

SPEECH OF PRESCHOOL CHILDREN AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS FROM VRANJE FROM THE STANDPOINT OF URBAN DIALECTOLOGY

UDC 811.163.411'282.2(497.11Vranje); 81'233-053.4; 81'233-053.5

Dragana Stanković

Pedagogical Faculty in Vranje, University of Niš, Vranje, Serbia

Abstract. *This paper has analyzed speech of preschool and elementary school children from Vranje, based on the principles of urban dialectology. Firstly, the frequency of use of the dialect forms of certain linguistic features was established by calculating the frequency index (FI), and secondly, it was investigated which non-linguistic factors affected this frequency of occurrence – age, gender, education level of both parents, place of residence, attendance at preschool or school. The results of the analysis indicate the violation and inconsistency of use of the Prizren-South Morava area dialect used by youngsters from Vranje. All of the analyzed properties show that the forms used vary - they are alternately used in dialectical and standard language form. The first dialect feature that changes is the doubling of object pronouns. A dialect property of accentuation and the use of casus generalis is rather stable. The property that is most difficult to change in children's speech is future tense structure (using the clitic "će"). Non-linguistic factors affect the frequency of use of dialect forms, but to a lesser extent. Age is the only non-linguistic variable that does not affect the language used by children from Vranje – the use of dialect forms of the analyzed linguistic features does not decrease with age. The level of parents' education has the strongest effect, while gender has the smallest influence on the language used by the respondents. This research has provided an insight into the language used by children, their linguistic habits and it has shown which linguistic properties are not difficult to learn and which are more difficult to adopt, which can further on help improve Serbian language teaching. Moreover, this research appears to be justified and significant for further research in the field of urban dialectology.*

Key words: *language of children, urban dialectology, dialect forms, frequency, non-linguistic factors*

Received March 14, 2018/Accepted June 18, 2018

Corresponding author: Dragana Stanković

Pedagogical Faculty in Vranje, University of Niš, Partizanska 14, 11500 Vranje, Serbia

Phone: +381 17 421 633 • E-mail: gagat79@gmail.com

1. THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Large migrations of the rural population into the city happened in the second half of the 20th century. Thanks to the education system, mass media, mobility of the population and various contacts, the number of standard language properties in the dialects increased. Social changes put a number of new questions in front of the dialectologists, imposed a new research subject, new approaches and methods. As the number of people who live in urban areas increases, it is necessary to analyze the urban language and to track very intensive language changes in urban areas. Urban language is the subject of a new branch of dialectology – urban dialectology.

The studies based on the principles of urban dialectology focus on urban language and its structure as a system used by speakers with certain specific social characteristics: gender, age, background, education, national and religious affiliation, etc. Urban dialectology investigates the correlation between linguistic and social factors and, with regard to these, the social and functional stratification of language in urban areas, as well as differentiation depending on social parameters. Age, gender, social class and ethnic group are considered as equally important factors as the geographical area. The use of language varies depending on age, gender, level of education, social status, as well as depending on the person one talks to, the speech situation and social context. Young people talk in one, older generations talk in another way; people with higher education level talk in one way, while does with lower education level speak in a different way. This is why there are many different varieties – generational, educational, gender. Moreover, someone will speak in one way to one person and in one situation, while that same person will speak in a different manner to someone else in a different situation, which in fact means that an individual uses a series of variations that are generally consciously controlled and can be used whenever the situation requires so. That is why the respondents should come from all social and age groups, and the specifics of their speech and language used that are expressed in various ways are tracked in the following scenarios: the official use of language, for example, in the media; the unofficial, spontaneous situations, and in particular language used during the interaction between the dialect language and the standard language. By emphasizing that language form to be used depends on a series of social, non-linguistic factors and speech situation, urban dialectology heavily relies on the sociolinguistic approach to language research. The first ones who showed interest in researching the urban language were Russian and French scientists in the 1920s and 1930s (Jutronić-Tihomirović, 1983), but only in the 1960s did the studies by the American linguist William Labov set the foundations for urban dialectology. This is also when Serbian linguists Ranko Bugarski and Milka Ivić were among the first ones to emphasize the need and importance to research urban language¹. Following their path, other linguist followed and studied the urban language – Dušan Jović (1976, 1978, 1979, 1982, 1983), Milorad Radovanović (1980, 1982, 1986, 1997), Pavle Ivić (1986). The elements of urban dialectology can be found in the 1920s in the paper by Miloš Moskovljević, while a more consistent use of this methodology can only be seen at the end of the 20th and the beginning of the 21st century (Ljubiša Rajić, Thomas Magner, Paul-Louis Thomas, Stanislav Stanković, *Language of Novi Sad* publication (original: *Govor Novog Sada*). Tatjana Trajković (2016) emphasizes the need and possibility to examine the language of urban areas on the territory of Prizren and Timok dialect area.

