Education for Korean students with emphasis on the interrelationship of reading and speaking

Kim, Sun Jai
Boston University

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Thesis

EDUCATION FOR KOREAN STUDENTS WITH EMPHASIS ON
THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF READING
AND SPEAKING

Submitted by

Sun Jai Kim

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Approved by

First Reader:  Dr. Helen Blair Sullivan,
Professor of Education

Second Reader:  Dr. Mary Agnella Gumm,
Associate Professor of Education
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I. SURVEY OF AMERICAN-KOREAN RELATIONS

It will be much easier for the readers to understand Korea if the author gives a brief summary of American-Korean relations throughout the ages. An article issued by the United States Army described Korea as "that peninsula jutting southward from the continent of Asia -- that country which occupies a most unique position in the highly complex political problem of the Far East -- "The Land of the Morning Calm." The close friendship between the two nations goes back more than a half century. Grajdanzev stated:

Fifty years ago the people and rulers of Korea looked upon the United States as a friend in need. American missionaries, businessmen and advisers were active in the country. Article I of the Treaty of Amity and Commerce between the Kingdom of Korea and the United States, concluded on May 22, 1882, proclaimed:

There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between the President of the United States and the King of Korea and the citizens and subjects of their respective governments. If other Powers deal unjustly or oppressively with either government, the other will exert its good offices, on being informed of the case, to bring about an amicable arrangement, thus showing their friendly feelings.²

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1 Welcome To Korea, Troop I. & E., XXIV Corps (of the United States Army), Seoul, Korea, (1948), p. 3.

2 Andrew J. Grajdanzev, Korea Looks Ahead, American Council of Pacific Relations pamphlet, No. 15, 1944, p. 1.
Though much change has been brought about in shifting ages from the nineteenth to the twentieth century, the supreme ideal of brotherhood has never forgotten by the peace-loving people. Hulbert explained how it lasted:

The long-wished-for day has come at last, and Korea is about to be delivered out of the hands of the Japanese. It would be impossible to find words to match the exultation which thrills the hearts not only of the Korean people but of their friends as well. From the historical standpoint, it is most appropriate that the United States government should have played a leading part in this great achievement. For it is the American people who have done by far the greater part of the pioneer work of bringing Korea into the light of modern civilization. The growing friendship has been subjected to the severest tests to which friendship could be put; but from every crisis it has emerged intact. As we look back, it seems as if friendship could hardly have survived the ordeal; but it did.¹

According to Grajdanzev, "Korea is roughly the size of Minnesota or Great Britain, with a population of about 30,000,000. In population she ranks twelfth or thirteenth among the countries of the world."² He also mentioned in a brief history, "Her historical records go back at least five thousand years. She was a civilized country in the days of Imperial Rome. Japan received Buddhism and much of her civilization from China by way

² Grajdanzev, op. cit., p. 1.
of Korea. Hulbert added some more description:

Lying temperamentally between Japan and China, Korea is rationally emotional. These words are equally applicable to the Anglo-Saxon temperament. That may be the reason why Americans get nearer to Koreans than to any other Orientals. It helps also to explain the remarkable success of Christianity in the peninsula. The preservation of Korean autonomy may mean more to the Far East than appears on the surface. Now that the long night of her Egyptian bondage is over, Korea promises to become the radiating center of Christian civilization throughout the Far East.

"In Korea there are now 5,000,000 Christians in spite of former persecution... Christian influence in the country is strong" said Grajdanzev.

II. ENGLISH TEACHING IN KOREA

According to Faucett, "In the Far East, Christian missionaries have played a leading part in introducing the English language... Schools founded by missionary societies have trained many who are now teachers of English in the government schools." It has been very important for Korean students to study courses in English since 1884 -- the first year some Protestant missionaries arrived in Korea. The next year the first high school of Western

1 Ibid., p. 1.
2 Hulbert, op. cit., p. 3.
3 Grajdanzev, op. cit., p. 1.
style, called Fai Chai Middle School, was established. The writer
had the honor of being associated with the school before he came
to this country. Almost every course was taught in English by
missionaries who used text-books from the United States of America.

Often it was mentioned by the earlier students that learning English
was the only way to learn Western civilization and to acquire abundant
knowledge. According to Faucett, the government supported the
program of English teaching in Korea:

The twentieth century has been the period of an even more
interesting development in ancient Asia... Oriental statesmen
have given their support to the establishment of English as
the second language in their public school system, a more
interesting development because it has been voluntary.¹

He also stated several reasons for the preference for English:

"Recognizing that English has so developed that it has rightful
claim to be introduced as an international medium, Japan and
China have given great impetus to the movement by making English
their favored foreign language."² Some further reasons why
Oriental students study English are given by Palmer:

A way to wealth and power: for whether one takes up
teaching, business, government service, or some scientific
pursuit, a knowledge of English is a great asset. It has
wide cultural values, for practically all the greatest

¹ Faucett, op. cit., p. 1.
² Ibid., p. 3.
literature of the world is available to one who has a command of English. Again, it is a way to national salvation, for whether it be in political democracy, business, invention, education, or religion, nowhere else do we find a fund of liberating ideals comparable to those given to the world by the English-speaking peoples. Still more important, it is a way to world-brotherhood, for through understanding the language of one another, people are able to become better friends..."

Faucett also said, "Inasmuch as English to them is a vehicle of the knowledge of the West, they do not wish their fostering of it to be misinterpreted as indicating political leanings or as an admission of Oriental inferiority. It is rather an example of Oriental broadmindedness." ²

Dr. Fisher who has been one of the most inspiring American professors in Korea wrote of the situation of English teaching since the War.

"English is an important course in the middle school."³ As English was greatly neglected in the middle schools during the war... there is a great shortage of well prepared English teachers. However, teachers are working hard to prepare themselves and keep ahead of their classes. Some of the middle schools have secured the services of American officers or soldiers to teach courses in English conversation."⁴

The English classes, especially in high schools and colleges,


[^3]: Middle school in Korea is equivalent to high school -- six year course beyond six years of elementary education.

are very crowded. Dr. Fisher wrote, "During the war young men and women were forced into the army or war work, and many who would have gone to college in normal times were not permitted to do so... One college, which formerly had an enrolment of 500 students, is now struggling with 900, selected from the more than 2000 who applied for admission." ¹

¹ Ibid., p. 270.
CHAPTER II

EDUCATION IN KOREA

I. THE PROBLEM AND JUSTIFICATION

Statement of Problem.

The author of this paper came to the United States of America for the purpose of establishing a better method of English teaching for Korean students. "The learning and teaching of foreign languages has been talked about for at least two thousand years, and the actual activity has probably been carried on for many millions more."¹ In Korea, a good many methods of teaching English have been applied during the last sixty years in order to attain favorable promotions. Still the objectives of English learning and teaching extend far beyond the present level. One of the reasons is the difference between a reading knowledge of a foreign language and a speaking knowledge of that language. According to Huse, "Considered as a school discipline, that is an educative influence, reading knowledge, in contrast to speaking knowledge, requires a more exclusive exercise of the intellectual faculties."²


Justification. Probably language teachers have not been aware that the student, in order to read, must be able to make some set of sounds to represent the words he sees. The sounds are primarily used as a medium of communication in oral reading. Pei said,

This spoken-language machinery, developed and improved over countless centuries, consists of sounds, produced by human vocal organs and received by the human auditory organs. In the case of the written counterpart of speech, the sounds are replaced by written symbols, which represent either the sounds themselves or the ideas that the sounds are intended to convey and which are perceived by the visual organ.

In silent reading the words directly convey the meaning they stand for.

English teaching for Koreans has often been hindered by skipping the necessary steps of the procedure in order to save time and the immediate result was not good. Consequently, English learning has not reached its full development owing to a paralization in the function of reading. According to the authorities, certain assumptions underlie the learning of English: there should be an oral-aural base for reading, and it is important to know how extensively this base can and should be used. 

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3 Agard and Dunkel, *op. cit.*, p. 25.
aural competence automatically creates reading ability\(^1\) and also they added, "with few exceptions language students claim to be more highly motivated by oral-aural than by grammar and reading goals."\(^2\)

Pei made this suggestion:

Let us for the moment fasten our attention upon the aspects of "language" which the name itself implies (tongue, speech). It is the spoken medium, with its written auxiliary, that serves to an overwhelming degree the communication needs of the human race.\(^3\)

II. KOREAN EDUCATION

A. KOREAN EDUCATION UP TO NINETEENTH CENTURY

Traditional system in education.

"Up to the time of the opening of Korea" said Hu, "education was carried on in local day schools in every prefecture and in every considerable town, where boys were taught exclusively the Chinese ideograms."\(^4\) The privilege of schooling was afforded only to the upper class, as in Greece in order that the children of the ruling class might perpetuate the rule of that class.\(^5\) Often

\(^1\) Ibid., p. 292.

\(^2\) Loc. cit.

\(^3\) Pei, op. cit., p. 96.


classes met privately in their own mansions, and the instructor, as a rule, stayed with the family whose children he taught.

"The curriculum of such a school did not include useful subjects like arithmetic, geography or the sciences." The only subject was the Chinese classics which included history, poetry, prose, Oriental philosophy and religion and sometimes fine arts. Teachers who had studied such subjects for over twenty years usually conducted the classes. The classes were mostly based on recitation by the students who were assigned lessons.

The conception of education East and West.

The Eastern conception of education in those days was quite different from that of the Western world. The Chinese character which means "to educate" was considered the original base of education. It employs two symbols and two regular letter characters are used. The character 父 means 'father'; another character 子 means 'son'; 子 may be interpreted as a 'rod'; and X may be represented as 'whipping.' Written together, they mean "The father whips his son with his rod." This idea was similar to that of Roman education in its earlier stages. Such a conception was handed down throughout the ages until a new conception of education came from the West. The origin of 'education' goes back to the Latin

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1 Hu, op. cit., p. 467.
2 Cubberley, op. cit., p. 66.
'educo' which means 'to draw out' or 'to draw the talents out.'

It may be interpreted as "a process to draw the talents out of a child" which contrasts with the Chinese concept of pouring the talents into a child by using a rod. Teachers in the Orient have been considered as a father because they were given almost every privilege that was given the father of the pupils. One of the objectives for the children was the virtue of obeying and respecting their teachers as well as their parents. Presumably, the people in Western countries still subconsciously remembered the school system in the Roman Empire. "Many slaves were engaged in this type of instruction, bringing in fees for their owners. It was not regarded as of importance that the teachers of these schools be of high grade."  

New type of education.

Hu presented very precisely the situation of education since missionaries started schools of the Western style:

The first impulsive toward genuine education was afforded by the missionaries. The general public took it up avidly and men of wealth gave generously for the establishment of


2 Cubberley, op. cit., p. 65.
higher schools of learning... Hundreds of primary and intermediate schools were established by the Christian following and several universities of the first order... School textbooks were published in great numbers and, through the use of the excellent Korean alphabet, it seemed as if the rapid advance in learning would speedily make Korea a highly literate people.

It was a period of Renaissance in Korea after the long night of a hermit. The Suh-dang, place for writing, which means traditional schools, have gradually closed as the new type of schools have replaced the old. The following table indicates the decreasing number of schools of the old type.

TABLE I

REDUCTION OF THE TRADITIONAL SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>6,209</td>
<td>6,766</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>4,105</td>
<td>4,599</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>2,679</td>
<td>3,256</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Ku, op. cit., pp. 467-468.

B. KOREAN EDUCATION UNDER THE JAPANESE SYSTEM
(1909 - 1945)

Education under the Japanese.

One of the shameful pages of Korean history is the annexation of Korea to Japan during the period of 1909 to 1945. Grajdanzev stated that

Japan set up a modern school system which was founded on the principles of uniformity and control. All schools, whether public or private, must correspond to certain standards established by the Japanese government...

What have been the aims of Japan's educational policy in Korea? "Hitherto" Governor General Terauchi announced in 1910 "many young men of this country have been led by the erroneous method pursued, to dislike work and indulge in useless and empty talk. In the future, attention should be paid to the removal of this evil as well as to instilling in the minds of the young men detestation of idleness, and love of real work, thrift and diligence."

