CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

The present thesis attempts to make a linguistic analysis of the basic vocabulary of Urdu speaking children of class V in Aligarh. This analysis is based upon the data extensively collected from class V students selected from five reputed English and Urdu medium schools of Aligarh.

With a view to providing proper perspective on the present work, this chapter has been divided into five sections. Section A contains theoretical background, while section B deals with Acquisition of vocabulary. Social determinants of the process of acquisition of vocabulary are taken up in section C.

Sections D and E deal with research procedures and scope of the study respectively.

Section A: - Theoretical Background

Language acquisition or first language acquisition is the term most commonly used to describe the process whereby children become speakers of their native language although some linguists like Halliday prefers to use the term language learning for process of learning.

According to Campbell and Wales (1970), the earliest studies of children’s development were carried out by Darwin (1877) and Taine
(1877). However, it was a physiologist namely Preyer (1882), who made detailed daily notes throughout the first three years of his son’s development and thus contributed a lot to the study of child language learning.

To Ingram, Preyer’s study belongs to the period of diary studies (1876-1926). As the name suggests, the preferred data collection method during this period was the parental diary in which a linguist or a psychologist used to record their own child’s linguistic development. Preyers, notes on child’s linguistic development are important in as much as they describe child’s language very minutely.

The first published book devoted to the study of a child’s language alone was Stern’s Die Kindersprache (1907) (not available in English) and it is from this work that the notion of stages of language acquisition is derived. (Ingram 1989). The diarists chiefly aimed to describe the child’s language and other developments. Some of them regarded the child’s ‘genius’ (Taine, 1877) as an inbuilt language faculty which, according to Taine, enabled the child to adapt to its native Language. Though their popularity waned in the wake of First World War they came to be considered insufficient to give a full account of children’s normal behaviour. Since diaries accounts were rather inexplicit and different diaries described children at different intervals and concentrated on different features of the children’s behaviors, so that it was impossible to
draw a clear comparison between children being studied. Instead, large sample studies were favored. Studies of large number of children all of the same age, being observed for the same length of time engaged in the same kind of behaviour. Many of such studies, concentrating on several age groups, would provide a better evidence of what normal research aimed primarily at using data in support of hypothesis concerning the nature of language, that is, research based on a prior linguistic theory. Wasaw (1983) calls the former research in child language, and the latter research in language acquisition. It is stressed that linguists working in the chomskian tradition have tended to be interested primarily in language acquisition, while psychologists are greatly concerned to be interested with child language.

Ingram (1989) however, proposes a unified field of child language acquisition which studies children’s language and examines it against the background of well-defined theories of grammar. Child’s linguistic behaviour is rule-based. Such studies provide a theory of acquisition as well as a testing ground for theories of grammar. The theory of acquisition has two distinct components. One comprises the set of principles that lead to the construction of the grammar i.e. those that concern the child’s grammar of linguistic competence. These principles explain how the child constructs a rule of grammar and changes it over time. The focus is on the nature of the child’s rule system, which is concerned with competence factors.
The second component takes note of psychological processes that the child uses in learning the language. In comprehension, performance factors indicate how the child establishes meaning in the language input, as well as the cognitive restrictions that temporarily retard development. In production, these factors describe the reasons why the child’s spoken language does not reflect its linguistic competence. They also describe mechanisms the child uses to achieve the expression of their comprehension.

As examples of competence factors, Ingram mentions three principles – generalizations lexical and uniqueness, which will enter into the explanation of morphological acquisition.

According to Dresher’s (1981) generalization principle, learners will prefer a rule which requires few features to one which requires many. They will therefore prefer a rule which allows them to form the plural foots to one which compels them to form feet, since the latter rule must contains, the plural forms that are irregular. This principle explains why children often use regular inflections on irregular words, even though doing so conflicts with what they hear, adults doing. Finally, we need to posit a uniqueness principle (Wexler and Culicover, 1980) to account for the fact that the child finally selects only the plural form that it hears used around it, rather than supposing that there are two possible plurals, foots and feet.
Performance factors include, for example Slobin’s (1973) Principle A: ‘Pay attention to the ends of words’ which might explain why it appears to be easier to acquire suffixes than prefixes. Ingram (1989) also proposes a principle that instructs children to pay attention to stressed words and syllables and suggests that factors of memory and planning might explain why children who appear to understand full sentences only produce, for instance, two-word utterance. If the study of child language acquisition is to provide evidence for or against theories of adults grammar as well as insights into child’s progression towards it, the relationship between the child’s grammar and that of the adult needs careful examination (Ingram, 1989) specially, we want to develop theory which defines the extent to which the child may change or restructure its language system. Ingram (ibid P. 73) proposes that the child’s progression is subject to the constructivist assumption that the form of the child’s grammar at any point of change which we shall call stage will consist of everything at stage plus the new feature (s) of stage. A principle can also be proposed to account for the change.

Language acquisition is contrasted with 'language learning' which is used with reference to a "Second Language' which a person learns "Deliberately", particularly in formal settings like school etc. Krashen (1978, 1981) distinguishes between the two experiences and treats language learning as a "Conscious process" or "Conscious Language development" and language acquisition as "Less Conscious" or "More sub conscious process",
The researches like Elisabeth. Ingram (1975) and David Ingram (1988) William Littlewood (1989) also distinguish language acquisition from language learning and use the expression "First language acquisition" in contrast with "Second language learning" but many researches and theorists do not distinguish between the two. Stern (1983: 19), for instance, treats language acquisition a purely stylistic alternative to language learning. First language or mother tongue acquisition is also called "Child language acquisition" (Crystal, 1985).

