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Building and evaluating a program for leading a foreign speaking child into English.

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Thesis

BUILDING AND EVALUATING A PROGRAM FOR LEADING
A FOREIGN SPEAKING CHILD INTO ENGLISH

Submitted by

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the Degree of Master of Education

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	Page
I. INTRODUCTION AND JUSTIFICATION OF PROBLEM.....	1
II. REVIEW OF RESEARCH.....	3
Background.....	3
Definitions of Bilingualism.....	4
The Place of English in the Puerto Rican Schools.....	5
Problems for the Teacher of the Bilingual Child.....	7
Relationship of Bilingualism to Age.....	8
Relationship of Bilingualism to I.Q. and School Achievement.....	12
Some Experiments Made.....	15
Relationship of Bilingualism to Environment.....	21
Some Methods Used.....	24
III. PLAN OF STUDY.....	32
Purpose.....	32
Selection of Materials.....	32
Construction of Exercises.....	33
Aims of Exercises.....	35
IV. EXERCISES.....	36
Unit 1.....	36
Language patterns.....	36
Activities.....	37
Vocabulary.....	38

CHAPTER	Page
Unit 2.....	39
Language patterns.....	39
Activities.....	40
Vocabulary.....	40
Unit 3.....	41
Language patterns.....	41
Activities.....	42
Vocabulary.....	43
Unit 4.....	44
Language patterns.....	44
Activities.....	45
Vocabulary.....	46
Culminating Activities.....	47
Independent Activities.....	48
V. ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	49
VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.....	58
Summary.....	58
Conclusions.....	59
Limitations of the Study.....	60
Suggestions for Further Research.....	60
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	61
APPENDIX.....	66

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Chronological and Mental Ages of Participants in the Study.....	50
2. Patterns.....	51
3. Pattern Errors.....	52
4. Vocabulary.....	53
5. Vocabulary Errors.....	54
6. Action Pictures.....	56
7. Action Picture Errors.....	57

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND JUSTIFICATION OF PROBLEM

1. Introduction

The problem of bilingualism is one that is certainly not new to the United States. It has been a problem in this country since its beginning. The United States has always been a melting pot of various nationalities.

The importance of bilingualism in a country where there is more immigrant stock than in any other country is of vital significance - and it presents many problems in the social, emotional and educational areas of our national life.

For the teaching profession, the bilingual child offers a challenge. This child enters an English-speaking classroom with little or no knowledge of English. A program must be adapted to his needs.

2. Justification of Problem

The purpose of this study is to build and evaluate a program for leading a foreign speaking child into English in the first grade.

Bilingualism is becoming a problem in many of the large metropolitan cities on the eastern seaboard. An increasing percentage of children in the public schools of these cities come from homes in which nothing but Spanish is spoken. Many of these children are handicapped in their school achievement because of language difficulty.

This study attempts to adapt the regular first grade curriculum to the particular needs of this type of child.

This child needs many social experiences, good language example, and a great deal of time and patience while he learns to speak the language. In this study an attempt is made to provide for this need by helping him learn as rapidly as possible enough English to enable him to enter into the life of the classroom.

Strickland^{1/} in her book states that:

"If the child has natural aptitude for language, he will learn the language of his school environment rapidly because the children as well as the teacher will be his resources for learning."

^{1/} Ruth Strickland, The Language Arts in the Elementary School, D.C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1957, pp. 177.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RESEARCH

1. Background

Behind the Puerto Rican migration is the same major factor motivating practically all migration within the United States - better job opportunities in the new area. Senior^{1/} elaborates on some of the economic, sociological and demographic factors which affect migration. For over half a century Puerto Rican workers have been coming to the United States to fill labor shortages. By law of the Legislature of Puerto Rico the Commonwealth neither encourages nor discourages the migration for as American citizens Puerto Ricans are free to travel from one part of the country to another.

Some migrants from Puerto Rico have become well-known personalities. Among them are motion picture stars such as Olga San Juan, Rita Moreno, Jose Ferrer; actors Juano Hernandez and Chita Rivera; Metropolitan Opera Star Graciela Rivera; pianist, composer and orchestra leader Nere Merales; and outstanding concert pianist and Boston Symphony soloist Jesus Maria Saura. In major league baseball, Vic Power, Jim Rivera, Ruben Gomez, Roberto Clemente, Luis Arroyo, Juan Pizarro and Felix Mantilla - all are Puerto Ricans.

1/ Clarence Senior, "Migration and Economic Development in Puerto Rico", Journal of Educational Sociology (December 1954), 28:151-156.

But most Puerto Ricans are plain working people.

The Department of Education in Puerto Rico has a program to help the adjustment of the Puerto Rican who migrates to the United States.^{1/}

But like other newcomers today the Puerto Rican still faces many of the basic problems already existing in the cities of the United States: inadequate housing, high rents, insufficient schools, prejudices and discrimination. Added to these are language barriers and different customs.

In this study we are concerned mainly with the children of these immigrants and the responsibility of the school to them.

2. Definitions of Bilingualism

Bilingualism has varied definitions. Among them are the following:

^{2/}"Bilingualism" is defined by Weinreich as the use of two languages by the same person. By extention, the term refers to the use of two languages by a group or political division, as a bilingual nation. Bilingualism exists in varying degrees - in its broadest sense from little proficiency in one or both languages to effective use of the two."

1/ Mariano Villaranga "Program of Education for Puerto Rican Immigrants", Journal of Educational Sociology (December 1954) 28:146-150.

2/ Encyclopedia of Educational Research Inc., "Bilingualism", Third Edition, p. 146, Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Macmillan Co., New York, 1960 (as cited in Uriel Weinreich, Languages in Contact; Findings and Problems, Linguistic Circle of New York, 1953, pp. 148.

In Hoffman's study^{1/} bilingual is used to mean:

"The amount of foreign language in relation or proportion to English. According to this definition, if the foreign language background of an individual exceeds his English language background he is highly bilingual, and if the English exceeds the foreign language background, he is bilingual to a small degree. The object is not to measure the extent to which the pupil knows or uses more than one language, but to get a measure of the general bilingual background or environment to which the child is exposed or subjected."

3. The Place of English in Puerto Rican Schools

This paper is concerned mainly with the teaching of English to Puerto Rican children in the United States. But also worthy of note is what is being done about the teaching of English in Puerto Rico.

The following authors have spent much time and interest on the study:

Mills, Senior and Geldsen^{2/} noted the following:

"The native language of the Puerto Rican is Spanish. English, however, is taught in the Puerto Rican Schools, either as a separate language or as the language of instruction, the policy in this regard varying from time to time and from one academic level to another. For many Puerto Ricans, such a combination of languages has served only to make them "illiterate in two languages" and to create educational difficulties and confusion."

^{1/} Moses N. H. Hoffman, The Measurement of Bilingual Background, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1934, p. 2.

^{2/} C. Mills, C. Senior and R. Geldsen, The Puerto Rican Journey, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1950, p. 12.

Brameld,^{1/} in his extensive research, has aptly summed up the situation:

"At the present time, following half a century of acrimonious dispute, resentment and bewilderment during which the Island Puerto Rico wavered from one arbitrary program to another, a plausible policy concerning the place of English in a traditionally Spanish-speaking country may at last crystallize. Rudiments of such a policy include the following, all presently in effect: (1) Spanish is the first language of instruction in all public schools (in private ones, English may be first); (2) twelve years of English are required, with instruction offered daily; (3) all public schools, and to a considerable extent both the University and adult programs, base such instruction on a system called structural linguistics, two important features of which are the 'field' or patterned nature of language and the 'oral' as against the 'grammatical' approach; and (4) the purpose is to learn English as a second language, not to replace or to equal Spanish as the principal medium of communication.

Respondents, characteristically, were both skeptical and hopeful. Teachers by hundreds who themselves can barely speak English, much less teach it skillfully; a dearth of resource materials combined with bulging classrooms; negative reactions by both teachers and students toward the constant choral practice; lack of correlation with other subject matters and student interests; too few Continental teachers; and perhaps most disturbing of all, symbolic confusions which, though by no means entirely due to the bilingual problem, are aggravated by it - these were among the most skeptical reactions."

1/ Theodore Brameld, The Remaking of a Culture - Life and Education in Puerto Rico, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1959, p. 258.

4. Problems for the Teacher of the Bilingual Child

These children of Spanish-speaking origin often speak little or no English. This handicap presents a variety of problems.

Foremost among the problems are:

1. How to place them in the regular classroom.
2. How to begin or further their second language learning once they are placed in the classroom.
3. How to help orient them to school and community.

It is not easy to put a child over eight years of age in the lower primary grades where mentally and physically he is out of place. However, with this language handicap, and no provisions made for these situations, little else can be done. In the lower grades he more readily picks up the language and with much help from the teacher he may progress more rapidly and eventually be placed in a higher grade.

As Strickland^{1/} says:

"The foreign-speaking child needs to learn as rapidly as he can enough English to enable him to enter into the life of the classroom."

^{1/} Op. cit. p. 217.

In expressing their thoughts on the problems of the teacher,
Coale and Smith^{1/} claim:

"Adaptation of curriculum content to ability, needs and experiences of children from foreign-speaking homes; the development of appreciative understandings on the part of the teachers as well as the parents; the school's responsibility for the acquisition of facility in the use of English in the early years of the child's school life in order that he may profit from later instruction as well as for practical social reasons, all offer a continuous succession of teaching problems."

5. Relationship of Bilingualism to Age

Age has always been considered an important factor in language learning. Age is important because of the various physiological and psychological factors involved.

Researchers in the 1930's were not quite convinced of the importance of bilingualism at an early age.

Hoffman^{2/} states in his findings:

"Bilingual background is not associated with chronological age nor with grade status for ages 10 to 14 and grades 5 to 8. In other words there is no tendency for older children to have either higher or lower bilingual scores than younger children."

^{1/} N. B. Coale and M. E. Smith, Successful Practices in the Teaching of English to Bilingual Children in Hawaii, Bulletin, 1937, Number 14, Department of Interior, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C., p. ix.

^{2/} Op. cit., p. 65.

Along these same lines Coleman^{1/} claims:

"For ages there was an almost universal belief that the capacity to learn increased steadily up to the teens and then began to decline. More accurate experimentation has shown that the capacity to learn increases up to maturity and then remains approximately constant until the onset of old age, or at most, shows a loss of ten per cent or less in efficiency. The widespread belief hitherto prevalent concerning the best time to learn a foreign language rests on an insecure foundation, to say the least."

Conversely, recent research has proven that the younger child can easily learn a second language.