¹ R. Bugarski 1983 and Ivić 1997.

From the point of view of urban dialectology and sociolinguistics, age is an important variable when studying language. Changes in language are visible at the generation level. Researchers mostly analyze the speech of three age groups with 20 years age difference among these groups (see: Stanković, 2017, 114). However, children's language is the least studied and researched (see: Stanković, 2017, 114-115). Language used by children from urban areas is very suitable for many dialectological studies. The study of the language of the youngest population of a linguistic area gives insight into many linguistic changes, especially the changes concerning the dialect system – how a dialect changes under the influence of the standard language, which dialect properties change first, and which show greater stability, etc.

2. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF RESEARCH

The subject of this scientific study is the language used by preschool and elementary school children from Vranje. We have decided to research the language used by Vranje children, because the language of the youngest population has been studied the least, but exactly all changes that occur in a language are most evident from the language used by the youngest population from a linguistic area, because it contains the hints, the impulses of the evolution and changes of a language.

We have tracked and researched the following linguistic variables in children's language: the accent position, semivowel, negative form of the auxiliary verb *to be* in present tense, sound *h*, final *l* in the past active participle, pronouns and adverbs with the final *j* (examples: *koj, toj, nikoj, takoj, ovakoj*), clitic pronouns, comparison of adjectives, past active participle of the verbs with the base verb ending in *-nu*, third-person plural present tense, future tense structure, object pronoun doubling, noun declensions.

Linguistic variable is seen as “a unit with at least two variant forms, the choice of which depends on different factors” (Crystal, 1987, 32).

The goal of the study of language spoken by Vranje preschool and elementary school children was to identify the frequency of use of the analyzed dialect properties, and then to determine, based on the obtained frequency, which characteristics are the most resistant to change. Furthermore, we wished to find out how is the frequency of use of dialect forms influenced by non-linguistic factors. The research focused on the following independent variables: student age, gender, education level of both parents, place of residence (town center/ outskirts), preschool and school (non) attendance.

Language of 40 examinees of different age, gender, place of residence, parents' education level was analyzed. Since the subject of the survey was urban language, respondents were children born and raised in Vranje and whose parents were born and raised in Vranje. Based on their age, the respondents were divided into three groups – children of pre-school age (16 respondents), children of school age from first to fourth grade (12 respondents) and children of school age from fifth to eighth grade (12 respondents).

The research material was collected using the spontaneous conversation method. In order to encourage the respondents to use the daily, informal language as much as possible, the discussion focused on various topics the respondents were familiar with. The examiner tried to be as relaxed as possible and to talk to them using the dialect. In addition, if some important detail was not obtained during the spontaneous conversation, the respondents directly answered additional questions, and described the drawings with

specific instructions by the examiner in the form of questions which provide the required language trait. The youngest respondents also described drawings from coloring books and books. Recorded interviews lasted from one to two hours, that is, two school lessons with children of school age. The conversation was recorded using a voice recorder without the knowledge of respondents.

The frequency of dialect properties was identified by calculating the frequency index (FI) of dialect forms using the following formula: the number of dialect forms recorded is firstly divided by a set of dialect and standard language forms, and then multiplied by 100²:

$$FI = \frac{\text{dialect forms}}{\text{dialect and standard language forms}} \cdot 100$$

The calculated frequency index value will show how frequent is the use of the dialect forms of the linguistic features being analyzed – higher FI indicates a more frequent use of dialect forms. The results obtained were interpreted using the descriptive analysis method and presented using a chart with comments.

3. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

All of the linguistic features analyzed appeared in both the standard language and dialect form. The ratio between standard and dialect forms used by respondents varied depending on whether he or she paid more or less attention while speaking. When a person consciously tries to bring his/her speech and language closer to the standard language, and to use the standard language form instead of the dialect form, such language is called *corrected language*³. More or less, the respondents correct the language they use, that is, they try to bring their speech closer to the language standard, depending on different factors⁴. The respondents use standard language much more at the very beginning of the conversation, when they see the examiner for the first time. As the time passes, respondents relax and use more dialect forms. The ratio between standard

² This formula was used by Dunja Jutronić-Tihomirović (1986, 1988–1989), and then by Žarko Bošnjaković (2009) to investigate urban idioms

³ W. Labov uses the term *controlled speech* to explain the language used in an official interview, when a respondent answers the questions, as opposed to the familiar, spontaneous language used in everyday life, when language itself is not the subject of attention (Labov, 1976, 139, 146). V. Vasić deals with the phenomenon of autoregulation which implies “the controlled use of one of two idioms, in this case the dialect and standardized idiom” (Vasić, 1992). B. Kovacević (2005) approaches the issue of the use of standard language and dialect by a speaker from the aspect of the so-called *code-switching*, which implies the use of two or more different varieties, that is, the selection of the variety suitable for a given situation.

