English Immersion Program in Korea: Student Progress After Four Months of Implementation.

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ENGLISH IMMERSION PROGRAM IN KOREA: STUDENT PROGRESS AFTER FOUR MONTHS OF IMPLEMENTATION

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Interdepartmental Program In Linguistics

by

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ABSTRACT

In Korea, efforts to teach a non-native language, such as English, to Korean students usually result in native speakers acquiring limited language abilities. As a result, the teaching of English has little effect upon making native speakers fluent in a non-native language. Many foreign language instructors in Korea attempt to find new teaching methods to improve the performance of students in foreign language proficiency. Among the various innovative approaches of the 20th century, research has shown that the immersion approach may be one of the most effective means. Thus this dissertation introduces the innovative immersion teaching methods for Korean school systems.

This dissertation presents the results of research conducted at Kyoungil Elementary School in Ansan City in South Korea, after 4 months of implementing the immersion program (September 6, 1999 through January 10, 2000). At the fourth-grade level 80 students took part in the research. The researcher measured the results of pre- and post-tests on reading proficiency in English.

In their language achievement, all students in the immersion class as well as the non-immersion class made gains in English reading proficiency. Immersion students educated in the English-dominant class received slightly higher gains in the language reading achievement test than non-immersion peers. On every sub-test, the immersion and non-immersion student reading
standardized scores were raised in three (Vocabulary, Reading for Information, Mechanics and Usage) of four domains, but not in one segment (Fluency). The immersion students scored higher than the non-immersion children, with moderately higher scores in Vocabulary and Reading for Information. The non-immersion students got higher gains in Mechanics and Usage sub-test than their English-dominant peers. In reading competency levels, they remained in the "Non-Reader" category after the 4 month research period. However, both immersion and non-immersion children scored much higher in post-tests than in pre-tests.
CHAPTER 1. EDUCATION IN KOREA

1.1 General Information about Korea

Korea, located between China and Japan, is a democratic nation that has approximately five thousand years of history. In Korean history the earliest state, called Ancient Choson, terminated around 100 B.C. The three kingdoms of Koguryo, Paekche, and Shilla followed the first state. Shilla, located in the south-east area, unified the three states in the 7th century. Unified Shilla was followed in the 10th century by the Koryo Dynasty which was succeeded by the Choson Dynasty in the 14th century, ending in 1910 with the Japanese invasion. After 35 years of Japanese colonial rule, Korea known today as the Republic of Korea, emerged in 1948.

Ethnically, Korean people are a single race, speaking one language, Korean. Formal manuscripts did not appear in Korea until the 4th century A.D., when educated people wrote in Chinese. Although the Korean alphabet, Hangul, was developed at the direction of King Sejong in 1446, the Chinese alphabet was used as the official written language of Korea until the late 19th century. The Hangul alphabet, consisting of 14 consonant graphemes and 10 vowel graphemes, is easy to read. The common people used Hangul, while educated Koreans continued to use the Chinese alphabet. Hangul eventually
became the official alphabet for all laws and decrees at the end of the 19th century.

Korea's population in the late 19th century was estimated at 10 million. At the present time, that number has increased to approximately 40 million, making the nation one of the most densely populated countries in the world. The population density averages more than 1,000 persons per square mile.

Korean culture is unique, founded in the syncretism of indigenous Shamanism, ancestral worship, Buddhism, Confucianism, and Christianity. In Korea, there currently are about 13 million Buddhists, 6 million Christians, 4.7 million Confucianists and others. Shamanism, the worship of spirits, is widespread throughout the country.

Korea is a constitutional republic. With the president at the top, the government consists of three independent branches: the legislative, the executive, and the judiciary branch. The nation is divided into 15 administrative units: the metropolis, a capital city similar to Washington D.C. in America; five metropolitan cities, each considered a "little metropolis;" and nine provinces, similar to states in the U.S. which include cities and counties. Korea evolved from an agrarian country to a globally influential developing country through a series of five year economic development plans, implemented since 1962. Today, the per capita GNP (gross national product) has reached approximately $10,000. Korea hosted the Asian games in 1986.

Over the past four decades, Korean education has grown extraordinarily, serving as the prime force of national progress. Korea does not have many natural resources. Thus, the Korean people believe that education is the best way to make Korea a wealthy country.

1.2 The Korean Education System

In Korea, the school system follows a 6-3-3-4 pattern which consists of six years of elementary school, three years of middle school, three years of high school, and 4 years of college or university.

High schools are divided into two categories, general and vocational. Agricultural, commercial, technical, and fishery high schools are considered to be in the latter category. There are also specialty high schools for science, art, athletics, and foreign language study.

Institutions of higher education are generally classified into three categories: four-year college and university (including 6 year medical college), 2- or 3-year junior vocational college, and 4-year teachers’ colleges.

The academic year is made up of two semesters. The first semester begins on March 1st, and the second semester on September 1st. There are two vacations in one academic year: summer vacation (July and August) and winter vacation (January and February) that last about two months, respectively.
According to "EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Reports" (2000), as of June 30, 1996, the general status of the Korean educational system displayed the following characteristics:

**General Status of Educational Institutes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Average Class size</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Schools</td>
<td>5,772</td>
<td>3,904,979</td>
<td>137,822</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>6-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Schools</td>
<td>2,683</td>
<td>2,481,820</td>
<td>97,665</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>12-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General High</td>
<td>1,081</td>
<td>1,347,999</td>
<td>57,140</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>15-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational High</td>
<td>749</td>
<td>810,447</td>
<td>40,737</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>15-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>1,266,876</td>
<td>48,582</td>
<td></td>
<td>18-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Colleges</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>642,697</td>
<td>11,515</td>
<td></td>
<td>18-19 or 18-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers' Colleges</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20,439</td>
<td>786</td>
<td></td>
<td>18-21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.1 Pre-school Education

Pre-school education is not compulsory in Korea because the government does not consider it as necessary as primary and secondary education. Korean families who have an interest in early education send their
children to private institutions (either religious or social) which provide pre-school education. Consequently, kindergarten education depends on the private sector.

Since 1999, the government, recognizing the importance of pre-school education, has introduced free pre-school education for low income families living in certain rural and urban areas. The government’s aim is to raise the level of pre-school education to that of developed nations. Pre-school education provides children of three to five years of age with curricula covering the five areas of physical, linguistic, expressive, inquiry, and social activities.

As of 1997, according to “EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Reports” (2000), there were 9,010 private pre-schools in Korea enrolling 567,814 students between the ages of 3 and 5. That number constitutes 27.7% of the children aged 3 to 5 in Korea. The enrollment rate among five year-old children was 44%. Many Korean parents also send their children to private tutoring institutions, called Hakwon, for music, art, computer, and language instruction. Pre-schools offer classes for four or more hours every day for 180 school days during a year.

1.2.2 Elementary School Education

Primary education in Korea has been compulsory since 1953 and has been free since 1979. At six years of age, children are allocated to elementary schools in their residential area. Applicants who enter private
schools must pay the entire expense of education for the period of study. In Korea, approximately 98% of primary school students go to public schools instead of private schools. According to "EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Reports" (2000), total enrollment of elementary pupils reached 3,783,986; less than 60,000 students were enrolled in private schools. In Korea, public schools dominate both primary and secondary education.

At the time that the Republic of Korea was founded, in 1948, primary enrollment was low. Since the late 1960s, the enrollment rate has reached almost 100%. The sharp increase is due to the high educational zeal among Korean people. However, the rise in school population also caused overcrowding in classes, resulting in a poorer quality of education. In the 1960s through the 1980s, the average number of students in a class was approximately 60-70. In some schools, more than 90 pupils were crammed into one classroom. Many schools operated classes in two daily shifts because of limited facilities. Accordingly, to create better educational environment, in 1982 the government established an educational tax that dropped the average class size to 37.7 in 1996.

Once children begin elementary school, most students (almost 100%) automatically advance to the next grade each year. Although an accelerated grade advancement system permits intelligent or gifted students to skip a grade, neither students nor parents are usually in favor of such an action. Because Korean students do not like studying with younger pupils, gifted students who
skip a grade are not welcomed in the upper grade. Intelligent students improve their gifted abilities in private institutions outside the school.

1.2.3 Middle School Education

Middle school education is compulsory, yet not free. Currently tuition fees of approximately $50 per month must be paid by students in junior high schools due to national financial problems. An exception is provided for students living in agricultural and fishing areas, who have received free middle school education since 1985. Regardless of tuition fees, the middle school education enrollment rate is high. According to “EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Reports” (2000), in 1996 99.3% of elementary school students enter middle schools. Since the entrance exam was abolished in 1969, competition to enter middle schools has disappeared. Transition rates from elementary to middle school have increased sharply; as a result, applicants are allocated to schools by lottery.

1.2.4 High School Education

High school education is compulsory, but not free. Middle school graduates may apply to one of three different types of high schools: general, vocational, or technical high school. General high school students take “advanced general education” in the first year, and the next year they select one of two majors, “humanities and social sciences” or “natural sciences,” according to their aptitude. In vocational high schools, students learn not only general education, but also vocational training in fishery, commerce,
agriculture, or technology. Technical high schools, specializing in art, science, foreign language, and athletics aim at developing students' potential abilities in these specific areas.

Applicants for academic general high schools cannot select a particular school to attend. Instead, applicants are assigned to schools near their residences, due to the governmental institution of a school district system in place of entrance exams. Students applying for vocational or technical high school may apply to the particular school they wish to attend, with selection based on an entrance examination or achievement in their middle school grades.

Before general high school entrance exams were abolished, competition in the exams was fierce. Students eager to enter prestigious high schools caused the competition to become heated. Parents felt that students in prestigious high schools could more easily enter high-ranking universities than their peers in other schools. Many students took extracurricular lessons for the entrance exams, and teachers found part time jobs at "cramming schools." It was in order to solve these problems that the government established a school district system.

Once high school entrance exams were abolished, the situation improved, but new problems arose. Families moved to neighborhoods with a good reputation for education, in areas where there were prestigious schools and where wealthy families were located. These prestigious schools maintained good educational facilities and quality education programs even
after compulsory exams were abolished. In Korea, wealthy families generally tend to have more interest in their children’s education than poor ones. A further problem evolved when technical or specialty high schools for foreign language and science (excluding art and athletics) achieved prestige status; intelligent students in the technical schools who had passed difficult entrance exams received higher scores on university entrance exams than did students from other academic high schools. The government has attempted to address these issues, but no solution has been found at the present time.

1.2.5 Higher Education

Higher education institutions in Korea seek to teach fundamental academic theories. As of June 30, 1996, there are 134 four-year colleges and universities, 152 two- or three-year junior colleges, and 11 four-year teachers’ colleges.

Colleges and universities offer four-year programs for bachelor’s degrees, but programs in medicine, oriental medicine, and dentistry are 6 years long. Graduate education is offered by four-year colleges and universities, but junior colleges do not have graduate schools. The junior colleges are also considered to be “vocational and special junior colleges,” because their curriculum fosters middle-level technicians with theories and skills for special areas. Technology, engineering, and nursing are more popular fields than agriculture, fishery, sanitation, arts and athletics.
Teachers' colleges specialize in the preparation of elementary school teachers. The colleges are nationally funded, so registration and tuition are free.

Fierce competition exists for entrance to prestigious colleges and universities in Korea, because Korean parents want their children to enter a high-ranking course of study in an elite university. If students are unable to pursue arduous courses in a high-ranking university due to low test scores of scholastic achievement, parents tend to recommend selection of less difficult study courses in the high-ranking university, rather than choose a lower-ranking college.

In Korea, entrance examinations were originally administered by each university. In other words, each college was free to administer its own examinations. The exams focused mainly on English, Korean, and mathematics. Thus, because of student preparation for college entrance examinations, high school education focused on these three subjects and neglected other subjects. Many schools established after-school lessons, which became known as “cramming schools.” In addition, the practice of hiring tutors made the situation more intense. Many parents spent a considerable amount of money on private tuition for their children, believing that private tutoring was the best way to prepare their children for the extremely difficult entrance exams. Students also felt that private tutoring
was superior to school education and a more efficient method of preparing for entrance exams.

In an attempt to solve these problems, the Korean government implemented drastic reforms. In 1980, entrance exams administered by universities were abolished in favor of scholastic exams administered by the government. Having scores based on a national system opened a means for students to select their universities. In addition, tutoring for high school students and the after-school lessons were prohibited; cramming schools were banned.

The government continued to improve the university entrance examination system every year. Another new entrance exam system launched in 1994 gave more than 40% weight to high school achievement. The 1995 Education Reform made it possible for universities to select students based on a combination of factors: high school achievements, scholastic achievement test scores, interviews, and essay tests. An essay was added to the exam to test students on their creative thinking skills. The scholastic achievement test was administered by the government, while interview and essay tests were implemented by the individual universities.

1.3 Public and Private Institutions Teaching Foreign Languages

In Korea, both students and adult learners attend a variety of language institutions for proficiency in English. In general, they go to a Hakwon (private institution) or take a Kwawoe (private tutoring). Interested
individuals may also enhance learning skills through corporate language programs or university-affiliated institutes.

1.3.1 Hakwons (Private Institutions)

Most Korean students attend a Hakwon as a way of life. Some students attend evening classes at two or three additional private institutions at night. Koreans believe that extra-curricular lessons are the key to entrance into a highly prestigious college. To meet the demand inspired by these values, there are various private academic institutes that target the development of skills for students and businessmen alike in subjects such as Bosup Hakwon, Yipsy Hakwon, and Foreign Language Hakwon. In Bosup Hakwon, which means supplementary lessons, junior and senior high school students learn additional subjects after school. Bosup Hakwon is subdivided into two groups: General Bosup Hakwon and Specialty Bosup Hakwon. In the General Bosup Hakwons, students learn a broad scope of school subjects. General Bosup Hakwons are attended by students who seek good grades in all school subjects. Specialty Bosup Hakwon addresses one or two particular subjects for students. The range of subjects commonly includes English, math, science, the Korean language, art, athletics, or a combination of English and math, or of math and science. For example, students who want an intensive study of English in addition to school education attend an English Specialty Bosup Hakwon, while those who wish additional instruction in math and science enroll in a Math and Science Specialty Bosup Hakwon.
Yipsi Hakwon affords high school graduates who have failed a university entrance examination an opportunity to learn all subjects needed to retake college entrance examination tests. There are also Specialty Yipsi Hakwons for art, music, and athletics.

A Foreign Language Hakwon is generally divided into two branches: A Foreign Language Hakwon for adults such as university students and businessmen, and a Foreign Language Hakwon for children including preschool-aged and elementary school students. As mentioned earlier, middle and high school students learn foreign languages in English Specialty Bosup Hakwon.

Many Canadian and American university graduates come to Korea to teach English in a Hakwon to pay their student loans. However, teaching English without a working visa is illegal, and the visa is difficult to obtain. Many Koreans who have a thirst to learn the English language consider a native English speaking teacher to be their best guide toward mastering the English language. The excessive demand for accomplished English speakers in Korea has had the effect of inflating the salaries of foreign language teachers. This development has encouraged English speakers who have travel visas to teach English in private institutions, or as private tutors. This arrangement prompts immigration officials to sometimes raid Hakwons, in an attempt to stave the illegal practice.
1.3.2 Corporate Language Programs

Many Korean companies have their own in-house programs called corporate language programs. Students receive intensive instruction in a foreign language, usually English, for more than 30 hours per week; the instructor teaches English from early in the morning until late in the evening. Students live on campus, because the intensive sessions last for three to six months.

1.3.3 University Affiliated Institutions

Many universities in Korea have their own foreign language institutions. Having a language institution attached to the university is a common occurrence due to financial help. These institutions are designed primarily to address the needs of businessmen, but college students study there as well. Unlike other private Hakwons, these institutions tend to hire instructors with MA degrees in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), who hold a working visa.

1.4 Private Tutoring (Kwawoe)

Korea is a nation of Confucian culture. In this society of Confucian culture, education carries social and cultural importance. In Korea, education is considered to be the best way to improve one’s socio-economic status.