According to crystal (1985) language acquisition refers to "learning of linguistic rule" i.e. the rule of grammar, phonology of semantics, and language development implies the "further use of this rule in an increasingly wide range of linguistic and social situations. It may be mentioned that the term "Development" has a psychological connotation. A developmental psychologist studies the "changes that occur as a result of the growth and development of the organism, in particular the relationship between early and later behavior. (Hilgard et al. 1979). Many theorists view the process of language acquisition in the child "as a biological process of growth and maturation rather than as one of social (through experience, environmental influence) or deliberate teaching (Stern 1983)."
The study of language acquisition or child language in a strict manner-began at the end of the nineteenth century i.e. about well over one hundred years ago, and those who carried out the studies were mostly parents observing the language development of their children and maintaining "diaries" of their utterances. In the meantime, psychologist, especially the child psychologists showed their interest in the study of the process of language acquisition. Psychologists studied the phenomenon of language acquisition as part of their investigation of the child's total growth and development. Language acquisition attracted the attention of psychologists not only because it is one of the developmental activities of the child, but also of its intimate relationship to thought and the process of thinking. Besides, language is considered by many of psychologists as an important mode of behaviour and they feel that "the study of the process whereby children learn to speak and understand language holds the key to many fundamental problems of "behavior" (Carroll 1961). The acquisition of language by children has also attracted the attention of linguists and psychologists who have made great contribution to the field. There have been two distinct approaches to the study of how children acquire language.

The Empiricists (behaviourists) believe that the language acquisition is the result of "experience" and environmental influence. According to them, a child acquires language through his experience and
environment affects and helps him in the acquisition of language. From an empirical (behaviorist) point of view, "the child comes into the world with no innate predisposition, he is a piece of raw material which is moulded or shaped by the experiences he undergoes into some sort of bundle of reactions, which then constitute his individuality and skills" (Ingram 1975; 211). The rationalists (mentalists), on the other hand, believe that the process of language acquisition is an "innate endowment" or an "in-born mechanism." According to this view, "children are born with knowledge of the basic grammatical relations and categories, for example subject, object, noun, verbs, determiner and auxiliary elements. This knowledge is universal, that is, these categories and relations exist in all human languages and all human infants are born with knowledge of them. (Ingram 1975). For behaviorists language acquisitions is not a mental phenomenon", it is a "behaviour". Like other forms of human behaviour, it is learnt by process of "habit-formation," whereas mentalists believe that language is not a behaviour like other behaviours but a "species, Specific" and "Species Unique Possession". According to behaviorists, children learn a language by imitation." They imitate the sounds and patterns of the language which they hear around them. They also repeat these items so that these become "habits".

The Naturalistic approach observes and records children's spontaneous verbal behaviour. One type of naturalistic investigation is the so called diary study, which involves a trained, researcher who visits
individual children on a regular basis and records a sample of utterances. (Perhaps one hour every second week over a period of five months). In all cases, notes are taken about the context in which children's speech occurs, the toys they are playing with the pictures they are looking at, and the like. Children are exposed to a variety of noises in their environment. Before they can begin to acquire language, they must first separate non-speech noises from speech sounds.

At about the same age, children also develop the ability to distinguish among certain speech sounds. In one experiment, infants were presented with a series of identical syllables consisting of the string [ba]. These were followed by an occurrence of the syllable [Pa], a change in the children's sucking rate (the normal reaction to a new stimulus) indicated that they perceived the difference between the two syllables and therefore were able to distinguish between [p] and [b]. The emergence of this ability has been examined in a task in which children are presented with two toy animals named bok and pok and are asked to respond to sentences such as show me pok. To respond correctly, children must not only hear the difference between [P] and [b] but also recognize that this difference is linguistically significant that it is used to distinguish between words in their language. Children under eighteen months have little success in this type of task.
SECTION – A₁

Language acquisition and language learning:-

Language acquisition and language learning as differentiated by different scholars, refer to first language learning and second language learning respectively. First language learning is unconscious and an automatic process i.e. after birth a child automatically acquires his mother tongue but learning of second or third language is called language learning by many scholars because learning a language other than the mother tongue is a conscious process.

According to Krashen (1977a), two distinct processes are involved in language learning which he terms as "acquisition" and "learning". Acquisition takes place spontaneously and subconsciously in natural settings, and leads to fluent use of language, "Learning is a conscious process, resulting from formal study and has a very minor role to play, i.e. that of a "Monitor" to play in correcting or editing one's output. Inevitably, learning as a conscious process would have very little to contribute to acquisition according to Krashen's model.

Krashen (1977a) has drawn a distinction between acquisition and learning. Acquisition arises as the result of the processes of the creative construction by which the learner internalizes the rules of the second language subconsciously. It takes place naturally and is not amenable to instruction; though acquisition can be imparted in the classroom too, by
creating opportunities for natural and spontaneous communication. In contrast, learning is a conscious process that results from formal study and which can be influenced, by formal instruction. The knowledge that is derived from acquisition is used differently from that derived from learning. The use of the second language spoken or written is initiated by means of acquiring knowledge, but in some contexts, learnt knowledge may be called upon to monitor the utterances that are initiated from the store of acquired knowledge.

Language acquisition means acquiring a language as a mother tongue or as a first language. According to Corder, "Language acquisition takes place during the period when the infant is maturing physically and mentally."

Language learning, on the other hand refers to learning a second language which "normally starts at the later stage, when language performance has already become established and processes of maturations are complete or near completion."