According to Dunkel^{2/} the belief has always been that:

".... for the acquisition of speaking ability, the younger the student, the greater his chances of success. the younger learner is usually more plastic, more able to learn in new directions. He does not have the sets of reflexes and habits which the adult has acquired and practiced."

Similarly the elementary-school age has been advocated as the best period for language learning because the child is less self-conscious. He is more willing to make strange sounds and to take part in activities which the self-conscious adolescent will shun for fear of being laughed at.

1/ Algernon Coleman, Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching, The university of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1934, p. 205.

2/ A. B. Dunkel, Second Language Learning, Ginn and Company, Boston, 1948, p. 68.

10

Carroll^{1/} finds that children are able to learn a second language quite readily and easily. Through his experience with language instruction of Puerto Rican children on the east coast he found that the younger the child, the better and faster he learns English. He also felt children learn best when they mingle in the classroom with English-speaking children.

Penfield^{2/} in his study indicates:

"The brain passes through unalterable transitions. It is especially adapted to the learning of language at one stage, and to the use of language in reasoned thought at another, a later stage. Physiological evolution causes it to specialize in the learning of language before the ages of 10 to 14."

Palmer^{3/} similarly reported:

".... children are in an advantage for learning languages because they do not have the same reluctance to form new habits as adults have, probably because their minds are more plastic, i.e. they are so used to form new habits constantly that a few more will not incommode them. . . . Language learning is essentially a habit-forming process."

1/ John B. Carroll, "Foreign Languages for Children", The Education Digest (October, 1960), 26:35-37.

2/ Wilder Penfield, "A Consideration of the Neurophysiological Mechanisms of Speech and Some Educational Consequences," Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (February, 1953), 82:201-214.

3/ H. E. Palmer, The Principles of Language Study, World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1921, p. 44.

^{1/}
Parker^{1/} reached the conclusions:

"The innate ability to hear and reproduce distinctly unfamiliar sounds seems to diminish steadily during and after adolescence. . . Very young children are language conscious and language curious by nature. Later in life, language learning has to be carefully motivated."

Many authors recognize the worthiness of language learning at an early age. Arsenian^{2/} stresses the following:

"If it can be established definitely by further experimentation that bilingualism does not cause any intellectual harm or other undesirable results, and in the absence of a more efficient method of language learning at a later age than infancy or early childhood, than known now, the question may well arise if the learning of a second language should not be introduced in the nursery schools or even at an earlier age wherever that is possible."

^{3/}
Murra^{3/} has proven in her article that children in day centers at age 3 to 4 learn a second language easily. In her summary she states:

"By learning English at three and four from peers who are not critical of his Spanish, in a school situation which makes minimal demands on his verbal accomplishments, might the child not be in a better position, already having an adequate grasp of English, to go on at five and six to face the public school situation with its more critical peers and greater demands on verbal skill?"

1/ W.R. Parker, The National Interest and Foreign Languages, The U.S. National Commission for United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Department of State, Washington, D.C.; U.S. Government Printing Office, 1954, p. 64.

2/ Seth Arsenian, Bilingualism and Mental Development, Teachers College, Columbia University, N.Y., 1937, p. III.

3/ Elizabeth Murra, "Learning English as a Second Language," Journal of Educational Sociology (December, 1954), 28:181-192.

It might be supposed that in such a relaxed atmosphere where there is no great need for English the children would be slow to take the trouble to learn it, but the author has proven otherwise.

One of the results of the Hawaiian bilingual study^{1/} concluded that it would be highly beneficial if more children could be helped by kindergarten and the like to attain a higher standard of speech before school entrance.

6. Relationship of Bilingualism to I.Q. and School Achievement

Dunkel^{2/} emphasizes the fact that there is a definite relationship of bilingualism to I.Q. He states:

"Language teachers have always emphasized the relation between intelligence and language learning. One would naturally expect a close relation to exist, for intelligence, defined as the capacity to learn, should include the capacity to learn language."

Many studies show that though the correlation between bilingualism and I.Q. is positive, it does not necessarily indicate that intelligence is the major factor in determining success or failure in language work, though it is an important factor, to be sure. Carroll^{3/} states that gifted children as a whole do better in foreign languages.

^{1/} Coale and Smith, Op. cit., p. 127.

^{2/} Op. cit., p. 80.

^{3/} John B. Carroll, "Foreign Languages for Children," The Education Digest (October, 1960), 26:35-37.

Arsenian^{1/} compared the mental growth of monolingual children, matched on the basis of age, race, sex and sociometric status. He found no reliable differences between children in homes where a foreign language was used a great deal, and homes in which the foreign language was used very little. He also found that:^{2/}

"On the basis of the tests used and in the light of the results obtained in the research it is concluded that bilingualism does not influence - favorably or unfavorably - the mental development of ages nine through fourteen in the various groups studied in this investigation."

The effect of bilingualism on language development is not entirely clear. It does appear that it presents complex learning problems for children which have many social and emotional overtones as well as linguistic and intellectual ones.

In 1922 Jespersen^{3/} claimed:

"It is, of course, an advantage for a child to be familiar with two languages; but without doubt the advantage may be, and generally is, purchased too dear. First of all the child in question hardly learns either of the two languages as perfectly as he would have done if he had limited himself to one . . . Secondly, the brain effort required to master two languages instead of one certainly diminishes the child's power of learning other things which might and ought to be learnt."

^{1/} Seth Arsenian, Bilingualism and Mental Development, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, No. 712, 1937 - p. 153.

^{2/} Op. cit. p. 153.

^{3/} Otto Jespersen, Language, Its Nature, Development and Origin, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London, 1922, p. 148.

Other experts support Jespersen. Strickland^{1/} states:

"In many school systems, the proportion of children from homes where a foreign language is used almost exclusively or where children are exposed to two languages has increased.... The child who has learned only a foreign language in his home or who has learned two languages starts school with at least a temporary language handicap."

Singer^{2/} has this to say concerning the problem:

"Children who immigrate to this country or whose vernacular is not English require several years of exposure to English to acquire a vocabulary that is comparable to their mental age.... Most studies show that bilingualism exerts an unfavorable influence on school achievement in the early years of elementary school, especially in the language arts; for only when the child has become fluent in the medium of instruction used is he able to begin to catch up to his mental age peers."

Singer^{3/} elaborates still further:

"Bilinguals require a special curriculum and methods of instruction. When the curriculum is not adapted and the language of the community is different from the medium of instruction, the language handicap tends to continue through the grades, affecting especially the verbal subjects such as reading and spelling, but not the less verbal subjects, such as arithmetic and geography."

1/ Op. cit., p. 217.

2/ Harry Singer, "Bilingualism and Elementary Education," The Modern Language Journal (December, 1956), 40:444-458.

3/ Ibid., pp. 444-458.

Hoffman^{1/} concurs with this theory when he says:

"The extent of bilingual background is associated with achievement on verbal material, but not with performance on material of the non-language type."

Singer^{2/} also states:

"There is some evidence of emotional conflict from trying to master two languages in the primary grades or earlier. There also seems to be some residual mental disorganization from suddenly having to change to a school that is conducted in a language that is foreign to the student."

Andersson^{3/} stresses the fact that there is a close and natural relationship between language arts and foreign languages. Teachers, he says, have frequently remarked that an interest in foreign languages has stimulated greater interest in English on the part of school children. A comparison between the languages and cultures of others should help children to better understand, appreciate and take pride in their own.

7. Some Experiments Made

When a child enters school with little or no knowledge

1/ Op. cit., p. 66.

2/ Op. cit., pp. 444-458.

3/ Theodore Andersson, The Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools, D.C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1953, p. 41.

of English, the language situation becomes very important. Usually he is put into an exclusively English-speaking environment. Often a second language is introduced at an inopportune time and in a confusing way. As a result the child has poor emotional adjustment and an increasing deficiency in test performance from the lower to upper grades.

Measures of language development and Goodenough Draw-a-Man

I. Q.'s were obtained on twenty-five Puerto Rican boys and twenty-five Puerto Rican girls in New York City's Spanish Harlem by Anastasi and Cruz.^{1/} All children were within six months of their fifth birthdays. Comparisons were made with the performance of fifty white and fifty Negro five-year-old children tested by the same procedures in an earlier study by Anastasi and D'Angelo.^{2/} The language sample was recorded both in Spanish and English, depending upon the language spontaneously employed by the child. Spanish was used almost entirely, however, only about two per cent of the words and less than

^{1/} Anne Anastasi and DeJesus Cruz, "Language Development and Nonverbal I. Q. of Puerto Rican Preschool Children in New York City," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology (July, 1953), 48:357-366.

^{2/} Anne Anastasi and Rita D'Angelo, "A Comparison of Negro and White Preschool Children in Language Development and Goodenough Draw-a-Man I. Q.," Journal of Genetic Psychology (December, 1952), 81:147-165.

one per cent of the sentences being spoken in English.

Although the Puerto Rican sample was inferior to the Negro and white samples in educational and occupational level of parents, the Puerto Rican children did not differ significantly from the white or Negro groups in mean sentence length and in maturity of sentence structure. The greater contact with adults in the Puerto Rican home environment is suggested as one possible factor in accounting for their superiority in early linguistic development.

In the Tireman and Wood study,^{1/} the Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity and Achievement Tests were given to forty-seven children (Grades V-VIII) at Nambé School in New Mexico. The tests were used to make a comparison of their aural and visual comprehension of English. The children scored higher in achievement than in capacity. It was found that they understood written English better than spoken English. It was concluded that the children visually comprehended better than they aurally comprehended due largely to their superiority in visual over aural vocabulary. These children suffered a handicap because they heard and spoke little English outside the school.

^{1/} Lloyd Tireman and V. E. Woods, "Aural and Visual Comprehension of English by Spanish-Speaking Children," Elementary School Journal (November, 1939), 40:204-211.

A language handicap at least lowers the apparent performance of bilinguals when the test is verbal and administered in the second language. The mean I. Q.'s and M. A.'s were significantly higher on the non-language series of the Pitner General Ability Test than on the Verbal Series of the same test, administered to the bilingual Puerto Ricans in grades five and six in New York City elementary schools. Darcy^{1/} concluded they had a decided language handicap.

In another study of preschool children, matched on age, sex and paternal occupations, Darcy^{2/} found that the bilinguals in an experimental group were superior on the Adkins Object-Fitting Test but were inferior to the control group on the Stanford-Binet.

