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 comparising 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 Clênia 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 amalgan 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 morden 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, it 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 indigenous 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 visiable between Brazil and Portugal countries but also within African Portugueses 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 spectum*
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 Portuguse 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 stared 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 orphography, as that is the one they are used to. In all likelihood the 1992 agreement will only be fully implemeted 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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manner of Articuation</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio-dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Post-alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Uvular</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>p, b</td>
<td></td>
<td>t, d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>k, g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td></td>
<td>f, v</td>
<td>s, z</td>
<td>ʃ, ʒ</td>
<td></td>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j̞</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral Approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>λ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronounced as…</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ç/</td>
<td>laço</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ch/</td>
<td>Champô</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/g+a,o,u/</td>
<td>gás</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/g+e,i/</td>
<td>gelo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/h/</td>
<td>hora (not pronounced)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/j/</td>
<td>iá</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/lh/</td>
<td>milhão</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nh/</td>
<td>vinho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/q/</td>
<td>quadro</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronounced as…</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/rr/</td>
<td>carro (as initial “r”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>samba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronounced as…</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ca$$a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meu$$a</td>
<td>amigos</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


at the end of syllable/Word, if followed by unvoiced consonant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VeSpa</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoSca</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But, at end of syllable/Word, if followed by voiced consonant (b, d, g, m, n, r)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fôSforos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meuS pais</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LiSboa</td>
<td>has-de</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rasgar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mesmo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ciSne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aS mãos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>X</th>
<th>xerife</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>México</td>
<td>mesh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>peixe</td>
<td>fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excelente</td>
<td>geisha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>exame</td>
<td>easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existir</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exótico</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>táxi</td>
<td>Taxi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tórax</td>
<td>Thorax</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trouxe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Próximo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>Zebra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dizer</td>
<td>Dessert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luz</td>
<td>louche</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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:

/α/ as in casa (house), lá (there)

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

/ɔ/ 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Centrol</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close-mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mid</td>
<td>ɛ</td>
<td></td>
<td>ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td>ə</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples:</th>
<th>Pronounced as…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/a/ open /a/ Sapato /u/</td>
<td>[fat]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close /a/ Sapato</td>
<td>[about]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unstressed /a/ boca</td>
<td>[announce]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/e/ open /e/ cheque</td>
<td>[cheque]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close /e/ cabe /u/</td>
<td>[fill]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as conjunction, or /e/</td>
<td>}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as first syllable of vowel elefante</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/i/ close /i/ fita</td>
<td>[feet]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/ open /o/ loja</td>
<td>[lonzenge]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>closed /o/ poço /u/</td>
<td>[torso]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unstressed /o/ poço</td>
<td>[zoo]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u/ u /u/ luta</td>
<td>[loot]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nasal vowel in Portuguese (produced with some nasal reasonances)
A vowel is nasal if a tilde (~) is written above it or if it is followed by –m or -n within the same syllable:

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

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

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

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

/u/ as in mundo (world)
Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ã/</th>
<th>là</th>
<th>lamb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>am</td>
<td>amplo</td>
<td>ample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an</td>
<td>planta</td>
<td>plankton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>em</td>
<td>empréstimo</td>
<td>empower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>entre</td>
<td>entertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>om</td>
<td>compras</td>
<td>competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on</td>
<td>contar</td>
<td>contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>im</td>
<td>sim</td>
<td>scene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>tintas</td>
<td>tinder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>um</td>
<td>tumba</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un</td>
<td>nunca</td>
<td>tomb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 disconfort that cause crying and fussing known as reflexive noises’ occur here. Even breathing, eating, exceting, 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 thoaty 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 infant’s 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. Chines babies begin to babble with tones); indeed, it usually emerge 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 assumptions 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 death 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. Jackobson (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 repreended 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 average child has a recognition vocabulary of about 14,000 words.

It is no wonder 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. Barsalou 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 chapter-in 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 occupied 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 Chomisky.

