

# **OVEREXTENSION IN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT**

## **A CASE STUDY OF A GWONG CHILD**

**BY**

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Masters Degree  
in English to the Department of English and Literary Studies, Ahmadu Bello University,  
Zaria – Nigeria.

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## **DECLARATION**

I declare that this thesis has been written by me and it is a record of my own work. It has never been presented in any previous application for an award of a higher degree. All quotations are indicated by quotation marks and the sources of information are appropriately acknowledged by means of references.

.....  
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CERTIFICATION

This thesis titled “Overextension in Language Development: A Case Study of a Gwong Child” by Josiah Mambo Ambrose meets the regulations governing the award of Master of Arts Degree (M.A.) in English Language, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria; and it is approved for its contributions to knowledge and literary presentation.

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## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all English Language teachers in primary and post primary schools for the selfless effort in educating the Nigerian child, despite the predicaments befalling the education sector in the country.

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## ABSTRACT

This project is a case study of a monolingual child. The major aims of the study were to collect data of a child whose L1 was a Nigerian indigenous minor language (Gwong), and determine phonological and lexio – semantic features with emphasis on the use of overextension. The data were collected using the three – media technique involving audio tape, video and diary recordings. The analysis of data covered the first and second phases of the child’s language development (the 20<sup>th</sup> to 32<sup>nd</sup> months). The Subject was observed to have passed through the general stages of language development, but had no clear demarcation at each stage. The analysis of word production showed that the Subject used more word - reduction and phoneme - substitution than word - reduplication strategies. Under lexio – semantics, it was observed that the Subject’s vocabulary growth was not consistent and that he used more one – word utterances all through, even at the start of his telegraphic phase. Further analysis of data showed that the child used more nouns, followed by verbs than other categories of words. On overextension, it was discovered that he used different types: Classic, Complexive and Same - Referent Overextensions; the first type as the most frequent. The data showed that colour, appearance and shape were the possible attributes that influenced the Subject’s use of the overextensions recorded. The data further revealed that the use of overextension was more at the two – word stage; and that the Subject’s limitations of the appropriate words or phrases led to his use of overextension.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 PREAMBLE

This chapter introduces the general background to the study. It contains the problem, aims and objectives as well as the significance and scope. The study is a psycholinguistic approach to the early language acquisition of a male child living in a rural area or “isolated mountain village”, Slobin’s words (1971). Language is the most fundamental means of human communication (Hartmann and Stork, 1972). It gives man his biological heredity and line of continuity, which makes culture and the accumulation of knowledge possible (John, 1970). The capacity to acquire language is deeply ingrained in the human species and hence, according to Slobin (1971), we do not find much difference in children growing up in congested urban slums and isolated mountain villages or in privileged sub-urban villas. It can be inferred, therefore, that nobody is formally taught his own first language (L1). Children seem to act as little linguists equipped with a perfect theory of language, which is used to construct the grammar of the language they grow up to hear (Fromkin and Rodman, 1978). This high complex ability of children has made language researchers become more interested in pedolinguistics (child language studies).

In Asia, Europe and North America, several studies were conducted to find out the courses children follow to understand and able to produce their first languages. This interest was gradually put into a scientific discipline called psycholinguistics (Malmkjaer and Anderson, 1991). Hence, Garnham (1985:86) defines psycholinguistics as “a scientific discipline whose goal is a coherent theory of the way in which language is produced and

understood". In other words, psycholinguistics is the study of the mental mechanism, which makes it possible for humans to use language.

The earliest recorded study of language acquisition, according to Malmkjaer (1991) is by Tiedmann (1787); followed by Darwin (1877) and Taine (1877); while the most detailed was by Preyer. Within the turn of a century, a proliferation of child language studies was witnessed in advanced nations of the world like America, Europe and Asia. Prominent among these studies include Bloom (1970, 1973 and 1975), Painter (1985), Grosjean (1990), Tosi (1991) and Treffers Daller (1994) (see also Surakat, 2001 and Crystal, 2008). In Africa, by 1982, only a few studies had been conducted with African children as Subjects (Surakat, 2001:2). These studies include unpublished theses and dissertations in some Nigerian universities. They include Ndahi, (1982), Onidare (1983), Yusuf (1984), Oyebode, (1990), Mamman - Katsina, (1992) and Surakat (2001, 2008). Of all the Nigerian studies, none studied a child that grew up in a rural environment and spoke a 'minor' Nigerian language as an L1.

One fundamental finding in most studies on child language development is that children do not merely grapple to imitate adults, but speak their own language having its own characteristics and patterns. This, therefore, calls for the study of an exotic language, describing its structure and observing the sequence of changes as the child brings it (the structure) into closer approximation to the adults' language surrounding him.

Since the mid-twenties, Europe and America have dominated in child language studies. Though they used only the children of those environments, they still generalised their findings. In Africa, such studies commenced there after, but they too used children who grew up in the African environment. Incidentally, the Subjects sampled in Africa, Nigeria for

instance, were drawn mainly from urban and semi-urban centres who spoke English as L1 or L2; or spoke one of the Nigerian indigenous major languages (Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba). If the findings of such studies could be generalised, there is the need to observe children in the rural settings who speak any of the Nigerian minor languages. This will give the distinctiveness of the studies, as well as confirm or otherwise the findings so far made in previous studies.

Of all the four aspects of language: syntax, morphology, phonology and semantics, the most controversial is probably the last aspect – Semantics. The argument is on how an adult could identify and categorise what the child means when he (the child) could use one lexical item for more than one speech context; for instance, a child who calls his mother, “mommy” in three different situations (Bloom ,1970). This kind of multi-dimensional phenomenon of meaning is cited in other studies of Brown (1973), Bowerman (1973), Tranthan and Pederson (1976), Mamman - Katsina (1992), Surakat (2001) and so on. This study was set out to observe how a Gwong child used some words to cover a range of meanings outside the scope of adults’ lexio - semantics.

## 1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Language studies conducted in Europe and other places agree generally on the universality and uniformity of linguistic structures and patterns among children. Slobin (1971), for instance, postulates that there is a high degree of uniformity in the kind of meaning expressed in children’s early utterances. This postulation came after Chomsky (1965) felt that linguistic structures are innate and, therefore, universal. Other studies, including Braine (1963), Brown and Bellugi (1964), as well as Bloom (1970), share the same

view. Even though there are a few differences noted among their Subjects, it is generally agreed that such are normal phenomena (Meer, 1976).

Researchers in Africa studied the language development of Africa children and came out with findings in line with their European counterparts. The studies in Africa (including Nigeria) used children who grew up to speak either the world major language-English-or one of the major indigenous languages. In Nigeria, for instance, out of about 250 ethnic groups and 470 languages (Surakat, 2001), only a handful of studies have been conducted. They include Yusuf (1984) and Mamman - Katsina (1992) who studied Hausa speaking children, Onyenobi (1997) studied a child whose lingua franca was English; while Surakat (2001) studied a bilingual child who acquired English and Yoruba. This present study, therefore, looks at a child who grew up in a rural area (Fori-Kagoma) and acquired the language called Gwong. The language is one of the twenty-three languages spoken in Kaduna State of northern Nigeria where Hausa is a dominant language (Nigeria National Census Commission, 2003).

### 1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This work is a case study of a monolingual Nigerian child from rural background; who acquired a non – major indigenous language. The few existing studies in Nigeria are only in some major languages. This study is aimed at throwing light on language development of a Gwong child with emphasis on the use of overextension. The major aims and objectives of this study, therefore, are to describe the child's language with a view to

- a. collect data from a Gwong - speaking native ,
- b. determine the stages of language development, which the child passed through,

- c. highlight the word production strategies adopted by the child,
- d. analyse the Subject's early lexical items,
- e. identify and analyse the overextensions used by the Subject.

#### 1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant in the following ways: First, it affirms some major findings in previous studies on the L1 acquisition of Subjects who spoke English and/or some Nigerian major indigenous languages. Secondly, the study highlights certain unique features of a Nigerian child who grows up in a rural area and speaks an indigenous language that is not one of the major indigenous languages.

In addition, the study throws light on certain child mannerisms in language development that would benefit parents, teachers, language policy makers, psycholinguists, pedolinguists, pediatricians, speech pathologists and so on.

Lastly, the study stimulates further studies on the language development of Nigerian children who speak other non- major indigenous languages.

#### 1.5. SCOPE AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

For a thorough study of child language, four fundamental aspects of language are covered. They are phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics (Mamman - Katsina, 1992:13). Such a study would require a series of psycholinguistic investigations. However, it is rather impossible to comprehensively deal with all these aspects simultaneously in a study of this kind. This, therefore, calls for choices. The selection for this study is a semantic analysis of early language development with emphasis on overextension. A longitudinal

approach was adopted on a Gwong (Kagoma) child's one and two-word utterances only. Other linguistic aspects were treated only where necessary, or for the sake of comparison with previous studies.

While in some studies, the researchers used their own children (e.g. Leopold, 1939; Piaget, 1959; Bloom, 1970; Mamman – Katsina, 1992; Surakat, 2001, etc.), the boy used for this study is not the researcher's child. However, the child was chosen not far from the researcher's house in the village in order to have easy and frequent access to him. The duration of the study was between the child's pre-linguistic and telegraphic stages (12-31 months).

## 1.6 BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

This study was conducted with the following basic assumptions:

- a. That a Gwong child is endowed with LAD as propounded by Chomsky (1965) and supported by McNeil (1966).
- b. That a Gwong child may adopt similar strategies to acquire his L1 as children of other languages,
- c. That a Gwong child may pass through language development stages generally observed in children by psycholinguists,
- d. That there may be variations in the language development of a Gwong child whose L1 is neither a Nigerian major indigenous language, nor the world major language, and
- e. That a Gwong child may use overextensions during his early language development.



## 1.7 ABOUT THE SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH

The Subject for this study is the third child (but the first male) of a couple in a rural area in Jema'a Local Government Area of Kaduna State called Fori-Kagoma. The only two elder children (females) were five and three years old by the time the child was born; and six and four years, respectively, when this study commenced.

The parents are predominantly farmers. During free seasons (dry seasons) however, the father goes out of the village to trade in domestic animals. The mother engages in petty trading in the village market. The couple has only junior secondary school education; and never communicated in English within the family. Hence, English was not the language of communication within the family. The family used the native language, Gwong. This implies that the children were exposed to Gwong, though Hausa was used with non – natives who visited the house on rare occasions.

Born on 23 November, 2001, Eliza (the Subject of this study) grew up in a predominantly agricultural (practising) community that had very little touch of urban life in terms of social and educational facilities. The two sisters, Hyedah (Vivian) and Nnah (Dorcias), had just started nursery school newly introduced in the community. They too spoke only Gwong just as other children around the home. Apart from the two sisters, other children from the neighbour-hood went to play under an orange tree close to the Subject's home. Out of these children, Eliza was very close to Rakis and Ademi (4 and 6 years old, respectively). They were both males and sons of the same parents and cousins to the Subject. Others were Hope (elder brother of Rakies and Ademi), Solomi and Shalom (children of the same parents and relatives of Rakies, Ademi and the Subject). All the friends spoke Gwong and had just started primary school at the time of study.

When Eliza was four months old, he could sit and by the tenth month he started crawling. Around his eleventh month, Eliza fell ill for over three weeks and could not continue his efforts to crawl. It was when he was fourteen months old that he could stand up without support. He was closer to his mother and two sisters than to his father. In fact, he was closer to the Researcher than to his father, too. At most times, Eliza talked very little when his mother was around, but spoke much and freely when she was away.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 PREAMBLE**

A lot of literature exists on language development. This chapter reviews some of the available literature in the following order:

- i. Approaches to the study of language development,
- ii. Stages/Phases in child language development,
- iii. Strategies in Language acquisition,
- iv. Theories of meaning, and
- v. Aspects of linguistics in language development, etc.

These reviews are done to adopt the most suitable analytical model and tool for the present study. Also included in this chapter are reviews on meaning, concepts in semantic change, methodological approaches to child language study and Gwong language structure. Again, these are carried out to give a clear focus to this study.

#### **2.2 APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT**

There are many perspectives to the study of language acquisition and each has its merits and demerits. It is usually from the weakness of previous theory that critics propound a new one as an attempt to improve on it. However, like the previous one, the new theory may still fall short in an area. There is no theory, therefore, that adequately satisfies all the diverse views. In other words, no theory is hundred percent perfect. The major theories, which are relevant to the present study, are:

- i. Behaviourism,
- ii. Innatism and
- iii. Cognitivism.

### 2.2.1 BEHAVIOURISM

This theory is sometimes called Environmentalism. It states that language is acquired through imitation; and that verbal responses are generally sub-class of responses and have to be learned through the establishment of a connection between stimuli and responses (Skinner, 1957). This school of thought (Behaviourism) portrays a newborn (or neonate) as a ‘tabula-rasa’ (blank-slate). It further states that as the child grows with age, environmental stimuli prevail on him to respond (Surakat, 2001:21). Behaviourists believe that imitation, practice and reinforcement are critical factors that facilitate language acquisition. While imitation is the attempt the child makes to model after his L1, practice is the constant sounds he mimics to himself on what he hears around him; reinforcement is the rebukes or praises he receives from the adults when he attempts to speak the language (Surakat, 2001).

Criticisms: Behaviourism has been criticized for dealing with only what a child says (performance). In other words, the theory is more mechanistic and at best contributes only to explaining the development of surface structure of the language (Erasmie, 1975). Secondly, according to Clark (1975), Behaviourism is not a reflexive theory and says nothing on stages of language development. It is known that at different stages of a child’s growth, he tends to change his understanding and use of language. The theory does not account for this capability. Besides, there are different aspects of behaviour in man. However, Behaviourism makes no

distinction between linguistic behaviour and any other (Clark, 1975); social behaviour, for instance.

Chomsky (1965) argues that though imitation and/or babbling are necessary, they are not sufficient conditions for language acquisition. Furthermore, the theory cannot account for the abstract nature of language or for a theory of meaning (Brown, 1980:129). Lastly, the theory also does not explain the uniformity of language acquisition throughout the human species, nor give explanations on how a child learns a system that is so complex in a relatively short period, since it regards the neonate as a 'tabula rasa' (Brown, 1980; Ndahi, 1982; Surakat, 2001).

### 2.2.2 INNATISM

Innatism, which is sometimes referred to as Nativism or Rationalism or Mentalism, states that a child is borne with an innate language device - Language Acquisition Device (LAD) (Clark, 1975; Mclean, 1978). In other words, a child is endowed with the ability to learn language before he is borne (Mamman - Katsina, 1992:32). Unlike the behaviourists, innatists view a child as nearly independent of his environment; and that the environment plays only a secondary role by simply triggering off the speech mechanism – the LAD - in the child (Mamman - Katsina, 1992). Innatism perceives language acquisition in term of innate predisposition (Surakat, 2001:25). Chomsky (1965) supported by McNeil (1966) maintains that every child is borne with linguistic universals of linguistic structure 'wired in'; hence, the child does not have to learn the features, which are common to the structures of all human languages (Lindfors, 1980:105).

Criticism: Innatism fails to account for the abstractness and creativity of language acquisition by LAD proposition (Brown, 1980). Besides, according to Brown (1980), the LAD is an unobservable invention that only superficially accounts for language acquisition. Innatism deals with only forms of language and not with the deepest level of languages, the level where perceptions, thoughts, meanings and emotions are interdependently organised in the super-structure of the human mind (Brown, 1980).

### 2.2.3 COGNITIVISM

The theory sees the innate component not as a body of knowledge about the structure of human language, but as a substantial innate cognitive potential for processing human language to derive its structure (Lindfors, 1980). In other words, a child's innate endowment is not something already known (content), but process abilities for finding out (Lindfors, 1980). Thus, the cognitivists see the child as a contributor to his learning; that he learns through interaction with the world. Interaction here implies action (verbal and non-verbal); a doing between the child and others, as well as with objects in his environment. This means that the child's development is a two - way affair: "he is not simply shaped and molded by the environment, but he also shapes and molds it; and to some extent, controls it for his use in further learning", (Lindfors, 1980); (see also Surakat, 2001:31).

Based on the fore - going, Bloom (1970) feels that children's utterances (especially at the early stages) can be interpreted by observing carefully the contexts in which they occur. Put in another way, childhood language is directly related to the immediate context of occurrence - described as "the here and now" (Bloom, 1970).

Criticism: What Cognitivism fails to explain, according to Brown (1980), is the deep structure of the language; it only accounts for lexical relations and immediate contexts only.

Conclusion: The approach for this study is that of Cognitivism. A child is an active individual who acts upon the environment in which he lives; and his capacity to learn language is a consequence of maturity (Lenneberg, 1967).

### 2.3 THE STAGES IN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

The process of child language development has been of great interest to psycholinguists. The major areas of concern include the clear demarcation of stages in language development, and the actual strategies adopted to acquire language at each stage. However, there is a consensus to what should be expected of the child at each stage (Ndahi, 1982). Secondly, it is a general view that the transition between one stage and another may be abrupt or gradual (Ndahi, 1982). Thirdly, the stages vary from child to child (Dale, 1976).

Child language development is, all the same divided primarily into two major separate but continuous and over-lapping periods of verbal behaviour. Generally, the periods are:

- a, The Pre-Linguistic Period (the 1<sup>st</sup> day to 9 months) and
- b, The Linguistic Period (the 9th month to adolescence).

Under each stage, there are sub- stages as reviewed below.

### 2.3.1 THE PRE-LINGUISTIC STAGE/PRE-WORD STAGE

The child makes significant sounds (sounds that precede true speech) during this stage. These sounds include cries, noises and babbling (Surakat, 2001:34). The different cries or noises include:

- \* the birth cry: crying after delivery,
- \* the pain cry: crying when in pain or discomfort,
- \* the hunger cry: crying when hungry,
- \* the mad cry/rage: crying when disapproving an action, and
- \* the fake cry: crying to draw attention (Wolff in Surakat, 2001:34).

Babbling is considered as the preparatory exercise for the future articulation of utterance, (Mamman - Katsina, 1992:54). It is a period that the child practises the variations of the sound system (Mamman - Katsina, 1992). Under the babbling stage, there are three major sub-divisions: cooing, lalling, and echolalia (Surakat, 2001:35). These sub-divisions are also briefly reviewed below.

**The Cooing Stage (3-6 months):** This period is when the child utters sounds characterised by back and lip - rounded vowels (Surakat, 2001), e.g. /e/, /u/ and /o/ as in eeee...; uuuu... or oooo..., etc.

**The Lalling Stage (7-9 months):** This sub-stage begins around the sixth month of the child's age (Mamman - Katsina, 1992:54). During the period, the child keeps repeating his 'heard sound' from adults, and it is merely for pleasure or continuous natural oral exercises (Lewis, 1951).

**The Echolalia Stage (10-11 months):** According to Lewis (1951), this third sub-prelinguistic period witnesses the constant imitation of sounds in the environment. It is the



time during which sound manipulation and preparation for actual talking begins. Sounds such as 'da' and 'ma' are heard (Mamman - Katsina, 1992:56). Even with these, the child still does not have real comprehension of what he is uttering (Lewis, 1951). This continues as the child's single factor of his own speech development (Mamman - Katsina, 1992). It is worth observing that there exist no major differences between the pre-linguistic development of a monolingual and a bilingual child (Surakat, 2001:36).

### 2.3.2 THE LINGUISTIC STAGE / TRUE SPEECH

Depending on socio - cultural, psychological and neurological or other factors, a child's true speech emerges (Surakat, 2001:36). Generally, it is agreed, however, that the first intelligible word of a child appears just about his first birthday (Dale, 1976:7; Dromi; 1987:19; and Surakat, 2001:36). There are cases, nonetheless, where some children have their first 'meaningful' word before or after their first birthday. It depends also on the criteria established for the particular study (Surakat, 2001).

Furthermore, it is possible to have variations in determining the age when the child makes his first 'meaningful' word (McCarthy in Surakat, 2001). Examples of Subjects that had their first word before the first birthday include those of Bloom (1973), Greenfield and Smith (1976), Braunwald (1978), Dromi (1987), etcetera. Those after their first birthday include Bowerman's (1978) two Subjects (daughters at the 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> months).