The Korean economic boom of the 1970s stimulated a frenzy of desire for private tutoring. Fierce competition among high school seniors to gain entrance to highly select universities caused students to fervently vie for
kwawoe, or private tutoring. From the inception of kindergarten to high school, the goal of most Korean students is to enter a preferred university.

As more and more Korean students hired private tutors, a conflict began between students of higher economic class being able to afford kwawoe, and those of lower class who could not. The social problem emerged because many Koreans could not pay the seemingly unlimited extra costs for private tutoring outside of school. Some individuals went to foreign countries to seek a better education for their children, due to the financial burdens of kwawoe. Most Korean people, together with school teachers and government officials, thought that thorough educational reform was urgently needed.

In 1980, Doohwan Chun, a Korean military leader, took power and incorporated unusual steps. Private kwawoe was banned in subjects other than arts or music for all students under college level. During a span of 20 years, from 1980 until 2000, the government banned private tutoring outside the public school system. The former president’s goal was to relieve parents of the burden of paying for private tutoring, since the national habit was to spend too much money on the private tutoring of offspring.

The government fined and imprisoned those parents and teachers who engaged in private tutoring, and expelled foreigners who illegally taught English. Nevertheless, the ban of kwawoe failed completely, as wealthy parents were still able to arrange private tutoring in major subjects for their children’s university entrance examinations. As the living standard of the
general public increased, the middle class also became able to afford private tutoring. In 1997, the Korea Herald, a large English-language daily newspaper, stated that when the kwawoe-ban law was initiated in 1980, the percentage of private tutoring included 13% for primary school students, 15% for middle school students, and 26% for high school students. In 1997, the rate soared to 70% for elementary school pupils and 50% for middle and high school pupils. At the present time, there is hardly a student who does not have a private tutor. Almost all children attend various private lessons which begin in kindergarten or earlier.

Although there has been a significant increase in private tutoring since the 1980 ban of kwawoe, a vocal group of parents, mostly poor and middle class, now complain about the cost of private tutoring and agree with the government policy to ban kwawoe. According to the Asianweek magazine (2001), nearly half the parents again want a complete ban on the practice. Yet ironically, these constituents are willing to spend money to prepare their children for college, a practice which compels them to compete fiercely to hire good private tutors. In a view of the situation, the average Korean family spends 15 to 30% of its budget on private lessons, while some families spend as much as 50% of their income on tutors. Because of the high cost of private kwawoe, Korean women who cannot afford to pay for private lessons for their children obtain part-time or full-time jobs as housekeepers, insurance saleswomen, or even prostitutes.
In an effort to curb the rising cost of private tutoring, the Korean government in 1989 allowed private tutoring by Korean college students, and in 1996, private tutoring by graduate students became permissible. In 2001, kwawoe became legal in Korea, although overcharging for the service was considered to be illegal. The illegality of overcharging for private tutoring caused a dilemma for the government, because policymakers clearly cannot suggest how much is “overcharging.”

Why do Korean students want to take private lessons? In Korea, it is difficult for students who have been educated only in public schools to enter prestigious colleges. A public school has too many students in a class (about 50 students) in comparison to private tutoring or the hakwon, where the classes are composed of only one or a few students. The small number of students facilitates learning with a private tutor, and a hakwon instructor in developing every student’s skill. In addition, a private tutor professionally provides his pupil with essential information needed not only for school exams but also for university entrance exams. In a public school setting, the large number of students make it difficult for a teacher to check whether or not each student has mastered the previous subject. Parents believe that private education and a hakwon are much more efficient than public school education. The perception is that if their children fail to receive private education, the children will lag behind their peers who have worked with private tutors. As a result, most Korean students depend on both private tutoring and a private academic
institution in addition to their regular schooling, even though the educational combination is very expensive.

In order to solve these inherent educational problems, in my opinion, the schools must develop educational programs of quality, and teachers in turn must improve their capabilities, to better compete with private education. The Korean government must also seek improvement of the quality of public education. Such a national effort would cause the demand for kwawoe and hakwon to naturally decline. If the schools do not meet this challenge to effectively educate Korean students in the public arena, the social dilemma of costly private tuition will continue.

The desperate efforts to enter a prestigious college continue, because in Korean society, personal status is based on whether a person obtains a degree from a prestigious university, comparable to the universities of Harvard, Yale, and Stanford in the U.S. Obtaining a degree from a prestigious university insures advancement in Korean society. This social trend has resulted in an exam-oriented society and the spread of kwawoe. The majority of Korean parents will do anything for the success and happiness of their children. They willingly sacrifice themselves for their offspring, happy in the hope that their children will achieve a high social status that they themselves have never achieved.
1.5 School English Education in Korea

The most widely-taught foreign language in Korea is English. English is a compulsory subject required in all schools beginning from the third grade of elementary school, through junior and senior high school, and to college. Prior to 1997, English was taught only from middle school to college. Since March of 1997, English has been introduced into elementary education in the following pattern: 1997 (grade 3 only), 1998 (grades 3 and 4), 1999 (grades 3, 4, and 5), and 2000 (grades 3, 4, 5, and 6). The teaching hours for all grades were two 40 minute lessons per week. This implementation resulted in 34 teaching weeks and 68 lessons a year. However, in 2001, the teaching hours for third and fourth grade students were reduced to 34 lessons a year, while fifth and sixth grades maintained the 68 lessons per year.

In primary schools, there are three kinds of teachers: specialized English teachers, secondary English teachers, and native English speaking teachers. English-specialized teachers have taken a general teacher-training program; secondary English teachers have graduated in an English-related subject or are qualified to teach English to secondary students. There are also a number of native English speaking teachers in each elementary school as assistant language teachers. In Korea, there are not enough qualified English teachers for elementary students. Thus secondary level teachers of English were allocated to teach English to primary students.
Prior to 2001, teachers of English in Korea could select one of 16 textbooks approved by the Ministry of Education. In 2001, the Ministry changed its policy and mandated that all teachers of English in Korea use the same textbook in primary schools. However teachers may individually select supplementary books, cassettes, and videocassette tapes. A detailed specification of content includes word lists, structure lists, and sentences. The government chooses to focus elementary English education on functional English, rather than on grammar and translation. Consequently, the government allocated native English speakers only to elementary schools, because financial problems prevent the placing of native English teachers in middle and high schools.

Many educators and governmental policy makers in Korea pose the following question: Do high school students in Korea achieve complete foreign language fluency and competence to the degree of becoming bilingual and bicultural? Most Korean students have learned English as a second language for over ten years from elementary school to college level, and yet do not obtain a good command of English. To understand why, one has to understand the social background in Korea.

Like people in other societies, Koreans desire a high social position for perceived honor and success in life. One of the main factors that enhance social position in Korea is scholarly attainment. Social position ultimately is determined by whether or not a student enters a high-ranking college.
Therefore, Koreans feel that entrance to schools of the highest level is the best route to an elevated position. If students enter a high-ranking college, their parents, their relatives, and even their neighbors take pride in them, and all people envy their success. As a result, most students in junior high or/and senior high schools seriously study English for the pending university entrance test.

Students are goal-directed toward passing the college entrance examinations which are largely dependent on the English test. Accordingly, three years of junior high school and three years of senior high school English instruction will be aimed solely at scoring well on the college entrance exams.

The English curriculum focuses instruction on grammar and vocabulary rather than on functional English. Students in senior high schools focus not on conversational and writing skills, but rather on listening, reading, and grammar skills. This choice is due to the fact that most university English entrance tests are composed of rigid grammar, translation, and basic listening elements.

If a student pays too much attention to communication or composition, a low score in the English test might be the result. Therefore, even though English is introduced at an early age in the schools, students have extremely low speaking and writing skills, and only limited listening skills. They can hardly communicate with English-speaking foreigners and seldom write a one-page letter.
A stereotyped scenario of instruction in an English class follows. A teacher explains a point of grammar to students, reads a sentence, and then interprets it clause-by-clause. Students take one test per month, composed of multiple choices. This kind of instruction prevents Korean students from obtaining the ability to write or speak their thoughts freely, regardless of the length of study. Consequently, although students begin to learn English at an early age in schools, Korean students achieve little proficiency in writing, speaking, and listening.

As a rule, Korean English teachers do not have good functional language abilities, so they can not effectively teach their pupils functional English. Even though they have graduated in an English or English-related subject, they lack ease in speaking and writing skills. The English curriculum at the university level emphasizes grammar instruction and translation, and neglects functional English.

As English is increasingly utilized as the world language in political and economic affairs, the Korean government has come to realize that actual language discourse, or functional English language competency, is more important than knowledge of English based solely on grammar. As a result, the government continues to expand the facilities needed for functional English language teaching and continues efforts to improve the skills of English language teachers. In addition, many educators supported by the government are exploring new methods of instruction for better English education.
1.6 Purpose of the Research Study

In Korea, the traditional English teaching methodology is grammar-translation instruction: rote memorization of abstract grammar and vocabulary, as well as line-by-line translation. With this kind of instruction, most Korean students, taught English as a second language for over ten years, do not attain oral proficiency. They can barely speak, understand, and write it. In fact, they remain at a loss either to buy a pair of shoes or to write a one-page journal.

The main purpose of this dissertation research is to offer evidence that an innovative immersion approach, instead of a traditional teaching method, could successfully be adopted in foreign language learning and teaching in Korea. It is also intended to help decision makers in schools identify the immersion models that would meet their goals and the diverse needs of English language learners throughout the country. No single program model can work best in every condition. When a program suitable for local conditions is well-implemented, it can be successful. The research questions are as follows:

1. How does the level of second language proficiency change after 4 months of instruction?
2. What are the performance differences in an English reading proficiency level between immersion students and regular program students?
CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE: INNOVATIVE PROGRAMS IN SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION

2.1 Immersion Programs: Origins and Initial Outcomes

One of the most outstanding innovations to emerge in second language education during the last three decades is the immersion program. An initial immersion program was developed as a form of bilingual education for English-speaking students in Canada. The immersion program was launched by twelve English-speaking parents from the Montreal suburb of St. Lambert, who were dissatisfied with their children's proficiency in French as a second language. They met on October 30, 1963, to discuss the quality of French second-language education and find a more proficient teaching method.

Two years later, the first immersion experiment was conducted with the help of Dr. Wallace Lambert of the Psychology Department, linguist Dr. G. Richard Tucker, and Dr. Wilder Penfield of the Montreal Neurological Institute in 1965 (Parkin, 1987).

Lambert, Tucker and Penfield studied the attitudinal, linguistic, and cognitive development respectively of students in a pilot kindergarten class of 26 English-speaking children. The method of instruction followed the early total immersion program described in the next section. By the end of fourth grade, the students had made great progress not only in French, but also in their native language, and mastered subject matter content equally with peer students instructed through English in a regular school.
As a result of the positive achievements of the St. Lambert French immersion program, many schools began to adopt this approach. By 1971, the number of St. Lambert immersion program students in six nearby communities reached more than 700.

Outside of Canada, immersion programs have been introduced in several other countries (especially the U.S. and Australia). In the United States, the first immersion program was established in Spanish at Linwood Howe Elementary School in Culver City, California, in 1971 for English-speaking students (Smith, 1988). Curriculum followed the model as implemented in the St. Lambert program. The students entered the immersion program at five years of age at the kindergarten grade-level. Spanish was used as the language of instruction, a suitable match with the geographical and demographic characteristics of Southern California.

Consider the ratio between Spanish and English curricula in the Linwood Howe school:

- Kindergarten and grade 1: 100% in Spanish
- Second grade: 100% in Spanish except one class in English language arts
- Third grade: 75% in Spanish; 25% in English
- Grades 4, 5, and 6: 50% in Spanish; 50% in English

Approximately 3,800 hours of Spanish instruction and 1,950 hours of English instruction were given to students during the elementary school period (K to G 6).
Before implementing the immersion program, the school board established a set of expectations for the program. The first goal was for the children to acquire a native-like proficiency in all language skills, including comprehension, reading, writing, and speaking. The second goal was for them to make normal progress toward achieving the standard objectives of the elementary school curriculum. The third goal was for them to maintain normal progress in the maturation process of their home language. The fourth goal was for the students to develop positive attitudes toward members of the Spanish-speaking community while maintaining a positive self-image as representatives of the English-speaking community.

The comparison between the four expected outcomes and the results obtained from the immersion program revealed that the results related to the second, third, and fourth predictions were almost identical to anticipated outcomes. However, the result of the first expectation was different from the predicted result.

In the Linwood Howe immersion program, comparative grade-level results for three consecutive years of sixth grade student performance on the Comprehensive Test Basic Skills demonstrated that immersion students achieved a scholastic level equal to or higher than peers who had received their entire elementary school education in English. In addition, the test results showed that their native language skills, except for mechanics, were as proficient as those of their peers in regular English-medium schools. In the
areas of vocabulary, comprehension, and expression of English, the students far exceeded their peers. However, their mechanical abilities were much lower than the average peers. Evidently, the test results satisfied the second and third prediction. In the fourth prediction, students in the program displayed equally positive attitudes toward both Anglo and Hispanic cultures.

From the results above, it may be concluded that the immersion program students had gained an advantage. However, in regard to the first expectation, the goals of the school board were overly optimistic. Plann's research found that the students in the immersion program made grammatical and pronunciation errors in Spanish. They could not perform as native Spanish speakers in productive skills such as speaking and writing; however, they performed well in receptive skills such as reading and listening comprehension. Even though the students had participated in the immersion program for nearly 4,000 hours over seven years, they still had not acquired a full command of Spanish. The 4,000 hours of classroom exposure for the immersion students did not provide enough time for them to employ the second language, Spanish, like native Spanish speakers.

Yet it must be noted that native Spanish speakers are exposed to the optimal atmosphere in their native country for 11 years (birth through the six grade) as compared to 4,000 hours over seven years. When immersion program students are compared to pupils from other foreign language programs, the immersion students are extraordinarily competent.
The studies described above reveal that immersion education does not interfere with first language development or academic achievement of students (Genesee, 1987). In addition, immersion students acquire a higher achievement in the second language proficiency than peers enrolled in non-immersion second language programs. Nevertheless, immersion students do not gain native-like levels of proficiency unless they are exposed to the second language outside of school.

2.2 (Foreign/Second Language) Immersion Programs for Majority Language Students

Genesee (1987) asserts that immersion programs are distinctive, in that they use academic content as the medium for foreign language instruction, rather than directly teaching foreign language skills. In other words, teachers use a second language as the medium of academic instruction and verbal interaction with native-language-speaking majority students (Genesee, 1985). Immersion students learn the foreign language incidentally because instructors interact with students in the second language about academic content and social matters. Students acquire academic and socio-cultural knowledge through interactions with their friends, teachers, and through the materials of the curriculum.

Investigating a number of immersion programs, Genesee (1986) found that they have one or more of the following diverse major goals:

- promotion of official languages (e.g., French immersion in Canada)
- linguistic, cultural, and educational enrichment
- promotion of a heritage language among students from cultural minority groups whose communities now speak the majority societal language (e.g., Chinese immersion for U.S. children of Chinese heritage)
- acquisition of important regional languages (e.g., English immersion in European schools)
- maintenance and preservation of indigenous languages and cultures (e.g., Hawaiian immersion in Hawaii)

Genesee adds that immersion programs also seek the following common aims: functional proficiency in the second language, age-appropriate levels of first language competence, grade-level achievement in academic subject matter, and understanding and appreciation of the second language culture.

2.2.1 Types of Immersion Programs

There is great variety in the types of immersion programs currently functioning. They vary with regard to the sequencing and amount of instruction in the languages, the characteristics of the students, and the number of languages involved. Immersion education can be divided into four general types of program: total immersion, partial immersion, immersion-type, and double immersion.

2.2.1.1 Total Immersion

Total immersion, also called "language bath," means that all school curricula are taught in the second language exclusively for a period of one to
three years. Total immersion is itself divided into three types: early, middle (delayed), and late total immersion. An overview of Canadian total immersion programs follows.