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 /a/, /d/; /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 /o/; the front, open-mid vowel /e/; 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 principales 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)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of Articulation</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio-dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Post-alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Uvular</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>p b</td>
<td></td>
<td>t d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>k g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>f v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 [del]
2-Pig [big]
3-Push [bas]
4-Soup [zup:]
As well as with the name Marla she used to omit both post-alveolar phoneme /t/ 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 /t/ 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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[s] + stop (strategy: delete [s])</th>
<th>Stop + liquid (strategy: delete liquid)</th>
<th>Fricative + liquid (strategy: delete liquid)</th>
<th>Nasal + voiceless stop (strategy: delete nasal)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Desk → [dek]</td>
<td>Bring → [bɪn]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 » [dn]
2-Bus » [bʌ]
3-Boot » [buː]

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 parttern 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 Clênia’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)
/f, 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

/α/ as in casa (house)
/a/ as in papa, mama, água (father, mother, water)
/e/ as in extiyyaga, mete (to spoil, to put)
/i/ as in fiya, picoca (daughter, pop corn)
/ɔ/ as in boca, código, foto (mouth, cod, photograph)

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oral vowels</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Centrl</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>ʊ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close-mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mid</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td>α</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 /α/; front, open vowel /ɑ/; 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonant inventory at age two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stops</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Nasal vowels

/ã/ as in mão (no, not), amanhã (tomorrow)

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nasal vowels</th>
<th>Front vowels</th>
<th>Back vowels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>/ĩ/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close-mid</td>
<td>/ẽ/</td>
<td>/ô/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ã/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this section I could observe that she was unable to use the following oral vowels that is, central, close-mid vowel /a/; the front, open-mid vowel /e/; 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, Clênia’s phonological system may be described as follows:

- Bilabials:
  
  /p/ as in papa (father); paya (for); pão (bread); pega (to touch); pexe (fish)
  
  /b/ as in bombom (candy); boyo (cake); binquedo (toy); binca (to play) bate (to beat).

- Labiodentals:
  
  /f/ as in faca (knife); fiyoya (flower); faya (to talk); foi (went away)
  
  /v/ as in vita (an eye); você (you); vovô/vovó (grandfather/grandmother)

- Alveolars:
  
  /s/ as in sala (room); Saco (bag)

  /z/ as in faze (to make or to do); tiaze (to bring)

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

  /d/ as in decupa (sorry); dexa (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), noveya (soap opera); nunca (never)

- Velar:

/k/ as in casa (house)

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of articulation</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio-dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Post-alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Uvular</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>p b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>t d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>k g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td></td>
<td>f v</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ʃ ʒ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 /ɾ/ 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

/\a\ as in bebe (to drink)

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

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

/\o\ as in boneco (dull)

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

/\a\ as in mama (mother), axixti (to watch)

### Oral vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Centrl</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>\i</td>
<td></td>
<td>\u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close-mid</td>
<td>\e</td>
<td></td>
<td>\ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mid</td>
<td>\ɛ</td>
<td></td>
<td>\ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>\a</td>
<td></td>
<td>\a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- 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)

/ā/ as in amanhã (tomorrow)