Under the Linguistic Stage, there are three sub-stages. They are:

- i. The Holophrastic Stage/ One - word Stage,
- ii. The Two - word Stage, and
- iii. The Telegraphic Speech Stage.

### 2.3.3 THE HOLOPHRASTIC STAGE/ ONE WORD STAGE

This stage begins by the child's 12<sup>th</sup> month (Dale, 1976:204); and it is when the child's sounds become associated with meanings (Mamman - Katsina, 1992:39). Mamman - Katsina, 1992) holds the view that the duration of the holophrastic stage spans between 7 to 12 months, depending on individual and the environment. According to Lewis (1951), during the holophrastic stage, the child intentionally uses conventionalised sound patterns of words anticipating responses according to situations in which the sound patterns are used. As to the volume and distinctiveness of the one - word, Nelson (1973:38) observed that the child's words are distinctive in three aspects:

- i. their pronunciation or phonetic forms,
- ii. their meanings, and
- iii. the ways in which they are used.

Surakat (2001:40) sums up the general characteristics of one-word utterances under phono, morpho, semantic and pragmatic features. He states that universal sounds (e.g. /b/, /m/, /d/, etc.) are acquired before the language specific sounds, such as /θ/, /ð/, and /z/, etcetera of English. He added that the words are usually monosyllabic at the initial stages, and with consonant – vowel (CV) syllable structure, thereafter. Surakat (2001) continues that some words are, however, reduplicated syllables as in 'ma-ma', 'da-da', etcetera. He also observes that consonant clusters and diphthongs are very rare in the Holophrastic Stage. This is possibly because of the child's inability to coordinate his speech organs for perfect adult-like pronunciation. He omits, substitutes, and simplifies segmental sounds (Dale, 1976; Yusuf, 1984; Surakat, 2001, 2007, etcetera). Still under the phonological aspect, Dromi (1987) and Surakat (2001, 2007) observe that nouns during the One-word Stage carry stress than any

other word-class. While in terms of vocabulary, the child has more nominals at first, then action words followed by modifiers (Nelson, 1973).

Morphologically, children's utterances during the holophrastic stage do not carry inflections (tense, plurality, possession or adjectives) until during the Syntactic Stage (Surakat, 2001). Under Semantics, the early lexicon serves semantic functions, including requests, commands, questions, statements, comments, etcetera (Surakat, 2001). Other uses of holophrastic speech by children are for greetings, labeling, emotive and referential functions (Halliday, 1975; Clark, 1973; Schieffelin (ed.), 1979; de Villiers and de Villiers, 1979, in Surakat, 2001).

The most interesting semantic feature during the Holophrastic Stage (which is also the focus of this study) is the phenomenon of word overextension. Children are observed to use some words to cover a wider range of meaning than adults do (Surakat, 2001). While overextension is easier to determine, under – extension is not (de Villiers and de Villiers in Surakat, 2001). Details on semantic extension are given in later chapters.

#### 2.3.4. THE TWO – WORD STAGE/PIVOT GRAMMAR

According to Mamman - Katsina (1992: 56), the child from 24 months begins his two–word utterances that carry meaning. In addition, that 'lingual – laryngs' pattern, in Mamman - Katsina's (1992:56) words, is "rooted in a total action pattern or are mere habit formation". This means that it is only through the context of the child's speech that meaning could be understood. Foster (1990) feels that the Two – word Stage begins when the words are combined into a single syntactic construction; and that, the stage signals the emergence of semantic development beyond the single word. He further observes that this stage coincides

with the commencement of morphological development as purely grammatical function words. It is at this time that bound morphemes begin to appear.

Some linguists (e.g. Bloom, 1973; Dov, 1975; Scollon, 1976; Rodgon, 1976; etcetera) argue that there is a transitional stage between One and Two – word Stages. They also believe that the transitional stage is distinguishable based on pauses and intonation contours. The utterances are also observed generally to have semantic relation (Brown, 1973). The most common are put in the table below:

S/NO	SEMANTIC RELATION	FORM	EXAMPLE
01	Nomination	that + N	that book
02	Notice	hi + N	hi belt
03	Recurrence	more + N	more milk
04	Non- Existence	all gone + N	all gone rattle
05	Attributive	Adj + N	big train
06	Possessive	N + N	mommy lunch
07	Locative	N + N	sweater chair
08	Locative	V + N	walk street
09	Agent – Action	N + N	eve read
10	Agent – Object	N + N	mommy sock
11	Agent – Object	V + N	put book

( Malmkjaer, 1991:240)

KEY

N = Noun      Adj = Adjective      V = Verb

Wieman (1974) who studied the two - word utterances of five children with Mean Length Utterance (MLU) 1.4 and 2.3, observed that children are highly consistent in stress patterns. She proposes a hierarchy of stress assignment, as shown below:

- \* Locative
  - \* Possessive
  - \* Noun Object action
  - \* Pronoun Object agent.
- (Malmkjaer, 1991:243 )

increasing stress ▼

In general, during the Two – word Stage, the vocabulary inventory improves both in quality and in quantity (Surakat, 2001: 47). However, morphological markers or inflections are still absent (Fromkin and Rodman, 1978), while the use of idiosyncratic jargons and para-linguistic features continue to exist (Surakat, 2001).

### 2.3.5. THE TELEGRAPHIC SPEECH

This stage of child language development is observed when the child utters more than two words around his 36<sup>th</sup> month of birth, though with pronunciation errors (Lewis 1951; Mamman - Katsina, 1992, etc). Lewis (1951) also observed that the pronunciation errors gradually reduce when the child reaches his 48<sup>th</sup> month. Lewis, however, argues that the correctness of the speech depends on the child’s reinforcement from the people with whom he comes into contact. During this stage also (sometime from the Two – word Stage), the child’s speech has what Brown (1973:222) calls “less crucial words” – especially those that can safely be omitted in a telegram and yet convey the message.

Because this stage is not included in this study, not much review was found necessary.

## 2.4. THE STRATEGIES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

There are various strategies, which children use to acquire their L1. Some of these strategies are reviewed below.

### a). Imitation by Reduction

This is a common strategy employed by a child (usually in his early years) to imitate the words and sentences produced by adults (Brown and Bellugi in Mamman - Katsina, 1992:58). Generally, in a sentence, according to Mamman - Katsina (1992:59), auxiliaries and inflectional patterns are omitted, while nouns, verbs and adjectives are retained. Mamman - Katsina (1992) further observes that the words retained belong to ‘contentives’, because they have semantic content, while those omitted are ‘functors’; their functions are more apparent than their semantic content. Examples:

Hausa Child: ‘emu kato’

Adult: ‘Wadannan lemo manya ne.’

Gwong Child: ‘emu gong’

Adult: ‘Lemu na byowa.’

English: These oranges are big.

From the above examples in Hausa and Gwong, the child only retained ‘oranges’ and ‘big’ (noun and adjective in the sentence, respectively).

### b). Grammatical Errors

This strategy is when a child conjugates grammatical forms (Smith, 1973). For instance, a child usually conjugates the forms of verbs used in the past tense as soon as he begins to use the past tense form of verbs. Hence, verbs like ‘catched’ for ‘caught’ or ‘runned’ for ‘ran’ are heard. As for nouns, the child easily makes errors in the formation of their plurals

(Smith, 1973). If the child first knew the suffix 's' as a plural maker, irregular nouns like 'foot', 'man' or 'tooth' may be called 'foots', 'mans' and 'tooths', respectively. The generalization in the use of inflected words is often observed in children before the age of three (Smith, 1973). Mamman - Katsina (1992) is of the opinion that this extension rule to irregular forms happens possibly because the child first learnt the rules of the regular forms.

c). Over-Generalization/ Overextension

A child uses the over-generalization strategy to cover numerous meanings in many different contexts (Frost, 1976). For instance, 'drink' also means 'water' or 'milk'; 'dog' for every walking creature; 'car' for 'truck', 'bus' or 'train', etcetera (Mamman - Katsina, 1992: 61). While some linguists feel that this tendency depends on environmental influence: reinforcement, encouragement and stimulation (Cazden in Yusuf, 1984), others think the child does not see the need for further language sophistication (Mamman - Katsina, 1992).

## 2.5 THE THEORIES OF MEANING

The three ways by which linguists and philosophers attempt to construct explanation (meaning) in natural language, according to Kempson (1977:135), are by defining the following:

- a, the nature of word meaning,
- b, the nature of sentence meaning, and
- c, the process of communication.

This implies that the aspects of meaning are word meaning, sentence meaning and the communication process. While the first (word meaning) is taken as the construct in terms of which sentence meaning and communication can be explained, sentence meaning is taken as

basic with words characterised in terms of the systematic construction they make to sentence meaning. The process of communication, on the other hand, has both sentence and word meanings explained in terms of the ways by which sentences are used in the act of communication (Kempson, 1977).

In this study, the word “meaning” was predominantly referred to “word meaning” as used during the Subject’s One and Two - word Stages of language development. Below are some theories on how a word is considered. Such schools of thought include the Referential Theory, the Image Theory, the Use Base Theory and the Behavioural Theory.

#### 2.5.1 THE REFERENTIAL THEORY OF MEANING

C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards propounded this theory. They believe that a relationship exists between a word and what it is used to refer, (Kempson, 1977). In other words, since the meaning of a word can be explained in terms of or in relation between the word and the object to which it refers, it means there is one - to - one correspondence between ‘name’ and ‘object’. This view is sometime referred to as Extensionalism because of its treatment of meaning in terms of the language referent; and it corresponds with De Saussure’s theory of ‘signification’ (Kempson, 1977). The theory states that what a word refers to is the ‘signified’, while the sign, which it signifies, is the ‘signifier’; and the process that the ‘signifier’ signifies is ‘signification’. Dale (1976:167) says the meaning of a word is its referent. That is, words are symbols standing for some things.

Weaknesses: Firstly, the theory does not give distinction between ‘general’ and ‘particular’ referring expression (Kempson, 1977). Let us study the expression below.

‘The banana is good’.



The word 'good' cannot be given the specific reference to either 'sweet taste' or 'nice appearance/looking'.

Secondly, the theory does not take care of multiple reference/ambiguity (Dale, 1976). For instance, in the statement, "James is too old to work in that office", the phrase 'too old' could mean 'old age' or 'long experience'; hence, James is above the position. Thirdly, some words can be linked to more than one object (polysemous words); hence, they have more than one referent. For instance, how can a one - to - one image be established by the speaker and the listener for the word HEAD? Is it as a part of the body, the leader of a group, part of furniture, the side of a coin or the part of a matchstick? Besides, not all the words in the language refer to physical objects, e.g. ye, and, in, but etc. (Ndimele, 2007).

Fifthly, some words that even have physical images are sometimes difficult to establish, because the expressions are longer than what the words represent; e.g. what is the actual object represented by the expression, "Good morning"?

### 2.5.2. THE IMAGE / MENTALIST THEORY OF MEANING

This theory is sometimes referred to as the Mentalist Theory and has proponents including Glucksberg, S. and Danks, J. It is a refinement of the Referential Theory. According to this theory, meaning is accounted from the mental image the word evokes in the minds of the speaker and the hearer (Wittgenstein, 1976). This means that a word is not what it refers to, but the image or idea that is formed in the mind of the speaker and hearer (Ndimele, 2007).

Shortcomings: With the flexibility in the use of language, how can the same image be evoked in the minds of different people? Different images could be in the minds of the

speaker and that of the hearer; hence, it can lead to unfamiliarity of meaning. For example, the word 'snow' cannot evoke the same image in the minds of an Eskimos and a Kalahari man. Secondly, some words create multiple images. For example, 'bachelor' can be a 'single man', a 'first – degree holder' or an 'apprentice knight'. Thirdly, there is referential vagueness in the theory. For instance, the word 'student' or 'pupil' does not specify whether it is 'male' or 'female'.

Fourthly, the theory does not clarify how to determine the manner of an expression purely based on the existence of mental images or ideas. Since ideas are often vague, it therefore means it could be difficult to subject such to any empirical investigation (Ndimele, 2007). Fifthly, it is not very true that every linguistic expression has a mental image. Examples: on, or, hate, etc. do not. Sixthly, the theory also does not explain whether two or more expressions can be synonymous, or if there may be feelings or thoughts associated with one expression, which are not associated with the other (Akmajian et al, 1979: 245).

### 2.5.3. THE USE BASE THEORY OF MEANING

This theory is sometimes called the Contextual or Operational Theory of Meaning. It considers the meaning of a word by the rules for its use (Wittgenstein, 1976); and that meanings or rules assigned to words are social and conventional. The theory does not regard word meanings as entities, whether they are physical or mental images, but by the context in which the (linguistic) expression is used (Ndimele, 2007). The theory is essentially pragmatic and does not regard language as a system of science that exists independently of people or social groups.

Weaknesses: The problem with the Use Base Theory is how one comes about the rules assigned to all words; is it by learning or is one born with the knowledge?

#### 2.5.4. THE BEHAVIOURAL/BEHAVIOURISM THEORY OF MEANING

This theory of meaning holds that the meaning of a word is the relation between such and the stimuli (Lyons, 1970). That is, the interpretation of meaning is done via the account of behaviour or interpreted in sense of stimuli. For instance, in the statement:

John: "I am hungry."--- Stimulus

Peter enters the kitchen and brings a plate of food because John interpreted or held the meaning of the word "hungry" to imply 'the need of food'.

Weakness: The theory is useful when the context is specified and the conditions are rightly met. Where other possible stimuli may be responsible for the utterance, the meaning becomes misleading or false. For instance, in the example above, if the speaker, John, was wishing to leave the listener (Peter) for elsewhere, then Peter's bringing out a plate of food would be a wrong comprehension of John's use of the word 'hungry'.

#### 2.5.5. THE COMPONENTIAL ANALYSIS OF WORD MEANING

Componential Analysis is a process where by word meaning is expressed in terms of the combination of all its sense of components (Ndimele, 1999). The proponents feel that the analysis of the meaning of a lexical item should be regarded as a process of breaking down the sense of a word into its minimal sense – components. By 'sense – components' we mean "an irreducible feature in term of which the sense of lexical items can be analysed" (Crystal, 1997:77). The whole idea is that the meaning of a lexical item can be determined by

reducing it to its ultimate contrastive element, so that the lexical item can easily be distinguished from other lexical items in the same language. Hence, we can express the meaning of MAN by combining these atomic sense components: HUMAN, MALE, ADULT or GIRL as HUMAN, FEMALE, CHILD, etc.

Sense components or semantic features are often treated in terms of a binary contrast plus (+) or minus (-). For example, the difference between BOY and GIRL can be expressed in terms of [+ MALE] VS [- MALE], while COW and CALF as [+ ADULT] VS [ADULT].

### Types of Semantic Components

There are three types of semantic components. They are briefly explained below.

- a. Common Components: These are sometimes called ‘generic’ or ‘shared components’. They are features of meaning, which all the words that belong to a class share with each other. The common components serve as the basis for bringing all the meanings of related words together. Example: the common component of the meaning of MAN, BULL, BOY is < MALE>; MAHAGONY, BAMBOO, TEAK is < PLANT >, etc.
- b. Contrastive Components: They are sometimes called ‘specifying or ‘diagnostic components’. They are features of meaning that are peculiar to a given word and help to distinguish the same word from other words in the same class, e.g. the contrastive component of meaning existing between MAN and BOY is < ADULT>.
- c. Supplementary/Incidental Components: These are the additional features of meaning, which may not be very necessary in contrasting a particular set of meanings. For instance, the supplementary semantic features for the lexical item RUN involve SPEED, ENERGY and ANXIETY; while those of HOP and SKIP suggest RECREATION and often CHILDREN’S ACTIVITY (Ndimele, 2007).

One main merit of using CA to analyse the meaning of lexical items is its usefulness where there are lexical gaps in human language. Secondly, when using CA, some of the semantic features that are set up have universal implications (Ndimele, 2007).

#### The Shortcomings in CA

1. CA cannot be applied to all lexical items. Examples: in, and, over, up, etc.
2. CA can only be useful at the word level. It cannot account for the meaning of sentences.
3. The theory does not say what determines the choice of one particular semantic feature over the other e.g. ADULT instead of YOUNG or [- MALE] instead of [+ FEMALE] in defining WOMAN.
4. The theory does not also give the minimum or maximum number of semantic features needed to define the lexical item fully or otherwise.
5. CA suffers from a vicious circle in the sense that it uses a set of words in the form of semantic features to account for the meanings of other lexical items at the same time (Ndimele, 2007). In other words, it uses words that they themselves may also need to be defined; hence, the search for sense – components remain open-ended. For example, in defining BOY we say it is [+ HUMANN], [+MALE] and [- ADULT]; but one may need to know the meaning of being HUMAN or MALE or NOT ADULT, etc.

In this study, the Referential and Behavioural theories were applied in determining what the child could mean based on the contexts in which they were uttered.

## 2.6. ASPECTS OF LINGUISTICS IN CHILD LANGUAGE

Child language development can be looked at different levels of linguistics: morphological, phonological, syntactic and semantic. Each of these is reviewed below.

### 2.6.1 THE PHONOLOGICAL FEATURES IN CHILD LANGUAGE

The phonological features in any linguistics study would normally include segmental and supra - segmental aspects. While the former comprises consonant and vowel sounds, the latter includes intonation, rhythm and stress (Onuigbo, 1997). Studies on child language development have been generally on the segmental aspects with the consonant sounds as the most accessible; while the supra-segmental aspect is usually only mentioned. Surakat (2001:151) noted that segmental aspect is usually characterised by omissions, substitutions and reduplications. Other features are assimilation, metathesis, neutralization, reduction and multiple processes (Yusuf, 1984). Limitation in word production by children has been attributed to partly the relatively underdeveloped nature of their perception, articulatory muscles and skills (Surakat, 2009).

Examples of Word Production in Gwong:

	ADULT	CHILD (ELIZA)	ENGLISH
1.	onkol	okuu	uncle
2.	ghwha	wa	drink
3.	nga	aa	it is
4.	moto	oto	car
5.	mashin	chin	motorcycle
6.	gool	go goo	goal

7.	tola	toa	dress
8.	ghwyenu	onuu	chicken
9.	pye	pe	refuse/reject
10.	a biek	beii	hot

### 2.6.2 THE MORPHOLOGICAL FEATURES IN CHILD LANGUAGE

The morphological features in linguistics include inflections, prefixes, and suffixes in word formation. The structure of a word consists of at least a syllable, which is called a morpheme (Hartmann and Stork, 1972). A morpheme is the shortest piece of speech that has meaning (Skinner, 1957). It is the smallest grammatical unit that cannot be further subdivided without destroying its meaning (Quirk, 1972). In early child language, morphemes (especially prefixes and suffixes) are either absent (Surakat, 2001) or mis-used (Mamman - Katsina, 1992).

### 2.6.3 THE SYNTACTIC FEATURES IN CHILD LANGUAGE

Syntax is the arrangement of words in sentences (Hartmann and Stork, 1972). There are, however, variations of patterns in different languages. The general pattern, however, is SVO. In child language, studies have shown that syntactic features are observable from the Two - word Stage. In addition, the syntactic pattern of child speech varies. Sometimes, it is SO or OV; at other times, it is OS, etcetera (Surakat, 2001). Examples:

Gwong:	Oku	ba.	MEANING:	Uncle, come.
	S	V		
	Maag	wha.	MEANING:	(I) Want to drink water.
	O	V		

#### 2.6.4 THE SEMANTIC FEATURES IN CHILD LANGUAGE

Semantics is the study of meaning (Hartmann and Stork, 1972); and meaning is centred at the word level. Word meaning could be determined using various theories put forward by different schools of thought. In communication, Semantics is the meaning which the speaker has in mind (Surakat, 2001:139); and what he has in mind is his cognitive organisation of the world (inferred by Lenneberg in Dale 1976:169). If every speaker has his own perception of the world, it implies, therefore, that there are different ranges of perceptions. Two speakers, therefore, can only understand themselves perfectly well when both have nearly the same level of perception. This is the more reason why adults and children have wide different perceptions of the world that both of them live in. In addition, because the latter has limited knowledge of the world, he uses his narrow experiences to perceive any new thing that comes his way; he thereby (sometime) extends his limited perception to any new thing he comes across. For instance, if a child knew a bird by name while the bird was flying, he is likely to call all other flying objects in the sky 'bird'. Similarly, if he knew that not wearing shoes is called 'barefoot', he is likely to call 'not putting on dress' as 'barefoot' (Chukosku's Subject in Dale, 1976). This implies therefore, that a child (as just any speaker) understands and uses words by relating them to his knowledge of the world.

