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New Trends In Language Acquisition Theory

BY WILLIAM D. CONWAY

Every method of language teaching has at its heart some theory of language acquisition. For the past three decades or more the theories of behavioral psychologists such as B.F. Skinner have been prominent in the development of the language acquisition background upon which linguists have based many important aspects of the audio-lingual approach to language instruction. In recent years, however, many linguists have begun to feel that the audio-lingual method is not in step with advancements in language acquisition theory. Psychologists have become increasingly interested in the cognitive aspects of language learning, something receiving little emphasis in behavioral "stimulus"/"response" theories. It seems important that the classroom teacher have some knowledge of the underlying theories of language acquisition to be most efficient in using any method. At the same time it also seems important to be aware of possible changes and trends that may influence methodology in the future.

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It is the purpose of this paper to examine briefly, in nontechnical language where possible, some of the basic tenets of behavioral theories, as they relate to teaching English as a second language, and to examine similarly, some of the prominent trends in cognitive acquisition theory.

The basic differences between the two theories of language acquisition can be illustrated roughly by comparing first the behavioral and then cognitive viewpoints of language acquisition in children.

> "The child associates the sounds of the human voice with need-satisfying circumstances; when he hears his own random babbling, these sounds are recognized to

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be similar to those uttered by the adults so that the pleasure or anticipation of pleasure associated with mother's voice is now transferred to his own vocalizations. Thus, hearing his own sounds becomes a pleasurable experience in itself, the more so as mother tends to reinforce these sounds, particularly if they by chance resemble a word such as "dada." This induces a quantitive increase in the infant's vocal output. Soon he will learn that approximating adult speech patterns, i.e., imitating, is generally reinforced, and this ought to put him on his way toward adult forms of language."[1]

S/R Theory

The behavioral psychologist (as illustrated in the quotation) is interested in what "stimulated" the child to speak, in his "response," and in the manner in which the response was "reinforced" by the praise and attention of the parents and in the pleasure the child received at gaining attention for his efforts, i.e. "secondary reinforcement." The behavioral psychologist, in an effort to become objective and scientific, works much like the structural linguist in that he attempts to work only with what is observable; hence, he is not concerned with the unseen processes of the mind. Later when the child begins to produce sentences that aren't easily shown to be the results of imitation, the behavioral psychologist attributes the new form to a graded process of analogy in which the child is said to be reacting to similarities with previous speech "stimuli."

Cognitive Theory

The cognitive psychologist, on the other hand, emphasizes what goes on in the mind of the child in addition to the external factors.

Here is one of the primary differences between the two approaches to language acquisition, which places them on divergent paths. The cognitive psychologist believes that the mind has a great deal to do with language acquisition rather than acting and reacting as a machine to "stimulus" and "response." While the behavioralists focus on the observable stimulus and response, considering "generalization" as only a part of a larger process, analogously the cognitive psychologist says that pattern recognition and de-coding are the proper subject of study.

Behavioral theories are apparent in some basic features of the audio-lingual method. Usually advocates of this method assume that foreign-language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation, and that habits are strengthened by reinforcement and association. Students are guided in such a way that they practice only the right responses. Some experts[2] have so emphasized the mechanical nature of language acquisition that they claim students can master the foundation structures of the language without reference to meaning. "Pattern practice," one of the central features of the audio-lingual method in which substitutions are made on a basic pattern, would appear to be a direct result of the behavioral idea of "generalization of stimuli." One frequently finds the cue in such a drill referred to as the "stimulus" and the answer as the "response." Little more need be said; the language acquisition heritage is readily appa-

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A Jabberwockian Approach To Discourse Analysis

BY NANCY ARAPOFF

'Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble on the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogoves
And the mame raths outgrave.

Lewis Carroll's poem "Jabberwocky" is very popular in freshman composition texts, partly because of its delightful nonsense words, but mostly because it illustrates so clearly what grammar is. Native speakers often have great difficulty understanding the nature of grammar. Because they don't have to think about grammar in order to formulate sentences in their language, they fail to see that the meaning of the words they utter is determined largely through grammatical context. Words have become real things to them, rather than parts of a symbolizing system.