The process of learning a second language is therefore, different from that of language acquisition. Various difficulties arise when someone learns a second language from the point of view of contrastive linguistics, “These differences between the first language and the second language learning are mainly caused by difference between the two languages and also by conditions under which the learning takes place."
Acquisition takes place in childhood when the child grows physically and mentally and language learning occurs at a later stage. Further, the motivation for acquisition and learning is also different. Language acquisition comes quite “naturally”, whereas language learning takes place “as a result of the discovery of its practical utility.”

Language acquisition and second language learning also differ in that language learning normally takes place after language acquisition is largely complete. In other words, the language teacher is not teaching language as such, but a new manifestation of language. The language learner has already developed considerable communicative competence in his mother tongue, he already knows what he can and cannot do with it.

First and second language learning are different, because the circumstances (learner, teacher and linguistic data) in which learning takes place are different.

Language learning and language acquisition are quite different processes in that the language learner is a different sort of person from the infant; that there has been some qualitative change in his physiology and psychology at some point in his maturation process; and that these changes in some way inhibit him from using the same learning strategies that he used as an infant or make available to him some whole new range
of strategies which he did not posses earlier. These notions are all within what has been called the critical period’ for language acquisition.

'Learning a second language', after we have acquired verbal behavior (in its mother tongue manifestation) is a matter of adaptation or extension of existing skills and knowledge rather, than the relearning of a completely new set of skills. We can conclude from the above note that the process of acquiring language and learning a second language must be different, but rather than that there are some fundamental properties which all languages, have in common (linguistic universals) and that it is only their outward and perhaps relatively superficial characteristics that differ and that when these fundamental properties have once been learned (through their mother tongue manifestations) the learning of a second manifestation of language (the second language) is relatively a much easier and simple task.
Stages of Language Acquisition:

Children do not wake up one morning with a fully formed grammar in their heads or with all the "rules" of social and communicative intercourse. The language is acquired by stages and it is suggested, each stage more closely approximates the grammar of the adult language. Observations of children in different language areas of the world reveal that the stages are very similar, possibly universal. Some of the stages last for a short time, others remain longer. Some stages may overlap for a short period, though the transition between stages has often been observed to be quite sudden.

The earliest studies of child language acquisition come from diaries kept by parents. More recent studies include the use of tape recordings, videotapes, and planned experiments. Spontaneous utterances of children are recorded and in addition to various elicitations, techniques have been developed so that the child's production and comprehension can be studied under controlled condition. Some linguists divide the stages of language acquisition into paralinguistic stages. There continues to be disagreement as to what should be included in these periods. Perhaps some day when we know more about this complex phenomenon we will be able to resolve these questions. But most scholars agree that the earliest cries and whimpers of the newborn cannot be considered as early
language. Such noises are completely stimulus-controlled, they are the child’s involuntary responses to hunger, discomfort, the desire to be cuddled, or the feeling of well being.

The Babbling Stage:

In the first few months, the infant begins to babble, the sounds produced in this period (apart from the continuing stimulus-controlled cries and gurgles) seem to include the sounds of human languages. Most linguists believe that in this babbling period a child produces a large variety of sounds, many of which do not occur in the language of the household. Deaf children also babble and it is reported their babbling up to the age of around six months is very similar to that of normal children. Non-deaf born of deaf parents who do not speak also babble. Thus, babbling does not depend on the presence of acoustic, auditory input. There are however at least two different schools of thought concerning babbling. One group believes that babbling is a necessary prerequisite for normal language acquisition. Others, like Eric lenneberg, consider babbling to be less crucial Lenneberg reported on a child of 14 months who for medical purposes had been mechanically prevented from making any vocal sounds for six months. Yet, one day after the mechanical restraint was removed, his output was equivalent to what one would expect from a normal 14 month old child.
One thing is absolutely clear, however, in order to learn language, the child must receive either auditory input (to develop oral is language) or sign language input (for a deaf old child to acquire sign language). But the role of babbling in the acquisition of oral language is not clearly understood.

During the babbling stage the pitch, or intonation contours, of infant's utterances begin to resemble the intonation contours of sentences spoken by adults. It has been suggested that the semantically different intonation contours are among the first linguistic contrasts that children perceive and produce. ..

**The Holophrastic Stage:**

Sometimes after one year (it varies from child to child and has nothing to do with how intelligent the child is), children begin to use the same string of sounds repeatedly to "mean" the same thing. At this point they have learned that sounds are related to meanings and they are producing their first "words". Most children seem to go through the "one word = one sentence" stage. These one-word sentences (if one can call them sentences at all) are called holophrastic sentences (from holo, "complete" or "undivided", plus phrase "Phrase" or "Sentence").

J.P.’s mother reports that before that he also used the words [bu] for "book, [Ki] for "Kitty", and [tsi] for "free" but seemed to have "lost" them later what is more interesting than merely the list of making utterances of
a picture of a child J.P., at this stage which will illustrate how much the young child has already learned J.P.'s words at the 1977 age 16 months were as follows.

[Paw] “not”  “no” don’t  [baw] ~ [daw]  “dawn”
[da] “dog”  [S:]
   “aerospls”
[Sa] “Sock”  [hay]  “hi”
[ay] ~ [^y] “light”  [sr]  “shift sweater”

J.P.’s vocabulary is the way he used these words "UP" originally was restricted to mean "get me up" when he was either on the floor or in his high chair, but later it was used to mean "get up" to his mother as well. His word for "Cheerio's" was first used to label or ask for cheerio's only when they were visible; then he began to use it to ask for cheerio's every where even if he could not see them. J.P. used his word for "sock" when pointing to anyone's socks as well as other undergarments that go on over the feet. All this illustrates how a child may extend the meaning of a word from a particular reference to encompass a larger class.