In early total immersion programs, 100 percent of curricular instruction during the first two or three years of the primary grades (that is, K, 1, and 2) is taught in a second language. After two or three years, formal English language arts is introduced for thirty minutes to an hour each day. As the students progress through the higher elementary grades (5 or 6), the amount of English is gradually increased until there is a balance of both the second language and English. The exact proportion of instructional time in the two languages varies by program and school district.

An immersion program that begins 100 percent total immersion education in the target language at the middle elementary level (grades 3 or 4, generally) is called either "middle" or "delayed" total immersion. The delayed immersion students have had "core foreign language" for 20-40 minutes (10-20% of the instructional time) per day from kindergarten or grade 1 until they enter the intensive period of monolingual (foreign language-only) phase. The monolingual phase lasts one or two years. After the intensive monolingual phase, the amount of instruction in the native language is increased to approximately half by grade 6.

The late total immersion program begins the 100 percent intensive education in a second language at the end of elementary school or the
beginning of secondary school (that is, grade 6 or 7). The monolingual phase in a second language lasts one or two years. Before the monolingual phase, the second language instruction is given 20-40 minutes every day from the start of schooling; after the monolingual phase, the proportion of L1/L2 varies from school to school.

To enhance understanding, consider the typical patterns of early, middle, and late total immersion programs for native English speakers as suggested by the Ottawa Board of Education.

**Proportion of the School Day between French and English Curricula**

1. Early Immersion:
   - Kindergarten & 1st grade: 100% in French
   - Grades 2, 3, 4, and 5: 80% in French, 20% in English
   - Grades 6, 7, and 8: 50% in French, 50% in English

2. Middle (delayed) Immersion:
   - Kindergarten: 20% in French, 80% in English
   - Grades 1, 2, and 3: 10% in French, 90% in English
   - Grades 4, 5, and 6: 80% in French, 20% in English
   - Grades 7 and 8: 50% in French, 50% in English

3. Late Immersion:
   - Kindergarten: 20% in French, 80% in English
   - Grades 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5: 10% in French, 90% in English
Grade 6                      100% in French
Grades 7 and 8                50% in French, 50% in English

**Cumulative Instructional Hours in French**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Early Immersion</th>
<th>Middle Immersion</th>
<th>Late Immersion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K – Grade 6</td>
<td>4680</td>
<td>2610</td>
<td>1590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K – Grade 8</td>
<td>5580</td>
<td>3510</td>
<td>2490</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The academic curriculum in early, middle, and late total immersion programs is usually the same as that of a regular program. In other words, during a 100 percent intensive education period in a second language, students are expected to learn the same academic materials as do students in an English-control school.

### 2.2.1.2 Partial Immersion

Partial immersion is a program in which at least half of the regular school instruction may be presented in a second language throughout the elementary grades. The other half of the day is conducted in English. The school district determines the course subjects to be instructed in the second or foreign language. Yet the partial immersion program does not include a period of total immersion. The most common formula is half of the instruction in each language. The expression "partial" refers to the fact that the students have not had the full experience of the "language bath." Unlike early total immersion programs, partial immersion presents literacy instruction in both languages simultaneously from the beginning of schooling. The
program focus is on developing student communicative and academic proficiency in the foreign or second language, as well as in the first language. In addition, students achieve grade-appropriate levels in all subject areas comparable to those attained by peers in English-only schools.

In the partial immersion program of Virginia Fairfax County Public Schools, math, science, and health are instructed through the medium of a foreign language. During the other half of the day, students learn language arts and social studies in English. Math, science, and health subjects were chosen for the beginning years of foreign language development because those subjects use manipulatives and concrete, hands-on activities. Both devices aid the natural second language acquisition process. Immersion teachers cooperate with the grade-level English teachers in order to integrate the total curriculum.

2.2.1.3 Immersion-type Program

As well as the two main categories above, there are varied immersion programs where the target language is used for a smaller proportion of instructional time. That is, the instructional time in a second language is much less than 50 percent of the total instructional time. These programs are described as "immersion-type" programs. The most common formula of the program is that one subject and language arts are taught through a second language. Yet, the proportion varies depending on the needs, desires and resources of an individual school district.
2.2.1.4 Double Immersion Program

In double immersion programs, two non-native languages are used as major media of curricular instruction during elementary school. For instance, in Montreal there are a number of double immersion programs that have been in existence for some years and that have selected French and Hebrew as immersion languages. French and Hebrew are appropriate because French is one of the official languages of Canada, and Hebrew has great religious and cultural significance.

In one double immersion program in Montreal, English is not taught until grade 2 or 3. From Kindergarten through grade 2 or 3, half of the regular school curriculum is through French and the other half through Hebrew. After grade 2 or 3, instruction hours in English are from 5 to 7 hours per week, and the remaining instruction time is devoted to French and Hebrew, half and half.

Meanwhile, in another double immersion program in Montreal, English and the two immersion languages of French and Hebrew are used as the media of instruction from the beginning of schooling. In the delayed double immersion, the amount of exposure to English decreases from 12 hours per week in kindergarten and grade 1 down to 9 hours in grade 6. In contrast, French instruction increases from 5 hours per week in kindergarten to 12 hours in grades 5 and 6. The time exposed to Hebrew is 12 or 13 hours in all grades, except kindergarten (15 hours).
2.2.2 Evaluating Immersion Models

Many researchers (Hart, Lapkin, Swain 1988; Parkin 1987; Morrison 1981; Stern 1984; Gray 1981) contend that an early total immersion program is the most effective way to develop foreign language proficiency. The result is to be expected: the amount of contact hours that are involved affect the degree of second language proficiency in the student. Additionally, intensive exposure to a super-saturated learning environment remains a key factor in language acquisition. Students in early total immersion programs normally accumulate better language skills with which to handle the abstraction curriculum presented in the upper elementary grades, secondary school, and high school.

Students in partial immersion programs do not perform at the same level as their total immersion peers do in foreign language proficiency. Three evaluations were carried out in Canada (Edwards, McCarrey, & Fu 1980; Genesee 1981; Swain & Lapkin 1982). The studies showed that from an overall perspective, partial immersion students perform less well than early total immersion students in all second language skills--writing, listening, reading, and grammar--except for oral production skill.

If many studies indicate total immersion programs are better instructional methods than partial programs, what is the most effective total immersion program among early, delayed, and late total immersions? Lapkin and Swain (1982) found in a study of delayed versus early total immersion
programs in Toronto that although early total immersion students in grade 6 (with 4,000 cumulative hours of second language instruction) perform as well as grade 6 delayed total immersion peers (with 2,560 cumulative hours in French) on tests of reading, speaking, and writing, the former students perform better than the latter on a listening comprehension test. In another study, by Lapkin and Cummins (1984), delayed immersion students in grade 7 scored less well than early total immersion peers on tests of not only listening, but also reading comprehension; there are no other comparisons on other language skills. From the above results, a conclusion may be formulated that early total immersion students perform as well or better than delayed total immersion children in second language proficiency.

In consideration of comparisons between early and late total immersion programs, investigations conducted in Montreal (Adiv, 1980; and Genesee, 1981) revealed that early total immersion students scored better than typical one-year late total immersion peers on tests of reading, speaking, writing, listening comprehension, and grammar. However, two-year late total immersion students achieved the same levels of proficiency in the second language as did early total immersion children. Meanwhile, in a comparison between early total immersion and two-year late total immersion programs by Morrison (1981) in Ottawa, students in an early total immersion program delivered a better performance than two-year late immersion peers on most tests of second language proficiency.
The different results of these two studies are due to the fact that the early total immersion program in Montreal provided much less instruction in French than did the early total immersion in Ottawa. The results might suggest that students in early total immersion programs achieve higher proficiency in a second language than do peers of one-year late total immersion, but equal or superior proficiency to two-year late total immersion children.

It might therefore appear that total immersion is the best method of second language instruction, and among all types of total immersion programs, early total immersion is the most preferable. Yet additional factors should be considered in comparing various immersion programs.

Provision of early, intensive and extended exposure to the second language is an essential ingredient for the success of immersion education. On the other hand, less cumulative, late and intensive exposure is also very effective in second language learning. Although late immersion students are exposed to the second language considerably less than early immersion children, they achieve practically the same level of proficiency as do the early immersion students.

According to Genesee (1981), average total instructional hours in a second language for early immersion students by the end of grade 8 are 5,000 hours, compared to 1,400 hours for the two-year late immersion children. The ratio of the two (former/the latter = 5,000/1,400) is 3.57 times as many
hours. If the results of the research by Genesee are accurate—that is, if students of late immersion programs obtain results in scholastic achievement in second language proficiency comparable to those of the early immersion students who have invested 3.57 times more total instruction hours—the late immersion program should prove to be an effective teaching method at less cost.

When the ratio (the second language achievement/invested instructional hours) is considered between early and late total immersion programs, the late immersion might prove superior to the early immersion. In other words, older children might be more effective learners than younger children.

Less cumulative but late intensive exposure to the second language also might provide a more effective means of second language acquisition than less intensive but more cumulative (or extended) exposure, as in partial or immersion-type programs. As mentioned earlier, grade 8 one-year late immersion children achieved higher proficiency in a second language than students in an immersion-type program who had accumulated twice as many hours as the late immersion program by the time of research (Lapkin, Swain, Kamin, & Hamma, 1982). That is, intensive exposure might be more crucial for second language acquisition than extended exposure. The amount of exposure, or length of instruction, to the second language is not necessarily correlated with the level of second language proficiency ultimately achieved.
In conclusion, when the same number of instructional hours are invested in two different programs, a more intensive program might prove superior to a more extended program of language acquisition; in addition, late intensive programs might be more efficient than early intensive programs.

Research in double immersion programs by Genesee and Lambert (1983) suggested that the delayed double immersion students scored significantly lower than did the early double immersion students in a number of French and Hebrew tests. In other words, delayed double immersion programs are inferior to early double immersion programs in promoting French and Hebrew language proficiency levels. As for the effect of double immersion on first language development, there was no adverse effect as a result of simultaneous acquisition of two non-native languages.

From these results, one conclusion regarding double immersion education may be drawn. As Genesee (1987) claims, the native language of students may interfere with their acquiring the second language in a late double immersion program, where three languages are simultaneously taught.

To this point, several different kinds of immersion programs in second language proficiency have been evaluated for level of effectiveness. Next, a consideration of bilingual education programs existing in the United States will be compared and contrasted to these immersion programs.
2.3 Bilingual Education Programs for Minority Language Students

Gonzalez (1982) outlined the terms and definitions of varied "bilingual education programs" for non-English or Limited-English-proficient students in the U.S.

1. Submersion. This approach calls for the placement of LEP (Limited English Proficient) children in classrooms where only English is used. No special attempt is made to help overcome the language problem, and the children's first acquired language (L1), is not used for instruction. For this reason, this approach is often described as the "sink or swim" method.

2. Structured English Immersion. In this approach, instruction is also provided in English, the child's second acquired language (L2). In this respect, this approach is similar to the submersion method, but there are important differences in other respects. In structured English immersion (SEI), it is required that teachers be able to understand the child's first language or L1. The children are permitted to use their language to address the teacher, although the latter will always respond in English.

3. Structured Home Language Immersion. In this approach, children are instructed exclusively in L1 for extended periods of time. The second language (L2) [e.g. English] is not used at all until the children have a mastery of L1 which is commensurate with their age,
and extent of formal schooling. It includes skills in reading. Said differently, the child first learns to use one language--his own--and having done so, can then learn to use the other.

4. Transitional Bilingual Education. This is the form of bilingual education that developed under the stimulus of federal funds provided mostly by Title VII of ESEA (Elementary Secondary Education Act). In it, subject matter is taught in the home language until the students' proficiency in English has been sufficiently developed to allow them to participate successfully in all-English classrooms. In addition to the use of L1 for the teaching of content curriculum, ESL methods and techniques are used to speed the learning of English. Over time, the use of L1 is gradually diminished and English is increased until it becomes the child's only school language.

In the 1950's and earlier, many minority language students experienced high rates of failure in schools where English was the only language used for all curricular instruction (Ogbu, 1978). With the goal to remedy this situation bilingual education programs for minority language children began to develop with the help of federal funds provided mostly by the Bilingual Education Act, known as Title VII of ESEA (Elementary and Secondary Education Act), launched in 1968. The legislation did not specify an exact model for bilingual programs, which resulted in the implementation of many inefficient
bilingual programs. In addition, the legislation did not apply to all minority language students.

In 1969, the Chinese community in San Francisco brought suit against the San Francisco school system to protest the situation of their children being instructed in an unfamiliar language. In 1974, the Supreme Court of the United States finally decided in favor of the Chinese community in this case. As a result of the Supreme Court's decision, most schools by 1975 were required to undertake bilingual education programs.

The Education Amendments Act of 1974, passed by the U.S. Congress, defined bilingual education for minority language students.

It is instruction given in, and study of, English and (to the extent necessary to allow a child to progress effectively through the education system) the native language of the children of limited English-speaking ability; and such instruction is given with appreciation for the cultural heritage of such children, and (with respect to elementary school instruction) such instruction shall (to the extent necessary) be in all courses or subjects of study which will allow a child to progress effectively through the educational system.

These programs were developed to help immigrant children enter the mainstream of English-speaking society. Study of the history and culture associated with the mother tongue of students is considered to be an integral part of bilingual education. Thus, a bilingual program, as delineated by the
Education Amendments Act of 1974, clearly aims for transitional bilingual education out of the five bilingual programs suggested in the beginning of this section.

The main difference between bilingual education programs and immersion programs is that native language instruction in bilingual education programs is intended to be temporary, while native language instruction in immersion is continual.

Bilingual education may be divided into two general categories: early-exit and late-exit programs. Students in the early-exit program are mainstreamed into English-only classes soon after they demonstrate English proficiency. Late-exit bilingual students are not allowed to enter all-English classes until grade 5 or 6.

2.3.1 Transitional (Early-exit) Bilingual Education

The most common bilingual education form for minority language children in the United States is transitional bilingual education known as early-exit bilingual education. Transitional (Early-exit) bilingual education does not aim for full bilingualism; the goal of this program is that student’s first language is used for mastery of grade-level academic skills and knowledge only until sufficient functional abilities in English are achieved. If early grade level content and concepts in science and math are taught in the first language of students, these subjects are more easily mastered than when taught

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* This program helps students progress in academic content areas at the same pace as the native, English-speaking students. This is because the course subjects are instructed in the student's first language, a language familiar to the individual. Teaching academic subjects in English to students who have limited English language proficiency may cause them to academically linger behind their English-speaking counterparts.

* Knowledge and experience obtained from academic content instruction in first language facilitates learning English in subsequent grades. For instance, students may easily learn English language skills related to the volcano, if they have learned of the volcano in their first language.

* Literacy skills transfer from one language to another. If students in transitional bilingual education programs learn to read and write in their first language, their literacy skills will transfer to English from their first language.

Transitional bilingual education programs start in kindergarten or grade 1. Students are placed in an all-English program by the beginning of grade 3 or grade 4. Students in this program exit relatively early in comparison to
developmental (late-exit) bilingual education in which the student’s first language is used for content instruction until the end of grade 6.

In this program, academic content areas are taught in the student’s first language as they learn their second language, English. According to Medina (1995), in the typical transitional bilingual education program, academic instruction is provided through the medium of student’s primary language, along with instruction in English oral language development. The program may also provide instruction in non-academic content areas such as music, art, and physical education through the second language, English. To accomplish this, students receive oral English lessons for 45 minutes each day, and participate in English-related activities for 45-60 minutes each day, in order to have opportunities to use English. Teachers emphasize the similarities and differences between English and the first language. English reading and writing are especially important. Reading and writing homework increase in difficulty as student’s English proficiency develops, with the goal of keeping the content interesting (Gersten & Jimenez, 1996).

As the student’s oral proficiency in English improves, the initial instruction language (student’s first language) gradually shifts to the second language, English. For a successful transitional bilingual education program, instruction in the first language gradually shifts to English and the language of instruction is changed, one subject at a time. The typical transition in subjects begins with mathematics, followed by reading and writing, then science, and
finally social studies (Genesee, 1999). In addition to this gradual shift, careful and accurate assessment in student English language development is needed to determine which students need additional support. Schools should also conduct assessments in the first language for all academic areas. Once students achieve full oral English proficiency, they enter the mainstream English class.