In "Jabberwocky," though, most of the words have no meaning. The students, however, will insist that they do. When asked whether TOVES refers to a thing or to an action they will inevitably assert that it refers to a thing, or, rather, to two or more things. Then, when asked how they know this, the light dawns. They begin to discover what grammar is: a system which creates meanings.

Since grammar, then, is the conveyor of meaning, it ought certainly to be useful in teaching reading comprehension to foreign students, in teaching students to figure out the meaning of what they read. But the kind of grammar taught in reading comprehension courses must be discourse grammar, not sentence grammar: foreign students taking reading comprehension can already understand sentences, already know the grammar of English sentences fairly well, else they would not be in such a course. Thus, the goal in teaching comprehension must be to teach students to understand linguistic units larger than a sentence: discourses. Just as the students should be able to identify the subject of a sentence, so too they should be able to find the assertion in a sentence (the predicate), so too they should be able to identify the assertion in a discourse (the thesis). But all too often they never learn to do this. And the fact is, few teachers can tell them how; few teachers can tell them what discourse grammar is.

Mystique of Language

I think that the minds of all too many of us have been boggled by the many composition and literature courses we took throughout our school years. We tend to think of the written language as a kind of mystique in which THEME and PLOT lurk as mysterious entities. Frankly, as sophisticated as we may be when it comes to sentence-level grammar, we join our unsophisticated students when it comes to discourse-level grammar. If we were asked, for example, why we knew a certain sentence was the thesis of an essay, I'll wager that most of us would answer that it was the main idea of an essay, the one that all of the other sentences discussed, or something like that. We find it very difficult to disassociate ourselves from the meanings of the sentences in a discourse so that we can look at the system which creates those meanings.

I therefore propose that we use a new approach to the grammatical analysis of discourses; an approach in which we can be sure that meaning

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will not interfere with the objectivity of our findings; i.e., a "Jabberwockian" approach.

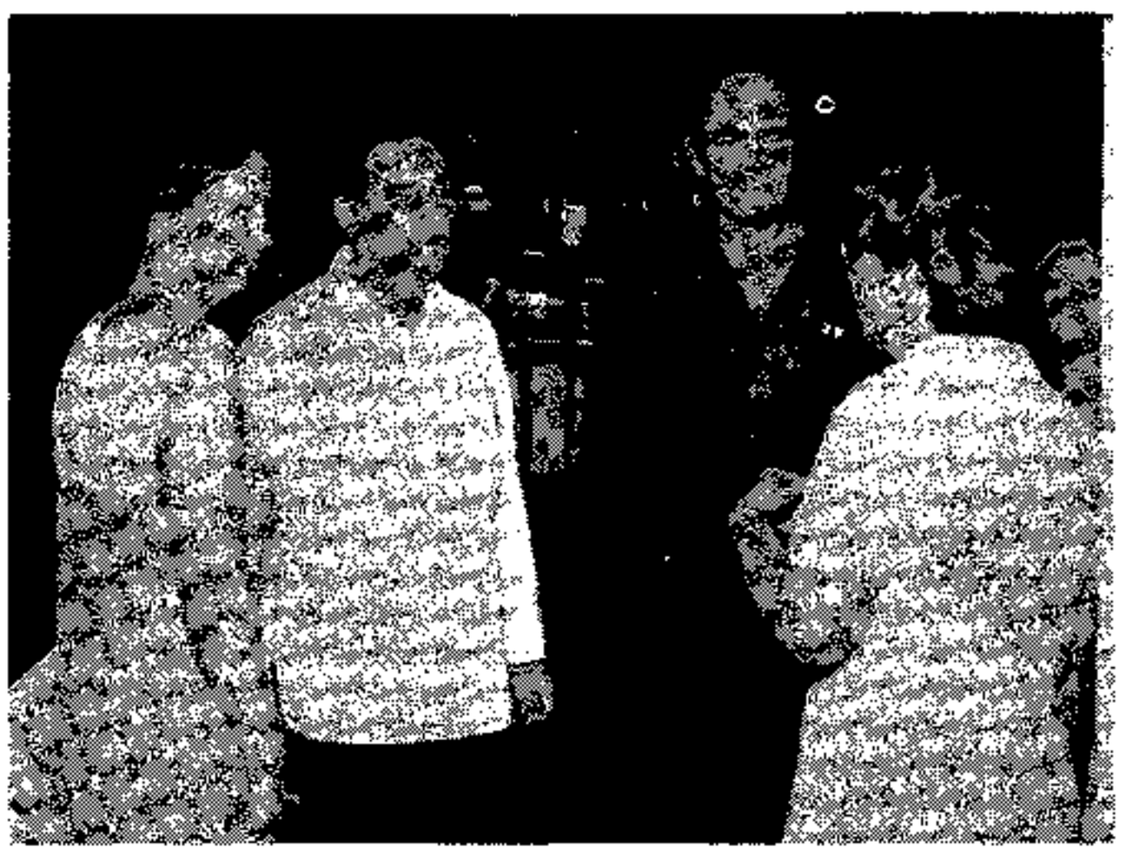
Space here does not permit thorough exposition of this proposed means of analysis. However, the sample unit below, composed of a model discourse written in "Jabberwockian," and of some questions about it, will give teachers some ideas as to how to use such an approach. Using this approach will help students to understand a "real" written discourse by helping them to understand the grammatical system which creates the meaning of the discourse.