Bilinguals sometimes, but not always, improve their test results when tests are administered in the vernacular. Mitchell^{3/} gave two forms of the Otis Non-Verbal Group Intelligence Scale to two hundred thirty-seven Spanish-speaking children in the Southwestern United States using one form with directions in Spanish and the other form with directions in English. He found a difference of 13.22 points in favor of the Spanish instructions.

1/ Natalie Darcy, "The Performance of Bilingual Puerto Rican Children on Verbal and on Non-Language Tests of Intelligence," Journal of Educational Research (March, 1952), 45:499-506.

2/ Natalie Darcy, "The Effect of Bilingualism upon the Measurement of the Intelligence of Children of Pre-school Age," Journal of Educational Psychology (January, 1946), 37:21-44.

3/ A. J. Mitchell, "The Effect of Bilingualism in the Measurement of Intelligence," Elementary School Journal (September, 1937), 38:29-37.

Sanchez^{1/} work implies that the results might have been higher had the educational environment been superior. In learning general vocabulary, he noted that the children in New Mexico did not have the opportunity to learn the language of the Stanford-Binet. He compared the standard vocabulary that was used for non-English speaking children with the vocabulary used for English speaking children in giving the Stanford-Binet. He recorded eighty-two unfamiliar words that occurred in one hundred fourteen different instances from age three to seven.

Anastasi and Cordova^{2/} administered the Cattell Culture Free Intelligence Test, Forms 2A and 2B, to one hundred seventy-six Puerto Rican parochial school children in grades six through eight in New York City's Spanish Harlem. Their most conspicuous finding was in respect to the marked improvement of these children from first to second testing session, regardless of language. The authors stated in their summary:

"The over-all performance of the group fell considerably below the test norms reported by Cattell. Among the reasons for such a discrepancy are the very low socio-economic level of Puerto Rican children, their bilingualism which makes them deficient in both languages, their extreme lack of test sophistication, and their poor emotional adjustment to the

1/ G. I. Sanchez, "The Implications of a Basal Vocabulary to the Measurement of the Abilities of Bilingual Children," Journal of Social Psychology (August, 1934), 5:395-402.

2/ Anne Anastasi and F. Cordova, "Some Effects of Bilingualism upon the Intelligence Test Performance of Puerto Rican Children in New York City," The Journal of Educational Psychology (January, 1953), 44:1-19.

school situation. Insofar as this maladjustment itself appears to have arisen from the children's severe language handicap during their initial school experiences, a solution of the language problem would seem to be a necessary first step for the effective education of migrant Puerto Rican children."

In non-English speaking communities vocabulary is of first importance. Reading cannot be introduced until the proper oral background is attained. Tireman, Dixon and Cornelius^{1/} started a program in a San Jose Experimental school to find the number of words that could be acquired in a year by Spanish-speaking children who spoke little or no English at time of school entrance. It was the authors' belief that it is possible to teach a much larger vocabulary than is ordinarily assumed, if specific techniques are employed.

Cooper^{2/} made a study:

".... to determine the predictive ability of six tests of intelligence for certain fifth grade pupils of Guam. Only those tests which were wholly or partially performance or non-verbal were considered.

Although the teachers' ratings corresponded well with rank on the achievement test, they were not closely related to scores on the group intelligence tests.

This study demonstrated that the six intelligence tests examined predicted school success with a degree of accuracy ranging from moderate to high for Guam's bilingual pupils."

1/ L. S. Tireman, N. Dixon and V. Cornelius, "Vocabulary Acquisition of Spanish-Speaking Children," Elementary English Journal (May, 1935), 12:118-119.

2/ James Cooper, "Predicting School Achievement for Bilingual Pupils," Journal of Educational Psychology (February, 1958) 49:31-35.

8. Relation of Bilingualism to Environment

In connection with bilingualism we must consider another factor - the socio-economic status of the home from which the child comes.

"Bilingualism^{1/} is generally recognized as offering serious instructional difficulties among minority groups, while social and economic adjustment in the homes from which the majority of bilinguals come are necessarily reflected in the conduct and attitudes as well as in progress in the school studies of the children concerned."

Strickland^{2/} sees the problem of the child who essentially belongs to two language communities, in terms of social and emotional hazards. Here is the way she sums up some of them:

"Learning two languages during his early years forms a complex problem for a child and one fraught with many social and emotional hazards. If he is learning in his home exclusively a language other than that of his environment he may encounter isolation, ridicule and neighborhood prejudices which result in feelings of inferiority and emotional and social tensions. These may stay with the child long after he enters school and may complicate, not only his learning of the language used by the other children, but also all other aspects of his learning. In some neighborhoods a child encounters prejudices which lead to severe persecution by other children when he enters school and call for sympathetic protection and guidance from the teacher."

In such cases, it is desirable that the school play a reconciliatory role.

^{1/} Ceale and Smith, Op. cit., p. ix.

^{2/} Op. cit., p. 55.

A number of writers have expressed themselves on the supposed dangers of this conflict of culture. Mention is made of the difficulties arising out of the intolerant and often cruel attitude of the American environment toward non-English speaking children.

Part of the Leslau^{1/} study was concerned with seven thousand children in New Jersey, whose mother tongue was some language other than English. Most of the children's parents were immigrant workers.

"All of the children speak and think in English after a few years. English is the language of the street and of the playground, as well as of the public school, and the child adapts it as his own medium for thought rather than the language of his parents and of his church. But this is not altogether an advantage. It may produce strain or lack of understanding between parents and children. Children are frequently ashamed of their parents and are too seldom under the domination of a code of ethics and life values derived from their parents. More often the children are dominated by a sort of community code, not at all for that matter the 'American ideals' of tradition, but the adaptive code of the slum or the industrial center in which they live. Neither the church, nor the home, both very active in fostering the native tongue, can make much way with the children who live a life of few traditions. The challenge to public education offered by this situation is a strong one."

1/ Charlotte Leslau, An Investigation of Studies Dealing with Bilingualism: Review of Research, Unpublished Master's Thesis. Boston University, 1955.

Manual^{1/} summarized the studies on bilingualism and pointed out that children who come from foreign-speaking homes do appear to be at a disadvantage in English speaking school. He called attention also to the difficulty of measuring the ability and achievement of these children of foreign background because of the sociometric and cultural differences that exist.

Jespersen^{2/} states that environment clearly has greater influence than heredity. This is proven by the fact that the children of immigrants acquire the language of their foster country just as surely and quickly as children of the same age whose forefathers have been in the country for generations.

Hamilton^{3/} in his article stresses a phase of the bilingual problem which is often neglected. This is the fact that very often these children are underprivileged and need special treatment. He makes the following suggestions:

- *1. Make school pleasant
2. Make friends with the child.

1/ Herschel T. Manual, "Bilingualism," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, The Macmillan Co., N.Y., 1950.

2/ Otto Jespersen, Language, Its Nature, Development and Origin, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London, 1922, p. 141.

3/ Dwight Hamilton, "Teaching English to Non-English Speaking Pupils," Grade Teacher (February, 1945), 62;24.

3. Help him to adjust with the other children and enlist their aid in the process.
4. Talk about the culture and contributions of his native country.
5. Give special recognition to good work.
6. Provide work with a possibility of success.
7. Build a background through concrete experiences, models, drawings and pictures.
8. Do not hurry into formal school work.
9. Teach habits of health and cleanliness.
10. Be friendly with the home.
11. Know the health and welfare people in your community.
12. Evaluate work in terms of improvement as well as progress."

9. Some Methods Used

The methods in current use with the bilingual child are many and varied. But also they have something in common - transfer of meaning. As Pei ^{1/}says:

"What seems to be basic to all languages is the transfer of meaning from one human mind to another. This is effected in different ways, just as transportation in various parts of the world may be by train, automobile, elephant or camel. If there is no transfer of meaning, there is no true language."

1/ Marie Pei, "Man Talks in 3,000 Tongues," The New York Times Magazine (November 6, 1960), p. 62.

Carrell,^{1/} in reviewing the methods of Richards and Gibson at Harvard University, describes their methods in the following way:

"Before any teaching is done, careful work must go into the preparation of instructional materials. The choice of a limited vocabulary is a crucial first stage, for words and forms must be selected so that (a) the sounds and letters of early lessons will present the least difficulty to the student, (b) the referents can be built into objects and actions, and (c) the materials can be arranged in a meaningful sequence. In the case of English of a second language, it is held that the use of the vocabulary of Basic English, with certain modifications, makes grading a relatively easy task. The second step in preparing teaching materials is to develop the content of instruction in full detail, and the final step is to transfer the content to film strips, motion pictures, sound recordings, or suitable combinations thereof.

In the classroom, work is preferably conducted with relatively small groups under the direct supervision of a specially trained instructor... At every stage, the teaching is conducted entirely in the vocabulary and constructions taught up to that time, and meaning is allowed to arise from the context of carefully prepared concrete situations. The learner is encouraged to construct simple sentences as early as possible. There is, of course, much necessity for practice and imitation."

^{1/} Carrell, *op. cit.*, pp. 184-185.

Dunkel^{1/} in his study reports:

"At the early stages nearly all the student's thinking will be in his native language. The problem is to expand the area in which he can and does think in the foreign one. If the student is ever to be at home in the foreign tongue: (1) He must have a sufficient range of patterns at his disposal so that he can meet the demands of these varied situations, moods and subjects. (2) He must learn when to use which. The immense amount of labor required to accomplish (1) and (2) must not be underestimated... The principle here is the same as that we have seen in aural comprehension: to increase the size of the unit of language with which the student works. As long as he works sound by sound, syllable by syllable, or word by word, he will be in trouble. Only when he can handle larger units in speaking and listening - as does the native - can the foreigner master the language with anything approaching the native's ability."

Carroll^{2/} advocates oral methods primarily. He also claims language study should be started by learning to understand and speak simple phrases and sentences before trying to read or write them. According to Carroll the methods should also be taught in a "stimulating experiential setting."

1/ Op. cit. p. 54-55.

2/ John B. Carroll, "Foreign Languages for Children," The Education Digest (October, 1960), 26:35-37.

Fries^{1/} also suggests the oral approach. According to his theory:

"The oral approach - the basic drill, the repeated repetitions of the patterns produced by a native speaker of the foreign language - is the most economical way of thoroughly learning, for use even in reading, the structural methods of a language. Only when one has such a thorough control of the fundamentals of a language that he can almost automatically produce utterances in accord with the usual patterns of that language is he ready to proceed to the process of reading. With such a control the grasp of new words will come easily and speedily with increasing experience with the language, and reading will be profitable."

In a different approach to the problem, Koenig^{2/} through the "inkblot technique", found that bilingual children were helped considerably. They were able to speak out without fear of censure and did not need to watch for reactions from the teacher or classmates. They found emotional release and relaxation through this technique.

