THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH
IN THE MIDDLE SCHOOL IN KOREA

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for the Degree Master of Arts

by
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CHAPTER I

A HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO EDUCATION IN KOREA

The history of Korea dates back to twenty centuries before the birth of Christ. Mythological stories tell that Tangun, a semi-deistic figure, welded together the various primitive tribes scattered around the northern part of Korea and the southern border area of Manchuria. The grouped tribes lived in a country that became known as Chosun (the Land of Morning Calm).

In 57 B.C. the Kingdom of Silla emerged at the southwestern part of the peninsula. In 37 B.C. there arose on the upper-stream area of the Yalu another new kingdom, Koguryo, embracing the vast territory of present Manchuria. In 18 B.C. a third kingdom, Paekje, came into being in the southwest region of the peninsula.

According to the historical records, Buddhism was introduced into the Kingdom of Koguryo from northern China in 372, followed shortly thereafter by Confucianism. These doctrines spread southward to the Kingdoms of Silla and Paekje, where they played important roles in cultural

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1. The various historical facts and data presented here are drawn from Korea: Its Land, People and Culture of All Ages, Hakwon-sa, Ltd., and Student's Handbook, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Republic of Korea.
development. It was from Paekje that the Japanese received these two teachings.

With the overall growth of culture the Chinese classics became a popular subject for study. In Koguryo, schools were established to teach these classics. All three kingdoms also began to compile their histories. These are not extant today, but from the records of the Koryo period, it may be assumed that they dealt mainly with problems of royal authority and national spirit.

Buddhism gave the Koreans added resources in religion, philosophy, and the fine arts. From the era of Three Kingdoms (57 B.C. - 935) through the end of the Koryo dynasty (918 - 1392), Buddhism remained a dominant power in Korean society, although beginning with the Yi dynasty in the fourteenth century Confucianism became the highest code of national morality.

The Kingdom of Paekje is noted for its close relationship with Japan, and the best and most representative specimens of the cultural remains of this kingdom are now to be found in Japan. The famous paintings on the walls of the Horyuji Temple in Nara, Japan, are outstanding examples. Many Korean artisans and craftsmen went to the Japanese islands as teachers, and in fact Wang-In, one of Paekje's most renowned scholars, went to Japan to teach the Japanese emperor's son Chinese classics.
The struggle among three powers for supremacy over the entire peninsula went on for about seven hundred years until Silla crushed the two other kingdoms with the military support of the Tang dynasty of China. Thus, the lands divided by three powers were finally unified.

Culture flourished during the period of Unified Silla, from the seventh to the tenth century, on the social and cultural groundwork of Koguryo and Paekje to which were added imported influences of Tang of China. The representations of Silla art that survive today as Korea's ancient boast are largely drawn from this era; among these are the magnificent Buddha statue of Sokkuram Cave Temple (one of the greatest masterpieces of stone Buddhas in the world, being remarked especially for its elegance and loftiness), the gigantic bronze bell of Pongdoksan Temple (a masterpiece reflecting Silla's metal work of art), the remarkable Pulkususa Temple (one of the most ancient and beautiful temples, representing not only the glorious art of Silla but also one of the greatest masterpieces of art work in the Far East). The oldest astronomical observatory in the Orient, built of stone in the seventh century, is still standing at Kyongchu, the capital of Silla, reflecting the advancement of that culture.

The Koryo dynasty (918 - 1392), which replaced Silla, forms the middle age of Korean history. It is said that the Occidental name of Korea was derived from Koryo.
The history of Koryo is the history of recurrent wars against foreign invaders, chiefly Mongols and Chinese. Buddhism enjoyed a golden age during the Koryo dynasty, playing a most important role not only in the spiritual but in the political and economic life of the Korean people.

Buddhism and Confucianism were not incompatible at this time because the latter did not challenge the former as a religion but was merely a means to the attainment of government appointment. Consequently, Confucianism was developed by the Koryo aristocracy very much as Buddhism. The state examination centered on Confucian studies and many private educational institutes established during this era were centers of most authoritative knowledge about Chinese Confucian classics.

Koryo enjoyed a high civilization. Above all, Koryo produced the most refined artistic objects in porcelain, which are still cherished as among the most exquisite ever created by human beings through all history. The world-famous porcelain was made by Koryo artisans and today almost every large museum in the world displays Koryo porcelain, recognized as the symbol of refinement and exquisite Korean art attained in that era.

Another great cultural legacy of this dynasty was the work of collecting, engraving, and publishing of the Tripitaka, or Buddhist sutra. The occasion of, and motive
for, the enterprise was the Mongol invasion of Korea in the thirteenth century. When the Mongols invaded Korea, the government moved from the capital, Kaesong, to an island fortress off the central west coast of Korea. There, a court of devoted Buddhists believing in the power of prayer to Buddha undertook to engrave the best texts of all Buddhist scriptures, as a form of prayer to expel the invaders. Sixteen long years passed before the 80,000 wooden plates of Tripitaka were completed. Since there were two pages of both sizes for each plate, there was a total of 160,000 leaves on 320,000 pages of the best available texts of scriptures. This work has been preserved intact and is now kept in Haeinsa Temple on Mt. Kaya, in Kyongsang Province. The oldest, the most accurate and complete sutra of Mahayana Buddhism is thus in Korea.

General Sung-Ge Yi took control of the country from Koryo, and founded Yi Chosun (1392 - 1910), the last dynasty in Korea.

Movable metal type is reputed to be one of the three great inventions of mankind. Although a German inventor, Gutenberg, is credited in the West with the designing lead-cast printing type in 1450, the metal type of Koryo actually preceded it by some 220 years. As time passed printing type also improved. Later, during the Yi dynasty, the government sponsored, on almost twenty separate occasions, the production of printing types made of copper. These copper types
were exquisitely and beautifully fashioned. Studies of them have revealed a gradual improvement of each set over its predecessors. Many of these copper types of Korean origin, along with the techniques of producing them, were subsequently introduced into China and Japan.

The Yi dynasty, from the close of the fourteenth century to recent times, marked the beginning of the modern age of Korea. The teachings of Confucianism were formed and the national institutions became permanent. Cultural growth reached the highest peak during the reign of King Se-Jong in the fifteenth century. King Se-Jong, the fourth monarch of the Yi dynasty, was a ruler of a state not equalled throughout Korean history. He left behind him a record of achievements in many fields, especially in literature, science, and the fine arts; he was a great promoter of Korean culture as a whole.

In the field of science, also, notable progress was made during King Se-Jong's thirty-year rule, particularly in mathematics and astronomy. Among many instruments invented or perfected under the personal direction of King Se-Jong two are especially noteworthy; the water clock and the rain gauge.

But the greatest contribution to the Korean cultural development made by King Se-Jong is undoubtedly his invention of the Korean alphabet in 1446. Since the use of Chinese characters had been well established for centuries
among educated Koreans, no serious consideration had been paid by the people to the formation of their own alphabet. King Se-Jong, however, ardently desiring to enlighten the illiterate among his subjects, determined to create an easy-to-learn, simple Korean alphabet. As invented by the King with the valued assistance of many distinguished scholars, the alphabet consisted of fourteen consonants and eleven vowels. (There are only ten vowels today.) These twenty-five letters offer an almost unlimited possibility of combination and interchange, thereby completely indicating all vocal sounds.

This alphabet utilizes a system whereby sounds can be expressed and combinations of letters effected in a completely scientific way — a unique and admirable characteristic. It is not only the most recent of the world's alphabets but the most complete system of phonetic letters ever invented and perfected by mankind.

Many scholars have tried in vain to find a possible foreign origin of the Korean alphabet. But the extensive literature concerning the course of its invention and development remains as evidence that it is a completely original creation by King Se-Jong and his scholars, based upon signs symbolizing the sounds of speech.

Being simple and easy to learn, the Korean alphabet
was designed to meet the needs of masses who could not spare much time in scholarly pursuits.

Most of the professional medical knowledge assimilated by Koreans had come from manuscripts imported from China. But before the Koreans could successfully absorb and apply the methods and medicines of Chinese origin to their own needs, the Korean doctors were compelled to go through many difficult processes. To remedy this difficulty King Se-Jong initiated a project of compiling and publishing a complete collection of data on medicines that were popular in various Oriental nations at that time. In 1445, a medical encyclopaedia entitled **UIBang Yujip**, consisting of 365 volumes, was completed.

The publication of such a comprehensive medical study was really a monumental literary and scientific work, unprecedented in those times not only in the Orient but anywhere in the entire world. Only recently, Chinese scholars were obliged to rely entirely upon this encyclopaedia in re-establishing much of the ancient Chinese medical lore which had been completely destroyed or lost in China itself.

Furthermore, with the skillful cooperation of the renowned musical theoretician, Yon Pak, King Se-Jong also modernized to a notable degree Korean musical theory and instruments. Many music books published during his reign have survived centuries and are preserved to this day. The
court music, dignified in presentation and divine in theme, has been handed down together with the instruments, and musicians are trained to play these musical instruments today.

King Se-Jong also established a special institute within his royal palace to which he invited Buddhist monks and scholars of Buddhist scripture. Under his personal sponsorship these learned men took on a concerted project for revision and expansion of the collection of Buddhist scriptures edited during the previous dynasty of Koryo. A companion project was the translation of the principal parts of this invaluable collection into Hangul, the newly invented Korean alphabet. By these methods King Se-Jong opened the way to a knowledge of Buddhism to many people who possessed absolutely no professional grounding in the difficult Chinese classics. King Se-Jong, who thus more than any other monarch contributed to the cultural development of Korea in various fields, stands out in Korea's long history as the greatest giver of enduring cultural blessings.

One of the cardinal policies of the new Yi dynasty was the supremacy of Confucianism at the expense of Buddhism. Confucianist principles were made the basis of the state's policies, and academic institutes created (the Songgyungwan and Obuhaktang in the capital that provided college-level education, and a system of common schools called the Hyanggyo in the rural areas) to encourage Confucian studies.
throughout the country. In 1403, a type-foundry and printing office was established and many books published to spread the Confucian teachings. In fact, it was a golden age for Confucianism in Korea. Familiar with the riches of Confucian philosophy and learning, philosophers, writers, and poets flourished, leaving treasurers of wisdom and beauty.

A Japanese general, Hideyoshi Toyotomi, being refused free passage of his troops to China in invading that country, met this refusal with an invasion of Korea in 1592. While the land forces, with the support of the forces of the Ming Kingdom (of China), beat back the enemy, the Korean navy won spectacular victories under the command of Admiral Sun-Shin Yi, one of the most renowned patriots and heroes in the history of Korea, who coupled a thorough command of military tactics with a fleet of "Turtle Ships," so called from their shapes (the first iron-clad warships built in human annals), which he himself invented.

During the century which followed, Korea completely shut herself off from the rest of the world, largely because of the invasion of Hideyoshi of Japan.

In the 1780's, Christianity was introduced into the so-called "Hermit Kingdom" by a French priest. Japan started a war against China, and sent about six thousand troops to Korea to help quell a disturbance in 1894. The short war ended in the defeat of China. In the
peace treaty, Japan, in addition to other privileges and reparations, occupied Taiwan (Formosa). From then on, the Japanese vigorously pursued policies aimed at making Korea a colony. The only power challenging Japan in Korea was Russia, and Japan's victory over Russia in 1905 gave Japan exclusive power in Korea. Japan forced Korea to accept the so-called "Protectorate Treaty" on the terms prearranged by the Japanese. This treaty enabled Japan to seize political, military and economic power in Korea, and, in 1910, Japan finally annexed Korea.

During the Japanese domination (1910-1945), the Koreans bitterly resented the alien rule, denial of Korean sovereignty and suppression of civil liberties, but could do nothing against the police and military rule of the Japanese.

On March 1, 1919, a well-organized uprising broke out in Seoul and then spread all over the country almost simultaneously, participated in by hundreds of thousands of non-violent demonstrators. A deputation proceeded to Paris to present a plea of Korean independence before the Peace Conference. The Declaration of Independence was drawn up by thirty-three representatives of the Korean people and disseminated throughout the country by clandestine channels. Because of the Japanese suppression, the patriots went underground, some carrying on their activities overseas. As a direct outcome of this movement a Korean provisional government was established in Shanghai on April 17, 1919,
with Dr. Syngman Rhee as its president. The Government-in-
exile was formed of Korean patriots who fled from Korea mostly
to the United States and China, and an independence army was
formed to wage a guerrilla campaign against Japan.

From the very day of the Annexation, Japan carried out
a policy intended both to isolate Korea from the rest of the
world and to stifle every nationalistic sentiment among the
Korean people. The more advances in exploitative policies,
the stiffer the Korean resistance became and the more rapid
the pace of efforts to exterminate both national and cultural
heritages. The results were tighter grips on the press and
what the Japanese themselves called modern education. The
people of Korea learned practically nothing of outside
developments.

During the late nineteenth century, considerable efforts
had been made to streamline Korean education to adapt it to
the new civilization of the West. The early schools taught
courses in Korean language, Korean history, Korean geography,
foreign languages, and sciences considered essential for
modern life. From 1884, the Protestant missions were
building a number of schools to bring modern education in
line with their missionary work. The foreign missionaries
were not merely transmitting the Gospels but enlightening
the Korean people to modern conditions.
In contrast with Korean nationalist and foreign missionary effort to meet the needs of modern society, Japanese education, more and more predominant since 1910, was bent on complete subjugation of the Korean people to the dictates of their Japanese masters. This necessitated the cleansing out of every nationalist thought from the minds of Korean students. The modern aspects of education Japan provided were geared to the harness-wheels of a mythical belief in the origins and foundations of an alien race.

The tightest and the most drawn-out period of Japanese domination began when Japan invaded North China. The Japanese policy of exterminating Korean nationalism, called "A Policy of Assimilation," took on ominous tones. Korean language newspapers and magazines were condemned to extinction, the Korean language barred from schools (even from the first grade in the Korean primary school!) and discouraged at home, and Korean surnames and family names Japanized. The Korean Linguistics Society ceased to exist after the Japanese police rounded up its staff members down to its clerks. The key members of the Society received prison terms and most of them were to remain incarcerated until the Liberation in 1945. Two outstanding linguists died in their prison cells. History had little parallel to offer this punishment of scholars whose only crime was that they loved their own language.

Korea was liberated on the fifteenth of August, 1945, when Japan surrendered to the Allied Powers. Before the plans
for Korean independence could be implemented, however, the military occupation of Korea in two separate zones bisected the country with the entry of Russian combat troops into northern Korea on August 10, 1945, and of the United States occupation troops into southern Korea on September 8, 1945. Both Forces moved into Korea to "accept surrender of the Japanese troops." But the demarcation became fixed. A number of attempts were made to solve the question of Korean independence. The U.S.-U.S.S.R. joint commission established in accordance with the Moscow Agreement of December, 1945, failed to agree on the establishment of a provisional government in Korea. The UN General Assembly convened on the request of the United States, adopted a resolution on November 14, 1947, favoring the creation by the Korean people of a provisional government. The UN was blocked from entering north Korea. Because of the Soviet refusal to cooperate, the UN Commission announced that it would observe the election in the only part of Korea accessible to it, that is, the area south of the demarcation line.

