developed from a common source. It comprehends all the languages spoken from India westwards throughout the Middle-East and Western Europe. This family consists of subgroups among which we have the Romance languages to which Portuguese belongs to. Members of this subgroup are French, Italian, Spanish and Romanian which all derived from Latin, not classical Latin, but the one spoken by the Roman soldiers who subdued the peoples of the Iberian Peninsula, combined with the local dialects.

Therefore, some of the peoples who established themselves in the Peninsula as the Roman Empire crumbled away were of German origin (Suevi, Goths and Visigoths) and so Portuguese has a number of words of Germanic origin (like *guerra* and *feltro*, for instance).

In addition, Berber peoples from North Africa invaded the Iberian Peninsula in 711 and also left their strong imprint on the language. Most place names beginning with the letters 'al' are of Arabic origin. The same applies to agricultural products and technology brought by the Arabs to the Peninsula, of which *alface* (lettuce) and *Nora* (a large wheel with buckets attached, powered by a donkey or mule) are examples.

During the middle Ages, the amalgam of the colloquial Latin spoken by Roman soldiers and traders and the local dialects evolved into various Romance languages, one of them being Galician Portuguese. This is the conventional name given by linguists to the language spoken in the western fringe of the Iberian Peninsula until the second quarter of the fourteenth century. That region corresponds to what are nowadays the (...) modern Portugal, and the autonomous region of Galicia in north-west Spain.



For Hutchinson this period of time happened during the '*Middle Ages*', thanks to Afonso Henriques in 1143, when he proclaimed the political independence of Portugal. At that time, Portuguese language relied on the amalgam of the colloquial Latin spoken by Roman soldiers, traders and the local dialects was evolved into various Romance languages, one of them being used was Galician-Portuguese.

According to Lloyd (2003:241-242)

Two hundred years later, the linguistic differences found in Galicia and Portugal was significant enough for specialist to consider the date of 1325 as the end of Galician-Portuguese as such, and to mark its development into two separate languages.

This conventional landmark is the date of the death of king Dinis of Portugal one of the major lyrical poets of the period. Curiously, most lyrical poetry in the Iberian Peninsula was written in Galician-Portuguese, whereas epic works tended to be written in Castilian even in later '*Middle Ages*' and the Renaissance period it was not unusual for Portuguese poets to write in Castilian.

In this regard, Hutchinson, (2003:242) points out that '*the age of exploration and of the great navigation, began in the late fourteenth century*', which brought Portuguese to the four corners of the world. Portuguese both influenced and was influenced by languages from remote parts of the planet. Malay, for instance, still has in its current vocabulary many words of Portuguese origin. Some Portuguese influence can also be found in Japanese, as the Portuguese were the first Europeans to travel to Japan. Equally, Hutchinson still emphasizes that there are many words from South American dialects, which have left their mark, especially from Tupi, a sort of *lingua franca* spoken by Brazilian Indians and used by Portuguese settlers in the first stages of the colonization of Brazil.

Many words of African origin can equally be found in Portuguese, Ganho (2004:1-2) as a result of the need to refer to objects, for example '*flora and fauna*' were unknown to the European Portuguese speakers. Moreover, in the sixteenth century, Camões became to the Portuguese language what Shakespear is to English, although the former is better known for his poetry and the latter for his plays.

As McGovern, (2004:2) says

Portuguese became a modern and sensitive linguistic instrument of communication, with a rich vocabulary reflecting its classical Roman and Greek origins, and structured by a complex syntax.

In so doing, Lloyd (2003: 242) asserts that Portuguese is nowadays a *modern language for international and scientific communication*. That is, all branches of the sciences are taught in Portuguese in the universities of Lusophone countries. In addition, Inevitably English has a great influence, especially in the areas of advanced technology, as new concepts and their respective terminology are currently being developed for the most part in Anglophone countries.

Therefore, there is always tendency to readily adopt words of foreign origin mainly 'Anlicisms' is more prevalent in Brazil than in Portugal. Whereas a Brazilian scientist or media persons will easily add a Portuguese ending to a foreign word, his/her Portuguese counterpart that is more likely to strive to find a solution within the boundaries and capabilities of the Portuguese language.

According to Ganho (op. cit.:1-2)

Portuguese is currently the mother tongue of 200 million speakers and the official language of eight countries: Angola, Brazil, Cape Verde, East Timor, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique, Portugal and São Tomé and Príncipe.

It is traditionally broken into two major types '*European Portuguese*' which is spoken in Portugal (and including the variations spoken in Azores and Madeira archipelagos) and '*Africa*' (Albeit with some differences); and '*Brazilian Portuguese*'. He states that in both '*European and Brazilian Portuguese*' there are major subdivisions.

So, In the European Portuguese, that is, the one spoken in Portugal, its standard dialect is that one spoken in Lisbon and /or Coimbra, while some of the major variation is spoken in the Islands of the Azores and Madeira and in Northern Portugal. But in Africa, the variants of Portuguese are enriched in vocabulary through contact with the various indigenous African languages that is, they have acquired their own pronunciation and some special verbal inflections.

Similarly McGovern, (2004:2-3) indicates that:

African vocabulary (mostly Kimbundu) can also be found in Portuguese from both Portuguese and Brazil, being more abundant in the latter. In Brazilian Portuguese some of the most identifiable variants are those of Rio de Janeiro, the Northeast, São Paulo, and the Southern region.

Having said a few words about the history of Portuguese, I now turn to dealing with its present-day situation worldwide, Portugal and other speakers. I shall start with its situation in Africa first of all.

## **2.2 The Portuguese language today**

### **2.2.1 Africa**

Besides its role as official language, McGovern (op. cit.:1-2) suggests that *Portuguese has combined with indigeneous languages as a Creole, especially in Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau and São Tomé and Príncipe*. In spite of Portuguese being used as Creole dialects in those countries, it also plays a role of an official language because, in the twentieth century, they were not only spoken languages, but also languages used in both written literature and films. One of reason why Portuguese is considered as survived language in Africa is that no African languages were taught at school; Portuguese was necessary to access administrative careers and citizenship until 1961.

In McGovern's views (2004:2) *those wanting to go to college to attend a university in Portugal were ironically with other pro-independence students. Portuguese is also used as Língua Franca*.

### **2.2.2 Portugal and other speakers**

Portugal is where the target language originated, that is, home to about 10 million speakers, both on the mainland and on the island communities of Azores and Madeira. According to McGovern and Ganho, (2004:1-3)

Peninsula Portuguese is much more homogenous, at least with respect to vocabulary, than the Portuguese spoken in Brazil and Africa.'Portuguese communities is also located in North America and other continents, as well as recent trends in the immigration to Portugal of east Europeans and Africans, also contribute to the growing diversity of Portuguese.

In addition, in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, English and Portugal entered in the European community in 1986 and currently Portuguese is an official language in European community. They point out that *Portuguese dialects are also currently spoken in small Asian enclaves, such as Macau, that is* (China), Goa (India), and is the official language of East Timor for historical reasons. A Portuguese-based on Creole language is also spoken in Casa manca ‘Senegal’.

Moreover, Lloyd (2003:239) asserts that

Portuguese is also used by small communities of emigrants scattered around the world in countries such as the USA, Venezuela, France, the UK, Switzerland, Luxembourg and South Africa.

### **2.2.3 Portuguese as an official language**

The importance of Portuguese in the world today is reflected in the number of major international organizations which have adopted it as an official language for instance:

- The European Union (EU), an organization of 15 European Countries linked by common economic, trade and development policies.

As Lloyd (2003:239-240) writes

As an international language, ‘Portuguese has an interesting advantage: As rule, speakers of Portuguese can easily understand Spanish’. Spanish speakers, however, show greater difficulty in understanding Portuguese.

### **2.2.4 Varieties of Portuguese**

There are some pronunciation and spelling variations among European Portuguese, Brazilian and even African Portuguese. These however, are not wide enough to prevent communication. Hutchinson and Lloyd (2003:240) believe that a variety of the target language is not only visible between Brazil and Portugal countries but also within African Portuguesees itself, because of the influence of the vernacular languages spoken among them. In their view another important factor which contributes towards variations within Portuguese, is the ‘*inevitable lexical*’ preference displayed by speakers of each region or country.

It is interesting to note that African Portuguese especially the *Portuguese spoken in Angola and Mozambique seems to sit roughly in the middle of the variation spectrum*

*between European and Brazilian one.* There are historical factors previously said and explained already above, but they do not fall within the scope of an essential grammar such as the present work.

African Portuguese is understood to be the Portuguese spoken in the PALOP's countries that is (Países Africanos de Língua Oficial Portuguesa) - Angola, Cape verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique and S. Tome e principe-all former Portuguese colonies that became independent after 1974 and which adopted it as their official language.

The term "*African Portuguese*" (Hutchinson, et al 2003:241) is by definition a wide generalization, as wide as Brazilian Portuguese, when considering such vast countries and continents, there is bound to be a reasonable degree of variation from area to area. Variation is also evident in the various regions of a country as small as Portugal, although as stated above, that should not hinder communication.

Hutchinson and Lyod assert that

Spelling also reflects this variation, which is, a number of orthographic agreements that had been signed, the latest in 1992', trying, with varying degrees of success, to bring together the spelling adopted by the different Portuguese speaking countries.

For that reason, this present work should follow the 1973 guidelines, so many Portuguese and Brazilian native speakers vow to maintain the present orthography, as that is the one they are used to. In all likelihood the 1992 agreement will only be fully implemented and used with the new generation, which is now entering primary school.

In general terms, the main concern of the 1992 agreement was to simplify and to bring closer together the spelling adopted in all Portuguese - speaking countries that is, the allophone variations, but at the same time, enabling it to reflect more closely to the actual pronunciation used in each. For example at the moment, the word *Jacto* «jet» is spelt with the phoneme /c/ in European Portuguese, but simply (Jato) in the Brazilian variant, although the pronunciation is the same in both cases. When the 1992 orthographic agreement comes into force, the phoneme /c/ will also disappear from European Portuguese spelling.

The case of the word like "recepção" «reception» is different. (Hutchinson op. cit. :241) At present, *the same spelling is adopted in all Portuguese speaking countries*, however

after the 1992 orthographic agreement comes into force, the “P” will be maintained in Brazilian Portuguese, because it is clearly pronounced there, but it will disappear from European Portuguese, because it is not pronounced in Portugal, the same will happen to the word *excepcional* «exceptional» and a few others: Curiously, the word *excepção* «exception» has a slightly different story. Whereas in European Portuguese it *will also lose the “P” in Brazilian Portuguese, it has already been dropped because it is not pronounced words such as facto* «fact» will maintain the /c/ in European Portuguese, whereas in Brazilian it has already been removed, hence “fato”, as the “C” is not pronounced there.

## **2.2.5 Phonological aspects**

This section deals with the basic sounds unit of Portuguese language. We have the following eighteen consonants and five vowels according to Portuguese alphabet:

### **2.2.5.1 Consonants**

According to Guthrie (1988:4)

‘Each consonant is represented by one symbol only. For the most part these have the same values as in English’.

In addition to what was said above, in Portuguese language we still having twenty one consonants according to the list of it below:

/p/ as in papa (“father”), pão (bread)

/b/ as in bicho (beast, creature, bug)

/t/ as in terremoto (earthquake)

/d/ as in dar (to give)

/f/ as in fome (hunger, famine)

/v/ as in vendedor (seller, vendor)

/k/ as in kilo (kilo)

/g/ as in gato (cat)

/m/ as in mãe (mother, mom)

/n/ as in neta (granddaughter)

/h/ as in helicóptero (helicopter, chopper)

/j/ as in janela (window)

/l/ as in leite (milk)

/q/ as in quinto (fifth)

/r/ as in remo (rowing, oar)

/s/ as in selva (jungle)

/w/ as in Wagner (the name of a person)

/x/ as in xícara (Br.) (cup of tea)

/y/ as in acronym yd (yard)

/z/ as in Zero (zero)

/c/ as in carro (car)

Place of articulation									
Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d			k g		
Fricative		f v		s z	ʃ ʒ			ʀ	
Affricate									
Nasal	m			n		ɲ			
Lateral Approximant				l		ɭ			
Approximant	w				r	j			

It is worth pointing out that three additional consonants mentioned above /k, w, y/ are used most of the time in specific circumstances such as with names of people originally from other languages for instance: *Kafka*, *Weber*, *Yang* or *Yeats* as well as from the names of places like *Kosovo*, *Washington*, *Yorkshire* and so forth. In spite of the orthography agreement, in Portuguese we still consider only eighteen (18) consonants, because they are more used than other ones.

Most Portuguese consonants are pronounced in the same way as English counterpart, as for the following sounds below:

Examples

Pronounced as...

