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HANDOUT

ECE201

Language Development of the Child

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ECE201

Language Development of the Child

Lecture-Wise Study Handout
Virtual University of Pakistan

21 lectures • prepared for exam study

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About This Course

Language development is the process by which children learn to understand and use language to communicate. This course traces that journey from a newborn's first cries to a school-age child's fluent conversation, and explains what teachers and parents can do to support it.

Each lecture below covers one building block: the stages children pass through, the theories that explain how language is learned, the sounds, words and sentences children master at each age, and the practical classroom strategies that help every child — including slow learners and children with special needs — become a confident communicator.

Lecture 1: What Is Language Development and Why It Matters

Learning Objectives

- Define language and language development
- Distinguish language, speech and communication
- Explain why teachers must understand language development

Language development refers to the process by which children acquire the ability to perceive, produce and use words to understand and communicate. It is one of the most remarkable achievements of early childhood: a three-year-old who has never been formally taught grammar can already produce and understand thousands of novel sentences.

Language is different from speech and communication. Communication is the broadest term — any exchange of meaning, including gestures and facial expressions. Language is a structured system of symbols (words, signs) governed by rules. Speech is the spoken, physical production of language sounds. A child may communicate (point, cry) before she has language, and may understand language long before she can speak it clearly.

For early childhood teachers, understanding language development is essential because language is the foundation of all later learning. Children learn new concepts through words, follow classroom instructions through language, and build friendships through conversation. A teacher who recognizes normal milestones can spot delays early and arrange help in time.

Key Definitions

Language development is defined as the process through which children learn to understand and produce language for communication

Speech is defined as the physical, spoken production of language sounds

Communication is defined as any exchange of meaning between people, including gestures, expressions and words

Key Points — very important for exams

Language = rule-governed symbol system; speech = spoken production; communication = broadest term.

Comprehension normally develops ahead of production: children understand more than they can say.

Language is the foundation of all school learning — that is why this course matters for teachers.

Review Questions

- ? How is language different from speech and communication?
- ? Why should a classroom teacher study language development?

Section Summary

Language development is the child's journey from crying and babbling to fluent conversation. Teachers who understand its normal path can teach better and detect problems early.

Exam Pointers

→ Expect a short question asking you to differentiate language, speech and communication with one example each.

Lecture 2: The Nature–Nurture Debate in Language Learning

Learning Objectives

- Explain the nature and nurture positions
- Describe how modern research combines both views

For centuries scholars have debated whether language is mainly inborn (nature) or mainly learned from the environment (nurture). The nature position, associated with Noam Chomsky, argues that children are born with a biological blueprint for language — a Language Acquisition Device — which is why every normal child in every culture learns language on a similar timetable without formal teaching.

The nurture position, associated with B. F. Skinner, argues that language is learned through imitation, reinforcement and practice. Parents reward correct speech with smiles and attention, and children gradually shape their utterances toward adult models. Evidence for nurture includes the fact that children learn the particular language spoken around them, and that neglected children show severe language delays.

Modern research accepts an interactionist middle ground: biology provides the capacity and the timetable, while the environment provides the material and the motivation. A child needs both a healthy brain and rich language input. Neither genes nor environment alone is enough — a striking, very important conclusion for teachers, because it means quality interaction in the classroom genuinely changes outcomes.

Key Definitions

Nature position is defined as the view that language ability is largely inborn and biologically programmed

Nurture position is defined as the view that language is learned from the environment through imitation and reinforcement

Key Points — very important for exams

Chomsky = nature (LAD, universal grammar); Skinner = nurture (imitation, reinforcement).

Modern consensus: interactionist — biology sets the capacity, environment supplies input and motivation.

Very important: because nurture matters, teacher–child interaction in class directly affects language outcomes.

Review Questions

- ? Summarize one argument for the nature position and one for the nurture position.
- ? What does the interactionist view imply for classroom practice?

Section Summary

Language needs both biology and environment. Children are born ready to learn language, but they still need people who talk, listen and respond to them.

Exam Pointers

- A common long question: compare nature and nurture explanations of language development with examples.

Lecture 3: The Prelinguistic Stage: Crying, Coing and Babbling

Learning Objectives

- Describe the prelinguistic period (birth to ~12 months)
- Explain the communicative value of crying, coing and babbling

The prelinguistic stage covers roughly the first year of life, before children produce their first true words. It is not a silent period: newborns communicate from day one. Crying is the first signal system — newborns cry differently for hunger, pain and discomfort, and experienced caregivers learn to read these differences within weeks.

Around 6–8 weeks infants begin coing: soft, vowel-like sounds (ooo, aaa) made when content. Coing is social — babies coo back when adults talk to them, beginning the turn-taking pattern of conversation. Around 4–6 months comes babbling: repeated consonant–vowel syllables (ba-ba-ba, da-da-da). Babbling is found in all cultures, and even deaf babies babble with their hands if exposed to sign language, which proves its biological basis.

Near the end of the first year, babbling takes on the intonation of the home language — it starts to sound like questions or statements — and gestures (pointing, waving bye-bye) appear. Pointing is a major milestone: it shows the child wants to share attention with an adult, the foundation of all later conversation.