Sample Unit

Although morsle flays have one overtromping ovingle as compared to Maniacan flays, they also have one abstonate disovingle. To illustrate, morsle flays have the ovingle of being a much more smackical bim than Maniacan flays: their ferial cran is less; they cran less to abodate; their trops are less cranly, and their regray ploy is trumber. On the other hand, morsle flays have the disovingle of being less grumby than Maniacan flays: they haven't as much flout; they have less zam; they don't drom as smithily; and they plack the bondaful maxic trainks that Maniacan flays have. Therefore, those flay-branners twingled in smakomy bim morsle flays while those twingled in grum bim Maniacan flays.

Questions for Students

1. What is the subject of the above paragraph?
2. What is the thesis (the general assertion about the subject)?
3. What two general examples illustrate what the thesis asserts?
4. What relationship do these examples have to one another--i.e., do they have a cause-effect, chronological, enumerative, comparative, or additive relationship?
5. What specific examples illustrate each of the general examples?
6. The questions you have just answered have required that you recognize the meanings of sentences, not in isolation, but in relation to other sentences in the paragraph. These meaning relationships were recognizable only through the presence of various grammatical signals. On a discourse level, the most common grammatical signals are: a) positioning of phrases and sentences within thediscourse,b) repetition of key words, synonyms, pronouns, c) parallelism, d) morphemes like -ER, and e) punctuation--especially colons and semicolons. Give specific examples from the paragraph of each of these kinds of grammatical signals, and explain how the presence of these signals makes the meaning relationships among the various sentences of the discourse recognizable to you.



Left to Right: Mrs. King, Sir Arthur King, Dr. Gerald Dykstra (University of Hawaii) and Alice Pack (CCH) with back to camera.

Dr. Arthur King is Comptroller, British Council, in charge of world wide British ESL programs. The Kings had a two day stop in Hawaii during September. They, with their hosts in Hawaii, Dr. and Mrs. Gerald Dykstra, made a brief visit to the Church College campus and were guests of President Owen J. Cook for a tour of the Polynesian Cultural Center. The British educator expressed considerable interest in the BATESL major at the Church College, and felt that such an undergraduate program should be offered at morecolleges and universities as the need for trained English teachers on the elementary and secondary level in the English Second Language field is world wide.