When he first began to use these words, a stimulus had to be present, but this was no longer true. "Dog" for example, was first only used when pointing to a real dog but then was used for pointing to
pictures of dogs in various books. A new word which entered J.P’s. vocabulary was "Uh-0h"m which he would say after having an accident like spilling juice, or when he deliberately poured his yogurt over the side of his high chair. His use of this word shows his growing use of language for social purposes. At this time he also added two new words meaning "no", [do:] and [no]. He used these frequently when anyone attempted to take something from him to make him do something which he did not like to do. One can see that, as early as this holophrastic stage, words are being used to communicate a variety of ideas, feelings and social awareness.

According to some child language researchers, the words in the holophrastic stage serve three major functions; they are either linked with a child's own action or desire for action (as when J.P. world Day "up" to express his wish to pick up, or are used to convey emotion (J.P's "no"), or serve a meaning function (J.P's "Cheerio’s", "Shoes", "dog", and so on).

At this stage the child uses just one word to express concepts or predications which will later be expressed by complex phrases and sentences. Phonologically, J.P's first words are, like the words of most children at this stage of learning English and other languages, generally monosyllabic with a CV (consonant-vowel) form; the vowel part may be diphthongal, depending on the language being acquired. His
phonemic or phonetic inventory is much smaller than is found in the adult language. It has been suggested by the linguist Roman Jackobson that children will acquire the sounds found in all languages of the world no matter what language they are exposed to, and later they may acquire the "more difficult" sounds too.

JP's Phonological inventory includes the consonants [b, m, d, k], which certainly are frequently occurring sounds in the world's languages.

Many studies have shown that children in the holophrastic stage can perceive or comprehend many phonological contrasts than they can produce themselves. Thus, even, at this stage, it is not possible to determine the extent of the grammar of the child simply by observing or noting speech production.

**One-word Stage**

The average child when he is about a year old speaks his first words.

Roughly between the age of a year and 18 months, the child speaks in single word utterances ('milk,' 'mummy', 'cup' and so on).

In the development of language, this is known as the one-word stage. Occasionally more than a word may appear to be involved, but this is usually because a group of words has been learned as a single unit (e.g. ‘a;; gone’).
In many situations, the words the child uses simply serve naming function, as when a parent points to a picture of a ball in a book and the child says ‘ball’. Sometimes, whoever, uses single words conveys more complex meaning. The words used in this way are termed holophrases.

For example, the words “juice” may be used to mean ‘I want some juice’, ‘I want more juice’ or ‘I have split some juice’. The situation and the child’s use of gestures and intonation enable the parent to understand what the child means on these occasions. Single words are in effect taking the place of more complex grammatical construction which the child has not yet mastered.

Children show this to be the case because they respond to two-word constructions such as “Kiss daddy” and also understand more usual requests (e.g. ‘tickle book’).

Two-Word Stage:

Two-word sentences usually begin to appear when the child is about 18 months old, though single words will continue to be used for some months. Then comes the two-word stage. The two-words are usually in a grammatically correct sequence, often subject + verb e.g. ‘Jenny is sleeping’ becomes Jenny sleeps etc.

Verb + object (‘Draw doggie’)
Subject + object (‘Suzy juice,’ meaning ‘suzy is drinking juice’)
Subject + complement (‘Daddy busy’
When a child tries to repeat what an adult says, he may omit some of the words, but those that are retained will again usually be in an appropriate grammatical order.

ADULT – Look, Ben’s playing in the garden.

CHILD – Play garden.

The above example also demonstrates how utterances focus on key words. Words that convey less information or that primarily serve grammatical functions (e.g., ‘in’, ‘the’) are omitted.

The ambiguity of some two-word utterances arises partly because inflectional affixes are absent. These include, for example at the ends of words to show either possession or plural, or -ed verb endings to indicate past tense.

**Telegraphic Stage:**

From the age of about two, children begin producing three and four word utterances some of these utterances will be grammatically complete.

Subject + verb object (Amy likes tea)

Subject + verb + complement (Teddy looks tired)

Subject + verb + adverbial (Mummy sleeps upstairs) others will have grammatical elements missing 'Daddy how now' 'Laura broke plate', 'where Stephen going'. The condensed structure of many of these utterances explains why they are described as telegraphic (the term is also sometimes applied to two-word utterances). Like telegrams, they include the key words but omit such words as determiners (e.g. 'a', 'the'), auxiliary verbs (e.g. 'is', 'has') and prepositions (e.g. 'to', 'for').
A child will begin to show command of a wider range of structures - questions and commands for example, as well as simple statements.

Progress during the telegraphic stage is rapid by the age of three. Items that were previously omitted (such as determiners) are beginning to be used regularly. Soon sentences with more than one clause (e.g. 'want to go to bed') start to appear, and coordinating conjunctions ('and', 'but') begin to be used.

Inflectional affixes (e.g. -ing - ed and -sending's) are gradually acquired during this period. By the age of five, many of the most basic grammatical rules have been learned, though some (e.g. the use of the passive voice) have yet to be mastered.

**Theories of Language Acquisition:**

Various theoretical views have been expressed on language acquisition. A group of scholars holds the view that language ability is 'innate'. Another group is of the view that language is learned by imitation. A third group of scholars recognizes the importance of both "innate determinants and environmental influence." All these theoretical views on language acquisition are discussed below.