Key Definitions

Prelinguistic stage is defined as the period from birth to about 12 months when children communicate without true words

Babbling is defined as repetitive consonant–vowel syllables (e.g. ba-ba-ba) produced around 4–6 months in all cultures

Joint attention is defined as child and adult focusing on the same object, often established through pointing

Key Points — very important for exams

Order: crying (birth) → cooing (6–8 weeks) → babbling (4–6 months) → gestures/pointing (9–12 months).

Babbling is universal and biological — even deaf infants babble manually in sign-language homes.

Pointing marks joint attention, the true foundation of conversation.

Review Questions

- ? List the prelinguistic milestones in order with approximate ages.
- ? Why is pointing considered such an important milestone?

Section Summary

Long before first words, babies cry, coo, babble and point — each step builds the turn-taking and attention-sharing that conversation needs.

Exam Pointers

→ Short question: describe the sequence of prelinguistic development with ages.

Lecture 4: First Words: The Holophrastic Stage

Learning Objectives

- Define the holophrastic stage
- Explain how first words are used and understood

Around 12 months, most children produce their first true words — words used consistently with meaning, such as mama, dada, bye or the name of a favourite toy. The period from about 12 to 18 months is called the holophrastic stage, because the child uses one word at a time to express a whole idea: saying milk might mean I want milk, where is my milk, or I spilled my milk, depending on tone and gesture.

First words are usually names of important people, favourite objects, and social words (hi, bye). Children understand far more than they say — a typical 12-month-old may understand 50+ words but say only a handful. This comprehension–production gap continues throughout development and is very important for teachers to remember: a quiet child may understand much more than she can express.

Early words are often overextended (calling all four-legged animals doggy) or underextended (using doggy only for the family pet). Such errors are not mistakes to punish — they show the child is actively forming categories and testing hypotheses about word meanings, exactly what a little scientist should do.

Key Definitions

Holophrastic stage is defined as the 12–18 month period when children use single words to express whole ideas

Overextension is defined as using a word too broadly, e.g. calling all animals doggy

Comprehension–production gap is defined as the normal pattern that children understand many more words than they can say

Key Points — very important for exams

First words ≈ 12 months; holophrastic stage = one word = one whole message.

Comprehension runs ahead of production at every age — never judge understanding by speech alone.

Overextension/underextension are signs of active learning, not errors to punish.

Review Questions

- ? What is the holophrastic stage? Give two examples.
- ? Explain overextension with an example.

Section Summary

At about one year, single words carry whole messages. Children understand far more than they say, and their word errors reveal active thinking.

Exam Pointers

- Define holophrastic speech and the comprehension–production gap; one example each.

Lecture 5: Two-Word Speech and Telegraphic Speech

Learning Objectives

- Describe two-word utterances
- Explain telegraphic speech and its grammar

Between about 18 and 24 months, children begin combining words: more milk, daddy go, big dog. These two-word utterances follow the word order of the home language (in Urdu, for example, the verb typically comes last) and already show grammar — the child is not just naming things but expressing relations like possession (my toy), action (throw ball) and location (in car).

From about 24 to 30 months, utterances lengthen to three or more words but still omit the small grammatical words — articles, auxiliaries, prepositions — producing telegraphic speech: Daddy go office, me want biscuit. Like a telegram, only the content words survive. This is efficient, not defective: the child keeps the words that carry meaning and drops the rest.

Mean length of utterance (MLU) — the average number of meaningful units per sentence — is the standard measure of grammatical growth in this period. MLU rises from about 1.0 at 18 months to 3.0

or more by age three, giving teachers and clinicians a simple yardstick of progress.

Key Definitions

Telegraphic speech is defined as early multi-word speech containing mainly content words, omitting articles, auxiliaries and inflections

Mean length of utterance (MLU) is defined as the average number of morphemes per utterance, used to measure grammatical development

Key Points — very important for exams

Two-word stage $\approx$ 18–24 months; word order already follows the home language.

Telegraphic speech keeps content words, drops function words — efficient, not wrong.

MLU is the standard measure of early grammatical growth.

Review Questions

- ? Give three examples of telegraphic speech and expand each into adult form.
- ? What is MLU and why is it useful?

Section Summary

Toddlers combine words in correct order but strip sentences to content words. Growing sentence length (MLU) tracks grammatical progress.

Exam Pointers

- Explain telegraphic speech with examples; what does it reveal about the child's grammar?

Lecture 6: Phonological Development: Learning the Sounds

Learning Objectives

- Describe how children master speech sounds
- Identify common simplification patterns

Phonological development is the mastery of a language's sound system. Newborns can hear the sound contrasts of all human languages, but by about 10–12 months perception narrows to the sounds of the home language — a Japanese infant, for example, gradually loses the ability to distinguish English r from l unless exposed to both.

Children do not learn sounds in random order. Vowels and the earliest consonants (p, b, m, t, d) come first; difficult sounds like r, s clusters and th come last, often not until age 5–6. To cope, young children simplify: they drop final consonants (ca for cat), reduce clusters (poon for spoon), and substitute easy sounds for hard ones (wabbit for rabbit). These patterns are systematic and disappear on a predictable timetable.