Finocchiaro^{3/} describes some of the methods in current use:

"By 'direct' method is meant the presentation of all aspects of English in English, that is without recourse to the native language of the learner. Grammar in this method is reduced to a minimum. By the 'indirect' method is meant the presentation of some aspects of English in

1/ Charles C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1945, pp. 6-7.

2/ Frances G. Koenig, "Improving the Language Abilities of Bilingual Children," Exceptional Children (February, 1953), 19:183-186.

3/ Mary Finocchiaro, Teaching English as a Second Language, Harper and Brothers, N.Y., 1958, pp. 112-113.

the native language of the learner. Thus, in the 'indirect' method, motivation, grammatical explanations, and summary perhaps may be given in the native language of the learner while illustrations of sentence patterns, intensive language practice, and classroom directions are given in English With younger people who have no immediate urgency to learn to read and to write the language for professional or vocational purposes the direct method is often preferred."

Helping Spanish-speaking children to learn English is a difficult task. As Chavez^{1/} says:

"Any communications between a child from an English-speaking home will likely continue to be in English. In a school that includes children of Spanish-speaking origin it might be desirable to begin to teach Spanish to the English-speaking children. The English-speaking children might become more sympathetic toward children who must learn a second language."

Noticeable differences in the Spanish-speaking child's speech come from two main causes: differences in sounds and differences in concepts. Both these differences and many more exist between the two languages. Chavez^{2/} indicates a way to achieve better communication by using a second language as a "common denominator - a basis where better understanding of cultural differences prevails among children."

^{1/} Simon J. Chavez, "Preserve their Language Heritage," Childhood Education (December, 1956), 33:165.

^{2/} Op. cit., p. 65.

Strickland^{1/} approaches the problem as follows:

"These children need many first hand experiences with all sorts of common situations in order to learn the vocabulary associated with them. They need to play house, visit grocery stores, cook, have tea parties, visit American homes, go to see a farm, watch construction projects, and do any and all of the common things which are dealt with in children's early readers and other textbooks. They need to hear over and over again the words associated with these activities, to associate them with pictures, hear them in stories, and use them in countless ways. Dramatic play is one of the child's best methods of learning if talking accompanies it at many points. Pictures of familiar activities can be used as talking material; often the pictures in preprimers and other introductory books can be used for this purpose without emphasis on reading. The child needs a great many opportunities to hear English spoken in situations where the meaning and usage are clear. Speaking the language should precede attempts to learn to read or write it. Children who speak acceptable English can be taught to include the child in their activities and to help him at every opportunity

The teacher's problem is to find as many uses as possible for their English so that they gain power and satisfaction in the use of it. She must also, at all times, respect the language of the child's home."

Hamilton^{2/} claims that it is essential to have a speaking vocabulary of three hundred words before beginning reading. This, he says, should be followed by many first hand experiences, with special emphasis on enunciation and pronunciation and with much supplementary material to the basal reader. But he is strongly in favor of putting off the teaching of any phonics until later.

^{1/} Op. cit., pp. 217-218.

^{2/} Dwight Hamilton, "Non-English Speaking Pupils," Grade Teacher (January, 1945), 62:38.

Finocchiaro^{1/} also emphasizes the important of deferring reading until the pupil has a minimum vocabulary and a large experiential background:

"Educators today recognize the importance of deferring formal reading from textbooks until pupils have a minimum oral vocabulary and a large background of experiences which will enable them to bring meaning to reading activities

Reading for beginning language learners should originate with material that results from a familiar, shared experience or activity. It should utilize the vocabulary that has been learned and practiced during that experience. The reading chart, commonly called experience chart, cooperatively prepared by teacher and pupils, has been found most effective in teaching beginning reading, since it is the written representation of sentences the pupils already know how to say."

The committee for United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization^{2/} has the following theory on the teaching of English as a foreign language:

". . . . when learning a language we ought to use gesture and action to reinforce meaning and intention and with young beginners nearly all the sentences should be about action, and they themselves should express this action by their action The harnessing of action to speech can easily be graded for the different ages of the pupils: at first mime without speech, then mime and speech, and action with speech, then brief dialogues, three-corner chats, then four-square discussions, and on and on until the week's lessons become centered on little one-act plays, full of action and the simplest language about it, and then later a series of lessons to cover a longer play."

^{1/} Op. cit., p. 137.

^{2/} United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, The teaching of Modern Languages, Paris, France, 1955, pp. 76-77.

In New York City, the Board of Education has a specialized program for the Puerto Rican pupils. Morrison^{1/} tells about the beginnings of this plan. And Finocchiaro^{2/} elaborates on the plan by explaining the modifications and adaptations that have been made in all aspects of school organization and supervision to meet the needs of the Puerto Rican children. Among the things used by the City of New York are:

1. Spanish-speaking interpreters.
2. Orientation classes.
3. Welcome booklets.
4. Classification and programming of pupils
5. Modification of the curriculum.
6. Group and individual guidance program.
7. Simplified teaching-learning practices."

The New York program has developed a plan of consistent and systematic emphasis on the direct teaching of vocabulary and language patterns. The learning of English as a second language is done in a stimulating experiential setting.

^{1/} J. Cayce Morrison, "The Puerto Rican Study - What it is - Where it is Going," Journal of Educational Sociology (December, 1954) 28:167-173.

^{2/} Mary Finocchiaro, "Puerto Rican Newcomers in our Schools," Journal of Educational Sociology (December, 1954), 28:157-166.

CHAPTER III

PLAN OF STUDY

1. Purpose

The purposes of English instruction for Puerto Rican children come under two headings, the aural-oral objectives and the reading-writing objectives. In grades one and two the main purpose is to develop understanding and automatic control of oral English, but appropriate reading and writing experiences should be provided by the teacher when the children are ready.

The plan of this study is to present a beginning program of instruction in English as a second language. Using the "oral approach", the program is designed to help the children function adequately in the classroom and provide them with a foundation for further growth in the English language.

2. Selection of Materials

The materials used were divided into units. The units were based on areas of language learning experiences: home, family, clothing, parts of the body, and school. These are areas with which the children are familiar, both in Puerto Rico and the United States. The vocabulary used was selected because it could be illustrated through the use of real objects, pictures, gestures, and body movements.

The patterns used in this study are based on structures suggested

by Dunkel,^{1/} Fries,^{2/} Finocchiaro^{3/} and others. They were used successfully by the city of New York in their English teaching of Puerto Ricans.^{4/} The patterns are 1. similar to Spanish patterns and provide teaching vocabulary devices and 2. involve critical differences from their Spanish translations. Together they are designed to constitute a basic program of language instruction for second-language learners in the primary grades.

3. Construction of Exercises

The exercises were divided into four main units: home; family and family life; clothing and parts of the body; and school. The suggested learning experiences, accompanied by related vocabulary lists, language patterns, and activities attempt to provide illustrative teaching situations for motivating the learning of English.

Each unit of the exercises included language structures or patterns which should be of use to the beginner in second language learning. The patterns used were given at the rate of one a day and provision was made for frequent review.

All of the structures appearing in the exercises have been selected either because they are similar to Spanish patterns and therefore

1/ Op. cit.

2/ Op. cit.

3/ Op. cit.

4/ Board of Education of the City of New York, Teaching English to Puerto Rican Pupils in Grades One and Two, Language Guide Series. The Puerto Rican Study, New York, 1956.

provide devices for teaching vocabulary or because they involve some critical differences from their Spanish translations.

An example of the first type would be "Today is Tuesday". This is not unlike the Spanish "Hoy es martes". This sort of pattern involves only the substitution of Spanish words for relatively equivalent English words.

An example of the second type of pattern would be "It is Tuesday". In Spanish this meaning is expressed without the introductory "it"; thus, "Es martes". The tendency of the Spanish speaker is to say "Is Tuesday". The seemingly simple English-language pattern, "It is", is not simple at all for the Spanish-speaking pupil. The pattern requires continued teaching emphasis until it becomes fixed and automatic.

Emphasis in the program of instruction should be upon patterns that are different in the two languages because they present special difficulties for Spanish speakers.

In addition to language patterns each exercise unit included related vocabulary and activities. The vocabulary listed in each unit gave the learner words that pertained to the unit and various situations were devised in order to utilize these vocabulary words. The activities used in each unit were constructed to provide a variety of learning aids, devices, and experiences in which the learner could use the language patterns and vocabulary.

Some units were administered in one week while others covered a period of two weeks. The total exercises were taught over a period of seven weeks and were given for approximately one half hour each day.

The Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test (see Appendix A) preceded the exercises. This test was selected because it involved a minimum of English in the giving of directions and was reputed to be on a par with the Stanford-Binet.

A teacher constructed test was given following the completion of the various exercises (see Appendix B). The test consisted of questions, statements, vocabulary picture cards (see Appendix D), and action pictures (see Appendix E). A list of the patterns used is contained in Appendix C. The purpose of the test was to measure how much vocabulary was learned and how many language patterns were retained. Ninety-eight vocabulary pictures and twenty-four action pictures were used. Each language pattern taught was tested through the use of statements, questions and pictures. The test was administered individually.

4. Aims of the Exercises

The aims of the exercises were as follows:

1. to present content in familiar context
2. to accept and simulate natural responses
3. To stress accuracy but not interfere with natural expression and fluency
4. to give natural and meaningful practice
5. to give maximum pupil participation
6. to make review meaningful
7. to provide a variety of learning aids, devices and experiences.

CHAPTER IV

EXERCISES

1. Unit 1 - Home

Language patterns.

The use of the definite article "the" and of the indefinite article "a".

This is a house.
This is the door.
This is a window.
This is the roof, etc.

Responding to questions beginning with "what".

What do you see?
A bed.
What do you see?
A stove, etc.

Responding to questions beginning with "where".

Where is the chair?
In the kitchen.
Where is the stove?
In the kitchen, etc.

Contrast patterns for review.

I see a sink.
The sink is in the kitchen, etc.

The use of "has".

(This is the living room.)
The living room has a sofa.
The living room has a chair.
The living room has a television, etc.

The use of "it has".

It has a bed.
It has a chair.
It has a closet.
What is it?

Activities -- The motivation for the home unit was a doll house and furniture.

1. Furnish a room of the doll house each day - kitchen, living room, bedroom and bathroom.
2. After the home is furnished, remove and mix up the furniture, have child select object, identify it and put it in proper room.
3. Seat work (see Appendix F) papers after day's lesson.
4. Mounted pictures placed on chalkboard. Child identifies.