Accordingly, free and democratic elections were held throughout southern Korea in May, 1948. The Korean National Assembly convened on May 31, 1948, and adopted on July 17, 1948, a democratic Constitution for the new Republic. Under the constitution, the Assembly elected the new Republic's first president and vice-president. The Korean government
officially came into being on the third anniversary of the liberation, on August 15, 1948.

The UN General Assembly recognized the Government of the Republic of Korea as the only lawful Government in Korea. The United States, Great Britain, China, Canada, and France extended recognition to the Republic early in 1949. The Republic of Korea officially joined the community of free nations as an independent, sovereign member.

The tragedy of a divided land and people did not end. On Sunday, June 25, 1950, the Soviet-trained North Korean Communist Army launched an attack upon the Republic of Korea. The ROK forces, neither trained nor equipped to cope with such a heavy assault which was spearheaded by Russian-made heavy tanks, fought valiantly. On June 26, Korean time, the UN Security Council declared the Communist invasion "a breach of peace" and ordered an immediate cessation of hostilities and withdrawal of the North Korean Communist forces. No heed having been paid to this declaration, the Council two days later recommended that United Nations members should furnish assistance to repel the attack and to restore peace and security. All nations in the free camp either provided direct military assistance or material support. The War became further aggravated with the participation of the Chinese. Communists at the time when North Korean Communists were almost completely crushed near the border line.
After long-drawn-out talks the armistice was finally signed on July 27, 1953. Thus the fighting stopped and tranquility again prevailed. But the war brought the sacrifice of so many people, both Korean and UN member nations, and still the task of unifying the country was unaccomplished.

The Korean people have historically displayed a great deal more devotion to the whole of the nation or community than to the pursuit of selfish individual interests. An outstanding example of this self-denying spirit of the people can be found in the Independence Movement of 1919.

This prevailing sense of devotion to the interest and welfare of the whole explains how the concept of Hongik Ingan (serving the general good of all men) developed and was established as the guiding philosophy of the state through the many centuries of the nation's history. It was with this national ideal in mind that the Ministry of Education formulated the following basic objectives in education:

1. to realize the ideal of the Hongik Ingan
2. to perfect the personality
3. to cultivate abilities to manage an independent life and develop the essential qualities of a good citizen
4. to contribute to the growth of democracy in the nation
5. to work for the co-prosperity of mankind

In order that these objectives may be achieved, it was further decided to adopt the following seven points as the more concrete aims of education (Article 2 of the Education Act):

1. health and spirit of perseverance
2. spirit of national independence and contribution to world peace
3. upholding the cultural and educational heritage of the nation and contributing to world civilization
4. creative initiative and rational way of life
5. freedom and responsibility; faith and cooperation
6. effective use of leisure and development of esthetic sense
7. sound management of the individual economy

With the end of the Second World War, education in Korea turned a new leaf. The colonial education under the totalitarian Japanese rule was quickly replaced by what was the beginning of a new democratic way of education. In the initial period of the Military Government of the United States and the provisional civic government, one which was inevitably marked by a certain amount of chaos and confusion in transition, two major tasks were tackled first; to reform the educational system and to expand the educational facilities. It was also a period of nationwide campaign to study
and learn the Korean language which had been suppressed by Japan. Hundreds of institutes teaching the reading and writing of the language sprang up all over the country.

Awakened to democratic ideals of education, educators everywhere sought new educational methods to replace the old totalitarian methods.

Meanwhile, an Education Advisory Committee organized under the U. S. Military Government set up a policy emphasizing the responsibility of education to help create an enlightened citizenry devoted to democracy and national independence. Four major aims of education defined by the Committee were:

1. To establish firmly a sense of self-respect as citizens of an independent nation and to foster a spirit of international cooperation and friendship

2. To encourage a spirit of living up to one's principles and appreciation of the value of mutual faith and technology and contribution to the civilization of mankind

3. To elevate the national standards of health and foster vigor and power of perseverance

4. To promote appreciation of the arts and encourage creative activities, and to develop a virtuous, well-rounded personality

When the national government was inaugurated in 1948, Dr. An Hosang was appointed as the first Education Minister.
He based his policies on the Ilminjui (One People's Principle), a nationalistic and anti-Communist doctrine he personally advocated. Dr. An organized all high school and college students into a Student Defense Corps in order to check Communist activities in the campus by strengthening nationalistic organization of the students.

Dr. Paek Nakjun (L. George Paik), the second Education Minister, stressed vocational training and technical education at a time when the need for economic reconstruction was urgent. He encouraged all students to learn a trade or skill while in school. Dr. Paek also placed emphasis on educating a free and responsible citizen to enable the students better to adjust themselves to the new political and social institutions of democracy. It was during his tenure that military training for high school and college male students began as part of the national policy to successfully fight the Communist War.

The nation was still at war when Kim Pominin became the third Education Minister. He initiated a book translation program in order to alleviate a serious shortage of textbook and reference materials. He also helped organize the National Academy of Arts and the National Academy of Sciences.

The fourth Education Minister, Dr. Yi Songgun, carried out a program of retraining teachers to cope with the adverse effects of the war on the standards of the teaching staff. Mr. Yi strongly advocated a policy to inform the students
of the atrocities committed by the Communists and the evils of Communism based on the experiences of the war years.

Dr. Choe Kyunam, the fifth Education Minister, emphasized teacher training and technical education. He also maintained that the aim of education was primarily the cultivation of moral virtues.

Among the major policies adopted by the seventh Education Minister, Choe Chaeyu, were expansion of the compulsory education system, improvement of education in science and technology, and development of the national culture.

The most significant development in the field of education since the end of the Second World War was the enforcement of compulsory education based on the principle of equal opportunity. Compulsory education is now applied to a six-year period between the ages of six and twelve, and plans are underway to extend this period to nine years.

Meanwhile, John Dewey's progressive educational philosophy was a substantial influence. His *Democracy and Education* was translated and published in Korea, his ideas discussed at teachers' colleges and his principles propagated by a number of U. S. education missions that visited Korea.

However, some of the new methods of education have met with criticism from those educators retaining the traditionally conservative outlook. Some claimed that excessive freedom granted to students caused a general decline in
morality. Some critics maintained that part of the new curriculum was not suited to the realities of a developing nation. Co-education also was a point of debate in some quarters.

It should be noted that there are private schools as well as public schools and that religious foundations of various faiths — Buddhism, Confucianism, and Christianity — are allowed to operate private schools.

The school system in Korea during the Japanese rule was a typical double-school system, but efforts were made to establish a democratic (or simple) school system after the liberation of the nation from Japanese domination. The new school system adopted by the U. S. Military Government in Korea after 1945 was: a six-year elementary school, a three-year junior high school or junior technical school, a three-year senior high school or senior technical school, a three-year college, and a postgraduate school.

The Education Act was promulgated soon after the Republic of Korea government was established. The school system established in December, 1949, however, was a dual system which offered two courses for advancement in education. Under the system, a student could either go to a four-year junior college after a full four-year middle school course or finish only three years of middle school, proceed to a three-year high and then to a regular college. This system was revised in March, 1950, shortly before the
outbreak of the war, to conform more closely to the patterns of the simple school system. A pattern of six years, three years, another three years, and four years progressively was adopted as basic in the new school set-up. This pattern is still current.

There are seven categories in the system. They are:
1. Elementary school, middle school, high school, college
2. Teacher-training high school, teacher-training college
3. Technical high school
4. Civic school, senior civic school
5. Special schools for the handicapped
6. Kindergarten
7. Miscellaneous institutes

The current system is far from being a completely simple school system and naturally has its weakness. For instance, high schools for agriculture, engineering, commerce and other technical fields exist separately from liberal arts high schools. Students of the former schools, especially the British modern schools and the German Realschule, are placed at a certain disadvantage in competing with regular high school graduates in college entrance examinations. However, these are defects born of necessary adjustments of the school system to the realities of the nation. The ideal remains the principle laid down by
the Education Act that all citizens are entitled to equal
opportunity for education, regardless of their creed,
sex, social and economic status, and in accordance with
their abilities.

The number of schools and students at various levels
as of 1958 are shown in the following table:

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<tr>
<td>Civic school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advanced civic school (Middle school level)</td>
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<td>Middle school</td>
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<td>High school</td>
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<td>Technical high school</td>
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<tr>
<td>High school for primary teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technical school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advanced technical school (College level)</td>
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<tr>
<td>College and University</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduate School (attached to university)</td>
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³ The purpose of the (three-year) civic school is to give
elementary schooling to those youths who have passed the
school age without attending primary school.

⁴ The (one- to three-year) advanced civic school is
for grown-ups and youths who finished elementary school or
civic school.

⁵ The aggregate total of colleges including these within
universities comes to 154.
It is true that substantial progress has been made in developing compulsory education in the past eight years, but there are a number of important improvements yet to be made before reasonable standards of education are attained. To cite only a few: the classroom shortage must be overcome, dilapidated facilities must be repaired or rebuilt, more school funds must be raised, teaching aids and their equipment must be supplied in greater abundance, size of the average class must be reduced, and free distribution of textbooks must be made possible.

These are no easy tasks and all will undoubtedly require many years of tireless efforts. The legislation of a Compulsory Education Financial Grant Law, which will provide better financial support to schools in rural communities, has been proposed and is being pushed. A new long-range program with improving school facilities is also under consideration. All these efforts form part of the nation's drive toward badly needed improvement in the quality of the compulsory education to match the quantitative increase.

A further increase in the number of high schools and middle schools is considered essential. In 1957, about 44 per cent of 336,289 primary school graduates entered middle schools. It is estimated that 700 new middle schools will be needed within five years to accommodate the increasing number of applicants.

The present division of secondary education into liberal
arts schools and technical schools is considered by many as unsatisfactory and undemocratic. There is a strong demand for a system of comprehensive high schools.

The hasty expansion of colleges in the post-war period brought about a deterioration in the standard of advanced education. As a result, efforts had to be made after 1954 to provide adequate facilities for colleges and elevate scholastic standards. Some 1,000 graduate students were sent abroad for further study to become professors upon their return. Since 1956, a total of 140 foreign professors have been invited to lecture at Korean colleges. The number of graduate schools in Korea stood at twenty-two in 1958.

Despite continued efforts, improving general scholastic standards of colleges and closing gaps between the better colleges and lesser ones, in particular, remain as major problems to be solved. It is to be regretted that financial backing for these efforts is largely limited because of the general weaknesses of the national economy.

The problem to be investigated is the teaching of English in the middle school in Korea. A "middle school" constitutes the first half of the six-year secondary school. It immediately follows the compulsory six-year elementary school and is comparable to the junior high school in America. It is followed by the three-year high school. The second chapter is entitled "The Teaching of English: Principles, Methods, and Materials." It includes a discussion of teaching
principles, textbooks in use, and vocabulary; the teaching of pronunciation, reading materials, sentence structure, conversation, grammar, and composition; and the place of poetry in the program. The third chapter will be "Summary and Conclusion."
CHAPTER II

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH:
PRINCIPLES, METHODS, AND MATERIALS

In Korea English is a required subject — in fact, the most important one — throughout secondary education, which consists of the three-year middle school plus the three-year high school. Pupils begin to learn English at the age of eleven or twelve upon entering middle school after finishing the curriculum of the compulsory six-year primary school. They study English for four to six hours a week during three years in middle school and during three years in high school as well. Although students have to succeed in a strict written English examination, as well as in other examinations, to enter college, regardless of their major field of study, English is required for all college students for at least one more year, usually in their freshman year. Indeed, the energy and the time spent by students in the study of English are tremendous. However, with all their laborious efforts and pains over a long period, most of them find themselves unable to carry on a casual conversation with native English speakers or answer in English such a simple question as "Will you show me the way to the United States Information Service?" or comprehend a simple, short dialogue in an American movie.
What is the cause of this disturbing situation?

The traditional methods of teaching English in Korea were chiefly based upon the so-called "Grammar - Translation Method," which is defined and described by Bumpass as follows:

This method, which is now used in teaching Latin and Greek in the United States and England, is sometimes applied to the teaching of modern languages. It is characterized by the learning of the rules of grammar with examples, the analysis of short reading selections which illustrate the grammatical principles involved, and the translation of sentences from the mother tongue into the foreign language. Translation exercises provide drill in the application of rules. All explanations are made in the mother tongue and no attempt is made to acquire a speaking knowledge of the foreign language. The method has the advantage of providing the student with a definite task which the teacher can check accurately. It also gives the students good exercises in reasoning but it retards their progress in learning to think in the new language. This method often employs disconnected, unnatural sentences for drill and presents rules of grammar and generalizations at the expense of developing skill and correct usage. Pupils in general are not interested in the structural side of the language and see no value in learning the rules. Besides, the attempt to apply a large number of grammatical principles inhibits the pupils from expressing themselves and diverts their attention from what is being said.6

It is very true that in Korea traditionally, foreign languages were considered as subjects for extended study rather than as materials for practice or use. The methods which were employed in teaching followed mainly the methods used in teaching the classical languages, Latin and Greek. Literary subject matter was preferred over colloquial forms. Translation and analysis, through the medium of the mother tongue,

provided the accepted approach. The student acquired a knowledge of his subject, important for its social and cultural implications, rather than any skill in using the subject matter.  

The traditional teaching methods of English, furthermore, could not but be an object of bitter criticism both from Korean authorities in the field and from society. The Ministry of Education prepared a new English syllabus to meet these criticisms soon after the establishment of the government of the Republic of Korea in 1948. It placed equal emphasis upon developing in the learner the four fundamental aspects of a communication arts program — listening, speaking, reading, and writing — to the best of the pupil's ability. This mere shifting of primary emphasis from written English to spoken English, however, has not changed the basic character of the deep-rooted traditional teaching methods.

**Principles**

There are two principal goals in the teaching of English as a foreign language as stated by Mary Finocchiaro: "The first is the development of the ability to communicate in the language; the second is the fostering of an insight into the cultural patterns and social values of the country whose language is being studied."

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The Korean conservatives who stick to the traditional teaching methods favor only the second, ignoring the first; however, nowadays, almost all linguists place main emphasis upon the oral aspects of language:

The general principles subscribed to at an International Seminar organized by UNESCO are the following:

1. The approach — to the teaching of all foreign languages — should be primarily oral.
2. Active methods of teaching should be used as far as possible.
3. The greatest possible use of the foreign tongue should be made in the classroom.
4. The difficulties of the foreign tongue in the matter of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar should be carefully graded for presentation.
5. The teaching of a language should be considered more as the imparting of a skill than as the provision of information about the forms of the language.