/ç/	laço	lace
/ch/	<u>Ch</u> ampô	shampoo
/g+a,o,u/	<u>g</u> ás	gash
/g+e,i/	<u>g</u> elo	measure
/h/	<u>h</u> ora	(not pronounced)
/J/	<u>j</u> á	measure
/lh/	mil <u>lh</u> ão	million
/nh/	vin <u>h</u> o	onion
/q/	<u>q</u> adro	quack

/R/ intervocalic or final or preceded **parar**, **compras** (rolling the “r” a little more than in English) by a consonant (except n or l):

Initial, or preceded by n or l	ra <u>b</u> o		
		}	<b>Robber</b> (rolling the “r”)
	Ten <u>r</u> o		
/rr/	car <u>r</u> o		(as initial “r”)
s	<u>s</u> amba		<b>samba</b>
Initial			
		Ca <u>S</u> a	
intervocalic, or final if followed by vowel		}	<b>Kasbash</b>
	meu <u>S</u> amigos		



at the end of syllable/ Word, if followed by unvoiced consonant	Ve <u>S</u> pa	} <b>Sugar</b>
	Mo <u>S</u> ca	
	fó <u>S</u> foros	
	meu <u>S</u> pais	
But, at end of syllable/Word, if followed by voiced consonant (b, d, g, m, n, r)	Li <u>s</u> boa	} <b>measure</b>
	ha <u>s</u> -de	
	ra <u>s</u> gar	
	me <u>s</u> mo	
	ci <u>s</u> ne	
	Israel	
	a <u>s</u> mãos	

X	<u>x</u> erife	<b>sheriff</b>
	Mé <u>x</u> ico	<b>mesh</b>
Usual pronunciation	pe <u>x</u> e	<b>fish</b>
	Ex <u>e</u> celente	<b>geisha</b>
In words beginning wit <u>ex</u> plus vowel	exame	} <b>easy</b>
	Existir	
	Exótico	
In a few words (memorize!)	tá <u>x</u> i	<b>Taxi</b>
	Tó <u>r</u> ax	<b>Thorax</b>
In still fewer words (memorize!)	Trou <u>x</u> e	} <b>Possible</b>
	Pró <u>x</u> imo	
Z	<u>z</u> ebra	<b>Zebra</b>
Initial, or intervocalic	di <u>z</u> er	<b>Dessert</b>
Final	lu <u>z</u>	<b>louch</b>

After dealing with consonants, the next section concentrates on vowels.

#### 2.2.5.2 Vowels

In Portuguese there are nine (9) oral vowels written with the same symbols as many European language I mean precisely French language, except the semi vowel (Y) which is not part of Portuguese vowels as listed and summarized in the chart below:

/ɒ/ as in casa (house), lá (there)

/a/ as in água (water), sapato (Shoes)

/ə/ as in bebida (a drink)

/ɛ/ as in pé (foot)

/e/ as in elefante (“elephant”)

/i/ as in fita (“ribbons”)

/ɔ/ as in forte (strong)

/o/ as in loja (“shop”)

/u/ as in luta (“struggle, fight”.

**The synopsis chart of Portuguese oral vowels phonemes**

Vowels	Front	Centrol		Back
Close	i			u
Close-mid	e	ə		o
Open-mid	ɛ			ɔ
Open	a			ɒ

According to Lloyd and Hutchinson, (2003:3-6), Portuguese spoken (whether in Africa or Brazil), most of them respect the oral and nasal vowels pronunciation and spelling guidelines of the standard European Portuguese, that is, the one spoken in Portugal. they also respect the allophone's variations, that is, the way in which spelling is characterized between them whether consonants or vowels. For instance the back close mid vowel /o/ is pronounced most of the time /u/ i.e. when it places at the final position, as we can see on the examples presented into the chart below:

Examples:	Pronounced as...
/a/ open /a/ Sap <u>a</u> to /u/	[ fat ]
close /a/ S <u>a</u> pato	[about]
unstressed /a/ boc <u>a</u>	[announce]
/e/ open /e/ ch <u>e</u> que	[cheque]
close /e/ cab <u>e</u> lo /u/	[fill]
as conjunction, or /e/ } as first syllable of vowel elefante	[eel]
/i/ close /i/ fita	[feet]
/o/ open /o/ lo <u>o</u> ja	[lonzenge]
closed /o/ po <u>o</u> ço /u/	[torso]
unstressed /o/ po <u>o</u> ço	[zoo]
/u/ lu <u>u</u> ta	[loot]

Nasal vowel in Portuguese (produced with some nasal resonances)

A vowel is nasal if a tilde (~) is written above it or if it is followed by –m or -n within the same syllable:

/õ/ as in fantástico, (fantastic), não (no, not), amanhã (tomorrow)

/ẽ/ as in pensamento (thought), vem (come), mentir (to lie)

/ĩ/ as in sim (yes), minha (mine), brincar (to play)

/õ/ as in bom (good), onde (where), bombom (candy)

/ũ/ as in mundo (world)

Examples

Pronounced as...

/ã/	<u>lã</u>	<b>lamb</b>
am	<u>am</u> plo	<b>ample</b>
an	pl <u>an</u> ta	<b>plankton</b>
em	<u>em</u> préstimo	<b>empower</b>
en	<u>en</u> tre	<b>entertain</b>
om	<u>com</u> pras	<b>competition</b>
on	<u>con</u> tar	<b>contrary</b>
im	<u>sim</u>	<b>scene</b>
in	<u>tin</u> ta	<b>tinder</b>
um	<u>tum</u> ba	
	}	<b>tomb</b>
un	<u>nun</u> ca	

**CHAPTER 3**  
**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The main purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of what other researchers have found about the phonological development of the child's speech or closely related topics. This is the more important chapter as I am not the first one to carry out with such a study, so any research must rely on the achievements of his predecessors.

Mazet and Houzel (1993:53) have dealt with language development in the child, and described the general aspects of language which characterize this development in different stages. According to them, language development rests on three kinds of factors:

- The functioning of the cerebral, sensorial and phonatory organs that are its realization;
- The child's relation with his environment;
- Language organization that is the linguistic law.

They point out that the brain plays an important role regarding language analysis and realization. As far as language acquisition is concerned, they suggest that lateralization does not apply, that is, here there is no pre-established language centre whose absence would prevent language development.

In addition, they lay emphasis on the fact that the child gradually discovers the rules that govern the use of language. Those rules come from the input which is made available to her that is, by the environment she is in. This input is indeed the language used around her (p. 55).

Furthermore, they distinguish two main stages in language acquisition: a pre-linguistic stage and linguistic one.

The first stage corresponds to what is also known as *babbling* during which the child just produces cries which derives from inner stimuli basically.

The second stage begins when the child is about ten (10) months old. It is characterized by the production of the first word. In this respect they point out that

There is no single way of studying children's language, but linguistics, and (...) psychology has brought its own approach to the subject and variations that have been introduced to cope with the variety of activities in which children engage and the great age range that they present (p. 229).

As Crystal (1987:236) says

For many parents, a child's first words uttered at around 1 year of age, mark the first real evidence of language development- in the child has "started to talk" but this to ignore a great deal of early progress during the first year, without which no first word would emerge at all. This progress has to be made in three main areas: sound production, speech perception, and speech interaction.

He points out that some people thought that studying language development in the child could help people to understand the linguistic development of the human race. At the beginning the investigation consisted in keeping a written diary of observations about one's own child, but this method was abandoned when the audio and video-recording techniques appeared.

On the whole, the starting point can be to record the child's speech at home. In this way we can have a sample of naturalistic data. In addition, the way I could observe the child's speech was consistent with what Crystal has pointed out, so what I did was to keep the diary record of what the child produced everyday at home. In this way, I have been able to gather some relevant data which still being analysed in the present work.

As far as sound production is concerned between birth and 12 months, a vast change takes place in a baby's sound-producing abilities so several stages of development have been proposed. In this respect:

Crystal, (2010:246) distinguishes from five (5) stages in the child language development:

- Stage I 0-8 weeks: This is the period when the child is only able to produce the basic biological noises; That is, the period over the first few weeks of life, a baby's vocal sounds reflect directly its biological stage and activities i.e. state of 'hunger, pain or discomfort that cause crying and fussing known as reflexive noises' occur here. Even breathing, eating, excreting, and other bodily actions concerned with survival cause that is, a wide range of vegetative noises such as sucking, swallowing, coughing and burping as well. Crystal (2010:246-7) points out that infant's reflexive cry have been studied in detail:

Normal “basic” cry consists of a series of second pulses separated by brief pauses, by which the vocal folds vibrate strongly and the pitch of voice falls sharply with each pulse.

- Stage II 8-20 weeks: It is referred to as cooing and laughing between 6 and 8 weeks, the first cooing sounds are produced, generally when the baby is in a settle stage.

These sounds develop alongside crying, gradually becoming more frequent and more varied, as the child responds to the mother’s smiles and speech. According to him some of the sequences such as [ga] and [gu] do begin to resemble the syllables of later speech. Then, at around 4 months, the first throaty chuckles and laughs emerge.

According to Crystal, (2010:247) however,

During the cooing stage, babies seem to be performing the first gross activities required for the production of speech. The tongue begins to move vertically and horizontally, and the vocal folds begin to be used in coordination with it. There is a great deal of lip movement and tongue thrusting, which it is thought may be a form of imitation.

They are usually at a high pitch level, and involve a wide glides from high to low, that is a considerable range of consonant and vowel qualities is apparent, including nasal and fricative sounds made in various part of the mouth.

- Stage 20-30 weeks: is called the vocal play. The sounds of vocal play are much steadier and longer than those of cooing.

- Stage IV 25-50 weeks: This is the babbling stage is much less varied than the sounds of vocal play, in the early part of this period.

The other cooing stage is emerged at about six months old, that is, at babbling stage. ‘Babbling refers to the natural tendency of children of this age to burst out in strings of consonant-vowel syllable clusters, almost as a kind of vocalic play’.

- Stage V 9-18 months: Crystal calls it melodic utterance variation in melody, rhythm, and tone of voice become a major feature of child utterance towards the end of the first year. Parents begin to sense intentions behind these utterances with their more well-defined shape, and often attribute meanings to them.

Dealing with this problem of stages, Scovel (1998:10) asserts that



Some psycholinguists distinguish between marginal babbling, An infants initial attempt to produce syllables, usually beginning at age of about six months an early stage similar to cooing where infants produce a few, and somewhat random consonants, and ‘canonical babbling.

Therefore, the repetition of syllable by infant, beginning about eight months of age which first shows that they are acquiring distinct features of their mother tongue (e.g. Chinese babies begin to babble with tones); indeed, it usually emerges at around eight months’. When the child’s vocalizations narrow down to syllables that begin to approximate the syllables of the caretaker’s language. Interestingly enough, when infants begin to babble consonants at the canonical stage, they do not necessarily produce only the consonants of their mother tongue.

That is, their earliest acquisition is not of the segmental phonemes (individual consonants and vowels) that go to make up their native tongue.

Scovel (op. cit.: 11) goes on to mention that in fact:

Children seem to play with all sorts of segments at this stage, and frequently produce consonants that are found in other languages, not just the language by which they are surrounded. Hence we find the first of several psycholinguistic ironies. Since infants may babble vowels and consonants which are not part of their mother’s native repertoire, babbling is not evidence that children are starting to acquire the segmental sounds of their mother tongue.

Accordingly, recent psycholinguistic research supports that is an earlier assumption that children are beginning to learn the suprasegmental sounds of their mother tongue at this stage. Thus, the term suprasegmental refers to the musical pitch, rhythm, and stress which accompany the syllables we produce and which play such an important role in marking grammar, meaning and intention.

Eight-month-old babies reared in English-speaking families begin to babble with English-sounding melody; those of a similar age who are brought up in Chinese-speaking homes begin to babble with the tones and melodies of Chinese. Babbling is the first psycholinguistic stage where we have strong evidence that infants are influenced by all those many months of exposure to their mother tongue. Up to this stage there is

very little difference between the speech production of a normal child and that of a baby born profoundly deaf.

In this connection Fromklin and Rodman (1988:363) point out that

Deaf children, who are unable to hear the sounds of spoken language, do not acquire spoken languages as hearing children do. However, deaf children of deaf parents who are exposed to sign language parallel to language acquisition by hearing children learning oral language.

In addition, Lenneberg (1967) speaks about what he calls the critical period. This is a period after which to acquire language becomes difficult. That is about puberty, the ability for self-organization and adjustment to the physiological demands of verbal behaviour quickly declines. The brain quickly behaves as if it had become set in its ways and primary basic language skills not acquired by that time, except for articulation, usually remain deficient for life.

From this two different point of view and according to my thorough observation I could realize that parents do not play an active role, in the child's language acquisition neither child do acquire language by imitating their own parents, but rather develops naturally. In fact, she does not learn Portuguese thanks to her parents mother tongue nor even she feels influenced whether in direct or indirectly way at all. But yet thanks to the environment where she is exposed in every single day.

Infants will progress both through the crying and cooing stages which indeed begins, at half a year of life, the lack of suprasegmental accuracy in the babbling of a deaf baby is often the first overt signal of the child's disability.