⁴ P. Trudgill believes that the adjustments happen due to the sociopsychological nature - the desire of a speaker not to be different from others and the wish to be understood (Trudgill, 1986, 23). V. Vasić lists various psychosocial factors of autoregulation, that is, adjustment of language to the person one talks to (solidarity, superiority, environment) (Vasić, 1992). Among the most important factors which influence respondents’ language and speech, P. L. Thomas emphasizes the relationship between the informer and the recipient, type of the topic, emotional state of the informer (Thomas, 1998, 433-434). By emphasizing certain sociolinguistic phenomena in the language used by Kajkavians from Boka, a village in Banat, M. Vučković points out that the main reasons why language gets adjusted are to accommodate the person we talk to (recipient), the topic itself and the type of statement (Vučković, 2000). In order to identify the reasons for *code-switching* during a conversation, B. Kovačević recorded a conversation that took place in a shop between a salesman and a buyer from different speaking areas. He noticed *code-switching* during the same discourse, and even during a single sentence, which the researcher believes happened due to emotional reasons or topic change (Kovačević, 2005).

and dialect forms used by respondents also depends on the topic. Therefore, when the respondents talk about everyday situations, recount an event or talk very emotionally about some experience, they use considerably more dialect forms. On the other hand, when they recount a movie, a story, or a lesson from school, the number of standard language forms increases. Moreover, the respondents use more standard language forms when they respond directly to the questions asked and describe the drawings with specific instructions by the examiner in the form of questions that provide the required language trait. During casual speech, dialect forms are mostly used. The ratio between dialect and standard language forms varies from one to another linguistic level. Some dialect features are more, while some others are less stable.

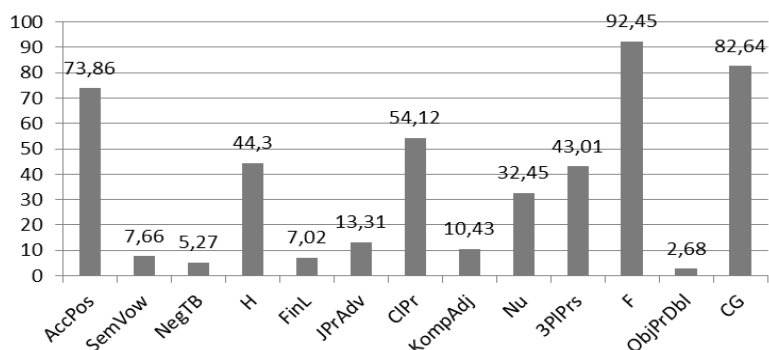
Which language features will be the first to change and why depends on many factors. In accordance with the “fixed route” hypothesis by Trudgill, D. Jutronic-Tihomirović believes that during the adjustment process, the speakers modify those linguistic features which they see as different, most prominent, most striking, socially unacceptable, and he calls them *stigmatized or prominent language features* (1988–1989). William Labov calls such features *markers* (1976, 324–325, 419). Paul-Louis Thomas also talked about the “most prominent properties”: “The most prominent properties, that is, those which are the most characteristic of the Prizren and Timok dialect area (compared to all other Serbia dialects) are the most difficult ones to modify and alter” (1998, 437). Z. Bošnjaković and I. Knjižar (2012) used the principles of prominence and stigmatism when analyzing phonological and morphological changes in language used by Bunjevci from Bajmok and Tavankut.

Paul-Louis Thomas also talks about the level of complexity of language properties as a factor of change – more compact and complex language systems are more difficult to adopt and replace, “the more linguistic units are integrated into the linguistic system, the more they will depend on systematic variation and it will be more difficult for speakers of other linguistic system to adopt them. It is easier to replace one form with another (for example, a lexeme and also a morpheme, as in the case of replacing the analytical comparative with a synthetic comparative), rather than to adopt a syntactic system of cases (when casus generalis has to be replaced with accusative, genitive, dative, instrumental or locative ...)” (Thomas, 1998, 439). Thomas used the terms coined by the English linguist W. N. Francis - *Incidental variation* which refers to the isolated elements of the linguistic system, without disturbing the system itself, while *systematic variation* changes the system “by restructuring it fundamentally” (Ibid. 438).

In addition to the principles of stigmatization or prominence and degree of complexity, linguists emphasize another factor that affects the change in linguistic traits - attitudes toward speech and language. Lj. Rajić claims the following: “Dialects do not die out because dialect speakers got into a car or started going to a city school, but because the “peasant” type of speech is ridiculed, which is why the dialect speakers alter it and reject it because they do not want to be commented upon and ridiculed” (2009, 35). Even the ridicule itself is done based on a hierarchy of linguistic traits – there are linguistic traits that are more and those that are less ridiculed and condemned. Therefore, the errors related to morphology and syntax are more condemned than those relating to prosody, so they get changed faster (Ivić, 1997, 105; Thomas, 1998, 439).