#### 2.7 THE MODELS OF WORD MEANING IN CHILD LANGUAGE

Below are the theoretical models by which some linguists proposed to analyse meaning of children words. These models are

- a. The Semantics Features Hypothesis by E. V. Clark (1973),
- b. The Functional Core Hypothesis by Nelson and Lucariello (1974),



- c. The Proto-type Model by M. Bowerman (1978),
- d. The Word Referent Pairing by I. M. Schlesinger (1982), and
- e. The Lexical Contrast Theory by E.V. Clark (1983).

### 2.7.1 THE SEMANTIC FEATURES HYPOTHESIS (SFH)

Clark (1973), the proponent of this model, based her hypothesis within the framework of Postal (1966) and Bierwisch's (1970) general componential semantic models. Postal and Bierwisch described the meaning of words as composed of a set of universal primitives that are likely to be derived from human percepts. Clark hypothesised that during the early stage of word production, children use words they do not yet know the adult meanings of. The new word is a subset of the semantic components associated with the same word in adult language (Dromi, 1987).

According to the Semantic Features Hypothesis, when a child hears a new word, he observes one or more of the most salient features of the object or event that the word is applied to, and then he assumes that they are the only semantic features associated with the meaning of that word. In addition, since the initial meaning of the word is incomplete, he generalizes the word (e.g. DOGGI for all animals with four legs) and does not include other semantic features (+ furry, + small + barking), etc. When the child has repeated experiences and use of the word, he gradually brings his semantic representation closer to adult language.

WEAKNESSES: Clark's SFH elicits a lot debate and criticisms from many personalities, including Nelson (1974), Bowerman (1978), Carey (1982) and Schlesinger (1982). The major criticisms are:

- i. The criteria for identifying the potential items that may serve as possible semantic primitives in the child's linguistic system are vague.
- ii. The hypothesis explains only how meanings become narrower and not how they are broadened and become more generalised.
- iii. The hypothesis has the wrong assumption that features are always learned from the general to the specific.
- iv. Clark's concluding findings that overextension is much rarer in comprehension than in production means that the phenomenon of overextension may not be as a result of an incomplete underlying semantic representation, but a reflection of a communicative strategy for stretching existing vocabulary (Dromi, 1987).

### 2.7.2 THE FUNCTIONAL CORE HYPOTHESIS (FCH)

Nelson (1974 and 1978) criticises the Semantic Features Hypothesis of Clark and argues that functional information about objects dominates perceptual, contextual and affective information about them. In other words, functional information defines a category whereas perceptual information helps only in identifying objects as possible candidates for that category (Dromi, 1987).

The Functional Core Hypothesis claims that objects are initially perceived by the child as functional wholes (not derived from human percepts), and then assigned to a specific category based on function. After exploring the functional relationship in which the object can participate, the child is then able to treat it as a member of a known category. The FCH believes that objects are organized hierarchically - one at the top, and forms the functional core of the category. Nelson, the proponent of FCH, believes that the very first

words children use are names of highly functional objects (e.g. objects that move or can be physically manipulated by the child). For instance, the child first term of reference of BALL is linked to already existing concepts that a ball can roll, bounce or be thrown). He abstracts any of these characteristics, which serve the secondary role of identifying other candidates for that category - BALL.

#### CRITICISMS:

- i. FCH only provides an explanation on how object words are learned.
- ii. Based on several researches, some words are not learned in action context (Bowerman, 1978). In addition, children often use action terms for both actions and objects (Gentner, 1982).
- iii. In the FCH Model, there is neglect of linguistic input dimension.
- iv. No clear predictions follow from the hypothesis for regarding the relative frequency of different extension behaviours that early words may portray; nor the correspondence between the child's intention and that of the adult at the same time (Dromi, 1987).
- v. The FCH neglects totally the distinction between overextension and association (Winner, 1979).

#### 2.7.3 THE PROTOTYPE MODEL (PM)

This model came to be when Bowerman's Subjects' (Christy and Eva) acquired words were extended to referents that were either by perception or functional attributes (proposed by Clark and Nelson, respectively). Rather, the words showed what Bowerman calls "complexive" extensional behaviour similar to what Vygotsky (1962) describes as an "associative" complex.

According to PM, therefore, the word is extended to a number of referents that do not necessarily share attributes with each other, but there is one referent or group of similar referents, with which each shares one or more attributes (Bowerman, 1978). The hypothesis explains that words that show complex behaviours are initially identified with one referent or group of closely related referents (considered as the “best exemplar”) and usually the one adult frequently apply to the words. That is, a child will initially attach words to specific referent (the prototype) or to a restrictive set of referents that resemble each other and the prototype. This means children first apply new words taking the form either under - extension or of regular - extension. Hence, the meaning of each word acquired consists of a mental representation of the set of abstracted principal perception or functional features of the prototype and then subsequent applications of the words taking complex forms (Dromi, 1987).

CRITICISM: Since the Prototype Model is not an alternative to the earlier models, and does not argue that it is applicable to all children’s words, but to account for the behaviour of some particular words, it has been accepted as such with less criticism. However, there is need to empirically test the model predictions in order to determine the scope of applicability (Dromi, 1987).

#### 2.7.4 THE WORD- REFERENT PAIRING MODEL (WRP)

This is a radical approach on how children learn the conventional meaning of words. It does not assume that the child learns words as labels for previously existing non-linguistic concepts or categories ( Clark,1973 and Nelson,1974 ), but that the child forms concepts and word – meanings concomitantly in an interactive process which is both lengthy

and bidirectional (Dromi,1987) . The basic notion of pairing a word with a single referent is a central feature of WRP.

Schlesinger (1982) feels that early words (for objects, action and relationship) are paired with a single referent. Consequently, the word is stored in the memory along an internal representation of the referent. At this stage, the word does not stand for a concept, but is associated with a particular instance of that concept. Schlesinger further argues that children attend to whole rather than parts of objects, to the most salient aspect of complex situations, and to those stimuli that are shown to them by pointing or verbal direction. As time goes on, through the repeated experiences with word – referent pairings, some involving the pairing of the same word with several referents, the child discerns similarities between the referents, which he pairs with the same word.

Unlike SFH and FCH, WRP proponents feel that during the early phases of language acquisition, a child does not attend to specific features or distinguishes between unit-dimensional components, rather a number of complex inter - related dimensions and global configurations constitute psychological cues for categorizing the membership. Cues in Schlesinger's (1982) account are not restricted to single words but are associated with a number of categories or words. Furthermore, that cues vary in degree of association and their values are not constant but related to the frequency of their occurrences and the relative degree of their saliency for the child. It is assumed that a specific word is elicited in a given situation because of the sum total values of all the cues. Schlesinger (1982) believes that the internal representation of a paired referent is located at the top of a hierarchy, which is surrounded by cues varying in their degree of membership (values). The lower one goes, the

finer (better) the discriminations that one can make. Schlesinger (1982:127) himself gave an illustration like this:

*A bushy tail may have become a cue for a “fox”, nevertheless, when it later turns out that animals called by other names, have bushy tails, discrimination learning may set in. That is, the child will note properties that distinguish the different kinds of bushy tails – those that are cues for “fox” and those not.*

A number of predictions can be made from the WRP model based directly from the theoretical discussion.

1. Linguistic inputs play a predominant role in predicting the course of meaning development. This implies that the acquisition of object words may precede the acquisition of words for actions and relations. Similarly, basic - level terms would be learned prior to super - ordinate or subordinate terms, etc. (Dromi, 1987).

2. Word – meanings from the specific to the general (this is difference from SHF model).

3. Underextension is predictably at the early stage and may be a frequent phenomenon,

4. That misuse of new words may be observed and most likely be the direct result of mistaken perceived similarity and /or miss- pairing of a word with a referent.

SHORT – COMINGS: WRP is accused of non-empirical verification because the model does not give clarifications on a number of issues. Dromi (1987: 57) has posed some of these. They include:

- i. Do mothers truly provide help to identify word referents, and how?

- ii. Is it a rule that each word is at first under - extended either in comprehension or in production?
- iii. When and how do children 'decide' to generate a new protoverbal element?

#### 2.7.5 THE LEXICAL CONTRAST THEORY (LCT)

As a response to the major criticisms against SFH, Clark (1973), himself replaces the model with a new one, calls it the Lexical Contrast Theory and states the following prepositions:

On the problem of lexical acquisition, she argues that lexical learning is explained primarily by two principles: contrast and conventionality. She states that every two words in a given language contrast with each other or flag different conceptual categories. In addition, those linguistic devices are so arbitrary that each meaning is encoded in a given language by an agreed – upon (conventional) symbol. That is, children from the very on set of language learning, realize that languages utilize conventional means to express meaning, and therefore learn those means in order to become successful code users.

Though the LCT model is much more general than SHF and admits that adjuncts theories about what words can be used for, how meanings relate to each other , and how linguistic input are integrated seems to explain the course of early semantic development. Two major implications can be deduced from the LCT model.

- i. that the conceptual development of the child precedes and governs the acquisition of words.
- ii. that words are sometimes misused by the child in production in attempt to extend them to cover unnamed categories. That is, overextension is not the result of

misclassification, partial representation, or the identification of similarities between underlying semantic features; rather, it is a reflection of initial attempts to communicate verbally with a limited lexicon at his disposal (Dromi, 1987).

#### WEAKNESSES:

- i. According to Dromi (1987), LCT is much less specific than such a model would have to be, and hence it cannot be treated as a new comprehensive model; consequently, it cannot work independently.
- ii. The description of the structure of the lexical, which it provides is both too general and too limited and its terms vague.
- iii. The model completely ignores the developmental issues of change over time in the child's conceptual and linguistic processing abilities (Dromi, 1987).

## 2.8 CONCEPTS IN SEMANTIC CHANGE

Semantic change is a shift in the meaning of a word towards a different level or direction. The meaning could be widened (extension) or narrowed (reduction); it could change in a positive (amelioration) or negative (deterioration) direction, or transfers to a different level (metaphor) (Hartmann and Stork, 1972). These concepts are explained below.

### 2.8.1. SEMANTIC EXTENSION

Any shift in meaning by way of widening through the expansion of the context in which it can occur is referred to as 'extension of meaning' (Hartmann and Stork, 1972). The concept is sometime referred to as 'widening of meaning' or 'semantic extension'. Examples



of words are ‘place’ to also mean ‘location’; ‘dog’ for any ‘canine animal’ (Hartmann and Stork, 1972).

The term ‘extension’ is sometimes contrasted with ‘intension’. The two, according to Hartmann and Stork (1972), are inversely proportional. While ‘extension’ designates the things to which a word or phrase refers, ‘intension’ designates the features necessary to define the object. This means that, while the former gives emphasis on a number of things to which the word or phrase may be implied to, the later is what the speaker implies. For instance:

- i. ‘feather’ FOR ‘chicken’ to imply ‘chicken feather’,
- ii. ‘Panadol’ FOR all drugs in tablet form (Surakat, 2001 and 2007).
- iii. ‘fly’ (noun) FOR any ant, mosquito or other flying insects.

In child language, there are four categories of word extension. They are under extension, regular extension, overextension and unclassified. (Dromi, 1987). According to Dromi, the categories are mutually exclusive. The categories are briefly explained below.

#### 1. Under- Extension Words

A lexical word is under - extended when it is used for one referent only. In other words, when a word is restricted to a subset of instances of the adult category that is corresponding to the same word, the word is said to be under - extended. Examples:

- i. FAMILY for FATHER (excluding mother and children).
- ii. WORK for only farm LABOUR (excluding other like office work).
- iii. FISHERY for CATCHING and PRODUCING fish only (excluding snails and other water organisms), etc.

## 2. Regular Extension Word

When there is a flexible use of a word for a class of equivalent referents that belong to the corresponding adult category for the same word, the word is classified as regular extension, e.g. ANTY (pidgin word for “aunt”): FOR aged or elderly woman (married or unmarried).

## 3. Overextension

This category of extension is more difficult to identify compared to the others. According to Dromi (1987:100) overextension is “an overly broad use of a word for a class of several referents; some of which fall outside the adult category for the same word”. The aspects or perceptions that could lead to overextension include shape, size, sound, movement, taste, texture, etcetera (Dale, 1976). Bowerman (1978) identified two types of overextension. They are ‘Classic Overextension’ and ‘Complexive Overextension’. Ten years after, Dromi (1987) identified another one and called it ‘Same - Referent Overextension’. These types of overextensions are explained below.

### A. Classic Overextension

This is a type of overextension by which a word is extended to a number of referents that share one or more attributes. These attributes may either be functional or perceptual (Clark, 1973; Nelson, 1973), e.g. ‘handbag’ for all types of containers (e.g. plastic and paper sacks, pockets and pails).

### B. Complexive Overextension

This type of overextension is when words are extended to a number of referents that do not share one or more stable attributes, e. g. ‘wound’ for a wound on the body, ink marks on

pieces of paper, spots on a mother's skirt, action of falling down, knives and balloons (Dromi, 1987).

C. Same-Referent Overextension.

This type of Overextension is when a word is repeatedly extended to only one irrelevant referent (i.e. a referent that is not a member of the adults' underlying category for the word), e.g. 'mouth' extended to her mother's lipstick as did by Katharine (Dromi's Subject, 1987).

4. Unclassified Extension

Words that are used ambiguously (or whose entries are not informative enough to ensure a clear decision as to their extension) are assigned to this category of Unclassified Extension. Under this category, there are five sub - classes:

a. Unclassified – incomplete entry. This is when it is difficult to reach as to the referential status of a word because the context is inadequately described.

b. Unclassified – association/Overextension:

There are times that a decision cannot be made on a word to be either overextension or association. Such words are assigned to unclassified – association/overextension.

c. Unclassified Ambiguous:

When two or more entries in the same context to which the word could refer with equal probability (e.g. both an object and an action) the word is assigned as "unclassified ambiguous". For example, in a situation where the child says HORSE (when he sees a TOY HORSE similar to the one he has been riding), both the object HORSE and the action RIDING THE HORSE have equal probability. The use of HORSE here, therefore, becomes ambiguous because you cannot specify whether HORSE is referring to the object 'horse' or the action 'riding the horse'.

d. Unclassified – Empty Words:

These are words that are produced in acceptable contexts, but do not reveal much about the meaning of the word for the child. Example, Kate's (Dromi's, 1987 Subject) use of 'birthday' when shown a picture of a woman baking a birthday cake; she had never been to a birthday party.

e. Unclassified non - Conventional Words:

The child's non-conventional words for which a clear meaning can be identified, e.g. some nursery words like 'bow bow' for 'dog', or 'pipi' for 'urinate'.

## 2.8.2. SEMANTIC REDUCTION

This is another aspect of semantic shift by which the meaning of a word or phrase is narrowed by restricting it to the context it can occur (Hartmann and Stork 1972). For example, 'deer' (animal) for 'forest ruminant'. Alternative terms for 'semantic reduction' include 'semantic specialization'; 'semantic restriction' or 'narrowing of meaning'.

Other ways/kinds of Semantic Reduction include:

1. Semantic Amelioration: When the meaning of a word or phrase assumes a favourable connotation, it is called 'semantic amelioration'. Examples of this kind of semantic change are:

\*\* 'knight' (lad or servant) assumes to 'nobles',

\*\* 'fond' (insipid) assumes to 'full of affection'.

2. Semantic Deterioration: This is the direct opposite of 'semantic amelioration'. It is a kind of semantic change where the word meaning assumes an unfavourable connotation. Example: 'villain' (farm- servant) connotes 'slaves' or 'criminal'.

## 2.9 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO CHILD LANGUAGE STUDY

The study of child language can be carried out through two main approaches: Quantitative or Qualitative Approaches (Dromi, 1987). The Quantitative Approach is experimental; maintaining that scientific knowledge progresses only by testing specific and well-motivated hypotheses. The Qualitative Approach, on the other hand, is naturalistic; believing that behaviours are better understood by trustworthy analysis of processes occurring in their natural contexts (Rist, 1977; Sander, 1981). These approaches and levels of describing child language study are reviewed below.

### 2.9.1. THE QUANTITATIVE TECHNIQUE (QTT) IN CHILD LANGUAGE STUDY

The quantitative approach to child language study is experimental and cross-sectional. Because it is experimental, different kinds of tests are normally applied. Such tests include the Comprehensive Test (CT), the Production Test (PT), the Elicitation Test (ET) and the Imitation Test (IT) (Dromi, 1987). The approach is cross - sectional because children from different parents and backgrounds are gathered and various appropriate tests applied on the children to obtain data; for instance, Reven (1968). These tests are sometimes used in qualitative/naturalistic studies, though.

The main merit of the quantitative approach to child language study is that the results can be generalized. However, the approach focuses on only a point in the children' language development (Hatch, 1978).

### 2.9.2. THE QUALITATIVE TECHNIQUE (QLT) IN CHILD LANGUAGE STUDY

Sometimes referred to as a Case Study or the Observational Approach (OA), the Qualitative Technique (QLT) is carried out in a naturalistic environment. It is the oldest method used in child language study (Mamman - Katsina, 1972). Unlike the Experimental Approach (EA), under QLT the child is observed as he grows up acquiring language non-manipulated. The child's spontaneous utterances are observed and recorded for a long period (Ndahi, 1982).

One major merit of QLT in child language study is that the findings are considered naturalistic. However, the data may be limited and may not reflect the Subject's syntactic sophistication (Hatch, 1978). Besides, it is difficult to generalise the findings because only one Subject is used (Mamman - Katsina, 1992:73). Furthermore, QLT is usually costly and time consuming to conduct. Examples of QLT studies include Stern and Stern (1907), Bloch (1941), Leopold (1939, 1947 and 1949), McNeil (1966), Bloom (1973), Ndahi (1982), Mamman - Katsina (1992), Surakat, (2001), etcetera.

### 2.9.3. THE LEVELS OF DESCRIPTION IN CHILD LANGUAGE STUDY

There are at least three levels of description in child language study. They are first, obtaining evidence, categorizing evidence, and then formalizing evidence. There are problems, however, at each level (Dromi, 1987:32).

#### A. Obtaining Evidence

To obtain evidence or data in child language study, two major options are available. They are the naturalistic observations and the experimental observations. The two are briefly reviewed below.

i. Naturalistic Observations

This is when data are collected in a naturalistic form; that is, from naturally occurring events with minimal control or interferences. The utterances of the child (content and uses) during naturalistic interactions, are gathered and described (Dromi, 1987:25). Naturalistic study is generally carried out with a single child at a time. While some researchers use and prefer their own children, others do not. There are criticisms on these options. Studies with one's child or children not theirs are accused of intruding into privacy and/or not having close observations of the Subjects.

ii. Experimental Observations

Experimental Observations, as a method of obtaining data in child language study, is the deliberate manipulation of one or more aspects of the same components of language (content, form and use) and then observing what the child does because of such manipulations (Dromi, 1987:25). Experimental Observation studies are generally cross-sectional. That is, different children are observed at different ages or backgrounds.

B. Categorizing Evidence

When the evidences (data) have been obtained and interpreted, they are classified. The classification or categorization can be of different taxonomies. Taxonomy is the presentation according to similarities, regularities and consistencies of one kind or another. These taxonomies can be:

i. Language form: Examples:

- a. grouping according to the number of words, or
- b. grouping in accordance to the consistency of word order.

- ii. Language content: Example: the grouping of utterances
  - a. according to whether they refer to moving or static objects,
  - b. in relation to a time line, or
  - c. with particular form and meaning.
- iii. Language Use; Example; grouping utterances according to how they
  - a. function for the children (e.g. comment, report, question, etc) or
  - b. occur in discourse (e.g. as response or spontaneous).
- iv. Taxonomy by Proportions: This is the classification based on the importance of different categories according to their relative frequencies (regular behaviour) and a sequence of development in terms of increase in relative proportion (Dromi, 1987: 31).

### C. Formalizing Evidence

Formalizing evidence is hypothesizing the rule system that appears to underlie the observed behaviours captured by the taxonomies achieved for the study. According to Dromi (1987:31), rules can be the statements of procedures or description of the conditions governing the occurrences of behaviours. She further asserts that although behaviour can be observed and categorised, the rules behind such behaviour can only be inferred and hypothesised. In addition, rule systems are notoriously difficult to devise, though necessary for attempting to explain behaviour.