The seminar further agreed that "the four fundamental skills to be taught are: understanding, speaking, reading, and writing in the order named." 9

Other leading authorities are in agreement with this view, as the following quotations indicate:

A person has "learned" a foreign language when he has thus first, within a limited vocabulary, mastered the sound system (that is, when he can understand the stream of speech and achieve an understandable production of it) and has, second, made the structural devices (that is, the basic arrangement of utterances) matters of automatic habit. 10

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We have a mastery of language when our comprehension by ear is spontaneous, our reading effortless and fluent, our use of words, idioms, and sentences in speech and writing habitual and skillful.11

The spoken language is the language.12

The newer courses and literature have stressed the attainment of aural-oral facility as the sumnum bonum of language study. Exponents of this approach, which was used extensively in the United States Army Training Program, insist that it is not only more stimulating to the learner and more useful in the world of today but, also, that it contributes to, and facilitates, reading and writing knowledge.13

As a bright contrast to the "constructive" method of procedure, we have the "imitative" method, which may be so called partly because it is an imitation of the way in which a child learns his native language, partly because it depends upon that invaluable faculty, the natural imitative instinct of the pupils, to give them the proper linguistic feeling, if it only has ample opportunities for coming into play.14

Learning to speak a language is always by far the shortest road to learning to read it and to write it.15

It is justly emphasised to-day that we cannot "read" even prose correctly, and much less verse, if we are substituting a false sound-picture for that in which the author conceived and fashioned

his work. Whether the work is "read" aloud or not is in this respect immaterial. This conception is one of the supremely important results which has flowed from the insistence in recent years on the truism that language consists of sounds and not of symbols, that the prose work or the poem does not live on the printed page, but has to be, consciously or unconsciously, evoked into existence through our re-translation of the symbols into the sounds for which they stand.16

The consideration of the views of such scholars and educationalists as those quoted has led the writer to look into the so-called oral method, whose primary emphasis is placed upon oral aspects of a language.

What is an oral method, then? Harold E. Palmer, noted authority in the field of language teaching, brought forward a comprehensive and exhaustive work, The Oral Method of Teaching Languages. He claims that

... those who have made a comprehensive study of the science of linguistic pedagogy have concluded that the Oral Method is a necessary feature or phase of the "Complete" method. The Oral Method is of the teleological order; it is a means to an end; it is an essential preliminary step towards an ultimate complete mastery of a language. The Oral Method will re-awaken and re-educate those spontaneous capacities for language study which are inherent in the human race; those innate powers manifested in the earliest years of childhood, but which are generally allowed by disuse to recede into a latent state.17

The purpose of an oral course is "to give the pupils opportunities not only of practice in expressing themselves

17. Palmer, op. cit., p. 11.
in speech, but also of practice in understanding what is said to them. 18 And the chief function of it is "to afford the student abundant opportunities for memorizing without tedium." 19

Palmer divides oral courses into three kinds, each of which serves a specific purpose, saying that an oral course may be required

(1) As a means of initiation into the elements of a language of which the pupil is entirely ignorant.
(2) As a means of correcting those who are already more or less acquainted with the language, but who have formed habits of study and bad habits in the actual use of the language.
(3) As a means of furthering the progress of those who are already fairly proficient in the language. 20

More than two thirds of this book consists of illustrations and examples of fifty "Forms of work suitable for use in an Oral Course" in the fullest detail, which were "carried out in accordance with the nine essential principles of language-study." 21

He previously elaborated his "nine essential principles" in another research work, The Principles of Language-Study. They are:

18. Ibid., p. 39.
20. Ibid., p. 25.
21. Ibid., pp. 24-25.
1. The initial preparation of the student by the training of his spontaneous capacities for assimilating spoken language.

2. The forming of new and appropriate habits and the utilization of previously formed habits.

3. Accuracy in work in order to prevent the acquiring of bad habits.

4. Gradation of the work in such a way as to ensure an ever-increasing rate of progress.

5. Due proportion in the treatment of the various aspects and branches of the subject.

6. The presentation of language-material in a concrete rather than in an abstract way.

7. The securing and maintaining of the student's interest in order to accelerate his progress.

8. A logical order of progression in accordance with principles of speech-psychology.

9. The approaching of the subject simultaneously from different sides by means of different and appropriate devices. 22

Now let us take a look at what these "forms of work" are like:

The following is a typical example of a "talk" for the earliest stage:

---

This is a book and this is a box. — Look at the book. — Look at the box. — I'm going to put the book on the table and the box on the chair. — Where's the book now? — It's on the table. — And the box? — It's on the chair. — Is the book on the table? — Yes, it is. — Is the book on the chair? — No, it isn't; the box is on the chair. — Now look at me; I'm going to open the book and to open the box. — There! — The book's open and so is the box. — Now I'm going to open the door. — The door's open. — Now I'm shutting the door. — It's shut. — I'm going to shut the book and the box — I take the box and put it in my pocket. — Why, what's this in my pocket? — A pencil! — This is a pencil. — I'll put it on the table — What else have I got here? — A knife. — Look at this knife. — See me open it and shut it again. — I'm going to put the knife on the chair. — Look at that window over there. — Is it open or shut? — It's open. — I'm going to shut it. — Etc., etc., etc.

Exercise typical of a later stage:

I'm touching the table — the floor — the chair. I'm going to touch the ceiling. I can't. I can't touch the ceiling; it's too high. I can touch the blackboard easily because it isn't too high. If the ceiling were lower I could touch it; if my arm were longer I could touch it, but my arm isn't long enough and the ceiling's too high. I'm putting this pencil into my pocket, this box too, this piece of paper too. Now I'm going to try to put this book into my pocket. I can't. Why not? Because the book's too big. I can put that small book into my pocket, but not this big one. If my pocket were larger I could put this book into it, but my pocket isn't large enough, it's too small. (Other examples: Table too heavy for me to lift. Table leg too strong for me to break. Words too small for me to read at this distance, etc., etc.

FORM OF WORK 29. MISCELLANEOUS GROUPS (including Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Phrases, and Clauses).

Group 68. — What do I say when somebody gives me something (etc.). — I ask somebody I say "thank you" —


"please." - "how are you?" - "good morning." - "good afternoon." - "good evening." - "good night." - "goodbye." - "I beg your pardon." etc. 24

FORM OF WORK 44.

Example 3

Is that the window or the door? Can you see through it? Can you see through the door? Why not?

It's the window. Yes, I can. No, I can't. Because the door's made of wood. Because it's made of glass. I can see a tree.

How is it you can see through the window?

What can you see if you look out of the window?

Can you see anything else?

What else can you see?

What colour's the sky now?

What colour's the tree?

Are there any leaves on the tree?

Can you count them?

Why not?

Can you count the chairs in this room?

How many are there? etc., etc.

Yes, I can. Yes, there are. Yes, I can. There are six. 25

The close reading and observation of the works of the greatest authorities on linguistic pedagogy strike us with the remarkable unanimity of their opinions concerning the

24. Ibid., p. 95.
25. Ibid., pp. 118-119.
value of oral teaching and with the overwhelming testimony in favor of such types of work as Palmer's.

It is a great pity that almost all Korean teachers were taught English chiefly with the grammar-translation method. Their English teachers tended to belittle oral work and to underrate its value, basing their reasoning on the assumption that reading or writing would lead to a mastery of language in the true and higher sense, whereas oral work could only lead to a superficial proficiency in that trivial form of language called "spoken" or "colloquial." Their view was that "The spoken language is comparatively valueless in its contents as compared with the written language, which is the medium of culture. Why then pay more than a passing attention to oral and conversational work?"²⁶

Under the guidance of present teachers who have been influenced by their predecessors to neglect oral work, it is quite natural that a student, after six years' regular English study, should find it impossible to answer such a simple question as "Will you show me the way to the American Embassy?" For,

... so long as he [a pupil] persists in translating into his mother-tongue what he hears, or translating from his mother-tongue what he wishes to say, he will be unable to form the proper sort of semantic associations; so long as he mentally reads and writes what he hears and says he will

be unable to understand or to speak the language with the requisite rapidity or fluency. ... 27

However, it should be noted that, apart from the average teacher's incompetence to follow any oral method closely, there are a variety of reasons that traditional teaching methods still prevail in Korea, similar to those that Dixon points out. 28 Classes in both public and private middle schools are too large to permit pupils to have any oral practice. A class in the Korean middle school consists of from sixty to one hundred pupils. Very few English teachers on either the secondary or the college level have any fluency in speaking English. Even if a teacher were fluent in oral English, being poorly paid, he often sees little reason for extending himself to teach pupils how to speak. Oral teaching techniques, of course, generally require considerably more energy and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher than traditional methods. Administration officials in many public school systems are often conservative by nature and thus resist change of any kind. Stereotyped entrance examinations for high school and college lay major stress on translation and formal grammar. A teacher under these circumstances has little choice but to prepare his pupils for these examinations. He himself may speak English well and may be interested in

27. Ibid., p. 28.
training his pupils orally, but the course requirements and the standardized examination make this quite impossible.

Textbooks in Use

Almost without exception, every teacher of English in Korea selects at least one specific textbook from a dozen compiled by Korean scholars in the field for a specific grade level for an entire academic year (two semesters). The teacher as well as his pupils depends wholly upon the textbook for all phases of the English language arts program. As a matter of fact, these textbooks in use in Korea, in a way, determine the direction, methods, and approaches of English instruction in both middle and high schools. It is impossible to overemphasize the importance of the role played by textbooks in English education in Korea, and it is for this reason that every English textbook to be used in middle and high schools should be approved by the Ministry of Education of Korea.

Now let us look into the English textbooks currently approved by the authorities for the use of Korean middle and high schools. They may be divided into three groups from the point of view of their contents:

1. Those which contain comparatively many literary selections. These books are amusing to read; however, they are, in many cases, unsuitable as texts, for their materials are not properly
graded in regard to vocabulary and sentence patterns.

2. Those which place primary emphasis on things both English and American, and on natural features of the season. There are plenty of everyday life conversations as well. These materials portray the external features of the English-speaking peoples and nations; however, fewer pages are assigned for things that appeal to human emotions. Because of a limited vocabulary and sentence patterns, those books are apt to be full of dull materials written in a dry, descriptive style.

3. Those whose main purposes are found in linguistic drill. The chief characteristic of these books is that they are very easy to teach. The materials are arranged in such a way that they proceed from the easy to the difficult to facilitate teachers' classroom activities. Much of their content, however, is not interesting to read. They contain very few materials from which pupils may acquire new information or deeper insight.

These are some of the outstanding features of English textbooks. Yet it should also be noted that there are some that utilize elements of all three characteristic features. It goes without saying that these English textbooks reflect
inevitably the respective authors' viewpoints toward teaching materials. Textbooks compiled by literary scholars stress literary selections, while the ones written by linguists are centered on sentence patterns, grammatical illustrations, vocabulary and so on.

Close examination of the arrangement of lessons in these textbooks arouses the suspicion that, in compiling textbooks, few authors kept in mind basic principles of the language learning process, such as the following:

1. Language learning is cumulative. Pupils must be given continuous review of previously taught items in varied meaningful situations with new vocabulary and sentence patterns. New items should be developed and practiced with limited, familiar vocabulary and with known sentence patterns.

2. Learning is habit formation.

3. Instruction should proceed from what pupils know, either from their native language background or from previous lesson presentations, to the new language item.

4. Teachers should start with demonstrable items before proceeding to more abstract or complex features of language.

5. Teachers should select patterns for beginning teaching on the basis of the contribution they
make to helping pupils master the basic language patterns.

6. We should select language items, also, because they follow a definite pattern, mold, or "rule." An illustration of such a pattern for beginning students would be the use of simple adjectives of color in front of a noun (the red book, the blue hat, etc.).

7. We should strive for the attainment of habitual, unconscious control of basic patterns of language so that the student can give his full attention to the idea and meaning he is trying to convey.

8. Students must be made to see, through the lessons in a textbook that English follows a well-defined systematic form or pattern in its word order, its inflections, its use of function words, etc.

9. The difficulties of the foreign language in the matter of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar should be carefully determined so that materials can be graded for presentation. 29

For example, let us have a look at a lesson in a textbook currently in use in Korean middle school.

"We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights; that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness." These words were written in the Declaration of Independence of the United States of America. ...30

It is quite evident that the textbook author paid no attention to a principle of language learning: "The difficulties of the foreign language in the matter of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar should be carefully graded for presentation." This lesson is studied at the end of the first semester in the third grade (for, this is from Lesson Nine of twenty lessons in Book Three) when average pupils, after two years of studying English, have about eight hundred words in their reading vocabulary (aural comprehension vocabulary will be about the half of it). To pupils at such a stage of development, words like "self-evident," "created," "Creator," "endowed," "unalienable," "pursuit," "declaration," and "independence" are too difficult for active use. Furthermore, these words are not primarily for aural-oral drill.

Nor is the grammar of this specific passage easy for third graders. Such constructions as the use of the infinitive "to be" in "We hold these truths to be self-evident"; the use of the complement "equal" in "all men are created equal"; the inversion of the word order in

"among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness"; the use of a colon and a semicolon; the capitalization of "Rights," "Life," "Liberty," and "Happiness"; the use of the conjunction "that" throughout the passage — these all should be taught in a more advanced stage of English learning, say, at the end of the first grade or at the beginning of the second grade in high school. And, in fact, many textbooks deal with such items at that time.

Older textbooks and teaching methods gave relatively little attention to the matter of grading. These texts and methods emphasized reading and translation. The vocabulary studied was much greater in range than that used in oral methods. Careful grading was not very important since there was no active use made of the many words studied. Similarly, grammar was studied passively through the simple device of translation. Since students were seldom required to use any of this grammar orally, there was no need to follow any particular order in presenting it. If the student merely understood the grammar, that was sufficient.

It is very natural that grading became a matter of primary consideration in the Criteria for the Approval of English Textbooks for Middle and High Schools drafted by the Ministry of Education of Korea in 1958.\(^\text{31}\) Nevertheless,

\(^{31}\) Cf. Criteria for the Approval of English Textbooks for Middle and High Schools (leaflet), The Ministry of Education of Korea, p. 1.
alas, the above quoted textbook was approved for use in the middle school.

Vocabulary

The Ministry of Education of Korea also set forth the number of new words to be used in textbooks in various grades of the middle and high school, as shown in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Level</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>No. of New Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Addition or subtraction within 20 per cent of the above number is allowed.

It is interesting to compare the numbers of words in the above table with those set by the Ministry of Education of Japan, as shown in the following table:

32. Ibid., p. 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Level</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>No. of New Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>300 - 600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>400 - 700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>500 - 800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>600 - 1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>700 - 1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>800 - 1,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obviously the figures in both of the preceding tables were derived from teachers' estimates rather than extensive research in the matter. It is agreed among English teachers that some six hundred new words can be taught with four to six class sessions a week during a year. This means that average pupils will be able to master five hundred words in a year, since a certain number of words will be forgotten. The total vocabulary for middle school pupils to learn during three years comes to some 1,500 words. It is said that a knowledge of three thousand English words will enable a man to read ordinary English magazines and stories with understanding. Thus, a middle school pupil learns about

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the half amount of English vocabulary which will serve actual use. It goes without saying that the vocabulary studied should be limited in range so that pupils can learn to use it with facility. This vocabulary should be most useful and most practical. The grammar should also be simple and functional. It should be presented in such a way that pupils can grasp it easily and make immediate use of it in speaking.