Sociolinguistic studies have shown that morphological and syntactic traits are more susceptible to changes than the phonological ones (Jutronic-Tihomirović, 1988–1989; Rajić, 2009, 42; Bošnjaković & Knjižar, 2012).

Our analysis has shown something slightly different. Graph 1 shows the frequency index of dialect forms for each of the linguistic properties⁵.



Graph 1 Frequency index of the analyzed properties dialect forms

Statistical data show that changes are more likely to affect the phonetic linguistic level. Phonetic features have a low frequency index of dialect forms, that is, they are the first and easiest to get changed and become similar to the standard. Ekavian form of the auxiliary verb *to be* in present tense had the lowest frequency index (FI 5.27), then, the grammatical suffix *-(j)a (<l)* in the masculine form of the attributive verb (FI 7.02), semivowel (FI 7.66) and the particle *j, ja* in pronouns and adverbs (FI 13.31). When it comes to the phonetic features, only the loss of consonant *h* is more frequent (FI 44.33). This consonant is stable in the words of foreign origin and proper nouns, however, it is much less stable in the words which it was originally eliminated from. The loss of consonant *h* is encouraged by the spoken Serbian language, which it is also eliminated from very often. Thus, from the aspect of the stigmatization principle, the loss of the consonant *h* is not a prominent, socially stigmatized characteristic, which is the reason why it occurs very frequently in the language used by Vranje children.

Morphological level shows a somewhat higher degree of stability. Morphological traits occur more frequently in dialect forms. Therefore, when getting closer to the standard language, morphological traits are more difficult to change. Among these, the first one that becomes subject to change is analytical comparison (FI 10.43), then the grammatical suffix *-na* in past active participle (FI 32.45), grammatical suffix *-v* in the third-person plural present tense (FI 43.01), and lastly clitic pronouns (FI 54.12). Future tense *će* form is the most resistant to the influence of the standard language (FI 92.45). Such a high frequency index was obtained in relation to the standard language structure of the future tense which is: *ću raditi/radiću*, which is becoming less and less common in Serbian language, and instead of it, the following future tense structure is used: *ću, ćeš, će + da + present tense*. In their corrected language, the respondents used the future tense

⁵ The following abbreviations were used in the graph: AccPos – accent position, SemVow – semivowel, NegTB – negative form of the auxiliary verb *to be* in present tense, H – consonant *h*, FinL – final *l* in past active participle of masculine gender in singular, JPrAdv – particle *j, ja* in pronouns and adverbs, ClPr – clitic pronouns, KompAdj – comparison of adjectives, Nu – past active participle of the verbs with the base verb ending in *-nu*, 3PIPrs – third-person plural present tense, F – future tense, ObjPrDbl – object pronoun doubling, CG – casus generalis.

structure *ću, ćeš, će + da + present tense* more frequently (329 times), than the standard language structure (67 times).

The dialect accent position, typical of language used in Vranje, as well as the use of casus generalis instead of the dependent cases showed the highest level of stability, and are the most difficult ones to correct and change (FI 73.86 and FI 82.64). The results of our research are consistent with the findings of other researchers - the accents and cases are the most difficult ones to be adopted and learnt by the speakers from the Prizren-Timok dialect area (Moskovljević 1921, 134; Jović, 1983, 50-51; Ivić, 1986, 94; Thomas, 1998, 439). Paul-Louis Thomas claims that these linguistic features are difficult to get adopted because of the complexity of the system and the integrity of its units (1998, 438-439). M. Janjić explains the existence of dialect accents with the psycholinguistic reasons (2016, 372). Another additional explanation could be the claim stated by M. Ivić who says that the preserved dialect prosody is considered to be “the least improper mistake“ (1997, 105).

The lowest frequency index can be seen in a syntactic feature – doubling of the object pronoun (FI 2.68). During the language correction process, this habit gets changed most easily. S. Miloradović (2009, 288) and Paul-Louis Thomas (1998, 313) also confirm that the doubling of the object pronoun rarely occurs in dialect speech. Thomas explains that such type of language that involves very prominent object pronoun doubling can be heard in Nis and its surrounding villages (see footnote 73). Based on the principle of stigmatization or prominence, the doubling of object pronoun is the most prominent and socially “stigmatized” linguistic feature.

Type of language children will use is affected by a variety of factors – by the way their parents and people in their surroundings speak, mass media, teachers, preschool and school curriculum. Contemporary sociolinguistic studies show that language used by children is significantly affected by age, gender, education level of both parents, place of residence, attendance at preschool or school (see Stanković, 2017, 121).