Furthermore, given current knowledge, the relation between manual babbling and the language capacity can be viewed in another way. Speech is the natural mode of expression of the language capacity, and language is a modal capacity tied to the oral modality.

Lenneberg (1967:131-140) suggests that language acquisition is a biologically triggered behaviour. He provides the following biological evidence:

-The stages of development are relatively clear-cut and are found in children everywhere in the world;

- Children of deaf parents go through some stages of pre-language vocalization as other children even though their parents are unable to respond.

However, from birth, children are exposed to a variety of noises in their environment. Before they can begin to acquire language, they must first separate non-speech noises from speech sounds. The rudiments of this ability seem to be present at birth, since newborn respond differently to human voices than to other sounds and can recognize their mother's voice within a matter of weeks.

Dealing with babbling and word production, Jakobson (1968:51-53) considers *babbling as a prelinguistic phenomenon unrelated to the acquisition of language*.

This view is no longer valid, and babbling is now considered a fundamental step in the development of language: infants try out their articulatory capacities, and they discover and practice the sounds and legal combination of their language, leading up to the production of words. At the age of 10-12 months, while they are still babbling, infants start to produce their first identifiable words.

In so doing, for a period of that age may last 4 or 5 months (Elbers 1982 Vihman and Miller 1988) assert that *babbling and first word production may overlap, according to holophrastic stage, that is, the use of one-word-sentence by the child is often present here*. And (Boysson-Bardies and Vihm 1991) they found similarities in the frequency of sounds used in first words and in babbling, suggesting that there is an important milestone in the process between of acquiring a language.

Nevertheless, they also found differences between '*babbling and word production*', which reflect the greater demands imposed by the latter. Articulating words requires control and planning of coarticulatory tendencies and of the sequencing of articulatory gestures. Jakobson (1968:51-53) takes over those stages presented already by Crystal in this way:

#### 1- At birth infants

- a. Discriminate their language from a foreign language;
- b. Discriminate between two foreign languages
- c. Can count syllables and thus vowels in a word

- d. Perceive accent;
- 2- At 1 month infants discriminate between consonants
- 3- At 6-8 months infants start to babbling (vocal or manually)
- 4- At 8-10 months.
  - a. Infant's vowel quality is influenced by the ambient language;
  - b. Infants' sensitivity to foreign consonantal contrast starts to decline.
- 5- At 10-12 months infants
  - a. Cannot discriminate consonant contrasts belonging to a foreign language.
  - b. Use a repertoire of consonants during babbling that is influenced by their native language;
  - c. Produce their first word.

The extraordinary ability of newborns to discriminate unfamiliar phonemic contrasts rapidly declines. While at 6-8 months infants can still discriminate nonnative contrasts, at 8-10 months they are less successful, and at 10-12 months they are not longerable to do so. Thus, by the age of 12 months English-learning infants behave like English-speaking adults (page 42).

Furthermore Guasti, (2002:42-43) reports data from a cross-sectional studies in which reflects three groups of English learners from (6-8, 8-10, and 10-12 months of age). So the proportion of American English learners from three age groups above, (Hindi and Salish) assert that learners of (11-12 months) were able to discriminate consonantal contrast repretended from infants behaviour and development, valum 7, (werker and Tees), *Cross-language speech perception: Evidence for perceptual reorganization during the first year of life*, copyright 1984, with permission from Elsevier science: from the book of language acquisition

These results have been replicated with different infant populations. For example, Tsushima et al. (1994:47), have found that «6-8-month-old Japanese learners can discriminate between the English pairs [ra] and [la]. At 12 months, however Japanese

learners are like Japanese adults»: They fail to discriminate between [ra] and [la] (Werker and Lalonde 1988 and best 1995) for additional evidence about the developmental change occurring between 6 and 12 months).

According to Guasti, (op. cit.: 42-43)

At birth, infants can discriminate between native and nonnative contrasts equally well. At 12 months they have become like adults and can handle only native contrast. These findings favor the hypothesis that infants are born with the ability to discriminate all contrasts, even those not present in the language of their environment. With experience only the sensitivity to maintain.

Therefore, the role of experience consists in guiding the child to select, from the universal repertoire of sounds, those that are relevant in the ambient language. We have seen that at the end of their first year infant become attuned to the phonemic contrasts of their native language.

How can this developmental change be characterized? Werker and Pegg (1992) and Werker (1995) propose that the developmental change taking place around 12 months for consonants consists in a functional reorganization of the sound space, Johansson, (2005:47-48) resume that

From birth to 4 months, the infant's oral tract resembles that of apes. As matter of fact, newborns have a higher larynx, a smaller throat, a shorter vocal tract, and a different tongue shape than adults do (Lieberman, Crelin, and Klatt 1972). This difference in vocal tract shape is responsible for the differences between infants' productions of speech sounds. At around 4 months the infants' vocal apparatus undergoes tremendous changes and starts to approximate the adult shape.

As is apparent from one major change is descending of the larynx. As in chimps, in infants the larynx high, while in adults it is lower. The descent of the infant's larynx starts at 4-6 months and is not completed until 3 years of age (Lieberman 1984) for a discussion of modifications in the vocal tract, as well as in other parts of the body that participate in phonation. Having examined infant's ability to perceive speech, let us turn more to their ability to produce it.

Johansson, (op. cit.:47) goes on to suggest that

While speech perception is evident from birth, speech production abilities are not apparent before 6 months. Infants' first vocalization consists of cry, vegetatives sounds, and isolated vowel-like sounds, occasionally accompanied by consonantal sounds. An important milestone in linguistic development is the onset of babbling at around 6-8 months of age, a precursor to language consisting of syllable sequences like [bababa].

The delay in speech production maybe due to the immaturity of infant's speech apparatus which is not suitable for producing speech like sounds at birth; Indeed, this might not be the only one or the primitive reason.

Deaf infants engage in manual babbling when hearing infants start vocal babbling. Since manual babbling does not depend on the maturation of vocal and the identical timing in the emergence of vocal and manual babbling has led Petitto and Marentette (1991) came to suggest that it is *the 'maturation of neutral substract in supporting language that is responsible for babbling'*.

The close similarity between vocal and manual babbling has implications for our conception of the language capacity. Humans are born with special sensitivity not to sounds, per se, but to the particular unit's structures, and regularities found in natural languages, regardless of the modality of expression. In addition to Johansson, Scovel asserts

Reich (1986:142, quoted by Scovel Thomas (1986:19) has written that

Children about two to four, produce all kinds of expression which they have never, or rarely heard in their environment but they creat on their own in order (...) to attempts to construct or reconstruct, their mother tongue.

It may be said that this is simply because children are creative wordsmiths, despite the obvious impact, the environment has on the choice and general direction of mother tongue learning, children are prone to come up with all kinds of words and expression which they have never heard in their mono-or bilingual environments.

For Dale (1976:3) *the best way to begin studying child's language is to find a young child and listen to him/ her*. Then the child's speech is recorded during a certain period

of time, in order to have the corpus which can be analysed later on, so this recording must also include the context of the utterance produced by the child. He also says that before a child is able to combine two or more words, he must have a vocabulary of about fifty (50) words at least, and among the first words which are acquired are [mama] and [papa] (p. 9).

In addition, they use their first word in several ways, that is, children of 12 months seldom use a complete and meaningful sentence, but more single words with the sense of a sentence. Even over a century ago, parents noticed that their children seemed to use single words as sentences.

In 1877 Charles Darwin, for example, record in the journal that he kept on his son's acquisition of language that the single word "milk" could sometimes be a statement or request, or, if his son had accidentally dropped his glass, an exclamation.

Scovel (1998:13) states that

This use of single words as skeletal sentences is referred to as the holophrastic stage, '*a term used to describe one-word sentences used by small child but also found in adult speech*' (e.g. "Milk?" "Here!" and though there is some debate about its verifiability, most psycholinguists believe that the intonational, gestural, and contextual clues which accompany holophrases make it clear that children are using single-word sentences, exactly as adults they often do it in conversation.

For instance the word "Milk?" is often used as the truncated form of "*do you have any milk?*" but, given the appropriate context, "Milk!" is just as obviously an abbreviated version of "I'd like some milk".

Scovel, (1998:13-14) points out that

From the very beginning, infants are reared and nurtured in a world where virtually all communication evolves through intimate social interaction, and so it is entirely plausible that a child's earliest form of grammar should manifest itself in the same highly contextualized holophrastic utterances which adults use when conversing with each other in familiar social settings.

In addition, this stage, holophrastic speech may be the bridge which transports the child from the primitive land of one-word-sentence, and naming across the brave new world of phrases, clauses, and sentences.

After crying, cooing and babbling, we come to the culmination of a child's early language development the first word. So a child crosses this linguistic (Rubicon) at about one (1) year old, although there is a wide range of latitude as to when the first words emerges and as to what constitutes a "word". Scovel, (1998:11) asserts that *Children often use 'idiomorph', that is, words that they invent when they first catch on to the magical notion that certain sounds have a unique reference.* For example, one psycholinguist recorded when his daughter was about one year old, she came up with "ka ka" as the word for "milk". Accordingly, just as frequently, youngests begin to learn the vocabulary of their mother tongue straight away.

For him, a survey of the words children first learn, it shows that they tend to be those which refer to prominent, everyday objects, and usually things that can be manipulated by the child. Thus, not only /mama/ and /dada/ of course, and "doggie", "kitty", but also "milk", "cookie" and "sock" at this most rudimentary stage of vocabulary development, we can see evidence for what *Piaget* calls 'egocentric speech'. *Children, quite naturally want to talk about what surrounds them; at life's beginnings, they are the center of their universe. So if the child cannot manipulate the object during this early period of physical development, it does not appear to be worth naming'* (p. 12).

As Scovel (1998:13) says

Once the first few words are acquired, there is an exponential growth in vocabulary development, which only begins to taper at about the age of six, when by some estimates; the everage child has a recognition vocabulary of about 14.000 words.

It is no worder then that parents are excited by the child's first word: it represents a step into symbolic communication, and it signifies the start of the rapid vocabulary growth with which thoughts, feelings, and perceptions, as well as other areas of linguistic development, are framed. Scovel (1998:108) we often imply meanings that we do not explicitly produce, he states. Barsalau explains one of the ways in which implied meaning differs from literal meaning.



The traditional commonsense view is that comprehension always precedes production: that is, children need to understand a word or grammatical construction before they use it. However, there is increasing evidence that this simple relationship does not always obtain. Production may precede comprehension, or the two processes may be so intimately connected that they develop in parallel. There is certainly a great deal of evidence to show that children produce a word or construction without having a full understanding of it. We may cite the words pointed out by ‘doggie’ for example.

**Doggie**, says ‘*one young child, point to a cat, he got hat on, says another, and then later says take that hat on off- as if hat on were a noun*’. This kind of thing happens frequently from around age of two-year-and-six months indeed, it could be argued that our readiness to use linguistic forms we do not fully understand, but stays with us through out life! It has also been recognized that imitation is a distinct skill in language acquisition that is, many children spend a great deal of time imitating what their parents have just said.

This is most noticeable when new sounds or vocabulary are being learned, but it has been shown that imitation may be important in the development of grammar too. Often, children imitate sentence patterns that they are unable to produce spontaneously, and then stop imitating these structures when they start to use them in their speech- suggesting that imitation is a kind of “bridge” between comprehension and spontaneous production. Scovel (1998:13) *very young babies present an extraordinary range of auditory abilities*. There have been several experiments in which different sounds are played to babies and their responses monitored.

Other studies have shown how babies turn their heads towards the source of a sound within the first few days of life, and prefer human voices to non-human sounds as early as 2 weeks.

From the moment a baby is born, a mother holds her/him in front of her, and talks to her/him- despite the fact that she knows or he does not yet have any language! Mothers seem to have an instinct to promote communication as soon as possible, using the child’s earliest biological noises as stimuli.

There are many changes in conversational style during the first year. At around 5 weeks the exchanges become more emotive, as smiling develops. The mother’s utterances

change as the baby's vocalizations grow. *At around 2 months the emergence of cooing elicits a softer voice. Sometime later, the baby begins to laugh, and the mother's voice becomes more varied in response.* As the child starts to take interest in the environment and looks around, the mother speaks more loudly drawing attention to different objects.

After 6 months, the baby's purposeful movement and explorations produce more extended commentaries by the mother. She no longer responds to every vocalization that is produced, but focuses special attention on those that are more structured in a particular way, the first babbled utterances. Between 8 and 10 months, babies attempt to attract the attention of others by pointing.

Nkara (2007) looks at current theories of language acquisition, behaviourism, cognitivism and materialist psychology. His main purpose is to present a critical view of each one.