**The Nativist Perspective**

According to the theory, there is an innate capacity for acquiring language and children are born with this capacity. To describe this capacity, Chomsky (1968) has postulated, a device which is called "Language Acquisition Device" (LAD) Chomsky believes that "without
postulating such a device it is impossible to understand how children master their native language in such a short time in spite of the highly abstract nature of the rules" (Clark 1975). It is presumed that the human nervous system is equipped with the language Acquisition Device, a neurological system in such a way that the person is able to process and receive language. It may be pointed out that the language acquisition device "is not actually a structure in the brain but the innate capacity to learn grammar" (Janda and Hamel 1982: 173-74).

**The Learning Theory Perspective:**

According to this theory, language is learned by imitating others "children learn to imitate the speech responses of their parents through reinforcement". Bijou (1976) emphasizes the role of imitation in language acquisition, whereas Skinner's (1957) theory of language acquisition is based on reinforcement principles, i.e., the children are rewarded for speaking correctly.

The significant thing about this theory is that "an acquisition speech responses is not sufficient to be verbally effective. The children must also learn to use learning in its appropriate context" (Janda and Hamel 1982:176).
The Interactionist Perspective:

This theory recognizes the importance of environmental factors along with the biological or innate determinants in the acquisition of language. It is assumed that certain biological factors help the acquisition of language. At the same time environment also contributes to this effect (Bloom, Rocissane, and Hood 1979). The interactionist theory of language acquisition thus attempts "to combine biological heritage with a number of different environmental determinants."
SECTION A3

Acquisition of language skills

Language skills at different linguistic levels of language learning involve learning of the four basic skills of language, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. These language skills are crucial to language teaching, learning and testing. Previously languages were taught by either grammar translation method or by studying literature. But the shift of focus is now on these language skills.

1. Listening:

   It is the first language skill required to learn a language. It is a decoding process, the person (inters and understands the sound, sound sequences, grammatical structure and vocabulary of the language. Listening is fundamental to other language skills because it lays foundation to other skills. It is developed through practice which is of two types.

   (a) **Intensive Listening:** It is concerned with one or two topics:

   (b) **Extensive Listening:** It involves practice on a wide variety of sounds and structures. The thorough listening to materials on many topics.

   Learning to listen a language (second & foreign) is not easy because learners may face many problems such as.

   (a) Unfamiliarity with the language.

   (b) Inability to maintain sustained interest and attention.
(c) Peculiarities of pronunciation.
(d) Fastness of speech.

2. Speaking: Though listening precedes it, speaking is a very important language skill. The ability to speak a language comprises use of the sound system in grammatical constructions at a normal conversational speed. The sounds may be first practised in isolation then their combinations in larger units i.e. p-t-k-, i.e. -a followed by pit, pact etc. there are two very important methods for teaching speech.

1. Dialogues

2. Reading aloud

1. Dialogues:- The dialogues should be simple interesting and contextualized. The dialogues should provide opportunity for participation to more and more students. The teacher should monitor and guide the students but he should also give them freedom of expression.

2. Reading aloud:- A good reader should read and the whole class must review the lesson/text. Some teachers reject reading aloud method on the ground that it is slow in practice. Students get self conscious (the reader) and only a few students are benefitted from this method (because very few get chance to read). Nevertheless if the lesson is interesting and more students are involved then reading aloud method can be very useful to teach the pronunciation. The teacher should see that the speech of
students is acceptable and intelligible. They should be able to speak confidently, freely and correctly. The teacher should instil self confidence into the students.

3. Reading:- Reading is one of the third basic skills of language teaching and learning. Like listening it is also a decoding process.

But reading involves many physical and psychological factors which make it more complex so attention should be paid to the following drawbacks of students:-

1. Psychological resistance (No reading habit)
2. Language difficulty
3. No understanding of reading

These hurdles can be removed by encouraging them to read, and providing interesting materials for them, and also making them familiar with the language etc. According to Robert Lado learning to understand and speak a language means to learn a language, but learning to read and write means that the language known only its graphic representation is to be learnt. There are three main components in the reading skill.

1. Recognition of the graphic symbols.
2. Correlation of these with linguistic units i.e. morphemes, words etc.
3. Correlation of the linguistic units with their meanings.
The teacher should also focus on teaching the spoken value of the writing symbols that include not only the letters of alphabets and punctuation marks but also inverted commas, question marks, exclamation marks etc.

There are two kinds of reading practices.

1. Reading aloud.
2. Reading silently.

Silent reading is closer to comprehension and useful for serious studies. Reading aloud is closer to pronunciation. Generally the objectives of reading will determine the method and manner of reading. Intensive and extensive reading practices can be given to develop this skill.

Reading skill is very important skill. It will enable the students to read books on variety of subjects. Learning to read a language like English will help the students to have an access to knowledge stored up in the books and enable them to catch up the fast changing world. Proper instructions should be given to fast and quick reading and to understand what they are reading.

4. Writing: Writing is the fourth basic skill of language. To write a language means to express oneself in the graphic symbols that represent it. Learning of understanding speech and speaking are interdependent and the one reinforces the other.
The first step in learning to write a language is to learn the convention of the language the shape of letters in isolation and in combination of various forms. It also involves learning to spell the words, capitalization, punctuations, abbreviations, numbers etc. writing system has its own problems. For example A Urdu speaker learning Urdu has to learn Urdu convention of writing that is from right to left.

Learning to write involves two aspects.

1. **Language aspects:** It involves elementary mechanics of written work, such as spelling, punctuations etc.