From Pattern Practice To Conversational English

BY ROBERT G. BANDER

Few assignments require more flexibility and imagination than a course in conversational English for students of English as a second language. Materials for teaching English conversation are scarce and generally limited in scope. Topics for discussion are hard to choose. All too readily, the teacher, or one or two more advanced students, comes to dominate the discussion. Student shyness must be overcome; lack of student preparation must be compensated for; boredom must be put to rout.

Fledgling teachers of conversation, in their search for instructional materials, often begin by introducing books of readings. The problem here is that readings are frequently too long to be treated in class and too difficult to be read at home. The conversation period easily falls into a teacher-dominated one. A second, and better, approach is dialogues. However, memorization of dialogues may take longer than the interest they arouse can be maintained. In any case, students are not really producing their own. Short dialogues that can be quickly memorized are the best of this kind of activity. A third commonly followed practice, oral reports, is often the most deadly. Students tend not to know how to organize, and they don't know when to stop their monologues. Still another approach--classroom pictures used to stimulate conversation -- usually results in an illustrated talk on vocabulary by the instructor. Finally, movies and slides generally last too long, shifting the student into a passive role. As in most of the previously-mentioned activities, there is no assurance that such visual aids will generate discussion.

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Where, then, is the teacher of conversational English to turn? First of all, the instructor must realize that it is unrealistic to expect students to jump from controlled drill activities directly into free conversation. Instead, the teacher should block out a series of sequential exercises in limited response situations. In this way, he will more surely bridge this crucial gap between pattern practice and conversational English, extending the students' experience and bolstering their confidence in a controlled conversation situation.

Basic Steps

The best first step for the instructor is to give students practice in answering questions with increasingly complex responses. First answers should be in short forms ("Yes, I did," "Yesterday," "At five o'clock"). Then whole sentence answers should be encouraged. After a time, students will move on to replying with a subject-verb pattern, plus another sentence giving additional information. This stage is followed by one in which the answer consists of three parts: a reply to the question; an additional statement; and a question directed back to the original interrogator. Working on such three-step answers seems to be one of the best ways of moving toward free conversation. It is essential at this stage that the student learn to add something more and to turn the conversation back to the other person with a question. Otherwise the conversational situation comes to resemble a cross-examination -- the teacher asking the questions, the student replying with a monosyllable, the teacher asking again.

The next sequential step focuses upon the progression from the student answering questions to his asking them. At first, the instructor will have to write questions on slips of paper to give to students, who then vocalize the questions. Later students can be expected to formulate their own questions. Additional activities in this area include the teacher reading a brief selection and then asking for questions to bring out more facts, or a student acting as a reporter or "man in the street" television interviewer asking other students questions.

Suggested Sequence

Conversational English activities, of course, should be arranged in order of increasing difficulty. Here is a suggested sequential series of methods: period one, answering questions; period two, asking questions; period three, students spontaneously questioning the teacher; period four, answering the questions with two complete, logical ideas followed by a question; period five, unprompted conversation, with questions produced by the students; period six, oral reports on articles, followed by questions; period seven, round table discussion; period eight, retelling the facts of an article or story read aloud by the teacher; period nine, extemporaneous speaking; period ten, role playing, ranging from the simple (a boy late for a date) to the more complex (a murder investigation and trial). In the more advanced stages of conversation, stories can provide much material for practice in speaking. Students can paraphrase a story told by their instructor; they can supply the ending to an unfinished story; they can take turns adding episodes in a serial story. Note, however, that each of these developmental activities is repeated several times and that the ten conversational periods mentioned above will cover several months of class work.