Concerning behaviourism, he focuses on the ideas of Skinner (1957). That result from experiments that he made with rats and pigeons. He extrapolated from the results he obtained and suggested that language can be explained within a stimulus-response framework. In this way, *he thinks that language is acquired by imitation, reinforcement, trial and error. "He calls this "operant-conditioning" which means training by means of voluntary response."*

According to Nkara, Skinner's theory exhibits a number of weaknesses. For instance Skinner shows a lack of understanding regarding the nature of human language. Basically, human language makes use of what Chomsky (1972:30) *refers to as structure-dependent operation* (p. 46).

In addition, he seems to ignore that one of the key features of human language is its creativity because his opinion reveals that he considers the organism as a "passive receiver".

As far as cognitivism is concerned, he deals with the ideas put forward by Chomsky effectively. For Chomsky language acquisition is an abstract process which takes place because we are born with what he calls an innate faculty or a "language acquisition device" which enables the organism to have an active part in the process.

However, this faculty alone cannot enable the child to acquire language, but a suitable linguistic environment is essential for language acquisition to take place. Thus, the third theory suggests that language can be acquired through conscious, positive teaching and instruction within each stage of its development (p. 51).

One main agreement with this theory is especially concerning the role of environment in the process. Yet, the fact that it rejects the innateness hypothesis and its “political and ideological overtones” cannot be acceptable. So to some extent, to reject the innateness hypothesis is going too far.

From around one month of age, children exhibit the ability to distinguish among certain speech sounds. In one experiment, infants were presented with a series of identical [ba] syllables. These were followed by an occurrence of the syllables. These were followed by an occurrence of the syllables [pa].

A change in the children’s sucking rate (the normal reaction to a new stimulus) indicated that they perceived the difference between the two syllables, and were therefore able to distinguish between [p] and [b].

Despite this early sensitivity to contrasts among speech sounds. Children initially cannot distinguish between meaningful words. Moreover, Infants start to produce their first meaningful linguistic expression i.e. (single words) around 10-12 months. Does it mean that they start to be interested in language only around that age? No, because even within stages presented previously reveal that children start to produce their first meaningful linguistic expression at all, though unconsciously.

In O’Grady et al. view (1997:491)

The role of cognitive development is the name given to the emergence of the various mental abilities and skills that make up the human intellect. Because there are dramatic changes in both linguistic and non-linguistic abilities during the first year of life it is tempted to think that the two are somehow linked.

Indeed, both prominent psychologists have suggested that general cognitive development shapes language acquisition (a view put forward by the late Swiss psychologist *Jean Piaget*) that language acquisition is crucial to other aspects of

cognitive development (a position associated with the late Russian psychologist *Lev Vygotsky*).

To sum up, according to what was pointed out through the literature review, it may be suggested that the language acquisition process is a gradual factor by which the child has to obey the different stages previously pointed out by Crystal.

The child starts producing one word then he combines two words to express his/her idea before building complex sentences. In this process the adult also has no influence on her phonological development progress, it develops in the child according to a fixed schedule, and this is made possible by an innate predisposition coupled with the role of the environment which provides the necessary input, as pointed out by Chomsky.

So when the child was at the age of thirty months old, she was already able to use the following 13 consonants (/p, b/; /t, d/; /m/; /n/, /f, v/, /k, g/, /ʃ, ʒ/, /j/), and six oral vowels /ɑ/, /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/ at the age of 30 months I could also observe that the child was unable to use the following oral vowels that is central, close-mid vowel /ə/; the front, open-mid vowel /ɛ/; and the back, open-mid vowel /ɔ/, even the nasal vowel one she was also unable to use it I mean the back, close nasal vowel /ũ/.

The next chapter deals with the child's linguistic competence from 30 to 36 months of age.

**CHAPTER 4**

**THE CHILD'S LINGUISTIC COMPETENCES**

#### 4. The child's linguistic competence at 30 months old

Before tackling the main object of this section that is the number of vowels and consonants acquired by the child, I would like to recall the basic concept of competence and phonology. (Crystal, 2010:443) regards competence as an *unconscious knowledge of the system of grammar rules in language*, cf communicative competence, performance. That is 'what we know about the language'.

Whereas Phonology is defined as *the study of the sound system of language* (Crystal, op. cit.: 455). In addition O'Grady et al (1997:725) assert that phonology is *the component of a grammar made up of the elements and principles that determine how pattern in language sounds*.

As far as the child's phonological system is concerned, the research reveals that at 30 months the child's acquisition consists of the following consonants and vowels:

##### 4.1 Consonants

/p/ as in picoca, patiya (pop-corn and gum)

/b/ as in boca, bate, boyo (mouth, to beat, and cake)

/t/ as in tiya, toma (to take from; to take away)

/d/ as in da (to give)

/f/ as in fiya (daughter)

/v/ as in vem (come)

/m/ as in mama, Maya (mother and Marla her female cousin's name)

/n/ as in não (negative form no or not)

/ʃ/ as in saya (hall)

/j/ as in yato, teyevijão (mouse, television)

/ʒ/ as in já (already)

/k/ as in caça (house); queyo (I want)

/g/ as in água (water)

Place of articulation									
Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d			k g		
Fricative		f v			ʃ ʒ				
Affricate									
Nasal	m			n					
Lateral Approximant									
Approximant						j			

Basically, at this age the child made a use of both oral, bilabial consonants and dental stop ones. I could also observe that whenever she used to pronounce the word *pipoca* as in (p. 37), she switched the bilabial phoneme /p/ into the velar sound /k/ realizing as /**pikoka**/ instead of *pipoca* this process results of the CVCVCV pattern called the phonological process that is, ‘voice assimilation’, it is said to be regressive assimilation (backward) when a sound influences one which precedes it.

According to O’Grady (op. cit.:470-71)

Another widespread phonetic process in child language is assimilation- the that is, (...) modification of one or more features of a segment under the influence of neighbouring sounds.

In the following assimilation examples, initial consonants have been voiced in anticipation of the following vowel.

**1-Tell [dɛl]**

**2-Pig [bɪg]**

**3-Push [bʌs]**

**4-Soup [zʊp:]**

As well as with the name *Marla* she used to omit both post-alveolar phoneme /r/ and the lateral approximant phoneme /l/ by switched those sounds into the palatal, approximant phoneme /j/ realized as /maya/ instead of *Marla*. Yule (1985: 48) says *this ‘omission’ of sound segment which would be present in the deliberate pronunciation of a word in isolation, (...) the phonemes /r/ and /l/ are simply disappeared in the word Marla which is described technically as elision process.*

In additional, in the word *pastilha* she omitted the alveolar, phoneme /s/ by realizing as /patiya/ as mentioned in examples above I mean in (p. 37). Thus, those previous samples refer to deletion process which consists of removing a segment from certain phonetic contexts.

O’Grady (1996: 469) asserts that

‘One frequent process in children’s speech involves the systematic deletion of certain sounds in order to simplify syllable structure’.

The quotation emphasizes the deletion and elision process illustrated in the sample presented above. So it also overlaps with the beginning and the last age of Clénia’s phonological development study. Thus, we shall observe the data shown in the chart below, which is typical speech of the two-year and three-year-old children-consonant clusters, which are reduced by deleting one or more segment.

#### Reduction of consonant clusters

[s] + stop (strategy: delete [s])	Stop + liquid	Fricative + liquid	Nasal + voiceless stop
Stop -> [tɒp]	(strategy: delete liquid)	(strategy: delete liquid)	(strategy: delete nasal)
Small-> [mɒ]	Try-> [taɪ]	From-> [fɹʌm]	Bump-> [bʌp]
Desk-> [dek]	Crumb-> [gɹʌm]	Sleep-> [si:p]	Tent-> [det]
	Bring-> [brɪŋ]		

Moreover, this phonological process occurs even with most of the words ending in post-alveolar /r/ , and she always use to turn it into a mute sound that is, if it were invisible one as mentioned above in (p.37), most of those words are verbs. Another common



deletion process in early child language involves the elimination of final consonants, but initial consonants, in contrast, are typically retained if they precede a vowel see the illustrations below:

**1-Dog -> [dɒ]**

**2-Bus -> [bʌ]**

**3-Boot -> [bu:]**

O'Grady (op. cit.:470) states that

Both the reduction of consonant clusters and the deletion of final consonants have the effect of simplifying syllable structure, bringing it closer to the CV pattern that is universally favoured by children and that is the most widely found pattern in human language in general.

Thereby, I shall sum up all Clénia's phonological development system from this particular age, as the following:

**/p, b/** (bilabial, plosive, voiceless and voiced consonants)

**/t, d/** (alveolar, plosive, voiceless and voiced consonants)

**/f, v/** (labio-dental, fricative, voiceless and voiced consonants)

**/ʃ, ʒ/** (post-alveolar, fricative, voiceless and voiced consonants)

**/k, g/** (velar, plosive, voiceless and voiced consonants)

**/m/** (bilabial, nasal consonant)

**/n/** (alveolar nasal consonant)

**/j/** (palatal, approximant, voiced consonant)

#### **4.3 Oral vowels**

**/ɑ/** as in casa (house)

**/a/** as in papa, mama, água (father, mother, water)

**/e/** as in extiyaga, mete (to spoil, to put)

**/i/** as in fiya, picoca (daughter, pop corn)

/o/ as in boca, código, foto (mouth, cod, photograph)

/u/ as i eu (I), comida (food), come (to eat)

Oral vowels	Front	Centrl	Back
Close	i		u
Close-mid	e		o
Open-mid			
Open	a		ɑ

As far as vowels are concerned she did use only (6) oral vowels as attested in the child's phonological system at 30 months as the following: back, open vowel /ɑ/; front, open vowel /a/; front, close-mid vowel /e/; front, close vowel /i/; back, close-mid vowel /o/ and back, close vowel /u/, except when we are referring to some verbs the back, close vowel /u/, as in *vou*, *dou* (both are irregular verbs) it is not used by the child precisely at this particular age, so she realize them as /vo/ instead of *vou* and /do/ instead of *dou* (to go and to give).

Furthermore, with vowels, I have noticed that with almost all verbs conjugated in the first person of singular she used to omit the final close and back vowel /u/ as if it did not exit in those final position according to the sample presented above, simply because at this age she shows limitations on her vocal apparatus i.e. she was unable to produce that particular vowel accurately. O'Grady (1996:468) Language acquisition researchers have expended a good deal of *effort trying to determine the order in which speech sounds is mastered in production and perception*. Although this work has hindered by difficulties in determining precisely when a contrast has been acquired, as well as by shortage of reliable data from a sufficiently broad range of languages, some general trends seem to exist:

1-As a group, vowels are acquired before consonants (by age three).

2-Stops tend to be acquired before other consonants.

3-In terms of place of articulation, labials are acquired first, followed with some variation, by velars, alveolars, and palate-alveolar.

4-New phonemic contrasts manifest themselves first in word-initial position. Thus, the /p/-/b/ contrast, for instance, will be manifested in pairs such as pat-bat before mop-mob

5-All other things equal, a sound (like [s] in English) that occurs in many different words will be acquired before a sound (like [ʒ]) that occurs in relatively few words.

6-By age two, the average English-speaking child can produce the inventory of consonant phonemes listed in the small chart below:

**Consonant inventory at age two**

Stops			Fricative	Others
<b>p</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>w</b>
<b>t</b>	<b>d</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>s</b>	
<b>k</b>	<b>g</b>			

#### 4.2 Nasal vowels

/õ/ as in não (no, not), amanhã (tomorrow)

/ẽ/ as in venha (come), mentiça (to lie)

/ĩ/ as in minha (mine), binca (to play)

/õ/ as in onde (where), bombom (candy)

Nasal vowels	Front vowels	Back vowels
Close	/ĩ/	
Close-mid	/ẽ/	/õ/
Open		/ã/

In this section I could observe that she was unable to use the following oral vowels that is, central, close-mid vowel /ə/; the front, open-mid vowel /ɛ/; and the back, open-mid

vowel /ɔ/ according to the list of oral vowels from the synopsis chart of Portuguese oral vowels phonemes pointed out in (p. 18).

Even with nasal vowels the child was also unable to use the back, close nasal vowel /ũ/, regarding the data attested and summarize on the chart above. The following chapter is about the review of related literature.

### **4.3 The child's linguistic competence at 36 months old**

Having dealt with the child's linguistic competence at 30 months old, and literature review issues in the previous chapter, the present one seeks to analyse and interpret the last data when the child was at 36 months of age and summarized through the chart by considering her linguistic competence from the phonological point of view, before presenting the major findings. I shall start with consonants first of all.

### **4.4 Consonants**

At 36 months of age, Clénia's phonological system may be described as follows:

- Bilabials:

/p/ as in *papa* (father); *paya* (for); *pão* (bread); *pega* (to touch); *peixe* (fish)

/b/ as in *bombom* (candy); *bolo* (cake); *brinquedo* (toy); *brinca* (to play) *bate* (to beat).