Here arises an inevitable and significant question: What are the words of proven and practical value for pupils to master in their early stage of English learning?

Of course, there are a number of word-frequency lists now in circulation which will serve as reference for selecting a useful vocabulary. Fries reported his investigation of seven word lists of outstanding importance, namely, Basic English by C. K. Ogden, Definition Vocabulary by Michael West, I.R.E.T. Standard English Vocabulary,34 (the 1,000 word radius) by Harold E. Palmer and Hornby, The Teacher's Word Book by E. L. Thorndike, Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection by committee composed of Laurence Faucett, H. Palmer, M. P. West, and E. L. Thorndike, 1,534 Words with Values 1 to 34 by L. Faucett and Itsu Maki, and Little English by Janet Aiken.35

34. I.R.E.T. stands for Institute for Research in English Teaching, Tokyo, Japan, whose director was Harold E. Palmer.

However, the validity of these lists for the instruction of pupils who speak another language is doubtful, as brought out by Robert Herndon Fife, chairman of the Committee on Modern Languages, in his foreword to English Word Lists.

Acceptance of the frequency principle as a basis for vocabulary selection has been by no means universal. Some have questioned the character and breadth of the sampling used for word counts. The defects of word lists based on the criterion of frequency of use were recognized from the first, and the need for modification arising from environment as well as those made necessary by methodological procedures have led to some radical deviations from the frequency practice. This trend has marked all of the languages mentioned; but especially in English, where instruction extends around the world and meets situations widely differing in climate and biology, in economic conditions, national traditions, and general culture.36

For example, such words as "chalk," "football," "lunch," "thirteen," and "rose," which are taught in the earliest stages of English learning in Korea, come well down in frequency in A Teacher's Word Book of Twenty Thousand Words by Edward Thorndike, as shown in the following table:

---

36. Ibid., p.v.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Thorndike's Credit Sum</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chalk</td>
<td>4b</td>
<td>3,501 - 4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>football</td>
<td>5b</td>
<td>4,501 - 5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lunch</td>
<td>3b</td>
<td>2,501 - 3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thirteen</td>
<td>3a</td>
<td>2,001 - 2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rose</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6,001 - 7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bicycle</td>
<td>4a</td>
<td>3,001 - 3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piano</td>
<td>4a</td>
<td>3,001 - 3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reader</td>
<td>4b</td>
<td>3,501 - 4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hospital</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5,001 - 6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>picnic</td>
<td>4b</td>
<td>3,501 - 4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telephone</td>
<td>3a</td>
<td>2,001 - 2,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the best-selling middle school English textbooks in Korea analyses the frequency level of the English words presented, according to the Thorndike's credit sum, as shown in the following table:


In his word book Thorndike rates each word from one to twenty, according to the frequency and range of its occurrence. This rating he calls the "credit sum."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Credit Sum</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Credit Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 500</td>
<td>1a</td>
<td>4001 - 4500</td>
<td>5a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501 - 1000</td>
<td>1b</td>
<td>4501 - 5000</td>
<td>5b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001 - 1500</td>
<td>2a</td>
<td>5001 - 6000</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1501 - 2000</td>
<td>2b</td>
<td>6001 - 7000</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001 - 2500</td>
<td>3a</td>
<td>7001 - 8000</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2501 - 3000</td>
<td>3b</td>
<td>8001 - 9000</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3001 - 3500</td>
<td>4a</td>
<td>9001 - 10000</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3501 - 4000</td>
<td>4b</td>
<td>19001 - 20000</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thorndike's Credit Sum</td>
<td>1st Grade</td>
<td>2nd Grade</td>
<td>3rd Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1a (1-500)</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b (501-1,000)</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a (1,001-1,500)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b (1,501-2,000)</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (2,001-3,000) over 3,001</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>519</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With respect to the teaching of new words in the classroom, the following steps will be found especially helpful for Korean teachers:

1. Insist that students keep their books closed during the presentation.
2. Say a sentence containing one new word.
3. Indicate the meaning of the new word by a picture, an appropriate action, or an explanation. (Use translation, if necessary.)
4. Repeat the new word in isolation clearly and distinctly, stressing the sounds that are

different from those in the mother language.

5. Insist that students listen carefully while you are pronouncing the new word before they begin to repeat it.

6. Have the class repeat the new word correctly in choral unison when they have understood its pronunciation and meaning.

7. Listen carefully to the unison drill in order to detect any possible errors.

8. Use graphic illustrations or transcriptions to aid in pronouncing the new words, if you consider it more effective or necessary.

9. Write the new word on the blackboard for the students to see and read silently.

10. Repeat the sentence containing the new word, as you are writing the new word on the blackboard.

11. Ask questions about the sentence in ascending order of difficulty: yes, choice, no, simple recall, difficult recall, and personal.

12. Have students ask each other questions during the questioning exercise.

13. Require students to read all the sentences orally after about twenty minutes of presentation.
14. Give remedial pronunciation of any words mis-
pronounced during the oral reading period. 39

Pronunciation

It goes without saying that "every teacher of English
as a foreign language should realize the basic importance
of teaching authentic pronunciation from the very begin-
ning. He should not only have a good pronunciation himself
but should know thoroughly the sound structure in English." 40

Of the three major facets of language learning —
pronunciation, vocabulary, and structure — mastery of
pronunciation is the most difficult for Korean pupils to
achieve.

Usually the teaching of English in the middle school
in Korea begins with the introducing of the sound system
of the language by means of a pronunciation alphabet, upon
which the teacher entirely depends for correct pronuncia-
tion. The advantage of this special alphabet is stated
as follows:

When a person first begins to learn English
he soon notices that the spelling of the language
is very irregular. Therefore, it is difficult to
know how to pronounce a word when one first looks
at it. One of the major difficulties arises from

39. Adapted from Bumpass, op. cit., pp. 28-29.
40. Bumpass, op. cit., p. 32.
the fact that the different sounds are often represented by the same spelling. ... Another type of confusion arises when the same sound is represented by different letters or combinations of letters of the alphabet. ... In teaching English as a second language the use of a special alphabet facilitates the teaching of pronunciation particularly for the more mature students. This graphic representation utilizes only one symbol for one sound so that there is a one-to-one relationship between sound and symbol. 41

The phonetic symbols now in use in Korea are those which make up the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association. Every Korean teacher of English is already familiar with this International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). Phonetic symbols of this alphabet indicating the pronunciation of a new word are shown in all English textbooks in current use in Korea.

Korean teachers of English should especially keep in mind that, as a principle in English, "all vowels, when occurring in unstressed syllables, are reduced from their normal values to the level of the neutral vowel ⟨ə⟩." 42 In fact, "this important principle of English speech is often difficult for the foreign student to understand." 43

42. Dixon, op. cit., p. 73.
43. Ibid.
In the Korean language, "the student is often taught to respect the quality of all vowels." \(^{44}\)

For the teaching of pronunciation, "Kenneth L. Pike's so-called 'the tripod of pronunciation, the sounds, intonation and rhythm,' must be included in any materials." \(^{45}\)

As for the intonation of the English language, Korean teachers of English should at least know that the following are generally considered functional words in English and accordingly are unstressed:

1. Definite and indefinite articles
2. Personal pronouns
3. Auxiliary verbs
4. Miscellaneous
   Connecting words: and, but, or
   Subordinate conjunctions: where, when, while, if, although, etc.
   Relative pronouns: who, which, that \(^{46}\)

In his Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language Robert J. Dixson introduces two principles that govern all basic intonation patterns in English, claiming:

\(^{44}\) Dixson, op. cit., p. 73.
\(^{45}\) Wallace, op. cit., p. 1.
\(^{46}\) Cf. Dixson, op. cit., pp. 78-79.
These two principles are really all any foreign student needs to be taught:

1. The first principle requires that all completed statements, including commands, and with a downward glide of the voice on the last accented syllable.

2. The second principle is that all statements indicating incompleteness, doubt, or hesitation end with an upward glide of the voice on the last accented syllable. In this category are included all questions which may be answered by yes or no. Questions beginning with interrogative words such as when, where, why, since these words in themselves indicate that the statement is a question, generally follow Principle One.47

However, it must be admitted that nearly every Korean teacher of English on either the basic or the advanced level feels that his pronunciation is inadequate. What can be done in this situation? A helpful suggestion is made by Robert J. Dixson, who is the author of over forty textbooks in the teaching of languages and whose English series for the foreign born (more than a dozen) are widely used in language institutes in Korea. Speaking of the teacher, he says:

She is afraid that her own imperfect pronunciation may have an adverse effect upon the pronunciation of her students. Certainly, good models are always to be preferred to bad models. But this is no reason why a teacher should hesitate to follow an oral method. The teacher should make every effort to improve her pronunciation. But at the same time she can easily counterbalance her own defects by making use in class of phonograph records, tape recorders, and other auditory aids. Good phonograph records covering all phases of English pronunciation are available

47 Ibid., p. 81.
today. Some texts now come provided with supplementary records or tape recordings. This material should be made a regular part of each day's lesson. Students enjoy listening to recorded materials. The teacher, at the same time, receives valuable ear training. 48

As Harold Palmer says, the student, in the early stages, cannot observe many different things at one and the same time, so he generally forms the habit of always observing one and the same thing and ignoring the rest; hence the need for calling his attention specifically to all the things which are of importance.

With respect to correct observation, the most valuable of all language learning habits, he suggests that the student should be told at different times to observe more especially the following things:

1. Individual sounds
2. The manner in which sounds follow each other (glides, etc.)
3. On what words the emphasis is placed
4. The syllables on which the stress falls
5. The intonation of the words and sentences
6. The general acoustic effect of the whole word or sentence
7. The grammatical form of the word (the nature of the inflection if any)
8. Any peculiarities of syntax (agreement, word, order, etc.)
9. The exact meaning of the word, compound or sentence 49

48. Ibid., p. 16.
Reading Materials

How much should a Korean student learn English during three years in middle school? Taking into consideration Hook's "Principles of Literary Selection" plus social demands in Korea, the writer suggests the following program with regard to reading materials:

1. Names of parts of the human body:
   hand, finger; leg, foot; arm; face, nose, eye, hair, etc.
   Verbs corresponding to the preceding:
   walk, run, write, see, hear, eat, etc.

2. One's belongings:
   pen, pencil, knife, note-book; book; bag, desk, chair; cap, hat, etc.

3. Home:
   father, mother, parents; brother, sister, uncle, aunt, nephew, niece, etc.
   house, window, door; garden, upstairs, etc.

4. Meals:
   meal; breakfast, lunch, dinner, supper; fish,

---

50. They are: Interest (the book one chooses must be on a subject in which one is or can be interested), Readiness (one must be intellectually ready for the book one chooses), and Worthwhileness (the book one selects must seem worth while to one). Cf. J. N. Hook, The Teaching of High School English, pp. 117-118.
dish, bread and butter, tea, coffee, milk, etc.
Verbs corresponding to the preceding:
eat, have, take, drink, etc.

5. How to write a letter; how to write a diary

6. About school life:
teacher, pupil, student, chalk, blackboard,
eraser, class; club, baseball, tennis, basketball,
football, pingpong, swimming, etc.

7. Community and public establishments:
station, post-office, hospital, park, etc.

8. Seasons, months, week and how to tell time;
season: spring, summer, autumn (fall), winter
January, February, March, April, May, June,
July, August, September, October, November,
December
Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday,
Friday, Saturday
What time is it (by your watch)?
It is quarter to ten.

9. Daily conversation:

The easiest and most common expressions in
asking a direction, calling on a person, and
introducing a friend, etc.
Excuse me, but will you please tell me the
way to the station?
Yes, with pleasure. Go straight on ...
Is Mr. Smith in? What name shall I say, sir?
How do you do, Mr. West?

May I introduce Miss Thomson (to you)?
This is Mr. Brown, a friend of mine.

10. Easy adaptation of the following (possibly for the third grade):

Aesop's Fables
Grimm's Fairy Tales; Andersen's Fairy Tales
Fifty Famous Stories
Gulliver's Travels
Robinson Crusoe
Tales from Shakespeare
The Arabian Nights, etc.

11. Natural phenomena, flowers, birds, etc.
the sun, the moon, stars; wind, rain, snow,
storm; flower, rose; bird, sparrow, swallow,
black-bird, butterfly, etc.

12. From British and American history:
Columbus' discovery of America

51. The following quotation from a current middle school textbook will show the degree of "easiness" in style of this sort of adaptation.
Robinson Crusoe became a sailor when he was nineteen years old. On one of his voyages, his ship was wrecked in a bad storm. All the sailors were drowned except Crusoe, who was thrown up on an island. Now he had to live all alone on this island, for he had no friend to talk to and no familiar beings to live with... — Jung-Hwi Gweon, Modern English for Middle Schools, Book III, pp. 198-199.
Pilgrim Fathers who came to America on board the **Mayflower**

Thanksgiving Day

Typical pioneer, Daniel Boone

War of Independence, etc.

Anglo-Saxon Conquest

Norman Conquest, etc.

13. Geography:

Names of the five oceans

Names of the seven seas

Getting acquainted with the spellings of London, New York, Washington, Moscow, Peiping, Paris, Rome, Tokyo; England, America, Russia, France, Germany, Italy, China, Japan, Africa, India, etc.

14. Scientific materials:

It should be noted that materials of high standard in the field of sciences
can not be treated, because of the limitation of the pupils' vocabulary.  

15. Biographical Stories:

American — Franklin, Lincoln, Washington, Edison, Daniel Boone, Hellen Keller, Stephen Foster, etc.

English — George Stevenson, James Watt, Charles Darwin, etc.

Women — Florence Nightingale, Grace Darling, Joan of Arc, etc.

Soldiers — Admiral Nelson, General Wellington, Napoleon, etc.

Musicians — Beethoven (especially an anecdote concerning the composition of "Moonlight Sonata"), Mozart, etc.

Scientists — Galileo, Marconi, Wright Brothers, etc.

52 The following is a good example how a scientific material is treated with a limited vocabulary at the last part of a third-grade English textbook.

...Starting a rocket ship off on a trip to the moon or to one of the planets would be much easier if we had some sort of station up above the top of our ocean of air. A small artificial moon that circles around the earth not very far above the top of the air would be just the thing. A rocket ship sent up from the earth might be the beginning of this little moon. If we were sent in just the right direction and at just the right speed, it would not fall back to the earth. But it would not go far out into space, either. It would travel around and around the earth just as the real moon does. After
16. Easy adaptation of Greek legends and myths (possibly for the third grade) 53

17. Christianity:

Easy adaptation of stories from the Bible
Christmas, Santa Claus; how to write a
Christmas card
Christian life, etc.

52.
(continued)
the rocket ship became a moon, other rocket ships
could carry up materials to make it bigger.
Finally, it could be built big enough to be a
good starting place for real space travel. Some
scientists suggest that the space station be a
big hollow wheel. ... — Yang-Ha Lee, Let's Learn
English, Book III, pp. 187-188.