The Importance of Planning

In order to produce successful conversation periods, planning is most important. Alternate activities should be prepared in case the plan for the day does not work. Then there should be constant variety. Activities in which most of the students are passive should alternate with sessions in which everyone participates. Students should be prepared for each activity so that they will know what they are to do and why they are doing it. Cultural differences must always be kept in mind in arranging activities. If a teacher uses reading materials, movies, and pictures, he should build the material into a unit. Activities such as oral reports, round tables, and discussions require considerable preparation. Invariably students will not know how to pick out main ideas, organize, and summarize. Much teacher help is needed here. Finally, experience suggests that conversation classes should be assigned to the most ex-experienced and ingenious teachers, those who will be willing to undertake extensive curriculum building. With careful planning and constant self-evaluation, the instructor of conversational English will find his course to be a richly fulfilling experience both for his students and for himself.

Language

(Cont. from page 2)

rent and the results of its application to language teaching have been excellent, certainly an advancement over earliet methods.

The shift in the theoretical basis of language acquisition, as mentioned earlier in the introduction to this paper, has been away from behavioral theories towards a re-emphasis of the importance of the mentalistic or cognitive aspects. Men such as George A. Miller, Eric H. Lenneberg, and Noam Chomsky have been helping to research and develop new aspects of this type of theory. Chomsky writing in "A Review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior" published in 1959 says, "As far as acquisition of language is concerned, it seems clear that

Acquisition Theory —

reinforcement, casual observation, and natural inquisitiveness (coupled with a strong tendency to imitate) are important factors, as is the remarkable capacity of the child to generalize, hypothesize, and 'process information' in a variety of very special and apparently highly complex ways which we cannot yet describe or begin to understand, and which may be largely innate, or may develop through some sort of learning or through maturation of the nervous system."[3]

In the same article Chomsky presents considerable evidence to support his views that the foundation terms of behavior psychology (stimulus, response, reinforcement) are "vague and arbitrary." He points out that the stimuli cannot be determined in more complex behavior. Chomsky in effect, reopened the door to studies in language acquisition, making a powerful case for further research and a broadening of the scope of study.

Basis for Collaboration

Chomsky (1957 and 1965) provided linguists and psychologists with a common ground for useful collaboration when he developed his idea of a generative grammar. He began with a basic distinction between "competence" and "performance." A language user's competence is his knowledge of his language: and his performance is the actual use he makes of that knowledge in concrete situations. Chomsky developed his grammar to describe the user's competence rather than, as in most other grammatical studies, dealing solely with what has been produced, i.e., "performance."

Generative Grammar

By a generative grammar Chomsky means simply a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assign structural descriptions to sentences. Obviously, every native speaker of a language has mastered and internalized a generative grammar that constitutes his knowledge of his language.[4] Because competence is not directly observable, but rather a process of the mind, and because Chomsky's grammar provides an avenue for exploring these areas, a wedding of psychology and generative grammar has come about in the efforts of both groups to explain how this "competence" is acquired.

Predisposition for Language?

Some of the theories of this new generation of "psycholinguists" are extremely thought provoking. Perhaps the most startling, at first, is this claim: "That children can acquire language so readily can mean only that they have some innate predisposition for this kind of learning, and this can only mean that evolution has prepared mankind in some very special way for this unique human accomplishment,"[5] say George A. Miller and Frank Smith in the introduction to The Genesis of Language, a compilation of papers read at the "Language Development in Children" conference held in April of 1965.

David McNeil, in the same conference, presented a case suggesting that early speech is not an abbreviated and distorted form of adult language but the product of a unique first grammar.[6] This is particularly interesting when contrasted with the behavioral point-of-view presented earlier in this paper.

In constructing a grammar a linguist hopes to reconstruct the competence possessed by fluent speakers of the language. A child hopes to become such a speaker, so he, too, must reconstruct the competence of fluent speakers. He must formulate the grammar of the language to which he is exposed. A linguist can check his grammatical description with his knowledge as a fluent speaker. The child can't do this. The child must acquire language from the great variety of speech that he hears spoken around him. Linguists now postulate that language acquistion, for the child,

is based on something called "explanatory adequacy. This "adequacy" is related to his innate capacity for language which can be represented by a set of linguistically universal statements, or "language universals" as they are often called.[7] The child, then, is said to formulate his grammar on the basis of his innate capacity or on language universals which are part of the competence of all children. This biological endowment gives him the ability to think abstractly--to classify words and to develop generalizations about the structures of the language.