2. **Skills aspects:** It simply means to write in a neat and legible way.

Writing is not just copying transcription of the symbol but it refers to process of putting ideas in the graphic symbols for the purpose of comprehensibility. All good syllabuses of writing should contain exercises from in writing controlled and guided paragraph to free writing of essay, letters, reports etc.
Acquisition of Language Elements:

(a) Phonology

Phonology is concerned with the structure of language at the level of sound. It has a close connection with morphology and syntax. But it is closely related to phonetics.

Phonemes are the sounds which language uses to maintain contrast among words and thus conveys different meanings.

A phoneme may be defined as a significant or distinctive sound unit in the language. Phonemes sound segments are sound features which are common to all speakers of a given languages and are reproduced by repetition.

In every language there are usually small number of phonemes. Gleason (1961) defines phoneme as "a minimum feature of the expression system of a spoken language by which a thing that may be said is distinguished from any other thing which might have been said."

(b) Grammar

It is considered as a set of rules in the form a text book which dictates correct usage. It refers to generalized statements of regulatory and irregularities found in the language and are relegated by many linguistics to a minor role in teaching language. On the contrary grammar
is also viewed as the patterns of forms and arrangement, including intonation, stress and juncture. The structure by which the speakers of a language communicate cannot be marginalized. Anyone using a language must know its grammar; mere words without grammar do not constitute a language.

Even children who have never studied the rules of grammar make use of the grammar of, their language. This is seen in the mistakes they make when a child says, he goed he is forming a "regular" past tense on the pattern: showed, weighed, served: His error reveals the fact that he has been applying the patterns even though he is not able to describe it.

Patterns and Sentences are also important in learning grammar. A grammatical pattern is an arrangement of parts having linguistic significance beyond the sum of its parts. The parts of a pattern are expressed by words or classes of words so that different sentences often express the same pattern. The sentences of a language exhibit a variety of patterns. John telephoned, the boy studied, we understood are different sentences expressing the same statement pattern in English.

A pattern is not a sentence, however, sentences express patterns. Each sentence illustrates a pattern. To memorize a sentence does not imply that a pattern has been memorized. There can be countless sentences, each unique, yet all constructed on similar pattern.
Children learn the grammatical pattern of their language before they study grammar in schools, e.g. when a child says goed instead of went knowed instead of knew, he is applying the regular past tense pattern on the basis of analogy.

Open: opened = go: goed.

This application of patterns has been demonstrated further with children by showing them a picture of some strange creature, giving it a name, and then showing them a picture of two or more of these creatures and asking them what they are called. Children change the strange name of a regular plural with ease. A circle with stick legs and an eye is labeled a clug, for example, when confronted with two circles with legs and eyes.

Native language is the most important factor in determining ease and difficulty in learning the patterns of a foreign second language. The ease and difficulty in teaching/learning of a second/foreign language can be determined by a systematic comparison of the native language and foreign language.

(c) Vocabulary

There is a stock or words which are at the disposal of a speaker or writer. The term vocabulary may refer to all the words in a language or the words and phrases used in a particular variety such as a dialect register, or terminology. The number of words encountered in different languages varies according to the specialized needs of its speakers and to
the quality of available dictionaries. In English the ‘total’ vocabulary has been estimated at over 1 million words. The term ACTIVE and PASSIVE VOCABULARY are sometimes used to distinguish the words in a language. The vocabulary of a language or language variety is compiled and codified by lexicographers in general or specialized dictionaries. Linguists have found it difficult to draw a sharp line between vocabulary or lexical items (also called content words) and those items which have only grammatical meanings (also called function words). The lexical meaning of words through time is traced by etymology. For certain limited purposes it has been found convenient to determine the basic (core) vocabulary of a language, i.e. those lexical items which refer to concepts and situations common and fundamental to all human, activity, e.g. kinship terms, parts of the body, numerals, etc. These basic items are usually fairly stable over long periods of historical development of the language.
SECTION – B

Acquisition of Vocabulary:

Acquisition of vocabulary is central to language use. Every normal child in due course of time acquires considerably large number of words of his mother tongue. Learning of words is a cumulative process of enriching of knowledge about form (pronunciation/spelling) meaning and the use of words.

It is believed that children before the age of 5 learn most of this intricate system of their language which we have been calling the lexicon, long before they learn to add $2 + 2$. Children also learn to conjoin sentences, ask questions select appropriate pronouns. They also learn to form negative sentences, using the syntactic, phonological, morphological, and semantic rules of grammar.

We are far from completely understanding the language acquisition process. We are just beginning to grapple with those aspects of the human neurological and biological make up which explains the child's ability to acquire language. Certainly, it is clear that the child is equipped from birth with the necessary neural prerequisites for language and language use. Our knowledge of the nature of human language tells us something about what the child does and does not do when learning or acquiring a language children’s do not learn a language by storing all the words and all
the sentences in some giant mental dictionary. The list of words is finite, but no dictionary can hold all the sentences, which are infinite in number.

As a Child's vocabulary grows, the meanings of overextended words narrow and the meanings of under extended words broaden. There is a marked decrease in the number of extensions after the age of about two and a half, because the child's vocabulary is increasing rapidly and filling the gaps that overextended words had previously been used to fill (e.g. the child now knows the names given to apples, tomatoes and cherries and doesn't refer to all of them as "apples").

Children’s understanding of word meanings is ahead of their ability to produce the corresponding words. For example, a child who overextended the word ‘dog’ when speaking may identify the correct picture when he is made to see pictures of a variety of four legged animals and asked to point to the one that shows a dog.