- Labiodentals:

/f/ as in *faca* (knife); *flor* (flower); *fala* (to talk); *foi* (went away)

/v/ as in *olho* (an eye); *you* (you); *vovô/vovó* (grandfather/grandmother)

- Alveolars:

/s/ as in *sala* (room); *Saco* (bag)

/z/ as in *fazer* (to make or to do); *trazer* (to bring)

/t/ as in *ligar* (make a call!); *toma* (take)

/d/ as in *desculpa* (sorry); *deixa* (leave)

- Post-alveolars:

/ʃ/ as in chinelo (Slippers), chave (the key), chão (the floor)

/ʒ/ as in já (already)

- Palatal:

/j/ as in yata, boyu (can, cake)

- Nasals:

/m/ as in mama (mother); música (music); mesa (table)

/n/ as in Nati (Natalia her mother's name), novela (soap opera); nunca (never)

- Velar:

/k/ as in casa (house)

/g/ as in água (water); guaxa (to have a fun or a simple given name)

Place of articulation									
Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d			k g		
Fricative		f v		s z	ʃ ʒ				
Affricate									
Nasal	m			n					
Lateral Approximant									
Approximant						j			

To sum up this particular stage of Clénia's phonological development aspect, we have to consider some key verbs belonging to the phonological process used by the child unconsciously which has been already attested above, in the child linguistic development while acquiring Portuguese language, in the environment of Angolan Portuguese, precisely in the context of Cabinda Portuguese. So to begin with, here you are those phonological processes: assimilation, elision, addition, deletion and rearrang ones.

As it can be realized, the child's phonological system at 36 months old makes use of fifteen consonants among which we have two bilabials, plosive /p, b/; two alveolar plosive /t, d/; two labio-dentals, fricatives /f, v/; two alveolars, fricatives /s, z/, two post-alveolar, fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/, two velars, plosives /k, g/, one palatal, approximant /j/, though Portuguese language consists of twenty one consonants. Finally two nasals phoneme that is one bilabial /m/ and another one is an alveolar consonant /n/ were acquired.

It should also be pointed out that the word *boyo* and *saya* as the examples already mentioned above both are located in the second syllable [lo] and [la] are realized as palatal /j/, but in fact they are lateral sounds /l/, this is called neutralization of the sound, it means there is only one environment called plus voiced sound, so the sound is neutralized only in one position.

Those examples also occur even at the initial position *Luta*, /yuta/ and *lá*, /ya/. Thus, it may be said that the child is not able to articulate the voiced lateral approximant phoneme /l/ as well as the approximant, post-alveolar /r/ still being realized by the child as the palatal phoneme /j/, (p. 41).

## 4.5 Vowels

- Oral vowels

Frontness: close vowel; close-mid; open-mid and open vowels.

/i/ as in tiya (take)

/e/ as in festa (party)

/ɛ/ as in bébé (the child)

/a/ as in papa (father)

Central: close-mid vowel

/ə/ as in bebe (to drink)

Backness: close vowel, close-mid, open-mid and open vowels.

/u/ as in cayo (car), tua (yours), sujo (dirty)

/o/ as in boneco (dull)

/ɔ/ as in picoca (pop corn), picoyé (ice cream)

/ɑ/ as in mama (mother), axixti (to watch)

### Oral vowels

Vowels	Front	Centrl	Back
Close	i		u
Close-mid	e	ə	o
Open-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Open	a		ɑ

- Nasal vowels

Frontness: Close vowel, close-mid, and open vowels

/ĩ/ as in atingi (to achieve), binca (to play), Pedinho (a given name)

/ẽ/ as in quem (who), venha (come), encoxita (to approach, to come closer)

/ũ/ as in amanhã (tomorrow)

Backness: Close-mid vowel

/õ/ as in compiaya (to buy), bombom (candy)

**Nasal vowels**

<b>Nasal vowels</b>	<b>Front vowels</b>	<b>Back vowels</b>
<b>Close</b>	/ĩ/	
<b>Close-mid</b>	/ẽ/	/õ/
<b>Open</b>		/ũ/

Generally speaking, the child makes use of all nine (9) oral vowels and 4 nasal ones. So according to the number of vowels used in Portuguese, it may be stated that at this age, the child has acquired all oral vowels except the back close nasal one as attested above.



## 4.6 Major findings

This section dealt with the major findings resulting from the previous analysis of the target child's speech from the first to the last stage by checking whether the universals guidelines based on language acquisition compared to the one of Portuguese language could be attested in this study or not. Thus, the study of phonological development on Clénia is only presented in one aspect of grammar which focuses on language development, namely the phonological one.

Then, let us observe a thorough investigation's results presented in the below's column, which is, regarding one of the universal phonological processes which every so often occur in the children of around two years old, called Reduplication process:

Results		Results	
Universal aspects in the child's phonological Development, based on language acquisition		Angolan child's phonological aspect based on language acquisition process	
The child's speech at 2 years old		The child's Linguistic Competances	
Child A:		at 30 Months	
Christmas	dʒ dʒ	Pipoca	pikoka
Necklace	nɛnɛ	pastilha	patiya
Water	wɔwɔ	bater	bate
Chicken	k kə	tirar	tiya
Banana	mimi mimi	tomar	toma
Thank you	dɛtɛ:	dar	da
Sister	s sa:	filha	fiya
Belly button	bebə	venha	vem
Mouth	mamav	Marla	Maya
Clock	kək	não	nu
Candy	kei:	sala	ʃaya
Money	mim	rato	yato

House	dɪdɪ	já	ʒa
Tigger	tɪdɪ	casa	kaʒa
Scissors	dɪdɪ	água	água
Take	kɛkɛ		
Angie	næno		

**Child B:**

**at 36 Months**

Snoop	supɪ, nupɪ	Para	paya
Necklace	nɛkɪs	pagar	paga
Hungry	hankɪ	bolo	boyo
Chip	tɪp	brinquedo	binkɛdu
Water	wət	flor	fioya
Chicken	tʃɪk	falar	faya
Drop	dap	vista	vita
Sock	ʃap	você	vofə
Francie	fæt	trazer	tiaze
Hospital	pɪ	fazer	fəʒə
Hair	heɪr	telefonar	teyefona
Truck	tak	desculpa	dəkupa
Kitten	kɪkɪ	chinelo	ʃɪnəlu
Powder	pav	lata	yata
Pencil	pɛtə	música	muzika
Burger	bɜːgə	novela	novəya
Outside	ausaɪd	graça	guiyaʃa

Furthermore, during the second year, Crystal (2010:251) asserts that an effect known as *reduplication is an important feature of children phonologies: the different syllables of a word are pronounced the same way*. In one child, the word *water* was pronounced for [wowo], bottle as [bubu]. So even with monosyllabic words can be reduplicated, as for the word *ball* becomes [bobo] to quote some examples.

In so doing, a lot of children when acquiring the basic sound units of their mother tongue they often apply some of the following phonological key verbs process, namely assimilation, addition, deletion, elision, reduplication, and so on and so forth. As we can observe in the samples of the child *A* and *B* regarding reduplication in the list of universal phonological process from the child's phonological development based on language acquisition process already presented above are visible in use.

However, Crystal (2010:251) emphasizes that not all children reduplicate words to the same extent, but some yes. However, most of the words are affected, and the process can be observed for several months. In other cases, however, there may be very few words involved, and the effect may last only a few days.

Therefore, in the word *pastilha Clénia* use to omit the alveolar, phoneme /s/ and also use to switching the lateral palatal sound /λ/ into palatal approximant sound /j/ by realizing it as /patiya/, so this 'omission' of a sound segment which could be presented in the deliberate pronunciation of a word in isolation is technically described as elision.

In addition, the phonological process that is, deletion at this given age is also visible where the child find the *CVCCVCV* parttern of the word *pastilha* so tricky when pronouncing it, so she better shorten it to *CVVCVCV* parttern, that is /*patiya*/ avoiding the cluster pattern that is when two or more consonants clustered together, one of the sounds often drop.

As well as all words ending in post-alveolar /r/ she use to omit it, i.e. the deletion process is being used, according to sample on (p.37) and the explanation already made above that is, at very beginning of research.

At the stage of 36 months, the child has acquired fifteen consonants compared to the thirteen ones at 30 months old. Then, the research itself has revealed that the child phonological system consisted of 6 oral vowels and 4 nasal ones at the beginning of the

research. However, at the last stage the target child acquired 9 oral vowels and remained with the 4 nasal ones.

In addition, she used to switch the bilabial phoneme /p/ into the velar sound /k/ realizing the word *pipoca* as /**pikoka**/ as mentioned above. In other words when /p/ occurs in initial position, she had no problem producing it; however, when it occurs in intervocalic position, it was realized as /k/ as the example just mentioned illustrates.

Similarly with the name *Marla* she made use of both post-alveolar phoneme /r/ and the lateral approximant phoneme /l/ by switching them into the palatal, approximant phoneme /j/ realized as /**Maya**/ instead of *Marla*.

To sum up the chapter, at thirty months old, the child acquired thirteen consonants and six oral vowels as the following: (/p, b/, /t, d/, /k, g/, /f, v/, /ʃ, ʒ/, /j/, /m/ and /n/, six oral vowels /ɑ/ /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/, and 4 nasal vowels /ĩ/, /ẽ/, /ã/, /õ/.

At thirty six months old the child acquired fifteen consonants and nine oral vowels:

/p, b/, /t, d/, /f, v/, /s, z/, /m/, /n/, /k, g/, /ʃ, ʒ/, /j/, nine oral vowels /ɑ/, /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/, /ə/, /ɛ/, /ɔ/, and only 4 nasal vowels as at the beginning of research: /ĩ/, /ẽ/, /ã/, /õ/.

In addition she still using the word /**já**/ realized as post-alveolar /ʒ/ as well as the sound /r/ and /l/ she also still realizing them as it were palatal sound /j/) as in the words *rato* /yato/ and *luta* /yuta/.

Finally, I could observe that she was also unable to use the following oral vowels such as: central, close-mid vowel /ə/; the front, open-mid vowel /ɛ/; and the back, open-mid vowel /ɔ/ according to the list of vowels and the chart of the target language in (p. 23). Even with nasal vowels the child was also unable to use the back, close vowel /ũ/, regarding data attested already above.

This chapter has presented the final results which consist of the analysis and interpretation of the data collection. Overall, it has been realized that even if the investigation has covered a relatively short time, but in fact, in the child's life some noticeable and significant changes have been observed at the phonological level. As matter of fact, there has been significant improvement in the child's speech I mean at the level of oral vowels and consonants at the last age, indeed.

## CONCLUSION

This study seeks to provide an insight into how children acquire their first language in case of Portuguese language, with particular reference to *Clénia*, a child of 2 years and 6 months old an Angolan girl who speaks Angolan Portuguese. The present study focuses on one aspect of language development, namely the phonological one.

Thus, the present studies attempt to contribute to the issue of how language develops in the child through my own experience gained during the research work, by bringing more information related to the issue, so Clénia had been observed from the age of 30 months to 36 months, that is, within 6 months of observation; the study has revealed that even within such a relatively short period of time, a lot of visible changes did take place regarding her phonological development.

According to what I have been explained earlier in this study, it may be state that language development in the child, depends on the functioning of the phonatory organs of the children. Thus, the acquisition of speech sounds is closely related to the maturation of the organism, for example, the study has revealed that at 30 months of age, she was unable to produce more than 13 consonants and no more than 6 oral vowels. However, for the consonant she was unable to use the alveolar pair phonemes /s, z/ and with vowels she was also unable to use the central, close-mid vowel /ə/; the front, open-mid vowel /ɛ/; the back, open-mid vowel /ɔ/. Even with nasal vowels the child was unable to use the back, close vowel /ũ/, regarding the data.

Finally, we can say that her organism of speech sound at the age of 36 months start to get a used of those sounds thanks to her maturation which for some extent enable her to acquire more two consonants making 15 ones and more three oral vowels made up 9 oral vowels ones, but 4 nasal ones as attested at the beginning of the research.

She still being unable to use the approximant post-alveolar phoneme /ɾ/, and the lateral /l/, so we can conclude that she acquired more phonemes at the last age of the research than at the beginning of it, indeed.