Once students become fluent English speakers and join the English-only class, they are nonetheless still non-native speakers who must acquire academic language skills. Thus, second language lessons should be sheltered until academic content is understood 100%, as with the English native speakers.

2.3.1.1 Sheltered Instruction

Sheltered instruction is an approach in which English is used as the medium of academic instruction. This approach is usually used for teaching language and subject content to students who have limited English proficiency. Classes are comprised solely of non-native speakers in English. The sheltered instructional approach may also be used to teach a foreign language and academic content to native American students in foreign language immersion.

Sheltered instruction teachers modify the core curriculum to meet the English development needs of students with limited English proficiency. In other words, the content materials are adapted to the student’s level of English proficiency. For instance, texts may be rewritten in more understandable
language or textual material may be graphically depicted. Supplementary materials are also used, such as graphs, visual aids, and hands-on material. For a higher level of understanding for students, teachers use specific sheltered strategies (e.g., elaborating on student responses, providing sufficient waiting time for students to respond, easy lecturing, after-school tutoring, etc.). By using modified curriculum and appropriate teaching strategies, the sheltered instruction method can be used in any language program (e.g., transitional bilingual education, developmental bilingual education, foreign/second language immersion, and two-way immersion programs).

2.3.1.2 Case Study in Transitional Bilingual Education

Kinney Elementary School, located in a predominantly Spanish-speaking community, started a transitional bilingual education program over 20 years ago. The school also offers an all-English program, but most students are enrolled in the transitional bilingual program.

Genesee (1999) suggests goals for this transitional bilingual education program. Students must be sufficiently proficient in English speaking and listening to participate in academic lessons of English-only classes. The students must also have the capacity to read and write in the second language, English, within a minimum of one year of grade level. In addition, the students must make appropriate grade-level achievement in all academic course areas.
Reading and writing, math, science, and social studies are taught in Spanish from kindergarten through Grade 2. Oral English language education is presented to students for 45 minutes a day. During the afternoon, both bilingual class students and their English-only peers participate in the same activities in music, art, and physical education. Math lessons in English start during the second half of Grade 2, using sheltered instruction; from the beginning of Grade 3, all math lessons incorporate sheltered instruction for the students. At the beginning of Grade 3, teachers present science and social studies lessons in Spanish; during the middle third of Grade 3, science is offered with sheltered instruction to students in English; social studies in the second language is delivered during the last third of Grade 3, using sheltered instruction. In Grade 4, teachers present all academic subjects in English throughout the school day. Fourth grade teachers also use sheltered techniques, because students are still learning to function academically in the second language.

All teachers in kindergarten through Grade 2 should have bilingual credentials, together with a good knowledge of bilingual teaching methodology, and a familiarity with Hispanic culture. The group of third and fourth grade teachers who have bilingual credentials is small. Bilingual teachers in Grade 3 and 4 are qualified to help new students with limited English proficiency who enroll for the first time in the middle and upper grades. Bilingual
educators also are necessary for the students who have been enrolled from the early grade, but have not sufficiently acquired good English oral skills.

2.3.2 Developmental (Late-exit) Bilingual Education

Developmental bilingual education is also called late-exit bilingual education (Ramirez, 1992). Students in late-exit bilingual education are unable to enter the English-only classes until Grade 5 or 6. In this program, academic subjects are taught in both English and the student’s native language. Mirroring transitional bilingual education, this program primarily addresses language minority students, and begins from kindergarten or Grade 1. Bilingual instruction is provided until grade 5 or 6; when possible, the program continues to the middle and high school.

The goal of developmental bilingual education is to promote grade-appropriate academic achievement in all subjects and full academic language proficiency in student’s first and second languages (Genesee, 1999). In contrast to transitional bilingual education, where the language goal is transition to all-English instruction, development bilingual education is designed to accommodate full bilingualism.

In this type of program, academic subjects are taught in the first language as the students learn English. Teachers teach for extended periods of time in one designated language in order to maximize academic proficiency achievement in each language. Mixing languages and translation are not allowed. Sheltered instructional methodology is used when teachers deliver
academic instruction in English. Teachers also use various teaching methods such as cooperative learning strategies, hands-on materials, multi-modal presentations, and advanced technological resources (Gonzalez, 1982).

There are several types of development bilingual education programs, which differ with respect to the percentage of time each language is used in the early grades. There are two popular models: the 90/10 model (incorporating 90% of student first language and 10% of their second language, English) and the 50/50 model. The following is a case study of a 90/10 model:

In the early 1980s, Mariposa Elementary School started a Spanish-English developmental bilingual program. In kindergarten, 90% of school instruction time was in Spanish; in Grade 1, 80% of instruction was offered in the student's first language. In other words, 10% of instruction addressed oral English development in kindergarten. In Grade 1, art, music, physical education, and some hands-on science were taught in the second language. In Grade 2, English literacy and math, incorporating 30% of instruction time, was introduced to students. By grade 3 and 4, English instruction had increased to 40% and 50%, respectively.

2.3.3 Effectiveness of Bilingual Education

The first national study of the success of bilingual education programs conducted by the American Institutes for Research (1977) found that on the average, bilingual program students were actually doing worse in English
language arts than their Hispanic counterparts, who were not participants in bilingual programs.

Rossell and Ross (1986) reviewed 79 studies on the subject from the 1960's until 1984. Only 28 studies "either followed the scientific requirement of random assignment to either a treatment or a control group or used statistical controls to compensate for the failure to do so." Of the analyzed 28 studies which passed this test of "methodological soundness," only eight studies found that students in transitional bilingual education learned a second language quicker than those in submersion programs; in 14 studies, transitional bilingual education programs demonstrated no difference among students in English achievement; the program had a negative impact in six studies. In other words, 71% of the studies showed transitional bilingual education to be no different or worse than the submersion program in second-language performance between treatment and comparison groups.

Yet many studies reflecting positive results have also reported that minority language students in bilingual education programs performed better on English language tests than peers in non-bilingual programs (Aguirre and Cepeda 1981; California State Legislature 1982; Rumberger 1981; Ramirez 1985; National Assessment for Educational Progress 1982). Advocates of transitional bilingual education contended that submersion programs fail to meet the educational needs of minority language students; these individuals aver that a distinct instructional treatment is needed to promote adequate
language development, academic achievement, as well as psychosocial adjustment for minority language children.

As a result of the above studies, note that bilingual educational programs for minority language children are more difficult to evaluate in comparison with submersion programs, in large part because minority language students in bilingual education programs differ greatly with respect to both English language proficiency and non-English language proficiency.

An advantage of bilingual education is the student's superior performance in the native language, although that is not a goal of the government policy. Some scholars argue that the ultimate goal of bilingual education should be that a student functions well in two languages. Carrillo (1977) stated that bilingual, bicultural education should not be looked upon as a tool for assimilation, or as merely a bridge to learning the national language and culture. Carrillo (1977) concluded that the development of bilingual, bicultural skills should not be terminated at a specific grade level, and that the American education system should move toward a bilingual society on the Canadian model. As a result of such arguments, a revised bilingual education program, called bilingual immersion education, was launched. Let us now turn to bilingual immersion programs.

2.4 Bilingual (Two-way) Immersion Programs for Both Majority and Minority Language Children

During the past three decades, immersion programs expanded rapidly across the United States under the influence of the successful Canadian
immersion programs. In the 1980’s, an offshoot of the immersion program attracted many educators in the United States. This offshoot was termed two-way, or bilingual, immersion program. The first two-way immersion program in the U.S. was established in Coral Way Elementary School in Dade County, Florida, in 1963 for the children of Cuban refugees who were victims of Castro’s coup d’etat of 1959. Since that time, two-way immersion education in the U.S. has grown to include over 182 programs in 18 states (Craig, 1995).

Bilingual immersion education combines the most significant features of both transitional bilingual education for language minority students and immersion education for language majority students. The bilingual immersion program is similar to the traditional immersion model not only in the basic assumption that a second language is best learned when it is the medium of instruction rather than only the object of instruction, but also in its goals, because the model aims for bilingual proficiency, academic achievement, and cross-cultural understanding.

Bilingual immersion programs in the U.S. include language majority (English-speaking) students and language minority children who are native speakers of the second language during both the non-English and English portions of the program. During the school years, at least 50 percent of the total curricular instruction in the bilingual immersion program is taught in the second language.
2.4.1 Theoretical Rationale

When language minority students are instructed through their first language with balanced second language support, these students can achieve higher academic levels than if they had been instructed in the second language only. Collier (1989) states that academic knowledge learned through one language can help acquire related academic knowledge in another language.

Students learn the second language best after their first language is firmly mastered; in particular, oral and literacy skills gained in the native language help students to acquire literacy and other language skills in the second language (Edelsky, 1982; Lanauze and Snow, 1989; Saunders and Goldenberg, 1999). In general, first language skills facilitate second language acquisition.

Swain and Lapkin (1982) indicates that language majority students also develop advanced levels of second language skills without compromising their academic achievement and first language development.

As mentioned earlier in reference to other immersion programs, language is acquired best when it is the medium of instruction rather than the focus of instruction. In a classroom, students need to communicate in order to learn academic content; they learn the second language in two-way immersion settings.
2.4.2 Salient Program Features

In an early total bilingual immersion program, English is gradually introduced until the curriculum is divided equally between English and the second language. In an early partial two-way immersion model, the curriculum is divided equally between English and the second language from the beginning school year.

With the goal for students to learn the second language effectively, teachers maximize the definite advantages of the program that single language immersion program does not have. Teachers give students multiple opportunities to interact with peers of the second language. Teachers encourage two language group students to speak in the language of instruction; mixing languages and translation are discouraged during the class.

In order for two language groups to participate in all school activities, the two languages must command equal status in the school. Public announcements are provided in two languages, as well. All teachers speak both languages fluently in order to optimize students’ second language skills. The teaching staff is able to communicate with any language group student outside the class.

2.4.3 King Elementary School’s Chinese and English Program

In 1990 King Elementary School started a two-way Chinese/English immersion program. The program began with two classes in kindergarten and
expanded one grade level each year until Grade 5. Then there were two
classes at each grade level.

Students at each grade level work in one language in the morning and
in the other language in the afternoon. Each class is balanced in the number
of Chinese and English native speakers. Curricular areas are divided into two
groups by language of instruction. Language arts, math, social studies, and
music are taught in English, while language arts, science, physical education,
and art instruction are provided in Chinese. The school links the curriculum
thematically across the two languages at each grade level.

2.4.4 Comparison between Bilingual Immersion Programs and Other
Programs

What features distinguish bilingual immersion programs from other
immersion programs and/or other bilingual education programs? First, the
bilingual immersion program does not have the "sheltered" feature of the
traditional immersion program. Language majority (English-speaking) and
language minority students are purposely mixed in the same instructional
setting.

Second, immersion programs and bilingual education programs have
been designed exclusively for language majority (English-speaking) students
and for language minority children, respectively, while bilingual immersion
programs have been developed for the needs of both native English speakers
and native speakers of other languages.
What is the advantage of a bilingual immersion education program over an immersion program? As was seen earlier, immersion programs are an effective way for English-speaking students to attain high levels of second language proficiency. Yet the immersion students had not attained native proficiency in the second language, even after six years of immersion instruction. These results were partially due to the language-learning limitations of most school environments. Unlike immersion programs in which only the teacher has native proficiency in the target language, bilingual immersion programs provide peer contact in the target language. That is, language minority children learn English from language majority friends, and in turn, English-speaking students learn the home language of the minority children. This approach offers a solution to some weaknesses of immersion programs. On second language acquisition and immersion instruction, Dr. Fred Genesee (1987) contends that by providing peer contact in the target language, bilingual immersion programs offer a solution to some of the shortcomings inherent in (Canadian-style) immersion programs where only the instructor has native proficiency in the target language. According to Vygotsky (1978), learning occurs through social interaction. The integration of two language groups facilitates second language acquisition because it promotes authentic interaction between two language groups.
2.4.5 Academic Achievement

In academic achievement, two-way immersion students showed positive academic results in subject areas as well as students in the regular English only curriculum. Collier (1992) showed in a study of two-way immersion student performance over five years that students experience an initial lag in second language proficiency which gradually disappears by grade three or four, while children who were educated in the program for 4 or 5 years tended to score well on standardized subject tests in English.

2.4.6 Parent Attitudes toward Bilingual Immersion Program

Saucedo in 1997 investigated parent attitudes toward a bilingual immersion program from 200 parents whose children were attending an Inter-American school in which a bilingual immersion program was implemented. His survey revealed that parents of language minority students chose to place their children in bilingual immersion programs, rather than in transitional bilingual education programs. Saucedo pointed out that bilingual programs served as a subtractive form of bilingualism rather than an additive or maintenance language model. Transitional bilingual education is terminated at a specific grade level, so that minority language parents view bilingual programs as a tool for assimilation to the main society. Minority language parents want to have their languages continuously employed as components of school curriculum. Alternatively, bilingual immersion programs meet their demands.
According to Saucedo’s survey, most parents had a favorable attitude toward the bilingual immersion program: 97% of the parents were satisfied with the program; 93% recommended it to other families; 95% and 97% of the two groups of parents were satisfied with their children’s native language development and second language development, respectively; 94% agreed that minority language students and majority language speakers could mutually learn from each other; 97% were satisfied with their child’s academic progress; and 98% agreed that students had demonstrated positive cross-cultural attitudes.

As can be seen by these percentages, two-way (or bilingual) immersion programs prove to be highly successful in achieving linguistic, academic, and cultural enrichment. Yet the disadvantages of the program present a real limitation. The program can be established only in a dual- or multi-lingual country. In South Korea, where only one language is used, the program will be extremely difficult to adopt.

2.5 Conclusion

In American schools, there are a variety of students with linguistically and culturally different backgrounds. Thus, different schools may have distinctive language programs. In this chapter, several program alternatives have been discussed for educating students in such diversity. Some programs meet the diverse and complex needs of minority language students who have limited English proficiency skills: transitional (early-exit) bilingual, developmental (late-exit) bilingual, and bilingual (two-way) immersion
programs. Other programs are implemented for majority language students (native-English-speaking students): foreign language immersion programs (early, delayed, and late immersions) and bilingual immersion programs. Bilingual immersion programs serve both majority and minority language students.

A number of language instructional approaches are implemented at present in America and other countries. Genesee (1999) summarizes four important programs that are currently being applied for many schools.