Aitcheson (1987) identified three stages, or processes that occur during a child's acquisition of vocabulary: labelling, packaging and network building.

1. Labelling is the first stage that involves making the link between the sounds of particular words and the objects to which they refer (e.g. understanding that 'mummy' refers to the child's mother).
2. Packaging entails understanding a word's range of meaning. Under extension and overextension which occur before this stage are successfully negotiated.

3. Network building involves grasping the connections between words: understanding that some words are opposite in meaning, it makes us to understand the relationship between hyponyms and hypernyms etc.
SECTION – B₁

Children move on from one word speech to develop sentences of 2, 3 or 4 words.

1. Holophrastic speech is a one word sentence uttered by a child to express the whole idea in a single word e.g., he uses the word mum for different things upto 12 to 18 months.

2. Two words sentences stage occurs during the age of 12 to 18 months child starts using nouns and verbs and adjectives etc in this speech.

3. Multiword Sentence Stage: A child from $2^{1/2}$ years to 3 years of age starts speaking multiword sentences. The language development is very rapid then. The length of sentence starts increasing. A child uses nouns, verbs (transitive & intransitive), adjectives etc. Pronouns are later adopted by children. Maximum numbers of nouns are found in the sentence of a child while auxiliary verbs, and determiners are notably missing. The term "Telegraphic speech" is used for the expression children of 6-7 years of age. In a telegraphic speech only a limited number of words are used to express a message.

Children also express more ideas in less words in order to save space in the memory which is very small.
But children from $3^{1/2}$ to 4 years of age start speaking and begin to use their sentences.

The four aspects are acquired by a child learning a language

1. **Phonological**: It is the sound system.

2. **Grammatical**: Grammatical system (right placing of words in a sentence)

3. **Semantics**: It is the meaning part (meaningful or grammatically correct sentence)

4. **Lexical Aspects**: It involves learning of the vocabulary of the language.

There is no end for linguistic creativity if a child is exposed and motivated by arousing his interest in the above four aspects. They may be led to an infinite number of production of sentences. The child will be able to produce countless sentences.

Human beings are homolenguins who speak language while homogametics use language according to rules of grammar.

We may come across a number of tools that are used by linguists when they examine words and their combinations in any language. Like most aspects of first language acquisition vocabulary is something that parents and other adults take very much for granted. The very first strings of sounds produced by the child are recognized on words with great acclaim, but from then on words child's massive achievements are lost sight of.
In consideration of first language acquisition, it is customary to be concerned with questions, of order. For example, if we suppose that part of what is involved in acquiring a language is the establishment of appropriate word classes and assigning specific words to those classes, we can immediately ask whether there is evidence that children acquire word classes in a particular order. We shall see that there is considerable evidence for small children controlling remarkably sophisticated systems of linguistic representation from a very early age.

The linguistic concepts which have been introduced earlier enable us to raise a number of questions about order of acquisition. As far as major lexical categories are concerned, children's early production of vocabularies exhibit a preponderance of nouns that, typically refer to objects in the child's immediate environment (e.g. mummy, daddy, dolly, car). Simultaneously children are often quick to develop a small number of 'general purpose' verbs. Parents are expected to be familiar with all this as is evidenced by their reactions.

Small number of adjectives (e.g. nice, big) and prepositions (e.g. up, down) etc also occur in transcripts of early child speech. Now, it is important to be clear about this sort of claim that what we are viewing is from the perspective of adults. At the earliest stages, children do not string words together into phrases and sentence but they use them systematically.
Children acquire words such as chair, table and bed before they acquire words for furniture or for any of the subordinate terms. We might expect super ordinal terms to be early acquisitions. But this is not the case. This ought not to be too surprising.

Considering the fact that a child confronted with a chair is inevitably, confronted with a particular piece of furniture and not with the furniture itself etc.
SECTION – C

Social Determinants of Language Acquisition:

Urdu is one of the important languages of India. It is widely understood as a symbol of the religious and cultural identity of its speakers. Urdu is the mother tongue of the majority of Muslims in the city. But the sociolinguistic setting of Urdu speakers is very diverse in terms of income, occupation and education etc. People are usually categorized according to many socially relevant variables e.g. sex, ethnic background, education, occupation, income etc. Such categorization often influences what experiences we have, what language variety we acquire how we acquire a language and how we are perceived by others and what is expected of us. Language learning is not just a cognitive but also a social process that unfolds itself in social interaction.

In language learning social variables play a very important role specially motivation, social setting of the learners, home atmosphere, parent’s education, income, number of siblings etc.

To understand language in our society, we therefore should try to understand that it is pitiable trapped in social networks. It is widely acknowledged today that language is a much variable phenomenon and this variability may be explained in terms of language society, and class and occupation which are the most significant linguistic markers found in our society.
SECTION – D

Research Procedures

An attempt has been made in this study to describe the impact of social and economic factors on the word-hoard of children of class V of Urdu and English medium schools in Aligarh.

Data was collected through field procedures following different methods of elicitation including spontaneous procedures and questionnaire for getting samples of the speech of students selected for this purpose.

The following three sections of this chapter are devoted to the research procedures followed for this study.

Section D1 deals with the selection of informants while section D2 covers procedures of collection of the data. D3 takes up the validation of the data.

Selection of the informant

Section D1 Here we deal with the selection of the informant picked up from five reputed schools of Aligarh, during the years 2006-2009. The total number of students involved was 30. We have selected six students from each of the following schools.