Students of every school and college were against the annexation and classes were not regular as before because their burning spirit of independence made them antagonistic toward the new comers. He wrote:

Later ordinance advised students not to indulge in "vain argument." They insisted also that "the fostering of loyalty and filial piety shall be made the basic principle of education... It is only what may be expected of a loyal and dutiful man, who knows what is demanded of a subject and a son that he should be faithful to his

---

1 Grajdanzev, op. cit., pp. 15-16.
duties." Thus the picture is clear: the Japanese government wanted the Koreans to become diligent workers, loyal to their new masters, faithful to their duties and not inclined to "empty" talk and to "vain" arguments.

He further stated that

As soon as the people of Korea came under the Japanese control immediate plans were made to take the important matter of education out of Western hands. All the schools of lower grade were closed on the pretext that the teachers were not, pedagogical experts! After an interval during which common school education was almost wholly in abeyance the Japanese started schools in which the Japanese language and history were most important. Korean history was ignored and the undisguised purpose was to Japanize the Korean people. All the Korean geographical names were changed to Japanese. Textbooks and publications of all kind were issued in the Japanese... The official language in all courts of law was that of Japan. 2

The population of Korea between the period from 1910 to 1945 is as follows:

1 Loc. cit.

TABLE II

POPULATION OF KOREA (1910 - 1943)\(^1\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Households</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>2,804,103</td>
<td>7,057,458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>4,142,976</td>
<td>11,116,144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>4,409,950</td>
<td>11,975,828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>4,878,901</td>
<td>13,323,703</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences in population between Koreans and Japanese in Korea were as follows:

\(1\) The Statistical Almanac of Korea, op. cit., p. 16.
### TABLE III

NUMBER OF KOREANS AND JAPANESE IN KOREA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Households</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>2,749,956</td>
<td>6,953,468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>3,984,772</td>
<td>10,769,916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>4,231,617</td>
<td>11,572,035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>4,679,399</td>
<td>12,889,988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>50,992</td>
<td>92,751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>144,815</td>
<td>299,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>165,900</td>
<td>356,226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>183,029</td>
<td>382,536</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Loc. cit.
Elementary schools.

Elementary schools were divided into two groups: one for Korean children and the other for Japanese. The latter type was better equipped than the former. Every Japanese child had the privilege of attending school, and practically all the Japanese children were enrolled in school. On the other hand Korean children found it very hard to enter school.

**TABLE IV**

**NUMBER OF CHILDREN ATTENDING NEW TYPE OF SCHOOLS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>No. of Children</th>
<th>% of Children per teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>3,964,772</td>
<td>2,291</td>
<td>10,258</td>
<td>10,258</td>
<td>610,259</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>4,231,617</td>
<td>2,941</td>
<td>16,159</td>
<td>18,094</td>
<td>1,328,006</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>4,679,899</td>
<td>3,858</td>
<td>25,914</td>
<td>26,207</td>
<td>1,935,451</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Korean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>No. of Children</th>
<th>% of Children per teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>144,813</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>1,991</td>
<td>2,285</td>
<td>84,395</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>165,900</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>2,415</td>
<td>2,770</td>
<td>97,794</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>183,029</td>
<td>541</td>
<td>2,682</td>
<td>3,038</td>
<td>102,762</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Japanese

---

Middle schools.

The middle schools, secondary school, were also two groups and were too few in number for the needs. Details are shown in the following tables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>940</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Public school (boys)

Private schools (boys)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Private schools were mostly for Koreans and were established by missionary societies and Korean people.

---

1 Ibid., pp. 196-200.
**TABLE VI**

**NUMBER OF GIRLS ATTENDING MIDDLE SCHOOLS**

**BOTH PRIVATE AND PUBLIC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>479</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>844</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Public Schools (girls)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Private Schools (girls)**

---

1. Ibid., pp.198-201.
Vocational middle schools for both boys and girls are as follows:

**TABLE VII**

**NUMBER OF PUPILS ATTENDING VOCATIONAL MIDDLE SCHOOL BOTH PRIVATE AND PUBLIC (BOYS AND GIRLS)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Public schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Private schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Ibid., pp. 202-208.
Colleges and universities.

There were twenty colleges and only one university up to the time of liberation -- before V-J Day. The following table indicates higher institutions owned privately, publicly or by the government.

TABLE VIII

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ATTENDING COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (PRIVATE, PUBLIC AND GOVERNMENT; MEN AND WOMEN)\(^1\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Colleges</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Professors and Instructors</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>453</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Public colleges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Colleges</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Professors and Instructors</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Private colleges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Colleges</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Professors and Instructors</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Ibid., pp.208-211.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Graduates</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>Keijo</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imperial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td></td>
<td>129</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public Colleges</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td></td>
<td>197</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td></td>
<td>208</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>Private Colleges</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td></td>
<td>636</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td></td>
<td>946</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>1,206</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Loc. cit.
III. DEMOCRACY IN KOREAN SCHOOLS

AFTER LIBERATION (since August, 1945)

Now the gate of the new age for which they had longed is opened to the Korean people. They sincerely appreciate the kind efforts rendered by American friends to establish a democratic system on the campus. At first they did not quite understand what democracy is, and they found it difficult to give up the old system which was familiar to them. Liberation brought further confusion as they did not know what to do with it. Freedom which was given to them was often misinterpreted as a boundless licence to do what they pleased. When a bird is released from the cage he will frantically fly in the sky for a while until his temperature cools down. Finally, however, teachers went back to their schools, and the students came to realize that their job was studying.

Post V-J Day education.

The public schools were opened in October, 1945, with the Korean language as the official language. Since all the school work was in the Japanese language up until the surrender, the great problem has been to prepare books in Korean for all grades and in all subjects. The Korean Committee on Education was organized to meet these needs. The Summation stated as follows:

1 Fisher, op. cit., p. 269.
The Korean Committee on Education, organized in September 1945 to advise the Military Director of the Department of Education, has completed its work and has been dissolved.

The committee contributed experience and judgement regarding the reopening of schools, the dismissal of Japanese personnel and the appointment of Koreans to school and departmental posts. Korean education received valuable assistance from the committee whose members served without compensation. The Department of Education expressed itself as greatly indebted to the committee.

Temporary teacher training courses inaugurated in November 1945 helped to relieve the shortage of teachers created by the dismissal of 15,000 Japanese from the Korean school system.

Seven hundred middle school teachers and 2,530 elementary school teachers have received instruction. An additional 7,827 elementary school and 446 middle school teachers have attended re-education meetings in the provinces. One thousand fifty-six elementary and middle school teachers have attended the National Teachers' Institute in Seoul. A long range educational program in basic principles of democracy was instituted. Dissemination of this new idea was carried on through newspapers, pamphlets, radio and lectures. Traveling speakers delivered the program of education to rural populations.

Korean Language.

According to the Summation the history of the Korean language is

---

1 Summation of the United States Army Military Government Activities in Korea, General Headquarters, Commander-in-Chief Far East, No. 8, May, 1946, p. 85.

2 Loc. cit.
The casting of the Japanese from Korea permitted the first unrestricted practice of the Korean language in more than two generations. Prior to the date of liberation Japanese was the official language of Korea.

The 4,000-year-old Korean language was first systematized in 1446 by a committee of scholars appointed by the King of Korea. The many Chinese words in the Korean language were given Korean pronunciations derived from custom and usage while the basic meaning of the Chinese was retained.

The Korean language belongs to the Ural-Altai group, is polysyllabic, agglutinative and highly developed syntactically. The modern Korean alphabet of 10 vowels and 14 consonants forms a script known as _Sungmoon_ (now called Hangeul)¹ said to be one of the most perfect in the world.²

For example, ㄱ = k ㅏ = a ㄷ = d

가 = ka 다 = da 가 다 means 'to go'.

The relationship of the Korean language to the Chinese is analogous to the relationship of English to Latin, particularly in word derivatives which were fitted into their own grammatical structure. The sentence and grammatical construction of the Korean language is nearly identical with the Japanese to which it is most akin. The common origin of many words in Korean and Japanese probably accounts for the great facility the Koreans demonstrated in learning the Japanese language.

Written Korean is uniform throughout Korea, but the spoken language differs noticeably in various parts of the country, although Koreans have little difficulty in understanding any of the seven districts dialects.

---

¹ The author's explanation.
² Ibid., No. 11, August, 1947, pp. 82-83.
Text-books.

Teachers and scholars were busy preparing textbooks in all the school subjects in the Korean language. 9,129,922 volumes of textbooks were distributed between the period of September, 1945 to June, 1947. They are as follows:

TABLE X

TEXTBOOKS DISTRIBUTED
(1 September, 1945 - 30 June, 1947)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Texts</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>No. of Volumes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Korean Readers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book I</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>840,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book II</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>479,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book III</td>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>268,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>358,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>188,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>176,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>89,072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>39,940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Step in Korean</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,035,655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>240,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>107,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>223,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>98,950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>247,230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>255,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>254,050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>254,050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>226,075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>49,550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>185,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texts</td>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>No. of Volumes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics I</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>422,936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics II</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>414,597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics III</td>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>104,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics Middle School I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics Middle School II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean History (Middle School)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book I</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>276,691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book II</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>272,089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book III</td>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>301,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>83,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>97,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocations (Japanese tests)</td>
<td></td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses of Study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers' Guides</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td></td>
<td>9,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>9,129,922</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Monthly distribution during the period may give a clearer picture of the enthusiastic revival of interest in learning.

FIGURE 1

TEXTBOOKS DISTRIBUTED (MONTHLY)\(^1\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>200</th>
<th>400</th>
<th>600</th>
<th>800</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>XXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr.</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>XXXXXXXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Ibid., No. 21, June, 1947, p. 85.
Elementary schools.

TABLE XI

NUMBER OF CHILDREN ATTENDING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

| Year   | Schools       | No. of Teachers | No. of Children | Percent-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public Private Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of War 1945</td>
<td>3,092 58 3,150</td>
<td>22,432</td>
<td>1,600,270</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1945</td>
<td>2,870 67 2,937</td>
<td>23,474</td>
<td>1,637,723</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct., 1946</td>
<td>3,140 32 3,172</td>
<td>23,358</td>
<td>2,159,550</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1948</td>
<td>3,507 29 3,536</td>
<td>37,056</td>
<td>2,364,977</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total No. of Children (6-11 years of age)</th>
<th>(million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aug., 1945</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,9712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1945</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td></td>
<td>(1,600)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct., 1946</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td></td>
<td>(1,657)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April, 1947</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2,159)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1948</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2,185)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the Republic of Korea was inaugurated on August 14, 1948 sponsored by the United States of America, elementary education has been compulsory for every citizen. In the school year of 1948, 2,708,051 children attended out of a total of 2,971,712 children between the ages of six and eleven. Immense and rapid progress has been made in the number of children attending grade school. The shown percentage of nine out of ten children is not satisfactory to the administrators, however. A plan for additional classes in every school is as follows:

**TABLE XII**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Additional Classes</th>
<th>Additional Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1949</td>
<td>2,886</td>
<td>207,625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>1,085</td>
<td>127,802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>758</td>
<td>29,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>36,561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>-582</td>
<td>-5,151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>-2,562</td>
<td>-155,735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,437</td>
<td>247,134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

The number of children who were not able to get schooling owing to the shortage of classrooms -- 262,613 -- will be saved by the plan shown on Table XII. A further detail is added as follows: There are 263,681 children of above eleven years of age who have no chance to be educated. The total number of uneducated children -- 526,294 -- will be taken care of according to the plan.

If the plan is successful the number of children in a class -- seventy -- will be reduced to sixty as the following table indicates.

**TABLE XIII**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Children Expecting Education</th>
<th>Capacity</th>
<th>No. of Classrooms</th>
<th>No. of Children per Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1949</td>
<td>515,107</td>
<td>463,596</td>
<td>6,623</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>529,237</td>
<td>476,340</td>
<td>6,804</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>219,805</td>
<td>467,827</td>
<td>7,793</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>662,413</td>
<td>596,173</td>
<td>9,976</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>519,994</td>
<td>467,994</td>
<td>7,801</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>531,371</td>
<td>478,235</td>
<td>7,970</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,277,958</td>
<td>2,950,165</td>
<td>49,168</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 Loc. cit.
Middle school.

According to the report by the Department of Education, Korea, 64,707 pupils have the chance to get a secondary education out of a total of 193,657 graduates of elementary schools which is thirty-three per cent.¹

TABLE XIV
NUMBER OF PUPILS ATTENDING MIDDLE SCHOOL²

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>No. of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of Mar 1945</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1945</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct., 1946</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1948</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>459</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹Ibid., p. 47.

²Outline of Educational Administration, op. cit., p. 9.
TABLE XV
NUMBER OF PUPILS ATTENDING MIDDLE SCHOOLS
BY CLASSIFICATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Vocational</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>2,642</td>
<td>5,486</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal School</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>1,085</td>
<td>2,744</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>1,080</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>884</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other typed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>460</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,089</strong></td>
<td><strong>11,006</strong></td>
<td><strong>552</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Normal education.

There have been two types of teacher-training institutions. One of them was normal school (Grades 7-11) for teachers in elementary schools and the other was high normal school (Grades 12-15) which was for secondary teachers. Up to the War, the most brilliant children from every elementary school were sent to the normal schools to train for elementary school teaching. Their expenses were paid by the government and they were supposed to serve government schools as a regular agreement. It was a policy of the Japanese government to train the best teachers for its special purpose of Japanizing Korean children.

In Seoul National University there is a College of Education (or Normal College) which trains middle school teachers. Since the compulsory education is being put into operation teachers are needed, more than ever. Sixteen normal schools and a normal college are not enough to meet the inexhaustible demand for teachers. Under the new system which is to be effective beginning May, 1950, there will be more possibilities to train instructors. Normal schools then will offer a three-year course (Grades 10-12 which is connected with Normal college), a two-year course, and a four-year course for which a Bachelor's degree is given. There is a new junior normal college (Grades 11-14) where four-year middle school graduates can enter. Education in Korea is one of the important objectives of the governmental program. Koreans of the future,
therefore, may assume that they will have a chance to apply Western ideas to their civilization, and once more produce an harmonious culture of their own just as they did centuries ago under Chinese influence.

High school.

High school will be a new name for senior middle school as it will be conducted under the new system effective May, 1950. The junior middle school which had a three-year course now will change its name to middle school and will offer a three-year course and a four-year course. The four-year course of middle school will be connected with junior normal college, also having a four-year course.

The objective of the high school is not merely preparation for college but a completion of higher secondary education and also specific training for some vocation.¹ Seventy per cent of the courses will be vocational and thirty per cent non-vocational (liberal arts courses).

Technical education.

Technical training is one of the most urgent tasks which Korea faces. There are three different types of institutions: technical schools (Grade 7-9), high technical schools (Grade 10-12), and technical colleges within the universities where Bachelor's

¹ The Educational Law of Korea, Department of Education, Republic of Korea, Seoul, Korea, Article 39, p. 11, (1949).
degrees are offered.

**Colleges and medical schools.**

Under the Japanese system there were two kinds of colleges:

One was a four-year-middle-school course which was followed by a three-year preparatory course (sometimes called high school); then a three-year-university-course was necessary for a Bachelor's degree (medical course was four years). The other was a three-or four-year-college-course beyond a five-year-course in middle schools in which no degree was granted.

Today, under the new system, three years of middle school and three years of high school are required to enter a regular college having a four-year-course, or to enter a medical course which consists of six years training for the medical profession. Graduate school consists of a three-year course. The number of students and instructors of colleges and schools are mentioned in the following table.
TABLE XVI
NUMBER OF STUDENTS ATTENDING COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Colleges and Universities</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>No. of Prof. &amp; Instructors</th>
<th>No. of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>End of War</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>903</td>
<td>6,948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1945</td>
<td></td>
<td>10*</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>7,110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1945</td>
<td></td>
<td>6*</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1,170</td>
<td>17,909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct., 1946</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2,652</td>
<td>27,419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec., 1948</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2,652</td>
<td>27,419</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: * Nine colleges were merged into one university which is called Seoul National University by the provisions of Ordinance No. 102, "Establishment of Seoul National University," effective 22 August, 1946. (See Appendix.)

---

TABLE XVII
NUMBER OF STUDENTS ATTENDING SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX¹ (December, 1948)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Institution</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary School</td>
<td>1,540,518</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td></td>
<td>514,459</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>216,801</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td></td>
<td>62,996</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College &amp; Universities</td>
<td>23,967</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,452</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Number of Students</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary School Children</td>
<td>2,354,977</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School Pupils</td>
<td>279,797</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Students</td>
<td>27,419</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adult education and illiteracy.

According to Dr. Ryang, former bishop in Korea,

Then the missionaries discovered a wonderful system of script which was already existing in Korea. The system is so easy that a person with ordinary intelligence can learn within a few hours. It has been said that the Korean alphabet is one of the best systems in the world, but the Korean scholars in olden days despised it and substituted the Chinese for literature and the means of communicating ideas. By means of this script the Gospel of Christ has literally been presented to nearly every man, woman and child in writing.

The Department of Education announced that the Adult Education Program of Kyongsang-namdo (province) in one year has enabled 1,169,663 persons of the province to learn to read and write Korean. The provincial program was initiated by the forty-four men and women who attended the National Leaders' Training School in Seoul. They established a Leaders' Training School at Pusan in June, 1946 from which 253 men and 183 women were graduated.

In 1944, illiteracy was a great problem because 77 per cent of the total population was illiterate. Details are shown in the following table.

TABLE XVIII
NUMBER OF ILLITERATES
(May, 1944)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above 13 years of Age</td>
<td>4,999,470</td>
<td>5,253,668</td>
<td>10,253,138</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 13 years of Age</td>
<td>5,260,654</td>
<td>4,720,243</td>
<td>7,980,902</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,260,124</td>
<td>9,973,916</td>
<td>18,234,040</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total number of illiterates - 18,234,040 or 77 per cent of whole population - had been reduced to 44 per cent by February, 1947. 765,167 adults attended temporary classes in 8,560 elementary schools and 10,467 temporary schools conducted by 15,881 teachers, which were held in seven out of the nine provinces in South Korea. It would not be overestimating to say that the special classes which were held continually for two months were almost enough to abolish illiteracy in the Land of Morning Calm.2

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1 The Outline of Educational Administration, op. cit., p. 45.
Definition of illiteracy.

The Columbia Encyclopedia gives the following brief history of illiteracy:

Although at present the ability to sign one's name is usually accepted as a criterion of literacy, in the Middle Ages the ability to write did not necessarily accompany reading capacity. With the invention of printing in the 15th century many people learned to read who could not write. The Reformation added a strong incentive to the desire to read the Bible.

In the Encyclopaedia Britannica the term "illiterate person" is defined:

In the more restricted and technical sense of the term an illiterate person is one who is unable to read and write his own language. The tests of this ability vary greatly, but all are so simple that a person could easily pass them.

In Korea an illiterate has been considered "one who is unable to read and write his own language" - a language based on a twenty-four letter alphabet.

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CHAPTER III

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES
AS A MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

I. ATTEMPTS TO TRACE THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE
AND ITS CHANGES

Attempts to trace the origin of language.

It was only in the last century that language was studied as a part of science with careful and comprehensive observation.¹

The theory of the origin of language, therefore, has been an assumption based on analogy. According to Pei,

If there is one thing on which all linguistics are fully agreed it is that the problem of the origin of human speech is still unsolved.

Theories have not been wanting. Some are traditional and mystical, like the legends current among many primitive groups that language was a gift from the gods. Even as late as the seventeenth century, a Swedish philologist seriously maintained that in the Garden of Eden God spoke Swedish, Adam Danish, and the serpent French, while at a Turkish linguistic congress held in 1934 it was seriously argued that Turkish is at the root of language, all words being derived from phones; the Turkish word for "sun" the first object to strike the human fancy and demand a name.²

Bloomfield stated that the ancient Greek had the gift of wondering at the origin of language which other people took for granted:

² Pei, op. cit., p. 18.
Herodotus, writing in the fifth century B.C., tells us that King Psammetichus of Egypt, in order to find out which was the oldest nation of mankind (whatever this may mean), isolated two newborn infants in the park; when they began to speak, they uttered the word bekos, which turned out to be Phrygian for 'bread.'

We have no evidence, in recent years, supported by science. Plato discussed in his dialogue Cratylus the origin of words and the problem of the relation between things and words; whether named by natural and necessary relation or merely the result of human convention. The first glimpse of a controversy between analogists and anomalists was clarified. The analogists believed that language was natural and therefore it should be regular and logical at bottom, while the anomalists denied these assumptions and pointed out the irregularities of language structure.  

Pythagoras, and the Stoics as Plato considered that language had come into being out of "inherent necessity" or "nature" and the Epicureans believed it was "convention" or "agreement."  

According to Pei, various attempts to explain the origin

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1 Broomfield, op. cit., p.4; Pei, op. cit., pp. 19-20.  
2 Ibid., p. 4.  
3 Pei, op. cit., p. 19.  
4 Ibid., p. 20.
of language were made by Frederick II of Sicily about 1200 and by King James IV of Scotland around 1500. Their experiments also proved inconclusive due to lack of scientific control.

The scientific method was not applied to the study of language until the eighteenth century, when the students of language ceased to believe that language was a direct gift of God. Various theories were put forth such as an invention of ancient heroes, or else the product of a mystical Spirit of Folk.¹

Leibniz advocated a theory that all languages came not from a historically recorded source, but from a proto-speech. A twentieth-century linguist Trombetti boldly asserted that the Biblical account of the Tower of Babel is at least figuratively true and that all languages have a common origin.²

The changeability of language.

Present-day scholars still disagree as to the origin of language. All the knowledge accumulated by linguistic experience has indicated that language changes. The changeability of language is as mysterious as the origin of language itself. Language is an expression of human activity. As human activity is restlessly changing, language goes with it. Many linguists have agreed that

¹ Ibid., p. 19.
² Lec. cit.
agricultural and sedentary pursuits tend to give stability to language while war-like and nomadic life hasten its change. Lithuanian, for example, the tongue of a peaceful farmer's, has changed little during the last two thousand years, while Scandinavian evolved very rapidly.¹

A modern English speaker experiences some difficulty with the English of Shakespeare, far more with the English of Chaucer, and has to handle the English of King Alfred as a foreign tongue.² Though it has been impossible to trace language back to its original form the phenomena of language have been studied by philologists, who reached the following conclusion.

Two different modes of change in language-sounds are recognized: the change may arise very gradually, almost imperceptibly, and be as gradually and unconsciously adopted by the speakers; or it may arise suddenly, as the result of an innovation made by one speaker who has prestige in the community and is therefore widely imitated.³

II. NON-LINGUISTIC SYSTEMS OF COMMUNICATION

Signs

The red, green and yellow lights and blinkers are just as

¹ Ibid., p. 21.
² Ibid., pp. 20-21.
³ Ibid., p. 21.
effective as their equivalent sounds and letters. It would not
be a gross exaggeration to say that such non-linguistic symbols
are even more effective than other means of communication. The
gestures of the traffic officer are far more effective than his
vocal agency in his work of controlling the traffic. Signals
between ships on the ocean are often easier and more effective
than any other linguistic efforts to communicate with each other
at a distance. In visual symbolism of color in traffic lights
arbitrarily stands red for "stop" or "danger," green for "safty"
or "go", yellow for "slow" or a blinking light for "caution." 1

Symbols

In none of the cases mentioned above has there been an
interchange of language, spoken or written. There has, however,
been an interchange of meaning, a transfer of significant concepts.
Pei said,

Too many linguists have forgotten the sound-symbols of the
spoken tongue are neither more or less symbolical of human
thought and human meaning than the various forms of activity
(gesture, pictorial, ideographic, even artistic) by which men
have conveyed significant messages to one another since the
dawn of history. It is a commonplace among linguists that
the spoken language antedates the written language by thousands,
perhaps millions, of years. Insofar as the written language
is a symbolical replica of the spoken tongue this is undoubtedly
true. But there is little or no assurance that organized
sound-language antedates pictographs pointed on the walls
of caves or petroglyphs carved on rocks, whose purpose

1 Ibid., p. 9.
undoubtedly was to convey a significant message or establish a permanent record.¹

Some scientists claim that certain kinds of animals such as bees and ants communicate with each other by non-linguistic devices; the bees, for example, convey messages by order and by dancing in their hives, and the ants use their antennae for communication.²

There must be a common agreement upon the non-linguistic system before it becomes a meaningful sign. Pei described examples as follows:

The American hiss in token of disapproval and loud whistling in sign of enthusiastic applause are quite misunderstood by many European countries, where violent disapproval is expressed by whistling and the hiss is never heard. In Japan a variant of the hiss, a loud sucking-air of the breath, betokens polite recognition. International difficulties arising out of non-linguistic symbols are apparently almost as great as those originating from spoken tongues.³

Gesture-language.