This is a sofa.
This is a chair, etc.

5. A large chart with many objects is hung up. Child identifies.

What do you see?
A chair.
A sink, etc.

6. Pictures of different rooms. Child identifies.

Where is the bed?
In the bedroom, etc.

7. Using the same pictures as above. Child identifies.

(This is the living room.)
The living room has a sofa.
(This is the kitchen.)
It has a sink.

Vocabulary

house	stove	rug
room	sink	clock
bedroom	refrigerator	bureau
living room	towel	mirror
bathroom	soap	toilet
kitchen	comb	live
floor	teethbrush	walk up
roof	lamp	walk down
window	curtain	new
door	sofa	old
closet	radio	big
wall	television	little
hall	telephone	put on
stairs	dresser	turn off
bed	bookcase	first, second, etc.
chair	dishes	one, two, etc.
table	bath tub	

2. Unit 2 - Family and Family Life

Language patterns.

The use of "my" in identification.

This is my family.
This is my mother.
This is my sister, etc.

The use of "-er" and "-est".

My father is taller than my mother.
My mother is taller than my sister.
My father is the tallest in my family, etc.

The use of the "-s" suffix with verbs.

My father works.
My mother cooks.
My mother cleans.

Responding to questions.

(What do you do at home?)
I help.
I dust.
I wash the dishes.
I sweep the floor, etc.

Use of "is" and "ing" to express continuous action.

(What is Eva doing?)
Eva is dusting.

Patterns for review.

Eva is my sister.
She is big.
She has blue eyes.
She has brown hair.
Eva helps my mother, etc.

(What do you do in the kitchen?)
I eat in the kitchen
(What do you do in the bedroom?)
I sleep in the bedroom.

Activities -- The motivation for the family unit is a discussion of sisters and brothers in the school.

1. Discussion of pictures of the children's families which they have drawn at home.
2. Children tell how they help at home.
3. Teacher shows action pictures and children describe action.
4. Children draw pictures showing their own mothers at work at home.
5. Song play - "Here We Go Round The Mulberry Bush."

Vocabulary

mother	cook	watch television
father	wash	listen to radio
brother	clean	tall
sister	sweep	short
baby	help	old
family	play	young
grandmother	sing	big
grandfather	dance	small
uncle	paint	blue
aunt	read	brown, etc.
cousin	eat	

3. Clothing and Parts of the Body

Language patterns.

Statement pattern "I am".

I am a girl.
I am a boy.

Statement pattern "I am _____ years old".

(How old are you?)
I am seven years old.

The use of "my" with parts of the body.

This is my head.
This is my arm, etc.

Reacting to commands.

Show me your hand.
Show me your feet.
Open your mouth.
Close your mouth.

Statement pattern with "my".

My coat is in the dressing room.
My hat is in the dressing room.

Use of "not" after "is".

My sweater is not in the dressing room.
My sweater is on the chair.

Reacting to commands.

Take off your coat.
Take off your hat.
Please hang up your sweater, etc.

Activities.— The motivation for clothing was a boy and girl doll and the motivation for the parts of the body utilized paper dolls mounted on flannel board.

1. Dressing the dolls and naming the clothing.
2. Mounted pictures on chalkboard, child names object he selects.
3. Paper dolls - child dresses the doll and describes it to the others.
4. Various pictures of children - as a child describes a picture, another child picks it out.
5. Teacher holds up a picture of a sweater, coat, hat, etc. and finally a dress. Each time she asks "Is this a dress?"
 This is not a dress
 This is not a dress
 This is not a dress.
 (This is a dress.)
6. Discussion of different parts of body in which the children point to the parts on the dolls and then find the parts on themselves - head, hair, eyes, nose, etc.
7. Mounted pictures - child names part and the part on himself.
8. Game "Show Me". Teacher asks question and child points to part of body. Answer: "This is my _____".
9. Teacher holds up picture of arm, eye, leg, etc., and finally a foot. Each time she asks "Is this a foot?"

This is not a foot.
 This is not a foot.
 This is not a foot.
 (This is a foot.)

Vocabulary.

coat	nose
jacket	hair
raincoat	teeth
sweater	ears
hat	neck
rubbers	hand
boots	fingers
umbrella	nails
shirt	arm
blouse	leg
pants	foot
skirt	head
dress	girl
socks	boy
shoes	open
tie	close
mittens	door
gloves	dressing room
face	colors, etc.

4. Unit 4 - School and School Life

Language patterns

Patterns for review

The use of "my".

This is my school.

The use of "it has".

It has a door.
It has windows.
It has a yard.
It has a fence, etc.

Reacting to commands.

Show me a desk.
Show me a pencil.
Show me a book, etc.

Use of "not" after "is".

This is not a desk.
This is not a desk.
This is a desk.

Responding to questions beginning with "what".

What color is this?
(This is red.)

Responding to questions.

(What do you do in school?)
I sing.
I dance.
I play.
I read.
I write, etc.

Use of "is" and "ing" to express continuous action.

(What is Arlena doing?)
Arlena is reading, etc.

Activities.--- The motivation for the school unit was a picture of the school taken by the teacher and a visit to a classroom with movable desks.

1. Show picture of school - discussion of picture.

This is my school.
It has a door.
It has a flag.

2. Children visit classroom with movable desks. One of them is brought into the room and filled with school objects - pen, pencil, eraser, crayons, book, paper, pictures, pegs, ruler, etc. Child opens desk, takes out object and names it.

This is a book.
This is a pencil, etc.

3. Teacher names different objects in classroom, child has to find object and name it.

Teacher - Show me a book.
Child - This is a book.

4. Teacher holds up a pen, eraser, crayon, and finally a book.

Each time she asks "Is this a book?"

This is not a book.
This is not a book.
This is not a book.
(This is a book.)

5. Teacher holds up pictures of different school objects and asks, "What is this?" If child names the object he may hold the picture.

6. Pictures of children's school activities - children describe action.

7. Different children act out activities.

(What is Arlena doing?)
Arlena is reading.

Vocabulary.

school	read	beard
room	write	bench
door	big	paper
window	small	book
floor	red, etc.	pencil
ceiling	crayon	pen
yard	chalk	bell
fence	one, etc.	ring
flag	boy	rang
high	girl	up
low	teacher	down
roof	chair	here
class	table	there
stairs	count	see
draw	stand	talk
play	sit	basement
sing	desk	
dance	picture	

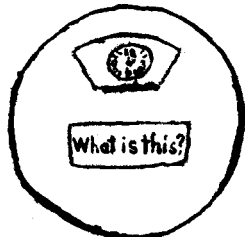
5. Culminating Activities

The following activities were used to culminate each unit:

1. Home - four charts, each depicting a different room, were used. Children name the objects and identify the room.
2. Family - Vocabulary wheel.



3. Clothing - Children identify articles of clothing and put them in boxes placed in front of a large cardboard cutout of a boy and a girl.
4. Parts of the body - Chart with large picture of a girl in the center with pictures of different parts of body mounted around it. Child identifies part of body and locates it on the large picture.
5. School - Vocabulary wheel.



6. Test - Appendix B.

5. Independent Activities

These activities can be used by the child independently at his desk, with the help of an English-speaking child, or in a small group.

1. Work sheets (Appendix F)
2. Picture Lotto
3. Number game
4. Concept building games
 - a. Cheese - children select a picture and put under correct classification - home, family.
 - b. Yes-No game - Large pictures, with small pictures including objects from large picture. Children select picture and answer "Yes" or "No" as to whether object is in large picture.
5. Visual discrimination
 - a. Find and match - children match picture to picture. Also suitable for Fish.
 - b. Match - Observational habits. "Shapes" - squares, circles, rectangles in assorted sizes, colors and shapes.
 - c. Matching pictures - individual sets, done at first with help of English-speaking child, then alone.

CHAPTER V
ANALYSIS OF DATA

It was the purpose of this study to build and evaluate a program for leading a foreign speaking child into English in the first grade. An attempt was made to show the development of the children's language patterns and vocabulary at the end of a seven week period. The analysis of data was organized to reveal:

1. Chronological and mental ages of the participants.
2. Patterns known.
3. Pattern errors.
4. Vocabulary known.
5. Vocabulary errors.
6. Action words known.
7. Action word errors.

The data was compiled as the result of a teacher constructed test given to each of the nine participants. It was analyzed to determine the amount of knowledge gained in the different areas of the study.

Table 1. Chronological and Mental Ages of Participants in the Study.

Child	Date of Birth	C.A.	M.A.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
A.....	1953-12-9	7-0	9-9
B.....	1952-9-25	8-3	10-3
C.....	1951-11-5	9-1	8-6
D.....	1952-12-17	8-0	9-9
E.....	Unknown	6	8-6
F.....	1951-2-24	9-10	12-6
G.....	1952-2-28	8-3	10-3
H.....	1954-5-11	6-7	8-9
I.....	1953-10-27	7-2	8-3

The chronological ages of the children ranged from six years to 9 years 10 months. According to the Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test their mental ages ranged from eight years three months to twelve years six months.

Table 2. Patterns

Children	Number of Patterns Used	Number of Patterns Missed
(1)	(2)	(3)
A.....	18	2
B.....	15	2
C.....	15	2
D.....	15	2
E.....	15	2
F.....	15	0
G.....	15	2
H.....	15	2
I.....	15	2
Total.....	135	16

A total number of fifteen patterns was used and of this number two patterns were missed by eight of the children. All of the patterns were known by the ninth child. One hundred thirty-five errors were possible. The total number of errors made was sixteen.

Table 3. Pattern Errors.

Pattern No.	Frequency of Error	Children Making Error
(1)	(2)	(3)
7. ("er")	8	A,B,C,D,E,G,H,I
8. ("est")	8	A,B,C,D,E,G,H,I

The sixteen pattern errors made by the children were in the use of "er" and "est". The individual children who made the errors have been listed above.

Table 4. Vocabulary.

Children	Number of Words Used	Number of Words Missed
(1)	(2)	(3)
A.....	98	2
B.....	98	5
C.....	98	13
D.....	98	8
E.....	98	1
F.....	98	1
G.....	98	1
H.....	98	15
I.....	98	19
Total.....	882	65

Vocabulary was measured through the use of ninety-eight mounted pictures. Sixty-five vocabulary errors were made. Eight hundred eighty-two errors were possible. The individual vocabulary mistakes made by the children have been listed in Table 5.

Table 5. Vocabulary Errors.