1. Abdul Basere Khan Union School (Girls+Boys) (ABKUS) (Urdu Medium).
3. Safuddin Tahir High School (STHS) Urdu+English Medium (Boys).

4. Zakir Husaain School (ZHS) English+Urdu Medium (Boys + Girls)

5. Our Lady of Fatima Covent School (OLFS) English Medium (Boys + Girls).

The students were selected only from class V. Their ages ranged between 10-12 years. Informants have been selected mainly from three apparent income groups.

1. Low income: Daily wagers, shopkeepers, auto rickshaw pullars, drivers, peons.

2. Middle income School teachers, clerks, nurses, compounders lawyers, and businessman.

3. Affluent/good to very good income i.e. Doctors, Engineers, University teachers, bureaucrats, Judges Company directors manager businessman etc.

We divided our informants into the following four distinct groups:

1. Children whose parents are not educated or below graduation level and have low income. The children are studying in the Urdu medium schools.
2. Children whose parents are educated upto the graduation or more and belong to moderate to middle income group. The children are studying in the Urdu medium schools.

3. The Children whose parents are educated up to graduation or more and come out of moderate or middle income. Group of society and their children are studying in the English medium schools.

4. The children whose parents are very well educated, post graduation or more and have very good income and their children are studying in English medium schools. List of the informants with their particulars is given below:
## Table-1

**Total 30 informants from Five Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Locality</th>
<th>Profession of Father</th>
<th>Income Gross per month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Alma</td>
<td>10 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>5000 to 7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Shazia</td>
<td>11 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Purani Chungi</td>
<td>Cycle mechanic</td>
<td>4000 to 6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Rubeena</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Jamalpur</td>
<td>Factory worker</td>
<td>4000 To 6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Nazim</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Gate Keeper</td>
<td>5000 to 6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Nagma</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>University Farm</td>
<td>Hair Dresser</td>
<td>3000 to 5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Anam Khan</td>
<td>11 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Factory worker</td>
<td>4000 to 6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Mariya Shakeel</td>
<td>9 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Zohra Bagh</td>
<td>Business Man</td>
<td>6000 approx.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hina</td>
<td>10 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>6000 to 8000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Zaid</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Tar Bangla</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>12000 to 30000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Imran Ahmd</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>12000 to 30000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Arif</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Amin Nishan</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>6000 to 8000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Nabia</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Technical staff member</td>
<td>5000 to 7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Asma</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Cook</td>
<td>6000 to 8000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Afroz</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Electrician</td>
<td>3500 to 4500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Namra</td>
<td>12 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Chungi</td>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>6000 approx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Monthly Income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
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<td>-----</td>
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<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Nedeem</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>6000 to 8000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Nahid</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Rickshaw puller</td>
<td>University farm</td>
<td>4000 to 5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Tamanna</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Bull</td>
<td>Jamalpur</td>
<td>Over 7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Shahnawaz</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>12000 to 30000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Hira</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>University Farm</td>
<td>Deputy Registrar</td>
<td>Over 10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Shabana</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Asra</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Jamalpur</td>
<td>Bull</td>
<td>Over 7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Saima</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Electrician</td>
<td>3500 to 4500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Zeba</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Tailor</td>
<td>4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Shazia</td>
<td>11 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Jamalpur</td>
<td>Rickshaw Puller</td>
<td>4000 to 5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Talat</td>
<td>10 yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Firdous Nagar</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Azim</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>University Farm</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>6000 Approx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Hina</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>University Farm</td>
<td>Cook</td>
<td>4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Asim</td>
<td>11 Yrs</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Riding Club</td>
<td>Fourth Grade</td>
<td>5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Shaista</td>
<td>12 Yrs</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Purani Chungi</td>
<td>Hair Dresser</td>
<td>5000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section D1: Collection of Data**

The data analyzed in this work is based on the information collected from the 30 above mentioned informants. The data was collected through different strategies. The main tools of data collection are:-
1. Interviews
2. The text books, supplementary books
3. Examination scripts
4. Questionnaire
5. Assignments, home works
6. Essay writing
7. Letter writing
8. Picture writing
9. School diaries & note books
10. Anonymous observations.

We also supplied lists of specially prepared words to each of the student they were asked then to tick the word (or words) which they use occasionally or more frequently.

Section D2: Validation of the Data:

We have provided with quantitative validation for the qualitative analysis.

Section E: Aims and Scope of the Study

The work presents a linguistic study of the basic Urdu Vocabulary of Urdu speaking children of class V in Aligarh. It is often observed that children of different social classes display different vocabularies. They show marginal differences in their words hoards of (basic) vocabulary.
Inspite of consistency involved in the research social class variations there is no specific fool proof assessment process that is used universally. The degree of variability in reporting social class is the main reason that contributes to lack of the reliability in the research.

But studies such as those of labov (1960s) have shown that social aspirations exercise a great influence on speech patterns. One of the fundamental findings of sociolinguistics, which has been hard to disprove is that people of different socio-economic status show differences in their speech patterns. The main objective of the present work is to discover the differences in the word hoards of the children that belong to different socio-economic strata. Attention is also drawn to determine the impact of school atmosphere/peer group on children’s vocabulary. The study also makes an attempt to examine the case of those children who belong to affluent families and are studying in English medium schools. The children of English medium schools are supposed to have fewer Urdu words in their repertoire. The work also highlights the extent of acquisition development of vocabulary items in children under study. Such a study may be useful and suggestive of great possibilities of further work on vocabulary required for preparing textbooks for class V in the light of results obtained.

The study is however limited in scope because we have selected children of class V studying in various schools of Aligarh only.