The gesture-language idea was carried on by teachers interested in the training of deaf-mutes. It can express the states of mind by using gestures which are used throughout the world. Pei precisely asserted,

¹ Ibid., p. 10.
² Loc. cit.
³ Ibid., p. 12.
It is quite conceivable that
1) a gestural system of communication could have arisen
prior to and independently of spoken language
2) such a system, had historical conditions been favorable,
might have altogether supplanted the spoken tongue
3) it could today supply the world's needs for an international
common system.1

Sign-language.

The International Boy Scout movement adopted the Indian
sign-language which has made successful communication possible.
Representatives of as many as thirty-seven different nations have
met at various times and carried on both general business and
private conversation by way of signs.2

III. SPEECH SOUNDS

Nature of speech.

Spoken language is characterized by language-sounds, produced
by the human voice, received by the human ear, and interpreted by
the human brain. Speech sounds, like all other sounds in nature,
are subject to certain physical laws. Sound-waves travel at a
given rate, which varies with the nature of the sound and the
medium; they also have certain frequencies of vibration. Since
speech-sounds are produced by certain human organs and received
by others, physiology also enters the picture of the sounds of

1 Ibid., pp. 13-14.
language. 1 Pei further stated,

1. Language, to answer its definition, must not only be produced, transmitted and received, but also interpreted;
2. Language, unless we wish to quibble on the ground of the etymological derivation of the term can exist also where sound is not involved—in a written message or a meaningful symbol. 2

Speech is the oldest means of communicating with one another and is an indispensable factor in our society today. Suppose we did not enjoy the privilege of our speech-expression, our lives would be as deadly dull as those of deaf-mutes who are our neighbors. According to Bloomfield,

Speech is a very complex activity, in which stimulation of every kind leads to highly specific movements of the throat and mouth; these last, are not, in a physiological sense, "organs of speech," for they serve biologically earlier uses in man and in speechless animals... Physiologically, language is not a unit of function, but consists of a great many activities, whose union into a single far-reaching complex of habits results from repeated stimulations during the individual's early life. 3

Speech-community.

He further stated,

A speech-community is a group who interact by means of speech. All the so-called higher activities of man -- our specifically human activities -- spring from the close adjustment among individuals which we call society, and this adjustment, in turn, is based upon language; the speech community, therefore, is the most important kind of social group. 4

1 Ibid., p. 100.
2 Loc. cit.
3 Bloomfield, op. cit., pp. 36-37.
4 Ibid., p. 42.
The importance of speech would not be fully understood until a man enters a different community where an entirely different type of speech is being conducted. He would then be able to recognize that speech is as indispensable as the air to our biological organisms, something which is too often taken for granted. He could do nothing, in such a situation, but hear a series of sounds which strike his ears. The first time he heard the language it would be an utterly strange noise which conveyed no meaning to him. He would be reminded of the story in the Bible of the confusion of language in the Tower of Babel. After a while, a few sounds repeated over and over again, would gradually become familiar to his ear. Now his first step toward mastering the new speech will be learning to recognize and identify a few simple sounds. Once his interest is aroused he will concentrate all his attention on learning the new tongue. His life, even in such a different environment, will be more meaningful when he understands even a few words of the new language.

Reproduction.

Pei wrote precisely about this process of reproduction,

As for self-consciousness, that is something that goes deep down into the roots of human, particularly adult, psychology. The child has no self-consciousness when he imitates. He is not afraid of sounding ridiculous. Therefore

1 Pei, op. cit., pp. 103-104.
the child imitates better than his elder. The adult mind, on the other hand, has acquired a set of inhibitions, and labors under the fear of the ridiculous. The child will consequently imitate the spoken sounds of a language (his own or another) to the very limit of his faculties of hearing and pronunciation; the adult fears he will sound funny when he pronounces a sound to which he is not accustomed, and this fear causes him to use in its place the nearest sound to which he is accustomed, and which he can pronounce without fear of making himself ridiculous. Young children, of course, learn the spoken sounds of foreign languages infinitely better than their elders.

There are two basic causes for the imperfect acquisition of the speech-sounds of a foreign tongue. One is that the sounds are imperfectly heard, and the other is deliberate imperfect reproduction.

Pei said,

The point of articulation, on the other hand, can be accurately described, and controlled by the individual. There is no difference based on race or nationality that can be detected in lung-power, length of vocal cords, or shape of vocal organs; consequently any belief that racial factors control speech-sounds is founded on unscientific premises. As for the point of articulation of a given sound, that can be imitated to perfection by anyone willing to devote sufficient time and labor to the effort. This means that the sounds of a foreign language can be acquired to the point of native-speaker perfection by anyone who cares to do so.¹

¹ Ibid., p. 103.
IV. THE RELATION OF WRITING TO SPEECH

Origin of writing.

"Language is a completely arbitrary symbol of thought. Writing is a symbol of the spoken language, less arbitrary than the language itself, since in most systems of writing there is an attempt to make characters correspond to sounds." said Pei." A system of writing is a symbol of a symbol, just as a check is symbolical of paper money, which is practically symbolical of gold. According to Sturtevant,

By comparison, writing is a modern invention. If it seems to us to be very ancient, that is because history is recorded solely in writing, and so there can be no history more ancient than writing. The record of prehistory that can be constructed from archaeological finds remains vague and colorless. In spite of its immensely long span, its record is so nearly empty of incident and of human interest that it appears brief. And not only is the origin of writing comparatively recent, its spread over the earth from its points of origin in Egypt, Mesopotamia, and China has for the most part occurred well within the historical period. Besides, the process is not yet complete; there are illiterate speakers of all languages, and perhaps a majority of the languages of the world have never yet been written by any of their native speakers.2

1 Pei, op. cit., p. 86.

2 Loc. cit.

Picture writing.

The first step in the evolution of writing has been assumed to be that of picture writing which served to convey only a vague meaning. "The picture writing of the American Indians" said Sturtevant, "had to depend entirely upon familiarity with the practice of communication by this means, and a knowledge of the subject of the particular message." Since there was no connection with any one language, the message was understood by any one who was able to identify the symbols regardless of his native tongue.

The pictures were simplified and conventionalized as in such Egyptian hieroglyphs as \( \text{\ding{182}} \) 'eye', \( \text{\ding{183}} \) 'go', \( \text{\ding{184}} \) 'sun' which was in Chinese \( \text{\ding{185}} \), or \( \text{\ding{186}} \) 'mountain' \( \text{\ding{187}} \) 'river,' or Sumerian \( \text{\ding{188}} \) 'hand' which later developed as \( \text{\ding{189}} \).

Ideographs.

It was easy to make picture writing a bit more conventional and to generalize the ideas the pictures represented. According to Schlauch, "Stylizing of pictures is the first step to conventional

\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{Ibid.}, p. 20.
  \item \text{Ibid.}, p. 21.
\end{itemize}
writing. In the Egyptian hieroglyphs or sacred carvings this stage is still apparent." The figure \[\text{image}\], which was still an ideograph rather than a letter, indicates water and liquid, or any action connected with water.  

**Logographic writing.**

"There is no similarity between Egyptian hieroglyphs and the letters of any West Semitic alphabet that has been preserved so as to prove that one is the source of the other."  

There had been a series of stages between the ideographic stage and the development of logographic writing or word-writing. In the earliest forms of the Semitic alphabets each consonant was represented by a separate letter, and the vowels were not recorded. Sturtevant emphasized, "the simplification of the system made by the Semitic scribes or their predecessors was of first-rate importance. It is customary to speak of the Egyptian uniconsonantal signs as alphabetic." The importance of the logographic stage was not only that the letters represented particular sounds but that they had nothing to do with

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1 Loc. cit.
2 Sturtevant, op. cit., p. 21.
4 Sturtevant, op. cit., p. 22.
5 Ibid., pp. 21-22.
the original picture represented. In other words, the main difference from the former stages was the providing of symbols for words whose meaning does not lend itself to pictorial representation.¹

**Syllabic stage.**

The final stage in the development of the Western alphabet was the writing of vowels, which occupied several centuries. Not before the fifth or sixth century A. D. do we find a system of vowel points, such as appear in modern Arabic and Hebrew. Long before this, Greek borrowers of the syllabary took the final crucial step to an alphabetic system.² "We have no record of the development of picture messages into a record of actual speech, and we have only fragmentary hints of the further development into alphabetic writing."³ Sturtevant summarized the process as follows:

From the Greek alphabet, from which our own is derived, we can be certain of the above five stages of development out of picture writing pure and simple: we cannot clearly document the early states, and several of the stages no doubt overlapped, but they all occurred, and in about this order. First the pictures were conventionalized and simplified. Secondly they gained conventional phonetic values. Thirdly some of the signs came to stand for a single consonant each, although most of them continued to be used for whole words or segments of words. Fourthly all machinery aside from the uniconsonantal signs was abandoned. Fifthly vowel letters came to be written.⁴

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² Sturtevant, *op. cit.*, p. 22.
³ Ibid., p. 21.
⁴ Ibid., p. 24.
Writing is completely unlike language in origin, history, and distribution. It is true, however, that except for the few years since the invention of the phonograph, we have no record of any language of the past except in writing.¹

V. INTERRELATION OF READING AND SPEAKING

What is reading?

The definition of reading is stated by Dodge as follows: "In the widest sense of the word, the interpretation of any optical or tactual symbols may be called reading."² It goes back to the primitive stage of non-linguistic activities characterized by the crude symbolic drawings of prehistoric man. Pillsbury and Meader³ stated, "historically, the knowledge of the reading process has developed from the observation of the mistakes made in ordinary reading to a study of the physiological process involved and then to the psychological factors." Obviously, all reading must involve roughly three steps according to Dodge⁴.

¹ Ibid., p. 27.
⁴ Dodge, op. cit., p. 116.
There are three factors of psychological association in effective reading according to Suzzallo,¹

1. The meaning which the word or words symbolize
2. the visual form of the word
3. the pronunciation of the word

Thought can be expressed by either sound symbols or written symbols. Written symbols are mostly used for the purpose of recalling the thought which occurred a length of time ago, or for communicating each other at a distance. It is, therefore, easily assumed that those symbols, either spoken or written, identify the original thought as it occurred in the mind of the speaker or writer. There is a closer interrelation among those factors during the act of speaking or reading. "Scientific analysis goes further. It seeks to describe various processes in detail and discover their causal interrelationships and the part each plays in the total linguistic process."¹

The written symbol, therefore represents two different things: sounds and thoughts. The written language, which consists of these written symbols, conveys thoughts by way of letters without any assistance of vocal sounds. Reading has chiefly to do with silent letters either replacing the original sounds or transferred immediately to the original thoughts which the writer intended to express. We must now consider two types of reading:

Oral reading.

¹ Dodge, op. cit., p. 116.
In the process of natural learning of a language such as one's mother tongue, thought and sound are interchangeable. The child who enters school for the first time has a considerable number of experiences with which he has already associated the appropriate words, phrases, and sentences of speech. "He lacks only a knowledge of written symbol or printed words. If the words on the page were within the spoken vocabulary of the child, their meanings would be recognized if the child could be given the power to convert what he sees." ¹

¹ Suzzallo, op. cit., p. 119.
Suzzallo also stated:

Schools of the last century have largely aimed to teach children to render printed words into sound on the faith that an already existing association between pronunciation and meaning would complete the pathway to meaning. In the natural course of events, it was assumed the association would become a direct one between print and meaning.¹

¹ Suzzallo, op. cit., p. 119.
Silent reading.

FIGURE 6
SHORT CUT COMMUNICATION IN SILENT READING

Thought or Meaning.

The cold letters, written symbols, represent thoughts and sound symbols. After a child repeats the detour reading a number of time, he will no longer take the indirect way of reading. His intelligence will find a short cut directly from the written symbol or letter to the thought or meaning.

There are plenty of complications in conveying meanings. There are many words which are pronounced more than one way such as Roosevelt: sometimes ('rozavɛlt, 'rozvɛlt) or ('rozvɛlt) in American English according to Kenyon and Knott.¹

On the other hand, Arabic numerals receive several hundred different pronunciations in different languages such as: one in English, un in French, ein in Germany, unus in Latin, ( i ) in Chinese, ( i-chi ) in Japanese, ( il ) in Korean, etc., (there is a common sound "i" among the Oriental tongues). Nevertheless the meaning is just same.