This innate capacity seems to be approachable through a linguistic theory such as that of generative grammar. Some linguists, such as McNeil, expect that this grammar may include such things as statements of the difference between the base and surface structures, rules of formation and transformation, and definitions of various grammatical relationships. It seems likely that the emphasis given to transformations in some of McNeil's research may indicate this is a point of particular interest to teachers. He feels that what the child acquires may be a knowledge of particular transformations. McNeil accounts for the speed at which native speakers learn the language (1 1/2 to 3 1/2 years of age) by the hypothesis that what children learn first are features that correspond to linguistic universals,[8] i.e. abstract features, which allow him to systematically approach the patterning of the language.

Role of Practice

Perhaps of more interest to the language teacher are McNeil's statements concerning the role of overt practice, imitation, and expansion in language acquisition. Speaking of the role of overt practice, McNeil said, "Some authors seem to believe that all of language acquisition can be attributed to the gradual strengthening of responses (behavior terms). It is clear, however, that this sanguine view is condemned to frustration, for there are no responses to be strengthened in the base structure of language."[9] McNeil narrowed down the role of practice to "Does practice theory characterize what a child does in order to find the locally (native language) appropritate expression of linguistic universals?"

He suggests that children do not produce speech simultaneously; that they have arrived at some sort of grammatical description before they attempt what seems to be the practice of novel forms.. Further, in examining the behavioral "response stength" (practice increases strength of response), McNeil cites a number of examples to the contrary where the practiced form is far from dominant, such as is found in the eventual triumph in a child's language of regular verbs over irregular verbs even though the latter are practiced more often. While not discounting practice entirely, McNeil feels "that whatever salutary effects practice imitation might offer, practice may not be very important to language acquistion."[10]

Use of Expansion

The principle called "the expansion of child speech" (Brown, 1964) may have, according to McNeil, some instructional purpose. Here, the child, who hasn't reached the same level of abstraction in the use of language as an adult, says something such as "Papa name Papa." The adult follows by saying, Yes, Papa's name is Papa."[11] Some linguists feel that this sort of expansion may have considerable importance in the child's acquisition of language.

It seems clear to this author that cognitive studies are producing valuable contributions to language acquisition theory and that these theories will soon be directly involved in the formulation of new methodology for teaching many subjects in the school. Teaching English as a Second Language should particularly benefit from new insights that may be discovered. At the same time, it also seems worth noting that no substitute or revision of the audio-lingual approach of any significance has yet been made available.

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The Use of "How Much" and "How Many" in TESL Textbooks

BY ALICE C. PACK

Original Problem

My original project was (1) to search textbooks used in teaching English as a second language to find uses of "how much and "how many" which students might question because a singular form of "be" was used instead of an expected plural, and (2) how the texts used and explained these forms. An example of this is one suggested by Dr. Yao Shen of the University of Hawaii which she found in a text as an example of vocabulary in context: "How much is a cup of coffee and a piece of pie?" The "is" is singular but the subject "a cup of coffee and a piece of pie" is plural. Students could well question this pattern.

(Cont. from page 8)

FOOTNOTES

1. Eric H. Lenneberg, "The Capacity for Language Acquisition," The Structure of Language, ed. Fodor and Katz (New York, 1964), p. 601. (This quotation does not represent the author's own theories of language acquisition.)
2. R. L. Politzer (1961) quoted by Wilga Rivers, The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher (Chicago, 1964), p. 20.
3. Noam Chomsky, "A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior," The Structure of Language, ed. Fodor and Katz (New York, 1964), p. 563.
4. Frank Smith and George A. Miller, "Introduction," The Genesis of Language (Cambridge, 1966), p. 4.
5. Smith and Miller, p. 3
6. Smith and Miller, p. 7
7. David McNeil, "The Creation of Language by Children," Psycholinguist Papers, ed. J. Lyons and R. J. Wales (Edinburgh, 1966), p. 100.
8. Ibid., p. 101.
9. David McNeil, "Developmental Psycholinguistics," The Genesis of Language, p. 67.
10. Ibid, p. 72.
11. Ibid, p. 73.