**Backness:** Close-mid vowel

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nasal vowels</th>
<th>Front vowels</th>
<th>Back vowels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>/ĩ/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close-mid</td>
<td>/ẽ/</td>
<td>/ō/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ā/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universal aspects in the child’s phonological Development, based on language acquisition</td>
<td>Angolan child’s phonological aspect based on language acquisition process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The child’s speech at 2 years old</th>
<th>The child’s Linguistic Competances at 30 Months</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child A:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christmas</td>
<td>d² d²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necklace</td>
<td>nɛnɛ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>wɔwɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>k kɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banana</td>
<td>mim mimí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you</td>
<td>dɛtɛ:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>s sa:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belly button</td>
<td>bebe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouth</td>
<td>mamav</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clock</td>
<td>kɔk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>kei:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money</td>
<td>mim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House</td>
<td>didi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tigger</td>
<td>tudi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scissors</td>
<td>didi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take</td>
<td>keke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angie</td>
<td>næno</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Child B:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>noun</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Snoop</td>
<td>supi,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nupi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necklace</td>
<td>nekis</td>
<td>pagar</td>
<td>paga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungry</td>
<td>hanki</td>
<td>bolo</td>
<td>boyo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chip</td>
<td>tip</td>
<td>brinquedo</td>
<td>binkədu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>wət</td>
<td>flor</td>
<td>fiøya</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiken</td>
<td>tfik</td>
<td>falar</td>
<td>faya</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop</td>
<td>dap</td>
<td>vista</td>
<td>vita</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sock</td>
<td>fop</td>
<td>você</td>
<td>vojə</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francie</td>
<td>faet</td>
<td>trazer</td>
<td>tiaze</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>pɨ</td>
<td>fazer</td>
<td>faʒə</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair</td>
<td>heir</td>
<td>telefonar</td>
<td>teyefona</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truck</td>
<td>tak</td>
<td>desculpa</td>
<td>dakupa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitten</td>
<td>kikɨ</td>
<td>chinelo</td>
<td>fìnulu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powder</td>
<td>pav</td>
<td>lata</td>
<td>yata</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pencil</td>
<td>petə</td>
<td>música</td>
<td>muzıkə</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burger</td>
<td>b3:ɡə</td>
<td>novela</td>
<td>novəya</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside</td>
<td>ausaid</td>
<td>graça</td>
<td>guiyaʃa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 /ʎ/ 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 partern of the word pastilha so tricky when pronouncing it, so she better shorten it to CVCVCV partern, 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 /t/ 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 additional, 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 /ɾ/ 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 /ɑː/; /ɛː/; /iː/; /oː/; /uː/, and 4 nasal vowels /ĩ/; /ẽ/; /ᾶ/; /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/, /m/, /n/, /ʌ, /ɛ/, /ə/, and only 4 nasal vowels as at the beginning of research: /ĩ/, /ẽ/, /ᾶ/, /õ/.

In addition she still using the word /já/ realized as post-alveolar /ʒ/ as well as the sound /ɾ/ 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 /a/; 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 /ɔ/; the front, open-mid vowel /ɛ/; the back, open-mid vowel /ɜ/. 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.
REFERENCES


# APPENDIX

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

### THE GLOSSARY

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

9-«Papa ti fayeiyi»  
/Dad shut up/  
/Pai falei te, cale a boca  
/Daddy I told you shut up/

10- «Comi ayogi»  
/I ate rice/  
/Comi arroz  
/Dad I´ve just eaten rice/

11-«vo ti bate»  
/I beat you/  
/Vou bate rte pai  
/I´m going to beat you/

12-«Coco do yato»  
/The shit of mouse/  
/Fezes do rato  
/the mouse´s shits/

13-«Papa vo ye da água»  
/Dad I give him water/  
/Papa, vou dar lhe água  
/Dad I´m going to give him water/

14-«Mama quaye codigú»  
/Mama what code/  
/Mãe qual é o código?  
/Mother what is the code of your cell phone/

15-«eto axixti»  
/I watch/  
/Estou assistir  
/I am watching TV/

16-«No xeï»  
/do not know/  
/Não sei  
/I don´t know/

17-«Mama toma»  
/Mother take/  
/Mama toma  
/mam take it/
18-«Papa eto vetti»
/I dress /
Papa estou a vestir-me
/Father I’m dressing/

19-«Mama queyo caga»
/mam want shit/
Mama eu quero fazer maior
/Mammy I want to make a shit/

20-«Toma»
/Take/
toma
/Take it/

21-«tiya»
/take it /
Tira
/Take it away/

22-«da»
/give/
Dar
/To give/

23-«Vem»
/come/
Venha cá se faz favor
/please come over here/

24-«diji»
/say/
Diz algo
/Say some/

25-«Comida»
/food/
Mantimento
/meal/

26-«Papa mama ta vi»
/dad mam is come/
Papa a mãe venha aí
/Daddy mother is coming/

27-Papa to com fome
/dad I hungry/
Papa eu estou a fome
/Father I am hungry/
28-«Mama vem da comida no papa»
/Mother come to give food to daddy/
/Mother give food to father/

29-«Mete»
/put/
/to put/

30-«vem mete»
/come, and put/
/come to put/

31-«exipeia, exipeia»
/wait, wait/
/Reduplication process /
/wait a bit/

32-«Acabo»
/finished/
/it has just finished/

33-«Pega»
/to touch/

34-«Queyu yava»
/I want to wash my hand/
/I’d like to wash my hands/

35-«Papa no come ayi»
/dad not eat there/
/dad don’t eat there!/

36-«Mama Pedo 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»
/look there/
/look over there/