**Transitional (Early-Exit) Bilingual**

- **Language Goals:** Transition to all-English instruction
- **Cultural Goals:** Understanding of and integration into mainstream American culture
- **Academic Goals:** Same as district/program goals for all students
- **Student Characteristics:** Limited or no English; All students have same L1; Variety of cultural backgrounds
- **Grades Served:** Primary and elementary grades
- **Entry Grades:** K, 1, 2
- **Length of Student Participation:** 2-4 years
- **Participation of Main Stream Teachers,** provided Main Stream teachers receive training in sheltered instruction
- **Teacher Qualifications:** Bilingual certificate

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Instructional Materials, Texts, Visual Aids: In L1 and English; English materials adapted to student proficiency levels

Developmental (Late-Exit) Bilingual

- Language Goals: Bilingualism
- Cultural Goals: Integration into mainstream American culture and maintenance of home/heritage culture
- Academic Goals: Same as district/program goals for all students
- Student Characteristics: Limited or no English; All students have same L1; Variety of cultural backgrounds
- Grades Served: Elementary grades
- Entry Grades: K, 1, 2
- Length of Student Participation: Usually 6 years (+K), preferably 12 years (+K)
- Non-Participation of Main Stream Teachers: Stand-alone program has its own specially trained teachers
- Teacher Qualifications: Bilingual-multicultural certificate; Bilingual proficiency

Second/Foreign Language Immersion

- Language Goals: Bilingualism
- Cultural Goals: Understanding and appreciation of L2 culture and maintenance of home/mainstream American culture
- Academic Goals: Same as district/program goals for all students
• Student Characteristics: Speak majority language (English in U.S.); may/may not be from majority culture
• Grades Served: Early immersion serves K-8, preferably K-12
• Entry Grades: K, 1
• Length of Student Participation: Usually 6 years (+K), preferably 12 years (+K)
• Participation of Main Stream Teachers: Yes; mainstream teachers teach English curriculum
• Teacher Qualifications: Regular certification; Training in immersion pedagogy; Bilingual proficiency
• Instructional Materials, Texts, Visual Aids: In L2 (with adaptations as needed), plus English texts, where appropriate

**Bilingual (Two-way) Immersion**

• Language Goals: Bilingualism
• Cultural Goals: Maintenance/integration into mainstream; American culture and appreciation of other culture
• Academic Goals: Same as district/program goals for all students
• Student Characteristics: Native English speakers and students with limited or no English; variety of cultural backgrounds
• Grades Served: K-8, preferably K-12
• Entry Grades: K, 1

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- **Length of Student Participation:** Usually 6 years (+K), preferably 12 years (+K)
- **Participation of Main Stream Teachers,** provided mainstream teachers have special training
- **Teacher Qualifications:** Bilingual/immersion certification; Bilingual proficiency; Multicultural training
- **Instructional Materials, Texts, Visual Aids:** In minority language and English, as required by curriculum of study

If a school wants to adopt a program aiming for bilingual proficiency and the population to be served is an English-speaking minority, the foreign/second language immersion program will be the best choice. If a school needs an educational approach for bilingual proficiency, and the population to be served is composed only of limited English proficient students, it is recommended that a developmental bilingual program be adopted. If a school decides to select a program aiming for bilingualism and there are a majority of English-speaking students who want to share study in the program with limited English proficient students, two-way immersion is chosen in the school. Transitional bilingual education is recommended if a school decides to adopt a program not aiming for bilingualism, and where only limited English proficient pupils are served. The school district carefully chooses a future program in order to maximize its effectiveness.
When each school chooses and implements an effective program among the varied educational approaches for students with diverse linguistic backgrounds, program organizers in the school understand the available alternative programs and carefully consider the school's particular goals and resources, as well as the needs of its students and parents.
CHAPTER 3. JUNG'S AFTER-SCHOOL ENGLISH IMMERSION PROGRAM (JAEIP) AND JUNG'S AFTER-SCHOOL ENGLISH REGULAR PROGRAM (JAERP): STUDENT PROGRESS AFTER FOUR MONTHS OF IMPLEMENTATION

3.1 Methodology

3.1.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to compare the achievement of the second language reading skills between a higher grade (4th) elementary student group instructed in an after-school English immersion program and a same age group educated in an after-school regular English program. This research will focus on reading language skill achievement. Other language skills (speaking, listening, and writing) will not be tested.

Both groups were taught in the same institute by the same teacher (the researcher). The students in the after-school English immersion program were taught three subjects—social studies, science, and English language arts—through the medium of the second language (English), while the children in the after-school regular English program were taught English via their first language (Korean).

The goal of this project was to compare the successful immersion education with the conventional foreign language teaching where the focus is primarily on the teaching of the language itself. This was the first time that this type of research was carried out in Korea. A secondary goal is that
findings from this study will be instrumental in permitting prospective immersion teachers to determine whether the innovative immersion program is as effective in a Korean setting as in other immersion programs abroad.

In order to compare the second language attainment of an immersion group with that of a regular group, the researcher hypothesized that the level of second language achievement of students in the after-school English immersion program would be superior in reading language skills to that of children in the after-school regular English program. The following questions for the successful implementation of the immersion program in an institution setting were considered:

-What were the immersion program's goals?
-What kind of model was implemented in the immersion program?
-How were students selected and placed?
-What teaching strategies were used?
-How was student progress monitored?
-How were qualified materials provided?
-How was the curriculum planned for the program?

3.1.2 Program Goals

The goals of the after-school English immersion program were as follows:

* Students enrolled in the immersion program will receive instruction exclusively in the target language and will focus on four basic second
language areas: vocabulary, fluency, reading for information, and mechanics and usage.

* Students in the after-school “regular” English program will follow the traditional approach and be taught via the Korean language, focusing primarily on the “mechanics and usage,” or grammar part of the language.

3.1.3 Program Design

As many studies indicated, early total immersion is an ideal form of second language instruction. However, the total immersion program could not be applied to the after-school English immersion class, because students of the after-school immersion program received limited second language instruction. Thus, it was necessary to find a desirable immersion program suitable for this institutional setting.

This research evaluated the effectiveness of the immersion program within a limited period (4 months) and with limited instruction (six hours a week in class). Accordingly, there were several factors to consider for the instructional design of a successful immersion program: age of students, course subjects, etc.

Before considering the age of students in the immersion program, a clear answer was required for the next question, "What is the optimal age for second language learning?" The early total immersion program is basically developed under the theory that younger children approach second-language
learning with an ease and naturalness that is not found in older learners; second
language acquisition is blocked in the case of older learners by the
development of formal operations. Asher and Garnice (1969) contend that
pronunciation ability decreases with age. Steinberg (1982) adds that motor
skills peak and then decline after 9 years of age. Thus, young children can
easily access native pronunciation. Swain (1979) also concludes that students
learning in a naturalistic context gain greater fluency than those with a later
initial exposure. According to Genesee (1984), older students may have had
experiences or formed negative attitudes that may jeopardize second language
learning.

Yet Singleton (1992) asserts that students who begin formal instruction
in L2 at a later age tend to catch up with students who begin at an earlier age.
In addition, many scholars agree that older students may be more efficient
learners in all cognitive domains than younger children because cognitive
ability increases with age. These cognitive skills are very important for
students to decontextualize and classify language. In addition, as mentioned
earlier, Lapkin and Swain (1982) found that early total immersion students in
grade 6 who received 4,000 cumulative hours of second language instruction
are equivalent to grade 6 delayed total immersion peers, who received 2,560
instructional hours in their second language on tests of reading, speaking, and
writing—but not in listening comprehension. According to Genesee (1981),
Australian late total immersion students, who had been exposed to the second
language considerably less than the early immersion peers, displayed almost the same level of proficiency as early immersion students. Accordingly, an assumption may be made that younger children are not necessarily more effective language learners than older children.

The immersion program in this study was based on the theory that the time around grades 4, 5 or 6 is neither too late nor too early for children to learn the concepts and skills of literacy and numeracy in a second language. Therefore, the students in my after-school immersion program were selected from grade 4 rather than kindergarten and first grade. In other words, as a preference, my research subjects were selected as more cognitively developed children rather than as natural language learners, in order to obtain better results for the research within a limited period. Meanwhile, the age of the comparison group pupils (non-immersion students) in my after-school “regular” program was also grade 4, in order to be given the same age condition as the immersion group students.

In considering the instructional hours invested for the immersion education, my determination was to give students as many instructional hours as possible. Yet because students in my English immersion program attended class after being in a regular school for at least 5 or 6 hours a day, an additional full-time extracurricular schedule (namely, more than the usual 5 hours a day as found in total immersion programs) was unrealistic. As will be mentioned later, the Extended Core program (Core French, 5 periods weekly; social
studies, 3 times weekly) developed in New Brunswick, Canada, delivers higher oral proficiency skills than the basic "Core" program (French, 5 periods weekly). Twenty to thirty percent of students in the Extended Core program reach the oral proficiency level achieved by early total immersion children. This is accomplished by Extended Core students who have had only 15% French time-on-task (1,750 hours), compared to early total immersion students who have accumulated 6,000 hours of French instruction. Thus, the decision was made to give my immersion students six hours of instruction per week, the minimum of instructional hours required for the success of immersion education. Similarly, children in the regular program also were instructed under the same conditions (6-hours weekly instruction) as their immersion peers.

As a result of the conditions above, my immersion program might be described as a delayed immersion-type or delayed extended core program. The curriculum in my program was as follows. Elementary students in grade 4, who were enrolled in the after-school immersion program, received 2 hours of instruction every other day except Sunday during the 4 month research period; the teacher provided English instruction in 3 academic subjects and used only English with the students (English language arts for 2 hours weekly; Social Studies for 2 hours weekly; and Science for 2 hours weekly). Meanwhile, the curriculum of the regular program provided that students be instructed in English language arts in their native language for 2 hours during
every except Sunday during the research period: English language arts only, for 6 hours weekly.

In lesson hours, the instructor taught students in the immersion program on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday (non-immersion students on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday) during the first 2 months, and instructed them on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday during the following 2 months (non-immersion children on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday). This variation provided that if a single instructor taught two groups, the instructor was to give the same condition in class hours and days to both groups, for accurate results. Here, readers might have two questions:

1. Why did the researcher choose to teach social studies and science in the immersion program rather than other subjects, such as mathematics and the arts?

2. What level of language proficiency is prerequisite to the fruitful study of English in an immersion class, where the subject matter is taught through a second language?

Ideally, a program would teach students as many subjects as possible, rather than to address one or two specific subjects. Nonetheless, a choice was made on one or two subjects other than language arts for my immersion program due to the limited instructional hours. Although there was no general agreement about which choice of subjects could be effectively taught in a second language, for my program a random selection of one or two subjects was not
feasible. It is common in language education to state that deep cultural understanding is absolutely indispensable for language competency. If mathematics were selected as a subject in the immersion program, the students would likely learn language knowledge related to mathematics, a subject which does not address cultural knowledge. Thus, I preferred to select social studies and science, courses where language knowledge needed for social life was more prevalent.

Consider the question of prerequisite proficiency levels. In English dual-language high schools in Hungary, the first year is devoted to intensive study of a second language before studying content subjects in a second language the following year. Literature also shows that sheltered programs at the university level require an intermediate proficiency level for second language learning students to handle the complex subject materials. Yet we find the fact that young children with no knowledge of the second language do very well in subject content achievement in immersion schools.

In regard to the second question, the prerequisite to study in an immersion program is dependent upon the difficulty level of the material. For high school or university students, the language proficiency required to handle academic instruction through a second language in an immersion program is much greater, since such instruction is more rigidly organized with much more cognitively demanding and context reduced content. In other words, materials used as text are commensurate to students’ cognitive ability, but not
to their language ability. Yet for the elementary students, a prerequisite to study in an immersion program may not be needed, because materials are less cognitively demanding and more context embedded, so students can easily approach the second language without any linguistic knowledge. At this point, we could postulate that a prerequisite might be unnecessary for university students if the materials commensurate to the cognitive ability of elementary students are used as college student textbooks.

The instructional content selected for students of my immersion program at grade 4 was not equivalent to that of 4th grade students in the United States. The materials were selected from textbooks used for students at grade 1 or 2 in the United States. The content commensurate to younger children's cognitive ability might be considered much easier to the older children, and is cognitively undemanding.

The selected materials for the immersion program were as follows. They were popular textbooks used in elementary schools of the U.S.: Language Arts for grade 2 published by the McGraw Hill Companies; HBJ Social Studies and HBJ Science for grade 1 published by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc. The instructional textbook used for language arts in the regular program of my institute was equivalent to that for students in the immersion program.

Subjects for my research program were 4th grade students (10 years old). Class size for each class in the experimental group and control group was 40 pupils (20 boys and 20 girls in each class). A total 80 subjects were
equally divided into two groups by random sampling in order to diminish problems caused by ex-learned research variables. I made two boxes (one for boys and the other for girls). In each box, there were 40 notes marked "immersion class" or "non-immersion class." For example, if a student selected a note written "immersion class" in a box, the student was entered into the immersion class.

The class size at the end of the program fell to around 25, because of attrition in the course of the research period. Students who left the program were not replaced. The rate of attrition from both programs was controlled so that a nearly equivalent level of student numbers was maintained. The research project was originally scheduled to last for 10 months; however, the study lasted only 4 months, and half of the students dropped the classes during those 4 months. The following table depicts information about the program designs of my institute for the research project. One group educated in an immersion class was called "experimental group (EG)," and the other in a regular class "control group (CG)."

**Program Design**

Experimental Group (EG) vs. Control Group (CG)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course subjects</th>
<th>EG</th>
<th>CG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English language arts</td>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>English language arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table con’t)
### Teaching Materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MGH language arts (G2)</th>
<th>HBJ social studies (G1)</th>
<th>HBJ science (G1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Language used during instruction

- English
- Korean

### Number of students

- 40 (20 in the end)
- 40 (23 in the end)

### Age (grade level) of subjects

- 4th in the elementary school

### Length of teaching time

- 2 hours a day
- 3 days a week for 4 months:
  - English language arts, 2 hours weekly;
  - Social studies, 2 hours weekly;
  - Science, 2 hours weekly

- 2 hours a day
- 3 days a week for 4 months:
  - English language arts, 6 hours weekly

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### 3.1.4 Recruitment and Enrollment Procedures

Students for the research project were recruited in Kyungil Elementary School located in Ansan City, Kyonggi Province, Republic of Korea. The city is in the mid-western part of the Korean peninsula.

**General Information of Ansan City**

*Population: 551,107 (as of September, 1998)*

*Special Characteristics: It is a historic and art city from the ancient times. Now it is becoming a newly rising industrial city.*
*Education Facilities: kindergarten (64); elementary school (33); junior high school (13); high school (11); junior college (2); university (1); industrial school (1); special other school (3)

*Industrial Structure: primary (1%), secondary (44%), tertiary (55%)

**General Information of Kyungil Elementary School**

*Address: 591-1 Seongpo-dong Ansan City, Kyonggi Province, South Korea

Number of Students: male: 956, female: 873, total: 1829

*History: established in 1987

*Classification: public school

*Principal: Younsung Jeong

*Class Organization: 7 classes each grade (but 6 classes in grade 6)

*Faculty: 1 principal, 2 vice-principals, 41 teachers, 7 others

I held a meeting with one of two vice principals (named Suchul Park) in Kyungil Elementary School, and presented a brochure explaining the immersion and regular programs. The following information was provided: concrete definitions of immersion and regular programs, the instructional design, the goals of the programs, and successful evaluation results of several other immersion programs. After meeting with the teachers, the vice principal gave permission for students to be taught at the fourth grade level. At the meetings with the vice principal, he was notified of special requisites: the students' primary language had to be Korean (English native speakers cannot participate in the program); students selected for participation in these
programs had to remain enrolled until the end of the research period. However, the classes could not be mandatory, since they were after-school classes. Students would be divided into two groups (immersion and regular groups) by random sampling.

3.1.5 Monitoring of Students' Progress

A variety of means was employed to monitor the academic progress of the students, such as a journal about daily classroom events and about effective teaching strategies used in this teaching situation. Multiple teaching strategies from the bilingual pedagogic literature were applied in the instructional setting and then evaluated. In addition, homework and tests (end-of-chapter, cumulative) were assigned.

3.1.6 Teaching Strategies

As instructor, I used a variety of teaching techniques in the immersion program and in the regular program in order to facilitate comparison between the groups.

3.1.6.1 Teaching Strategies for Immersion Class

Most students did not understand what was spoken from the inception of the class. Tactics of becoming either a comedian or a good actor seemed necessary for teaching the limited English proficient learners. Thus, many gestures, used with body language, provided contextual clues for students to comprehend the meaning of what was said. In addition, for their better
understanding, pictures were drawn on the board to facilitate understanding and create class interest.

Attempts were made to send a message in several different ways. Sentences were spoken slowly, repeated, and then paraphrased. In addition, easy and precise words were used. However, comprehension came slowly, because even easy words were difficult ones for the students. In an immersion class, especially for the beginners, it is impossible for a teacher to make students understand 100% of the explanation, so a modicum of time was spent in explaining a word, a topic or a sentence in the target language. My sense of instruction indicated that although the students might not comprehend the meaning of the target word the first time, they could do so the next time.

Task-based instruction proved helpful for the language learners. For instance, if the students were instructed to draw a picture of a rabbit, those who understood the term drew the animal. The drawing became pivotal for the teaching, as questions were posed: Did you draw its head? How many legs does it have? Did you draw it having two long ears? Raise your hands if you finished the drawing.

Most students felt uninterested in a class taught in a second language that they did not understand. The students chose sleeping during the class as the best way to kill time. Thus, when someone tried to sleep, that student was asked a question. When class attention began to wander, the students were allowed to stand and stretch their arms; or were permitted a one-minute
chatting time. Everybody chatted in Korean; they were not encouraged to speak in the target language during the chatting time.