Often the same written symbol or word will have more than one meaning. According to Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary\(^1\), twenty-three different meanings were listed under "run." "Reading" was defined in seven different ways in the Dictionary:

1. Act of one who reads; as a) Perusal. b) Recital of a bill in a legislature.
2. That which is read; hence, a public recital or lecture.
3. The form in which anything is written; a version.
4. Study of books; literary scholarship.
5. Written or printed matter intended to be read.
6. Manner of rendering something written; as an actor's reading of a part; also, interpretation; as, my reading of his character.
7. That which is indicated so as to be read, as on the scale of a barometer.

Reading in the context.

Comprehension of the meaning is the immediate goal of all reading. But comprehension is a special process of establishing the relation between thought or meaning and written word symbols.

Among so many different meanings, the specific meaning which the writer intended to express can be recognized in the context.

According to Dodge the acquisition of new meaning occurs as follows:

The acquisition of new information from reading depends on the experiences already connected with the words, and the process of analogy by which new imagery experiences are constructed out of the material of the past. Unfortunately the symbolic value of the printed word is relatively poor. It lacks tone, accent, emphasis, and gesture.¹

Hillsbury and Meader² stated three possible relationships between thought and language:

1. Thought may precede language in definite and detailed imagery and then be translated into language as a separate process,
2. the only content of thought may be the language,
3. there may be a mixture of the two.

This intermediate condition which is probably the most frequent may consist of an alternation between thought in language and in images, in which some parts are imaged, others represented in language alone; or there may be a general idea of what is to be said in the vaguest, most symbolic terms, and this may be developed in words directly.

Relationship of reading to speaking.

Dodge³ summarized the relationship of reading to speaking as follows:

In the development of language, graphic symbols for words

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¹ Dodge, op. cit., p. 118.
² Hillsbury and Meader, op. cit., p. 99.
³ Dodge, op. cit., p. 118.
are a relatively late acquisition. A large part of humanity does not possess them at all. They are regularly learned by children after the fundamental associations between vocal utterance and ideas are well established. Words are thus associated with meanings largely through their motor-acoustic aspects. Our written and printed words are well adapted for this relationship, since they represented not only words as a whole but the individual sounds in the order of their vocalization. This symbolization is not exact and probably never can be.

He further stated the relationship between oral reading and silent reading:

In reading aloud the eyes regularly keep somewhat ahead of the actual speech. In rapid silent reading direct fixation and the motor-acoustic images are more nearly simultaneous. Apparently the visual premonitions start the motor-acoustic processes. Comprehension reaches well ahead and back into the past, uniting all the fragments into a consistent whole. 1

The relationship between oral reading and silent reading can be compared with the process of learning how to type. First of all, a man has to learn the location of keys and the correct use of his fingers. It does not take too much time to explain the theory of the touch system which is so simple. Nevertheless, he needs a lot of time to practice before he can work efficiently with the typewriter. By that time his fingers work on the typewriter just as easily as his hand moves in hand-writing with no conscious effort.

1 Loc. cit.
The process of second-language learning may be placed in the same category as typing. Silent reading is the final goal for us to do, while oral reading is necessary to apply to the elementary stage of second-language learning. Through oral reading, good habits of pronunciation, intonation, accent and tone can be achieved.
CHAPTER IV

CRITICAL SUMMARY OF PRESENT KOREAN EDUCATION
AS SEEN BY AUTHOR WITH EMPHASIS
ON ENGLISH TEACHING

I. HOW TO TEACH ENGLISH TO KOREAN STUDENTS

Gatenby precisely described the process of English teaching based on his own experiences during his stay in Japan as follows:

A classroom is the least monotonous place on earth, being composed of thirty or more distinct personalities, each with its quota of virtue and original sin; for no two boys are alike, and no two classes of boys. To be in a position to direct and control a roomful of energy, to see that it is not wasted, to guide some of the life-force of the country into useful channels and so to influence future action—all this is a privilege and a responsibility. It is far removed from the mechanical adding up of figures in a bank, or routine clerical work in an office. Teaching is an art and at the same time a mission. The teacher moulds the minds of men, and he makes a better world. ¹

He further described the situation in the Far East:

As an Englishman who has taught abroad, I have seen the results of four- or five-year English courses given by non-English teachers. Of the one hundred and fifty, or more, students who come to the High School [a three-year course beyond middle school, secondary, which was a preparatory step to the university] every year, often not more than twenty can speak or understand simple colloquial English; and although most of them can translate literary English into their own language, very few can translate from the vernacular

¹ E. V. Gatenby, English As a Foreign Language, London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1925, p. 3.
into English with any skill. If, after learning English for four or five years, a boy of average intelligence cannot understand a few words spoken to him by an Englishman, and cannot express his ideas in English, it cannot be denied that there must something wrong in the teaching of the language in Middle Schools. More and more, educational authorities everywhere are emphasizing the need for teachers who are thoroughly trained in their subject, and for the teaching of English as a living speech and not as a dead language. In other words, if the thousands of secondary school teachers were really proficient in the English language, and, moreover, if they knew how to teach it, there would soon be a remarkable rise in the standard of English in schools.¹

According to Dr. Kehoe, who was the director of the American Language Institution, a section of the Education Department of the Military Government of Korea, which was begun in October, 1946,

This method [the new method] of teaching English produced a special problem in language instruction. Probably their greatest initial handicap was their arrogance concerning their own language ability. They had the notion that, because they could translate the words—with the help of a dictionary—or a college level book in English, they had a college mastery of the language. When they got the results of their entrance tests, they were usually grossly insulted to discover that their usage scores were comparable to those of first or second grades.²

Fries, director of the English Language Institute, University of Michigan, said,

Vigorous claims and counter claims characterize the discussions of learning a foreign language. On the one hand

¹ Ibid., p. 4.

it is insisted that unless one begins a second language as a very young child he can never "master" it completely and even twenty or thirty years of residence in a foreign country will not suffice to remove the clear marks of a foreigner from one's speech unless he happens to have a "special gift" for languages. On the other hand one hears reports of men and women who, as adults, have learned to speak "perfectly" eight or ten different languages, and recently there have been many assertions concerning the "miracles" of language learning in Army courses--of "mastering Chinese during the voyage from San Francisco to India," of "learning Arabic in six weeks," of officers who became "thoroughly equipped in Italian in fifteen hours a week for less than two months." In this babel of conflicting assertions one naturally begins to raise such questions as "Just what does learning a language mean?" "When can one be said to have mastered a language?"

In the Korean English class, then, the need is for better trained teachers and a greater use of the conversational method.

II. OBJECTIVES OF ENGLISH TEACHING

The objectives of English teaching are fundamental to any consideration, for discussions of procedures, texts, results, and all the rest can be meaningful only in relation to the ends sought. Objectives are particularly important for comparisons between the newer programs and their predecessors because the fundamental difference between the two types of courses lies in their objectives. The objectives of the "old" and the "new" courses were discussed by Agard and Dunkel as follows:

In one group of objectives may be classed the efforts to impart the basic linguistic skills: reading, writing, speaking and aural comprehension. In the second group can be placed those larger objectives for which the language skills serve as means. A wide variety of outcomes has been listed here: disciplinary training in neatness, accuracy, and logical thought; increased understanding of the nature of language as a means of communication and as a tool of thought; a better command of one's native language; a knowledge of the foreign people's history, culture and civilization, especially a knowledge of the foreign literature; increased international understanding and good will; the development of historical and cultural perspective, and many others.¹

The aims and purposes of modern language teaching in German are described by McHurry, Mueller and Alexander as follows:

The instruction in modern language is to educate the German pupil to the point of being clear in his understanding of the efforts and aspirations of foreign peoples. The reading of foreign newspapers and magazines, the comparison of the position taken toward the same events in a given locality and in the foreign press, the search into the fine spiritual differences in these judgements and their meaning, and inquiry into the reasons thereof, sharpen to a great extent the pupil's insight into an understanding of his own and of the foreign nationality. Teachers have long been active in this direction. What they have frequently attempted successfully must now become through systematic effort the common property of all.²

They added a description of the reform in modern language learning:

The reform of 1924 brought about a violent re-organization. It set new objectives for modern language instruction and determined its place within the whole educational and

1 Agard and Dunkell, op. cit., p. 16.

2 Ruth Emily McHurry, Max Mueller and Thomas Alexander, Modern Foreign Languages in France and Germany, New York City: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930, p. 231.
Instructional program according to new points of view. The new objectives of instruction in French and English arose from the experiences of the World War [7]. The war showed that the knowledge of a foreign literature and even the ability to express one's self in a foreign tongue with ease and accuracy does not guarantee at all an appreciation of the foreign mode of thinking. The shameful ignorance which Germany showed -- and other countries as well -- of the psychology of its enemies demanded and orientation in the direction of a practical study of the foreign country instead of predominantly aesthetic-humanistic educational objectives.\(^1\)

**Reform movement.**

The reform movement goes back to earlier days among students who were interested in languages. Down until the eighties of the previous century, the foreign languages were taught in essentially the same way as were the classical languages. They were only literary languages, to know whose grammatical structure was held to be educative and whose literature promised also a certain profit and enjoyment, although both to a much less degree than in the Latin and Greek. The need existing to speak these languages with a certain degree of fluency received little attention from the school. Such a demand was satisfied outside the school by masters of foreign languages. According to McMurry, Mueller and Alexander,

It was a question of the function and aim of modern language instruction and also of its method. The practical was placed in the foreground; full command of the language was sought. The reformers enjoyed the sympathy of the powerful and

\(^1\) Ibid., p. 252.
vigorous industrial middle class, which demanded of the secondary school training for leaders in commerce and industry. ... Introduced by Vißtor's Quoag tandem in 1882, the reform movement reached its high-water mark at the Modern Language Association meeting in Vienna in 1898, when Wundt proclaimed readiness of use of the language as the highest aim.

The summary of Vißtor's Quoag tandem is as follows:

1. Speech consists not of letters but of sound; therefore, phonetics belongs to the school. The path, then, must be from the foreign sound to speech in the foreign language. Modern language is to be taken up first through the ear and not through the eye.

2. Living speech consists not of isolated words but of connected thought-containing sentences. Therefore, disconnected, single sentence must not be used as practice materials, but rather we should employ meaningful language units, especially reading selections.

3. One cannot acquire the command of a living language by means of grammar and translation. Living languages must be learned as a child learns its mother tongue, chiefly through imitation and variation, but not through translation. "Translation is an art which does not concern the school." Grammar instruction must be limited; rules must be learned by induction from connected language material; the pupil must work out his own school grammar. Foreign language must not be construed according to grammatical rules; the instruction must rather seek to lead the pupil to think in the foreign language itself.

Styles in language teaching have continually changed within the last century. The preceding decade's heterodoxies become the following decade's orthodoxies. Principles and procedures once discarded as outmoded have sometimes undergone a triumphant resurrection until their popularity has waned again.

1 Ibid., p. 228.
2 Ibid., p. 246.
Dunkel pointed out the lack of objectivity in language learning as follows:

There has been a lack of objective, widely tested, and generally accepted information about language learning. A "new approach," which denied or ignored some major element in an existing procedure, could never be tested against data which showed that either the old or the new view was sound. Evidence of such sort was almost universally lacking, and such as did exist was limited in scope and accuracy. Most opinions have been based on personal experience (which was often limited, biased, or insufficiently examined) in particular situations (which might or might not by typical of language teaching even in similar localities and at similar educational levels). Each new suggestion has called forth polemical controversy, but little evidence (for opinion, however forcefully stated, has very limited value as evidence).

In 1899, Sweet stated the following:

This dissatisfaction is strikingly shown by the way in which all new "methods" are run after -- especially the more sensational ones, and such as have the good fortune to be taken up by the editor of some popular periodical.

But none of these methods retain their popularity long -- the interest in them soon dies out. There is a constant succession of them... They have all failed to keep a permanent hold on the public mind because they have all failed to perform what they promised; after promising impossibilities they have all turned out to be on the whole no better than older methods.