38-«meu xineyu»
/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 Pedo» Nati, liga o Pedro
/Nati, call Pedo/ /Nati call Pedro/

43-«Caja do Pedo» Casa do Pedro
/House of Pedo/ /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»
/Is bug/
é um bicho
51-«come pexe»
/eat fish/
Comer peixe
52-«Mama comeu
/mother ate/
A mãe já comeu
53-«Moxta ainda yanteina»
/show yet torch/
Mostra-me a lanterna
54«Mama ta bonita»
/mom is beautiful/
A mãe está bonita
55-«Papa ta bonita»
/dad is beautiful/
O pai está bonito
56-«Titi»
/uncle/
O tio
57«Yobi vem mode mama»
/Yobi come, and bite mom/
Robi venha morder a mãe
58-«Pedo come não»
/Pedro eat, not!/
Pedro come entô!
59-«Dexa dexa/»
‘Reduplication’
deixa-me em paz
/Leave me, leave me/
/leave me alone/
60-«vo ti bate também»
/I beat you too/
também te vou bater
61-«Voxe vo ti bate»
/you, I go to beat you/
Você, vou te bater
62-«Tiya caixão queyo mija»
/Mind you, I’m going to beat you/
Tira-me os calçôes 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/
64-«Mama chama cão pa moide Pedo» Mãe chama o cão p’ra morder o Pedro
/mom call dog for bite Pedo/ /Mother call the dog to bite Pedo/
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’t 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 yogourt
/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 yáguia» 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?

/her 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 quexa 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 bricar 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 sung by the child

GLOSS BY GLOSS

*Bom  paii*

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»
Meu pai!
/eh my dad!/ /oh, my father!/

2-Amanhã vo tiaze
Eu trago amanhã
/tomorrow bring/ /I’ll bring tomorrow/

3-Quem equeveu?
Quem foi que escreveu?
/who wrote/? /who is the one/

4-«Pedo vamo na Miya, não?!»
Pedro vamos a casa da Mila, pode ser?
/Pedo let go Mila, not/ /Pedro let’s go to Mila’s house, shall we?!

5-Tio no va ti da pica
O tio não te vai aplicar injecção
/uncle not give injection/ /uncle won’t give you injection/

6-Mama eto equeve
Mãe, estou a escrever
/mom I write/ /mother I’m writing/

7-Papa mi da bombom vo pati
Pai de-me bombom vou partir
/dad give candy I break/ /father give me the candy I’m going to break it/

8-Queyo bombom
Eu quero bombom
/want candy/ /I want candy/

9- Mama ta mi chama
A mãe chama por mim
/mom me call/ /mother is calling me/

10-Ê tua água
É a sua garrafa de água?
/is your water/ /Is it your bottle of water?/
11- Toma a tua água
/take your water/

12- Pedro Nati mi bateu
/Pedo Nati me beat/

13- Pedo tamo binca
/Pedo are play/

14- «Minha saya do Pedinho»
/my classroom and Pedinho/

15- Pedo queyo bebe água
/Pedo want drink water/

16- Vem compia picoye
/come buy ice-cream/

17- «Vamo ii binca»
/let play/

18- Vo bebe água
/am drink water/

19- Está lá
/is there/

20- Bebe água!
/drink water/

21- «Oya aki caneca»
/here mug/
22- «Oh intono!»

/Oh, it spilled! - While she was playing with her friends/

23- Vo binca yafoya

/Eu vou brincar lá em casa/

24- «oya ya tua boneca»

/Olha lá a sua boneca/

25- «Mi da tua nene»

/Dê-me a sua boneca/

26- Nati eye tão yuta

/Nati eles estão a lutar/

27- «Vai faya ya foya!»

/Já foi? Vai falar lá fora!/

28- «Vo axixti boneco»

/Vou assistir boneco/

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/

31- «Voxe no sabe mete, eu xabe»

/Você não sabe meter, mas eu sei/

32- Tua nene ta aqui

/Tua boneca está aqui/

Afasta-se de mim acabou
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 dice 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?  
/Mom left where?/  
Mama, onde deixou?