Most speech-sound errors are developmental and need no treatment — the key word is timetable. A 3-year-old who says wabbit is normal; a 7-year-old with the same pattern may need a speech-language assessment. Teachers should model correct pronunciation naturally (Yes, the rabbit is white) rather than demanding repetition, which only creates anxiety.

Key Definitions

Phonological development is defined as children's progressive mastery of the sound system of their language

Simplification processes is defined as systematic sound changes (dropping, substituting) young children use until adult forms are mastered

Key Points — very important for exams

Sound perception starts universal, then narrows to the home language by ~12 months.

Easy sounds first (p, b, m); hard sounds last (r, clusters, th) — errors follow patterns, not randomness.

Judge sound errors against age norms; model correct forms naturally instead of drilling.

Review Questions

? Name three simplification patterns with examples.

? At what point should a teacher refer a child for speech assessment?

Section Summary

Children master sounds in a fixed order, simplifying difficult ones systematically. Most errors are developmental and fade with age.

Exam Pointers

→ Describe the order of sound acquisition and two simplification processes with examples.

Lecture 7: Morphological Development: Learning Word Endings

Learning Objectives

- Define morphemes
- Describe the order of grammatical morpheme acquisition

Morphology is the system of meaningful word parts. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning: cat has one morpheme, cats has two (cat + plural -s), unhappiness has three. Children's control of these endings is called morphological development, and Roger Brown's classic research showed English-speaking children acquire 14 grammatical morphemes in a remarkably consistent order.

The order is not random: -ing (playing) and plural -s (dogs) appear first, around age two; possessive -s (daddy's), articles (a, the) and past tense -ed come next; third-person singular -s (he walks) and

irregular forms arrive later. Notably, the order follows grammatical complexity, not how often parents say the forms — frequency of input does not predict the sequence.

The famous overregularization error — goed instead of went, foots instead of feet — is actually a sign of progress: the child has discovered the past-tense and plural rules and applies them everywhere, even to exceptions. Such errors show rule-learning in action and should be welcomed as evidence of grammatical thinking, then gently recast by the adult (Yes, he went home).

Key Definitions

Morpheme is defined as the smallest unit of meaning in a language (e.g. un-happy-ness has three)

Overregularization is defined as applying a grammatical rule to exceptions, e.g. goed for went, foots for feet

Key Points — very important for exams

Brown's 14 morphemes are acquired in a fixed order driven by complexity, not input frequency.

Overregularization (goed, foots) proves the child has learned the rule — it is progress, not failure.

Respond with gentle recasts, not correction drills.

Review Questions

? Which morphemes are acquired first and which last?

? Why is overregularization considered a positive sign?

Section Summary

Children master word endings in a fixed, complexity-driven order. Rule overapplication errors prove grammar is being learned.

Exam Pointers

→ Explain Brown's morpheme order and the significance of overregularization.

Lecture 8: Syntactic Development: Building Sentences

Learning Objectives

- Describe how sentence structure grows from age 2 to 6
- Explain complex sentences and common errors

Syntax is the set of rules for arranging words into sentences. Between ages two and three, children move from telegraphic two-word phrases to complete simple sentences with subjects, verbs and the small function words they once dropped: I am going home. Questions and negatives appear, at first in simplified forms (Where daddy go? I no want).

Between three and five, sentences grow dramatically: children add conjunctions (and, because), use embedded clauses (I think that he is coming), and master question forms (Where did daddy go?). By

school entry, most children produce adult-like basic sentences and understand far more complex ones than they produce — the comprehension–production gap again.

Common errors are windows into learning: double negatives (I don't want none), wrong question word order (Where you going?), and overgeneralized passives. Each shows the child testing a hypothesis about sentence rules. Rich conversation — not grammar worksheets — is what moves syntax forward in the early years, which is very important for classroom planning.

Key Definitions

Syntax is defined as the rules governing how words are arranged into phrases and sentences

Key Points — very important for exams

Age 2–3: complete simple sentences, early questions/negatives; age 3–5: conjunctions, embedded clauses, correct question forms.

Sentence errors reveal hypothesis-testing about rules — they are learning in progress.

Conversation, not worksheets, builds syntax in young children.

Review Questions

? Trace syntactic growth from age 2 to age 5.

? Give two typical syntactic errors and explain what each reveals.

Section Summary

Sentence structure grows from simple to complex between ages two and five, driven by rich conversational interaction.

Exam Pointers

→ Describe syntactic milestones of ages 2–5 with examples of typical errors.

Lecture 9: Semantic Development: Learning Word Meanings

Learning Objectives

- Explain how vocabulary grows
- Describe how children learn word meanings

Semantics concerns word meaning. Vocabulary growth is explosive: from about 50 words at 18 months, children reach roughly 200–300 words by age two and then add new words at a stunning rate — estimates suggest 5–10 new words per day during the preschool years, reaching several thousand by school entry. Much of this happens through fast mapping: learning a word's approximate meaning from a single exposure.

Children do not just collect words; they organize them. Early meanings are built on perception and function (a ball is round and for throwing), then gradually refined through experience and adult

feedback. Semantic networks grow: dog connects to animal, pet, bark, puppy. Teachers expand these networks through categorization games, sorting activities and rich read-alouds.