In 1917, Palmer said that

If the science of language study exists and is generally recognized in the same way that other sciences are recognized, then the majority of trained teachers will be found to be working on the same lines, differing only in minor details. But the most superficial inquiry tends to show that the methods of teaching adopted in any one country are almost as numerous as the teachers themselves; that each conscientious teacher has

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1 Dunkel, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

his own particular view on the subject and is prepared to maintain them against all comers; that the divergencies of views are not on questions of detail, but are based on totally different conceptions of the whole problem.

... If we follow out his train of reasoning and reflect seriously on the varied aspects suggested by the above questions, we must inevitably come to the conclusion that they study of language has not yet emerged from the empirical stage, that we are still groping our way in a labyrinth of factors the extent and nature of which we are only just dimly beginning to realize.¹

In 1934, Coleman et al. stated that

Where so much uncertainty prevails and so many variables are involved it is the part of wisdom merely to offer these pages as a report of an undertaking and as a warning to those who believe that it is relatively easy to establish by experimental means the pros and cons with respect to teaching procedure. And, finally, it is not out of place to draw the conclusion that, until modern language teachers are ready to take part whole-heartedly in experimental enterprises, we may expect only inconclusive and bewildering outcomes to such as are launched.²

In 1945, Matthew said that

On the other hand, actual results obtained at the various centers of instruction could not be measured by any means now at our command. No objective tests to determine the degree of final achievement at the various schools in language competence and areal knowledge were administered, so far as we have been able to learn. The wealth of material regarding results of these courses published in the educational and public press, based on the opinion of instructors, students, and observers, or on mere hearsay, is so confused and so often contradictory that it offers no safe basis for categorical


statements respecting success in achievement of goals set by the Army and Navy.¹

These five quotations show that some progress has been made; but even the most recent indicates that for numerous reasons we still know too little about the efficient methods of language teaching and language learning. Dinkel described the present situation:

For example, the actual teaching of the linguistic skills has aroused relatively little professional interest. Especially at the college level, teachers' interests, and talents, have lain elsewhere. Elementary language teaching has too often been considered a period of penal servitude to be endured until the instructor has acquired sufficient departmental seniority and reputation to be allowed to teach what he really wants: literary research, philology, linguistic analysis, textual criticism, and the rest. Few language teachers (fortunately there have been outstanding exceptions) have made, or been able to make, a career of studying language learning. Work of this kind has been considered boondoggling or slave labor fit only for graduate students. This attitude has naturally produced new generations of language teachers with little interest and less training in securing the kind of information needed.²

III. THE BATTLE OF THE METHODS

"Methods are the least important matter with which the language 'methodologist' deals. This paradox is not hard to understand. The vital question is always the aim and the particular devices used to attain it, not generalized plans and philosophies," said Huse.³

² Dinkel, op. cit., pp. 5-6.
³ Huse, op. cit., pp. 63-64.
A. GRAMMAR

Grammar or grammar-translation method.

According to the Report of the Committee of Twelve:

... the pupil is first put through a volume of paradigms, rules, exceptions, and examples which he learns by heart. Only when he has thoroughly mastered this book is he allowed to read; and even then his reading is usually regarded as a means of illustrating and emphasizing grammatical principles, rather than as a source of inspiration or of literary education.¹

The method for teaching foreign languages was inherited from Latin study. Montaigne was one of its first critics. Locke followed Montaigne. As time went on more and more criticisms were made but with little actual effect because the Ciceronianism was too deeply rooted. Cole mentioned the features which Sparkman had pointed out:

After a year devoted to paradigms and rules the second year was devoted to the application of the grammatical material studied. Disconnected sentences in the language were dissected and the emphasis placed on applying the rules. Then come English sentences to be translated applying the same rules. Pronunciation was not emphasized and conversation played no part.²

According to Huse,

The worst of these abuses were due to the assumption that grammar is the key to language knowledge. In a typical grammar method, rules were learned as a means by which words could be put together into phrases and sentences. If words were consistently the units of expression, the process might have

² Cole, op. cit., p. 56.
been carried out, but, as will be shown, they are not.

The general aim of the grammar methods was vague or all-inclusive. The fundamental difference between reading knowledge and speaking knowledge was not recognized, or two aims were confused.¹

He further criticized the grammar method as follows:

The instructors did not need to be fluent in the foreign tongue. They could compensate for this inferiority by knowing more rules of grammar than most of the millions of native speakers. The study was organized moreover. It involved an intellectual discipline; it was not simply a matter of learning by heart, of knowing or not knowing, but there were reasons or pseudo-reasons for explaining everything. Thus the student could ask why? and the teacher triumph with a conclusive because.²

According to a critical statement written by Dr. Kehoe,

Their Japanese teachers of English had used Japanese as the language of instruction from the beginning. The only method employed had been translation (to say nothing of their inappropriateness—such as Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare in the third year of middle school). They had been required to render these materials into Japanese, word by word, with the help of a dictionary. No inquiry was apparently ever made into their understanding of the meaning of the words or paragraphs translated. The students had never heard English spoken in class and had never been required to use it in any way other than in literary translation. When they occasionally heard an English-speaking missionary she addressed the class in Korean with perhaps a few English sentences interpolated...³

The only trouble is that language is not logical. Historical or morphological explanations can be given for linguistic phenomena, but the only logical reason for most expressions is that the present generation received them from parents, the parents from grandparents,

¹ Huse, op. cit., p. 70.
² Ibid., pp. 70-71.
³ Kehoe, op. cit., p. 10.
and so on. Huse wrote that

The grammar taught, moreover, was of a peculiar sort. A French grammar for French boys is one thing, a grammar intended for English speaking pupils, quite another. A complete grammar, and none was ever complete, would have been a tremendous work. A general rule would appear, then a series of exceptions, then exceptions within the exceptions, and conceivably exceptions within the exception to the exceptions. The situation might have been extremely grave except for a scrap heap on which were thrown the more remote exceptions; these were called "idioms." Sometimes a single idiom was of more frequent occurrence than a whole minor grammatical classification.¹

Faucett added that

English is not a language the growth of which is ended and the usages of which can therefore be collected and expressed in settled formulae, but is a living organism in process of constant change. In the past the formal teaching of English grammar was based on Latin grammar. It is now recognized that this was a mistake founded on a whole set of misconceptions. The rules governing a highly inflected language like Latin are almost wholly inapplicable to English. Nor is English a language of which the pupils are entirely ignorant before they begin to learn it at school, and which accordingly they cannot begin to decipher without the help of grammatical rules.²

Historically speaking, grammar was set up after a long period of language existence. It is necessary for us to know the reason why the Roman schooling put its emphasis on grammar. According to Cubberley,

The foundation and source of all the Liberal Arts was grammar, it being, according to Maurus, "the science which teaches us to explain the poets and historians, and the art

¹ Huse, op. cit., pp. 71-72.
² Faucett, op. cit., pp. 91-92.
which qualifies us to speak and write correctly. In 1119, grammar is defined as "The doorkeeper of all the other sciences, the apt expurgatrix of the stammering tongue, the servant of logic, the mistress of rhetoric, the interpreter of theology, the relief of medicine, and the praiseworthy foundation of the whole quadrivium."

The importance of teaching grammar in secondary schools in Korea has been critically discussed. It is, however, the opinion of the author that the rules of grammar are necessary guides to correct practice. Recently the writer saw a blind man crossing Exeter Street with the help of his seeing-eye dog. It occurred to him that the language student would be just as helpless without the rules of grammar to guide him as the blind man would be without his dog.

According to Staubach the teaching of grammar is necessary for these reasons:

For the grown-up person, "abstractions" are a short cut to the learning of a body of information. Rules of grammar are principles or abstractions; nearly all teachers use them as an aid to the study of language. However, you do not know a language, no matter how glibly you can recite rules of grammar, until you have converted knowledge into skill. Ability in a language implies an automatic response to word and idea relationships which must be developed through practice. The rules must be regarded as guides to correct methods of practice, and not as an end in themselves.

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1 Cubberley, op. cit., p. 155.

John Lawrence stated the whole picture of grammar in the preface of the Studies in English Grammar written Dr. Ichikawa, professor of English Philology in the Imperial University of Tokyo:

The English language abounds in expressions which defy explanation by pure logic. It has been humorously said by Professor Einenkel, one of the most diligent investigators of its mysteries, that, if an English expression conveys any particular sense, it does so, for the most part, not because it must mean that, but because it cannot mean anything else (der englische Ausdruck sel tener dies oder jenes bedeutet, weil er es bedeuten muss, als, weil er nichts anders bedeuten kann).

The reason of this is to be found, to a great extent, in the history of the language. The course of the English literary language was broken into streamlets by the mighty obstacle which the Norman Conquest in the eleventh century threw in its way, after which for three hundred years the language of high life and of culture in England was not English but French.

At length in the fourteenth century it fell again into one channel mainly through the influence of Chaucer.

Meanwhile, however, the composition and colour of its waters had become much changed by the influx of French, and is this Anglo-French alliance-speech of elements never perfectly harmonizing which has descended to us. No wonder if the current has brought down many anomalous and strange forms which it is hard to justify grammatically.¹

¹ Sanki Ichikawa, Studies in English Grammar, Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1928, p. iii.
B. PHONETICS AND PHONEMICS

Since English is a very irregular language, the Korean student needs some system for learning the pronunciation and spelling of English words. Phonetics and phonemics taught in the English class help to meet these needs. The writer will therefore give a brief description of the origin and use of these devices.

According to Pike the differences between Phonetics and Phonemics are as follows:

Phonetics gathers raw material. Phonemics cooks it. Practical phonetics provides a technique for describing sounds in terms of movements of the vocal apparatus, and for writing them in terms of articulatory formulas, i.e. as letters of a phonetic alphabet. Practical phonemics provides a technique for processing the rough phonetic data in order to discover the pertinent units of sound and to symbolize them in an alphabet easy for the native to read. The purpose of practical phonemics, therefore, is to reduce a language to writing.¹

According to Gray and Wise², "Phonetics is a branch of the subject of general linguistics. Linguistics is a very broad term including almost every aspect of language study. Phonetics is


limited to one of these aspects only—the sounds of speech”.

Schlauch said that there must “an elaborate study of phonetics, or the scientific analysis of sounds used in speech, to discover the main physical principles of sound change.” Gray and Wise described the inconsistency of spelling as follows:

"Except in the rarest of instances, speech begins with sound. It is primarily audible rather than visible or touchable. Written symbolization is a secondary development.

Such symbolization is almost never thoroughly efficient. Its chief failure is in point of consistency. The sounds of speech, that is, the phonemes, or sound families, ought to be represented by one symbol each and one only; conversely, each symbol should represent only one sound family."

History of phonetic alphabet.

The phonetic alphabet is often called by several different names such as phonetic signs, phonetic symbols, phonetic notations and so forth. A device for representing one sound by a single symbol has long been desirable, because present-day spellings do not tell us the exact pronunciation of a word. There have been many linguists who tried to make phonetic symbols. In 1867, A. M. Bell mentioned the need of phonetic alphabets in Visible Speech, in which he devised a system of symbolic signs. Henry Sweet announced his new revised Organic Notation in Primer of Phonetics.

1 Schlauch, op. cit., p. 20.
in 1890. Otto Jespersen, a Danish English authority, presented
Analphabetic Notation, in which he discussed an advanced theory
of applying similar symbols to European alphabets (regular).  

Long before in 1855 R. Lepsius had worked out Standard
Alphabet (Das allgemeine) linguistische Alphabet), in which
diagonal marks were added to the regular alphabets. In 1878,
in Sweden, J. A. Lundel, working with the alphabet of Swedish
dialect (Det svenska landsmalsalfabet) succeeded in reducing the
number of diagonal marks. In France, J. Gillieron and J.
Rousselot worked out of a French dialect which was not considered
as convenient as the others. Finally, the International Phonetic
Alphabet or International Phonetic Association (IPA) alphabet was
accepted at the World-wide Phoneticians Conference at Copenhagen,
April, 1925. Gray and Wise emphasized the need for the IPA
alphabet as follows:

For this reason if for no other, a phonetic alphabet not
subject to vagaries and inconsistencies is essential to any
basic study of speech. There have been many such alphabets.
The one now most frequently used is that of the International
Phonetic Association, known as the IPA alphabet. A copy of
the IPA alphabet containing not only the sounds of English,
but also those of many other languages, The two symbols
( ⟨⟩ and ( ⟨⟩), commonly used by American phoneticians, have
been added to the IPA list of vowel symbols.