## 2.10 THE GWONG

Kagoma is one of the seventeen major ethnic groups in Kaduna State situated in the south west of Jema'a Local Government of the state. The tribe is called Gwong, but generally known as Kagoma (a coinage by Hausa – Fulani merchants in the 19<sup>th</sup> century) denoting 'many' (GOC, 2000). According to the 2003 census in Nigeria, Gwong native speakers were about 250,000 in over 91 communities (settlements) scattered over 60,000 sq. km. The major occupation of the people is farming using local implements. A few communities still engage in hunting --the long, aged occupation. With the effects of rural transformation, there is a gradual interest in modern business transactions with the non – natives, especially during free farming seasons.

### 2.10.1 GWONG ORTHOGRAPHY

Although there are no attempts by scholars or historians to formulate a writing system for Gwong, theoretical linguistics researches were conducted by Hagen and Gerharelt (Kyari,1985). The greatest breakthrough was the scholastic work of Kyari (1985), a Gwong indigene. To consolidate this singular effort, a committee was formed to work on the orthography. The committee (referred here, as the Gwong Orthography Committee (GOC) has done a lot of work. The transcription of this study is based on it, though with some modifications.

#### 2.10.1.1. The Vowels in Gwong

According to the GOC, there are seventeen vowel sounds in Gwong. They can be grouped into two types as shown below:

A. PURE VOWELS:

There are twelve pure vowel sounds comprising seven short and five long.

i. Short Vowels: Examples:

i as in 'nit' (rope), bin (a/something)

a as in 'fat' (lean on), 'bat' (touch)

e as in 'met' (lean on); 'fet' (kill)

ɛ as in 'thee' (grass) 'tee' (run)

o as in 'ngoo' (since); 'kom' (encircle)

ɔ as in 'kok' (put down); 'kpo' (borrow)

u as in 'bun' (break) 'lun' (pound)

ii Long Vowels:

Long vowels are represented by duplication. They are:

aa as in 'thaa' (marriage) 'tsaa' (halt)

ee as in 'mbee' (help); 'fee' (fearful)

ii as in 'siik' (pull of); 'biik' (hot)

oo as in koo (a letter), mboo (who)

uu as in 'kyuu' (heart); 'duuing' (deep)

## B. DIPHTHONGS:

There are five diphthongs. They are:

- ai as in 'paaik' (break); 'taik' (start)
- ei as in 'riheik' (name); 'whyeing' (know)
- oi as in 'gbooiik' (pull); 'gboik' (vomit)
- ou as in 'hyout' (beat; 'mount' (heavy)
- ui as in 'kuik' (dry); 'nguing' (swallow)

However, in the course of this study, another type of vowel was discovered. It is referred to here as 'triphthong'. This is because there are three or four vowels glide to form one vowel sound resembling a diphthong. These triphthongs are listed below with a few examples of words that contain such sounds.

- aai as in paaik (break); naaik (stretch); taaing (step back); laaing (neat)
- eei as in feeik (blow air into); teeik (spread to dry); leeing (bell); meeik (throw away)
- uui as in kuik (bend); fuuik (fuming); suuik (lift/pick)
- ooi as in mooik (dent, mock); kook (tare); byooing (knock); tooing (drip, put a drop)

oui as in wouik (have, found); khwouik (what (interrogative)); kouing (measure);  
douing (law)

ouoi as in touoik (jump into); gbouoik (drag, pull)

#### 2.10.1.2. The Gwong Consonants

Gwong has thirty-three consonant sounds, according to GOC. They can be grouped as below:

##### i. Plosives

p as in 'paaik' (break)

b as in 'bat' (touch); 'mbat' (bag)

d as in 'dak' (lack); 'duk' rub; 'dyuk' (brush)

ty as in 'tyuk' (put)

dy as in 'dyak' (lacking); 'ndye' (giving)

k as in 'kas' (road); 'kyas' (crawl)

g as in 'gat' (cross); 'gus' (buy)

ky as in 'kyaa' (monkey); 'kya' (crawl)

gy as in 'ngyos' (to buy); 'gyus' (snake)

kp as in 'kpas' (drive)

gb as in 'gbem' (female friend); 'gbang' (luck)

ii. Affricates

ts as in 'tsat' (guess)

tʃ as in 'chaas' (sprinkle); 'chat' (feather)

dz as in 'jam' (dance); 'jum' (witch crafting)

iii. Fricatives

f as in 'fam' (gun (v)); 'feet' (squeeze)

v as in 'vung' (fling)

θ as in 'thung' (mosquito); 'thyam' gun (N)

d as in 'dyek' (spoons), 'ndo' (where)

s as in 'suk' (leave), 'sam' (never)

z as in 'zom' (in law); 'zeet' (dance), zuum (witch)

x as in 'kham' (worship); 'kha' (reap)

ɣ as in 'gha' (sick); 'hya' (tail)

hw as in 'hwot' (beat)

h as in 'hyaa' (mouth open)

iv. Nasal Sounds

m as in 'mak' (measure); 'mwola' (to feel)

n as in 'nat' (pass); 'net' (people)

ŋ as in 'thung' (mosquito); 'zuing' (swing)

v. Trill

r as in 'ryan' (sleep (N)), 'riheik' (name)

vi. Lateral

l as in 'lan' (sleep (V)); 'louk' (finish/complete)

vii. Approximant

w as in 'wot' (scrape)

y as in 'yat' (quarrel)

Again, like with vowels, another set of consonants was discovered during this study. It is referred here as 'consonant cluster' because they consist more than two cluster consonant sounds. Six examples of this type of consonant sound are listed below.

bkh/bkhy as in 'bkhaaik' (to look down); 'bkhyaaik' (looking down, blaspheming)

ghw/ghyw as in 'ghwat' (uproot); 'ghwyat' (up rooting)

khw/khyw as in 'khwa' (drink); 'khywa' (drinking)

mbkh/mbkhy as in 'kimbkhhou' (hole), 'mbkhyou' (holes)

mgb/mgby as in 'mgbabin' (foolish/fool); 'mgbyabin' ( foolishness)

pkh/pkhy as in 'pkhaaik' (spew); 'pkyaaik' (spewing)

#### 2.10.2. PALATALIZATION IN GWONG

According to Hartmann and Stork (1972), palatalization is the raising of the tongue towards the hard palate, normally as a secondary feature of articulation. In Gwong, palatalization is very prominent, hence, it could be referred as a palatalized language. Palatalization in Gwong modifies grammatical functions and it is a prominent derivative process in the language. The use of palatalization in modifying language functions in Gwong can be seen in the following instances:

i. Verb to Verb Phrase. Examples:

'tuk' (put) to 'tyuk' (to put)

'mkpe' (refuse) to 'mkye' (to refuse)

'mgba' (fell) to 'mgbya' (to fall)

'ngos' (buy) to 'ngyos' (to buy)

ii. Verb to Noun. Examples:

‘dan’ (plant (v)) ‘gyan’ (planting (n))

‘duk’ (brush (v)) ‘dyuk’ (brush (n))

‘gat’ (cross) ‘gyat’ (crossing (n))

‘kim’ (cover (v)) ‘kyim’ (covering (n))

‘mba’ (come) ‘thya’ (coming)

‘nat’ (pass) ‘nyat’ (passing)

iii. To express negation. Examples:

a. ‘nze’ (go) as in:

‘A nze ndze’. (He/she will not go.) E.g.:

‘A ze ndze’. [as against] ‘A ndze’.

(He/she will not go.) (He/She will go.)

b. ‘ndye’ (wont) as in:

‘A ndye tha’ [as against] ‘Aa tha’.

(He /She will not come.) (He /She will come.)

iv. To express futurity. Example: ‘ri’ (will) as in:

a. ‘Mi mbo ri ndze’. (I will go.)

b. ‘Nga ri kyela kyibi.’ (He/She will look for money.)



### 2.10.3. THE TONES IN GWONG

Tone is another prominent feature in Gwong. By definition, it is the pitch level of a word or syllable when speaking (Hartmann and Stork, 1972). A tone language, therefore, is a language whose tone patterns form part of the word structure, rather than the sentence. Gwong is one of these languages.

The levels of tone in Gwong identified by the GOC and modified in this study are six. They are: Rising Tone ( / ), Falling Tone ( \ ), Mid – Tone ( ΓΓ ), Rising – Falling Tone ( / \ ) falling –Rising Tune ( / \ ) and Falling - Falling Tone ( \ \ ). While the first three are used with monosyllabic words, the last three are with di - syllabic words.

Like in other tone languages, tones in Gwong are used to distinguish words and /or grammatical categories. It is the assignment of tones that differentiate items, which otherwise are identical. It is also by tone that syllables in a word are changed to reflect the lexical items used or referred to. Specific examples on all these are given below. The English translations of the Gwong words are given in brackets.

#### A. Rising Tone: Examples:

- i. suk (leave)    ii. sim (dig)    iii. ngu (listen)    iv. mbun (break)    v. xa (reap)

#### B. Falling Tone: Examples:

- i. shala (morning)    ii. mbat (bag)
- iii. thut (cap)    iv. thuik (marshy area).

C. Mid Tone: Examples:

i.  $\bar{\text{ghwe}}$  (child)    ii.  $\bar{\text{mbe}}$  (mat)

iii.  $\bar{\text{fyee}}$  (fear)    iv.  $\bar{\text{kee}}$  (wife).

D. Rising – Falling Versus Falling-Rising Tones:

These tones are normally used on names of persons as gender markers. While rising – falling tone is for female, falling – rising tone is for male. Examples:

$\swarrow \searrow$  Nyela (female)     $\searrow \swarrow$  Nyela (male)

$\swarrow \searrow$  Thyeza (female),  $\searrow \swarrow$  Thyeza (male)

E. Falling – Falling Versus Rising –Falling Tones:

These tones are used as singular and plural markers. Falling – Falling tone shows the noun is singular, Rising – Falling tone indicates plural. Examples:

SINGULAR

$\searrow \searrow$   
bishan ( builder)

$\searrow \searrow$   
reghwék (child)

PLURAL

$\swarrow \searrow$   
bishan (builders)

$\swarrow \searrow$   
reghwék (children)

F. Falling Versus Rising Tones

The use of falling and rising tones on one word changes the grammatical meaning of the word. Examples:

A. Singular and plural forms. Examples:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
i, 'nyam' (animal)	'nyam' (animals)
ii, 'thyut' (cap)	'thyut' (caps)
iii, 'nyaa' (root) /	'nyaa' (root//necklaces)

B. Reflecting Tense: Present Future or Past Tenses.

For the present tense form (the participle or continuous form), the falling tone is used, while the rising tone is used to reflect the past tense form. Examples: 'nga' and 'ba' as in:

'Nga ba.' (present)	'Nga ba'. (past)
(He will come.)	(He has come/he came.)

## 2.11 THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

A review of the theories of language development has been done in the preceding chapter. These theories are Behaviourism, Rationalism and Cognitivism. In summary, Behaviourism sees a newborn as an empty 'tabula rasa', and recognizes the influence of the environment through the inter - play of imitation, practice and reinforcement as critical factors for language acquisition. Rationalism, in an attempt to remedy behaviourism's pitfalls, disagrees with the view of a newborn coming into the world empty, but with a

natural predestined ability to acquire language (LAD); and sees the influence of the environment as secondary.

Cognitivism, on the other hand, acknowledges a two – way affair between the child’s innate ability and the environment. The theory states that the child has the innate ability for finding out; and with the interaction of the environment, he controls it for subsequent experiences or learning. One can therefore say it is an offshoot of Rationalism (Surakat, 2001).

The theoretical framework for this study is the inter - play between Behaviourism and Rationalism; a combination to produce what Surakat (2001) calls ‘Interactive Cognitivism’. This study supports the view that the child could be naturally endowed with a device, potent enough to react according to the environment. The study, therefore, holds the opinion that the interactive play between the two contributes immensely to the child’s use of words generally and overextension, in particular.

Further still, based on the circumstances or situation (context), the child uses his experiences and produces utterances with similar referents that adults may consider as over-extended. With this position, the study supports Surakat’s (2001:134) assertion that there has to be an interaction between the child’s innate capacities and the environment for linguistic and communicative ‘competences’ to develop. The significance of the interactive cognitivism model for this study is understood for the fact that,

- i. it accommodates innate linguistic potentials of the child propounded by Chomsky’s LAD (Surakat, 2001). It is the child’s linguistic potentials that enable him produces (performance) what he (seems to) knows,

- ii. linguistic environment influences the child's language learning. Hence, the child makes attempts to further extend what he has learnt in the past, and
- iii. it is the roles of the two (Behaviourism and Rationalism) that rightly assists in probing beyond the literal meaning of the child's overextended words.

The study, therefore, agrees with Surakat (2001:135) that any theoretical model that ignores either Behaviourism or Rationalism is likely to fail.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 PREAMBLE**

This chapter states the research design and the methods adopted for data collection. It includes the timing and duration of recordings, the recording procedures and data transcription, as well as validity and reliability tests. Also highlighted and illustrated in this chapter are the theoretical and analytical frameworks adopted for the study and the samples of analysis.

#### **3.2 THE DATA COLLECTION: SOURCES AND TECHNIQUE**

This study used the three-media technique suggested by Ochs and Schieffelin (ed., 1979). The technique involves the use of:

- a. diary recordings in which the Subject's spontaneous utterances are entered along with his para - linguistic acts,
- b. audio-tape recordings through the use of a micro-cassette tape recorder, and
- c. video recordings with the use of a video camera.

During the audio recording sessions (once in a month), the non-linguistic activities and settings were noted in the diary or built into the recordings, as in Mamman - Katsina (1992) and Surakat (2001). The video recordings were done at intervals of six months, starting from the Subject's fifteenth month of age. In addition, as done during audio recordings, a diary was kept during the sessions to help in areas or times when the video camera might not capture (Surakat, 2001).

Before any recording session (except the first two), there was a setting deliberately arranged by the researcher to stimulate the Subject to talk. Initially, the recordings were planned to be at different settings, but due to disturbances and distractions by friends and on-lookers (passers-by), a change was inevitable. An indoor setting was tried and found to be fruitful. The Subject talked freely as against complete silence or quarreling on slight provocation.

As for the diary recordings, two diaries were kept at the start: one with the mother and the second with the researcher. In spite of careful instructions, the mother could not make accurate entries. Hence, the researcher had to discard the entire records. Instead, before each session, the researcher would chat with the mother on the general manners/behaviours and utterances made by the Subject. The diary with the researcher was used to record only instances of overextension during and outside recording sessions.

### 3.3 THE DURATION AND TIMING OF RECORDINGS

This study is longitudinal, covering a period of eighteen months (December 2002 to June 2004); that was when the Subject was between twelve and thirty one months. The recorded data consist of three videotape sessions and twelve micro – tape-recording sessions. Each videotape covers an average of forty minutes, while each micro - tape recording was about fifty minutes, totaling about one hundred and sixty (120) and six hundred and fifty (600) minutes, respectively.

One diary was kept with the researcher in which entries were made at monthly intervals (during the monthly visit for recording). This means the diary recordings had no specified

timing. However, the duration ranged from when the Subject uttered his first comprehensive word to when his three - word utterances started manifesting.

### 3.4 DATA RECORDING PROCEDURE

At the start, both the mother and researcher were the chief observers and recorders of the Subject's utterances. The elder daughter and the father served as informants; and only verified utterances were documented in the Researcher's diary. Verifications could be either by the Researcher himself or through the mother. There were times when the Subject uttered something more than once, and had to be explained or confirmed by the mother. For instance, 'ami' for 'amen' and 'amu' for 'kamu', referring to a plastic bucket in which the Subject's 'kamu' (local 'pap') was stored.

The Subject's utterances were recorded as much as possible. Those that were audible were transcribed, while those that were not were marked as incomprehensible. An utterance is comprehensible if:

- a. it phonologically resembles adult pronunciation (e.g. 'amu' for 'kamu', 'lele' for 'alele', etc).
- b. its identifiable referent is interpretable within context. (e.g. 'mm mhu' accompanied by shaking of the head to mean 'No'; and
- c. its identifiable referent is interpretable when linked to experience or similar incident, eg., 'amu' for any plastic bucket that resembled the one in which his 'kamu' (pap) was stored.

When the Subject was unable to call or identify an object or when mute, elicited and imitation tests were applied. For instance, an object was picked or pointed at and the Subject



was asked what it was. At other times, the Researcher mimicked the incomprehensible utterances to make the Subject repeat them.

### 3.5 DATA TRANSCRIPTION

The transcription method used in this study is the format of Bloom and Lahey (1978). The Subject's utterances appearing on the right and other speakers on the left. After or beneath every utterance, there is the English gloss. All notes or comments jotted before or during the sessions are written in English at the centre of the page.

The persons involved during recordings are identified using initials. Example: R is for Research, S for Eliza (the Subject), M for Mommy (the Subject's mother), D is Daddy (the Subject's father), H is Hyedah, and N is Nnah (the Subject's elder siblings), etcetera. Other symbols used in the data transcriptions are listed in Vol. II of the study.

### 3.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

For the sake of reliability and validity, three independent persons crosschecked the data before the analysis. First, it was done together with the mother who was the only person that was very familiar with Eliza's language and mannerism. After this, two judges who were not involved in the data collection exercise also made their input. Different copies of the data were given to them independently and simultaneously. One person is an English language lecturer with the College of Education, Gidan Waya, Kaduna State, and the second person is a retired educationist, administrator, evangelist and the principal translator of portions of the Bible into Gwong. Both judges speak Gwong and are active members of Gwong Orthography Committee (GOC). The result of the reliability and validity tests is

about 83 percent in agreement with the researcher’s transcription. This percentage was attained after much questioning by the judges, as they were not very familiar with the early speech of children. About 11 percent of the disagreed transcription was on the ground of doubt, hence left for the researcher’s discretion; while the remaining (6%) was in total disagreement and was left out entirely. Where the differences occurred in spelling (because the judges and researcher speak different dialects), the researcher used his own dialect (the most familiar to him).

In summary, the inter-judge reliability and validity tests are significant and show that the data are empirically reliable and valid for the analysis done in chapter four.

### 3.7 THE ANALYTICAL MODEL

This study is an attempt to analyse the early-acquired words of a Gwong child at different language levels with particular attention to overextension. The description is done on the Subject's one and two - word stages only. The analytical model developed for the study is shown in the diagram below:

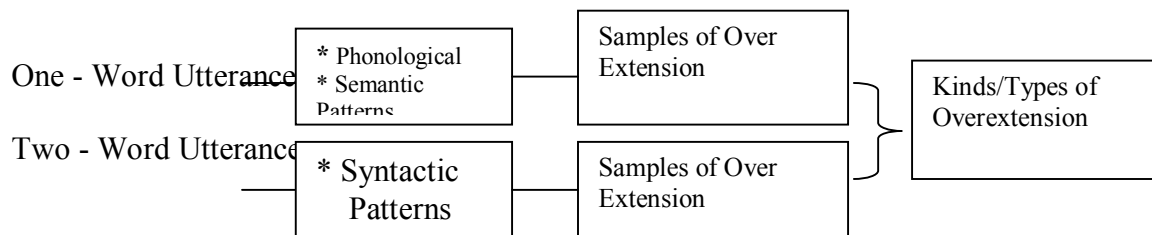


Fig. 1: Analytical Model for Analysis

The first component of the analytical model involves the analysis of the phonological structure and semantic patterns of single word utterances. Under phonological analysis, the

Subject's manner of word production is carried out, while under the semantic, the categories of words are analysed. The second component has only syntactic analysis. This is because it consists of more than one - word utterances. This implies that morphology and the pragmatic levels of language are ignored. This is simply because of the choice and period of language development for this study.

After the analysis of the first and second components, the use of overextension by the child was focused. The analytical procedure used in this study was envisaged to give a general picture of the Subject's language acquisition strategies (under phonology, semantics and syntax levels of language). The study aimed at comparing the findings with previous studies (in other languages and/or Subjects born in urban centres). Specifically, the analytical procedure was expected to reveal the Subject's kind and use of overextension during his One and Two - word Stages of language development.