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## APPENDIX

### 1-THE CHILD'S LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AT 30 MONTHS

#### THE GLOSSARY

<b>The child speech</b>	<b>The adult speech</b>
0-«Minha fiya»  /My daughter/	Minha filha  /my daughter/
1-«Fiya»  /Daughter/	Filha  /Daughter/
2-«Venha»  /come/	Venha  /do come please/
3-«D'água»  /give water/	Dê-me água se faz favor  /please give me water/
4-«Papa vem yi da água»  /Father come and give him water/	Papa venha dar lhe água  /father give him water/
5-«Vo mete água»  /Father put water/	Papa vou meter lhe água  /Daddy I am going to put water/
6-«Já meti, já extiago»  /Dad I put, spoid/	Papa já meti, mas já estragou /Daddy I've already put, but it spoild/
7-«Caya boca»  / shut your mouth, she reproduced what she heard from TV/	Papa cale a boca  /Dad shut up/



8-«Papa acabo»	Papa já acabou
/Daddy it finished/	/Dad it has finished/
9-«Papa ti fayeiyi»	Pai falei te, cale a boca
/Dad shut up/	/Daddy I told you shut up/
10- «Comi ayogi»	Comi arroz
/ I ate rice/	/Dad I've just eaten rice/
11-«vo ti bate»	Vou bate rte pai
/I beat you/	/I'm going to beat you/
12-«Coco do yato»	Fezes do rato
/The shit of mouse/	/the mouse's shits/
13-«Papa vo ye da água»	Papa, vou dar lhe água
/Dad I give him water/	/Dad I'm going to give him water/
14-«Mama quaye codigú»	Mãe qual é o código?
/Mama what code/	/Mother what is the code of your cell phone/
15-«eto axixti»	Estou assistir
/I watch /	/I am watching TV/
16-«No xei»	Não sei
/ do not know/	/I don't know/
17-«Mama toma»	Mama toma
/Mother take/	/mam take it/

18-«Papa eto veti»	Papa estou a vestir-me
/I dress /	/Father I'm dressing/
19-«Mama queyo caga»	Mama eu quero fazer maior
/mam want shit/	/Mammy I want to make a shit/
20-«Toma»	toma
/Take/	/Take it/
21-«tiya»	Tira
/take it /	/Take it away/
22-«da»	Dar
/give/	/To give/
23-«Vem»	Venha cá se faz favor
/come/	/please come over here/
24-«diji»	Diz algo
/say/	/Say some/
25-«Comida»	Mantimento
/food/	/meal/
26-«Papa mama ta vi»	Papa a mãe venha aí
/dad mam is come/	/Daddy mother is coming/
27-Papa to com fome	Papa eu estou a fome
/dad I hungry/	/Father I am hungry/

28-«Mama vem da comida no papa»	Mama da comida ao pai
/Mother come to give food to daddy/	/Mather give food to father/
29-«Mete»	Meter
/put/	/to put/
30-«vem mete»	Venha meter
/come, and put/	/come to put/
31-«exipeia, exipeia»	Espera num estante
/wait, wait/	<i>'Reduplication process'</i> /wait a bit/
32-«Acabo»	Já acabou
/finished/	/it has just finished/
33-«Pega»	Pegar
/touch/	/to touch/
34-«Queyu yava»	Gostaria lavar as minhas mãos
/I want to wash my hand/	/I'd like to wash my hands/
35-«Papa no come ayi»	Papa não come aí
/dad not eat there/	/dad don't eat there!//
36-«Mama Pedro fo compia mincato»	Mama Pedro foi comprar bolas de berlim
/mammy Pedro went buy donuts/	/Mother Pedro went to buy donuts/
37-«Oya a yi»	Olha ali
/look there/	/look over there/
38-«meu xineyu»	Meu chinelo
/my slpper/	/my flip-flops/

39-«Exe que?!»	O quê é isso?!
/this is what?/	/what is this?!/
40-«Mama exe eu»	Mãe sou eu aí?
/mom this is me in there?/	/Mom is this me, in there?/
41-«Pimeyo é eu»	Eu sou o primeiro
/First is me /	/I am the first/
42-«Nati teyefona Pedro»	Nati, liga o Pedro
/Nati, call Pedro/	/Nati call Pedro/
43-«Caja do Pedro»	Casa do Pedro
/House of Pedro/	/ Pedro's house/
44-«Mama mi bateu»	A mãe bateu-me
/mom me beats/	/Mother beats me/
45-«Papa mi dá água»	Papa dê-me água faz favor
/dad me give water/	/father give me water/
46-«Papa mi mete comida»	Papa dê-me comida
/dad me put food/	/Father give me food/
47-«Da yanteina»	Dê-me a lanterna, se faz favor
/give torch/	/Please give me the torch/
48-«Mama oya ayi»	Mãe dá uma olhadinha
/mom look here/	/mom have a look in there/
49-«Acabo cayiga»	Acabou a carga
/finished charge/	/the battery charge has just finished/~

50-«É bicho»		é um bicho
/Is bug/		/it's a beast/
51-«come pexe»		Comer peixe
/eat fish/		/to eat a fish/
52-«Mama comeu		A mãe já comeu
/mother ate/		/the mother has eaten/
53-«Moxta ainda yanteina»		Mostra-me a lanterna
/show yet torch/		/let me see the torch/
54-«Mama ta bonita»		A mãe está bonita
/mom is beautiful/		/mother is pretty/
55-«Papa ta bonita»		O pai está bonito
/dad is beautiful/		/Father is handsome/
56-«Titi»		O tio
/uncle/		/uncle/
57-«Yobi vem mode mama»		Robi venha morder a mãe
/Yobi come, and bite mom/		/Robi bite mom/
58-«Pedro come não»		Pedro come então!
/Pedro eat, not!/		/Pedro, don't you eat/
59-«Dexa dexa!»	<b>'Reduplication'</b>	deixa-me em paz
/Leave me, leave me/		/leave me alone/
60-«vo ti bate também»		também te vou bater
/I beat you too/		/I'm going to be you too/
61-«Voxe vo ti bate»		Você, vou te bater
/you, I go to beat you/		/Mind you, I'm going to beat you/
62-«Tiya caixão queyo mija»		Tira-me os calções que eu quero fazer menor

/take my shorts off I wanna pee/	/take my shorts off, I want to make a pee/
63-«mijei no caixão»	Mijei nos calções
/I urinated in my shorts/	/I wet my shorts/
64-«Mama chama cão pa moide Pedro»	Mãe chama o cão p'ra morder o Pedro
/mom call dog for bite Pedro/	/Mother call the dog to bite Pedro/
65-«Mama quema Pedro»	Mama quema Pedro
/Mother burn Pedro/	/mom burn Pedro/
66-«Mama no é yeu»	Mama não fui eu
/Mother not is me/	/mother was'nt me/
67-«papa no mi quema maji»	Papa não me queima mais
/daddy no me burn again/	/daddy don't burn me anymore/
68-«papa patiya»	Papa dê-me pastilha
/Dad gum/	/Dad give me the gum/
69-Yogurte	Pai dê-me yogurte
/Yogourt/	/Father give me yogourt/
70-«Mama cão foi na caja deye»	Mãe o cão foi-se embora
/mom dog went at house/	/Mother the dog went away/
71-«papa já queyo caga»	Pai eu desejo fazer maior
/father I just want shit/	/Dad, I'd like to make a shit/
72-«Mama já caguei»	Mãe acabo de fazer maior
/mother just made shit/	/mom I've just made a shit/
73-«Mama queyo caga mais»	Mama gostaria cagar outra vez
/mammy want shit again)	/mom I'd like to make a shit once more/
74-«Mama pa caga?»	Mãe, posso defecar?
/mother to make shit?/	/mom shall make a shit?/
75-«Mama ta caba yágua»	Mãe, estás acabar a água

/mother is finish water/	/mother you are finishing the water/
76-«Já vesti»	acabo de me vestir
/just dress/	/I've just dressed/
77-«Aqui? Pa cagaa aonde?»	Onde devo defecar, aqui ou acolá?
/here to shit where?/	Where should I make a shit, you mean here or over there?/
78-«Mama queyo caga ayi na mesa	Mama eu quero defecar sobre a mesa
/mom want shit there on table/	/mother I want to make a shit on the table/
79-«Mama água, vou ti queixa no papa»	Mama eu quero água, vou queixar te ao pai
/mom water I tell daddy/	/mother I want water, I'm going to tell the father/
81-«Mama to caga na cuzinha»	Mamãe estou a defecar na cuzinha
/mom am shit in kitchen/	/mother I'm making a shit in the kitchen/
82-«vo binca na yágua»	Vou brincar na água
/go play water/	/I'm going to play in the water/
83- «Mama ango mo nene»	Mãe onde está a minha filha
/mom where my baby (dull)/	ther where is my daughter (dull)/

## 1.2 A song sang by the child

### GLOSS BY GLOSS

***Bom pai***

Good dad

/A good father/

***Deeve mandaa***

Must send

/have to send/

***Xeu fiyu a exicoya***

Your daughter school

/his child at school/

***Onde ee ye apende a ye***

Where he learn read

/where s/he learn to read)

***Iii, iii pa maji tade***

And for afterwards

/and for later on/

***Eye xeja um bom eyemento***

S/he be a good person

/s/he becomes someone or a good person/

***Na xoxiedade***

/In society/



## THE CHILD'S LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AT 36 MONTHS

### THE SECOND PART OF THE GLOSSARY

1-«Eh! Meu pai ye»  /eh my dad!/  2-Amanhã vo tiazé  /tomorrow bring/  3-Quem equeveu?  /who wrote?/  4-«Pedro vamo na Miya, não?!»  /Pedro let go Mila, not/  5-Tio no va ti da pica  /uncle not give injection/  6-Mama eto equeue  /mom I write/  7-Papa mi da bombom vo pati  /dad give candy I break/  8-Queyo bombom  /want candy/  9- Mama ta mi chama  /mom me call/  10-É tua água  /is your water/	Meu pai!  /oh, my father!/  Eu trago amanhã  /I'll bring tomorrow/  Quem foi que escreveu?  /who is the one/  Pedro vamos a casa da Mila, pode ser?  /Pedro let's go to Mila's house, shall we?!/  O tio não te vai aplicar injeção  /uncle won't give you injection/  Mãe, estou a escrever  /mother I'm writing/  Pai de-me bombom vou partir  /father give me the candy I'm going to break it/  Eu quero bombom  /I want candy/  A mãe chama por mim  /mother is calling me/  É a sua garrafa de água?  /Is it your bottle of water?/
--	--

11- Toma a tua água	Toma a sua garrafa de água
/take your water/	/take your bottle of water/
12- Pedro Nati mi bateu	Pedro a Nati bateu-me
/Pedro Nati me beat/	/Pedro, Nati beat me/
13- Pedro tamo binca	Pedro estamos a brincar
/Pedro are play/	/Pedro we are playing/
14- «Minha saya do Pedinho»	/Minha sala e a do Pedrinho/
/my classroom and Pedinho/	/my classroom and Pedrinho's/
15- Pedro queyo bebe água	Pedro eu quero beber água
/Pedro want drink water/	/Pedro I want to drink water/
16- Vem compia picoye	Venha comprar Picolé
/come buy ice-cream/	/come to buy ice-cream/
17- «Vamo ii binca»	Vamos ir brincar
/let play/	/Let's go to play/
18- Vo bebe água	Vou beber água
/am drink water/	/I'm going to drink water/
19- Está lá	lá está
/is there/	/is overthere/
20- Bebe água!	Beba água!
/drink water/	/drink water/
21- «Oya aki caneca»	Aqui tens a caneca
/here mug/	/here you are the mug/

- 22- «Oh intono!» Oh, entornou-se!  
 /oh spilt/ /Oh, it spilled! - While she was playing with her friends/
- 23- Vo binca yafoya Eu vou brincar lá em casa  
 /play there house/ /I'm going to play at home/
- 24- «oya ya tua boneca» Olha lá a sua boneca  
 /look there your dull/ /look there your dull/
- 25- «Mi da tua nene» Dê-me a sua boneca  
 /me give your baby/ /give me your dull/
- 26- Nati eye tão yuta Nati eles estão a lutar  
 /Nati they are fight/ /Nati they are fighting themselves/
- 27- «Vai faya ya foya!» Já foi? Vai falar lá fora!  
 /go speak outside/ /did he go? Go to speak outside!/
- 28- «Vo axixti boneco» Vou assistir boneco  
 /go watch cartoons/ /I'm going to watch cartoons/
- 29- Ah, ah, aye yeye! (When the child does something wrong by a mistake, she always use that exclamation)
- 30- «incosta a ya» Afasta-se de mim acabou  
 /stay away/ /stay away from me it finished/
- 31- «Voxe no sabe mete, eu xabe» Você não sabe meter, mas eu sei  
 /you not know put, I know/ /you don't know how to put it, but I know/
- 32- Tua nene ta aqui Tua boneca está aqui  
 /your dull is here/ /here you are your dull/