It seemed an effective teaching method to let students memorize sets of related words. For instance, the class was asked to draw a map of their school and name each part of the map. Key words were written, such as gate, playground, office, and gym. Such relation-bonding tactics facilitate memory of the related words.

Other questions were related to a word in the textbook, in order for students to expand their knowledge about the given word. When I compared the color of the polar bear with the elephant in a class, I could teach them several other colors: “What is the color of my T-shirt?” and “What color do you like best?”

Teachers should be mindful that children must be tendered questions with short answers like yes or no, or be asked to raise their hands or stand. This is because beginners are unable to give long answers. In realization of this fact, questions requiring short answers were asked. Yet, sometimes questions were posed that required longer responses. Although complex answers were difficult for the students, such a practice promoted the improvement of communicative skills. Many students made a mistake when they uttered long sentences. The ungrammatical sentences were corrected without reprimand.
Good textbooks for the beginner should include as many pictures as possible. Explanations are more easily understood through pictures. Pictures drawn on the board were also important keys to understanding.

3.1.6.2 Teaching Strategies for Non-Immersion Class

All of the class were beginners in English, with limited grammatical skills or word power. Thus, it was necessary to underline almost all of the words to be learned for the day in the book, and tell the meaning of each word. Then an explanation was tendered for the grammar needed for the translation; then each sentence was translated into Korean. Last, pronunciation of the sentences was provided. The non-immersion class proved to be easier to teach than the immersion class.

It was, however, difficult and time-consuming to teach the students how to pronounce the words in the book. In the Korean language, each vowel or consonant grapheme has one corresponding pronunciation, but in English, each vowel or consonant grapheme has one or several ways to be pronounced. Students became confused. For instance, the Korean vowel grapheme “ㅏ” must always be pronounced as “a,” in the English word “father.” Yet, the English vowel grapheme “a” can be pronounced in several ways, as in the words (father, apple, able, etc.). Thus it was necessary to explain the pronunciation of each letter, syllable, word, phrase, and sentence. This process required half of the class time in order to teach the proper pronunciation of those words learned in the textbook for that day.
Before the teacher translates a sentence, it is important that the students glean the meaning of the sentence for themselves in order to improve personal reading ability. Students were provided with the meaning of all words in each sentence, but the sentence was not translated beforehand. Before explanation, 2 or 3 minutes were extended. The student could personally translate the sentence; sometimes consultation with a friend sitting close-by was allowed. Then, the translations were corrected with the help of the instructor. That kind of teaching strategy effectively improved the reading and understanding skills. In addition, consulting with friends about a difficult sentence made the class more interesting, and learning how to translate a sentence from their friends stimulated interest.

A stipulation that students must be attentive to explanations is important. Explanations were made only when the class focused on the instructor, ready to listen. Most children were inattentive, unable to focus their attention for long periods of time. Varied methods might be employed to gain their attention. Above all, the class should be interesting. The teacher sometimes presented a comedic account of interesting gossip. On the other hand, the teacher sometimes scolded.

3.1.7 Research Questions

1. What is the student level of L2 proficiency at the beginning of instruction?
How does the level of second language proficiency change after 4 months of instruction?
2. *What are performance differences between immersion and regular program students on an English reading proficiency level?*

### 3.1.8 Data Collection and Analysis

Data collected from the pre- and post-test administrations were limited to descriptive statistics, consisting primarily of the calculation of raw scores, converted scores and their means and differences. For the evaluations of student reading proficiency in English, they were given four examinations: Vocabulary (10 questions), Fluency (10), Reading for Information (10), and Mechanics and Usage (15).

For instance, suppose the data students earned in the pre- and post-test of "vocabulary" are as follows (maximum score = 10).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Immersion Group A</th>
<th>Non-immersion Group B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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From the above table, notice that a total of 14 students participated in the research (7 children in each group); two immersion students and one non-immersion child dropped the class and did not take the post-test.

From the pre- and post-test results, we can establish the gain-score distribution with values \((Y - X)\) and \((Q - P)\). The gain-score distribution shows how much each student’s reading performance in “vocabulary” domain changed in the research period.

For the calculation of mean score of immersion group A in the “vocabulary” pre-test, all pre-test scores of the experimental group A are added together, and the added score is again divided by the number of subjects who took both pre- and post-test. Subjects who did not take the post-test are not included in the calculation of mean score. Thus, the mean score is calculated as: \(M(X) = \frac{\sum X}{N} = \frac{2 + 3 + 1 + 2 + 1}{5} = 1.8\).

We can calculate the mean score of each distribution likewise:

* The calculation of mean score of immersion group A in “vocabulary” post-test is 4.4: \(M(Y) = \frac{\sum Y}{N} = \frac{5 + 5 + 5 + 2 + 5}{5} = 4.4\)

* The calculation of mean score of “vocabulary” pre-test in non-immersion group B is 2.167: \(M(P) = \frac{\sum P}{N} = \frac{2 + 2 + 4 + 1 + 1 + 3}{6} = 2.167\)

* The calculation of mean score of “vocabulary” post-test in non-immersion group B is 3.5: \(M(Q) = \frac{\sum Q}{N} = \frac{3 + 4 + 4 + 2 + 3 + 5}{6} = 3.5\)

Finally, we can calculate how much students’ reading performances in “vocabulary” domain changed in the research period. The mean-gain-scores
of immersion and non-immersion students in "vocabulary" segment are calculated as $M(Y) - M(X)$ and $M(Q) - M(P)$ respectively. Thus, the difference between immersion and non-immersion students regarding how much their reading performances in the "vocabulary" segment changed in the research period is 1.267: $\{M(Y) - M(X)\} - \{M(Q) - M(P)\} = [4.4 - 1.8] - [3.5 - 2.167] = 2.6 - 1.333 = 1.267$. Consequently, from the above table, readers can know that immersion students gained more knowledge about words compared to the peer students who were instructed in non-immersion classes. Using the same calculation methods above, we can get mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in other domains (Fluency, Reading for Information, and Mechanics and Usage).

As will be shown in the next chapter, Table 16 shows mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in each segment and total domains. We studied how to get mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in each domain. Now consider mean scores in total domains. For the calculation of pre-test mean scores of immersion students in the reading tests (total domains), all pre-test mean scores of immersion children in each domain are added together. We can get pre- and post-test mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students likewise.

3.1.9 Research Participants

A total of 80 students participated in the immersion program research when the research started. Forty students were instructed in an immersion
class. Similarly, 40 students were taught in a non-immersion class. All students were 4th graders in Kyoung Elementary School, and native Korean speakers. In terms of their second language (English) ability, they had non- or limited language proficiency. This research was originally made in order to measure student progress after 10 months of implementation. Yet because of the failure of controlling the number of students, the research period could not last more than 4 months. A total of 43 students remained in the programs at the end of 4 months from the starting point (20 students in the immersion class and 23 children in the non-immersion class). A total of 37 students dropped the classes in 4 months.

3.2.0 Instrumentation

3.2.0.1 Language Assessment Scales (LAS)

The Language Assessment Scales are a comprehensive assessment system designed to test a student’s language proficiency. The LAS test chosen for this research measures listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English.

Purpose

The most recent forms of the LAS tests for grades 1-6 include LAS-Oral (Forms 1C & 1D) and LAS-Reading/Writing (Forms 1A/1B & 2A/2B). The LAS consists of an oral, reading, and writing language proficiency assessment system. According to the LAS Preview Materials Booklet (1991), LAS results may serve several purposes: assessing the learner's language
proficiency, placement decisions, reclassification, monitoring progress over
time and pinpointing a learner's instructional needs. From the LAS tests, we
can draw at least three proficiency classifications: a LAS-Oral Score, a LAS-
Reading and Writing Score, and a Language Proficiency Index (LPI) which
combines the LAS-Oral, Reading and Writing scores. My research includes
only LAS-Reading test results (an LAS-Reading Score). The proficiency
levels are:

**LAS Reading Score (as shown in table 2 below)**

1. Non Reader
2. Limited Reader
3. Competent Reader

Different levels of the LAS are available, depending on the age and grade of
the learners:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Instruments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-K, K, Grade 1</td>
<td>Pre-LAS (ages 4-6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>LAS Oral Level 1 (age 7+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 2-3</td>
<td>LAS Oral Level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LAS Reading/Writing, Level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 4-6</td>
<td>LAS Oral Level 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LAS Reading/writing, Level 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 7-12</td>
<td>LAS Oral Level 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LAS Reading/Writing, Level 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12+</td>
<td>Adult LAS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the Oral Technical Report (1990), the LAS-Oral (Level I) and LAS-Reading/Writing (Forms 1A/1B & 2A/2B) for students in grades 1 through 6 were normed on 1,671 learners. The tests share the following characteristics. First, 55.9% of the total norming sample (n = 3560) were in grades 1 through 6. Second, 8.63% of the sample was from Southern California, 34.75% from Texas, 6.33% from Northern California, 4.26% from New York and 46.04% from Illinois and Wisconsin. Third, 33% of the sample used English as a home language and 61% came from a Spanish home language background, while 6% came from 8 or more non-English backgrounds. In this research the LAS-Reading (Form 1A) for students in grade 4 in Kyoungil Elementary School was used for the language reading proficiency test.

**Administration Time**

The reading test (i.e., vocabulary, fluency, reading for information, and mechanics and usage) may be administered in a small group setting. Proctors are recommended for groups of more than 15 students. In this research, one proctor took care of 2 groups of less than 40 students.

**Scoring**

The reading tests were scored as correct or incorrect according to the answer key. The scorer must be a proficient, literate speaker of the English language. The teacher, Jaiwon Jung, scored the tests.
Reliability and Validity

The reliability coefficient for the reading portion of the LAS (Form 1A) is as follows. The range of correlation coefficient for Form 1A was between .76 and .91.

Procedures

In September, 1999, the researcher administered the LAS-Reading Assessment Scale to all students (a total of 80) in immersion and non-immersion programs in their native language for pre-test; in January, 2000, the researcher conducted the LAS-Reading Assessment Scale to all remaining students (a total of 43) for post-test.
CHAPTER 4. TEST RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The LAS (Language Assessment Scale)-Reading test examines student reading proficiency in English. The LAS-Reading test (form 1A) consists of 4 domains for teacher evaluations of student reading proficiency in English: Vocabulary (10 questions), Fluency (10), Reading for Information (10), and Mechanics and Usage (15). All items are multiple choice. In the Vocabulary section, the student looks at each picture and chooses the word that tells what the picture shows. In the Fluency section, the student is given one or more sentences with a blank to fill out from the four choices. In Reading for Information sub-test, students read a story and then choose the best answers to complete ten sentences about what they have read. In the Mechanics and Usage sub-test, the student finds a grammatically correct answer that belongs in the blank space in the sentence.

The test is made up of a total of 45 questions. Each domain has 10 questions except for the mechanics and usage domain which has 15 questions. The number of correct answers students earn in the pre- and post-test may be converted to the Reading Standardized Score as shown in Table 1 below. For example, suppose a student got 21 correct answers out of total 45 questions, and the resulting Reading Standardized Score is 47. In terms of their reading
TABLE 1
Reading Form 1A
Reading Standardized Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Standardized</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Standardized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>36</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
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<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>42</td>
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<td>93</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>44</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tables 3 through 6 show raw scores of immersion students in vocabulary, fluency, reading for information, and mechanics and usage segments of the LAS reading test, respectively. Tables 7 through 10 show raw scores of non-immersion students in the same domains above, respectively. Table 11 and Figure 1 through Table 15 and Figure 5 show mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in vocabulary, fluency, reading for information, mechanics and usage, and total domains, respectively. From Table 16 and Figure 6, we see the mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in each domain, as well as total domains. Table 17 shows that the mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in total domains are converted to the Reading Standardized Scores based on Table 1.
In Table 18, the Reading Standardized Scores categorize immersion and non-immersion students into one of three groups (Non-Reader, Limited Reader, and Competent Reader) based on table 2.

4.2 Test Results

4.2.1 Raw Score in Each Segment of LAS Test

From inspection of tables 3 through 10 below, we can easily know the improvement of each immersion and non-immersion student in vocabulary, fluency, reading for information, and mechanics and usage domain by comparing pre-test to post-test. Yet, it is not clear that English-Immersion students received higher gains in language reading achievement than Non-English-Immersion peers. First, the number (20 persons) of immersion students who took both a pre-test and a post-test is different from that (23 students) of non-immersion children who took the two tests. However, this problem can be solved by mean scores, which were added under each table. Second, tables 3 through 10 only show mean scores separately of immersion and non-immersion students in pre- and post-tests of each domain. Therefore we need Table 11 and Figure 1 through Table 15 and Figure 5 from which we can easily compare immersion student mean scores to non-immersion student mean scores of pre- and post-test in each domain and total domains.

4.2.2 Mean Scores of Students in Vocabulary Domain

As you can see in Table 11 and Figure 1, non-immersion students on an average got a total 2.478 mean score out of 10 maximum score in the pre-
### TABLE 3

**Raw Score in Vocabulary Segment of LAS Test (Immersion Students; Maximum Score = 10)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Gains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td>2.850</td>
<td>6.0500</td>
<td>3.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>Gains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Student 4</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Student 5</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Student 6</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Student 8</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-immersion Students</td>
<td>2.478</td>
<td>4.783</td>
<td>2.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immersion Students</td>
<td>2.850</td>
<td>6.050</td>
<td>3.200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1:** Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Vocabulary Domain (Maximum Score = 10)
test of vocabulary domain and 4.783 mean score in the post-test of the same domain. Meanwhile, immersion students on an average got 2.850 correct answers (mean score) out of 10 questions (maximum score) in the pre-test of vocabulary domain and 6.050 in the post-test of the same domain. Therefore, immersion students on an average got 3.200 gains (6.050 − 2.850) in vocabulary domain, and non-immersion students on an average got 2.305 gains (4.783 − 2.478) in the same domain. Accordingly, we can conclude that immersion students got some higher gains in the Vocabulary segment in this 4 month research period than non-immersion students. From this result, we might say that immersion students normally gained more knowledge about words, compared to peer students who are instructed in non-immersion classes.

4.2.3 Mean Scores of Students in Fluency Domain

In Table 12 and Figure 2, non-immersion students received a total 0.043 mean score out of 10 maximum score in the pre-test of Fluency domain and 0.043 mean score in the post-test of the same segment. Meanwhile, immersion students on an average got 0.400 mean score from 10 maximum score in the pre-test of Fluency domain and 0.750 in the post-test of the same domain. Thus, immersion students on an average got 0.350 gains (0.750 − 0.400) in Fluency domain, and non-immersion students on an average gained 0.000 (0.043 − 0.043) in the same domain. According to the above result, we reach a conclusion that immersion students received a few higher gains than non-immersion students did in Fluency domain, unlike the Vocabulary segment.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fluency</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Gains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-immersion Students</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immersion Students</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.350</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Fluency Domain (Maximum Score = 10)
after the 4 month teaching period. Yet, it cannot actually be said that normal students who are taught in immersion classes gain in fluency level compared to the peer children instructed in non-immersion classes. This is because the results (gains) both group students received in the research period are identical: 0.000 and 0.350.

4.2.4 Mean Scores of Students in Reading for Information Domain

As Table 13 and Figure 3 show us, a non-immersion student on an average received a total 0.478 score out of 10 in the pre-test of Reading for Information segment and a 3.000 score in the post-test of the same domain. Meanwhile, an immersion student on an average received 0.750 correct answers out of 10 questions in the pre-test of Reading for Information domain and 5.900 in the post-test of the same domain. As a result, an immersion student on an average received 5.150 gains (5.900 - 0.750) in the Reading for Information section, and a non-immersion student on an average received 2.522 gains (3.000 - 0.478) in the same domain. Wherefore, the results suggest that an immersion student received some higher gains in the Reading for Information segment in a 4 month instructional period than a non-immersion student. From the results of Table 13 and Figure 3, we might conclude that immersion students normally gain more information after reading a long paragraph made up of many sentences when compared to the
TABLE 13
Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Reading for Information Domain (Maximum Score = 10)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading for Information</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Gains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-immersion Students</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>2.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immersion Students</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>5.900</td>
<td>5.150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Reading for Information Domain (Maximum Score = 10)
peer students instructed in non-immersion classes. That means that immersion children normally understand sentences better than non-immersion peers do.