Starting from the above-mentioned observations, and in order to establish the connection between the frequency of use of dialect forms and non-linguistic factors, we have linked their frequency with the following non-linguistic variables: student age, gender, education level of both parents, place of residence (town center/ outskirts), preschool and school (non) attendance. The sample was assembled based on the above-mentioned non-linguistic variables. Based on their age, the respondents were divided into three groups – children of pre-school age, children of school age from first to fourth grade, and children of school age from fifth to eighth grade. Based on gender, there were two groups – girls and boys. Based on their parents' education level, one group included children whose both parents had a university degree, the second group involved children whose one parent had a university degree while the other parent had a high school degree, while the third group included those children whose both parents had high school degrees. Based on their place of residence, one group consisted of children who lived in the town center, while the other group included children who lived in the town outskirts. With regards to preschool age children, one group consisted of children who attended preschool, while the other group included those children who did not attend preschool. Regarding the school level, children were divided into two groups – one group with children who attend preschool and another group with children who go to school. Frequency index of dialect forms was calculated for every group, within each non-linguistic variable. Frequency index of the usage of dialect forms based on age, gender, education level of both parents, place of residence (town center/ outskirts), preschool and school (non) attendance is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Frequency index of the use of dialectal forms with regard to non-linguistic factors

Non-linguistic variables	FI
Age	
Pre-school	39.73
School 1 st to 4 th grade	27.69
School 5 th to 8 th grade	38.05
Sex	
Male	39.13
Female	33.84
Parents' education	
Bachelor's Degree	23.86
Bachelor's Degree/High school diploma	36.45
High school diploma	44.96
Place of residence	
Town center	32.41
Town outskirts	40
Kindergarten	
Attending a kindergarten	36.76
Not attending a kindergarten	51.66
Kindergarten/School	
Attending a kindergarten	36.76
Attending a school	33.04

Age, as a non-linguistic variable does not affect children's language that consistently; usage of dialect forms does not decrease with age. Both the youngest and the oldest group of surveyed children used almost the same amount of dialect forms (FI=39.73 and FI=38.05), and significantly more than the middle age group – children of school age, 1st to 4th grade (FI=27.69). This could be explained with the authority influence.

According to Piaget's theory of moral development, there are two stages of moral thinking - heteronomous morality, where children are completely obedient to adult authority, and autonomous reality, which is a more mature type of morality that starts to develop around ten years of age, when a child begins to change the way of thinking and the attitude towards the social environment. In this second stage, peers play a more important role, while one-way respect for the adult authority is replaced by mutual respect and cooperation (see Miočinović, 2004, 19-26). Accordingly, 1st to 4th grade children are more susceptible to influence by their teacher and school – the teacher is their role model, both concerning behavior and language used. That is why children of this age use the least dialect forms. From the 5th grade onwards, the authority of the school and teachers weakens; children turn to their peers, so the opinion, attitudes, behavior and even the language of the peer group start to be seen as the model. Rebellious attitude towards authorities and socially imposed rules is developed at this age. That also affects language and speech, which is why the amount of dialect forms used increases.

Girls use less dialect forms than boys. Still, the difference in use of dialect forms from gender standpoint is small (FI=39.13 : FI=33.84).

Parents' education level is a factor that significantly affects the use of dialect forms by children. The frequency index decreases with the increase in parents' education level. The difference between the first and the third group (from the education level standpoint) is big (FI=23.86 : FI=44.96).

Place of residence does not significantly affect the usage of dialect forms (FI=32.41 : FI=40). Reason for this is the fact that Vranje is a small town, which is why there are not that many cultural differences between the town center and the outskirts. Our analysis has shown that the difference in use of dialect forms is small, but it still exists.

Preschool (non) attendance significantly affects the use of dialect forms in preschool children. Those children who do not go to preschool use dialect forms more frequently (FI=36.76 : FI=51.66).

The analysis of the influence of the two education institutions in question on the use of dialect forms shows that the effect school has on this is slightly bigger, although schools specifically target children's language and speech in Serbian language grammar lessons (FI=36.76 : FI=33.04). Such a small difference between these two groups is the result of the high FI of the language used by 5th to 8th grade children.