There is an added value in the inclusion of a study of the

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1 Sanki Ichikawa, ed., The Kenkyusha Dictionary of English

2 Loc. cit.
phonetic basis of speech. That value lies in making the student speech conscious. Nothing sensitizes him to speech problems, principles, and phenomena—correct speech, errors of speech, beauties of speech, dialects, language relationships, etc., — so much as a sound-by-sound analysis of speech. With phonetic study he begins for the first time really to hear speech sounds accurately. ¹

Sturtevant stated the area of the science of phonetics as follows:

The science of phonetics treats of the production, transmission, and reception of speech. It included a description of the physiological mechanism of the lungs, throat, mouth, and nose, and also of the ear. A complete treatment of the subject would involve also an account of the nerves which control the production of sound, and of those which connect the ear with the brain. Equally essential is the physics of sound production and reception, and of the sound waves that pass from speaker to hearer. To handle the subject with any thoroughness, extensive laboratory equipment is necessary.

Phonemics.

According to Fries the relation between phonetics and phonemics was described in Phonemics:

Phonemics is more directly the counterpart of Phonetics. In Phonetics the end sought was the establishing of a technique of description which could deal with the nature and formation of all sounds whether these sounds are used in language or not. Practically it sought a means to describe sounds in terms of movements of the "vocal apparatus," in terms of articulatory formulas. In Phonemics the end sought is the establishing of a satisfactory technique for discovering the pertinent units of sound in any language and organizing them for an alphabet writing.²

¹ Gray and Wise, op. cit., p. 218.
² Sturtevant, op. cit., p. 9.
³ Fries in the forward to Phonemics: A Technique for Reducing Language to Writing, by Pike, op. cit., p. v.
He further wrote that

Much discussion has centered upon the nature of the "phoneme" and many have attempted to define it -- some as a "psychological unit," others as a "class of sounds." A phoneme is one of the significant units of sound arrived at for a particular language by the analytical procedures developed from the basic premises... Phonemic analysis thus seeks to arrive, not simply at the phonetic character of the separate sound units, but at the structure of the sound system of a language. Phonemic analysis is a fundamental step in the modern structural approach to linguistic study.¹

Pike explained the function of phonemics in this way:

The sounds of a language are automatically and unconsciously organized by the native into structural units, which we call PHONEMES. One of these sound units may have as submembers numerous slightly different varieties which a trained foreigner might be aware of. In fact, if the native is told that such variation exists in the pronunciation of his sound units he may emphatically deny it. For a speaker to recognize subvarieties of his own sound units, he may need many hours of training. People are much more readily made conscious of the distinctive sound units in their language than they are of submembers of the units. For this reason a practical orthography is phonemic. It has one, and only one, symbol for each sound unit. These the native soon learns to recognize. He needs no "extra" symbols which correspond to sub-units in his language.²

He described the learning process of native orthography as follows:

Once the native learns an orthography which is closely correlated with his sound units, there is no "spelling" problem. Everything is spelled as it is pronounced, and pronounced as it is spelled. There are no "silent letters," nor series of words like cough, hiccup, through, where the same letters represent different sounds.³

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¹ Loc. cit.
² Pike, op. cit., p. 57.
³ Loc. cit.
Foreigners hear the native sound incorrectly as they fail to hear the exact sounds. Pike said that

Untrained foreigners do not intuitively recognize native sound units. On the contrary they are usually "deaf" to some of the native sound units and tend to "hear" only their own, even when the native is speaking... A foreigner for this reason finds it difficult to reduce a language to writing in the manner best adapted to rapid learning by the native. The foreigner is likely to symbolize some sub-units which should be left unwritten, but failure to symbolize certain orthography would tend to confuse the native. Phonemic techniques provide safeguards which help the foreigner to discover the organization of the native sound units without undue influence from the units of his own language. They aid in the prevention of symbolizing too much or too little detail. They help prevent the symbolizing of sub-units, and help insure the symbolizing of all full units.¹

There are four premises for the beginning student to be able to write, in which highly numerous details of analysis are integrated into an easily remembered system. According to Pike "Phonemic procedures, then, must be founded upon premises concerning the underlying universal characteristics of languages of the world, lest the orthographical conclusions arrived at by the procedures prove to be both technically and practically inadequate."²

The basic four premises given by Pike are as follows:³

¹ Loc. cit.
² Loc. cit.
³ Ibid., pp. 58-60.
First Premise: Sounds tend to be modified by their environments.

1) Sounds tend to slur into one another and the nonsignificant varieties of a sound so produced must be symbolized in a practical alphabet.

2) Sounds tend to slur into silence.

3) The borders of various types of larger phonological or grammatical units may also modify sounds.

4) Sounds can be affected nonsignificantly by their relation to syllables which are stressed or unstressed, long or short, high or low.

Second Premise: Sound systems have a tendency toward phonetic symmetry.

1) Sound systems have a tendency toward symmetry.

2) Like the segmental system, a tonal or stress system tends to be symmetrical.

Third Premise: Sound tends to fluctuate.

Fourth Premise: Characteristic sequences of sounds exert structural pressure on the phonemic interpretation of suspicious segments or suspicious sequences of segments.

He concluded that phonetic syllables and phonemic syllables differ, and the premises and procedures are designed to allow that phonemic analysis cannot be made with phonetic data alone; it must be made with phonetic data plus a series of phonemic premises.¹

¹ Ibid., p. 65.
C. TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE CLASS

Natural method.

According to Gatenby English should be taught at the same time that a child learn his mother tongue. The main claims of the natural method are as follows:

The basic fact to remember in all language teaching, whatever method or methods are employed, is that a small child learns to speak its own language as it is spoken by those around it. It may learn a dialect or the standard form of the language, but what it does learn it learns thoroughly, so that it can understand, apparently without effort, the normal speech it hears, and express its idea freely in speech. The reading and writing of the language are taught after a knowledge of the spoken forms has been acquired. There is and can be no translation. 1

According to Dunkel,

The process which the child goes through in learning to speak his native language has often been regarded as the archetype of all language learning; and many theories of foreign language teaching have rested on the premise that the processes and conditions for learning the second language should reproduce as far as possible those of learning the first. 2

The first stage of a child's learning process was described by Dunkel as follows: 3

The first stage is marked by the animal cries which the child begins to make immediately after birth. These

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1 Gatenby, op. cit., p. 12.
3 Ibid., p. 15.
are soon differentiated into cries of rage, pain, fear, and pleasure, but they are not linguistically different from noises made by the young of the lower animals in similar circumstances. After a few months, the stage of the "babbling monologue" sets in. In these monologues, the child tries out his vocal organs in much the same tentative fashion as he learns how his hands and feet work.¹

He stated that the next stage of a child's learning is to imitate and repeat the sounds he has made (lallation) and, still later, those he has heard from others (echolalia).² The preceding periods hit upon certain combinations of sounds like papa or mama.³ Whenever the child sees his father the parents present him the sound of 'papa,' he imitates the sound and produces it after a long period of time. This is the start of the fundamental language-learning process; the establishment of associations between his father and the sounds indicates the thought.

Gradually this stage leads to the next, that at which the child takes words by imitation from the language of his parents and puts them into simple sentences such as "this is a book."

Dunkel said some elements out of linguistic activities are necessary to understand the meaning better:

Frequently there is the possibility of extra-linguistic clue. Whenever language is used, the sense of the situation the tone of the speaker's voice, his manner and gestures,

¹ Ibid., p. 15.
² Loc. cit.
³ Ibid., p. 16.
and other elements in the speech situation enable the learner to understand more than he hears. Thus we theorize about the child's understanding of language when actually more than language (or no language) is involved.¹

Mothers are the best language teachers in the whole range of speech in the period of childhood. Dunkel gave them full credit as follows:

A stupendous amount of time and effort is given to language learning. It has long been a truism that mothers are the best language teachers not only because they are more interested in the welfare of their charges than are most of their successors, but also because they are willing to work longer hours.²

One of the most important factors in learning a language is that of the long linguistic incubation period which the child goes through. Month after month and year after year he continually hears the language before he is expected to talk or to understand.

Gatenby emphasized the necessity of the long-range process in learning English in secondary schools:

The only way in which a German, Japanese, or Arab child can learn English as an English child does is to go to England and live in an English home and have to depend upon the English language for all communication. Even under these conditions the child may be hampered to some extent if it already knows its own language?

The natural method is the best way of learning the mother tongue as well as the second-language. Nevertheless it is impossible for every Korean student to have the privilege of

¹ Ibid., p. 17.
² Dunkel, op. cit., p. 19.
staying in an English-speaking home.

**Direct method.**

Fries defined the direct method as follows:

A method of teaching a foreign language, especially a modern language, through conversation, discussion, and reading in the language itself without use of the pupil's language, without translation, and without the study of formal grammar. The first words are taught by pointing to objects or pictures, or by performing actions.¹

The origin of the direct method goes back to France according to Cole:

The term méthodes directes, popularly adopted in the United States, apparently originated in France in a circular of the French Minister of Public Instruction in 1901, though the principles of the method came rather from Germany.²

Faucett said that

...the direct method is one in which grammar is taught directly -- i.e., without rules; another will assert for it that it is a method whereby the student gets his pronunciation directly from the teacher without any other help.³

According to McHargy, Mueller and Alexander,

By means of discussion of objects and pictures, by introduction of topics for debate, and through dialogues, one seeks to create situations which correspond to real life and which give the pupils opportunity for a natural type of practice in the foreign idiom.⁴

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¹ Fries, op. cit., p. 7.
² Cole, op. cit., p. 60.
³ Faucett, op. cit., p. 106.
⁴ McHargy, Mueller and Alexander, op. cit., p. 311.
The Direct Method has two different aspects according to the Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Philology.  

1. Extensive work:
   a) teaching by presenting object
      e.g. pen, book, chair, etc.
   b) teaching by presenting pictures of the object

2. Contextual work:
   a) learning by context of the sentence
   b) learning by paraphrasing.

According to the Modern Studies, British Government report, the direct method was not satisfactory:

Probably every skilled teacher of foreign language, however firm his belief in the Direct Method, departs from it frequently for good reason. Some repudiate the Direct Method altogether, and achieve good results in their own way; but even they would doubtless admit that they have learnt much from its fundamental principles.  

This report also justified the use of the vernacular at times on the grounds that

Much time is wasted by unskilful teachers in endeavouring to explain in the foreign language a word or phrase that becomes at once intelligible if the English equivalent be given; while the occasional collation and comparison of the two modes of expressions is indispensable if one of the advantages of learning a foreign language is the cultivation of one's own.

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3 Loc. cit.
Again, "there are some points of language which can only be saved by explaining those rules in English." With these qualifications in mind the report stated that "it is probably impossible to carry language teaching far in the schools without some reference to the mother tongue." According to Huse the use of vernacular equivalents are inevitable:

Many of the principles on which the Direct Method is based are probably quite correct as far as the spoken language is concerned. That "one learns to speak by speaking" is true to the extent that one can, under any system of class instruction, actually speak. The theory of the isolation of languages, the avoidance of interferences and associations due to the mother tongue, is also probably correct as a generalization. This isolation occurs at its best when a student goes to the foreign country and is cut off from his habitual speech. But in the beginning stages, as many have pointed out, the most extreme care to avoid the mother tongue cannot quite eliminate it. The child hears, for example, das Schiff many times; then, suddenly, in a flash, the meaning dawns: "Why, it's a boat!" he reflects. This is inevitable.

He further advocated the use of the learner's mother tongue whenever necessary in order to establish an exact meaning:

The use of pictures, realia, gestures, etc., has no immediate advantage established experimentally except to maintain the integrity of a principle that cannot quite be lived up to. To develop every concept independently of its vernacular label, would require reconstructing the pupil's mental life.

1. Loc. cit.
2. Loc. cit.
3. Huse, op. cit., p. 68.
4. Loc. cit.
Compromise method.

Cole recommended the use of the following eclectic method:

Of late there has been a drift toward the so-called eclectic method -- the selection of the best features of all the methods and their use systematically to attain the desired aims. Oral practice, reading aloud, question and answer -- each makes its contribution. Translation is of value if used purposefully instead of as a means of filling up a class period or as a method of examination. Grammar may be taught inductively; but should the occasion demand, the deductive method may be used.