53.
"Easy adaptation" means such style as the follow-
ing:

Once upon a time there lived a rich king whose
name was Midas. He lived in a palace with his
daughter named Marygold. He loved gold better
than anything else in the world, except his
daughter. He used to count his money over
and over, and always thought of getting more
money. / One day he said to himself, "If I
were the richest king in the world, how
happy I should be! I wish I could change
everything to gold by touching it. ...
— Ibid., p. 108.
18. Civics:

Independence Day
British Parliament
The United Nations 54
Election, etc.

It is desirable that textbook lessons including these reading materials be based on such language learning processes as the following:

1. The students listen to the English phrases and sentences as spoken by the teacher, and the teacher tells them what they mean.

2. The students imitate what they hear, and the teacher corrects their imitation until it is as nearly perfect as it can be.

3. The students practice what they have learned until all the features become matters of automatic habit.

4. Under the teacher's guidance, the students

54. The following passage shows what this kind of material is like.

During the Second World War some nations united to win the war and they won the war. But now almost all nations have united to end all wars and to win the peace. They are called "The United Nations." The United Nations has called many meetings to try to win the peace. But they have not ended all wars, not yet. — Bong-Chin Hong, Step by Step: Union English, 3rd Step, p. 188.
practice variations and combinations of the basic phrases and sentences.

5. Within the limits of the vocabulary and grammar they have learned, the students experiment with making original sentences in spontaneous conversation with the teacher and with other students.

6. By putting their skill to use outside of class, the students over-learn about what they have already acquired and continue to expand their stock of vocabulary and idioms.

Sentence Structure

What kind of English sentence structures are of high frequency and usefulness, and of greatest utility for the students in the middle school in Korea? By choosing sentence structures comparatively in common through a dozen current middle school English textbooks published in Korea, by referring to the lists made by the Ministry of Education of Korea and by S. Hoshiyama for the Japanese middle school.


56. Criteria. The Ministry of Education of Korea, op. cit., pp. 28-35; Hoshiyama, op. cit., pp. 52-57. The former lists 107 "Basic Sentence Patterns" for the middle school English program, among which are: "The work OF a machine; John's work; A day's work" (p. 31), "I see MYSELF in the mirror" (p. 34), "Farmers are usually small in the East. FARTHER WEST you will find much larger ones" (p. 35), while fifty basic sentence structures are given in the latter.
and to *Patterns of English Sentences*\(^57\) and by grading them in order in accordance with the grade level, the writer has developed the following list of basic sentence structures to be taught and mastered in the English program:

(A) The First Grade

1. This is a pen.
2. Is this a pen? — Yes, it is.
3. Is this a pen? — No, it is not.
4. Is this a book? — No, it is not.
   What is it, then? — It is a box.
5. Is this a pen or pencil? — It is a pen.
   Is this long or short? — It is long.
6. What is that? — It is a map of Korea.
7. Where is the map? — It is on the wall.
8. Who is that girl? — She is Mary Smith.
9. Here is a flower.
   There is a vase on the table.
10. What is there on the desk?
    There is a book on it.
11. I am a boy.
    My name is Henry.
12. You are a girl.
    Your name is Jane.

\(^{57}\) Charles C. Fries and Staff, *Patterns of English Sentences.*
13. We are boys.
   Our home is in New York.
14. Whose book is this? Is it yours?
   Yes, it is mine.
15. How many books have you in your bag?
   I have five books in it.
16. How many books are there on the desk?
   There are six (books on it).
17. How old are you?
   I am twelve years old.
18. Which is older, you or your sister?
   I am older than my sister.
19. Which is the tallest boy of the three?
   John is.
20. Stand up. — I stand up.
   (or) I am standing up.
   Can you speak Chinese? — No, I cannot.
22. What time is it now?
   It is a quarter to ten (o'clock).
23. How far is it from here to the station?
   It is about ten minutes' walk.
24. Why can't you touch the ceiling?
   Because it is too high.
25. Do you go to church on Sunday?
Yes, I do. (or No, I do not.)

Does your sister go to church on Sunday, too?
Yes, she does. (or No, she does not.)

26. When does your mother (generally) get up?
She gets up at half past six.

27. What is Tom doing?
He is reading an English book.

With four to six class sessions a week, this much of the sentence patterns or structures will be covered during one academic year.

(B) The Second Grade

(A few sentence structures near the beginning of the following list may be easily covered in an advanced class in the first grade.)

28. Was it fine yesterday?
No; it was cloudy.

29. How many bicycles did your uncle have?
He had two.

30. Where did you go yesterday?
I went to the park.

31. What was Tom doing at that time?
He was reading an English book.

32. Tomorrow will be Sunday and we shall have no school.
33. May I go out?
   No, you must not.

34. Have you just opened the window?
   Yes, I have just opened it.

35. He loves her.
   She is loved by him.

36. How beautiful this flower is!
   What a beautiful flower this is!

37. I like a boy who is honest.
   I beat the dog which barked at me.
   This is the house that Jack built.

38. I am very good at English now, but I was not very good at English last year.

39. I have come here today, but my brother came here yesterday.

40. a) What are you doing now?
   I am reading an English book.

   b) What were you doing when I called on you yesterday afternoon?
   I was reading a letter.

   c) What have you been doing upstairs?
   I have been reading a newspaper.

41. a) Have you ever seen a tiger?
   Yes, I have.

   b) Where did you see one?
   I saw one at the Zoo.
c) Have you ever been to the Zoo, Mr. Brown?
   No, I haven't.

42. a) I shall be fourteen years old next year.
   b) You will be fifteen years old next year.
   c) Mr. Smith will be fifty years old next year.

43. a) How old shall you be next year, Mr. Green?
   b) How old will your brother be next year?
      He will be ten.

   More advanced sentence structures than these are frequently found in textbooks for the second grade; however, being rather complicated, they require further practice and thorough drill in the third grade as well.

(C) The Third Grade

44. a) We are taught English by Mr. White now.
   b) By whom were you taught English last year?
      We were taught English by Miss Thomas last year.
   c) Is she still teaching English at your school?
      No, she has returned home.

45. a) Miss Thomas, who had been teaching us English till last March, left Seoul yesterday for the United States.
b) Yesterday I went to Seoul Station to see
    her off, but when I got to the station,
    her train had already started.

46. If it is fine tomorrow, we shall go on an
    excursion, but if it should rain, the class
    will meet as usual.

47. Do you think it will rain tomorrow?
    No, I don't think it will.
    Well, then, we needn't prepare for tomorrow's
    lesson.

48. If I were free, I could go out for a walk with
    you. But as I am busy now, I cannot go out
    for a walk with you.

49. If I had been free yesterday afternoon, I could
    have gone out for a walk with you. But
    as I was busy yesterday afternoon, I could
    not go out for a walk with you.

50. Here and there over the grass beautiful
    flowers like stars were out, and there
    were twelve peachtrees that in the spring
    broke out into delicate blossoms of pink
    and white and in the autumn bore rich
    fruit.
These fifty sentence structures are most common in all textbooks, and, therefore, these may be safely regarded as the standard sentence structures to be thoroughly practiced and drilled and mastered through three years in the middle school English course. The last three sentences are a little difficult. It will be enough if they are only understood by the student.

In her exhaustive book, *Teaching English as A Second Language*, Mary Finocchiaro also presents types of basic sentence patterns for the beginning learners of English as a second language. Close comparison shows that there is no significant difference between the above and hers, which means that average textbooks in current use in Korea actually cover what Finocchiaro calls "Language Patterns for Active Control" during the three years of the middle school English course. Her patterns are as follows:

**LANGUAGE PATTERNS FOR ACTIVE CONTROL**

Word order: My name is
The question pattern: What is this? Who is he?
The answer pattern: It is _____. He is _____.
Indefinite articles: a, some
The statement pattern: This is; that is; these are; those are; there is; there are
Definite article: the
Plurals of nouns (regular and irregular); boys; children
Present tense of the verb "to be" with all the subject pronouns
Present tense of the verb "to have"
Interrogative forms of "to be" and "to have"
Negative forms of the above: I don't have;
I haven't
Present tense of simple verbs, including negative forms; to live
Interrogative forms: "Where does he live?" "Does he live in _____?"

Prepositions: in, near, on, at, with, by, to, from, under, over, etc.

Present progressive: I am learning _____.

Two word verbs: I get up. I sit down.

Expressions of age, weather, time, health

Position of certain adjectives: the red hat; the pretty girl. The hat is red. The girl is pretty.

Comparisons: He is taller than ____. She is the tallest. He is the taller of the two. This book is more interesting. She is as pretty as _____.

It is the same as ____. It is different from _____.

Possessive adjectives and demonstrative adjectives;
this, that, those, my, his, our, etc.

Plurals of adjectives: The boys are tall. The girls are pretty. The red books; the pretty girls.

The stories are interesting.

Contractions: He's; it's; I'm

Imperatives: positive, negative; Go! Don't go!

Request pattern with: Let us (let's)

Simple regular past: I lived; I walked.

Futurity with "going to"

Future: shall, will — including negative and interrogative forms

Simple irregular past: I went, I ate — including negatives and interrogatives

Present perfect: I have eaten — including negatives and interrogatives

Shortened forms: Yes, I did. No, I didn't. Yes, he is. No, he isn't.

Possessive and demonstrative pronouns: These are mine.

Interrogatives such as Whose book _____? Which story _____? Whose is this?

Object pronouns: Give him the book. Give it to me.

Disjunctive pronouns: Let's find it for her.

Go with him.

Auxiliary verbs: Can, must; have to

Adverbs: with ly; too; very

Exclamations: What ____! How ____!

The infinitive: to show purpose; in order to and to

Adjectival phrases after nouns: The book with the red cover.

Prepositional phrases: He walked into the room.

He walked towards his house.

Indefinite pronouns and adjectives: Someone is coming. Have you any money?
Imperfect tense: I was walking there. I used to see him every day.

Relative pronouns: The girl who is standing there is my sister.

The verbs: could, should

Conditional sentences: If I had money, I would buy that.

Frequency words, such as: always, never, ever, still, anymore

Expressions such as: Isn't he? Aren't you?

Use of "how long" and "for": How long have you been waiting? I have been waiting for an hour.

Passive forms of verbs: It was explained by____.

Gerund: She dislikes talking.

Complex sentences such as: Since it is so late, ______. Although she is pretty, ______. Whenever I take a train ______.

Idioms: by heart; to get in touch with; what's the matter with him? 58

In presenting these sentence patterns, the teacher should proceed as follows:

1. The teacher says the word or pattern in a complete sentence; for example, she says, "This is a book" while pointing to a number of different books or to a number of pictures of a book. Sound and meaning are thus associated.

2. Pupils are asked to repeat in chorus, "That is a book." (The pattern that is must be used if the object is at a distance from the speakers.)

3. Individual pupils repeat, "That is a book."

4. The teacher writes the words at the blackboard.

5. The teacher says the sentence while pointing to the book.

________58. Pp. 31-33.
The class members repeat the sentence after the teacher in chorus, and then individually. Visual image and sound are thus associated.

6. Language practice (drill) of the one item follows; for example,
   a. The teacher says, "Show me a book." A pupil answers, "This is a book" or "That is a book" as the case may be.
   b. A pupil says, "Show me a book." Another pupil answers.
   c. The teacher asks, "Where is a book?" A pupil answers, "Here is a book."
   d. A pupil asks, "Where is a book?"
   e. The teacher says, "Give me a book."
   f. A pupil says, "Give me a book."
   g. The teacher asks, "What is this?" A pupil answers, "It is a book" or "It's a book."
   h. Pupils are asked to read the word from a flashcard.

i. When pupils are more advanced the practice may also take the following forms:
   1) Matching the word on the flashcard with a word on a chart or in a text.
   2) Answering questions such as, "Who has the (or a) book?", where both the pronoun and verb form must be changed.
3) Using the word in a sentence with other known words.

4) Choosing the correct word when a choice of two or more words is given.

7. Important sentence patterns for active use should be practiced until students can understand them and use them in any communication situation.

8. Language should be built on patterns or forms over which pupils already have some control; for example,

   a. You know John.
   b. (Do) you know John?
   c. (Do) you know John's brother?

9. Other words can and should be substituted within the same sentence pattern. Knowing most of the parts of a sentence gives the pupils needed confidence. To illustrate:

   a. 
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do</th>
<th>they</th>
<th>know</th>
<th>(Mary)?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Do)</td>
<td>(we)</td>
<td>see</td>
<td>(John)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Do)</td>
<td>(you)</td>
<td>recognize</td>
<td>(Frank)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Do)</td>
<td>(I)</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>(Henry)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do</th>
<th>you recognize</th>
<th>John's sister?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Do)</td>
<td>(they) (know)</td>
<td>John's aunt?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Do)</td>
<td>(we) (like)</td>
<td>John's mother?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Do)</td>
<td>(I) (see)</td>
<td>John's father?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. Don't you (recognize) John's (sister)?

10. For beginning teaching, structural patterns should be selected on the basis of the following criteria:

a. They are easily demonstrable in the classroom; e.g., "Open the door."

b. They are useful in a wide number of situations; e.g., "Where do you live?" "Where do you sit?" "Where do you eat?"

c. Whenever possible, they are similar to structural patterns in the pupils' native tongue.

11. Teachers will find that "boxing" or "framing" basic patterns helps pupils to see the basic structure and to combine and manipulate vocabulary and grammatical items. An example of boxing would be (note how the form or pattern of the language is made clear to pupils):
a.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I want a</th>
<th>ham</th>
<th>sandwich</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cheese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>chicken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Ideally, separate frames should be used for each language item or concept. However, frames such as this are frequently and effectively used, especially for review purposes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>want a</th>
<th>ham</th>
<th>sandwich</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>want a</td>
<td>cheese</td>
<td>sandwich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>they</td>
<td>want a</td>
<td>chicken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>want a</td>
<td>ham</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Verse

The following are the first lines of the most popular and beloved verses used in English textbooks for the middle school. The first lines of verse are more familiar to students than the titles.

1. "A,B,C,D,E,F,G" (A,B,C, Song)
2. "Snow in January" (Months)
3. "This is the way we go to church"
4. "The rain is raining all around"
5. "What does little birdie say?"
6. "Twinkle, twinkle, little star"
7. "Who has seen the wind?"
8. "Boats sail on the rivers"
9. "White sheep, white sheep"
10. "What is pink?"
11. "How do you like to go up in a swing"
12. "The year's at the spring"
13. "In winter I get up at night"
14. "My heart leaps up when I behold"
15. "Sweet and low, sweet and low"
16. "The cock is crowing"
17. "I once had a sweet little doll, dears"
18. "I shot an arrow into the air"
19. "God save our gracious King"

In Korean schools, the gap between the pupils' mental development and their English knowledge troubles the teacher as he tries to select suitable teaching materials. The teacher will teach such English sentences as "What is this? — That is a book" to pupils who will be able to discuss in the Korean language "What is a constitution?" or
"What were the causes of World War II?" It is almost impossible to teach, from the earliest stage of English study, classical masterpieces of poetry to Korean pupils in middle school according to their age level. So it has been regarded as best to start with easy English songs and nursery rhymes for the beginners to get acquainted with what English verse is like and with the musical pleasure obtainable from rhythm and rhyme. However infantile the contents of verse may be, pupils will enjoy verse all right; they will also feel proud to understand verse in a foreign language.