45- Nati taja pega que?  
/Nati is touch what?/  
Mother, what are you touching?

46- «Mama mi da xo pexe»  
/Mummy me give fish/  
Mama dê-me peixe por favor

47- «Mama mi da xo nacu»  
/Mum me give chiken/  
Mama dê-me frango por favor

48- «Sai maje pa»  
/get out of here/  
Sai daqui vai se embora

49- «Mi tapa xo aqui»  
/me cover here/  
Cubra-me por favor

50- «Exe é quie?»  
/this is what?/  
What is this?

51- «Ta mi da gaxa»  
/is me give laugh/  
you make me laugh/

52- «Ta xeya fumo»  
/is smell smoke/  
it’s smelling a smoke/

53- «No compa na comida»  
/not buy food/  
do not buy food!

54- «Mama pa dexa quie?»  
/mum leave what?/  
mother, to leave what?!
55- «Mama tiya boneca»
   /mummy take dull/
   Mama tira o boneco
   /mother take the dull away/

56- «Mama exe jundungo?»
   /mom this chilli/
   Mama esse é picante?
   /mother is this chilli?/

57- «Axim no ta bom»
   /like this not is good/
   Assim não está bom
   /It is not good like this/

58 «Papa foxa aonde»
   /Daddy go where?/
   Papa foste aonde?
   /father where did go?/

59- «papa no compaxi picoca?»
   /Dad not buy pop corn?/
   Papa não comprou pipoca?
   /father didn’t you buy the pop-corn?/

60- «Pedo no ecovasti»
   /Pedro not brush/
   Pedro não escovaste
   /Pedro you didn’t brush your teeth/

61- «Vo ti bate com xineyo»
   /go beat with slipper/
   Vou bater lhe com chinelo
   /I’m going to beat you with slipper/

62- «Vo ti quema»
   /go burn/
   Vou queimar-te
   /I’m going to burn you/

63- «Dá bejo»
   /give kiss/
   Beija-me
   /give me a kiss or kiss me/

64- Vem beja Kénia
   /come kiss Kénia/
   Venha beijar a Clénia
   /kiss me or give a kiss/

65- «Papa tapa vista»
   /Dad close eye/
   Papa fecha os olhos
   /Father close your eyes/
66- «Exa aqui é minha coja»

/this here is my thing/

67- «Nati caya caya»

/Nati shut up shut up/

68- «Nati axuxta Pedo»

/Nati frighten Pedo/

69- «Tês, quatio, xinco, nove»

/Three, four, five, nine/

70- «Pedo axuxta Nati»

/Pedo scare Nati/

71- «Dejiyiguei»

/turn off/

72- «Faita maji»

/miss more/

73- «Papa dexe aqui»

/Dad go down here/

74- «Dicupa, dicupa»

/Sorry (twice)/

75- «Nati vem inda aqui»

/Nati come yet here/

76- «mama exe é meu»

/mother this is my/

Essa aqui é a minha coisa

/this is my things/

Nati cale a boca

/Nati shut your mouth/

Nati assusta a Pedro

/Nati scare Pedro/

Três, quatro, cinco e nove

/three, four, five and nine/

Pedro assusta a Nati

/Pedro scare Nati/

Desliguei

/I switched it off/

Ainda necessito ou falta mais

/still missing or I still in need/

Papa desce por aqui

/father get down over here/

Desculpa-me

/I’m sorry/

Nati venha p’ra cá, se faz favor

/Nati come here, please/

Mama esse é o meu

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

89-«Chawe chawe to dixa binquedo» Tchau tchau estou a deixa o brinquedo
/bye-bye go leave toy/

90-«Oya aqui binquedo» Olhe, aqui está o brinquedo
/look here toy/

91«Nati ta ya foya» Nati está lá fora
/Nati is there 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-«dixa axim» Deixa-o assim
/leave so/

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/

96-«Aqueia coija ta onde?» Onde está aquela coisa?
/that thing is where?/
97- «Mete binquedo no xaco»
Tem o brinquedo no saco
/put toy in bag/