The quality of input matters enormously. Research shows children in language-rich homes hear millions more words than children in language-poor homes, and the gap predicts later school achievement. This finding places a direct responsibility on preschools and schools: classrooms must be word-rich environments, especially for children who hear fewer words at home.

Key Definitions

Semantics is defined as the study of word and sentence meaning

Fast mapping is defined as learning a word's approximate meaning after only one or two exposures

Key Points — very important for exams

Vocabulary explodes after 18 months: ~50 words → thousands by school entry, via fast mapping.

Word meanings start perceptual and become organized into semantic networks.

Very important: input quantity/quality gaps predict school success — classrooms must be word-rich.

Review Questions

- ? What is fast mapping? Give an example.
- ? Why does the word-gap research matter for teachers?

Section Summary

Children add words at an astonishing rate and organize them into networks. Rich classroom language input is a powerful equalizer.

Exam Pointers

- Explain vocabulary growth and fast mapping; discuss implications of the word gap for schools.

Lecture 10: Pragmatic Development: Using Language Socially

Learning Objectives

- Define pragmatics
- Describe how conversational skills develop

Pragmatics is the social use of language — knowing what to say, to whom, when and how. A child may speak grammatically perfect sentences yet still be a poor communicator if she cannot take turns, stay on topic, or adjust her speech for a baby sister versus a teacher. Pragmatic skill is what makes language socially effective.

Pragmatic milestones unfold across childhood: toddlers learn turn-taking in proto-conversations; preschoolers learn to stay on topic, repair misunderstandings (Huh? → rephrasing) and use polite

forms (please, thank you); school-age children master storytelling structure, humor, sarcasm and adjusting speech to the listener — simpler words for a younger child, respectful forms for elders.

Classrooms are pragmatics laboratories. Group discussions, role play, show-and-tell and collaborative tasks all exercise turn-taking, listening and audience awareness. Children with weak pragmatic skills — common in autism spectrum conditions — especially benefit from explicit coaching: visual turn-taking cues, scripted greetings and structured pair work.

Key Definitions

Pragmatics is defined as the social rules governing appropriate language use in context

Key Points — very important for exams

Pragmatics = using language appropriately: turn-taking, topic maintenance, listener adjustment.

Develops from proto-conversation (toddler) to humor, sarcasm and audience design (school age).

Group work, role play and show-and-tell are direct pragmatics training.

Review Questions

- ? Give three examples of pragmatic skills at different ages.
- ? How can a teacher support a child with weak pragmatic skills?

Section Summary

Knowing grammar is not enough — children must learn the social rules of conversation, and classrooms are ideal places to practise them.

Exam Pointers

- Define pragmatics and trace its development with age-wise examples.

Lecture 11: Theories of Language Development I: Behaviorist and Nativist Views

Learning Objectives

- Explain Skinner's behaviorist account
- Explain Chomsky's nativist account

B. F. Skinner's behaviorist theory treats language as learned behaviour shaped by the environment. Children imitate the speech they hear; correct utterances are reinforced (praise, attention, getting what they asked for) and incorrect ones fade. On this view, parents are trainers and language is a chain of stimulus–response habits built up word by word.

Noam Chomsky attacked this view with the poverty of the stimulus argument: children hear limited, often ungrammatical speech, yet by age four they command complex grammar and can produce sentences they have never heard. Imitation and reinforcement cannot explain this creativity. Chomsky

proposed that children are born with a Language Acquisition Device containing universal grammar — the shared blueprint of all human languages — and simply set its parameters (word order, etc.) from the speech around them.

Each theory captures part of the truth. Behaviorism correctly emphasizes input, imitation and feedback — all visible in real parent–child interaction. Nativism correctly explains the speed, uniformity and creativity of acquisition. Modern teaching draws on both: provide rich models and feedback (behaviorist insight) while trusting the child's built-in capacity to extract patterns (nativist insight).

Key Definitions

Poverty of the stimulus is defined as Chomsky's argument that children's input is too limited to explain their grammatical creativity without innate help

Universal grammar is defined as the hypothesized innate set of grammatical principles shared by all human languages

Key Points — very important for exams

Skinner: language = reinforced imitation; parents as trainers.

Chomsky: LAD + universal grammar; poverty of the stimulus proves input alone is insufficient.

Teaching implication: rich input and feedback matter, and so does trusting the child's pattern-finding mind.

Review Questions

- ? State the poverty of the stimulus argument in your own words.
- ? What does each theory imply for how a teacher should talk to children?

Section Summary

Behaviorism explains the role of input and feedback; nativism explains speed and creativity. Good teaching uses both insights.

Exam Pointers

- Compare Skinner and Chomsky on language acquisition; evaluate with the poverty of the stimulus argument.

Lecture 12: Theories of Language Development II: Cognitive and Interactionist Views

Learning Objectives

- Explain Piaget's and Vygotsky's views
- Describe the interactionist synthesis

Jean Piaget saw language as one expression of general cognitive development: thought comes first, language follows. On this view, a child cannot use words for concepts she has not yet constructed through sensorimotor experience — you cannot teach conservation or abstract time-words before the underlying thinking is ready. The teaching implication is to match language demands to the child's cognitive stage.