Basis for the study was the "TENES" Textbooks Used by Reponding Teachers (Table 57). In addition to the forty-two books available from this list, fifteen other titles--single volumes and series--were examined, for a total of fifty-seven single volumes or series.

References Non-Existent

References of the questionable type referred to were almost non-existent in these books--all but one of these elementary through advanced texts avoided anything which might be considered confusing. The only reference I found was ("How much is three dimes and a penny? Thirty-one cents." [1]) in Volume 3 of the most highly used reference on the TENES list. This was used without any accompanying explanation as the second of two examples in a review unit on "How much and the name of coins of the United States."

The research showed that (1) only one item was found in the texts searched, and (2) it was used as an example in the student textbook without explanation or additional exercises.

A page by page perusal of these texts revealed some surprising, if not startling, facts about the teaching of the common American expressions "How much" and "How many", particularly in combination with the very "be."

Terms Ignored

Twenty-seven texts completely ignored these sentence structures without using any reference in unit studies, narratives, dialogs, examples, or exercises--only fifteen of these had "how many" or "how much"

in any form. These used expressions with another verb such as "do" or "have". In two of these texts one or the other of these expressions was used only once, without any attempt to teach the sentence patterns. Once "how many" plus "do" was used as an example to illustrate another grammatical construction. In only sixteen of all the texts examined did the expressions "how many" or "how much" with "be" appear five or more times within the book. There were teaching units for sentence patterns with these expressions in only six of the texts examined: two contained teaching units combining both "how much" and "how many" with reference to quantity, one had a single unit on "how many" alone, and another had a unit on "how much" with reference to price. Others had anywhere from a single sentence (three texts fell in this category) to a high of forty-five sentences or questions (one text had thirty-eight for "how many" plus seven for "how much"--both used for quantity items with nothing about "how much" and price in the text). The following is a breakdown on the texts regarding the number of times each pattern occurs.

None	Other Verbs		Units			
	only	additional	Combined	Individual		
				Quantity		Price
				Many	Much	
27	15	20	4	0	1	1

References without units										Individual Ref.			
Combined		Individual								Quantity		Price	Both
less	5+	Quantity				Price (How much)				Much	Many		
		Many		Much		is		are					
		less	5+	less	5+	less	5+	less	5+				
1	0	11	12	1	2	3	2	5	0	14	1	2	4

The six texts with units on "how much" and "how many" with the verb "be" varied greatly in their teaching of these expressions. Many of these books had less student material than some texts without units, and many taught the unit and then failed to use either expression again in the book as a review of the material learned. Information on the six books which included teaching units follows:

TEXTS WITH UNIT ITEMS

Type of Unit	Ratings as used by TENES				Number of References					
	Elem.	Second.	Adult	College	Quantity			Price		
					Comb.	Many	Much	is	are	comb.
Comb. quantity)	2	10	12	13	0	0	4	10	0	0
and price)	-	2	1	-	6	14	12	5	2	8
Quantity comb.)	-	6	11	3	16	0	0	0	0	0
)	-	-	4	1	20	3	0	0	0	0
Quantity-many	33	-	-	-	0	19	0	0	0	0
Price	47	13	3	3	0	0	0	14	20	0

One book (not included in the above list) had a combined unit on the use of "how much" and "how many" for quantity with explanations of count and mass nouns. It concluded with a statement "Note, further, that much and many are often combined with how to form the common interrogative expressions how much and how many.[1] (Examples, How many students are there in your class? How much coffee do you drink every day?)"[2]

The exercises that followed called for the student to put "much" or "many" before nouns in eighteen statements, and had twelve fill-in-the-blank exercises such as "There are many _____. She spends much _____." after that. The example cited in the introduction to the unit was the only reference in the book to "how many" or "how much" with the verb "be" giving no follow-up of any kind on this sentence pattern.