### 3.8 DATA ANALYSIS

The general goal in describing a child's speech is to discover the most general processes used by the child; and how much he comprehends what he says. However, there are no set routines or procedures in analyzing child speech (Ingram, 1976). Hence, psycholinguists used whatever seem plausible to determine as much as possible what and how the child says what he says. The Subject's utterances are analysed at different levels of language: phonology, semantics and syntax.

The model adopted for the analysis of the phonological features is that of the Generative Approach in terms of the tenets of natural phonology (see Stampe, 1969, Ingram, 1976, Klein, 1978 as adopted by Yusuf, 1984). Hence, the sort of processes (e.g. assimilation,

reduplication, substitution, reduction, etc) are analyzed to get the divergence between child's and the adult's utterances. For semantic analysis, Bloom's (1970) semantic interpretation model is used. It is found to be appropriate as it takes cognizance of contextual meaning which in turn helps in determining some possible uses of overextension by children - the major focus of the study. Chomsky's (1965) Transformational-Generative Grammar (TG), on the other hand, is adopted for the syntactic analysis of the Subject's utterances. The model is used because it explains the basic grammatical relations and categories used by the Subject at his early stage. Hence, the Subject's one and two - word utterances are analyzed to determine grammatical elements like subject, verb and object, or noun, verb, determiner and auxiliary (see Ingram, 1976). The categorization of the words are done using Dromi's (1987) model: objects, action/state, modifiers, social and indeterminant words. Each is briefly explained below:

- Object Words: These are words used by the child for single entities or concrete things in the situation.
- Action/State Words: They are words used for encoding actions or the state of objects.
- Modifiers Words: These words refer to properties and qualities of things and events.
- Social Words: Words that constitute part of a social interaction and that seem not to have referential value, and
- Indeterminant Words: These words cannot be classified as belonging to any of the categories mentioned above.

The conditions that determined the placement of a word into any of the categories above are similar to those used by Dromi (1987: 91).

In summary therefore, the data collected are categorized into one and two - words and analysed under phonology, semantics and syntax, using different models or approaches: Chomsky (Generative), Bloom and Chomsky, respectively.

### 3.9 SAMPLES OF OVEREXTENSIONS

The phenomenon of overextension in children's speech is complex compared to the other category of lexio-semantics. Judgments about the use or application of words by children are usually based on adult expectations. These expectations come from the knowledge of the conventional meaning of the words or speech. Hence, children's word production in unexpected contexts throws adults into various interpretations of what the children could mean or refer.

Instances of overextensions in this study are determined from the data collected using Dromi's (1987) criteria. After that, they are categorised using Bowerman (1978) and Dromi's (1987) methods of classification; the classification combines perceptual and functional aspects. This system of classification is elaborate compared to others: Piaget (1959), Vygotsky (1962); Clark (1973); Bloom (1973); Nelson (1973); Anglin (1977); Rescorla (1980), etc. ( See Chapter 2). Dromi added one type of overextension to those found by Bloom (1973).The different types used in this study are Classic, Complexive and Same Referent Overextensions.

### 3.9.1. DESIGNED CODES FOR ANALYSIS OF OVEREXTENSION

For convenience, a coding-format is designed to identify and classify, at the same time, each of the overextensions used by the Subject. The code is given below.

#### A. CRITERIA FOR DETERMINING OVEREXTENSIONS

A word is selected as overextended and coded:

1. if it was incorrectly applied at least three times,
2. if a possible basis for the overextension is understood (e.g. appearance, use, shape, colour, etc.),
3. when it was used in pragmatic (request) function, and
4. when it was incorrectly used persistently despite corrections.

#### B. TYPES OF OVEREXTENSION

An overextended word is coded:

1. if it is an example of **classic** overextension,
2. when it is considered **complexive** overextension,
3. when it is **same - referent** overextension, and
4. when it is **indetermined**.

### 3.9.2. A SAMPLE ANALYSIS OF OVEREXTENSIONS

Using the coding system given above the following samples of overextension is chosen as examples. The number(s) in brackets after 'referent(s)' is the Subject's age when the overextension was used, while the numbers after the brackets indicate the criteria and type of overextension, respectively.

SAMPLE 1:

UTTERANCE: /eduu/ (ghedyu) MEANING puppy

REFERENT: lamb (30th/31st) 2 – 1

COMMENT: The utterance was made twice (30th and 31st months) referred to a picture of a lamb on the wall; and the possible basis for the overextension (OE) is the ‘appearance’ (2) of the lamb, while the type of OE is ‘classic’ (1).

SAMPLE 2:

UTTERANCE: /tie/ MEANING tea

REFERENTS: a, cup (22nd) 1 - 2

b, vacuum flask (25) 1 -3

COMMENT: The utterance was made twice and referred to two different objects: ‘cup’ an the 22nd month and ‘vacuum flask’ in the 25<sup>th</sup> month. The referent ‘cup’ is determined in relation to ‘use’ as a container for taking tea, hence, (3), and it is an example of complexive OE (2). The vacuum flask is also determined as a container for storing tea or hot water for making tea, hence (3);and it is an example of complexive OE (2).

SAMPLE 3:

UTTERANCE: /moo/ (imitates the sound/ cry of a cow)

REFERENTS: a. horse (19th) 2 - 1

b. lamb (22nd/24th) 2 – 1

COMMENT: The utterance was made in two different contexts: first in the 19<sup>th</sup> month when he was ‘riding’ a cushion pillow as a horse and in the 22<sup>nd</sup> and 24<sup>th</sup> months when he was asked to identify the picture of the animal

‘lamb’. Therefore, while demonstrating ‘horse riding’ and uttered ‘moo’, he could be referring to ‘cow’ as ‘horse’ (referent here therefore is by ‘use’ (2)). The referent to lamb could be the appearance of the lamb as a ‘horse’, hence coded (2). Both are Classic OE, therefore coded (1).

SAMPLE 4:

UTTERANCE: /go goo/ (gool) MEANING: goal (for BALL)

REFERENTS: a. round shaped glassy decoration (20th/31st) 2 – 1

b. empty tin/carton (14th) 2– 1

c. ball (14th) 2 – 2

COMMENT: In the first instance, the Subject referred to a round shape glassy decoration hung on the wall. The second instance was when he was kicking an empty carton with his right foot. The third was referred to his ball when it rolled under the settee. Therefore, the first reference was based on shape (2), while the second and third instances are based on use/action with the object ‘ball’ (2); while the first two are examples of Classic OE (1), the last is Complexive OE (2).

SAMPLE 5:

UTTERANCE: /amu/ (akamu/kamu) MEANING : [local pap]

REFERENT: small plastic bucket (22nd) 2 – 3

COMMENT: The utterance was made when Eliza was asked to identify a plastic bucket similar to the one his ‘kamu’ was stored.

The complete analysis of the overextensions is done in chapter 4.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS

#### 4.1 PREAMBLE

This chapter analyses the data obtained from the recorded sessions of the Subject's utterances. The analysis follows the problems set out in chapter one. They are:

- language development phases/stages,
- strategies of word production,
- lexio - semantic features, and
- categories of overextension.

It is important to note that the chapter concentrates on events or activities and manners by which a Gwong child acquired his L1.

#### 4.2. THE OVERALL PICTURE OF THE SUBJECT'S UTTERANCES

This study spans from the 15th to the 31st months of the Subject and has fifteen recorded sessions (12 audio and 3 video recordings). Each recording session lasted about fifty minutes, making a total of 900 minutes (15 hours). The Subject produced 858 words during the period of study (one and two – word stages). Table 1 below shows the total number of words during each recording session.

TABLE 1: ELIZA'S NUMBER OF RECORDED WORDS

Session	A1 (15)	A2 (16)	A3 (18)	V1 (19)	A4 (20)	A5 (21)	A6 (22)	A7 (23)	A8 (24)	V2 (26)	A9 (27)	A10 (28)	A11 (29)	A12 (30)	V3 (31)	TOT
No. of words	02	06	11	80	04	42	118	107	106	73	97	108	26	55	23	858
No. of Diff. words	02	04	06	41	04	33	63	64	45	55	47	46	25	42	18	495

### KEY

A = Audio Session; V = Video Session

Numbers in brackets show Eliza's age in months

As seen from Table I, the number of words from the 15<sup>th</sup> to the 31<sup>st</sup> month kept fluctuating. This was probably because of the Subject's ill – health (July 2003) or lack of composure (March and June 2004). There were no recordings in April and December 2003. The timing for the recording fell during Easter and Christmas festivals when there were many distractions.

Based on obvious reasons, one would least expect the Subject to utter a word in English. The parents confessed they had not communicated in English around the Subject. His elder siblings had just started nursery school; they never understood English and therefore could not have attempted to speak it apart from numerical counting (1, 2, 3, 4...). Surprisingly, the Subject uttered /esh/ meaning YES each time he heard the Researcher spoke in English into the recording (See Vol. 2).

#### 4.3 THE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT STAGES

In chapter two, we reviewed the different stages generally observed in child language development. Eliza was observed to have passed through the pre - linguistic stage during which there were different noises for purposes of reporting and drawing attention. It was in November 2002 when Eliza uttered his first meaningful word. He called ‘maa’ (mom) probably to draw the mother’s attention. He was left alone on the floor while the mother was engaged in a women’s fellowship in the church. Before and after this, Eliza continued his ‘cries’ and ‘play noises’ of ‘pprrr...’, ‘daaaaa...’, ‘mmmm..’ etc. This was also observed by Mamman – Katsina (1992:56).

Eliza’s linguistic stage began around the 14<sup>th</sup> month with more of nasal words like ‘mh’, ‘mm’ and ‘mh’ (‘take’, ‘yes’ and ‘no’, respectively). The general period observed for this stage is the 9<sup>th</sup> month. When Eliza was 22 months, Eliza started introducing two - word utterances. This became prominent in the following month, though with one - word dominating. At the age of 26 months (February 2004), Eliza started introducing more than two – word utterances in his speech. Surprisingly, during the following month, the three - word utterances were not observed. In fact, from March to May 2004 (27<sup>th</sup> to 29<sup>th</sup> months) Eliza uttered more one and two - words than three - word utterances. It was in June 2004 (30<sup>th</sup>) that three - word utterances re - surfaced (the time the study ended). Again, the Subject’s Telegraphic Stage differs from the general time of around the 36<sup>th</sup> month.

#### 4.4 PHONOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

The general strategies of word production by Eliza included assimilation, substitution, reduction and multiple processes as reported in Yusuf (1984); Smith (1973:165) and Surakat (2009). Examples of Eliza’s words include:

A. Assimilation

ADULT

ELIZA

‘tyaa’ (eat) PRONOUNCED ‘daa’ ATR-5; ATR-11

‘gari’ (garri) PRONOUNCED ‘ayi’ ATR- 6

‘amut’ (heavy) PRONOUNCED ‘amaat’ ATR-7;ATR-8

B. Reduplication

ADULT

ELIZA

‘bokolo’ (Chadian cattle) PRONOUNCED as ‘kokolo’ ATR-7

‘shingafa’ (rice) PRONOUNCED as ‘ifafa’ ATR-6

‘mbyapyala’ (pepper) PRONOUNCED as ‘babaya’ ATR-9

C. Substitution

i. /y/ substitutes /l/ E.g.

‘aya’ FOR ‘Allah’ (God) ATR-6

‘yafia’ FOR ‘lafiya’ (find/well) ATR-6

ii. Diphthongs substituted for other sounds. E.g.:

‘beya’ FOR ‘pyela’ (leg) ATR-7

‘taa’ FOR ‘tsaa’ (stop/ halt) ATR-11

iii. Elimination of diphthongs, eg:

/gh/ as in ‘kighwe’ (this one) BECOMES ‘iwe’ ATR-10

/hy/ as in ‘hyesi’ (keep) BECOMES ‘ise’ ATR-8

/gy/ as in ‘gyogyona’ (fighting) BECOMES ‘gogona’

ATR-12’

/wy/ as in ‘wyubya’ (fall) BECOMES ‘uuba’

D. Reduction (syllable or sound)

‘kaata’ FOR ‘makaranta’ (school) ATR-11

‘aik’ FOR ‘paaik’ (torn) VTR-1

‘ita’ FOR ‘chita’ (ginger) VTR-3

‘ete’ FOR ‘nye te’ (Can you see?) ATR-5

‘imi’ FOR ‘ndemi’ (Give me.) ATR-7

‘ifiri’ FOR ‘kifiri’ (urine) ATR-7

‘iwe’ FOR ‘kighwe’ (this one) ATR-6

From the analysis above, one will agree with Surakat (200, 2001) and Yusuf (1984) that the general strategies adopted by the child in word production could be attributed to the underdeveloped nature of the articulatory muscles and skills of the child. However, this study further sees it as a process of language development. This is evident in the continuous modifications of some words production towards adults’ standard as the child grows.

Examples:

▷ ko      → oko      → onkol FOR onkol (uncle),  
 ati      → aatii      → waa ti FOR ghywa tii (taking tea),  
 si      → shi      → ishin FOR mashin (motorcycle)’  
 imu      → amu      → amo FOR amut (It’s heavy),  
 kaata      → maata FOR makaranta (school),etc.

## 4.5 SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS

In chapter two, the different syntactic patterns in children speech was reviewed and noted to be varied. The Subject of this study indeed used different patterns. Some major instances and patterns observed include:

1. Instances without verbs: Example:

- a. / ida maata / MEANING ‘Hyedah zi i makaranta.’ ATR- 6  
 S O (Hyedah has gone to school.)
- b. / isin eba / MEANING ‘A soh mashin baba mi.’ ATR-5  
 O O (It is my dad’s motor cycle.)

2. Instances with VO only:

This was very common with Eliza’s two – word utterances.

- a. / dui suwi / ‘Kunni (whong) mi suwit.’ ATR-7  
 V O (Unwrap some sweets for me.)
- b. / imi suwi / ‘Ndemi suwit.’ ATR-7  
 V O (Give me some sweets.)
- c. /aa ti / ‘Mbori ghwa tii.’ ATR-6  
 V O (I will take some tea.)
- d. /azu oto / ‘Mi nda nzuk moto ba.’ ATR-8  
 V O (I am not driving a car.)
- e. /bi buta / ‘Bhyeing khibyota na.’ ATR-7  
 V O (Open the door.)

3. Instances with VOV and OOC Structures:

When Eliza started producing three words, other syntactic patterns were introduced. These include VOV and OOC, e.g:

- a, /su beyi ba/ MEANING ‘Nze suik beredi ba.’ ATR-7  
 V O V (Go and bring some bread.)
- b. /asana maa fa/ MEANING ‘Ashana mama mi fa?’ ATR-7  
 O O C (Where is my mother’s matches?)

Though the result of the analysis above agrees with previous studies (e.g. Surakat, 2001) that syntactic features of the child vary, none of the examples they gave were observed in this study.

#### 4.6 LEXIO - SEMANTIC ANALYSIS

Under the categories of words, using Dromi's (1987) model of classification, it was observed that the Subject used more nouns: names of persons and objects (38.6%) than verbs: action words (37.6%); followed by modifiers (19.1%), then social words (2.3%). About 2.3% of the words are incomprehensible.

Examples of Eliza's frequent words are given below in English:

NOUNS: a. Persons: Hyedah (the Subject's older sister); Uncle  
(referring to the Researcher)

b. Objects: ball; car

VERBS: drink; see; take; finish

MODIFIERS: it; me; this/that

SOCIAL WORDS: yes; hey

TABLE 2: CATEGORAZATION OF ELIZA'S WORDS AT MONTHS INTERVALS (15<sup>th</sup> – 31<sup>st</sup> MONTH)

6

	15 <sup>th</sup> Month	26 <sup>th</sup> Month	31 <sup>st</sup> Month	TOTAL
Action	14 (4.6%)	62 (20.5%)	38 (12.5%)	114(37.6%)

Objects	12 (4.0%)	68(22.4%)	37(12.2)	117(38.6%)
Modifiers	11(4.0%)	32(10.6%)	15 (5.0%)	58 (19.1%)
Social	01(0.3%)	0.3 (1%)	03(1%)	07(2.3%)
Indeter-				
Minants	03(1%)	02(0.7%)	02(0.7%)	07(2.3%)
Total	41(13.5%)	167(55.1%)	95(31.4%)	303(99.9%)

In Table 2 above, it shows that Eliza's most productive words were objects (38.6%), followed by action words (37.6%); while social words were the least (2.3%).

TABLE 3: ELIZA'S MOST FREQUENT TYPES OF WORDS AT MONTHS INTERVALS (15TH – 31<sup>ST</sup> MONTH) 6

Month	20 <sup>th</sup> Month	31 <sup>st</sup> Month	15 <sup>th</sup>
			Action:
take-7, see-6 gone/finished-7	drink-10, take/see-2, come/put/finished/	fallen/see/take-4,  open/removed-3	removed-3
Objects: ball-7, uncle/car-5 Hyedah-4	Hyedah-14, uncle-29 spoon-18, car/ball-10 farm-8, radio/mom-7	uncle-22, ball-4, car-9, Hyedah-5 room/sweets/biscuits-3, mom-2	
Modifiers: what/here -3, where/I/me-2	it-15, my-7, where/ me-14, heavy/what-5,	me-5, what-3, it-3 who-3, that/this-6	
Social: yes-4	yes-9, sorry-1 Hey-5	yes-5, alright-1 bye bye-1	
Indeter- one-7, two-6, mined : this one-2	this one-5, sound of car horn (imitation)-1	one-1, this one-6	

(Note: the numbers show frequency)



From Table 3, it shows that by the Subject's 31<sup>st</sup> month, he used the following categories of words more frequently. Again, the numbers show the frequency of the words.

Action Words: a. names of persons:

Hyedah-23, Uncle (referred to Researcher) - 23

b. others:

ball-21, car-24, mom-9

Modifiers: a. WH- Words:

what-11, where-16, who-3

b. Pronouns:

I-2, me-21, it-18

Social Words: yes-18, hey-5

Indeterminants: this one-13 (probably to mean, "I don't know the name.")

#### 4.7 ANALYSIS OF ELIZA'S OVEREXTENSIONS

A review of the findings on overextension in previous studies was made in Chapter 2. This includes the categories and possible reasons for overextension. Others are the stages of language development during which overextension is observed, the prevalence, distribution and frequency. The overextensions used by the Subject of this study are identified and analysed below.

##### 4.7.1. ELIZA'S OVEREXTENSIONS

###### **THE ONE - WORD STAGE (13TH – 21<sup>ST</sup> MONTHS)**

The coding system designed for this analysis has already been explained in chapter three under sample of data analysis (page 68).

TEXT 1: /lele/ (allele) MEANING ‘moi moi’

REFERENT: egusi soup/ sauce (13th) 2 - 1

COMMENTS: S watched the mother stirring egusi soup and demanded for ‘moi- moi’.

ATTRIBUTE: appearance/look

TEXT 2: /omu/ (lemu) MEANING oranges

REFERENT: unripe mango (13<sup>TH</sup>) 2-1

COMMENT: S was asked to identify mango fruit displayed on the table.

ATTRIBUTES: appearance, shape

TEXT 3:/isa/ (fis) MEANING coco yam

REFERENT: small fresh cassava tubers (13<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTES: appearance/look

COMMENT: S was asked to identify cocoyam.

TEXT 4: /amu/ (akamu/kamu) MEANING: local pap

REFERENT: plastic bucket (13th) 2 - 3

COMMENTS: S was asked to identify the bucket. It resembled the bucket his local pap was stored.

ATTRIBUTE: use

TEXT: 5 /go goo/ (gol) MEANING: (a) goal

REFERENT:

a, (14<sup>th</sup>) 2-1 while kicking an empty carton.

b, (14<sup>TH</sup>) 2-1 while kicking an empty tin.

c, (14<sup>th</sup>) 2-2 meaning BALL (S asked  
for his ball.

ATTRIBUTE(S): shape, action

TEXT 6: /oko/ (onkol)      MEANING: uncle

REFERENT: uncle (14<sup>th</sup>) 2-1 FOR unknown elderly  
men in a group picture.

ATTRIBUTES: appearance/look (age, gender)

COMMENTS: S was asked to identify the people in  
the group picture he was looking.

TEXT 7: /edio/ (rediyō)      MEANING: radio set

REFERENT: tape recorder (14<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTES: shape/appearance

COMMENT: S was asked to identify what he was  
touching.