Lev Vygotsky reversed the emphasis: language, learned socially, becomes the tool of thought itself. Children first use private speech (talking aloud to guide themselves), which gradually goes underground as inner speech — verbal thinking. His zone of proximal development describes what a child can do with adult guidance today and alone tomorrow; skilled scaffolding — questions, hints, modelling — moves language and thought forward together.

The interactionist synthesis, associated with researchers like Jerome Bruner, holds that biology, cognition and social interaction all contribute. Bruner's Language Acquisition Support System (LASS) describes how caregivers fine-tune their speech — routines, games, expansions — to pull the child into language. For teachers, this is the most practical theory: be the LASS in your classroom through responsive, scaffolded conversation.

Key Definitions

Zone of proximal development is defined as the gap between what a child can do alone and with guidance; the space where teaching works best

Scaffolding is defined as temporary adult support (hints, modelling, questions) adjusted to the child's level and then withdrawn

Key Points — very important for exams

Piaget: cognition first, language follows — match demands to thinking level.

Vygotsky: social language becomes thought; teach in the ZPD through scaffolding.

Bruner's LASS: caregivers' tuned interaction is the engine — teachers should provide it daily.

Review Questions

? Contrast Piaget and Vygotsky on the relation between language and thought.

? Give two classroom examples of scaffolding a child's language.

Section Summary

Cognition shapes language (Piaget), language shapes cognition (Vygotsky), and tuned social interaction drives both (interactionists).

Exam Pointers

→ Compare cognitive and interactionist theories; explain ZPD and scaffolding with classroom examples.

Lecture 13: Bilingual and Multilingual Development

Learning Objectives

- Describe how children learn two languages
- Address myths about bilingualism

In Pakistan, most children grow up with two or more languages — a home language (Punjabi, Saraiki, Pashto, Sindhi...), Urdu, and English at school. Research is reassuring: young children can acquire two languages simultaneously without confusion, provided each language gets sufficient, meaningful input. Bilingual children may mix languages in one sentence (code-mixing), but this follows grammatical rules and is not a sign of confusion.

Common myths must be confronted. Myth one: bilingualism causes language delay. Fact: bilingual children's total vocabulary (across both languages) matches or exceeds monolinguals'; each single language may look slightly smaller, which is normal. Myth two: parents should drop the home language. Fact: a strong first language supports the second — concepts learned in Punjabi transfer to Urdu and English. Abandoning the mother tongue harms both identity and learning.

For schools, the implications are very important. Respect and use the home language as a bridge; allow translanguaging (strategic use of both languages) in early classes; never punish a child for speaking her mother tongue; and assess language ability in the child's strongest language before labelling her slow. Additive bilingualism — adding school languages while keeping the home language — is the goal.

Key Definitions

Code-mixing is defined as using elements of two languages within one utterance, following systematic rules

Additive bilingualism is defined as learning a second language while maintaining and valuing the first

Key Points — very important for exams

Children can learn two languages simultaneously; code-mixing is systematic, not confusion.

Myths busted: bilingualism does not cause delay; dropping the home language hurts learning.

Schools should practise additive bilingualism: bridge from mother tongue, never punish it.

Review Questions

- ? Refute two common myths about bilingual children with evidence.
- ? What is additive bilingualism and how can a school support it?

Section Summary

Multilingualism is an asset, not a problem. Strong home languages build strong school languages.

Exam Pointers

- Discuss myths and realities of bilingual development; give school-level recommendations.

Lecture 14: Language and Thought: Does Language Shape Thinking?

Learning Objectives

- Explain the relationship between language and thought
- Describe the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis

Do we think in words, or do words merely express pre-existing thoughts? The strong version of the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis (linguistic determinism) claims language determines thought: speakers of different languages literally think differently because their grammars carve up reality differently. Few researchers accept this strong claim today.

The weak version (linguistic relativity) has better support: language influences habitual attention and memory. Classic examples include colour terms (languages divide the spectrum differently, affecting colour memory tasks) and spatial language (some languages use absolute directions — north/south — instead of left/right, and their speakers navigate differently). Grammar nudges thought; it does not imprison it.

For child development, the practical link runs through Vygotsky: language becomes a tool for thinking. Children who can label, categorize and narrate reason better, remember more and regulate their behaviour more effectively. Teaching children rich, precise vocabulary is therefore not decoration — it directly upgrades their thinking tools.

Key Definitions

Linguistic determinism is defined as the strong Whorfian claim that language determines thought

Linguistic relativity is defined as the weaker, supported claim that language influences habitual thought patterns

Key Points — very important for exams

Strong Whorf (language determines thought): largely rejected; weak Whorf (language influences thought): supported.

Language as a thinking tool (Vygotsky): labels and narratives improve reasoning, memory and self-regulation.

Teaching vocabulary = upgrading children's thinking tools.

Review Questions

- ? Distinguish linguistic determinism from linguistic relativity.
- ? How does language function as a tool of thought in Vygotsky's view?

Section Summary

Language does not dictate thought, but it powerfully shapes attention, memory and reasoning — vocabulary teaching is thinking teaching.

Exam Pointers

→ Evaluate the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis with examples; link to classroom vocabulary work.