Word	Frequency of Error	Children Making Error
(1)	(2)	(3)
brushes.....	5	A,B,C,H,I
rubbers.....	5	D,E,F,H,I
umbrella	4	B,C,H,I
stairs.....	4	C,D,H,I
comb.....	3	B,D,G
fence.....	3	C,D,H
bathtub.....	2	A,H
closet.....	2	B,H
soap.....	2	C,I
towel.....	2	C,H
teethbrush.....	2	C,D
blouse.....	2	C,D
gate.....	2	C,D
"10".....	2	D,H
"6".....	2	H,I
bell.....	2	H,I
socks.....	1	B
glove.....	1	C
mittens.....	1	C
radio.....	1	C
arm.....	1	C
orange.....	1	H
red.....	1	H
telephone.....	1	H
pictures.....	1	H
blackboard.....	1	H
chalk.....	1	H
sofa.....	1	I
purple.....	1	I
yellow.....	1	I
"8".....	1	I
bathroom.....	1	I

(concluded on next page)

Table 5. (concluded)

Word	Frequency of Error	Children Making Error
(1)	(2)	(3)
#2#.....	1	I
#4#.....	1	I
#5#.....	1	I
mouth.....	1	I
#9#.....	1	I

Table 5 shows the sixty-five vocabulary errors and the individual children who made them.

Table 6. Action Pictures.

Children	Number of Pictures Used	Number of Pictures Missed
(1)	(2)	(3)
A.....	24	4
B.....	24	1
C.....	24	3
D.....	24	4
E.....	24	0
F.....	24	0
G.....	24	0
H.....	24	0
I.....	24	1
Total.....	216	13

Twenty-four action pictures were used with each individual child. Of two hundred sixteen possible errors, thirteen errors were made.

Table 7. Action Picture Errors.

Picture	Frequency of Error	Children Making Error
(1)	(2)	(3)
ironing.....	3	C,D,I
sewing.....	3	A,C,D
wiping dishes.....	2	A,D
watering flowers...	2	B,C
fixing chair.....	1	D
sweeping woman.....	1	A
sweeping child.....	1	A

Table 7 shows the thirteen action pictures errors and the children who made these errors.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to build and evaluate a program for leading a foreign speaking child into English in the first grade. The exercise units designed for the study attempted to carry out this purpose through an oral approach - in the following ways:

1. Through the use of meaningful exercises.
2. Through the use of related vocabulary and action words.
3. Through the use of various correlated activities.

The data were organized to ascertain:

1. Knowledge of language patterns.
2. Knowledge of vocabulary.
3. Knowledge of action words.

The Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test was administered in January, 1961 to nine first grade children in a large metropolitan city public school. The children were all from Puerto Rican backgrounds and had little or no knowledge of English. Their chronological ages ranged from six to almost ten years. Their mental ages, according to the above test, ranged from eight years three months to twelve years six months. All data reported were based on these nine children.

After the Goodenough Test had been administered, a series of four exercise units were given during a seven-week period. The exercise

units contained language patterns, related vocabulary and correlated activities. The daily exercises were of approximately thirty minutes duration.

At the conclusion of the exercises the children were given a teacher constructed test. This test was administered individually and took approximately twenty to twenty five minutes to give to each child.

Conclusions

1. The total number of language patterns used was fifteen and of this number two were missed by eight of the children. All of the patterns were known by the ninth child. One hundred thirty-five errors were possible. The total number of errors made was sixteen.
2. Ninety-eight vocabulary words were measured. Sixty-five vocabulary errors were made. Eight hundred eighty-two errors were possible.
3. The number of action words measured was twenty-four. Of two hundred sixteen possible errors, thirteen errors were made.
4. The Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test indicated that the mental ages of these children were higher than their chronological ages.

Limitations of the Study

1. A major limitation of the study was the size of the group. The number of children was too small for truly

significant conclusions.

2. The short period of the study made it difficult to measure carry-over value and retention of material taught.
3. The number of tests measuring mental age and containing a small amount of oral directions was very meager.

Suggestions for Further Research

1. Expansion of the exercises.
2. Retesting of children to evaluate carry-over value of the exercises.
3. Study of the relations of chronological age and mental age of bilingual children.
4. Development of city wide plan for bilinguals - for use with children of various backgrounds.

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APPENDIX

GOODENOUGH INTELLIGENCE TEST

For Kindergartens and Primary Grades

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University of Minnesota

CHILDREN'S DRAWING SHEET

Name Sex
 Age years, months. Grade Date
 School City

SCORE	
M.A.	
IQ	

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Date of child's birth Birthplace
 Nationality of father Nationality of mother
 Language spoken at home Social status
 Teacher's estimate of intelligence: very superior, superior, average, inferior, very inferior. (Underline.)
 Quality of school work: very superior, superior, average, inferior, very inferior. (Underline.)
 Health: excellent, good, fair, poor. (Underline.)
 Attendance: very regular, fairly regular, somewhat irregular, very irregular. (Underline.)
 Additional notes:

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CLASS A

Total score.....

CLASS B

Total score.....

1..... 11 a...

2..... 11 b...

3.....

4 a... 12 a...

4 b... 12 b...

4 c... 12 c...

4 d... 12 d...

5 a... 12 e...

5 b...

6 a... 13.....

6 b...

7 a... 14 a...

7 b... 14 b...

7 c... 14 c...

7 d... 14 d...

7 e... 14 e...

7 f... 14 f...

8 a... 15 a...

8 b... 15 b...

9 a... 16 a...

9 b... 16 b...

9 c... 16 c...

9 d... 16 d...

9 e...

10 a... 17 a...

10 b... 17 b...

10 c...

10 d... 18 a...

10 e... 18 b...

GOODENOUGH INTELLIGENCE TEST

KEY¹

-
- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Head present. | 11 a. Arm joints. |
| 2. Legs present. | 11 b. Leg joints. |
| 3. Arms present. | |
| 4 a. Trunk present. | 12 a. Proportion. Head. |
| 4 b. Trunk proportion. | 12 b. Proportion. Arms. |
| 4 c. Shoulders present. | 12 c. Proportion. Legs. |
| | 12 d. Proportion. Feet. |
| 5 a. Attachment of limbs. (A) | 12 e. Two dimensions. |
| 5 b. Attachment of limbs. (B) | |
| 6 a. Neck present. | 13. Heel. |
| 6 b. Neck outline. | |
| 7 a. Eyes present. | 14 a. Coördination. Lines A. |
| 7 b. Nose present. | 14 b. Coördination. Lines B. |
| 7 c. Mouth present. | 14 c. Coördination. Head. |
| 7 d. Features in two dimensions. | 14 d. Coördination. Trunk. |
| 7 e. Nostrils shown. | 14 e. Coördination. Arms and Legs. |
| | 14 f. Coördination. Features. |
| 8 a. Hair present. | 15 a. Ear present. |
| 8 b. Hair detail. | 15 b. Ear detail. |
| | |
| 9 a. Clothing present. | 16 a. Eye detail. Brow. |
| 9 b. Two articles non-transparent. | 16 b. Eye detail. Pupil. |
| 9 c. Entirely non-transparent. | 16 c. Eye detail. Shape. |
| 9 d. Four articles shown. | 16 d. Eye detail. Glance. |
| 9 e. Complete costume. | |
| 10 a. Fingers present. | 17 a. Chin and forehead shown. |
| 10 b. Number correct. | 17 b. Chin and forehead; detail. |
| 10 c. Detail correct. | |
| 10 d. Thumb shown. | 18 a. Profile A. |
| 10 e. Hand shown. | 18 b. Profile B. |

¹See over for Table of Mental Age Equivalent of Scores. This Key is, of course, merely an outline and can be used only by a scorer who is thoroughly familiar with the methods of scoring each item as described in the author's book, *Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings*, pages 112-153 (published by World Book Company).

TABLE OF MENTAL AGE EQUIVALENTS OF SCORES¹

Score	M. A.	Score	M. A.	Score	M. A.
1	3-3	18	7-6	35	11-9
2	3-6	19	7-9	36	12-0
3	3-9	20	8-0	37	12-3
4	4-0	21	8-3	38	12-6
5	4-3	22	8-6	39	12-9
6	4-6	23	8-9	40	13-0
7	4-9	24	9-0	41	Above 13
8	5-0	25	9-3	42	Above 13
9	5-3	26	9-6	43	Above 13
10	5-6	27	9-9	44	Above 13
11	5-9	28	10-0	45	Above 13
12	6-0	29	10-3	46	Above 13
13	6-3	30	10-6	47	Above 13
14	6-6	31	10-9	48	Above 13
15	6-9	32	11-0	49	Above 13
16	7-0	33	11-3	50	Above 13
17	7-3	34	11-6	51	Above 13

¹ It has not seemed wise to attempt to derive mental age equivalents above age 13. In finding the IQ's of retarded children who are more than thirteen years old, the chronological age should be treated as thirteen only, and the IQ recorded as "or below." In the case of children who earn scores above 40, the mental age should be recorded as "13 or above" and the IQ as "or above."

Evaluation

1. Please come in.

2. Sit down.

Now you can help me fill out this paper.
(Please answer in a sentence.)

3. What is your name?

4. Are you a girl or a boy?

5. How old are you?

6. Show child his own picture
of his family.

Tell me about your family.

What does your father do?

What does your mother do?

7. Show picture of a house.

Is this a school?

Tell me about the house.

8. Vocabulary - individual pictures.

List words not known.

9. Action pictures.

List pictures not known

Pattern Check List

Command

Command

Question + "my"

"I am"

Statement

"er" "est"

"s" suffix with verbs

"s"

"not" after "is"

"has" "it has"

"a" "the"

"is" + "ing"

to show continuous action

Appendix C

Patterns Used

1. The use of the definite article "the" and of the indefinite article "a".
2. Responding to questions beginning with "what" and "where".
3. The use of "has".
4. The use of "it has".
5. The use of "my" in identification.
6. The use of the "-s" suffix with verbs.
7. The use of "-er".
8. The use of "-est".
9. The use of "is" and "ing" to express continuous action.
10. Statement pattern "I am".
11. Reacting to commands.
12. The use of "not" after "is".
13. The use of "my" with parts of the body.
14. Statement pattern with "my".
15. Statement pattern "I am _____ years old".

Appendix D.