The verse materials in the textbooks fall into four classified kinds according to their content.

1. English songs
2. Nursery rhymes
3. Poetry about things English and American and about natural features of the seasons
4. Lyric poetry

Many pupils will become acquainted, in music class, with "A, B, C, Song," "The Star," "Good Morning to You!" "The Bells are Tinkling," "Sweet and Low," and "Home, Sweet Home." These will fall into the first group.

Since, in the second grade, pupils know only about eight hundred English words and have a hard time with complex sentences, they could not usually go beyond nursery rhymes. Nevertheless, such nursery rhymes as those by Christina Rossetti and Robert Louis Stevenson will be deeply moving to Korean pupils.
A poem like "This is the way we go to church, go to church, ..." is one which shows native English-speakers' daily routines. "Snow in January. Ice in February. Wind in March...." will enable Korean pupils to learn the names of the twelve months and their representative features with pleasure.

No poems will surpass lyrics in beauty and melody. It is a pity, however, that there are very few great English lyrics that are within easy reach of Korean middle school pupils, because of their limited knowledge of both vocabulary and sentence structure. Only advanced classes will enjoy William Wordsworth's "Sweet and Low" or J. H. Payne's "Home, Sweet Home."

It is rather strange to find that almost every textbook has one or more poems by Stevenson. In frequency comes next Christina Rossetti or Alfred Lord Tennyson. As the class advances, poems by Wordsworth may be used abundantly. The other poets are rarely found in a textbook.

The most popular poets and their works in the Korean middle school English course are as follows:

1. Robert L. Stevenson:
   "The Swing"; "My Shadow"; "Bed in Summer"; "The Cow"; "Autumn Fires"; "Rain"

2. Christina Rossetti:
   "Colours"; "Who Has Seen the Wind?";
"Boats Sail on the Rivers"

3. Alfred Lord Tennyson:
   "Little Birdie"; "The Year is Dying"; "The Brook"; "At the Seaside"; "Sweet and Low"

   The above are for middle school pupils, and the following for the advanced class or high school pupils.

4. William Wordsworth:
   "Written in March"; "We are Seven"; "To the Cuckoo"; "The Daffodils"; "The Solitary Reaper";
   "Lucy Gray"; "My Heart Leaps up When I Behold"

5. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow:
   "The Arrow and the Song"; "The Rainy Day";
   "Rain in Summer"; "The Village Blacksmith";
   "Psalm of Life"

   In prose, we may readily decide the grade level of a selection by its sentence structure. The sentence "This is a dog" indicates material for the beginners, "This is the book which I bought yesterday" for the beginning of the second grade, and "Have you ever been ...?" for the middle of the second grade, and so on. But in verse, the question is quite different. For example, the famous "Home, Sweet Home" or "Pippa's Song" is found in Book II (for the second grade) in some textbooks, in Book III (for the third grade) in some, in Book IV (for the fourth grade, or first grade in high school) in some, or even in Book V (for the fifth grade,
or second grade in high school). The same poem will be taught in the second grade or in the fifth grade. However, as far as the effective teaching of poetry is concerned, its grade level in the English program should be taken into serious consideration.

Calculating the potential English knowledge of Korean middle school pupils, collecting as many poems as possible which have been cited in middle school textbooks, old and new, published in both Korea and Japan, and reading through more than seven hundred poems in an anthology for boys and girls, the writer has chosen the following, for their literary quality and language-study value, as basic or essential poems to be read by Korean middle school pupils either in the classroom or outside the classroom during the three academic years.

The First Grade

Good Morning to You (A Song)

Good morning to you,
Good morning to you,
Good morning, dear teacher,
Good morning to you.

A, B, C, Song

A, B, C, D, E, F, G,
H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P,
Q, R, S, and T, U, V,
W, and X, Y, Z.
Happy, happy shall we be,
When we've learned our A, B, C.

60. Helen Ferris, ed.,Favorite Poems, Old and New, Selected for Boys and Girls.
The Bells (A Song)

Bells are tinkling;  
Work begins;  
Merrily come to school.  
Ding, dong, bell.

What Do They Do?  
by Christina Rossetti

What does the bee do?  
Bring home honey.  
And what does Father do?  
Bring home money.  
And what does Mother do?  
Lay out the money.  
And what does baby do?  
Eat up the honey.

Months

Snow in January.  
Ice in February.  
Wind in March.  
Rain in April.  
Buds in May.  
Roses in June.  
Play in July.  
Warm days in August.  
School in September.  
Apples in October.  
Cold days in November.  
Christmas in December.

Little Birdie  
by Alfred Tennyson

What does little birdie say,  
In her nest at peep of day?  
"Let me fly," says little birdie:  
"Mother, let me fly away."  
"Birdie, rest a little longer,  
Till the little wings are stronger."  
So she rests a little longer,  
Then she flies away.

This is the Way

This is the way we go to church,  
Go to church, go to church,
This is the way we go to church,
All on a Sunday morning.
This is the way we wash our clothes,
Wash our clothes, wash our clothes,
This is the way we wash our clothes,
All on a Monday morning.
This is the way we iron our clothes,
Iron our clothes, iron our clothes,
This is the way we iron our clothes,
All on a Tuesday morning.
This is the way we mend our clothes,
Mend our clothes, mend our clothes,
This is the way we mend our clothes,
All on a Wednesday morning.
This is the way we visit our friends,
Visit our friends, visit our friends,
This is the way we visit our friends,
All on a Thursday morning.
This is the way we sweep the floor,
Sweep the floor, sweep the floor,
This is the way we sweep the floor,
All on a Friday morning.
This is the way we go to market,
Go to market, go to market,
This is the way we go to market,
All on a Saturday morning.

The Second Grade

Everybody Says
by Dorothy Aldis

Everybody says
I look just like my mother.
Everybody says
I am the image of Aunt Bee.
Everybody says
My nose is like my father's,
But I want to look like me.

Colours
by Christina Rossetti

What is pink? A rose is pink
By the fountain's brink,
What is red? A poppy's red
In its barley bed.
What is blue? The sky is blue
Where the clouds float through.
What is white? A swan is white
Sailing in the light.
What is yellow? Pears are yellow,
Rich and ripe, and mellow.
What is green? The grass is green,
With small flowers between.
What is violet? Clouds are violet
In the summer twilight.
What is orange? Why, an orange,
Just an orange.

Fog
by Carl Sandburg

The fog comes
on little cat feet.

It sits looking
over harbor and city
on silent haunches
and then moves on.

Rain
by Robert Louis Stevenson

The rain is raining all around,
It falls on field and tree,
It rains on the umbrellas here,
And on the ships at sea.

Baby Toes
by Carl Sandburg

There is a blue star, Janet,
Fifteen years' ride from us,
If we ride a hundred miles an hour.

There is a white star, Janet,
Forty years' ride from us,
If we ride a hundred miles an hour.

Shall we ride
To the blue star
Or the white star?

Boats Sail on the Rivers
by Christina Rossetti

Boats sail on the rivers;
And ships sail on the seas;
But clouds that sail across the sky
Are prettier far than these.
There are bridges on the rivers,
As pretty as you please;
But the bow that bridges heaven,
And overtops the trees,
And builds a road from earth to sky,
Is prettier far than these.

Who Has Seen The Wind?
by Christina Rossetti

Who has seen the wind?
Neither I nor you;
But when the leaves hang trembling,
The wind is passing through.

Who has seen the wind?
Neither you nor I;
But when the trees bow down their heads,
The wind is passing by.

The Star
by Jane Taylor

Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are,
Up above the world so high,
Like a diamond in the sky.

When the blazing sun is set,
And the grass with dew is wet,
Then you show your little light.
Twinkle, twinkle, all the night.

The Third Grade

Bed in Summer
by Robert Louis Stevenson

In winter I get up at night
And dress by yellow candle-light.
In summer, quite the other way,
I have to go to bed by day.
I have to go to bed and see
The birds still hopping on the tree,
Or hear the grown-up people's feet
Still going past me in the street.
And does it not seem hard to you,
When all the sky is clear and blue,
And I should like so much to play,
To have to go to bed by day?
February Twilight
by Sara Teasdale

I stood beside a hill
Smooth with new-laid snow,
A single star looked out
From the cold evening glow.

There was no other creature
That saw what I could see —
I stood and watched the evening star
As long as it watched me.

I Never Saw a Moor
by Emily Dickinson

I never saw a moor,
I never saw the sea;
Yet know I how the heather looks,
And what a wave must be.

I never spoke with God,
Nor visited in Heaven;
Yet certain am I of the spot
As if the chart were given.

The Arrow and the Song
by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow

I shot an arrow into the air,
It fell to earth, I knew not where;
For, so softly it flew, the sight
Could not follow it in its flight.

I breathed a song into the air,
It fell to earth. I knew not where;
For who has sight so keen and strong,
That it can follow the flight of song?

Long, long afterward, in an oak
I found the arrow, still unbroke;
And the song, from beginning to end,
I found again in the heart of a friend.

Pippa's Song
by Robert Browning

The year's at the spring
And day's at the morn;
Mornings at seven;
The hillside's dew-pearled;
The lark's on the wing;
The snail's on the thorn;
God's in His heaven —
All's right with the world!

The Lost Doll
by Charles Kingsley

I once had a sweet little doll, dears,
The prettiest doll in the world;
Her cheeks were so red and so white, dears,
And her hair was so charmingly curled.
But I lost my poor little doll, dears,
As I played on the heath one day;
And I cried for her more than a week, dears,
But I never could find where she lay.

I found my poor little doll, dears,
As I played on the heath one day;
Folks say she is terribly changed, dears,
For her paint is all washed away,
And her arm trodden off by the cows, dears,
And her hair not the least bit curled;
Yet for old time's sake, she is still, dears,
The prettiest doll in the world.

A Nation's Strength
by Ralph Waldo Emerson

Not gold, but only man can make
A people great and strong;
Men who, for truth and honor's sake,
Stand fast and suffer long.

Brave men who work while others sleep,
Who dare while others fly —
They build a nation's pillars deep
And lift them to the sky.

It is a pity that such familiar poems as "Home, Sweet Home" by J. H. Payne, "The Last Rose of Summer" by T. Moor, "We Are Seven" by W. Wordsworth, and "The Village Blacksmith" by W. Longfellow will be a little too difficult for Korean students in the middle school level.
These twenty-two poems seem, undoubtedly to most teachers as well as some authors of textbooks, to be too many, much too many for Korean middle school boys and girls. Apparently almost all Korean teachers either in the secondary level or in the college level "just don't like poetry." Most of the objections to poetry, as J. N. Hook clearly points out, "are centered upon the matter of difficulty, to which artificiality, compression, and unfamiliarity are related." The hostility against poetry of some authors is even reflected in their textbooks, which assign no pages at all for poetry through the entire English program during three long academic years! Even the rest of the authors offer only a few poems in their respective textbooks for the three-year English course. Because of this situation, teachers may completely ignore poetry in the entire English program. It goes without saying that the result will be unfortunate. Students will leave middle school without any knowledge of English poetry, even though this type of writing is one of the chief glories of English literature.

62. Gwangman Go, Standard English, Book I, Book II, Book III; Bong-Su Choe, Learning English, Book I, Book II, Book III; Jung-Hwi Gweon, Modern English for Middle Schools, Book I, Book II, Book III. No poems at all are cited in these textbooks. (Book I in all these textbooks is for the use of the first grade, Book II for the second grade, and Book III for the third grade.)
Since the present materials in poetry are so limited, the list above, it is hoped, will serve to suggest the kind of poetry program which should be employed in the middle school in Korea.

**Conversation**

Can you swim? — Yes, I can.

How old are you? — I am fourteen (years old).

What time is it now? — It is a quarter to nine.

Pupils in the second or third grade level having become acquainted with the above forms in the first grade, should be able to employ them. However, being asked what they should especially like to learn in the English course, those who are familiar with these questions and answers complain that they have not learned "English conversation." They are apt to think there will be something special which is called "conversation." Then, what is conversation in the English curriculum in the Korean middle school? What are English conversational materials?

Looking into the materials which have been treated as English conversation in so-called conversation books or textbooks, we can find the following as conversational materials.

1. Greeting:

   Good morning Mr. White!

   How are you, this morning? — Very well, thank you.
How do you do, Miss Smith?
Hello, Mr. Brown! It's a nice day, isn't it? —
    Yes, indeed, etc.

2. Visiting:
   Is Mr. Brown in? — Yes, sir.
   What name shall I say, sir? — Kindly tell him
      that Mr. West wishes to see him. — Wait a
      minute, please.

3. Introducing a person:
   Allow me to introduce my sister to you.
   This is my sister, Mary.
   This is my friend, Mr. Clark.
   How do you do, Mr. Clark?
   How do you do? I am very glad to meet you.

4. Talking about weather:
   What a lovely day it is!
   Yes, it is very fine.
   It looks like rain, doesn't it?
   — Yes, it does, indeed.
   Fine weather we are having, aren't we?
   — Yes, indeed.

5. Asking the way:
   Excuse me, but will you please (or kindly) tell
   me the way to Victoria Station? — Why, certainly.
   Go straight on to the end of this street and turn
to the right, and you will see the station on
the left.
Is it very far from here? — Oh, it's only five
minutes' walk.
Thank you for your kindness. — Not at all. (or
You are welcome.)

6. At the station:
Where is the booking-office (or ticket-office
in the U.S.)? — It's right there.
Where is the money exchange-office? — It's by
the entrance.
At what time does the train leave for Boston? —
(It leaves) at ten o'clock.
Must I change trains? — No, you need not. Take
this train and get off at the last station.

7. Shopping:
What can I do for you, sir? — I want to see
some fountain-pens.
Here they are. How do you like these? — What's
the price of this one?
It's ten dollars.

8. Telephoning:
Is this 1230 (one two three 0)? — Yes, who's
speaking?
This is Mr. White speaking. Etc.
These are the main materials for English conversation drawn from textbooks for the second and third year. However, are these the only materials for conversation? Although they are not titled specifically "conversation," will the following not come into our social life as conversation? These materials will be found abundantly in any pages of a textbook even for the first grade.

What is that? — It is a taxi.
Can you ski? — No, I cannot.
Have you a fountain-pen? — Yes, I have.
Where is the dictionary? — It is on my desk.
Where does the museum stand? — It stands near the park.
How many lessons do you have on Tuesday? — We have five.
Have you any clubs in your school? — Yes, we have several.

In our daily life, we often meet with these occasions. These may be called materials for conversation in a broader sense. Then, even pupils in the first grade practice conversation at the very beginning of English learning. Since the primary emphasis has been placed upon skill in listening and speaking more than in reading and writing the teacher should make use of the best of these materials in his
textbooks in cultivating the students' ability to understand and speak English.