Lecture 15: Play and Language Development

Learning Objectives

- Explain the link between play and language
- Describe teacher roles in play-based language learning

Play is the natural habitat of early language. In pretend play — running a shop, playing doctor, acting out a story — children use language to assign roles (You be the customer), negotiate plots (Then the robber comes), sustain imaginary worlds and resolve disputes. Research consistently finds that rich pretend play predicts stronger narrative skill, vocabulary and pragmatic competence.

Different play types feed different language skills. Constructive play (blocks, puzzles) invites spatial and causal language (on top, because it falls); sociodramatic play invites dialogue, negotiation and storytelling; games with rules invite precise instructional language and turn-taking talk. Outdoor play adds action vocabulary and peer negotiation at scale.

The teacher's role is to enrich, not direct. Provide props and themes that invite talk (a market stall, a clinic corner); join play briefly to model rich language (The customer wants three red apples, please); ask open questions (What will happen next?); and protect long, uninterrupted play periods — language needs time to unfold. A classroom with no real play is a classroom starving language.

Key Definitions

Sociodramatic play is defined as pretend play with peers involving roles, dialogue and negotiated storylines

Key Points — very important for exams

Pretend play builds narrative skill, vocabulary and pragmatics — it predicts later language strength.

Different play types feed different language: constructive → spatial/causal; sociodramatic → dialogue/narrative.

Teacher role: enrich with props and modelling, ask open questions, protect long play periods.

Review Questions

- ? How does sociodramatic play develop narrative skill?
- ? List three teacher moves that enrich language during play.

Section Summary

Play is not a break from language learning — it is language learning. Protect it and enrich it.

Exam Pointers

→ Explain the play–language link with play types and teacher strategies.

Lecture 16: Stories, Rhymes and Songs as Language Tools

Learning Objectives

- Explain why stories build language
- Use rhymes and songs purposefully

Storytelling is humanity's oldest language classroom. A well-told story exposes children to vocabulary far beyond daily conversation, models narrative structure (beginning–middle–end, problem–resolution), and exercises comprehension (predicting, inferring motives) and expression (retelling). Dialogic reading — where the adult asks the child to predict, explain and retell — multiplies these benefits and is among the best-evidenced early interventions.

Rhymes and songs are phonological training disguised as fun. Rhyming sensitizes children to sound patterns (a direct predictor of later reading success); songs with actions pair words with meanings and memory hooks; repetitive refrains let shy children join in safely. In multilingual Pakistani classrooms, rhymes in Urdu and the home language build sound awareness that transfers to English literacy.

Practical routines: a daily story time with prediction pauses (What do you think will happen?); a rhyme-of-the-week displayed with pictures; song-based transitions (a tidy-up song teaches sequencing vocabulary). Keep a story corner with picture books children can retell to each other — peer retelling is powerful, very important practice.

Key Definitions

Dialogic reading is defined as interactive read-aloud where the adult prompts the child to predict, explain and retell

Key Points — very important for exams

Stories build vocabulary, narrative structure and comprehension; dialogic reading multiplies the effect.

Rhymes train sound awareness (predicts reading); songs anchor vocabulary in memory.

Daily routines: story time with prediction pauses, rhyme of the week, peer retelling corner.

Review Questions

- ? What is dialogic reading? Demonstrate with a sample story interaction.
- ? Why do rhymes predict later reading success?

Section Summary

Stories, rhymes and songs are precision tools for vocabulary, narrative and sound awareness — use them daily and interactively.

Exam Pointers

→ Explain how stories and rhymes build language; describe dialogic reading with an example.

Lecture 17: Emergent Literacy: From Talk to Print

Learning Objectives

- Define emergent literacy
- Describe pre-reading and pre-writing milestones

Emergent literacy is the insight that reading and writing begin long before formal instruction — in lap reading, scribbles, and pretend writing. Children who are read to daily arrive at school knowing how books work: print runs left to right, pictures relate to words, stories have structure. This print awareness is the launchpad of literacy.

Oral language is the engine of literacy. Vocabulary size at age four predicts reading comprehension at age ten; narrative skill predicts writing quality; phonological awareness (hearing rhymes, syllables, first sounds) predicts decoding success. Every language activity in this course is therefore also a literacy activity — the two cannot be separated.

Teachers build emergent literacy by surrounding children with print (labels, charts, a print-rich corner), reading aloud daily with finger-tracking, encouraging invented spelling and scribble-stories without correcting form, and playing sound games (clap the syllables in your name). Never rush formal reading drills before oral language is strong — a rich talker becomes a strong reader.

Key Definitions

Emergent literacy is defined as the pre-formal skills and understandings about print that develop through early language experience

Phonological awareness is defined as the ability to hear and manipulate sound units: rhymes, syllables and phonemes

Key Points — very important for exams

Literacy begins before school: print awareness grows from being read to.

Oral language predicts literacy: vocabulary → comprehension; phonological awareness → decoding.

Build it with print-rich rooms, daily read-alouds, sound games — never drill reading before talk is strong.

Review Questions

- ? What is emergent literacy? Give four pre-literacy behaviours.
- ? How does oral language predict later reading?

Section Summary

Talk comes first, print follows. Rich oral language in preschool is the most reliable reading preparation.