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 33- «Jeyuja daa»                           | Dê-me isso Jerusa                               |
| /Jerusa give/                              | /Jerusa give it to me/                          |
| 34- «Oya ya, no ta ayi no ta ayi!»         | Olha lá não está ali                            |
| /look there no is there, no is there/      | /look, is not there! (She repeat twice)/        |
| 35- «Eu ti dixe vai busca xave»            | Vai buscar a chave                              |
| /I you told go fetch key/                  | / I told you go to get the key/                 |
| 36- «pa mete?! Mama é quie?»               | Para meter?! Mama o quê que se trata?           |
| /to put?! Mom is what?/                    | /shall I put? Mother what is it?/               |
| 37- «Nati vem mi po xapato/mi veti bokixi» | Nati venha calçar-me/venha pôr-me a cueca       |
| /Nati come me put shoe and bikini on/      | /Nati put me the slipper on and the bikini too/ |
| 38- «Mama ta onde cão»                     | Mama onde está o cão                            |
| /Mom where dog/                            | /mother where is the dog?/                      |
| 39- «Mama exe pano?»                       | Mama esse é pano?                               |
| /Mom this cloth?/                          | /mother is this a cloth?/                       |
| 40- Já ta xenta                            | Já estás a sentar!                              |
| /already is sit/                           | /he is sitting!/                                |
| 41- Dexa minha cabexa                      | Deixa a minha cabeça em paz                     |
| /leave my head/                            | /leave my head free/                            |
| 42- Mama eu tiyei chinelo                  | Mama eu tirei o chinelo                         |
| /Mom I took slipper/                       | /mother I took the slipper/                     |
| 43- «Queio dexe»                           | Quero descer                                    |
| /want get down/                            | /I want to get down/                            |

44- Mama dexasti aonde?	Mama, onde deixou?
/Mom left where?/	/Mother, where did you leave it?/
45- Nati taja pega que?	Nati o que estás a pegar?
/Nati is touch what?/	/Mother, what are you touching?/
46- «Mama mi da xo pexe»	Mama dê-me peixe por favor
/Mummy me give fish/	/mother give me the fish/
47- «Mama mi da xo nacu»	Mama dê-me frango por favor
/Mum me give chicken/	/mother give me the chicken/
48- «Sai maje pa»	Sai daqui vai se embora
/get out of here/	/leave me alone/
49- «Mi tapa xo aqui»	Cubra-me por favor
/me cover here/	/put me the cover on/
50- «Exe é quie?»	O quê é isso?
/this is what?/	/What is this?/
51- «Ta mi da gaxa»	Fazes-me rir
/is me give laugh/	/you make me laugh/
52- «Ta xeya fumo»	Está a cheir fumaça
/is smell smoke/	/it's smelling a smoke/
53- «No compa na comida»	Não compre comida!
/not buy food/	/do not buy food!/
54- «Mama pa dexe quie?»	Mama p'ra deixar o quê?
/mum leave what?/	/mother, to leave what?!/

55- «Mama tiya boneca»	Mama tira o boneco
/mummy take dull/	/mother take the dull away/
56- «Mama exe jundungo?»	Mama esse é picante?
/mom this chilli/	/mother is this chilli?/
57- «Axim no ta bom»	Assim não está bom
/like this not is good/	/It is not good like this/
58«Papa foxa aonde»	Papa foste aonde?
/Daddy go where?/	/father where did go?/
59- «papa no compaxi picoca?»	Papa não comprou pipoca?
/Dad not buy pop corn?/	/father didn't you buy the pop-corn?/
60- «Pedo no ecovasti»	Pedro não escovaste
/Pedo not brush/	/Pedro you didn't brush your teeth/
61- «Vo ti bate com xineyo»	Vou bater lhe com chinelo
/go beat with slipper/	/I'm going to beat you with slipper/
62- «Vo ti quema»	Vou queimar-te
/go burn/ /	I'm going to burn you/
63- «Dá bejo»	Beija-me
/give kiss/	/give me a kiss or kiss me/
64- Vem beja Kénia	Venha beijar a Clénia
/come kiss Kénia/	/kiss me or give a kiss/
65- «Papa tapa vista»	Papa fecha os olhos
/Dad close eye/	/Father close your eyes/

66- «Exa aqui é minha coja»	Essa aqui é a minha coisa
/this here is my thing/	/this is my things/
67- «Nati caya caya»	Nati cale a boca
/Nati shut up shut up/	/Nati shut your mouth/
68- «Nati axuxta Pedo»	Nati assusta o Pedro
/Nati frighten Pedo/	/Nati scare Pedro/
69- «Tês, quatio, xinco, nove»	Três, quatro, cinco e nove
/Three, four, five, nine/	/three, four, five and nine/
70- «Pedo axuxta Nati»	Pedro assusta a Nati
/Pedo scare Nati/	/Pedro scare Nati/
71- «Dejiyiguei»	Desliguei
/turn off/	/I switched it off/
72- «Faita maji»	Ainda necessito ou falta mais
/miss more/	/still missing or I still in need/
73- «Papa dexe aqui»	Papa desce por aqui
/Dad go down here/	/father get down over here/
74- «Dicupa, dicupa»	Desculpa-me
/Sorry (twice)/	/I'm sorry/
75- «Nati vem inda aqui»	Nati venha p'ra cá, se faz favor
/Nati come yet here/	/Nati come here, please/
76- «mama exe é meu»	Mama esse é o meu
/mother this is my/	/Mum this is mine/

77- «Pedo mi pico na buxexa»	Pedro picou-me na bochecha
/Pedo me bit on cheek/	/Pedro bit me on the cheek/
78- «Nati quem desyigo teyefone?»	Nati quem desligou o telefone?
/Nati who turned off cell phone/	/Nati who switched off the telephone?/
79- «Tão binca a poita	Estão a brincar com a porta
/are Play the door/	/they are playing with the door/
79- «Se voxe binca binquedo vo ti bate»	Se você brincar o brinquedo vou bater te
/if you Play toy you beat/	/if you play with the toy I'm going to beat you/
80-«Vo tiya binquedo, vo mete no chão»	Vou tirar brinquedo vou meter no chão
/go take toy, put on ground/	/I'm going to take the toy, and put it on the ground/
81-«Mama ta ya foya»	Mama está lá fora
/mum is there outside/	/mother is outside/
82-«Tchien, tchien ta podie!»	Umm está podre!
/Hmm, hmm is spoilt/	/hummm it's spoiled/
83-«Dexa, mete aqui»	Deixa, coloque aqui
/leave, put here/	/leave it, put it here/
84-«Exe mujica?»	Esse é uma música
/this music/	/Is this a music?/
85«Dexa aqui no va mi intona»	Deixa por aqui não vai entornar-me
/leave here not me spill/	/leave it here it won't spill on me/
86-«Aya tem faca»	Acolá tem faca
/there have wife/	/overthere, there is a knife/



- 87-«No va mete no xaco» Não vai meter no saco  
 /not go put in bag/ /s/he won't put it in the bag/
- 88- Her female cousin of six years says «não estou a conseguir de abrir»  
 she answers «peya vo ti moxta» Espera vou mostrar-te  
 /wait go you show/ /wait I'm going to show you how to do so/
- 89-«Chawe chawe to dexa binquedo» Tchau tchau estou a deixa o brinquedo  
 /bye-bye go leave toy/ /bye-bye I'm going to leave the toy/
- 90-«Oya aqui binquedo» Olhe, aqui está o brinquedo  
 /look here toy/ /look, here is the toy/
- 91-«Nati ta ya foya» Nati está lá fora  
 /Nati is there outside/ /Nati is outside/
- 92- Her cousin «'está a banhar'» she said: «no ta nada banha ta veti» Não está nada  
 a banhar, mas sim a vestir  
 /not is yet bath is dress/ not taking a bath, yet dressing, 'Clénia said'/
- 93-«dexa axim» Deixa-o assim  
 /leave so/ /leave it like that/
- 94-«Dexa vo ti bat e» Deixa vou bater-te  
 /leave go you beat/ leave me alone I'm going to beat you if you keep doing that/
- 95-«queyo binca» Quero brincar  
 /want kid/ /I want to play/
- 96-«Aqueia coija ta onde?» Onde está aquela coisa?  
 /that thing is where?/ /where is that thing?/

97-«Mete brinquedo no xaco»	Tem o brinquedo no saco
/put toy in bag/	/put the toy in the bag/
98-«Mama va bebe yagua»	Mama vai beber água
/mummy is drink water/	/mother is going to drink water/
99-É minha boneca	A boneca é minha
/is my dull/	/it's my dull/
100- «é na piaia»	É na praia
/is in beach/	/it's in the beach/
101- «Pedo ta pocuya quem?»	Pedro, quem procuras?
/Pedo is look for who/	/Pedro, who are you looking for?/
102- «Evana voxe no ta faje»	Evana você não estás a fazer
/Evana you no tis make/	/Evana you are not doing/
103- «Dexa to faje <i>mo</i> caja» ‘ <i>she faild in the gender</i> ’ Deixe estou a fazer a <i>minha</i> casa	
/leave is make myt house/	/leave me I'm doing my house/
104- «Ta aqui na mesa»	Está aqui na mesa
/is here on table/	/is here on the table/
105- Fica aí /aqui	Fique por aí
/stay there/here	/it stay there/here/
106- É meu pai	É o meu pai
/is my father/	/is my father indeed/
107- «exa água é da minha miga»	Essa água é da minha amiga
/this water is of my friend/	/this bottle of water belongs to my friend/

108- «exe é água da minha miga»	Esse é a água da minha mãe
/this is water of my friend/	/this water belongs to my mother/
109- É pa binca	É p'ra brincar
/is for kid/	/is for playing/
110- Dá meu boneco	Dê-me o boneco
/give my dull/	/give me my dull/
111- «Voxe va ya foya»	Você vai lá fora
/you go there outside/	/Hey you go outside/
112- «Nati tiya quenhee?!»	Nati, de que tia se trata?
/Nati aunt who/	/whose aunt are you saying?/
113- «Quenhee?!»	Quem bate a porte?
/who is?/	/who is it?/
114- «É tua amiga não?!»	É a tua amiga, pois não?!
/is your friend, is it?	/is your friend, isn't she?!
115- «Pa mete aí?»	É p'ra meter aí?
/to put there?/	/is it to be put right there?/
116- «Vem ve boyo»	Venha ver o bolo
/come see cake/	/come and see the cake/
117- «To na feta»	Estou na festa
/is in party/	/I'm in the paty/
118- Fica no chão	Permaneça no chão
/stay on ground/	/stay on the ground/

119- «Exe meu»	Esse meu
/this my/	/this is mine/
120- «Pa mete que aqui?»	É p'ra meter o quê?
/to put what here/	/what I'm I supposed to put right here?/
121- «Ango pão?»	Onde está o pão?
/where bread/	/where is the bread?/
122- «Da na minha mã	Dê-a na minha mãe
/give on my mum/	/give it to my mother/
123- «Já te pijeí»	Pisei-te
/already you step on/	/I've stepped on you/
124- «Ta quem ti no comeu ainda»	Quem ainda não comeu?
/who not eat yet/	/who didn't eat yet?/
125- «Papa come não!»	Papa como então!
/Dad eat not/	/father you can eat!/
126- «To come ayos com cacafoya»	Estou a comer arroz com sacafolha
/is eat rice with cassava leaf/	/I'm eating rice and cassava leaf/
127- «Mama mi mete xo xumo»	Mama põe-me sumo
/mum me put just juis/	/mother give me juis/
128- «Exe <b>meu</b> exe tua»	Essa é a <b>minha</b> água e aquela é tua
/this my this yours/	/this is my bottle of water and that is yours/
129- «Voxe no xabe bebe minha água»	Você não sabe beber água
/you not know drink my water/	/you don't know how to drink water/

130- «Exe não é faca?»	Esta não é a faca?
/this no tis wife/	/is this a knife?/
131- «uma fioya»	É uma flor
/a flower/	/is a flower/
132- «Eye nunca fayó»	Ele nunca fala
/he never talk/	/he never spoke/
133- «Mama exe é nene»	Mama esse o meu bebe
/mum this is baby/	/mother this is my daughter/
134- «eye fugiu»	Ele fugiu
/he fled/	/he escape from/
135- «Exe é que?»	O quê é isso?
/this is what?/	/what is it?/
136- «Voxe to nome é quenhe?»	Qual é o seu nome/ como te chamas?
/you your name is what?/	/what is your name?/
137- «Tua mãe é quem nhe?»	Quem é a sua mãe?
/your mum is who?/	/who is your mother?/
138- «Va mi compia xaya»	Compra-me uma saia
/go me buy skirt/	/buy me a skirt/
139- «Vem xo mi tiya xaiya pa yeu mete»	Tira a saia, p'ra eu vestir
/come just me take skirt for me dress/	/take the skirt, I want to dress it/
140- «Ta canta minha mujica»	A aminha música está a tocar
/is sing my song/	/my song is being sung/