There are two major objectives in the learning of English for Korean pupils: the cultural value and the practical value. The representative of the practical value is found in conversational materials. English conversation is regarded as being of the greatest practical use. Nevertheless, do we carry on conversation in daily life just as shown in textbooks? For example:

Morris: What book did you read?
Brown: I read The Life of Lincoln.
Morris: Was it very interesting?
Brown: Yes, it was very interesting.63

If you are asked a question like this by a friend of yours, you may answer him only "The Life of Lincoln," the title of the book. And as for "Was it very interesting?" the answer may be one of the following in the affirmative:

1. Yes.
2. Yes, very!
3. Yes, very interesting.
4. Yes, it was very interesting.

And the degree of "interesting" in reading the book may be by far more impressive when you answer "Yes, very!" than when you say "Yes, it was very interesting." Then we will find that the conversational materials in textbooks are not

always true to real occasions. They are hypothetic ques-
tions and answers, and according to the hypothesis learning
activities are undertaken.

However, we should consider their value as teaching
material. Concerning the question "What book did you read?"
which answer is of greater value as a teaching material for
Korean middle school pupils, "I read The Life of Lincoln," or "The Life of Lincoln"? Isn't it true that the latter
may be closer to live conversation? To the question "Which
will you take, a pear or an apple?" which answer should be
given for Korean pupils to learn and memorize and make use
of, "I will take an apple" or "An apple, please"? There
will be many diverse opinions on this matter. Some teachers
and authors of textbooks will insist that teaching material
should be as close as possible to actual occasions, choosing
the answer, "An apple, please."

As a matter of fact, in regard to such cases, an
American textbook for the study of English as a second
language gives the answers in actual situations.

Milton: We need a lot of crackers. Are there any?
Mary: Not many. Half a box. ...
Milton: Is there much butter?
Mary: Yes, there is. There's a pound.
Milton: And cheese?
Mary: We have a lot. Two pounds.
Milton: We need bread. How many loaves do we have?
Mary: Two. 64

64. Charles C. Fries, et al., Fries American English
Series for the Study of English as a Second Language, Book
Three, p. 125.
This is a very serious and important issue to be considered. In studying conversational materials, it is the habit of "thinking in English" that is also essential. Therefore, though it may be far from real occasions, the practice and drill in a complete sentence which has a subject and a predicate will be desired. An answer with one noun will not need a special drill. When a pupil memorizes a complete sentence as an answer, it will be very easy for him to give an answer with one word. On the contrary, the practice and drill in an answer with one word only will not enable a pupil to give an answer in a complete sentence when needed. As a drill in conversation in a foreign language a complete sentence pattern will be much more effective. Teachers should keep this in mind in selecting teaching materials and conducting conversation drill in the classroom.

It goes without saying that classroom activities in conversation should be centered upon developing basic aural-oral abilities, which will include the following:

**Aural Activities**

1. Listening to the teacher's speech in English during all phases of the English period.
2. Listening to other pupils give directions or ask questions.
3. Distinguishing between contrasting sounds in lists of words of sentences.
4. Listening to phonograph records, to tape recordings, to sound films.
Oral Activities

1. Choral repetition of word, phrase, or sentence (class, group, row).

2. Individual repetition of word, phrase, or sentence.

3. Responding to directions given by the teacher or by another pupil.

4. Formulating directions for other pupils; for example, "Show me the _____ ."

5. Answering questions based on any class or out-of-class experience.

6. Formulating questions based on an experience to ask the teacher or other people.

7. Preparing original sentences based on words or idioms or language patterns being learned.

8. Telling what appears in a picture or on a chart.

9. Engaging in conversation exercises such as changing singulars to plurals, nouns to pronouns, indicative to interrogative, affirmative to negative, etc.

10. Making tape recordings.\textsuperscript{65}

\textsuperscript{65} Cf. Finocchiaro, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 150-151.
Palmer divides conversation into two categories: Conventional Conversation and Normal Conversation. He defines the former as "forms of dialogue between teacher and student arranged according to a systematical plan in order to bring about certain specific results," and the latter as "conversation in the ordinary, everyday sense of the term." 66 He states:

The units of which Conventional Conversation is made up may be classified in at least five different ways:

1. They may consist of:
   a. Questions and answers,
   b. Commands and answers,
   c. Completions of statements.
2. The Questions may be:
   a. of the "General" type,
   b. of the "Alternative" type,
   c. of the "Special" type.
3. The Questions may be:
   a. short,
   b. long (or augmented).
4. The Answers may be:
   a. laconic,
   b. short,
   c. long (or echo-like).
5. The Units may be:
   a. arranged in drill-like form,
   b. diversified.

1a. Questions and Answers:

What's that?  It's the table.
What's a horse?  It's an animal.
Is snow white?  Yes, it is.

1b. Commands and Answers:

Ask me for my book.  Let me have your book, please.
Tell me to stand up.  Stand up.

---

1c. Completions of Statements:

Iron is heavier than wood, therefore wood ...
Therefore wood is lighter than iron.
I wrote the letter, therefore the letter ...
Therefore the letter was written by you.
This chair's made of .... of .... of ....
It's made of wood.

2a. Questions of the "General" Type.

Such questions require more affirmative or negative answers.

Is this a table? Yes, it is, or No, it isn't.
Is a horse an animal? Yes, it is.
Am I speaking English? Yes, you are.
Do you use a pen when you write? Yes, I do.

2b. Questions of the "Alternative" Type.

The answers to these are little more than repetitions of a portion of the question.

Is this a table or a chair? It's a table, or a chair.
Is a horse an animal or a metal? It's an animal.
Am I speaking English or French? You're speaking English.
Do you use a pen or a knife when you write? I use a pen.

2c. Questions of the "Special" Type.

These contain an interrogative word, the answers containing one or more elements not heard in the question.

What's this? It's a table.
What's a horse? It's an animal.
What am I speaking? You're speaking English.
What do you use when you write? I use a pen.

Note that these three types of questions represent three degrees of difficulty. Should the student hesitate at a question of the special type, the teacher may replace it by a question of one of the other two types.
3a. Short Questions.

Questions which contain none but essential words.

What's this?
What do we use when we write?
Is it pleasant or unpleasant to lose a train?
What can I do if I have a pen?
What must you have when you write?

3b. Long (or Augmented) Questions.

Unessential words are added in order to give the student additional practice in understanding long sentences or to give better opportunities to develop the student's capacity for unconscious assimilation.

Now I should like you to tell me what this is.
(Indirect question.)
What's the name of the thing we're in the habit of using whenever we write a letter or a postcard?
Is it generally considered to be a pleasant or an unpleasant thing to get to the station after the train has gone?
What is it possible for me to do if I've got a pen or a pencil?
What is it necessary for anyone to have if he wants to write a letter or postcard?

4a. Laconic Answers.

Is this a table? Yes or No.
What's a horse? An animal.
What do you use when you write? A pen.
What do you call a person who teaches? A teacher.
Is it right or wrong to say that London's the capital of France? It's wrong.

4b. Short Answers (to the questions).

Yes, it is, or No, it isn't.
It's an animal.
London is.
I use a pen.
We call him a teacher.
It's wrong to say that.

4c. Long (or Echo-like) Answers (to the same questions).

Yes, it's a table.
Or, No, it isn't a table; it's a chair.
A horse is an animal.
London's the capital of England.
When I write, I use a pen.
We call a person who teaches -- a teacher.
It's wrong to say that London's the capital of France.

It will generally be found that the short answer is the one to be recommended. The Laconic form is useful for beginners and may be considered as the first step from silent to non-silent work. The Echo-like answer is useful for inculcating habits of oral imitation or fluency.67

This extended passage has been quoted from Palmer partly because

Conversational question-and-answer work is the most effective of all the language learning exercises ever devised.68

The conversational question-answer method remains probably the most simple and direct method of teaching conversation in a foreign language. ... The well-known Berlitz system relies almost exclusively upon a question-answer procedure to teach all foreign languages. 69

67. Ibid., pp. 65-68.
68. Palmer and Redman, This Language Learning Business, p. 179.
69. Dixson, op. cit., p. 47.
and partly because it is desirable to encourage Korean teachers in English to improve their own knowledge of conversational English by faithfully following Palmer's methods, for, in Korea,

... of course, teachers do not know enough English to follow any oral method closely. They themselves do not have any fluency in English, and thus hesitate to do much talking in English in class. They fall back, instead, upon more traditional methods, using translation as the principal teaching technique and the mother tongue as the principal means of communication. ... 70

Grammar

There used to be specific separate textbooks of English grammar or composition for the middle school use. However, the teaching of English in the Korean middle school is now centered upon "readers" or textbooks. English grammar and composition as well as listening, speaking, and reading are taught in connection with the readers. Most of the current English readers (textbooks) usually present, before each lesson or unit, important grammatical matters, and, after each lesson or unit, exercises in either translating the native tongue into English or writing answers in English to questions in English, or both, concerning the lessons. For example:

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70. Ibid., p. 6.
LESSON 43

It started to rain during the ball game.
It started to rain while we were playing ball.

See that the windows are closed, before you go to bed. I’ll see that the boys don’t make such a noise again.

I helped my sister with her homework.
I helped my sister to do her homework.

Some Important Words

take care of: ... Mother takes care of the baby.
...

ALICE WILSON

One Saturday night Mrs. Wilson and her husband were going out to dinner. As usual she asked Alice to take care of the little children while she and Mr. Wilson were out. Alice helped her mother to cook dinner for the children. When everything was ready, Mrs. Wilson went upstairs to get dressed to go out. The children ate dinner without their father and mother at the table. When they finished, Alice carried the dishes to the kitchen, washed them and put them away. Then they went to the living room together to listen to the radio.

For Further Study

Review the following expressions (particularly the underlined parts) and say corresponding Korean expressions.

1. Mother worries when I am late from school.
2. Mother, I’m home.
3. Mary isn’t home. She’s in school.
4. Mr. and Mrs. Wilson are out.
5. Is Bob here this morning?
6. I’ll be back in a few minutes.
7. Be good, children. 71
...

Looking into teaching materials for grammar, we should keep in mind that the grammatical facts found in English readers are one thing and that employing them as teaching materials is quite another: finding a phrase, say, "something nice to eat" in a textbook is one thing, and it is quite another to elaborate the grammatical facts, noting that "to eat" is an infinitive in the adverbial use modifying the adjective "nice," and that "nice" modifies "something." Among sentences in a textbook there are many that do not require grammatical explanations for their meanings to be understood. In learning a foreign language it is customary to advance from the easy to the difficult, and sentence structure and grammar should be strictly graded according to the corresponding grade level. For example, in the first grade the following sentence patterns require thorough practice and drill on the part of pupils:

\[
\begin{align*}
S/V & \quad \text{Birds sing.} \\
S/V/C & \quad \text{I am a boy.} \\
S/V/C & \quad \text{She is pretty.} \\
S/V/C & \quad \text{I like an apple.}
\end{align*}
\]

Simple sentences

In the second grade:

\[
\begin{align*}
S/V/O & \quad \text{My father gave me a fountain-pen.} \\
S/V/O/C & \quad \text{This makes our school life very pleasant.}
\end{align*}
\]
Compound and complex sentences

Then, how about grammar? In the first grade, the teacher will deal chiefly with:

a) articles, b) singular and plural numbers, c) inflection of pronouns, d) verbs in the present tense (including the third person singular present s),
e) present progressive tense, etc.

In the second grade:

a) past tense, b) future tense, c) helping verbs (will, shall, can, may, must, etc.), d) passive voice,
e) perfect tense, f) special uses of "it," g) relatives (pronoun and adverb)

In the third grade:

a) more advanced details in the materials which were dealt with in the previous years, b) pluperfect,
c) subjunctive mood, d) participial structure,
f) direct and indirect narrations.

The above are the grammatical facts in common found in current English textbooks for the Korean middle school. However, it is quite another question to explain in detail these grammatical items or to teach grammatical terms in either English or Korean. Although it may sound extreme, a middle school teacher need not teach grammar in order for the pupils to be competent in the four basic skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing, grammar being a means to get accustomed to right usage and to reach right
understanding. It will be, however, of a great convenience and help in English study for pupils to know some grammatical terms. From this point of view, let us indicate the minimum and the most important terms of English grammar for Korean middle school pupils.

The first grade:

sentence, subject, predicate verb, eight parts of speech (Pupils should easily read and write these in English when they are in the third grade.)

article, singular, plural, proper noun, third person singular present, present progressive form, accent, imperative sentence, interrogative sentence, exclamatory sentence

The second grade:

present, past, future, present perfect, passive voice, past participle, helping verb, relative pronoun, object, complement, transitive verb, intransitive verb

The third grade:

infinitive, verb, participle, phrase, clause, relative adverb, subjunctive mood, participial construction

If average Korean teachers are able to use any oral method, the following suggestions of Palmer will be found ideal in teaching grammar orally:
To teach the difference between I took and I have taken, etc. (The Teacher takes a book.)

What have I (just) done? You've taken a book.
What did I do a few moments ago? You took a book.

(The Teacher puts the book down.)
Did I take a book? Yes, you did.
Have I taken a book? No, you haven't.

(The Teacher opens the door.)
What have I done? You've opened the door.
What did I do a moment ago? You opened the door.
Did I open the door? Yes, you did.
Have I opened the door? Yes, you have.

(The Teacher drops his pencil and then picks it up.)
Did I drop my pencil? Yes, you did.
Have I dropped my pencil? No, you haven't.
Have I picked it up? Yes, you have.

(The Teacher writes something on the blackboard and then rubs it out.)
Have I written something on the blackboard? No, you haven't.
Did I write something on the blackboard? Yes, you did.
What did I write on the blackboard? You wrote ......
What have I written? etc. You haven't written anything.

To teach the meaning of the Present Perfect Progressive, and when to use "since."

"You came here at ten o'clock, didn't you? And it's now half-past ten."

When did you come? I came at ten o'clock.
How long have you been here? I've been here for half-an-hour.
Since when have you been here? I've been here since ten o'clock.
Have you been here since ten? Yes, I have.
Have you been here (for) half-an-hour? Yes, I have.
Have you been here (for) an hour? No, I haven't.
How long have you been sitting there? I've been sitting here for half-an-hour.
Since ten?
Since nine?
Yes, since ten.
No, not since nine, since ten.
How long have you been listening to me?
How long have you been taking lessons from me?
I've been listening to you (for) half-an-hour.
I've been taking lessons from you for three months.
Have you been taking lessons from me since December?
No, not since December.
Since when?
How long have you been learning English?
Since March.
How long have you been living in this town?
I've been learning English (for) two years.
How long have I been giving you lessons?
Since 19__.
How long have you been living at your present address?
I've been living in this town for a year.
Are you French?
You have been giving me lessons for two months.
I've always been French.
How long have you been French?
I've been living there for a year.
Since when?
Stand up, please. How long have you been standing up?
Since I was born.
Since when have you been standing up? etc., etc.
I've been standing up for about ten seconds.
Composition

There are many Korean teachers in English who think that English composition means only translating given Korean expressions into English. However, this is only a part of it. There are various kinds of English composition for Korean pupils.