4.2.5 Mean Scores of Students in Mechanics and Usage Domain

As shown in Table 14 and Figure 4, non-immersion students on an average received a total 3.000 score out of 15 in the pre-test of Mechanics and Usage segment, and a 7.739 mean score in the post-test of the same domain. Meanwhile, immersion students on an average received 3.350 correct answers out of 15 questions in the pre-test of Mechanics and Usage domain, and 6.350 in the post-test of the same domain. Therefore immersion students on an average received 3.000 gains (6.350 – 3.350) in the Mechanics and Usage segment, and non-immersion students on an average received 4.739 gains (7.739 – 3.000) in the same domain. Accordingly, we can know that non-immersion achieved higher gains in the LAS Mechanics and Usage segment in the 4 month teaching period than immersion students did. As a result, the conclusion may be formed that non-immersion students normally gain more grammatical skills compared to the peer immersion students. This is because the main purpose of the instruction for non-immersion students is to improve their grammatical skills. In other words, intensive teaching for grammar is given to the non-immersion students.

Based on the above results, we can say that language achievement gains for immersion students on an average are higher in three (Vocabulary,
TABLE 14
Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Mechanics and Usage Domain (Maximum Score = 15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanics and Usage</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Gains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-immersion Students</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>7.739</td>
<td>4.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immersion Students</td>
<td>3.350</td>
<td>6.350</td>
<td>3.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4: Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Mechanics and Usage Domain (Maximum Score = 15)
Fluency, and Reading for Information) of four domains than those of non-immersion students, but not in one domain (Mechanics and Usage). As mentioned above, this is because the average gains of immersion students in Vocabulary, Fluency, Reading for Information, and Mechanics and Usage domain are 3.200, 0.350, 5.150, and 3.000, respectively, but the mean scores of non-immersion students are 2.350, 0.000, 2.522, and 4.739, respectively.

4.2.6 Mean Score of Students in Total Domain

As you can see above, we have compared mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in each domain. By the comparison of the mean score gains of immersion and non-immersion students in each segment, we cannot exactly know which language group students achieved a higher level in reading proficiency level. Thus, we need the comparison of mean scores between the two language groups in total domains. Now consider the mean scores that immersion and non-immersion students received in total domains (Vocabulary + Fluency + Reading for Information + Mechanics and Usage).

As can be seen in Table 15 and Figure 5, non-immersion students on an average received total 6.000 mean score out of 45 maximum score in the pre-test of all domains and 15.565 mean score in the post-test of the total domains. Meanwhile, immersion students on an average got 7.350 correct answers (mean score) out of 45 questions (maximum score) in the pre-test of all domains and 19.050 in the post-test of the total domains. Therefore, immersion students on an average received 11.700 gains (19.050 – 7.350) in
### TABLE 15
Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Total Domain (Maximum Score = 45)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total domains</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Gains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-immersion Students</td>
<td>6.000</td>
<td>15.565</td>
<td>9.565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immersion Students</td>
<td>7.350</td>
<td>19.050</td>
<td>11.700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5: Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Total domain (Maximum Score = 45)**
the reading proficiency test (all domains), and non-immersion students on an average received 9.565 gains (15.565 – 6.000). From the Table 15 and Figure 5, the researcher can clearly evaluate the language reading gains: Immersion students received some higher scores in reading proficiency test than non-immersion students. In other words, students educated by the immersion program improved more rapidly in reading proficiency than students instructed by the regular, traditional program.

4.3 Conclusion

4.3.1 Mean Scores of Students in Each Domain and Total Domain

From Table 16 and Figure 6, we can see mean scores of immersion and non-immersion students in each domain and total domain together. Table 16 also shows that language achievement gains of immersion and non-immersion students on an average were raised in three (Vocabulary, Reading for Information, and Mechanics and Usage) of four domains, but not in one domain (fluency). The gains of immersion students in vocabulary, reading for information, and mechanics and usage domain on an average are 3.200, 5.150, and 3.000, respectively, but only 0.350 in fluency domain. The gains of non-immersion peers in vocabulary, reading for information, and mechanics and usage domain on an average are 2.305, 2.522, and 4.739 respectively, but nothing in fluency domain. This is because the fluency test problems are difficult for the immersion and non-immersion students to solve. In particular, the test consists of difficult words that are unfamiliar, due to the limited
learning period. In other words, the fluency test is beyond their reading comprehension ability.

### TABLE 16
Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Each and Total Domain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Non-English-Immersion Students (n = 23)</th>
<th>English-Immersion Students (n = 20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>2.478</td>
<td>4.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading for Information</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>3.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics and Usage</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>7.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6.000</td>
<td>15.565</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Figure 6: Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean Gain Scores of Immersion and Non-immersion Students in Each and Total Domain
Immersion students on average obtained higher gains in three sub-tests (Vocabulary, Fluency, and Reading for Information) than non-immersion peers. Among the three domains, Immersion students received the highest gains (5.150) in Reading for Information. Reading for information is made up of one long paragraph. Students must solve 10 questions after reading and understanding the paragraph. Even though the paragraph had many sentences, one could easily guess what was happening in the story, because immersion students could understand many paragraphs, having been exposed to various expressions for the last 4 months. In the immersion class, students were obliged to continuously guess what was going on in their teacher’s instruction. Thus, they could improve their skills by guessing what the paragraphs their teacher introduced meant, although unfamiliar words were in the paragraphs. Accordingly, one might say that the ability of immersion students to guess is much higher than non-immersion students.

On the Vocabulary sub-test, the immersion students scored higher than the non-immersion peers, with moderately higher scores. The immersion students who were educated by various course subjects (English language arts, social studies, and science) could comprehend a variety of words in different domains unlike the non-immersion children instructed in a one course subject (language arts). Consequently, the immersion students had more word power than their non-immersion peers.
Meanwhile, non-immersion children got higher gains in one domain (Mechanics and Usage) when compared to the other language group. They received the highest score (4.739) in the Mechanics and Usage, because as a non-immersion class, they had focused on grammar. Non-immersion students learned grammatical structures in the language arts class for 4 months. The class was taught in their native language, and students had learned only one course subject, language arts. Thus, they were able to receive grammatical skills in a limited time period faster than immersion students. Otherwise, immersion students could learn varied domains in three course subjects (social studies, science, and language arts). In addition, the immersion class was instructed in English, so they could have a better opportunity to comprehend a variety of words and sentences. Therefore, except for the Mechanics and Usage segment, their ability in all other domains could be deemed higher than non-immersion children.

As shown in the test results of the domain “mechanics and usage” called grammar, immersion teachers might miss the importance of grammar as the base of English. Since all languages are based on grammar, students must have good grammatical abilities to be skillful writers. Therefore, immersion teachers should pay more attention to grammar.

4.3.2 Reading Standardized Score

Table 17 shows average language achievement gains of immersion and non-immersion students converted to reading standardized scores as shown in
Table 17
Language Achievement gains: Reading Standardized Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-English-Immersion Students (n = 23)</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Gains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raw total</td>
<td>6.000</td>
<td>15.565</td>
<td>9.565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardized</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34.695</td>
<td>21.695</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English-Immersion Students (n = 20)</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Gains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raw total</td>
<td>7.350</td>
<td>19.050</td>
<td>11.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardized</td>
<td>16.700</td>
<td>42.100</td>
<td>25.400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Each non-immersion student on an average received 13 as a reading standardized score in the pre-test and 34.695 in the post-test. Namely, the mean score (6.00) of non-immersion students in all domains of pre-test is converted to the reading standardized score (13) by Table 1; the mean score (15.565) in the post-test is calculated to the reading standardized score (34.695). Meanwhile, each immersion student on an average got 16.700 as a reading standardized score in pre-test and 42.100 in post-test. That is, the mean score (7.350) of immersion students in all segments of the pre-test is
converted to the reading standardized score (16.700) by Table 1; the mean score (19.050) in total domains of post-test is calculated to the reading standardized score (42.100).

As a result, each immersion student on an average received 25.400 gains (42.100 – 16.700) in the reading standardized score, while each non-immersion student on an average received 21.695 gains (34.695 – 13) in the reading standardized score. As seen above, Table 17 shows the same result as Table 16: In terms of the converted reading standardized score, immersion students received higher reading standardized scores and reading achievement gains than did non-immersion peers. Consequently, immersion students received higher improvement in their reading proficiency level during the 4 month education than non-immersion peers.

4.3.3 Reading Competency Level and Category

In Table 18, Reading Standardized Scores are converted to Reading Competency Level and Category by means of Table 2. As shown in Table 17, both non-immersion and immersion students received 1 Reading Competency Level in pre- and post-test, so they were categorized as “Non-Reader” in pre- and post-tests. In other words, the immersion program with a severely limited amount of time allotted for English language instruction permitted no significant change in foreign language proficiency levels. However, although the immersion and non-immersion children were categorized into “Non-Readers” after the 4 month research period, they achieved actual language
TABLE 18
Language Achievement Gains: Reading Competency Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Non-English-Immersion Students (n = 23)</th>
<th>English-Immersion Students (n = 20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardized</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34.695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Competency Level</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Non-Reader</td>
<td>Non-Reader</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

achievement gains, while immersion students had more improvement in language reading proficiency than non-immersion peers.

Greymorning (1997) assesses that in the case of Hawaiian immersion, Hawaiian children who did not know their native language, Hawaiian, could achieve an age appropriate level of fluency in Hawaiian after being exposed to a minimum of 600 to 700 language contact hours. Yet my immersion
students were exposed to only 100 hours of English over a four month period. When comparing the number of language contact hours received in the research project to the number of language contact hours Hawaiian immersion students received in their school system, it was assessed that it would take my immersion students at least two or three years to attain the same amount of language contact hours. If my immersion students would be exposed to more than 600 hours like Hawaiian immersion students, they might be categorized as "competent readers."
CHAPTER 5. SUMMARY, DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH, 
AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Summary

This dissertation presents the results of research conducted at Kyoungil Elementary School in Ansan City in South Korea, after 4 months of implementing the immersion program (September 6, 1999 through January 10, 2000). The research was originally scheduled to be implemented for 10 months. Yet the project lasted for a period of only 4 months due to the declining number of students. Students continuously dropped the classes because the project was an after-school immersion program, and participation was optional.

The major questions for this research were as follows: (1) the proficiency levels of the second language in reading comprehension (2) whether there were gains in the target language reading proficiency over 4 months (3) achievement differences between students educated by immersion teaching methods and children instructed by traditional teaching methods.

At the fourth-grade level 80 students took part in the research. The researcher measured the results of pre- and post-tests on reading proficiency in English. In their language achievement, all students in the immersion class as well as the non-immersion class made gains in English reading proficiency. Immersion students educated in the English-dominant class received slightly
higher gains in the language reading achievement test than non-immersion peers.

On every sub-test, the immersion and non-immersion student reading standardized scores were raised in three (Vocabulary, Reading for Information, Mechanics and Usage) of four domains, but not in one segment (Fluency). The immersion students scored higher than the non-immersion children, with moderately higher scores in Vocabulary and Reading for Information. The non-immersion students got higher gains in Mechanics and Usage sub-test than their English-dominant peers. In reading competency levels, they remained in the “Non-Reader” category after the 4 month research period. However, both immersion and non-immersion children scored much higher in post-tests than in pre-tests.

5.2 Directions for Future Research

Kyoungil’s English immersion program was designed in accordance with an immersion-type program where the second language is used for a smaller proportion of teaching time. That is to say, the instruction time in the target language is much less than 50 percent of the total teaching time. This is because the program used in the research was for the students who had finished their regular school time. Because of the limited time period (4 months) and as an after-school immersion-type program, Kyoungil’s program design could not meet the criterial features defined for the immersion programs (early, middle, and late immersion programs). Thus, after carefully
considering successful immersion programs in the literature, the program was applied with consideration of the age, sex, instruction time and day, and teaching materials.

In evaluating the Kyoungil’s immersion program, data were collected on achievement in English reading proficiency. The English reading achievement test was subdivided into four categories: Vocabulary, Fluency, Reading for Information, and Mechanics and Usage sub-tests.

This after-school immersion program included some weaknesses. First, missing data was unavoidable because participation in the program was optional. Students could drop the class if they were not satisfied with the program, so the program could only operate for four months—a shorter period than expected in the beginning. A short period might lead any immersion project to bad results. Cummins (1979) suggested that the benefits of bilingualism may take more than three years to materialize. In other words, the length of the immersion project should be at least 2 or 3 years, especially for language learners. Poor results may lessen as English proficiency improves in 2 or 3 years. In the research, half of the students who participated in the project dropped within 4 months, due to the difficulty for students who lack comprehension of the second language to continuously attend a class where instruction is designed to be taught in the target language. Students were not permitted to speak in their native language during the class.
Second, one of four sub-tests may not accurately reflect the actual language achievement and gains of the students. The results of the sub-test measuring for Fluency are not reliable. There was no difference (actual gains) shown between pre- and post-test data.

Finally, the limited research period and the small size of the class (40 students in each group) may not measure the actual effectiveness of the immersion program. That means that these results must be carefully measured until further related researches are conducted.

This research also had a number of strengths. First, despite the small amount of instruction time, most students in the immersion and non-immersion classes could make gains in English reading achievement tests. Second, the gains were more significant for the English immersion students than for the non-immersion peers. These results demonstrate that the immersion program's assumptions, shown in the literature, were precise. In other words, the immersion program is a more effective instruction model in the reading comprehension area than the regular, conventional teaching method.

In conclusion, the results from Kyoungil Elementary School are comparable to the experimental findings by many immersion schools in the U.S.A. and Canada. The language achievements in the reading proficiency level demonstrated that the immersion program might be an effective language instruction model for Korean students. Yet the success of the immersion students in the reading comprehension level cannot confirm the fact that the
immersion program is the best teaching model in a Korean setting. Thus, other research measuring all language proficiency levels including reading, writing, speaking, and listening over a long-term period for at least two or three years, is needed for convincing the schools and other interested institutions in the innovative immersion programs. In addition, various immersion models suitable for a Korean setting should be studied for successful immersion programs in Korea.

5.3 Conclusions

From the research results and teaching experience in my immersion class, the conclusion was as follows. First, proficiency in a second/foreign language might be facilitated by starting the immersion at the onset of schooling. Lambert (1990) argued that early immersion programs that begin at the start of formal schooling have a long history of success. In the optimal starting time for immersion programs, Genesee (1978) contended that although benefits can result from late-immersion programs, high levels in the target language proficiency can be best acquired by an early start and long duration of second language instruction. Lambert (1990) added that early total immersion students achieve a remarkably high level of functional bilingualism and are able to acquire in some content areas at levels comparable to that of non-immersion peers.

According to Cummins (1979), the threshold of L2 competency needed to achieve benefits from immersion might be much higher at higher
grade levels. In other words, the language demands in lower grade levels are sufficiently low. Thus, children may need to enter the immersion program early. This means that early total immersion programs might be more effective instructional methods than other immersion approaches.