If we compare all the dialect frequency index differences for every non-linguistic variable, we come to a conclusion that parents' education level has the greatest effect on children's language (the difference in frequency indices between the 1st and 3rd education group was 21.1), the next one was preschool attendance (the difference in frequency indices between the children who go to preschool and those who do not go was 14.9). On the other hand, gender (the difference in frequency indices between boys and girls was 5.29) and education institution (the difference in frequency indices between preschool and school was 3.72) had the least effect.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Language used by preschool and school children from Vranje is unstable and turbulent. On the one hand, Prizren-South Morava area dialect shows a relatively high level of consistency – all of the analyzed features were present in the dialect forms used, to a greater or a lesser extent; frequency index of all dialect forms was 61.82. On the other hand, frequency index and variation of forms indicate certain alterations and changes. Exposure to the influence of the standard language caused the dialect used in Vranje to change, which is reflected in the variability of linguistic traits – that is, the dialect and standard language are used alternately. During the language correction process, the first dialect feature that changes is the doubling of the object pronoun. The next ones that succumb to these changes are phonetic, and later on morphological dialect features. The dialect accent position as well as the use of casus generalis instead of dependent cases showed the highest level of stability. Future tense *će* structure is the most resistant to change. Based on the frequency of use, the following hierarchy of dialect features has been established:

1. doubling of the object pronoun (FI 2.68)
2. negative form of the auxiliary verb *to be* in present tense (FI 5.27)
3. grammatical suffix *-(j)a (<l)* in the masculine gender of the past active participle (FI 7.02)
4. semivowel (FI 7.66)
5. analytical comparison (FI 10.43)
6. particle *j, ja* in pronouns and adverbs (FI 13.31)
7. base grammatical suffix *-na* in the past active participle (FI 32.45)
8. grammatical suffix *-v* in the third-person plural present tense (FI 43.01)
9. loss of consonant *h* (FI 44.33)

10. clitic pronouns (FI 54.12)
11. dialect accent position (FI 73.86)
12. use of casus generalis instead of dependent cases (FI 82.64)
13. future tense *će* structure (FI 92.45).

The analysis that was carried out has shown that the frequency of use of dialect forms is affected and influenced by the non-linguistic factors (gender, parents' education level, place of residence, preschool/ school (non) attendance, but only to a small degree. Age is the only non-linguistic variable that does not affect the language of Vranje children – the use of dialect forms of the analyzed linguistic features does not decrease with age. The level of parents' education has the biggest influence, while gender has the smallest influence on the language used by the respondents. School has a big influence between the 1st and 4th grade, while between the 5th and 8th grade that influence significantly decreases. Since the language used by children is very rarely the subject of dialectology studies in Serbia, this particular study of the language used by preschool and school children from Vranje conducted based on the principles of urban dialectology, appears to be justified and significant both for further studies in the field of urban dialectology, and for Serbian language teaching in an area with such a prominent use of the dialect. This research has provided an insight into the language used by children, their linguistic habits and it has shown which linguistic properties are not difficult to learn and which are more difficult to adopt. The research has shown that Prizren and South Morava dialect is relatively stable, that the most difficult linguistic aspects to be adopted and learnt are standard language accent position, synthetic declension system and standard language future tense structure. Curriculum and number of lessons should be modified based on these results, and these linguistic features should be emphasized from the very beginning of the education process. Since the dialect forms of these features are very frequently used, they should be the first ones to get covered during the adoption of standard linguistic forms. According to the region of origin principle, a correlation between dialect and standard linguistic forms is established. Such a comparative approach is in accordance with the principles of differential grammar and with didactic demands that say the teaching starts from the nearer to the farther, from the familiar to the unknown (Marinković, Prvulović, & Tomić 2010, 305). Thus, the way children speak is respected, and children are encouraged to speak freely, without hesitation or fear that they will not speak in accordance with the standard language. Standard language structures could get successfully adopted by organizing more speaking lessons, whose goal and aim would be to practice such skills, while older school children could join linguistics groups and analyze literary works written in the local dialect. Since preschools do not have Serbian lessons, adoption of standard language structures should take place through well-organized speaking lessons, and through continuous, spontaneous, and unobtrusive corrections of dialect forms used by children. To conclude, preschool and school teachers themselves are language role models, so they should pay close attention to every word they speak, they should be familiar with and follow the standard language structures when speaking, and foster the standard language (Stanković, 2017, 123).

Acknowledgement: *The paper presents a part of the research carried out during the preparation of the doctoral dissertation entitled The Speech of the Vranje's Children Preschool and School Age - sociolinguistic approach.*