98- «Mama va bebe yagua»
Mama vai beber água
/mummy is going to drink water/

99- É minha boneca
A boneca é minha
/is my dull/

100- «é na piaia»
É na praia
/is in beach/

101- «Pedo ta pocuya quem?»
Pedro, quem procuras?
/Pedo is look for who/

102- «Evana voxe no ta faje»
Evana você não estás a fazer
/Evana you no tis make/

103- «Dexa to faje mo caja» ‘she faild in the gender’ Deixe estou a fazer a minha casa
/leave is make myt house/

104- «Ta aqui na mesa»
Está aqui na mesa
/is here on table/

105- Fica ai /aqui
Fique por aí
/stay there/here/

106- É meu pai
É o meu pai
/is my father/

107- «exa água é da minha miga»
Essa água é da minha amiga
/this water is of my friend/

108- «Pedo ta pocuya quem?»
Pedor, quem procuras?
/Pedo, who are you looking for?/

109- «Evana voxe no ta faje»
Evana você não estás a fazer
/Evana you are not doing/

110- «Dexa to faje mo caja»
Deixe me I´m doing my house
/leave me I´m doing my house/
108- «exe é água da minha mig»
Esse é a água da minha mãe
/this is water of my friend/

109- É pa binca
É p’ra brincar
/is for kid/

110- Dá meu boneco
Dê-me o boneco
/give my dull/

111- «Voxe va ya foya»
Você vai lá fora
/you go there outside/

112- «Nati tiya quenhee?!»
Nati, de que tia se trata?
/Nati aunt who/

113- «Quenhee?!»
Quem bate a porte?
/who is?/

114- «Ê tua amiga não?!»
É a tua amiga, pois não?!
/is your friend, is it?

115- «Pa mete aí?!»
É p’ra meter aí?
/to put there?/

116- «Vem ve boyo»
Venha ver o bolo
/come see cake/

117- «To na feta»
Estou na festa
/is in party/

118- Fica no chão
Permaneça no chão
/stay on ground/
119- «Exe meu»  
/this my/  
Esse meu  
/this is mine/

120- «Pa mete que aqui?»  
/to put what here/  
É p’ra meter o quê?  
/what I’m I supposed to put right here?/

121- «Ango pão?»  
/where bread/  
Onde está o pão?  
/where is the bread?/

122- «Da na minha mãe»  
/give on my mum/  
Dê-a na minha mãe  
/give it to my mother/

123- «Já te pijeï»  
/already you step on/  
Pisei-te  
/I’ve steped on you/

124- «Ta quem ti no comeu ainda»  
/who not eat yet/  
Quem ainda não comeu?  
/who didn´t eat yet?/

125- «Papa come não!»  
/Dad eat not/  
Papa como então!  
/father you can eat!/

126- «To come ayos com cacafoya»  
/is eat rice with cassava leaf/  
Estou a comer arroz com sacafolha  
/I´m eating rice and cassava leaf/

127- «Mama mi mete xo xumo»  
/mum me put just juis/  
Mama pôe-me sumo  
/mother give me juis/

128- «Exe meu exe tua»  
/this my this yours/  
Essa é a minha água e aquela é tua  
/this is my bottle of water and that is yours/

129- «Voxe no xabe bebe minha água»  
/you not know drink my water/  
Você não sabe beber água  
/you don’t know how to drink water/
130- «Exe naõ é faca?»

/this no tis wife/

Esta não é a faca?

131- «uma fioya»

/a flower/

É uma flor

132- «Eye nunca fayo»

/he never talk/

Ele nunca fala

133- «Mama exe é nene»

/mum this is baby/ /mother this is my daughter/

Mama esse o meu bebe

134- «eye fugiu»

/he fled/ /he escape from/

Ele fugiu

135- «Exe é que?»

/this is what?/ /what is it?/

O quê é isso?

136- «Voxe to nome é quenhé?»

/you your name is what?/ /what is your name?/

Qual é o seu nome/ como te chamas?

137- «Tua mãe é quem nhé?»

/your mum is who?/ /who is your mother?/

Quem é a sua mãe?