TEXT: 8 /enu/ (whyenu)/      MEANING: chicken

REFERENT: chicken feather (16<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: appearance

COMMENT: R picked a chicken feather when they  
were strolling and asked S to identify.

TEXT 9: /saa/ ( asaa/shaa) MEANING: itching

REFERENT: tin of robb ointment (19<sup>th</sup>) 1-3

ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: S carried it on the table and was asked what he was holding.

TEXT10: /waa/ (agwhyat) MEANING remove

REFERENT: torn (part of the empty carton) (19<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: state/condition

COMMENT: S commented/complained when he observed that the carton he was playing

with had torn.

TEXT 11: /moo/ REFERRING TO: the cry of a cow

REFERENT: horse (19<sup>th</sup>) 2 - 1

COMMENT: S was on a settee pillow while saying this.

ATTRIBUTE: action

TEXT 12: /ewye/ (kighwe) MEANING this one

REFERENT: settee pillow (19<sup>th</sup>) 1-3

ATTRIBUTE: ??

COMMENT: S was asked to say the name of what he was holding.

TEXT 13: /pe/ (mpye)MEANING: refuse (d)

REFERENT: unfixed (19<sup>th</sup>) 4-3

ATTRIBUTE: ??

COMMENT: S complained when he could not mend  
the torn carton.

TEXT 14: /lou/ (alouk)      MEANING: finish

REFERENT: Cannot find (19<sup>th</sup>) 4-3

ATTRIBUTE: ??

COMMENT: S complained when he could not find his  
ball that had rolled under the settee.

TEXT 15: /edio/ (rediyó)      MEANING: radio set

REFERENT: tape recorder (20<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: appearance/look

COMMENT: S was asked to identify what he  
was touching.

TEXT 16: / go goo/ ( gol)      MEANING: goal (football scoring)

REFERENT: round glassy decoration (20<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: shape

COMMENT: S was staring at a decoration on the  
cupboard and was asked to call the name.

### **THE TWO - WORD STAGE (22<sup>nd</sup> – 31<sup>st</sup> MONTH)**

TEXT 1: /moo/ (REFERRING TO sound of cow mooing)

REFERENT: horse (19<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

COMMENT: S uttered this while he was 'riding' a  
settee pillow.

TEXT 2: /itii/ (sutee) MEANING: run away

REFERENT: ball roll away/off (30/31) 2 - 1

COMMENT: S complained when his ball rolled under  
the settee.

ATTRIBUTE: state/action

TEXT 3: /tii/ MEANING: tea

REFERENT: cup (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-2

ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: S was holding a small cup and was  
asked to call the name.

TEXT 4: /anta/ (fanta) MEANING :Fanta drink

REFERENT: all bottles /31) 2 - 1

COMMENT: R pointed to an empty bottle on the table  
and asked S the name.

ATTRIBUTE: appearance/look

TEXT 5: /iwyē/ (kighwe) MEANING : this one

REFERENT: MCR (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2 - 3

COMMENT: S was touching the MCR and R asked  
him what it was.

TEXT 6: /amu/ (kamu/kamu) MEANING pap

REFERENT: small plastic bucket (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-3

ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: S was asked to identify the bucket. It resembled the bucket S's pap was stored.

TEXT 7: /i mai/ (khimai) MEANING : cow milk

REFERENT: cow milk with 'fura' (22nd) 2 - 1

COMMENT: S was watching R taking cow milk with 'fura'.

ATTRIBUTE: colour/appearance/look

TEXT 8: /edio/ (rediyō) MEANING transistor radio

REFERENT: cassette (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: S was asked to identify what he had just picked from the table.

TEXT 9: /mbik/ (abeik) MEANING (it is) hot

REFERENT: red light from MCR (22nd) 2 - 1

COMMENT: S saw red light of MCR and made the comment.

ATTRIBUTE: colour/appearance/look

TEXT: 10: /beik/ (abeik) MEANING: ( it is) hot

REFERENT: red light of the MCR ( 23<sup>rd</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: colour

COMMENT: R asked S what the red light of the MCR was.

TEXT 11: /ulu/ (lulu) MEANING : cotton

REFERENT: candle (30/31) 2 - 1

COMMENT: S picked a candle from the table and R  
asked him what it was.

ATTRIBUTE: colour

TEXT 12: /peya/ (pyela) MEANING leg

REFERENT: shoe (23<sup>rd</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: S was asked what he was holding.

TEXT 13: /a lok/ (alouk) MEANING finished

REFERENT : okay or alright (24<sup>th</sup>) 1-2

ATTRIBUTE: action

COMMENT: S made the remark when he was inside

an empty carton he was using as a car to drive. . . . . TEXT 14: : /tii/

MEANING : tea

REFERENT: vacuum flask (25<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: R pointed to a vacuum flask and asked S  
what it was.

TEXT 15: /iwye/ ( kighwe) MEANING : this one

REFERENT: do not know the name (25<sup>th</sup>) 1-3

COMMENTS: S was asked to identify dry cassava called  
'rogo'.

TEXT 16: /peya/ (pyela) MEANING leg

REFERENT: shoe (25<sup>th</sup>) 2-1



ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: S was asked what he was holding.

TEXT 17: /a yu/ (a whyus) MEANING leaking

REFERENT: dripping (25<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: state

COMMENT: S commented when he saw the water ripping as  
was putting some water from a jug into a cup. R

TEXT 18: /iwe/ (kighwe) MEANING this one.

REFERENT: waist belt ( 26<sup>th</sup>) 1-3

COMMENT: S was asked to identify waist belt.

TEXT 19: /uba/ (whyubya) MEANING : fallen down

REFERENT: got out (27<sup>th</sup>) 2 – 1

COMMENTS: S succeeded in fixing back a spoon he removed  
from the cutleries stand.

ATTRIBUTE(S): action/movement

TEXT 20: /ebo/ (alebo) MEANING: cassava flour

REFERENT: fresh cassava (27<sup>th</sup>) 2 - 1

COMMENT: S was asked to identify cassava flour called  
'alebo'

ATTRIBUTE: colour, usage

TEXT 21: /iwye/ ( kighwe) MEANING this one

REFERENT: dish/plate (27<sup>th</sup>) 1-3

COMMENT: S was asked to identify a dish/plate.

TEXT 22: /enu/ (ghyenu) MEANING: bird/chicken

REFERENT: chicken feather (26<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: part of the animal/appearance

COMMENT: While strolling with the S, R saw a chicken feather and asked S to identify.

TEXT 23: /uni/ (kuni) MEANING : open

REFERENT: removed (26<sup>th</sup>) 4-3

COMMENT: S saw the flap of the empty carton torn

ATTRIBUTE: state

TEXT 24: /opa/ ( igop) MEANING drug

REFERENT: small plastic plate (26<sup>th</sup>) 1-3

ATTRIBUTE: use

COMMENT: S was asked to identify a plate.

TEXT 25: /saap/ (nzap) MEANING: beans

REFERENT: rice (26<sup>th</sup>) 2 - 1

COMMENT: S was asked to identify rice called 'shingafa'.

ATTRIBUTE(S): size, usage

TEXT 26: /uba/ (whyubya) MEANING: fallen (down)

REFERENT: removed (26<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

ATTRIBUTE: state

COMMENT: S made the comment when he successfully removed a spoon from the cutleries stand.

TEXT 27: /enu/ (ghwenu) MEANING : chicken

REFERENT: bird (30<sup>th</sup>) 2 - 1

COMMENT: R pointed to a picture of a bird on the wall and asked S the name.

ATTRIBUTE: appearance/look

TEXT 28: /opa/ ( ikgop) MEANING :drugs

REFERENT: plate/saucer (30) 1-3

COMMENT: R pointed to a plastic plate on the table and asked S the name. The plate resembled the container they store his drugs.

TEXT 29: /de dyo/ (gwhedyu) MEANING: puppy

REFERENT: lamb (30) 2 - 1

COMMENTS: R pointed to the picture of a lamb on the wall and asked S the name.

ATTRIBUTE(S): appearance, colour

TEXT 30: / de dyo/ (whyedyu) MEANING: puppy

REFERENT: lamb ( 31<sup>st</sup> ) 2-1

ATTIRBUTE: appearance, colour,

COMMENT: S was stirring at the picture of a lamb on the wall and R asked him what it was.

TEXT 32: / go goo/ (gol) MEANING goal

REFERENT: round shape glassy decoration ( 31<sup>st</sup> ) 2-1

ATTIRBUTE: shape

COMMENT: R pointed to the decoration and asked S  
the name.

Table 4 below shows the summary of instances of the overextensions used by the  
Subject. The numbers represent the months that each overextension was used.

TABLE 4: INSTANCES OF ELIZA'S OVEREXTENSION

ENGLISH	ELIZA	ADULT	REFERENT & AGE
1.ball	/go goo/	(boll)	round glassy decoration, ball 16 <sup>th</sup> , 19 <sup>th</sup> , 21 <sup>st</sup> , 25 <sup>th</sup> , 26 <sup>th</sup>
2.run away	/ itii/	(suite)	roll away/off 13 <sup>th</sup> , 26 <sup>th</sup>
3.(take) tea	/wa tii/	(gwhyua tii)	teacup, vacuum flask 25 <sup>th</sup> ,
4.uncle	/oku/	(onkol)	all elderly men 26 <sup>th</sup>
5.fanta drink	/anta/	(fanta)	all bottles , 26 <sup>th</sup>
6. this one	/i wye/	(mi nda gheing).	I do not know ( the name ): 26 <sup>th</sup> , 27 <sup>th</sup> , 19 <sup>th</sup> 25 <sup>th</sup>
7.radio set	/edio/	(radiyo)	radio, cassette : 26 <sup>th</sup>
8.porridge	/i mai/	(kimai)	cow milk, (white) plastic bucket: 26 <sup>th</sup>
9.moo (cry of a cow )			lamb, cow, sheep, horse: 19 <sup>th</sup> , 22 <sup>nd</sup> , 26 <sup>th</sup> , 27 <sup>th</sup>
10.hot	/beik/	(abeik)	red light 22 <sup>nd</sup> , 27 <sup>th</sup>
11.cotton wool	/ulu/	(lulu)	candle :23 <sup>rd</sup>
12.finish(ed)	/ (a) lou/	(alouk)	all right,/okay : 25 <sup>th</sup> 27 <sup>th</sup> ,28 <sup>th</sup>
13.leg	/peya/	(pyela)	shoe : 23 <sup>rd</sup> , 25 <sup>th</sup>
14. chicken	/enu/	(whyenu)	feathers :26 <sup>th</sup> 30 <sup>th</sup>
15.fallen down/off	/uba/	(wyu baa)	got out : 27 <sup>th</sup>
16.open	/uni/	(kuni)	removed :
17.beans	/saap/	(nzap)	beans, rice: 26 <sup>th</sup>
18.cassava flour	/ebo/	(alebo)	cassava flour, fresh cassava: 27 <sup>th</sup>
19. mommy	/maa/	(mama)	all unknown females (photographs): 28 <sup>th</sup>
20.itching	/asaa/	(rob)	robb ointment:19 <sup>th</sup>
21.removed	/waa/	(whyat)	torn: 19 <sup>th</sup>
22.refused	/ pe/	(mpye)	(it has) refused:
23.open	/ uni/	( kuni)	remove/ take out: 26 <sup>th</sup>
24. puppy	/de dyu/	( gwhedyu)	lamb: 30 <sup>th</sup>
25. chicken	/ enu/	(ghwenu ( nnu)	bird : 30 <sup>th</sup> 101
26.leaking/dripping	/a yu /	(a wyus)	( water ) falling

## DIARY RECORDINGS

ENGLISH	ELIZA	ADULT	REFERENT & AGE
1. 'moimoi'	/ lele/	(allele)	egusi soup
2. oranges	/ omu/	(lemu)	unripe mango
3. cocoyam	/ isa/	(fiis)	small fresh cassava
4. pap	/amu/	( kamu)	white plastic bucket

### 4.7.2. TYPES OF ELIZA'S OVEREXTENSIONS

The different types of overextension used by the Subject are presented in tables below. The numbers show how old he was (in months) when the overextensions were recorded. The analysis was carried out using Dromi's (1987) classification, but with the designed coding system explained in chapter three.

#### A. THE CLASSIC TYPE OF OVEREXTENSIONS

There were fifteen instances of this type of overextension used by the Subject.

Table 5 below presents the Classic Type of overextensions.

TABLE 5: ELIZA'S CLASSIC TYPE OF OVEREXTENSION

UTTERANCE	REFERENT	ATTRIBUTE
1. ball /go go/ (boll)	round glassy decoration	shape

2.run away /itii/ (suite)	roll away/off	movement/action
3.uncle/oku/ (onkol)	all elderly men	size, sex
4.fanta drink /anta/(fanta)	all bottles	shape
5.porridge /i mai/ (kimai)	cow milk	state, colour
6.moo (cry of a cow )	lamb, cow, sheep, horse	appearance, colour
7.cotton wool /ulu/ (lulu)	candle	appearance, colour
8.chicken/enu/ (whyenu)	feathers	appearance
9.fallen down/off /uba/ (wyu baa)	got out	action1
10.beans /saap/ (nzap)	beans, rice	state, size, appearance
11. cassava flour /ebo/ (alebo)	cassava flour, fresh cassava	colour
12. mom /maa/ (mama)	all unknown females (photographs)	size, sex
13.‘moi moi’/lele/ (allele)	egusi soup	appearance, state
14.oranges /omu/ (lemu)	unripe mango	appearance, colour
15.puppy /de dyu/ ( gwhedyu)	lamb	colour, shape
16.chicken / enu/ (ghwenu /nnu)	bird	shape, colour,
17.cocoyam /omu/ (lemu)	big short fresh cassava tubers	shape, size, colour

## B. THE COMPLEXIVE TYPE OF OVEREXTENSIONS

Table 6 below presents the samples of Complexive type of overextensions used by the Subject.

TABLE 6: ELIZA'S COMPLEXIVE TYPE OF OVEREXTENSIONS

UTTERANCE	REFERENT	ATTRIBUTE
1. ( take ) tea	vacuum flask	use
2. finished	completed, alright/okay	action

C. THE SAME - REFERENT TYPE OF OVEREXTENSIONS

Table 7 below contains the samples of Same - Referent type overextensions used by the Subject.

TABLE 7: ELIZA'S SAME - REFERENT TYPE OF OVEREXTENSIONS

UTTERANCE	REFERENT	ATTRIBUTE
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1. open	removed	??
2. leg	shoe	??
3. pap	plastic bucket	??
4. radio set	radio cassette	??
5. itching	Robb ointment	??
6. this one	unidentified or unknown objects/things	??
7. drug	plate	??

#### 4.7.3 ELIZA'S COMMON OVEREXTENSIONS (ONE AND TWO – WORD STAGES)

The following are the recorded overextensions used by the Subject during the two stages of his language development focused in this study. Again, the numbers indicate the age of the Subject (in months) when the overextensions were used.

1. goal      14<sup>th</sup>, 20<sup>th</sup> and 31<sup>st</sup> month
2. finished      19<sup>th</sup> and 24<sup>th</sup>
3. moo      19<sup>th</sup> month for horse, 24<sup>th</sup> month for lamb
4. this one      19<sup>th</sup> month for settee pillow, 22<sup>nd</sup> month for MCR,  
25<sup>th</sup> month for dry cassava, 26<sup>th</sup> month for waist belt      and      27<sup>th</sup>  
month for dish and ginger.

5. pap      13<sup>th</sup> and 22<sup>nd</sup> months for small plastic bucket.
6. radio      14<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> months for tape recorder, 22<sup>nd</sup> month for  
cassette.
7. chicken      16<sup>th</sup> and 26<sup>th</sup> months, 30<sup>th</sup> month for bird.

From Tables 5-7 above, they show that 63% of Eliza's overextended words were the classic type, while about 29% and 8% were Same - Referent and Complexive types, respectively.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1. PREAMBLE

This chapter summaries the major findings of this study in relation to the objectives outlined in chapter one and the analysis in chapter four. These include the language development phases the Subject passed through and how he acquired the different aspects of language with particular attention to overextension. The chapter also gives limitation of the study and proffers recommendations for further studies.

#### 5.2. FINDINGS RELATED TO THE STAGES OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Eliza started the one - word stage around his 14<sup>th</sup> month, while the two-word stage during the 22month. After this stage, one expected two - word utterances to dominant in the following month. It was not so. Eliza continued to utter more one - word than two – word utterances. In fact, this phenomenon continued to the telegraphic stage (30<sup>th</sup> month) when three - words were supposed to dominate.

#### 5.3. FINDINGS RELATED TO PHONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

Eliza adopted many of strategies in his word production similar to those reported in previous studies. He was observed to have used more of word reduction and phonemes substitution strategies than duplication strategy (See Yusuf, 1984).

In addition, Eliza avoided virtually all diphthongs in Gwong, his L1. He simply substituted them with ‘single sounds’ or phonemes. (See examples in chapter 4).

#### 5.4. FINDINGS RELATED TO LEXIO - SEMANTIC DEVELOPMENT

Two aspects were studied or observed under semantics. They were word classification and the use of overextension. Under the category of words used by Eliza, it was observed that his most productive words during the one – word stage were names of objects (38.6 %). During the two – word stage, he again used the names of objects more; followed by action words than social words (see Table 2).

#### 5.5. FINDINGS ON OVEREXTENSIONS

Eliza, like other Subjects studied before him, sometimes employed one word to refer to various things or meanings. Using Dromi's (1987) classification, Eliza was discovered to have used 'classic overextension' more frequently; followed by 'same - referent overextension' and very few 'complexive overextension' (See Tables 5, 6 and 7).

It was also observed that Eliza used overextension in some other way (also by Mamman - Katsina, 1992), though not set out to observe in this study. He employed one word to refer to various syntactic structures (statement, question, interrogation, etc.). For example: the use of the word 'go goo' (ball) in the following instances:

- i. Statement: This is my ball. (ATR 8)
- ii. Question: Where is my ball? (ATR6)
- iii. Interrogation/ Command: Give me my ball! (ATR 7)

Similarly, the use of the word 'oku' (uncle) in the following instances:

- i. Statement: See me . (ATR 11)
- ii. Question: Where is my baby? (VTR 1)

iii. Interrogation/Command/Request: Give me a spoon! (ATR 6)

## 5.6 FINDINGS RELATED TO SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE

The Subject of this study, Eliza, was discovered to have used different syntactic patterns during his two – word stage. Adopting Bloom’s (1987) pattern of analysis, Eliza used various patterns with virtually no function words, as reported in previous studies. The common syntactic patterns in his two - word utterances were VO and SO structures, while with his three - word utterances, he used OOC and VOC syntactic structures (See chapter 4).

## 5.7. CONCLUSION, LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was set out for four major objectives. First, it was to collect data of a monolingual Gwong child in a rural setting. The data were collected for 18months (December 2002 to June 2004) when the Subject was 12<sup>th</sup> and 31<sup>st</sup> months old. The three – media technique was used to collect data (three video and twelve audio tape recording sessions).

The second objective was to determine whether the Subject would pass through the language development stages previously reported. The study observed some similarities, differences and peculiarities in the Subject of the study. Thirdly, the study was to determine the strategies adopted by the Subject for early word production. Again, it was observed that he indeed adopted similar strategies as previously reported, but with some differences.

Lastly, the study was to determine the use of overextension by the Subject. The study reveals that the Subject used various kinds of overextension; and, possibly, because of limitations (inexperience or lack of appropriate vocabulary) he used what readily came to his mind.

This study focused on only two specific periods of child language development: the one and two – word stages. It concentrated on semantics and a little of phonology and syntax. While the general processes or strategies of word production were observed under phonology, only the general syntactic patterns were carried out for two - word utterances and very few three – word at the start of the telegraphic stage.

Another area of limitation is the methodology of the study. This study observed a child in a rural area who is not the Researcher’s child. The three - media - technique that was used for the study was periodically conducted (at an average of a one-month interval). A daily diary recording was abandoned because of irregularities and the incapability of the chief observer, the Subject’s mother. To determine children’s (and particularly Nigerians) early linguistic development and competence, adequately we recommend daily or weekly recordings of language behaviours, as this would be more comprehensive than the timing used in this study. Similarly, we recommend the use of one’s child to minimize the short – comings and difficulties encountered when using other people’s children.