Exam Pointers

→ Define emergent literacy and explain the oral-language-to-literacy pathway with predictors.

Lecture 18: Language Disorders and Delays: Recognition

Learning Objectives

- Identify warning signs of language delay
- Distinguish delay from disorder

Most children follow the milestones in this handout, but some need extra help. Warning signs teachers should know: no babbling by 12 months, no single words by 16 months, no two-word phrases by 24 months, loss of previously acquired language at any age, persistent stuttering beyond age five, or a marked gap between understanding and the expected level. Any regression — losing words — needs immediate referral.

A language delay means development follows the normal path but slowly; with support, the child often catches up. A language disorder (such as developmental language disorder, DLD) means the pattern itself is atypical — for example, severe grammatical difficulty despite normal intelligence and hearing — and needs specialist speech-language therapy. Hearing loss is the first suspect in any language concern: even mild, fluctuating hearing loss from ear infections can derail language.

Teachers are often the first to notice. Document what you observe (dates, examples), speak to parents sensitively without diagnosing, and refer to a speech-language pathologist or developmental paediatrician. Early intervention — before age five — dramatically improves outcomes, which makes teacher awareness very important indeed.

Key Definitions

Language delay is defined as language developing along the normal path but at a slower pace

Developmental language disorder (DLD) is defined as persistent, atypical difficulty learning language despite normal hearing and intelligence

Key Points — very important for exams

Red flags: no words by 16 months, no phrases by 24 months, any loss of language, stuttering past age 5.

Delay = slow but normal path; disorder = atypical pattern needing specialist therapy.

Check hearing first; document, inform parents sensitively, refer early — early help works best.

Review Questions

- ? List five warning signs of language difficulty.
- ? How does a delay differ from a disorder? What is the teacher's role?

Section Summary

Teachers are the early-warning system for language problems. Know the red flags, check hearing, refer early.

Exam Pointers

→ Describe warning signs of language delay/disorder and the teacher's referral role.

Lecture 19: Supporting Children with Language Difficulties in Class

Learning Objectives

- Apply classroom strategies for language support
- Describe inclusive practices

While specialists diagnose and treat, the classroom teacher provides daily support that matters enormously. The core principle is to increase comprehensible, responsive interaction: get down to the child's eye level, follow her interests, talk about what she is attending to, and pause to let her respond — waiting 5–10 seconds feels long but is often what a struggling child needs.

Proven techniques include modelling and expansion (child: car go; teacher: Yes, the red car is going fast), visual supports (picture schedules, choice boards, labelled shelves) that reduce the load on verbal memory, and structured small-group or pair activities where the child gets many safe speaking turns. Simplify instructions (one step at a time, show as well as tell) and check understanding privately rather than putting the child on the spot.

For stuttering, the key adult behaviours are unhurried listening, normal eye contact, and never finishing the child's sentences or telling her to slow down — pressure worsens stuttering. For bilingual children, assess in the stronger language before concluding there is a problem, and remember that quietness in a new school language is a normal silent period, not a disorder.

Key Definitions

Expansion is defined as repeating a child's utterance in fuller adult form, e.g. car go → the red car is going fast

Key Points — very important for exams

Core principle: responsive, unhurried interaction at the child's level with real wait time.

Use expansions, visual supports, small safe speaking groups, simplified one-step instructions.

Stuttering: listen calmly, never finish sentences; bilingual quietness: check strongest language first.

Review Questions

- ? Demonstrate modelling and expansion with three child utterances.
- ? What should adults avoid doing when a child stutters?

Section Summary

Daily classroom interaction — responsive, visual, unhurried — is powerful therapy-support no specialist can replace.

Exam Pointers

→ Describe five classroom strategies for supporting a child with language difficulties.

Lecture 20: Assessing Children's Language: Observation and Tools

Learning Objectives

- Describe informal assessment methods
- Explain when formal assessment is needed

Teachers assess language continuously and informally: observing who initiates conversation, noting MLU in free play, collecting language samples (a few minutes of recorded play talk), and keeping checklists of milestones. A language sample analysed for vocabulary diversity, sentence length and error patterns tells more than any single test score.

Structured tools exist — vocabulary checklists for parents, picture-naming tests, narrative retelling tasks — but formal standardized testing belongs to speech-language pathologists and psychologists, who can distinguish disorder from difference (for example, a dialect feature versus an error). Teachers contribute the crucial classroom evidence: how the child communicates with peers, follows instructions and handles curriculum language.

Assessment must be fair across languages: a child tested only in Urdu when her strongest language is Saraiki will look weaker than she is. Dynamic assessment — teach a new word or rule briefly, then test — is especially useful: children with disorders profit less from the teaching phase than typically developing peers, revealing learning potential rather than just current performance.

Key Definitions

Language sample is defined as a recorded stretch of natural speech analysed for vocabulary, grammar and pragmatics

Dynamic assessment is defined as test–teach–retest procedure measuring how much a child profits from brief instruction

Key Points — very important for exams

Informal tools: observation, checklists, language samples — often more informative than single test scores.

Formal diagnosis belongs to specialists; teachers supply classroom communication evidence.

Assess in the strongest language; dynamic assessment reveals learning potential.