138- «Va mi compia xaya»

/go me buy skirt/ /buy me a skirt/

Compra-me uma saia

139- «Vem xo mi tiya xaiya pa yeu mete»

/come just me take skirt for me dress/ /take the skirt, I want to dress it/

Tira a saia, p’ra eu vestir

140- «Ta canta minha mujica»

/is sing my song/ /my song is being sung/

A aminha música está a tocar
141- «Pedo aqueyayá é quem que ta vê?»
Pedro quem vem aí?
/Pedo that is who that is come/
142- «Mama exe ta xujo»
isso está sujo mãe
/mum this is dirty/
143- «Mama água entiyo no nayiz»
Mama água entrou na narina
/mummy water got in nose/
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?/
145- «Mama abe poitão»
Mama abre a porta
/mum open gate/
146- «Pedo eu xo vovo»
Pedro eu sou avô
/Pedo I am grandmum/
147- «Mama exe é buyacha»
Mama esse é bolacha?
/mum this is biscuit/
148- «Mama mi abi xo»
Mãe abre-a se faz favor
/mummy me open just/
149- Mama esse é metade
Mãe esse é metade
/mum this is piece/
150- «Pedo compas aonde xumu?»
Pedro onde comprou o sumo?
/Pedo buy where juis/
151- Mama esse é boneco/novela
Mãe esse é bonecos ou novela
/mum this is cartoon/ novela/
152- «papa mi mete xo na excoxia»
/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 desenhas?
/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- «Amufulada»
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

174- «Nati já fechi janeya»
/Nati já fechei a janela

175- «To coxegui»
/is get /

176- «Pedo no ta xai»
/Pedo não está a sair?

177- «no tas no quato»
/no tis in bedroom/

178- «obitato»
/Obrigado

179- «Pedo viya axim»
/Pedo turn so /

180- «Pedo ta onde Foguinho»
/Pedo is where Foguinho/

181- «Pedo Foguinho faya o que»
/Pedo Foguinho say what/

182- «Da beijo no teu mayido»
/give kiss in your husband/

183- «Pedo vamos yuta»
/Pedo go 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, Pedo 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» “holaphrastic” 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/
196- «Teyefone da minha mãe» O telefone da minha mãe
/cell phone of my mum/
197- «Titi foi aonde» Onde foi o tio?
/uncle went where/
198- «Minha pai é Pedo» ‘She failed in the gender’ O meu pai é o Pedro
/my dad is Pdeo/
199- «Foxi compa picoca» Foste comprar pipoca?
went buy pop corn/
200- «ta cheya» Está a cheirar
/is smell/
201- «mama também tem copo» A mãe também tem corpo
/mum too have body/
202- «Joje Pedo Xoca» José Pedro Soca
/the name of her father/
203- «Pedo mi tiya xo foto» Pedro tira-me uma foto
/Pedo me take just photo/
204- «é vedadi» É a verdade
/is 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/
206- «tês, quato, xinco, oto, nove, dez cawenta» Três, quatro, cinco, oito, nove, dez, quarenta
/three, four, five, eight, nine, ten, fourty/

207- «Nati to mexe bunda» Nati estou a mexer as nádegas
/Nati I’m shaking the buttocks/

208- «Pedo ta mi bate» Pedro está a bater-me
/Pedo is me beat /

209- «Vem ye bate tambéém» Venha batê-lo tambéém
/come him beat too/

210- «Nati/Pedo vai na xaya» Nati/Pedo vai a sala
/Nati/Pedo go in hall/

211- «Papa incosta aqui» Papa aconchega-te a mim
/dad close here/

212- «Pedo/Nati mete to bokixi» Pedro/Nati põe a tua boxa ou cuecas
/Pedo/Nati put underwear/

213- «Meteste a bokixi do Pedo?» Vestiste a boxa do Pedro?
/put bikini of Pedo/

214- «Mama mi faji xo yeti!» Mama faz me leite!
/mum me do milk/

215- «exe boneco é muito bonito, né?!» Este boneco é lindo, pois não?!
/this dull is very pretty is it?/