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**APPENDIX A: ELIZA’S OVEREXTENSIONS (15th – 31st Months)**

	<b>ENGLISH TRANSLATION</b>	<b>ELIZA’S UTTERANCE</b>	<b>ADULT’S EQUAVELENCE</b>	<b>REFERENT</b>
1.	goal	/go goo/	(boll)	round - shape glassy table decoration, ball, empty can & carton
2.	ran away	/ itii/	(suite)	rolled away/off
3.	(take) tea	/wa tii/	(gwhyha tii)	tea - cup, vacuum flask
4.	uncle	/oku/	(onkol)	unknown elderly men
5.	fanta (drink)	/anta/	(fanta)	all bottles
6.	this one	/iwye/	( kighwe).	I do not know (the name
7.	radio set	/edio/	(radiyo)	radio, cassette, tape recorder
8.	porridge	/imai/	(kimai)	cow milk with ‘fura’
9.	moo	/ moo/ (cry of a cow)		lamb, cow, sheep, and horse
10.	hot	/beik/	(abeik)	red light from MCR
11.	cotton wool	/ulu/	(lulu)	candle
12.	finish(ed)	/ (a) lou/	(alouk)	stop driving, cannot find (it)
13.	leg	/peya/	(pyela)	shoe
14.	chicken	/enu/	(whyenu)	feathers
15.	fallen (off)	/uba/	(wyu mbya)	remove (from a stand)
16.	beans	/saap/	(nzap)	rice
17.	cassava flour	/ebo/	(alebo)	fresh cassava
18.	mommy	/maa/	(mama)	all unknown females (photographs) picture of Virgin Mary.
19.	itching	/saa/	(asaa)	tin of robb ointment
20.	removed	/waa/	(whyat)	torn (carton)
21.	refused	/pe/	(mpye)	(it is) not mended /put in order (carton)
22.	open	/uni/	(kuni)	remove/ take out
23.	puppy	/de dyu/	(gwhedyu)	lamb
24.	leaking	/a yu /	(a wyus)	(tea) falling
25.	‘moimoi’	/ lele/	(allele)	‘egusi’ soup
26.	oranges	/ omu/	(lemu)	unripe mango
27.	cocoyam	/ isa/	(fiis)	small fresh cassava

28. pap /amu/ (kamu) white plastic bucket  
 29. drug /opa/ (igop) small plate/saucer

**APPENDIX B: ELIZA’S CATEGORICAL OVEREXTENSIONS**

1. GOAL: empty tin milk & carton (while kicking the tin with foot) (14<sup>th</sup>) 2-1  
 b. round shaped glass (20<sup>th</sup>; 31<sup>st</sup>) 2-1 c, ball (14<sup>th</sup>) 2 -2
2. UNCLE: a, unknown elderly men (14<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
3. FINISHED: a, stopped (driving) (24<sup>th</sup>) 1- 2 b, missed/could not find (it) (19<sup>th</sup>) 4 - 2
4. ITCHING: a, (tin) robb ointment (19<sup>th</sup>) 1-3  
 b, itching (while scratching his leg) (21<sup>st</sup>) 2-2
5. REMOVE: torn (carton) (19<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
6. MOO: (cry of a cow): a, lamb (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2 -1; b, horse (19<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
7. (The ball has) RAN AWAY: rolled off (22<sup>nd</sup>) 1-1
8. (TAKE) TEA: a, cup (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-2 b, vacuum flask (25<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
9. FANTA (DRINK): empty bottle (mineral, beer) (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-1
10. THIS ONE: unknown (name of) items (1-3). Examples:  
 micro cassette recorder (22<sup>nd</sup>); waist belt (26<sup>th</sup>);dish (27<sup>th</sup>);  
 ginger (27<sup>th</sup>); cushion pillow (19<sup>th</sup>); dry cassava (25<sup>th</sup>).
11. PAP (‘KAMU’): small plastic bucket (13<sup>th</sup>; 22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-3
12. Porridge: cow milk with ‘fura’ (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-1
13. RADIO: (set): a. cassette (22<sup>nd</sup>) 2-2; b. tape recorder (14<sup>th</sup>; 20<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
14. HOT: (MCR) red light (22<sup>nd</sup>; 23<sup>rd</sup>) 2-1
15. (cotton) WOOL: candle (23<sup>rd</sup>) 2-1
16. LEG: shoe (23<sup>rd</sup>; 25<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
17. REFUSED: not mended /not repaired/not put in order (a torn empty carton) (19<sup>th</sup>) 4-3
18. LEAKING: dripping (while turning water into a cup) (25<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
19. CHICKEN: a, feather (16<sup>th</sup>; 26<sup>th</sup>) 2-1 b, bird (30<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
20. OPEN: remove/detach (26<sup>th</sup>) 4-3
21. DRUG: small plate/saucer (similar to the one the mother stored common drugs) (26<sup>th</sup>, 30<sup>th</sup>) 1-3
22. BEANS: rice (26<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
23. FALLEN (OFF): remove/got out (from a stand) (26<sup>th</sup>; 27<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
24. CASSAVA FLOUR: fresh cassava (27<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

25. MOMMY: a, picture of Virgin Mary (28<sup>th</sup>) 2-1 b, 28<sup>th</sup> unknown females (photographs)
26. PUPPY: lamb (30<sup>th</sup>; 31<sup>st</sup>) 2-1
27. 'MOI MOI': 'egusi' soup (13<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
28. ORANGES: unripe mangoes (13<sup>th</sup>) 2-1
29. COCOYAM: fresh cassava (13<sup>th</sup>) 2-1

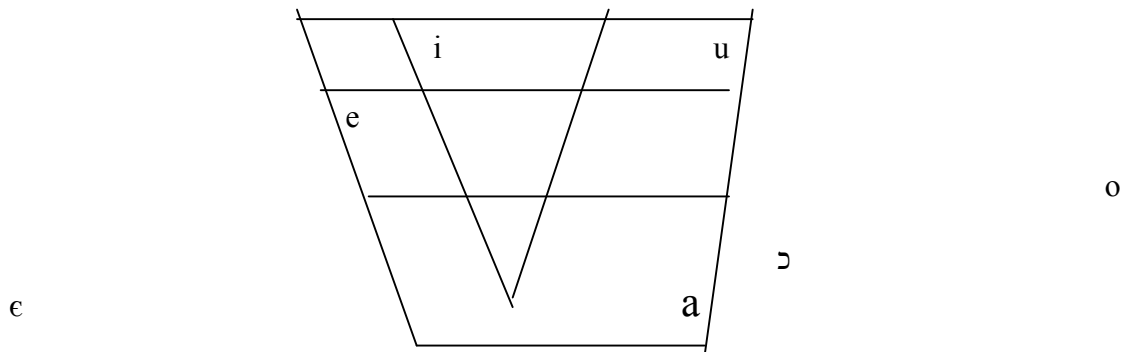


## APPENDIX C: GWONG PHONOLOGICAL SOUNDS CHARTS

### 1. Gwong Consonant Sounds

Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Labial	dental	Alveolar	Palatalized Alveolar	Palato Alveolar	Palatalized ed-velar	Velar	Palatalized Velar	Labio - Velar	Glottal
Plosives	p, b			t, d	ty, dy			k, g	ky, gy	kp, gb	
Affricates				ts		tʃ, dʒ					
Fricatives		f, v	θ, ð	s, z				x, ɣ		hw	h
Nasal	m			n			ɲ	ŋ			
Trill				r							
Lateral				l							
Approximant	w						y				

### 2. Gwong Vowel Sounds



(Adopted from Kyari, 1985).

APPENDIX D: THE SUBJECT'S RECORDED UTTERANCES

1<sup>ST</sup> ATR (15<sup>th</sup> Month) FRIDAY, 28<sup>TH</sup> FEBRUARY 2003

- |    |      |  |      |
|----|------|--|------|
| 1. | /mh/ |  | take |
| 2. | /mm/ |  | yes  |

2<sup>ND</sup> ATR (16<sup>th</sup> Month) FRIDAY, 28<sup>TH</sup> MARCH 2003

- |    |           |      |          |
|----|-----------|------|----------|
| 1. | /tii/ ii/ |      | one, two |
| 2. | /taa/uu/  |      | one, two |
| 3. | /mh/      |      | take     |
| 4. | /koo/     | gool | goal     |

3<sup>RD</sup> ATR (18<sup>th</sup> Month) FRIDAY, 30<sup>TH</sup> MAY 2003

- |    |          |  |          |
|----|----------|--|----------|
| 1. | /mmh/    |  | what?    |
| 2. | /mh/     |  | take     |
| 3. | /aa/uu// |  | one, two |
| 4. | /aa/uu/  |  | one, two |
| 5. | /aa/mii/ |  | one, two |
| 6. | /aa/ XX  |  | one      |
| 7. | /dah/    |  | Hyedah   |
| 8. | /ee/     |  | yes      |

4<sup>TH</sup> ATR (20<sup>th</sup> Month) SATURDAY, 26<sup>TH</sup> JULY 2003

- |    |         |      |          |
|----|---------|------|----------|
| 1. | /aa/uu/ |      | one, two |
| 2. | /mh/    |      | take     |
| 3. | /koo/   | gool | goal     |

5<sup>TH</sup> ATR (21<sup>st</sup> Month) SATURDAY, 30<sup>TH</sup> AUGUST 2003

- |    |        |        |                       |
|----|--------|--------|-----------------------|
| 1. | /mh/   |        | take                  |
| 2. | /shin/ | mashin | motor cycle           |
| 3. | /toa/  | tola   | shirt                 |
| 4. | /pii/  | piiek  | sound of horn/whistle |
| 5. | /mmh/  |        | what                  |
| 6. | /oto/  | moto   | car/vehicle           |
| 7. | /saa/  | a saa  | it's itching          |

8.	/ta/	tah	chew
9.	/ite/	nge te	see that
10.	/ti/	tii	tea
11.	/taa/	tasa	stop it
12.	/kee/		stop it (exclamation)
13.	/ku/mh/	onkol, mh	uncle, take
14.	/baa/ti/	ghwa tii	take tea
15.	/oku/	onkol	uncle
16.	/iwena/	kighwe na	This one.
17.	/aana/	nga nana	Here it is.
18.	/to/	hoto	picture
19.	/m/		yes
20.	/edi/	a tah	She's eating.
21.	/aik/	a paaik	She has broken it.
22.	/daa/	Hyedah	Hyedah
23.	/ishin/iba/	Mashin baba mi.	My father's motor cycle.
24.	/goo/	bol	ball
25.	/ana/	nga na	here it is.
26.	/taa/ni/	Ngu ri tya ni?	Will you chew?
27.	/teta/	kiteikya	spoon
28.	/pe/	pye	I refuse
29.	/kai/	(exclamation).	I refuse/reject!
30.	/oo/	o'o	no
31.	/taa/	tah	eat
32.	/itaa/kii/	Miri tyaa biskit.	I will take biscuits.
33.	/um/	kuum	comb
34.	/ipye/	mi pye	I refuse

6<sup>TH</sup> ATR (22nd Month) SATURDAY, 27<sup>TH</sup> SEPTEMBER 2003

1.	/m/		yes
2.	/afia/	lafiya	I'm well.
3.	/zi/taa/	Nda nzi ida.	She has gone to the farm.
4.	/oku/	onkol	uncle
5.	/aata/	idah	farm
6.	/aya/	Allah	to God
7.	/oku/lele/	??	??
8.	/oto/	moto	car/vehicle
9.	/azi/	nga zi	He has gone
10.	/waa/	gwhya	drink
11.	/waa/ti/	gwhya tii	take tea
12.	/ari/	gari	garri
13.	/iga/	shuga	sugar
14.	/ida/fa/	Hyedah wang ndo?	Where is Hyedah?

15.	/ida makaata/	Hyedah zi i makaranta. Hyedah has gone to school.	
16.	/wa/nga/nu/	Miri gwhyha kigwenu.	I will drink that thing there.
17.	/wa ti/	Miri gwhyha tii.	I will take tea.
18.	/mm m/		no
19.	/da waa ba/	mi nde wha ba.	I will not drink.
20.	/go goo/ fa/	bol fa?	Where is the ball?
21.	/ipai/i wye/	Mbo paaik kighwe na?	Who broke this one?
22.	/iwado/	Nga wando?	Where is it?
23.	/oto/paina	??	??
24.	/oku/imi/	Onkol, nge mi.see me	
25.	/teikya/	kitekya	spoon
26.	/iteikya/	kitekya	spoon
27.	/i paa/iteikya/	Mbori paaik (thyun) Kitekya na.	I will break this spoon.
28.	/ikii/	biskit	biscuits
29.	/oku/wado	Onkol wando? Where	is uncle?
30.	/yesh/		yes
31.	/yon/	whyon	(local) plough
32.	/e/go/	bol`	ball
33.	/oku/goo fa/	Onkol, bol wando?	Uncle, where is the ball?
34.	/boona/	mboo na?	Who is it?
35.	/fata/	fanta	fanta drink
36.	/da ida/	Hyedah zi ida.	Hyedah has gone to the farm.
37.	/afa/	shingafa	rice
38.	/toa/	tola	dress
39.	/odio/	rediyu	radio set
40.	/onu/ go/ iti/	bol soh te.	The ball has run away (rolled off). O.E
41.	/ela/	nyela	Look for it.
42.	/tila/	fitila	lantern
43.	/onu/	ngo nu	over there
44.	/ofa/	kofa	door
45.	/ie/	key (whyep)	key
46.	/op/	kop	cup
47.	/i whye/	kighwe	This one (I don't know).
48.	/ina/ fa/ bini/ na/	Mina i fa bini.	I'm on top of this thing.
49.	/baba/i da/	Baba nzi ida.	Daddy has gone to the farm.
50.	/ ida maata/	Hyedah zi i makaranta.	Hyedah has gone to school.
51.	/aya/	Allah	To God.
52.	/unu/i wye/na/	Kuni mi kighwe na.	Open this for me.
53.	/ola/	tola	dress
54.	/iwye/	kighwe	this one
55.	/edoo/	rediyu	radio set
56.	/sodo/	gedo	bed
57.	/iya bo/itei/	Ngu yang kela tse?	What are you looking for?
58.	/pai/	paaik	It's broken.

59.	/imai/	kimai	porridge (For bucket)
60.	/da wyaa/mai ba/	Mi nde ghwya kimai ba.	I will not drink porridge.
61.	/nge bo/	ngu mboo	see them
62.	/sha om/	Shalom	Shalom
63.	/oku/wa mai/lok/	Onkol wha kimai loak.	Uncle has finished the porridge.
64.	/dai /zi da /	Ndami nzi ida.	My mommy has gone to the farm.
65.	/i bang/	tsami bang.	Let me hold it.
66.	/iafa/	shingafa	rice
67.	/akies/	Rakies	Rakies
68.	/ifafa/	shingafa	rice
69.	/odio/	rediyu	radio set
70.	/ moo/		(cry of a cow) O.E
71.	/shinge/	??	??
72.	/ifafa/shinge/	??	??
73.	/ibe/	mi mpye	I will not/refuse.
74.	/iyana/ile ba/	Mi nde ranna kile ba.	I will not sleep today.
75.	/ido da fa/	Mi nde dyo ndami ba.	I will not follow mommy.
76.	/baba lan/	Baba mi a lan.	My daddy is sleeping.
77.	/ipa/	silipas	slippers
78.	/kuni mi i na /	Kuni mi ibe na.	Open here for me.
79.	/zi I yata/	Mbori ji i nyata.	I will go outside.
80.	/onu a beik/	Kighwe nu a beik.	hat one is hot. O.E (referred to the red light of the MCR)

7TH ATR ( 23rd Month ) FRIDAY, 31<sup>ST</sup> OCTOBER 2003.

1.	/lo mo/ ni/	ngu lomai tse	What did you say?
2.	/lo mo/ imi/	Ngu lout mo mi ni?	Are you talking to me?
3.	/mo ida/	Ngu lout mo Hyedah.	You are speaking to Hyedah.
4.	/ida/	Hyedah	Hyedah
5.	/oku/	onkol	uncle
6.	/mi zi /da wye/	Mo mbo ze I dah mo ghwe –ghwe mi.	I am going to the farm with my child.
7.	/e/		yes
8.	/isi/	lisi	see me
9.	/gayi/ fa/	gari fa	Where is garri?
10.	/m/		yes
11.	/ida/ i iki/	Ngu da ndemi biskit.	You did not give me some biscuits.
12.	/iyi i do/	Ndemi Rediyo.	Give me radio set.
13.	/edio/	rediyu	radio set
14.	/amat/	amut	It's heavy
15.	/ita/bo ri /daa/	Hyedah,mbo a ri tyaa?	Who will eat?
16.	/u wu /way/	A hyu bya.	It has fallen down.
17.	/oku/iteikt/	onkol, kiteikya	Uncle, spoon!

18.	/isi/	A wang ihyeshi.	It's in front.
19.	/uu fa/	Lulu fa?	Where is cotton wool (candle?) O.E
20.	/a sana/ maa fa/	Ashana mama mi fa?	Where is my mom's matches?
21.	/a zi/ da/	Ngaa nzi idah	She has gone to the farm.
22.	/go – go/	bol	ball
23.	/goba/	goop	drugs
24.	/aana/	hyaang	light
25.	/a nga/	hyaang nga	It is light.
26.	/yesh/		yes (imitation)
27.	/disa/	abiza	It's spoilt.
28.	/dui suwi/	kuni suwet	Unwrap the sweets.
29.	/dimi suwi/	ndemi suwet	Give me some sweets.
30.	/oku/tekyia fa/	Onkul, kiteikya fa?	Uncle, where is spoon?
31.	/oku, dimi/	onkol, ndemi	Uncle, give me?
32.	/fii fa/	fimi fa?	Uncle, where is mine?
33.	/a lok/	alouk.	It is finished (okay).
34.	/le bi/ eduo/	Nge whey dyu!	See puppy!
35.	/de duo/	ghwe dyui	puppy
36.	/ibota/	khibyota	room
37.	/biy buta/	Byeing kibyota!	Open the door!
38.	/u pap a u/	Tuu pyela ngu.	Shift your leg!
39.	/ba a/ yi/	Mba hyeng.	Come in!
40.	/wyo/go go/	Mbori wyot bol.	I will play ball.
41.	/ite edio a bi/	Bini radiyo a biek.	That thing in the radio is hot.
42.	/e mi/	Nge mi.	See me!
43.	/imi yasa/	Ndemi kasa!	Give me way!
44.	/ida yi/ botya na/	Hyedah a de hing i byota.	Hyedah won't enter the room.
45.	/ba bota/	Mbo ri byang kibyota.	I'll lock the room.
46.	/a mo/	A mout.	It's heavy.
47.	/oku/ su beyi ba/	Onkol, suik beredi ba.	Uncle, bring some bread.
48.	/ada lan/	Nga da lan.	I'm not sleeping.
49.	/mm/		yes
50.	/bi kofa/	Byeing kofa.	Close the door!
51.	/kokolo/	bokolo (referring to Chadian cattle)	
52.	/iki/	biskit	biscuits
53.	/itekya/iwe	kiteik kighwe.	this spoon.
54.	/itekya ba/	Hyeik kiteikya ba.	Bring a spoon.
55.	/ifili/	kifiri	urine
56.	/oku/ i kyu/	Onkol, suuiki.	Uncle, carry me..
57.	/su/ oto/ be/	Mbo zuk moto ibey?	I'm driving a car here.
58.	/bela/	pyela	leg (referring to a shoe) O. E
59.	/a lo/	alouk	It is finished.