Vocabulary Pictures Used

<u>Family</u>	<u>Clothing</u>	<u>Home</u>	<u>School</u>
Mother	mittens	closet	window
Father	glove	chair	pictures
sister	tie	table	gate
brother	shoes	sofa	fence
baby	socks	bedroom	blackboard
	dress	bathroom	pen
<u>Parts of Body</u>	umbrella	brush	chalk
nose	skirt	door	crayons
hair	pants	lamp	door
mouth	blouse	kitchen	book
ear	shirt	sink	chair
eyes	boots	refrigerator	teacher
hand-fingers	rubbers	window	scissors
arms	hat	rug	numbers 1-10
legs	sweater	bathtub	colors - 6
foot	raincoat	stove	pencil
face	coat	house	desk
teeth		bed	flag
		stairs	clock
		comb	bell
		toothbrush	table
			boy
			girl

Appendix E

Action Pictures Used

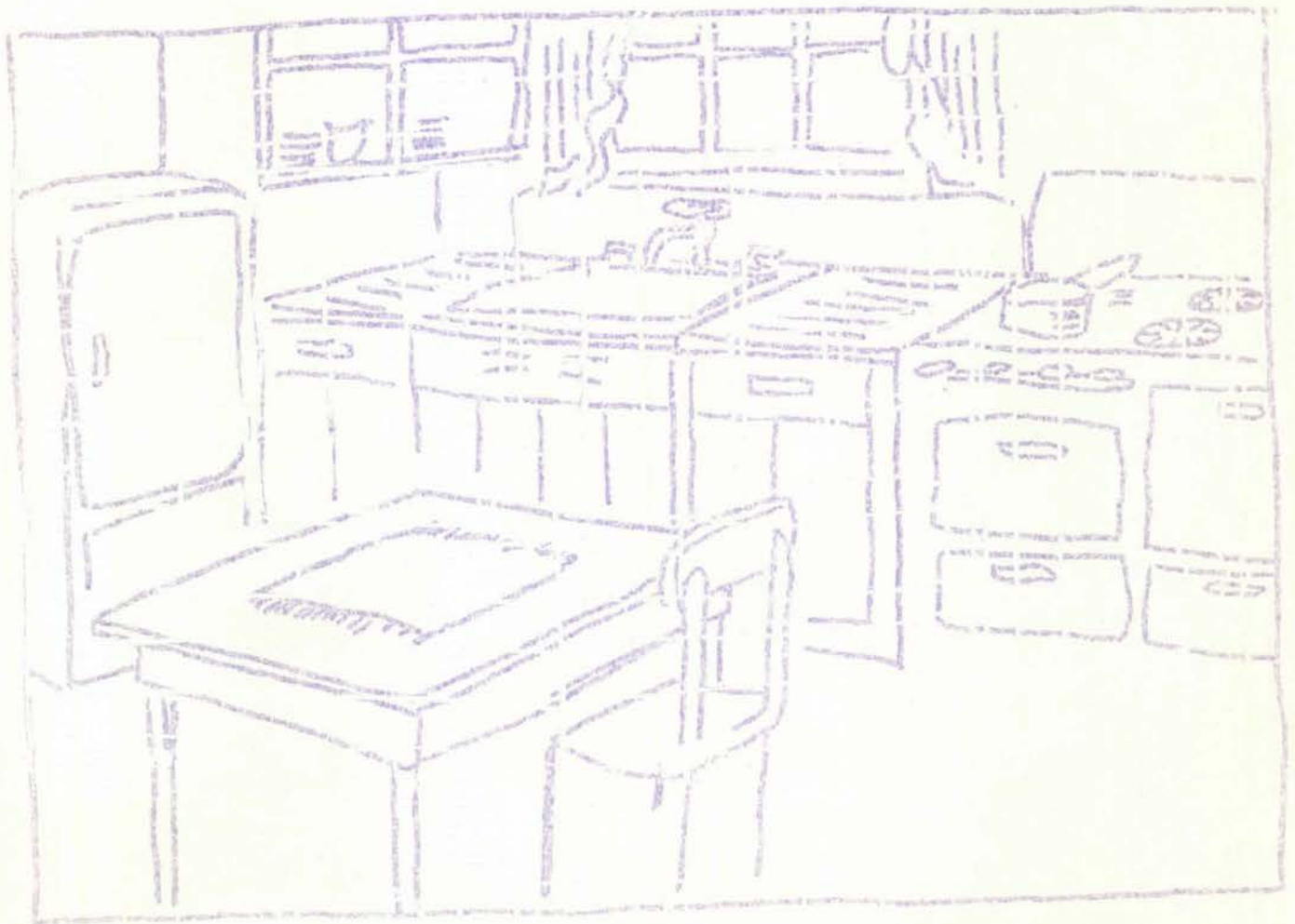
dog eating	eating apple
watering garden	eating banana
reading paper	riding pony
reading book	wiping dishes
painting picture	watering flowers
girl sweeping	washing floor
woman sweeping	making a pie
drinking milk	going to Church
cooking	washing clothes
painting a house	playing a game
fixing a chair	ironing clothes
playing ball	sewing clothes