REFERENCES

- Bošnjaković, Ž. (2009). Fonema /h/ u govoru Novog Sada [Phoneme /h/ in the speech of Novi Sad]. U Ž. Bošnjaković (Ur.), *Govor Novog Sada. Sveska 1: Fonetske osobine [The speech of Novi Sad: Phonetic characteristics]* (str. 268-286). Novi Sad: Filozofski fakultet, Odsek za srpski jezik i lingvistiku.
- Bošnjaković, Ž., & Knjižar, I. (2012). Sociolingvistički pristup nekim morfofonološkim promenama u govoru Bunjevaca Bajmoka i Tavankuta [Sociolinguistic Approach to Some Morphophonological Changes in Bunion's Speech by Baimock and Tavankut]. *Srpski jezik [Serbian language]*, XVII, 503-521.
- Bugarški, R. (1983). Grad i jezik. [City and language]. U R. Bugarški (Ur), *Lingvistika o čoveku [Linguistics about a man]* (str. 210-223). Beograd: Prosveta.
- Ivić, M. (1997). Jezička individualnost grada [Language individuality of the city]. U M. Ivić (Ur), *O Vukovom i vukovskom jeziku [About Vuk's and vuk's language]* (str. 101-108). Beograd: Biblioteka XX vek / Čigoja štampa.
- Ivić, P. (1986). Naši dijalekti i moderno doba. [Our dialects and modern times] U P. Ivić (Ur), *Srpski narod i njegov jezik [Serbian people and his language]* (str. 91-106). Beograd: Srpska književna zadruga.
- Janjić, M. (2016). Afektivne strategije u nastavi akcenata na području prizrensko-timočkog dijalekta [Affective strategies in teaching accents in the area of Prizren-Timočki dialect]. U R. Žugić (Ur.) *Naučni skup: Dijalekti srpskog jezika: istraživanja, nastava, književnost [Scientific Meeting: Dialects of the Serbian language: research, teaching, literature]* (str.369-381). Leskovac: Leskovački kulturni centar, Vranje: Univerzitet u Nišu, Pedagoški fakultet u Vranju.
- Jović, D. (1976). Jezik urbanih sredina [Language of urban environments]. *Gledišta [Views]*, XVII(7-8), 732-744.
- Jović, D. (1978). Jezičke i društvene osnove nekih promena u govoru urbanih sredina [Language and social basics of some changes in urban speech]. *Gledišta [Views]*, VI, 492-504.
- Jović, D. (1979). Sociolingvistički faktori jezičkih promena u župskom govoru [Sociolinguistic factors of language changes in Župa speech]. *Književnost i jezik [Literature and language]*, XXVI(2-3), 243-251.
- Jović, D. (1982). Mi i naš jezik [We and our language]. *Naše teme [Our topics]*, V, 823-829.
- Jović, D. (1983). Književni jezik i urbani idiom. [Literary language and urban idiom] U D. Vulović, Z. Stojiljković (Ur.) *Jezik u savremenoj komunikaciji: tribina [Language in modern communication: tribune]* (str. 34-52). Beograd: Centar za marksizam Univerziteta u Beogradu / Privredno finansijski vodič.
- Jutronić-Tihomirović, D. (1983). Jezik grada [Language of the city]. *Argumenti [Arguments]*, I-II, 196-204.
- Jutronić-Tihomirović, D. (1986). Morfološke promjene u splitskom vernakularu [Morphological changes in the Split Vernacular]. *Filologija [Philology]*, XIV, 153-160.
- Jutronić-Tihomirović, D. (1988-1989). Jezično prilagodavanje na sintaksičkom nivou [Language adjustment at a syntax level]. *Radovi Filozofskog fakulteta u Zadru. Razdio filoloških znanosti [Papers of the Faculty of Philosophy in Zadar, Section of philological sciences]*, XVIII, 1-60.
- Kovačević, B. (2005). Preključivanje između standardnog oblika srpskog jezika i njegovih dijalekata i između ekavskog i ijekavskog [Switching-code between the standard form of the Serbian language and its dialects and between the Ekavian and the Ijekavian]. *Zbornik Matice srpske za filologiju i lingvistiku [Anthology of the Matica srpska for for philology and linguistics]*, XLVII/1-2, 283-299.
- Kristal, D. (1987). *Kemбричка енциклопедија језика [Kembrick encyclopedia of language]*. Beograd: Nolit.
- Labov, W. (1976). *Sociolinguistic patterns*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Marinković, J., Prvulović, B. i Tomić, D. (2010). Diferencijalna gramatika, Inovativni pristup u nastavi maternjeg jezika na dijalekatskom jezičkom području [Differential grammar, An innovative approach to teaching mother tongue in a dialectal language area]. *Godišnjak Učiteljskog fakulteta u Vranju [Annual of Teacher Training Faculty in Vranje]*, 1, str. 305-313.
- Miloradović, S. (2009). Status objekatske reduplikacije u srpskim narodnim govorima [The status of the object reduction in Serbian folk speeches]. *Godišnjak za srpski jezik i književnost [Yearbook for Serbian Language and Literature]*, XXII/9, 287-297.
- Miočinović, Lj. (2004). *Moralni razvoj i moralno vaspitanje: kognitivno-razvojno shvatanje [Moral development and moral education: cognitive - developmental understanding]*. Beograd: Institut za pedagoška istraživanja.
- Moskovljević, M. (1921). Nekoliko reči o beogradskom govoru [A few words about Belgrade's speech]. U: *Zbornik Filoloških i lingvističkih studija: Aleksandru Beliću povodom 25-godišnjice njegova naučna rada posvećuju njegovi prijatelji i učenici [Anthology of Philological and linguistic studies: Aleksandar Belić on the occasion 25- anniversary his scientific work dedicate his friends and students]* (str. 132-149). Beograd: S. B. Cvijanović.
- Radovanović, M. (1980). Sociolingvistička teorija i jugoslovenska lingvistička problematika [Sociolinguistic theory and Yugoslav linguistic issues]. *Naše teme [Our themes]*, V, 936-944.
- Radovanović, M. (1982). Naše glavne jezičke teme [Our main language themes]. *Naše teme [Our themes]*, VI, 813-822.