Review Questions

? How would you collect and use a language sample?

? Why is dynamic assessment fairer for bilingual children?

Section Summary

Good assessment starts with careful observation in natural settings and stays fair across the child's languages.

Exam Pointers

→ Describe informal language assessment methods and the teacher's role in formal referral.

Lecture 21: The Teacher's Talk: Classroom Strategies That Build Language

Learning Objectives

- Apply evidence-based teacher language strategies
- Plan a language-rich classroom

The single most powerful tool in this course is the teacher's own talk. Effective teacher talk is abundant but tuned: narrate classroom life (Now we are pouring the blue paint), ask open questions (What do you notice about these leaves?), expand children's utterances, and think aloud (I wonder why the tower fell — maybe the base was too narrow). This running commentary bathes children in well-formed, meaningful language all day.

Conversational turn-taking matters more than teacher monologue. Research on serve-and-return interaction shows that back-and-forth exchanges — even brief ones — predict language growth far better than the sheer number of adult words. Practical moves: pause after questions, respond to every genuine initiation, and run daily small-group discussions where each child must speak and listen.

A language-rich classroom is also physically rich: labelled interest areas, a stocked book corner, writing materials everywhere, displays of children's dictated stories, and a daily schedule with protected time for play, story and discussion. Audit your room against a simple question — does every child get real conversational turns every day? — and adjust until the answer is yes.

Key Definitions

Serve and return is defined as back-and-forth adult–child exchanges (initiation → response → extension) that build neural and language growth

Key Points — very important for exams

Teacher talk should narrate, question openly, expand and think aloud — tuned to children's level.

Serve-and-return exchanges predict growth better than adult word counts; protect daily discussion time.

A language-rich room: labels, books, writing tools, dictated stories, guaranteed conversational turns.

Review Questions

- ? Give four examples of effective teacher talk in a preschool morning.
- ? What is serve and return, and why does it matter more than word counts?

Section Summary

The teacher's responsive, abundant talk — in real back-and-forth conversation — is the strongest language intervention available.

Exam Pointers

- Describe evidence-based teacher strategies for building classroom language, with examples.

Glossary of Key Terms

Language development — the process through which children learn to understand and produce language for communication

Speech — the physical, spoken production of language sounds

Communication — any exchange of meaning between people, including gestures, expressions and words

Nature position — the view that language ability is largely inborn and biologically programmed

Nurture position — the view that language is learned from the environment through imitation and reinforcement

Prelinguistic stage — the period from birth to about 12 months when children communicate without true words

Babbling — repetitive consonant–vowel syllables (e.g. ba-ba-ba) produced around 4–6 months in all cultures

Joint attention — child and adult focusing on the same object, often established through pointing

Holophrastic stage — the 12–18 month period when children use single words to express whole ideas

Overextension — using a word too broadly, e.g. calling all animals doggy

Comprehension–production gap — the normal pattern that children understand many more words than they can say

Telegraphic speech — early multi-word speech containing mainly content words, omitting articles, auxiliaries and inflections

Mean length of utterance (MLU) — the average number of morphemes per utterance, used to measure grammatical development

Phonological development — children's progressive mastery of the sound system of their language

Simplification processes — systematic sound changes (dropping, substituting) young children use until adult forms are mastered

Morpheme — the smallest unit of meaning in a language (e.g. un-happy-ness has three)

Overregularization — applying a grammatical rule to exceptions, e.g. goed for went, foots for feet

Syntax — the rules governing how words are arranged into phrases and sentences

Semantics — the study of word and sentence meaning

Fast mapping — learning a word's approximate meaning after only one or two exposures

Pragmatics — the social rules governing appropriate language use in context

Poverty of the stimulus — Chomsky's argument that children's input is too limited to explain their grammatical creativity without innate help

Universal grammar — the hypothesized innate set of grammatical principles shared by all human languages

Zone of proximal development — the gap between what a child can do alone and with guidance; the space where teaching works best

Scaffolding — temporary adult support (hints, modelling, questions) adjusted to the child's level and then withdrawn

Code-mixing — using elements of two languages within one utterance, following systematic rules

Additive bilingualism — learning a second language while maintaining and valuing the first

Linguistic determinism — the strong Whorfian claim that language determines thought

Linguistic relativity — the weaker, supported claim that language influences habitual thought patterns

Sociodramatic play — pretend play with peers involving roles, dialogue and negotiated storylines

Dialogic reading — interactive read-aloud where the adult prompts the child to predict, explain and retell

Emergent literacy — the pre-formal skills and understandings about print that develop through early language experience

Phonological awareness — the ability to hear and manipulate sound units: rhymes, syllables and phonemes

Language delay — language developing along the normal path but at a slower pace

Developmental language disorder (DLD) — persistent, atypical difficulty learning language despite normal hearing and intelligence

Expansion — repeating a child's utterance in fuller adult form, e.g. car go → the red car is going fast

Language sample — a recorded stretch of natural speech analysed for vocabulary, grammar and pragmatics

Dynamic assessment — test–teach–retest procedure measuring how much a child profits from brief instruction

Serve and return — back-and-forth adult–child exchanges (initiation → response → extension) that build neural and language growth