The following activities may be regarded as "Composition" in English curriculum in the middle and high schools in Korea:

1. Completing sentences where a choice of words is given.
2. Filling in blanks with the subject word, verb, complement, adverb, or other.
3. Rewriting sentences and placing them in correct order.
4. Choosing the unrelated word from a group of four words.
5. Completing phrases from one column with related phrases from another column.
6. Engaging in exercises such as changing declaratives to interrogatives, direct narrations to indirect narrations, etc.
7. Answering in written English to questions based on reading or other experiences.
8. Writing simple dialogues.
9. Writing simple original compositions.
10. Writing letters and a diary.
11. Engaging in an aural comprehension exercise.
12. Taking dictation. 73

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In current English readers, there are plenty of exercises of composition. One suspects that few English teachers in Korea take pains to use the best of these exercises, in most cases, immediately following the lesson, in their English readers (textbooks). For example, teachers have no difficulty in finding abundant materials ready to use for English composition in textbooks, such as:

**Exercises**

(A) Write sentences using the following:
1. as big as
2. as young as
3. as nice as
4. as beautiful as
5. as quick as

(B) Answer the following questions:
1. Whose birthday was it?
2. What did Mother make for Peter?
3. How many candles did the cake have on it?
4. Why were there seven candles on the cake?
5. What wish did Peter make?
6. Who blew out the candles?
7. Who cut the cake?
8. To whom did Peter give the first piece of cake?
9. To whom did he give the third piece?
10. What was under the cake?
11. What is Appleton?
12. What will grandmother give to Peter?
13. Do you think this lesson is as interesting as the last one?
14. Which lesson do you think more interesting, this lesson or the last one? 74

The author's intention in the above quotation (B) will be to provide oral question-answer activity concerning the contents of the lesson rather than extended composition. However, as mentioned early in this chapter, in the present

situation in Korea it is almost impossible to expect such activities for the teacher and pupils to be engaged in, partly because of the teacher's lack of skill in conversational English and partly because of the lack of pupils' oral practice, apart from other factors involved.
CHAPTER III

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Four thousand years of the history and culture of the Korean people as a single ethnic group are relatively little known to the rest of the world; few realize that it was through the Korean peninsula that successive waves of cultural advancement ebbed and flowed from Asia to Japan and Melanesia — each marked and notably influenced by characteristic Korean contributions — or that old Korea enjoyed the highest civilization, with the exception of old China, in Asia.

Among Korea's ancient achievements which survive today are magnificent temples and beautifully modeled Buddhist sculptures of Silla (one of the three kingdoms, 57 BC - 935); the oldest astronomical observatory, built of stone in the seventh century, in the Far East; the world-famous Koryo (918 - 1392) porcelain; the invention of the first movable metal type about half a century before Gutenberg; the publishing of a comprehensive medical encyclopedia consisting of 365 volumes in 1445; the inauguration of a purely phonetic alphabet system of the Korean language in 1446, the most recent and the most complete of the world's alphabets; collecting, engraving, and publishing of
320,000-page Tripitaka, the most accurate and complete sutra of Mahayana Buddhism in the thirteenth century.

In 372, Buddhism was introduced into the Kingdom of Konguryo from northern China, followed shortly thereafter by Confucianism. Buddhism gave the old Koreans added resources in religion, philosophy, and the fine arts. From the era of the Three Kingdoms (57 BC - 935) through the end of the Koryo dynasty (918 - 1392), Buddhism remained a dominant power in Korean society, while beginning with the Yi dynasty (1392 - 1910), the last dynasty of Korean history, Confucianism became the highest code of national morality, which was the rule of life and standard of conduct in the government and in education during the Yi dynasty. Cultural development during the same period was naturally due to the riches of Confucian philosophy and learning. Philosophers, writers, and poets flourished, leaving treasures of wisdom and beauty.

It is well to cite the name of King Se-Jong, the fourth monarch of the Yi dynasty, who more than any other monarch contributed to the cultural development of Korea in various fields, and who stands out in Korea's long history as the greatest giver of enduring cultural blessings.

Through the eras of Silla, Koryo, and Yi, the Korean people matured remarkably. The development of their political and social systems, culture, and wealth was outstanding among Asian nations.
Korea has never launched any kind of aggression against its neighbors and even when attacked its military action was always limited to defense. At each foreign attack the entire people united in defense of the country, whether they had adequate weapons or not. The simple, loyal, and fiercely patriotic common men of Korea were always masters of the nation's destiny. Their power was a great factor in bringing improvements in the social system. Whenever the ruling regime deteriorated they supported a new force to overthrow and replace the dying one.

Modern Korea began with the introduction of Western civilization into the country. From the beginning of this era Korea was unwillingly involved in a series of international entanglements, and the subsequent occupation by Japan for thirty-five years (1910 - 1945) deprived the Koreans of freedom not merely in the political field but in every aspect of Korean life. During this so-called "Dark Age of Korea," the Koreans struggled for sheer survival under the heels of Japanese imperialism; meanwhile anti-Japanese resistance never ceased at home and abroad.

Korea was liberated on August 15, 1945, when Japan surrendered to the Allied Powers; this event, however, did not leave the Korean people a single, united nation.

The division of Korea into two separate zones, with northern Korea occupied by Russian troops and
southern Korea by U. S. troops, bisected the country, and the demarcation became perpetuated.

According to the resolution adopted by UN General Assembly, a free election was held, under the observation of the UN Commission, in South Korea, the only part of Korea the Commission was accessible to. Three months later, on August 15, 1948, the Korean Government officially came into being.

On June 25, 1950, the Soviet-trained north Korean Red Army attacked the Republic of Korea. The UN order of immediate cessation of hostilities and withdrawal of the army being refused by the Red forces, the UN recommended that its members furnish assistance to repel the attack and to restore peace and security. The Chinese Communists also participated in the war at the time when the North Korean Communists were almost completely crushed near the border line.

At last the armistice was signed on July 27, 1953. The War, however, had brought death to many people, both Korean and U.N. member nations, and still the task of unifying the country was not accomplished.

The fundamental objectives of education in Korea are based upon the concept of the Hongik Ingan (serving the general good of all men) which developed and was established as the guiding philosophy of the state through many centuries of the nation's history. This national
idea is found in the basic objectives formulated by the Ministry of Education:

1. to realize the ideal of the Hangeik Injan
2. to perfect the personality
3. to cultivate the ability to manage an independent life and develop the essential qualities of a good citizen
4. to contribute to the growth of democracy in the nation
5. to work for the prosperity of all mankind

The most significant development in the field of education since the end of the World War II was the enforcement of the compulsory six-year elementary education based on the principle of equal opportunity.

The current school system in Korea is a pattern of six years (elementary school), three years (middle school), another three years (high school), and four years (college).

Substantial progress has been made in developing six-year compulsory education but there are a number of important improvements yet to be made before a reasonable standard of education is attained.

The demand for secondary education, which consists of three-year middle schools followed by three-year high schools, has been so great that providing sufficient facilities and maintaining a reasonable high standard
in the rapidly expanding field have been a constant challenge and a major problem. Today these problems still remain, to a large extent.

Despite continued efforts, improving general scholastic standards of colleges and closing the gap between the better colleges and inferior ones remain as major problems to be solved.

Korean pupils begin to learn English from the first grade in middle school, which is comparable to the American junior high school, at the age of eleven or twelve, after finishing compulsory six-year elementary school.

English is one of the most important required subjects in secondary education (three-year middle school plus three-year high school); it is taught four to six hours a week for the six years throughout secondary education, and college students, regardless of their major field of study, are required to take four to eight hours of credit in English.

In spite of the time and energy devoted to the study of English, students' knowledge of English is not sufficient to enable them to communicate orally with native English speakers. This deficiency is partly due to the methods of teaching English employed by teachers.

In Korea the teaching of English from the very beginning is largely based upon the grammar-translation method. It lays main stress upon providing students with the
ability to translate sentences in accordance with grammatical rules either from the foreign language into the mother tongue or from the mother tongue into the foreign language; all explanations are made in the mother tongue and no, or very little attempt is made to have students develop a speaking knowledge of the foreign language. Traditionally, in Korea, foreign languages were considered as subjects for extended study rather than as materials for practice or use. However, today, the most noted linguists are almost unanimous in their agreement concerning the value of oral teaching. The following general principles subscribed to at a recent International Seminar organized by UNESCO may serve as a summary of the works of the leading authorities on language teaching:

1. The approach — to the teaching of all foreign languages — should be primarily oral.
2. Active methods of teaching should be used as far as possible.
3. The greatest possible use of the foreign tongue should be made in the classroom.
4. The difficulties of the foreign tongue in the matter of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar should be carefully graded for presentation.
5. The teaching of a language should be considered more as the imparting of a skill than as the provision of information about the forms of the language.75

75 UNESCO, op. cit., p. 50.
The seminar further agreed that "the four fundamental skills to be taught are: understanding, speaking, reading and writing in the order named."76

A general change in world conditions and a closer relationship between Korea and the free nations, especially the United States, make it desirable to study English so that it may be used in daily life. Koreans should learn to speak by speaking, not by the study of abstract grammar forms, the reading of the classics, or extensive translation; this is especially true for the earliest stages of English learning in the middle school.

There are many important improvements to be made before these aims can be attained; the size of the average class should be reduced to permit pupils to have oral practice; stereotyped entrance examinations for high school and college, laying major stress on translation and formal grammar, should be changed; conservative administration officials in many public school systems should be awakened to the present-day tendency in favor of using oral approaches in the study of modern foreign languages; above all, teachers in general, who themselves do not know enough conversational English to follow any oral method closely, should be encouraged and re-educated to improve their knowledge of English.

76. Ibid.
Moreover, it should be noted that, in Korea, the way of life, the customs, the culture, and the language concepts are so greatly different from those of Western civilization that the whole approach to English should be greatly modified.

In the Korean middle school and high school, the teacher usually selects from among a dozen one specific textbook approved by the Ministry of Education to use for a specific grade for an entire academic year. However, various their contents and lessons may be, all the textbooks must employ careful grading of vocabulary, sentence patterns, and grammar to secure Ministry approval. However, it is regrettable to find some Ministry-approved textbooks neglecting the matter of careful grading in the presentation of lessons. The Ministry of Education also set a definite number of new words to be used in textbooks for the various grade levels. The words must be of proven and practical value. It is not easy to decide which words are the most useful and the most practical for Korean pupils. In this respect, a number of word-frequency lists now in use are not entirely suitable for application to the Korean situation.

The vocabulary studied should be limited in range so that students can learn to use it with facility. Most of the Korean pupils in the middle school level learn pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm of the English
language mainly by listening to and imitating their teacher. Hence, the importance of the teacher's correct producing of these elements in the classroom cannot be overemphasized. Teachers whose pronunciation is inadequate and faulty must be encouraged to improve every aspect of their pronunciation by means of good records or tape recordings by professional native English speakers.

Korean middle school pupils in their earliest stages of English learning should develop a thorough command of basic English sentence patterns during the three-year English course. The sentence patterns should be of the greatest immediate and practical utility for them. The writer has presented fifty basic sentence patterns in relatively common use in over a dozen current textbooks.

Instruction should promote the attainment of habitual, unconscious control of basic patterns of language so that the student can give his full attention to the idea and meaning he is trying to convey. Specific steps in the presentation of vocabulary and sentence patterns have been given in this study in some detail.

The interrelationships of vocabulary, pronunciation, and sentence structure cannot be overemphasized. Concomitant growth in these three aspects of language must be carefully planned and guided so that pupils will achieve effective communication.
There are two main goals in learning a foreign language; the practical value and the cultural value. Traditionally the teaching of English in Korea has put main stress upon the latter, neglecting entirely the former. The primary emphasis has now been shifted to the former; however, this does not, and should not, mean that we may ignore the aspects of the cultural value in foreign language study. Students should know the cultural context of language in the English-speaking country. Understanding native English speakers and getting meaning from reading in English will depend to a great extent upon the students' familiarity with the vocabulary and structural patterns of the language as well as with the socio-cultural concepts of the English-speaking country.

Here arises the importance of the content of reading materials. Taking Korea's specific situations and demands into consideration, the writer has suggested reading materials for use in the English program in the middle school. Obviously, these materials must be in accord with the vocabulary specifications for particular grades. It is also needless to insist that these materials are to afford practice in basic sentence patterns; such practice cannot be overemphasized.

It used to be a matter of tradition to present in textbooks a number of poems (including songs and nursery rhymes), and there used to be many favorite poems for
Oriental pupils, or at least for Korean and Japanese pupils. It was rather difficult to pin down the definite grade level of a poem since verse differs from prose, whose grade level may be readily decided by the sentence structure. However, in order to teach a poem most effectively careful grading is a matter of great importance. It is a pity that there are some middle school textbooks in current use where no poem at all is found. Because of this situation, many teachers may ignore poetry completely in the English program throughout the middle school course. The writer has suggested twenty-two poems, including a number of traditional favorites of various grade levels. On account of the limits of time, all these poems may not be dealt with in the classroom. Some poems may be assigned for pupils to read outside the classroom. In studying poetry it is essential for pupils to understand and appreciate the beauty of rhythm and rhyme; the teacher's model reading must be as perfect, or nearly perfect as possible; he is advised to use records and tape recordings of professional native English speakers or poets themselves so that he may achieve this aim. Pupils should be encouraged to memorize at least a few poems which they like best.

The practical value of learning of English is found in "conversation." Since the primary emphasis is placed upon skill in listening and speaking more than in reading and writing in the middle school English program, the
teacher should make use of the best of the abundant conversational materials in his textbook in cultivating the student's ability to understand and speak English.

In teaching conversation, the instructor should provide for practice and drill in complete sentences containing subjects and predicates even though these may be, in some instances, different from the elliptical sentences of actual conversation. Classroom activities in conversation should be centered upon developing basic aural-oral abilities, especially control of the sentence form.

The writer has described detail the conversational question-and-answer methods which are held to be the most effective of all the language learning exercises. It is desirable that the teacher who himself does not know enough English to employ the oral method effectively should improve his own knowledge of conversational English by faithfully following these methods.

If the teacher should teach grammar, it should be functional grammar or grammar as language, which, laying stress on the elementary structures of the language, is essential. Formal grammar has little utility for the Korean pupils, especially in the middle school. It will be of a great convenience and help in English study for pupils to know some grammatical terms, and the minimum and the most important terms of English grammar have been
indicated together with the corresponding grade level. The oral method of teaching grammar has also been proposed although it is impossible to require all teachers to employ the method, at least in the present situation in Korea.

Many teachers are apt to think that English composition means only translating given Korean expressions into the English language; however, there are many kinds of activities in English composition for Korean pupils, as indicated in this study. The teacher is advised to spare no pains to use these activities, ordinarily immediately following the lesson in his textbook.

There are numerous language learning activities which will contribute to the growth of the four basic communication skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Some of these activities give needed practice in blending sounds into meaningful wholes, in making language arrangements automatic, and in increasing the breadths of vocabulary.

Dictation, aural comprehension exercises, well-chosen memory selections, and translation will be found useful in developing all of the communication skills.
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