APPENDIX F

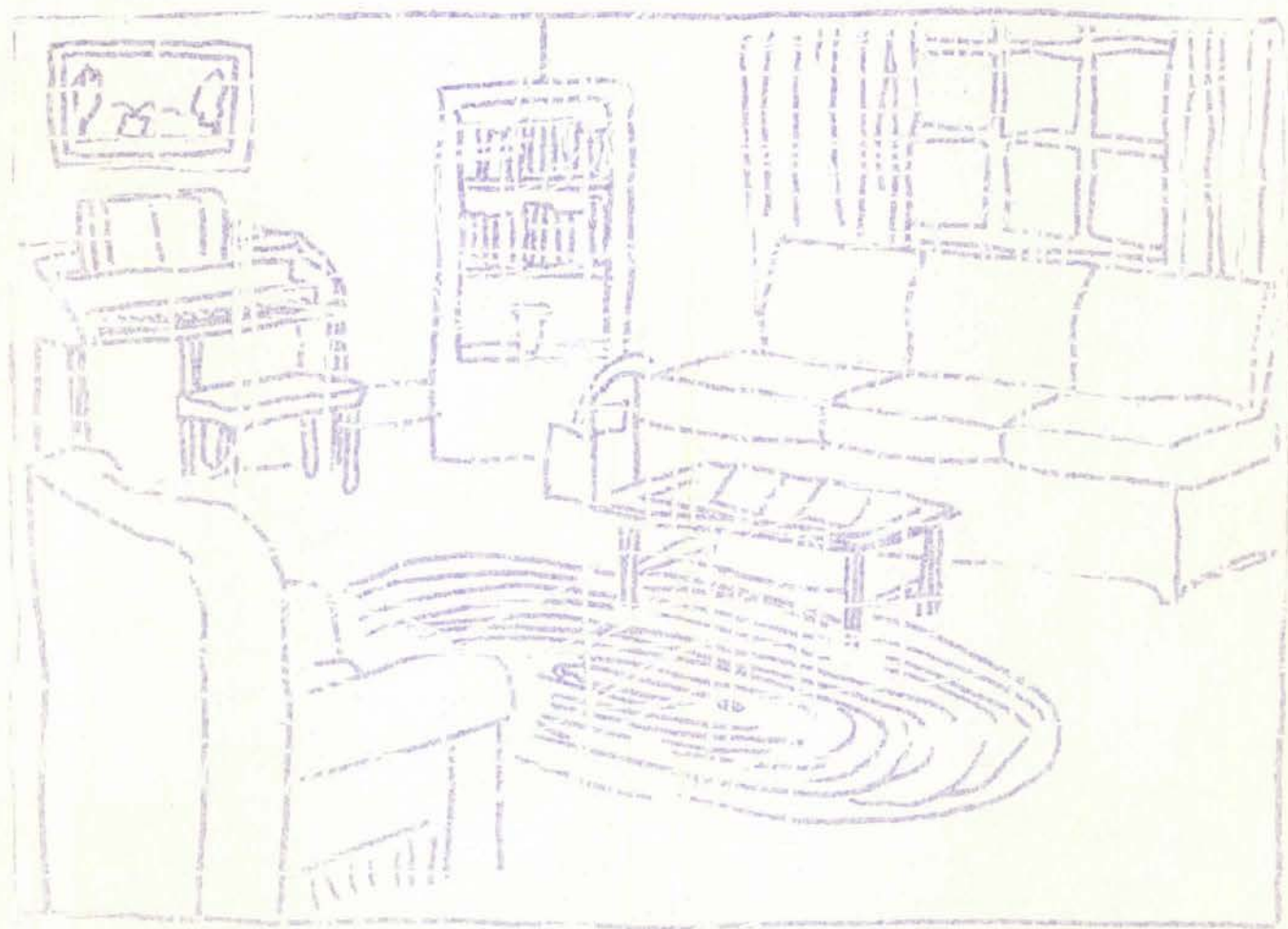


The House

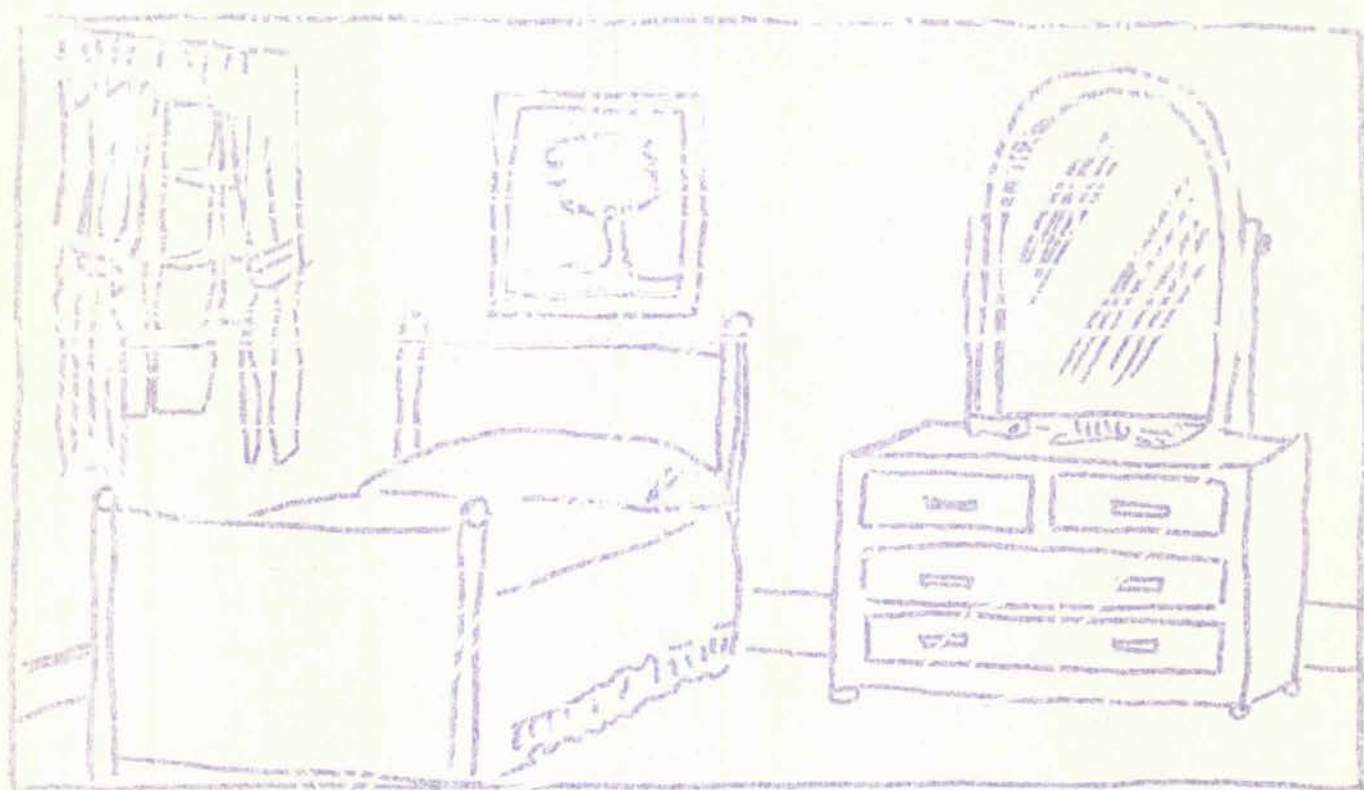
The Kitchen

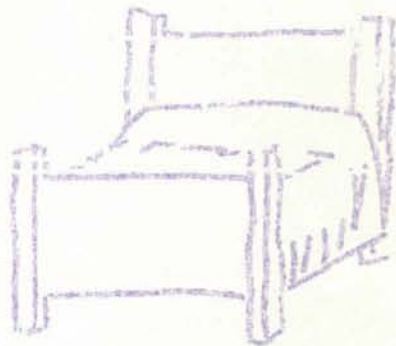
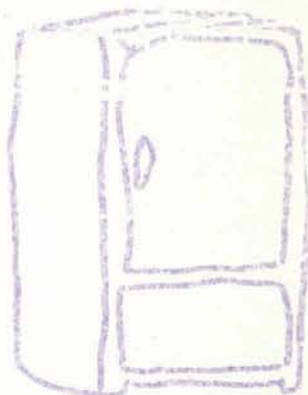
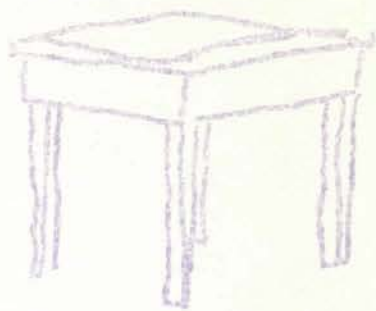
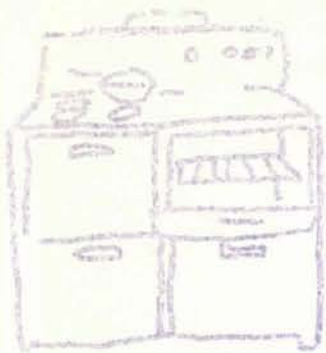


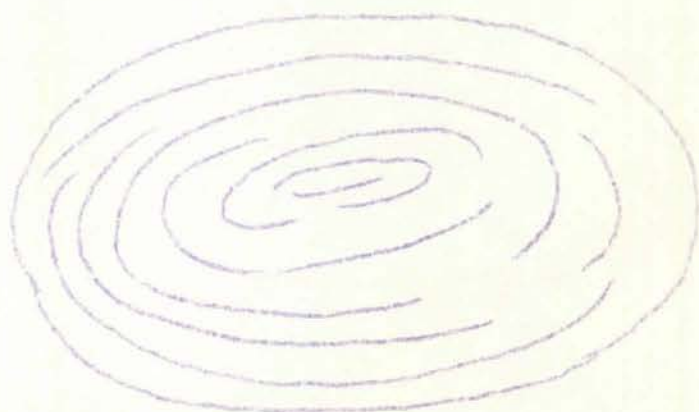
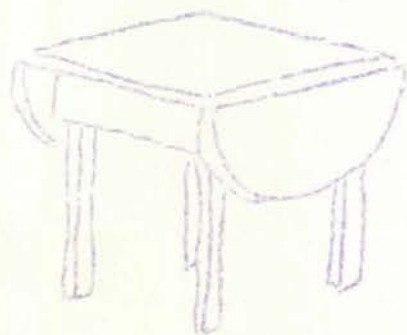
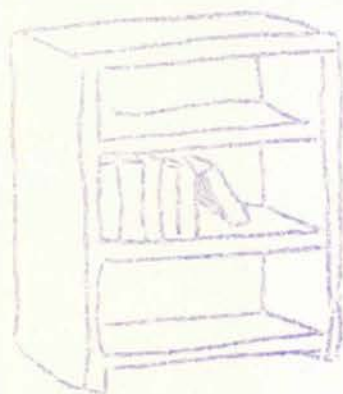
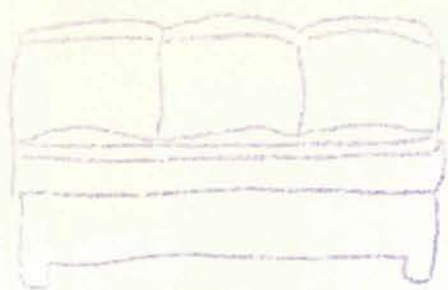
The Living Room

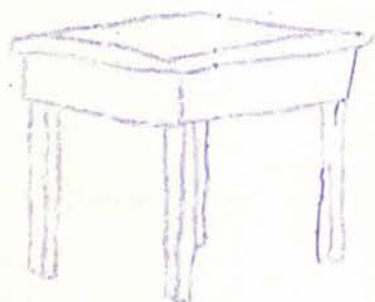
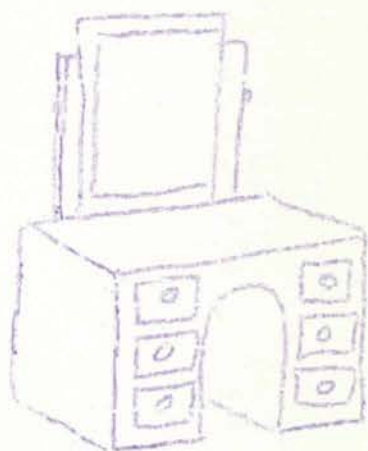
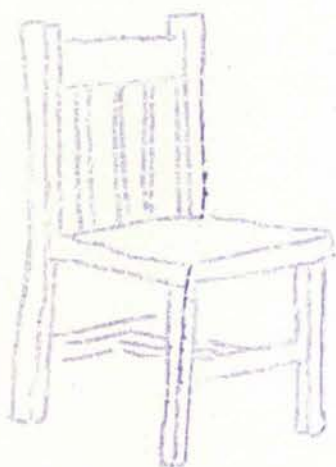
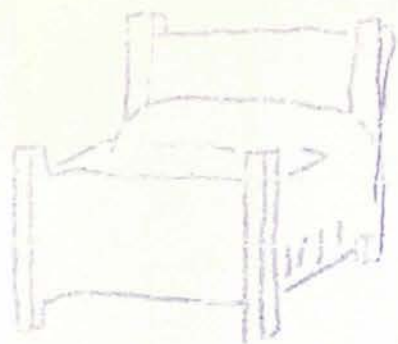


The Bedroom











This is a coat.



This is a shoe.



This is a sock

This is a coat.

This is a sock.

This is a shoe.

This is a sock.

This is a shoe.

This is a coat.



This is a sweater.



This is a hat.



This is a dress.

This is a hat.

This is a sweater.

This is a dress.

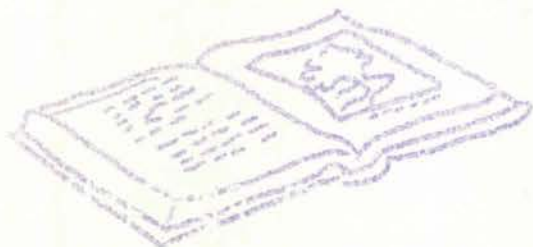
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This is a hat.

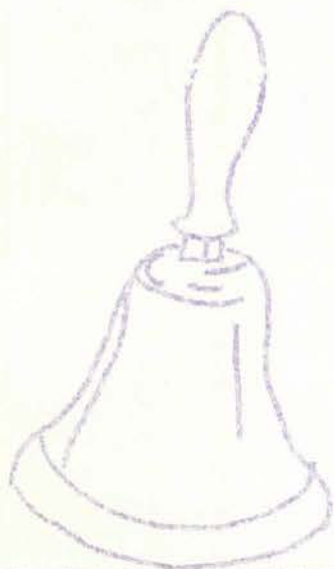
This is a sweater.



This is a pencil.



This is a book.



This is a bell.

This is a bell.

This is a pencil.

This is a book.

This is a bell.

This is a book.

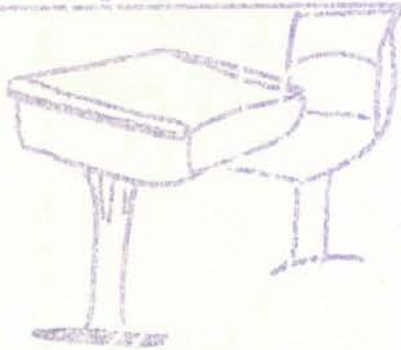
This is a pencil.



This is a chair.



This is a crayon.



This is a desk.

This is a crayon.

This is a desk.

This is a chair.

This is a crayon.

This is a desk.

This is a chair.



Father

sister
Mother
Father



Mother

Mother
Father
sister



sister

Father
sister
Mother



sister

brother
sister
house



house

sister
house
brother



brother

house
sister
brother



Mother

house
Mother
Father



house

Mother
Father
house



Father

Father
house
Mother



This is sister.



This is Mother

This is brother.



This is Father.

This is brother

This is Father.

This is sister.




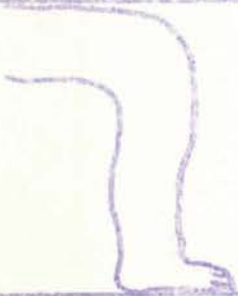
This is Mother.

This is Father

This is sister.

This is Mother.

This is brother.

	hand
arm	leg
	arm
hand	foot
	arm
foot	foot
	hand
leg	leg



eye



ear



nose



mouth

ear

nose

mouth

eye

mouth

eye

ear

nose