Conclusion

An examination of these representative texts has made me dissatisfied with much of the material used in the aural-oral approach to teaching English as a second language--particularly those which purport to be typical American conversation or dialog. I feel that there is a large discrepancy between the teaching and the conversational use of "how much" and "how many," particularly when these are used with the verb "be," for, with the exception of six books in readings in English and three books on pronunciation, all the texts examined were directed toward the teaching of basic conversational English.

I realize that English teaching dialogs and conversations must be somewhat artificial because authors wish to cover certain structural patterns and limit vocabulary; however, I find this a reason to encourage the use of "how many" and "how much" with the verb "be" rather than to eliminate it, as these expressions lend themselves to essential structures and simple meaningful vocabulary. I think that at least one unit in every text should cover the basic "how many" and "how much" and their use with the verb "be", and that frequent reference should be made, by way of review, to be sure that students have both the needed recognition and production of such important structures.

Although the teaching of quantity, in relationship to its use, merits less attention in contemporary texts than the teaching of price, in occurrence it is far ahead. In the books examined I found the teaching of price using "how much" with "is" or "are;; to be woefully inadequate. An additional breakdown of occurrences of these items follows:

TOTAL REFERENCES TO HOW MANY AND HOW MUCH WITH BE

Elementary Level						Adult Level					
Quantity			Price			Quantity			Price		
comb.	many	much	comb.	is	are	comb.	many	much	comb.	is	are
0	77	0	0	20	22	42	185	21	6	52	21

Quantity total - 325

Price total - 121

I feel that it is very unrealistic to teach conversations about shopping without any reference to "how much is" or "how much are" -- a frequent occurrence in many of the texts. One book of one hundred English dialogs for foreign students had only this one statement using any expression of this kind: "How much is the rent?"[3] (Dialog 91 "Renting an Apartment").

From my observations, student

conversation on a college campus contains frequent references to both quantity and price. Most students have limited funds and are vitally concerned with the cost of such items as books, supplies, food, and clothes; students from foreign cultures need to know how to pay for daily purchases, and should have instruction on how to ask questions about quantity and price, as these are fundamental to American culture. If English is being taught as a business language in a foreign country this is still an essential structure.

Viewed from a standpoint on the teaching of "how much" and "how many" with the verb "be", my conclusions agree completely with this last line from a student dialog taken from one of the texts surveyed, and titled "How I Learned English Back Home."

> I learned words and phrases that aren't used any more. There should be a revolution in language-teaching books, I think.[4]

Recommendation

Teachers should make a critical examination of their current texts, and if these do not contain a teaching unit on the very important "how much" and "how many" with the verb "be" they might introduce such a lesson. If there is a teaching unit but nothing more follows, they might supplement the text by incorporating some dialogs or review exercises in their teaching of English.

In our next issue there will be two suggested lessons of this type which have been developed for students on the intermediate level of learning English as a second language. Both are based on two single dialogs in which vocabulary items are limited so that focus is in the teaching points.

1. Charles C. Fries and Pauline M. Rojas, American English Series, 1952), III, p. 80.
2. Robert J. Dixson, Graded Exercises in English, rev. ed. (New York, 1959), p. 33.
3. Angela Paratore, English Dialogs for Foreign Students (New York, 1962), p. 46.
4. Ibid., p. 47.

Pacific Teachers Train at CCH

A two-year program designed to train teachers for an increasing number of LDS Church elementary schools in Western Samoa will begin this year at The Church College of Hawaii, according to Mrs. Charlotte Lofgreen, director of the program.

Courses for the pilot program at CCH will include classes in child psychology and educational psychology applicable to Samoa, a study of the subjects included in the elementary curriculum in Samoa, a study of English language texts used in Samoa, with emphasis on teaching English as a second language, teaching methods and techniques used in the Pacific Islands, and the planning and preparation of audio-visual material.

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