8TH ATR ( 24th Month ) SATURDAY, 29<sup>TH</sup> NOVEMBER 2003

1	/yona/	wyon	local plough
2.	/ikaa/	kikak	hoe
3.	/e/		yes
4	/oku/I mi/	Onkol, nge mi.	Uncle, see me.
5.	/oku/	onkol	uncle
6	/edio/	rediyo	radio set
7	/mm/		what?
8	/mh/		take
9.	/oku/itekya fa/	Onkol, kiteikya fa?	Uncle, where is spoon?
10	/oku/ido/	onkol, wando	Where is uncle?
11	/im/	kiim	cover/lid
12	/oku/wye wye/fa/	Onkol, ghwe ghwe mi fa?	Uncle, where is my baby?
13	/oku/ii ba/	Onkol, suuik ba.	Uncle, bring it.
14	/mmh/		what
15	/asara/	Nassara	Nassara
16	/oto/	hoto	picture
17	/a na/	nga na	Here it is.
18	/ba beta/	Byang kibyota.	Close the room.
19	/ego/	bol	ball
20	/oku/...luu/	Onkol a louk.	Uncle, it's finished.
21	/i su/ ba/	Nzi suuik ba.	Go and bring it!
22	/to too /		(exclamation)
23	/ba su/ da.	Mboo suuik dak.	I can't carry it.
24	/moo/		(cry of a cow; refers to cow. O.E
25	/idaa/		Hyedah
26	/oku/oto/	Onkol, moto	Uncle, car!
27	/a zu/ oto/ ba/	Mi nda zuk moto ba.	I'm not driving a car.
28	/i da/	Nga zi idah.	She has gone to the farm.
29	/da i da/	Ndami zi idah.	My mom has gone to the farm.
30	/i way/	A duu wyat.	It has got out.
31	/louk/	A louk.	It's finished!
32	/oto louk/	Mi louk zyuk moto.	I have finished driving te car.
33	/oku/a paa/	Onkol, a duk paaik.	Uncle, it has torn.
34	/onkol/ a pe/	Onkol, a pye.	Uncle, it has refused
35	/to too/ a ji/ akka/	??	??
36	/i nye/	Nga na nge.	Here it is.
37	/oku, e/	Oku, nge.	Uncle, see!
38	/oku/ go-go/iba/	Onkol, bol whyubya.	Uncle, the ball has fallen down.
39	/oto/	moto	car
40	/oku/ a maat/	A mut.	It's heavy.
41	/baa/buta/	byang kibyota.	Lock the room.
42	/oku/oto i be/ na/	Okol, moto na i bey.	Uncle, here is a car.

43	/a buu/		It's lost.
44	/imi/	Nge mi.	See me!
45	/ida ika/	Hyedah ri shukya.	Hyedah will carry it.
46	/ida suu ta/	Hyedah suukya.	Hyedah has carried it.
47	/yee iteikya mi/	Nge kiteiki.	See my spoon.
48	/oku/ a u waa/	Onkol, a duu whyat.	Uncle, it has got out/removed.
49	/e si ba/	Mi nde hyesi ba.	I will not keep it!
50	/de u ba/	Mi nde dye ngu ba.	I will not give you.
51	/oku/ida duu wa i be/	Onkol, a duk whyat i be.	Uncle, it has come out/ removed here.
52	/yessh/		yes! (Imitation)
53	/i lan/	Nzi lan.	Go and sleep!

9<sup>TH</sup> ATR ( 26th Month ) SATURDAY, 31<sup>ST</sup> JANUARY 2004

1	/i teiky/	Nye kiteikya.	See spoon.
2	/mh/		Take.
3	/mh/ iteikya/	Ngu Kitekya.	Take the spoon.
4	/issi/ iteikya/	Heik kiteiki si.	Keep my spoon.
5	/oyi ie/ i/	Mbo hey binhye mo nga i?	Do they use it to eat?
6	/demi/	Ademi	Ademi
7	/a u/ba/	A wyu bya.	It fell down.
8	/m/		yes
9	/a u ba le/	A wyu bya le.	It has fallen down.
10	/oto/	moto	car
11	/wye/	kihwe	this one
12	/onu a i wha/	Ghwe ngu a du whyat.	Chicken (feather) has removed. O.E
13	/i whap/	whyep	key
14	/ugu/	rogo	(fresh) cassava
15	/ami/ iteikya/ ??		??
16	/oku/ tekya u ba/	Onkol, kiteikya wyu bya.	Uncle, the spoon has Come out.
17	/to/iteikya louk/	Mi tuza tyekya louk.	I have finished fixing the spoons.
18	/oku/	onkol	uncle
19	/mi su /iteikya/	Mi suuik kiteikya.	I have carried the spoon.
20	/i/		yes
21	/mm m/		no
22	/o itekya/	??	??
23	/iteikya/ buu/	Kitekya buu.	The spoon is missed.
24	/uni doa/a/	Kuni ndoka.	Open another one.
25	/odio a uvama/	Rediyo a tuk byoma i?	Is the radio singing (playing)? O.E
26	/oku/ itekya o ni/	Onkol, heik kiteikya risi ngo nu ni?	Uncle, should I keep the spoon over there?



27	/nye mi/	Nge mi.	See me.
28	/i iyi /ido/	Mboo fiki firi ndo?	Where do they urinate?
29	/imi /go go/	Ndemi bol.	Give me ball (refers to a round glass) O.E
30	/oku...swee/	onkol...suwet	uncle...sweets.
31	/oku/ i way tu wye/	Onkol, mbori way kighwe.	Uncle, I will take this (sweets).
32	/a baba/	Asoo baba.	Its daddy
33	/i da/ moto na/	??	??
34	/a so na /	Asoo nmga.	It's the one.
35	/i iwet/	Nge, a soo suwet.	See, it is sweets.
36	/moo/		(cry of a cow)
37	/iwe/	Kighwe (mi nda wyeng).	I don't know.
38	/goopa/goop	[(hyuk)	drugs (Refers to plate) O.E
39	/daap/	nzap (shingafa)	beans (rice)
40	/bapala/	wyupyara	maize
41	/zap/	nzap	beans
42	/dana/	ndana	okro
43	/ita/	chita	ginger
44	/whyenu/	ghwyenu (chat)	chicken (referring to Chicken feather) O.E
45	/i hwe/usa/	kighwe so kusa	This is a nail.
46	/m mh/		I don't know.
47	/asana/	ashana	matches
48	/oku/I hyuta/	Onkol, mbori wyuta.	Uncle, I'll scratch it (matches).
49	/oku/asana mi/	Onkul, aso ashana mi.	It's my matches.
50	/nya ata/	Nga na inyata.	Its outside.
51	/tu eta/	Hyetuk inyata.	Put it outside.
52	/a wat/	A du whyat.	It has removed.
53	/ana mi/	A so ashana mi.	It's my matches.

10TH ATR ( 27th Month ) SATURDAY, 28<sup>TH</sup> FEBRUARY 2004

1	/nga na ida/	Nga na i Hyedah.	It's with Hyedah.
2	/oku/oto na/	Onkol, moto mi na.	See my car,
3	/oto uba i/	Moto whyu bya ni.	Has the car fallen down?
4.	/i hahuwa/	I kasuwa.	in the market
5	/i hwe/ Kighwe (mi hyela).	This one (I don't know).	O.E
6	/m/		yes
7	/oku/ida/ ba teiya mi/	Hyedah a byat kiteik ki.	Hyedah is touching my spoon.
8	/oku/a hoba/	Onkol, a wyubya (du wyat).	Uncle, it has fallen down (removed). O.E
9	/oto/	moto	car
10	/a sana/	Ashana na ngo nu.	The matches is over there.

11	/obo/	alebo (rogo)	cassava flour (fresh cassava)	O.E
12	/oku/ i mang/	Onkol, mbori gwhya	kimaang nga.	Uncle, I'll drink water.
13	/ta doo/	Tsa ndoo.		That's alright/okay.
14	/oku/go go u ba/	Onkol, bol mi wyu mbya.		Uncle, the ball has fallen (rolled off)
15	/oku/go go fa/	Onkol, bol fa?		Uncle, where is the ball?
16	/go- go /vuva /i nyata/	Bol whyubya inyata.		The ball has fallen outside.
17	/a paa/	a paaik		It's broken.
18	/oto vuva/	Moto whyubya.		The car has fallen down.
19	/yessh/			yes
20	/bi i buta/	byeing kibyota		Open the room.
21	/oku.../	onkol...		Uncle...
22	/heidi/	hyeik ki		Put it on my head.
23	/oku/ ida suu/	Onkol, Hyedah suuik.		Uncle, Hyedah has taken it.
24	/a doo/	Mi mbo loo.		I'm picking it (matches).
25	/oku/lo tuu/	Onkol, mi mbo loo tuk.		Uncle, I'm packing it (matches).
26	/onko/ ba buta/	Onkol, byang kibyuta.		Uncle, lock up the room.
27	/oku/ba i tang/	Onkol, ba has tang.		Uncle, come and throw it.
28	/bini mi/			my thing ??
29	/oku/ ida ba buta/ i be/	Onkol, Hyedah byang kibyota	I bey.	Uncle, Hyedah has locked up the room.
30	/i whya/	mi wyat		I removed it.
31	/oto i fa/	oto mi fa		Where is my car?
32	/oto/	moto		car
33	/i gwe/	kighwe		this one
34	/piplis/	??		??
35	/oku/demi uwet ita/	Onkol, ndemi suwet a mi muok.		Uncle, give me some sweets to take.
36	/demi suwet/ ita/	Ndemi suwet mi muok.		Give me some sweets to take.
37	/ita o/ ida/	Mbori tya mo Hyedah.		I'll take with Hyedah.
38	/a ba/	nya ba.		He has come.
39	/ye dede/	??		??
40	/hyibi/	khibi		money
41	/oku/ i bikit ba/	Onkol, tsami gus biskit ba.		Uncle, let me buy biscuits.
42	/oku/ ... iza/	onkol...??		Uncle...??
43	/a wyu /wat/	A duk whyat.		It has removed.
44	/oku/suu/	Onkol, mbo (nde) soak.		Uncle, they (we) leaving.
45	/onu/ zu oto/	Onkol, mi mbo zuk moto.		Uncle, I'm driving a car.
46	/bya bya/	ba baik		bye- bye
47	/olu... /	??		??
48	/...onu/	??		??
49	/i zing/	Mi zeing ibey.		I have scribbled here.

11TH ATR (28th Month) FRIDAY, 6<sup>TH</sup> March 2004

1	/m/		yes
2	/nye da /dai/	nye dadiya	See cat.
3	/o nu/	ngo nu	over there.
4	/pye/	mi pye	I refuse
5	/iyok/	alouk	It's finished.
6	/b b. ----louk/	biskit louk	The biscuits is finished.
7	/tah/	has tah	Take and eat.
8	/maa/	maa/daa	mom/mother
9	/taami/	tsa mi	Leave me alone.
10	/i gom/	chigom	chewing gum.
11	/ita/	fis	cocoyam
12	/i hwe/	kighwe	this one
13	/oku/	onkol	uncle
14	/ida/	Hyedah	Hyedah
15	/pa pang/		(sound of knocking)
16	/m/		what
17	/to ah/	tola	shirt
18	/wug ilo/	Mi wyouk pilo.	I have found a pillow.
19	/imi i hwe/	Ndemi kighwe.	Give me this one.
20	/wyet/	suwet	sweets
21	/ami/	Nde mbo ngami.	We are going home.
22	/kuna/	kona	knife

12<sup>TH</sup> ATR (30th Month) FRIDAY, 4<sup>th</sup> MAY 2004

1	/da tah o bin/	Mbo nda tah kobin	I'm not eating anything.
2	/m/		yes
3	/kaata/	makaranta	school
4	/i kaata/	I makaranta	in the school
5	/whyeda/	??	??
6	/mm/		what?
7	/jufu/	rijufu	pocket
8	/ibis/	biskit	biscuits
9	/e hyang a/	Mbo hyeik yang nga ba.	They have brought light.
10	/tami/	tsami	Leave me alone
11	/oku/ tu byoma/.	`Onkol, tuk byoma (rekot).	Uncle, sing (Play the tape).
12	/...asara/	...Nassara	...Nassara
13	/tomi/	nga tsomi (mpye).	She refused me. (The tape refused to play). O.E
14	/ta/	mbori tya	I'll chew.
15	/oku/wha maa/	Onkol, mbori whya kimaagna.	

16	/da hye..b'a/	mi da hyeikya ba.	I'll drink water.
17	/ba tu/	ba tuk	I'm not carrying it.
18	/i wye/	kighwe	Come and put it.
19	/kye set/	kaset	this one.
20	/kuni/		cassette (tape recorder).
21	/nye hye nga/	A pye hyeng nge	open
22	/oku/	onkol	It is refusing to enter.
23	/oku/ ba tuu/	Onkol, ba tuk.	uncle
24	/ko yemu/	ko lemu.	Come and play it.
25	/...kali/	...kwali	Even if it's oranges.
26	/bo pya kali/	Mbo paaik kwali.	... carton
27	/kuni toya/	Kuni tola.	They have torn the (empty) carton.
28	/go go na/	Mbo gyo gyona.	Pull off your shirt.
29	/...asara/	...Nassara	They are fighting.
30	/ngami/	Mi mbo ngami.	(Meant to call Hyedah)
31	/dah/	ndami	I'm going home.
32	/de dyu/	ghwe dyu	my mommy/mother
33	/demi/	Ademi	puppy (referring to lamb) O.E
34	/a so .../	??	Ademi
35	/eyet/	beredi	bread
36	/i ye/ bya a/	Mbo hyeik hyaang.	They've brought light.
37	/e nu/	ghwe nyu	chicken (referring to bird) O.E
38	/i wye/	kighwe	This one (referring to mean "I don't know the name.") O.E
39	/pyo pyo/		(imitating sound of gunshots.)

1ST VTR (19th Month) SATURDAY, 28TH JUNE 2003

1	/)ku/	onkol	uncle
2	/ego/	bol	ball
3	/whe/	Kighwe mi nda hyeng riheik nga ba.	
			This one.(To mean: "I don't know the name"). O.E
4	/mh/		take
5	/tei kya/ ba/	Mbone Kitekya ba	Its not spoon.
6	/se as/	sha (rob)	itching (robb ointment) O.E
7	/eyee/	kighwe	this one
8	/we we/ fa/	Ghwe ghwe fa?	Where is the child?
9	/oto/	moto	car
10	/mm/		yes
11	/dimi/	ndemi	give me
12	/ne mi/	nge mi	see me
13	/nyi u/	nge ngu	see you
14	/bang/byota/	mi byang kibyota	I'm locking the room.

15	/go-go/ fa/	bol fa	Where is the ball?
16	/...lok/	...louk	...finish
17	/)ku/suba/	Onkol, suik ba	uncle, bring it.
18	/go na/	nge bol	See the ball.
19	/to – to/		(Exclamation)
20	/moo/	rinas	(cry of a cow to mean ‘horse’) O.E
21	/wyee fa/	ghwe fa	Where is the child?
22	/idoho/	Hyedah nga wyot i	.Hyedah is beating me.
23	/)ku/ e/	Onkol, nge.	uncle, see.
24	/mi zu oto/	Mbo zuk moto	I’m driving a car.
25	/ida/	Nga zi ida.	She has gone to the farm.
26	/ida i ida/	Ndami ze i dah	My mom has gone to the farm.
27	/da way/	A duk whyat.	It has removed.
28	/lok/	mi louk.	have finished.
29	/oto lok/	Mi zuk moto louk.	I have finished driving the car.
30	/u paa/	a paaik	It’s torn.
31	/du paa/	A duk paaik.	It has torn.
32	/to too/		(Exclamation)
33	/)ku/ a sesa/	Onkol, a beiza.	Uncle, it is spoilt.
34	/nye/	I nge	here
35	/su baa/	suuik ba	bring it
36	/e mu/	a mout	it’s heavy.
37	/)ku/ oto/	onkol, moto	Uncle, car.
38	/bikii/	biskit	biscuits
39	/)ku/ ba/ bota/	Onkol, byang kibyota.	Uncle,I locked the room.
40	/oto be na/	Nge moto i mbey.	See the car here.
41	/ida paa/	Hyedah nga paaik.	Hyedah, has torn it (Packet of biscuits).
42	/ou o bo/	a buu ( mi nda nge ba)	I can’t find it.
43	/mm/		what?
44	/ida/suka/	Nga da suuik ba.	She didn’t carry it.
45	/mm/		No!
46	/)ku/ iteka/	onkol, kitekya	Uncle, spoon
47	/nye mi/	Nge bine mi pyeik.	See what I have done.
48	/suu nye/	Suuik i nge.	Take from here.
49	/ida du wha/	Hyedah duk (Kitekya i mbey whyat. Hyedah has removed one (spoon) from here.	Yes! ( imitates R)
50	/yeesh/		Yes! ( imitates R)
51	/la/	lan	sleep
52	/i an/	?? mi mbo lan.	(Probably) I’m sleeping.

1	/oku/ wha maa/	onkol, mbori ghwya kimaanga.	Uncle, I'll drink water.
2	/i/ maa/	kimaang	water
3	/tike/	tuk ki	Put it ( water) for me.
4	/wa tii/	mbori ghwya tii	I'll take tea.
5	/m/		yes
6	/a lok/	a louk	It's finished
7.	/wa maa/	Mbori ghwya kimaanga.	I'll drink water.
8	/oku/	onkol	uncle
9	/a desa/	a biza	It's spoilt.
10	/o oh/	o ho	I don't know.
11	/teta/	kitekya	spoon
12	/wa tii/	ghwya tii	take tea (refer to vacuum flask)
13	/bait/	bred	bread
14	/daib/	nzap	beans
15	/ipaa/	wyupyara	maize
16	/isa/	fisa/fis	cocoyam
17	/iti a/	fitila	lantern
18	/gogo/	gongo	tin O.E
19	/dana/	ndana	okra
20	/i wye/	kihwe	this one
21	/i gwa/	Mi ri ghwya	I'll drink.
22	/mang nya/	kimaang nga	water
23	/a yu/	A whyus ( a bya).	It's leaking (referring dripping) O.E
24	/paya/	pyela	leg (referring to shoe)
25	/oku/ emi/	Onkol, nge mi.	uncle see me.
26	/kinu/	ghwe nnu	bird
27	/oto/	moto	car
28	/oto.../	moto...	car...
29	/apa/	ki talap	shoes
30	/apa maa/	ki talap maa/mama	mommy's shoes
31	/m/		what?
32	/ke/		hey (exclamation)
33	/o goo/	tong ngo	sorry
34	/oku/a hya/	Onkol, ba has.	Uncle, come and collect.
35	/ipyee/	Mi pye.	I refuse!
36	/byi/ ba ba/	Mi byeing ndaak.	I can't open it.
37	/i pa/	ripya	food
38	/ikii/	biskit	biscuits
39	/idimi/	Ademi	Ademi
40	/...iki/	??	??
41	/mh/		take
42	/mm/		no
43	/i lan/	Mi mbo lan.	I'm sleeping

44	/ida ba/	mi nde dyo ndami ba.	I'll not follow mommy.
45	/... ida ba/	...mi nde dyi Hyedah ba.	... I'll not give Hyedah.
46	/de dia/	mi nde iya.	I can't.
47	/amu/	amut	It's heavy.
48	/eydi/	beredi	bread
49	/iyda/ a fa/	mi tya shingafa.	I'll eat rice.
50	/ibuota/	kibyota louk (byeing).	The room is finished (to mean, closed) O.E
51	/abu wu/	sabulu	soap
52	/ibuta/	kuni kibyota	Open the room.
53	/maa/		mommy
54	/isaa/	Nassara	Nassara
55	/di iki/	Ndemi biskit	Give me some biscuits.
56	/a ta/	has tah	take and eat (biscuits)
57	/i we/	kighwe	this one (to mean I don't know). O.E
58	/ida/	Hyedah	Hyedah
59	/ ba/	mba	come.

3<sup>RD</sup> VTR (31st Month) MONDAY, JUNE 28<sup>TH</sup> 2004

1	/e du /	ghwe dyo	puppy
2	/oto/	moto	car
3	/oto onu/	Moto na ngo nnu.	That is a car over there.
4	/a hyu wa/	Mi nda hyeing nga ba.	I don't know it.
5	/m/		yes
6	/m yag/	mo mbo lan	I'm sleeping.
7	/m/		what?
8	/n da/	ndana	okra
9	/za lok/	nzapa louk	The beans has finished.
10	/oku/	onkol	uncle
11	/aw ba/	a whyubya	It has fallen down.
12	/dala/	ndana	okra (for sugar) O.E
13	/i we/	kighwe	this one
14	/e go/	bol	ball
15	/bapaya/	mbyapyala	pepper
16	/ita/	chita	ginger
17	/gogo/	ago go	clock
18	/iyi tani/	??	??