- Radovanović, M. (1986). *Sociolingvistika [Sociolinguistics]*. Novi Sad: Književna zajednica Novog Sada – Dnevnik.
- Radovanović, M. (1997). Jezički paradoks grada [Language paradox of the city]. U M. Radovanović (Ur), *Spisi iz kontekstualne lingvistike [Writings from contextual linguistics]* (str. 69-76). Novi Sad, Sremski Karlovci: Izdavačka knjižarnica Zorana Stojanovića / Novi Sad: Budućnost.
- Rajić, Lj. (2009). Gradski govori [City speeches]. U Ž. Bošnjaković (Ur.), *Govor Novog Sada. Sveska 1: Fonetske osobine [The speech of Novi Sad: Phonetic characteristics]* (str. 31-45). Novi Sad: Filozofski fakultet, Odsek za srpski jezik i lingvistiku.
- Stanković, D. (2017). Future I in the speech of the Vranje's children in preschool and primary school. *Facta Universitatis, Series: Teaching, Learning and Teacher Education* 1(2), 113-126.
- Toma, P. L. (1998). *Govori Niša i okolnih sela [The speech of Nis and the surrounding villages]*. Beograd: Institut za srpski jezik SANU / Niš: Prosveta.
- Trudgill, P. (1986). *Dialects in Contact*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Vasić, V. (1992). Autoregulacija u upotrebi dijalekta. [Autoregulation in the use of the dialect]. *Folklor u Vojvodini [Folklore in Vojvodina]*, VI, 56-62.
- Vučković, M. (2000). Govor kajkavaca u Boki. Sociolingvistički aspekt [The speech of kajkavian people from Boka. Sociolinguistic aspect]. *Južnoslovenski filolog [South Slavic philologist]*, LVI, 261-271.

GOVOR PREDŠKOLACA I UČENIKA OSNOVNE ŠKOLE IZ VRANJA SA STANOVIŠTA URBANE DIJALEKTOLOGIJE

U radu je analiziran govor vranjske dece predškolskog i osnovnoškolskog uzrasta po principima urbane dijalektologije. Najpre je utvrđena frekventnost upotrebe dijalekatskih oblika određenih jezičkih osobina izračunavanjem indeksa frekvencije (IF), a zatim i uslovljenost frekvencije nejezičkim činiocima – uzrastom, polom, obrazovanjem oba roditelja, mestom stanovanja, pohađanjem vrtića / škole. Uzorkom je obuhvaćeno 40 ispitanika, dece predškolskog i osnovnoškolskog uzrasta, različitog pola, obrazovanja roditelja i mesta stanovanja. Rezultati analize govore o narušavanju dijalekatske osnove prizrensko-južnomoravskog tipa u govoru mladih Vranjanaca. Sve analizirane osobine pokazuju varijabilnost oblika – naizmenično se upotrebljavaju u dijalekatskom i standardnojezičkom obliku. Prva dijalekatska osobina koja se menja jeste udvajanje zameničkog objekta. Veliku stabilnost pokazuje dijalekatsko mesto akcenta i upotreba opšteg padeža. Osobina koja se najteže menja u govoru dece jeste futurska će-konstrukcija. Uslovljenost frekvencije dijalekatskih oblika nejezičkim činiocima postoji, ali je ona mala. Uzrast je jedina nejezička varijabla koja ne utiče na govor vranjske dece – s uzrastom se ne smanjuje upotreba dijalekatskih oblika analiziranih jezičkih osobina. Najveći uticaj na govor ispitanika ima obrazovanje roditelja, a najmanji pol.

Sprovedeno istraživanje daje sliku govora dece, njihovih govornih navika i pokazuje koje jezičke crte ne zadaju veće probleme pri usvajanju, a koje se teže usvajaju, što može doprineti poboljšanju nastave srpskog jezika. Takođe, čini se opravdanim i značajnim za dalja istraživanja u oblasti urbane dijalektologije.

Ključne reči: govor dece, urbana dijalektologija, dijalekatski oblici, frekvencija, nejezički činioci