Huse, on the other hand, regarded the compromise method with suspicion:

The compromise method that have followed the warfare of the direct and grammar method have combined frequently the worst features of both. The paradigms, word lists, careful organization are gone; likewise most of the entertainment. The compromises have had mainly the commercial advantage of not shocking widespread opinion. But the situation is not any better, and those who have no vested interest in foreign language study are beginning to regard the whole thing as a kind of waste.

Classroom activities in Korea.

Dr. Kehoe pointed out the critical situation of classroom activities in Korea as follows:

When they do begin to talk a little, they are likely to try to construct literary sentences in the manner of George Gissing (one of the most honored British writers in Korea), but usually without articles or prepositions. The result is peculiarly unintelligible, and the teacher must be a paragon of tact not to give offense as she helps them to get the sentence worked out in modern usage.

1 Cole, op. cit., p. 61.

2 Huse, op. cit., pp. 82-85.
Their questions, especially in the advanced class, are such as they fancy will (and sometimes do) get the unsuspecting teacher to talk, so they won't have to. They are also, in the beginning, prone to ask questions on grammar to which the teachers are instructed to reply: "I'm sorry, I don't know any grammar." After a few such tries, they give up but their confidence in grammar is probably not much shaken by the experience.1

a) Students.

Grammar has been considered among Korean students as "the key of wisdom." When a new teacher comes to a class, the students are anxious to know whether their teacher of English is qualified or not. Often some very complicated grammatical questions are asked by the students in order to test their instructor. There has been a tendency for the students, once the instructor has acquired a reputation, to believe anything he says. On the other hand, once he loses their confidence that is the end. Dr. Kehoe further stated that

Two years of experience with this type of students has convinced the staff of the fundamental soundness of language teaching modeled on the natural method (although scientifically accelerated) by which any child, anywhere in the world, learns his mother tongue -- without translation, without the study of formal grammar, without the aid of bilingual dictionaries, without phonetic systems, without any of the formal, mechanical, analytical, so-called helps (really sources of confusion) which usually become the end of the study of language, instead of that, mastery of usage which should be the aim of any language course.2

1 Kehoe, op. cit., pp. 10-11.

2 Ibid., p. 12.
She further described the details in English teaching as follows:

They realize that communication skills should be learned for the purposes of communication, and, also, that such a natural method makes great demands on the instructor who must have at hand a dazzling array of techniques, sparked by a lively imagination and varied with considerable originality. It is not easy, they will tell you, to create artificially, day after day, the natural language-learning situation, at the same time that care is taken not to exceed the word-count which marks the vocabulary limit of the class. It is not easy to find materials suitable for adults with communication skills of typical first-graders. Ordinarily they must be constructed, and this takes time. Special drills must be designed for the sounds Koreans find difficult (notably the distinction between "p" and "f", "v" and "b", "r" and "l").

It is necessary for Korean students to learn the International Phonetic Alphabet in order to differentiate English speech sounds such as "p", "v", and "r" from those of "f", "b", and "l". The natural method was successfully taught the Korean teachers of English by a group of American professors -- Dr. Kehoe, Dr. Streeter, Miss Gill and others. Korean students of English have been greatly influenced by this method and have appreciated the friendly pioneer work of the American Language Institute, Seoul, Korea. There are many other outstanding educators from the United States who have given their inexhaustible energies to establishing better and more democratic education in Korea, for which every one of the Koreans are sincerely grateful.

1 Loc. cit.
Dr. Kehoe made an effort to combat the pedantry of Korean students of English as follows:

Great effort must be made to break down the misconceptions they have been taught -- such as that a polysyllabic unprounounceable word is always better than a simple one, or that a complicated, unintelligible construction, involving circumlocution, is preferable to a clear, straightforward expression.

Weaning the teachers, away from Shakespeare and Matthew Arnold is likewise a major problem in the retraining course. Retraining the cultural value of the classics is of paramount concern to them, and the their point of view is to teach language through literature. Whether the students has any comprehension of the content of these master pieces is of no concern to the teacher, so long as he can translate the words. ¹

She described the background of the pedantic attitude as follows:

The spectre of scholarship, in terms of the classical scribe who memorized and copied in beautiful script the book of Confucius, still overshadows the Korean ideal of the educated man. The singsong chant of the old Chinese school instructional habit of having students read English poetry aloud in unison, without any consideration being shown for their knowledge of its meaning.²

It is true that the Korean educational system had been patterned after that of the Chinese over several thousand years up to the nineteenth century. As a result the pedantic air of Chinese scholarship persists even today. It has been generally accepted

¹ Loc. cit.
that polysyllabic and "big words" are preferable in literary style. There is, however, a new tendency to be popular by using simple and straightforward expression. It is the author's wish that plain and understandable English be taught to Korean students which will enforce the new style in the long run.

b) Teachers.

Teachers of English in Korea are in need of re-education, as Dr. Kehoe has insisted:

The traditional method by which they have "learned" the English language is most persistent among the Korean teachers of English. A few teachers who have been students at the special training institute re-taught to the, to them, radical New Method (we call it the Painless Method). But the majority of Koreans in school continue to meet in classes of not less than 50, a non-English speaking teacher who explains outdated English grammar in Korean, occasionally permitting the students to read aloud in unison after him. In this group reading, the emphasis is all in the pronunciation of individual words, with no attention given to the intonation, inflection or total sound pattern of the sentence or phrase, much less to the sense.¹

IV GENERAL SUMMARY

Fries summarized the teaching of English to foreign students as follows:

In learning a new language, then, the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system -- to understand the stream of

¹ Ibid., p. 11.
speech, to hear the distinctive sound features and to approximate their production. It is, second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language. These are the matters that the native speaker as a child has early acquired as unconscious habits; they must become automatic habits of the adult learner of a new language. Of course these things cannot be learned in a vacuum. There must be sufficient vocabulary to operate the structures and represent the sound system in actual use. 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 arrangements of utterances) matters of automatic habit. This degree of mastery of a foreign language can be achieved by most adults, by means of a scientific approach with satisfactorily selected and organized materials, within approximately three months. In that brief time the learning adult will not become a fluent speaker for all occasions but he can have laid a good accurate foundation upon which to build, and the extension of his control of content vocabulary will then come rapidly and with increasing ease.

In learning a second language it is an indispensable procedure to begin with speaking, then pass on to the stage of silent reading, which is one of the supreme objectives. Experiments have shown that reading ability, once attained in this way, provides, paradoxically, greater facility in speaking. An explanation by Huse of the second part of this process will help to clarify this statement.

Some writers, e.g., Michael West, maintain that for the majority of students the best means to attain a speaking knowledge is first through reading knowledge. The argument is plausible. When you can read a language with ease, you

1 Pries, op. cit., p. 5.
are close to a speaking knowledge. In any case, the reading objective is about the only one that can now be countenanced for all students, and it remains for textbook writers and teachers to show how efficiently that aim can be accomplished. 1

It is imperative for Korean students of English to understand that they should go through the elementary speaking-reading stage which is a solid foundation for the reading-speaking stage. It is the author's earnest desire to urge the necessity of the interrelationship of reading and speaking in teaching English to Korean students.

1 Huse, op. cit., p. 83.
CHAPTER V

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING KOREAN EDUCATION

1. There is an urgent need for an institution for research in English teaching where teachers of English can meet and study scientific approaches.

2. A bulletin is needed among English teachers and professors to provide a means for the exchange of views and criticisms of English teaching.

3. Well-qualified American instructors and professors are sorely needed in schools and colleges as well as in the proposed institution for English research.

4. Suitable textbooks and guidebooks with oral and written exercises are very much needed.

5. Educational measurement and evaluation are not established in Korea and should be worked out as soon as possible.

6. Audio-visual aid is another necessity for Korean education. Tape-recording machines and victrola gramophones should be applied in speech exercises and for listening purposes.

7. It is the author's hope that American educators may become more interested in English teaching in foreign countries since English has become an international language. Through the English language the whole world will be literally united by a true understanding of the Christian spirit which the United States stands for: "In God We Trust."


Ryang, J. S., "Note on Protestant Christianity in Korea," (unpubl.) Seoul, Korea, 1940.


"Tables of Education" issued by Department of Education, Republic of Korea, Seoul: Korea, Dec., 1946.

The Educational Law of Korea, Department of Education, Republic of Korea, Seoul: Korea, 1949.


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FIGURE 7. THE SYSTEM OF KOREAN EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>School Age</th>
<th>Japanese System</th>
<th>Revised System</th>
<th>New System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td>Med. Grad. Sch. School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>M.S.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>16 E.</td>
<td></td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>15 E.</td>
<td></td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>College</td>
<td>Junior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Normal School</td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>12 Prepar-</td>
<td></td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>ratory</td>
<td></td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>11 Course</td>
<td></td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>High School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>Middle School</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>Adult Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ESTABLISHMENT OF SEOUL NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

By the provisions of Ordinance No. 102, "Establishment of Seoul National University," effective 22 August, 1946, improved facilities for higher education will be available.

The objective of the ordinance is to raise the academic standards of the University to a level equivalent to those of leading institutions of higher learning throughout the world. Certain existing educational facilities are merged into a reorganized Seoul National University. There will be a progressive amalgamation of additional educational facilities, required colleges, schools and learned faculties in the University.

Entrance requirements are to be prescribed from time to time by the Board of Regents. At no time shall any consideration of race, nationality, religion, sex, caste or economic position be made or deemed a requirement for admission to or attendance at the University or for the granting or withholding of any degree, diploma, certificate, scholarship, grant, emolument, honor or award by or in the University.

The following Seoul colleges and institutions of learning and affiliated installations are disestablished and merged into Seoul National University: the Seoul Commercial, Dental, Law, Medical, Mining, Normal and Technical Colleges, the Seoul University (formerly called Keijo Imperial University), the Women's Normal College and the Suwon Agriculture and Forestry College.

The corporate existence of each listed college and institution of learning is terminated and the property, equipment, records, funds and personnel of each institution and its affiliated are transferred to the control of Seoul National University.

The following colleges are established within Seoul National University: Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce, Dentistry, Education, Engineering, Fine Arts, Law, Liberal Arts and Sciences, and Medicine, including School of Nursing and Graduate School.

A Board of Regents is established as the governing body of the University.

The Department of Finance of the Government of Korea is authorized and directed to appropriate such funds as are necessary to carry out the provisions and objectives of the ordinance.

1 Summation, op. cit., No. 9, June, 1946.
MIDDLE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The accompanying table outlines the core curriculums for the junior and senior middle schools which became effective 1 September, (1945). The number of class periods per week for each subject are:

TABLE XIX

CORE CURRICULUM FOR JUNIOR MIDDLE SCHOOL

(Class periods/week)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Grade 7</th>
<th>Grade 8</th>
<th>Grade 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Required Subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General science</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean language</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education and health</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocation subject  a/</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electives</td>
<td>(29)</td>
<td>(29)</td>
<td>(24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics  b/</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language  b/</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational subjects</td>
<td>0 to 10</td>
<td>0 to 10</td>
<td>0 to 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special course  c/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>Grade 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:**

a/ Each school to offer courses agreed upon with the Department of Education and must meet national standards of instruction and equipment. Elective vocational courses offered as agreed with Department of Education.

b/ Foreign language and ninth grade mathematics required all except terminal students.

c/ Special courses in Korean language and science are temporary only but may be added to regular work next if needed to bring students up to standards recommended in the outline of work.

### TABLE XX

**CURRICULUM FOR SENIOR MIDDLE SCHOOL**

(Class periods / week)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Grade 11</th>
<th>Grade 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Required Subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education and health</td>
<td>3 to 5</td>
<td>3 to 5</td>
<td>3 to 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language a/</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(21-26) (16-21) (11-16)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Grade 11</th>
<th>Grade 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Korean language</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies b/</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational subjects a/</td>
<td>5 to 13</td>
<td>5 to 20</td>
<td>5 to 23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:**

- a/ This course is a continuation of the same language elected in junior high grade.

- b/ Special economic geography given five periods per week for one year and open to students in grades 10, 11 or 12.

- c/ Vocational courses to be organized to fit needs in various communities and must meet national standards of instruction and equipment. Terminal students doing 15 or more periods per week, vocational training may reduce physical education to three periods per week and may be excused from foreign language. Variations in the number of period per week of other elective subjects may be made within limitation of the minimum total of 39 periods required for all subjects.


2 *Loc. cit.*