216- «Nati foya da quenia» Nati a folha da Clénia
/Nati paper of Clénia/

/Did you put on Pedro’s underpants?/

/mothe please just make milk!/

/this dull is very pretty, isn’t it?!!/

/Nati this is Clenia’s a piece of paper/
217- «Papa foi a yoja»
/Papa went shop/

218- «Ta vi aqui»
/is come here/

219- «To axixti boneco»
/is watch cartoons/

220- «Exe teu xapato»
/this your shoe/

221- «To teyefone é de quem?»
/to whom this cellphone belongs?/

222- «Exe teyefone é teu?»
/is this cellphone yours?/

223- «Chau é!»
/bye ok/

224- «Yapi»
/pencil/

225- «To queue»
/is write/

226- «Exa aqui é qué?»
/this here is what/

227- «To teyefone tem cayiga?»
/is your cellphone charged?/
228- «Exa é cadeya de quem?»
/this is chair of who?/
De quem é a cadeira?
/whom this chair belongs to?/

229- «Quenia»
/the child’s name/
Clénia
/the name of the target child/

230- «Exe mujica de quem?»
/this music of who?/
De quem é a música?
/to whom is this music?/

231- «Voxe to nome é quenhe?»
/you name is who/
Qual é o seu nome?
/what is your name?/

232- «Eu no xabe tiya codigú»
/I not know take code/
Eu não sei tirar o código
/I don’t know how ta ke the cod out/

233- É meu binquedo
/is my toy/
É o meu brinquedo
/is my toy/

234- «No ta da paya tiya foto»
/no tis give for take photo/
Não dá p’ra tirar foto
/it’s somewhat tricky to take the picture/

235- «Mi da xo patiya»
/me give just gum/
Dê-me pastilha
/give me the gum/

236- «Já tiye foto»
/already took photo/
Já tirei a foto
/I’ve just taken the picture/

237- «mi da xo codigú»
/me give just code/
Dê-me código
/give me the code/

238- «No mi pega no mi pega»
/not me touch not me touch/
‘Repetition process’
/Não pega-me
/don’t touch she said (twice)/
239- «Eu xabe abi minha…»
Eu sei abrir a minha…
/I know 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 bougt 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 Pedo ta onde?»
Onde está o feio do Pedro
/the ugly of Pedo is where/
/where is the ugly Pedro?/
250- «Minha mãe é feia da Nati»  
/my mum is ugly of Nati/  
A minha mãe é feia  
/my mother is ugly/

251- «Já partiu mais»  
/already broke again/  
Já partiu mais  
/it has just broken again/

252- «Cabexa da coco feia»  
/head of coconut ugly/  
Cabeça de coco feia  
/head of coconut/

253- «axim ta yinda»  
/like this is pretty/  
Assim está linda  
/like this is beautiful or you’re beautiful like this/

254- «vai mbora na casa deye»  
/go away in house his/  
Ele vai se embora na casa dele  
/s/he is going back at her/his house/

255- Minha mãe  
/my mother/  
A minha mãe  
/my mother/

256- Meu pai  
/my father/  
o meu pai  
/my father/

257- Minha vovô  
/my grandmum/  
A minha avó  
/my grand mother/

258- yeu tomei banho  
/I had bath/  
Eu tomei banho  
/I had a bath/

259- «vo yeva teyefone do titi»  
/go take cellphone of uncle/  
Vou levar o telefone do titi (tio)  
/I’m taking uncle´s telephone/

260- «voxe mi compio jeyado?»  
/you me buy Ice-cresm/  
Você comprou-me gelado?  
/did you buy me some ice-cream?/
261- «to teyefone anda faxe que? »
/your cellphone walk make what/
O quê é que o seu telefone faz?

262- «comi xo choyixo»
/ate just spicy sausage/  
Comi apenas chouriço

263- «Mama mi ponhe xo mais xoyixo»
/mummy me put just more black pudding/  
Mama põe-me mais chouriço

264- «Vo come mo xayixixi»
/is go eat my sausage/  
Vou comer a minha salsicha

265- «Exe nowe ayanxi?»
/is this wedding ring?/  
Esse não é aliança?

266- «Exiqueva meu nome»
/write my name/  
Escrive o meu nome se faz favor

267- «Axutei»
/threw/  
Atirei, lancei ou arremecei

Portuguese translation, but for or Brazilian Portuguese they call chouriço= black pudding/

/I just ate spicy sausage = European Portuguese translation, but for or Brazilian Portuguese they call chouriço= black pudding/