- 141- «Pedo aqueyaya é quem que ta vi?» Pedro quem vem aí?  
 /Pedo that is who that is come/ /Pedro who is coming there?/
- 142- «Mama exe ta xujo» isso está sujo mãe  
 /mum this is dirty/ /this is dirty mother/
- 143- «Mama água entiyo no nayiz» Mama água entrou na narina  
 /mummy water got in nose/ /mother the water got into the nostril/
- 144-?! «Pedo to xapato no ta xeya né?!» Pedro o seu sapato não está cherar, pois não  
 /Pedo your shoe no tis smell isn't it?/ /Pedro your shoes is not stinking, is it?/
- 145- «Mama abe poitão» Mama abre a porta  
 /mum open gate/ /mother open the gate/
- 146- «Pedo eu xo vovo» Pedro eu sou avô  
 /Pedo I am grandmum/ /Pedro, I'm the grandmother/
- 147- «Mama exe é buyacha» Mama esse é bolacha?  
 /mum this is biscuit/ /mother is this cookie?/
- 148- «Mama mi abi xo» Mãe abre-a se faz favor  
 /mummy me open just/ /please mother just open it/
- 149- Mama esse é metade Mãe esse é metade  
 /mum this is piece/ /mother this is a half/
- 150- «Pedo compas aonde xumu?» Pedro onde comprou o sumo?  
 /Pedo buy where juis/ /Pedro where did you buy the juis/
- 151- Mama esse é boneco/novela Mãe esse é bonecos ou novela  
 /mum this is cartoon/ novela/ /mother is this a cartoon or soap opera?/

152- «papa mi mete xo na excoxita»	Papa ponha-me à escosta
/dad me put just on back/	/father put me on your back/
153- «exi tá bom»	Esse está bom
/this is good/	/this is okay/fine/
154- «Nati vo toma yemedio amanhã»	Nati vou tomar o remédio amanhã
/Nati go take medicine tomorrow/	/Nati tomorrow I'm going to take medicine/drug/
155- «Exe é pexi»	Esse é peixe
/this is fish/	/this is a fish/
156- «Buyo Ana faje que?»	Burro faz o quê?
/donkey do what/	/what does a donkey do?/
157- «ta dejenha que?»	O quê desenhás?
/is draw what?/	/what are you drawing?/
158- «Eh no xabe dejenha!»	Ora essa! Não sabes desenhar.
/Yikes! Not know draw/	/Hooray! You don't know how to draw!/
159- «Exe ayeiya»	Esse é areia
/this sand/	/this is some sand/
160- «boneco ta domi»	O boneco está a dormir
/dull is sleep/	/the dull is sleeping/
161- «Papa voxe tem bico»	Papa tem umbigo
/dad you have navel/	/father you have a navel/
162- «Eu ecovi»	Eu escovei-me
/I brush/	/I brushed my teeth myself/

163- «Amufuada»	A almofada
/pillow/	/the pillow/
164- «boneco ta bayonxa»	O boneco está a balançar
/dull is swing/	/the dull is swinging/
165- «Minha mãe ta tabaya»	A minha mãe está a trabalhar
/my mum is work/	/my mother is working/
166- «To caga bufu»	Soltei um peido
/is shit fart/	/I farted, it means the pollution of air made by a human being from their anus/
167- «Nati axusta Pedro»	Nati assusta o Pedro
/Nati scare Pedro/	/Nati scares Pedro/
168- «Mama ma axusta mais»	Mama assusta-me outra vez
/mummy me scare more/	/mother scare me again/
169- Batata	Batatas
/Potato/	/potatoes/
170- «Payabenja»	Feliz aniversário
/Congratulation! /	/happy birth day/
171- «Mama Quénia ta com fome»	Mãe eu estou a fome
/mother Clénia is hungry/	/Mum I´m hungry/
172- «Nati ta com fome»	Nati está a fome
/Nati is with hungry/	/Nati is hungry/



173- «Nati fiyo da caxa»	Nati filho da mãe
/Nati son of bitch/	/Damn Nati! Son of bitch/
174- «Nati já fechi janeya»	Nati já fechei a janela
/Nati already close window/	/Nati I already closed the window/
175- «To coxegui»	Estou a consegui
/is get /	/I'm getting it/
176- «Pedo no ta xai»	Pedro não está a sair?
/Pedo not get out/	/Pedro isn't it getting out?/
177- «no tas no quato»	Não estás no quarto
/no tis in bedroom/	/you are not in the bedroom/
178- «obitato»	Obrigado
/thank you/	/thank you/
179- «Pedo viya axim»	Pedro vire deste jeito
/Pedo turn so /	/Pedro turn in this way/
180- «Pedo ta onde Foguinho»	Pedro onde está o foguinho?
/Pedo is where Foguinho/	/Pedro where is Foguinho?/
181- «Pedo Foguinho faya o que»	Pedro o Foguinho fala o quê?
/Pedo Foguinho say what/	/Pedro what does Foguinho say?/
182- «Da beijo no teu mayido»	Beija o seu marido
/give kiss in your husband/	/kiss your husband/
183- «Pedo vamo yuta»	Pedro vamos lutar
/Pedo go fight/	/Pedro let's fight/

184- «Nataya Pedo também va come?»	Natalia o Pedro também vai comer?
/Nataya Pedo also go eat?/	/Natalia, is Pedro going to eat as well?/
185- «Mama mete mujiga»	Mama mete música
/mum put music//	mother play the music/
186- Papa vem come to comida	Papa venha comer a sua comida
/dad come eat your food/	/father come to eat your food/
187- «Mama Pedo nego comida deye»	Mama, o Pedro negou de comer a sua comida
/mummy, Pedro deny food his/	/mother Pedro denied to eat his food/
188- «Mama axim ta bom»	Mama assim está bom
/mum like this is ok/	/mother in this way is fine/
189 - «Luje, luje já véu!»	A luz restabeleceu-se!
/Power, power already come/	/the power came back!/
190- «Pedo faya moyi»	Pedro diga que eu estou morto
/Pedo talk died/	/Pedro say I´m died/
191- «Pedo ta cheya coco»	Pedro está a cheirar fezes
/Pedo is smell shit/	/Pedro is smelling a shit/
192- «Mama mi da bejo»	Mama dê-me beijo
/mum me give kiss/	/mother kiss me/
193- «Mama chocoyate» <i>“holophrastic”</i>	Mãe poderia dar-me uma barra de chocolate?
/Mother chocolate! /	/mum could I have a chocolate/
194- «Teyefone»	Telefone da Nati
/Nati phone/	/Nati´s cellphone/

195- «Dexa vo guaida teyefone deye»	Deixa que eu guarde o telefone dela
/leave go hide cell phone her/	/let me hide he phone/
196- «Teyefone da minha mãe»	O telefone da minha mãe
/cell phone of my mum/	/my mother's telephone/
197- «Titi foi aonde»	Onde foi o tio?
/uncle went where/	/where did uncle go?/
198- « <i>Minha</i> pai é Pedro»      ' <i>She failed in the gender</i> '	O meu pai é o Pedro
/my dad is Pedro/	/Pedro is my father/
199- «Foxi compa picoca»	Foste comprar pipoca?
/went buy pop corn/	/did you go to buy pop-corn?/
200- «ta cheya»	Está a cheirar
/is smell/	/is stiking/
201- «mama também tem copo»	A mãe também tem corpo
/mum too have body/	/mother has also the body/
202- «Joje Pedro Xoca»	José Pedro Soca
/the name of her father/	/Her father's full name/
203- «Pedo mi tiya xo foto»	Pedro tira-me uma foto
/Pedo me take just photo/	/Pedro take me a picture/
204- «é vedadi»	É a verdade
/is true/	/it's a true/
205-«No mi pega voxe ta cheya xixi»	Não pega-me cheiras a xixi
/not me touch you smell wee/	/don't touch me, you are smelling a pee or a wee/



217- «Papa foi a loja»	Papa foi a loja
/dad went shop/	/father went to the shop/
218- «Ta vi aqui»	Está a vir aqui
/is come here/	/is coming here/
219- «To axixti boneco»	Estou assistir boneco
/is watch cartoons/	/I'm watching cartoons/
220- «Exe teu xapato»	Esse é o seu sapato?
/this your shoe/	/ /this is your shoes/
221- «To teyefone é de quem?»	De quem é o telefone?
/your cellphone is of who?/	/to whom this cellphone belongs?/
222- «Exe teyefone é teu?»	Esse telefone é seu?
/this c telephone is your/	/is this cellphone yours?/
223- «Chau é!»	Tchau
/bye ok/	/bye-bye!/
224- «Yapi»	Lápis
/pencil/	/pencil/
225- «To queve»	Estou a escrever
/is write/	/I'm writing/
226- «Exa aqui é quê?»	O quê é isso?
/this here is what/	/what is this?/
227- «To teyefone tem cayiga?»	O seu telefone tem carga?
/your telephone have charge?/	/is your cellphone charged?/

228- «Exa é cadeya de quem?»		De quem é a cadeira?
/this is chair of who?/		/whom this chair belongs to?/
229- «Quenia»		Clénia
/the child's name/		/the name of the target child/
230- «Exe mujica de quem?»		De quem é a música?
/this music of who?/		/to whom is this music?/
231- «Voxe to nome é quenhe?»		Qual é o seu nome?
/you name is who/		/what is your name?/
232- «Eu no xabe tiya codigú»		Eu não sei tirar o código
/I not know take code/		/I don't know how take the cod out/
233- É meu binquedo		É o meu brinquedo
/is my toy/		/is my toy/
234- «No ta da paya tiya foto»		Não dá p'ra tirar foto
/no tis give for take photo/		/it's somewhat tricky to take the picture/
235- «Mi da xo patiya»		Dê-me pastilha
/me give just gum/		/give me the gum/
236- «Já tiye foto»		Já tirei a foto
/already took photo/		/I've just taken the picture/
237- «mi da xo codigú»		Dê-me código
/me give just code/		/give me the code/
238- «No mi pega no mi pega»	<b>'Repeatition process'</b>	Não pega-me
/not me touch not me touch/		/don't touch she said (twice)/

239- «Eu xabe abi minha...»	Eu sei abrir a minha....
/I know open my.../	/I know how to open my.../
240- «patiya»	Pastilha
/gum/	/some gum/
241- «quem ti compio teyefo?»	Quem foi que o comprou o telefone, é o Pedro/Nati?
/who you buy telephone?/	/who bought you the cellphone?/
242- «tas yinda!»	Estás linda!
/you beautiful/	/you are beautiful!
243- «To cadeno, to teyefone tua yapijeya»	Seu caderno, seu telefone, sua lapiseira
/your notbook, your phone, your pen/	/your copybook, your telephone, your pen/
244- «Minha patiya ta onde?»	Onde está a minha pastilha?
/my gum is where?/	/where is my gum/
245- «Eu no xo nene eu xo quenia»	Eu não sou bebé eu chamo-me Clenia
/I not be baby I be Quenia/	/I'm not a baby, my name is Clenia/
246- «Eu vo na escoya»	Eu vou a escola amanhã
/I go in school/	/I'm going to school tomorrow/
247- «Nati é que mi yimpo pumpum»	A Nati é que limpou-me o rabo
/Nati is that me clean anus/	/is Nati who cleaned me/
248- «Ago a feia da Nati?»	Onda está a feia da Nati?
/now the ugly of Nati/	/where is the ugly Nati?/
249- «A feia da Pedro ta onde?»	Onde está o feio do Pedro
/the ugly of Pedro is where/	/where is the ugly Pedro?/

250- «Minha mãe é feia da Nati»	A minha mãe é feia
/my mum is ugly of Nati/	/my mother is ugly/
251- «Já paitiu mais»	Já partiu mais
/already broke again/	/it has just broken again/
252- «Cabexa da coco feia»	Cabeça de coco feia
/head of coconut ugly/	/head of coconut/
253- «axim ta yinda»	Assim está linda
/like this is pretty/	/like this is beautiful or you're beautiful like this/
254- «vai mbora na casa deye»	Ele vai se embora na casa dele
/go away in house his/	/s/he is going back at her/his house/
255- Minha mãe	A minha mãe
/my mother/	/my mother/
256- Meu pai	o meu pai
/my father/	/my father/
257- Minha vovô	A minha avó
/my grandmum/	/my grand mother/
258- yeu tomei banho	Eu tomei banho
/I had bath/	/I had a bath/
259- «vo yeva teyefone do titi»	Vou levar o telefone do titi (tio)
/go take cellphone of uncle/	/I'm taking uncle's telephone/
260- «voxe mi compio jeyado?»	Você comprou-me gelado?
/you me buy Ice-cresm/	/did you buy me some ice-cream?/



261- «to teyefone anda faxe que? »	O quê é que o seu telefone faz?
/your cellphone walk make what/	/what does your cellphone do?/
262- «comi xo choyixo»	Comi apenas chouriço
/ate just spicy sausage/	/I just ate spicy sausage = European Portuguese translation, but for or Brazilian Portuguese they call chouriço= black pudding/
263- «Mama mi ponhe xo mais xoyixo»	Mama põe-me mais chouriço
/mummy me put just more black pudding/	/mother dish me up more spicy sausage/
264- «Vo come mo xayixixi»	Vou comer a minha salsicha
/is go eat my sausage/	/I'm going to eat my sausage/
265- «Exe nowe ayanxi?»	Esse não é aliança?
/this not is wedding ring?/	/is this wedding ring, isn't it?/
266- «Exiqueva meu nome»	Escreve o meu nome se faz favor
/write my name/	/please write my name/
267- «Axutei»	Atirei, lancei ou arremecei
/threw/	/I threw it away/