My belief is that the younger the children educated in an immersion school, the better the program is for the students. The researcher has a female child. She was born in America. She stayed in America from the birth to age 3, and then in Korea from age 3 to 5. She was cared for in a day-care center from birth to age 3 when in the U.S.A., and she was a pre-kindergarten student in an American school from age 3 to 5 when in Korea. Recently she returned to America, still at 5 years of age. She is a kindergarten student now, and although she cannot be compared to a native speaker in English proficiency, she has good listening and speaking abilities, but not in reading and writing. Even though she has poor grammatical abilities, she can understand and speak English fairly well. When she speaks, I can find many grammatical errors in her expression. She has some trouble with difficult words and in expressing complex sentences, but she is generally fluent. She is eligible for an early total immersion education. The immersion education is really natural for her, because she has been in American institutions from an early age. From the case of my child, I might conclude that a total immersion program starting from the elementary school, kindergarten, or day-care center might have good results as shown in the literature.
Yet the early total immersion program could also have some disadvantages. The opportunity to learn Korean, their native language, might be missed. However, studies show immersion students perform as well as peer children in regular schools in many aspects of native language achievement. Although immersion students show a temporary lag in areas of native language skills, this lag gradually disappears during the first two or three years. Second, in the early total immersion, children might have a difficult time adapting to the program during the first two years. Education for the younger children should be approached as fun to avoid dislike of its challenges. The possibility for the younger children to become bored may come earlier in the immersion class, as they are instructed in an unfamiliar target language. The younger children essentially must find the class to be interesting. Therefore, instructors must teach effectively in the second/foreign language, to keep the attention of younger children. Otherwise, these young students cannot fully benefit from the immersion education.

Second, the late total immersion programs are strongly recommended for the elementary school that chooses to apply for the immersion program in its current school system. The late total immersion program might solve the problems that an early total immersion program may present, because the late total immersion begins intensive second language instruction around grade 5 or 6. Students may learn their native language without the educational concerns
of a temporary lag in first language skills. Late total immersions also may successfully prevent academic lag in language-mediated academic subjects.

Late immersion students conceivably have a less difficult time in adapting to the class instructed in the second language, because the programs provide an initial L2 language class, gradually shifting to total immersion. Before starting the intensive immersion program in grade 5 or 6, students can learn the second language for one or two periods every day.

Genesee (1981) contends that late total immersion students in Australia, when less exposed to the second language than the early total immersion children, closely exhibited the same level of language proficiency as the early total immersion peers. Thus, any concerns that the children educated in the early total immersion program might obtain higher gains in language proficiency levels than those students instructed in late total immersion methods, are addressed.

Students who have not yet mastered the second language must master functional second/foreign language before entering middle or late total immersion programs. Limited language proficient students entering the late total immersion in grades 5 or 6 first must assimilate new terminology in L2 in order to understand complex conceptions in academic subjects; otherwise, the second language instruction effects might prove negative. Students’ inability through language limitations to understand complex and abstract ideas in L2 can place students at a disadvantage, relative to acquired instruction had they
been instructed in their native language. Limitation in the target language proficiency might inherently become frustrating.

According to Marsh (2000), students may effectively learn academic subjects in the target language only when they have passed a certain threshold of language competence in both native and target languages. Cummins (1979) contended that students might not benefit from the late immersion programs unless they have already achieved a high threshold of functional second/foreign language competency prior to the immersion. This means that those who have reached this threshold may benefit from English-medium education.

In other words, students with limited second language proficiency learn academic subjects more effectively through their native language than through the second/foreign language. According to Willig (1985), non-English-speaking or limited-English-proficient students should receive native language instruction in all subjects except English language arts until they acquire an appropriate level of proficiency in English.

Consequently, for the success of the late total immersion program, the school that wants to implement the program must allot at least one or 2 hour-grammar-based classes every day for the potential immersion students before entering the real immersion class 4 or 5 years later. This is because starting the intensive immersion education is more effective for the children who have basic second language skills—especially in grammar—rather than limited or no
second language skills. The former more easily adapt themselves to the immersion class instructed in the second language than the latter.

It is recommended that the English class be taught in English before the late total immersion program. The research outcome demonstrated that the results were more satisfactory than when the class was taught in their native language. This is because when students became more accustomed to instruction in English, they were found to acquire better English language skills.
CHAPTER 6. SUGGESTION FOR FUTURE ENGLISH IMMERSION PROGRAMS IN KOREA

6.1 Introduction

Throughout the history of second language education in Korea, the second language instruction has been aimed at grammar-translation skills. As a result, the regular English language classroom study encompassing 10 years (two periods a week for 4 years in an elementary school, together with four or five hours a week for 6 years from junior through senior high school) has not successfully produced bilingual and bicultural students. Thus, many educators seek to find new teaching methods. An innovative immersion program as developed in Canada may be the best possible instructional method among the varied teaching approaches suggested in the literature.

Yet, there is no immersion program functioning in Korea; therefore, the possibilities of establishing such a program in Korea should be discussed. A number of practical questions must be considered in the implementation of an immersion program, such as where, how, under what conditions, and what would contribute to success or failure. Turning to specific decisions involved in the planning and implementation of an immersion program in Korea, specific questions should be posed, such as the following:

- What type of immersion program would be the best in an individual school setting?
- How are students selected and placed?
- How will the program be staffed?
- What teaching strategies are used?
- How will qualified materials be provided?
- How will the curriculum be planned for the successful program?
- What kind of commitment should be required for parents?

6.2 Program Selection

When a school district chooses a program among several immersion approaches, program planners must determine which approach is most effective in teaching a foreign language. As mentioned earlier, most immersion models result in positive effects to first and second language development or academic achievement for students. In general, many immersion schools follow the early total immersion model as implemented in the Canadian schools. About 80% of French immersion students in Canada are enrolled in early total immersion programs. In grades K, 1 or 2, the second language is used as the medium of instruction, and the first language is introduced from grade 2 or 3 as mentioned above. In considering the advantages of an early total immersion program, it must be noted that young children demonstrate apparent enthusiasm and aptitude for language learning, because they feel ease, comfort, and naturalness in using the second language (Swain, 1979). Students who acquire skillful language competence through early total immersion language instruction may have more confidence in
speaking a second language than middle and late total immersion students. The young students encounter and experience more varied and richer interactions with native speakers outside of school areas, as well as students in their immersion classroom and in the daily routine of the school environment.

However, the early total immersion program presents disadvantages that cause parents and school administrators to consider different types of immersion programs for their school curriculum. Some parents have concerns that students in early total immersion programs would lack basic native language skills. Another disadvantage is that early total immersions require more teachers. There is difficulty not only in finding qualified immersion teachers, but also in substituting a new teacher for someone already on staff. To solve any staffing problems, some school systems elect to recruit teachers from abroad. However, this solution gives rise to a cost problem.

Research indicates that an early total immersion model is the most effective foreign language teaching method. Yet realistically, it is impossible for all schools to adopt this model. Thus, when a school district selects a program model, planners should consider several crucial factors that might affect successful implementation of the new program in their school system, such as local community conditions, preferences, financial ability, parental concern, language resources, and recruitment success of students or teachers. Next, the most suitable varied immersion alternative for the individual school system must be selected. As mentioned in the section "Evaluating immersion
models" of this dissertation, some models are very effective, despite less exposure to the second language.

In Korea, private elementary schools host students from higher class families as a norm. These private schools might easily obtain funding for the implementation of the immersion program. Public schools, comprised of middle or low class children, might confront more difficulty in obtaining funds. Thus, high cost programs (early, delayed, and late total immersion) might be suitable for private elementary schools, while the lower cost immersion-type program might be chosen for public schools. Schools with financial concerns may, of course, adopt a total immersion program if they offer a one or two class program for financially viable students. Schools may have sufficient funds, but find that parents do not choose to have their children delay first language acquisition. In this scenario, it is recommended that the school select delayed total, late total or an early partial immersion model, rather than an early total immersion approach.

Immersion-type programs are recommended for those public schools and private schools with limited funds and/or limited curricular hours for second language instruction. Program planners might pose the question, "Is it possible for students in an immersion-type program to have the excellence in second language proficiency that total or partial immersion students show?"

A well-designed immersion-type program is very effective. The result of the research, "Near Immersion Results in One-Third of the Time" by
Lang (1993), shows that the “Extended Core Program,” developed in parts of rural New Brunswick (Canada) in the late 1970's, delivers higher oral proficiency skills than the Canadian core program (French 5 periods weekly). The "Extended Core program" has also acquired favorable results compared to early total immersion (Lang, 1993). The curricular plan of the Extended Core program in New Brunswick is as follows: Grades 1 to 6 - enriched Foreign Language course infused with Social Studies, Science, Math, Art, Music, etc., 30-40 minutes daily; Grades 7 to 12 - Core French, 5 periods weekly and Social Studies, 3 times weekly.

In New Brunswick, the extended core program students have been exposed, considerably less than early total immersion children to a second language of French; the former students had only 1750 hours of French instruction, compared to the latter, who have accumulated about 6000 hours of French instruction from Grades 1 to 12. Nevertheless, about 30 percent of students in the extended core program can obtain the oral proficiency level reached by the majority of early total immersion students. Clearly, the extended core program and other well-designed immersion-type programs may be applicable to schools where there is difficulty in creating and maintaining total or partial immersion programs.

6.3 Staffing

Immersion requires qualified teachers who have native or near native proficiency in the second language and are trained in elementary education.
Immersion teachers should be proficient in the use of the second language not only for academic purposes, but also for social purposes.

A teacher who is proficient in the use of the second language for social purposes does not necessarily have proficient language skills when s/he teaches complex academic knowledge in the immersion classroom. Thus, when immersion schools find qualified teachers, language proficiency alone is not sufficient.

Genesee (1996) contends that in order to maximize the second language use, immersion teachers should be monolingual speakers of the second language. Most immersion teachers are bilingual in the students' first and second languages, but it is recommended an immersion school employ a native speaker (monolingual in the target language) with pedagogical skills for a qualified teacher. If the teacher has teaching experience as well, this will further enhance performance.

There is a severe shortage of qualified teachers in Korea, because Korea has only one official language, Korean. Few English-speaking people—except for tourists, workers, teachers in schools and private institutes, and soldiers from abroad—reside in the country. Thus, immersion planners might permit unqualified persons to be hired, in the hope that teachers will learn as they work. In consideration of the shortage of qualified teachers, immersion planners may think there is no need for special certification in the second language. However, there is a necessity for the teacher to have demonstrated
proficiency in all aspects of the language. Careful consideration might find it preferable to delay program implementation rather than to plunge into premature program initiation.

As a method of recruiting, funded school systems may recruit teachers from abroad. Another means of seeking qualified teachers would be to place advertisements in major newspapers. Qualified candidates who have studied abroad may be available, as well.

6.4 Recruitment and Placement of Students

Student recruitment problems were anticipated due to the innovative approach of the immersion program in Korea. Parents might be concerned about enrolling their children with limited English proficiency in an immersion program where all subjects are instructed through the second language. Several approaches may be used to recruit students, one of which is to place an advertisement for student recruitment in the local or national newspapers. In addition, a brochure explaining the immersion programs may be extensively mailed. Visitations to elementary schools, and extended invitations to students are other possibilities for recruitment. Invited parents and/or students who attend the programs of the institution could be provided with the following information: concrete definitions of immersion programs, the instructional design, the goals of the programs, with an emphasis on the successful evaluation results of several immersion programs. A word about the special requisites should be made: the primary language must be Korean,
and students selected for participation must remain enrolled until the end of school or the research period.

6.5 Curriculum and Materials

For the success of the immersion program, schools must have well-developed instructional guidelines that include resource materials and appropriate activities. Instructional materials written in the target language are necessary for all course subjects to be instructed in the second language—a challenge for the school which initiates the immersion program. The school district must provide a considerable investment of funds and time for an extensive development of materials. Thus, materials in the first language need to be translated into the target language. When the initial Hawaiian immersion program was implemented in Hawaii in 1987, there were no appropriate materials in the Hawaiian language. Teachers and parents spent long hours translating English books into Hawaiian. The arduous process often made it necessary for teachers to translate text the day before they used it. Over 10 years later, the school still struggles with the shortage of appropriate textbooks and other related materials. Yamauchi, Ceppi, and Lau-Smith (1999) contend that this practice is inappropriate, and that immersion teachers should develop textbooks rooted in the second language and culture. Currently, Hawaiian schools are attempting to develop new and culturally relevant materials, rather than translate older materials into English.
Materials used in immersion programs must support the local school district curriculum. The degree of textbook difficulty should be commensurate with the linguistic capabilities of immersion students. If students have difficulty reading in a second language, a text with extensive print may be excluded. Materials imported from abroad have the advantage of being rich in cultural information. For this reason, textbooks written to teach content areas for natives were preferable to materials produced within Korea.

Schools should carefully plan the curriculum for student language growth. Careful consideration should be given to what language skills are to be developed at each grade level and how these skills are to be developed. For instance, games, songs, and listening/guessing activities may be included in the curriculum for very young children (grades 1 and 2). Various kinds of "hands-on" activities may be employed, with the teacher speaking the foreign language in all grade levels. Most of all, teacher preparation may well be the crucial element in the program plan.

The curriculum should provide extensive opportunities to integrate those experiences which develop cultural knowledge and attitudes. Even though culture is learned through integration with content area instruction, such learning should be planned rather than incidental.
6.6 Parents

Parents were the immersion program's strongest allies. Effective teachers must collaborate with parents. Parents should maintain frequent communication with teachers, as well. Regular contact with the teacher induces a familiarity with the curriculum, for parents, who then can help their children effectively.

One concern of the parents was that the achievement of immersion students in the content areas might fall behind that of children in the traditional Korean-only classes. Research shows that immersion students in Canada and the U.S. perform as well as peers in regular schools in many aspects of the English language achievement tests. In the first two or three years, children in immersion programs may show a temporary lag in certain areas of their first language skills, such as spelling. Yet this lag is quickly made up once native-language arts are introduced. Therefore, teachers should ask parents to commit their child to the program for a minimum of two or three years. Many studies also show that students in an immersion program perform as well as children in a regular school in all subjects.

At home, parents should encourage their children to talk about experiences at school in Korean or the second language. Parents also should support student study at home, as teachers do at school, providing constant opportunities for their child to utilize the second language at home. Opportunities for interaction would be as chatting with a native through the
Internet, or watching a movie with a VCR. In order for immersion students to have extended opportunities in the use of target language outside of school, parents must show interest in what their child is doing before the child reaches a level of comfort in the second language. Such interest is pivotal in aiding the student to become an independent learner in the shortest time.

6.7 Teaching Strategies

Swain (1988) warns that all content-based instruction does not necessarily provide good language teaching methods; typical content-based instruction might provide inadequate conditions for learning a second language. Therefore, for the success of immersion programs, teachers should apply a variety of teaching techniques in their classroom situation. If instructors cannot teach effectively in the second/foreign language, classes may become less interesting, emphasizing more on rote teaching factual material, thereby providing a less-qualified discussion. Varied techniques that are effective for teaching a second language have been reported in the literature.

According to Wong Fillmore (1985), “Translation or concurrent instruction in both languages block student development of second language learning.” Beginners have a tendency to initially plan in their first language what is to be said or to be written in composition. The students become concerned about errors in sentences, wishing to make completely grammatical sentences. Thus, speaking becomes time-consuming work, and conversation seems unnatural. Therefore, teachers should refrain from using the student’s
first language to explain difficult concepts. L1 translation could be detrimental to the L2 learning. Accordingly, a teacher should avoid translation instruction, encouraging students to think in the second language and to be free of any concern about errors. A person involved with worry about error could not be a good language learner.

According to Greymorning (1997), a problem that faces many language teachers is that in order for immersion students to rapidly understand a target language, students are often provided native language meanings for what is said in the target language. This practice presents a consistent problem to language teachers in an immersion class. Even though teachers understand that the immersion project goal is “No spoken English,” it is common for instructors to speak in the target language within an immersion setting. Immersion teachers should know the absolute necessity of not mixing the target language and student’s first language when they instruct children. Instructors should observe this primary goal in order for children to achieve a higher level of language competency.

Students are usually not required to speak in the second language during their first few months of the immersion program, because students have no functional skills in the second language. Students must ask questions and communicate with teachers and peers in their first language. Yet teachers show a tendency to speak in the second language with their students. Immersion students typically employ the second language one year after they
entered the immersion class. At that time, teachers should begin to encourage their students to use the second language for all communication not only in the classroom, but also outside of the classroom.

Wong Fillmore (1985) contends that "emphasis in a successful classroom should be on communication." As an example, permit an introduction of my daughter's experience. My daughter Yesol has two nationalities, Korean and American. Yesol was a student in an American pre-school in Korea for the last 2 years (1999 and 2000) and presently is a student in an American pre-school in America for the last 2 months (2001). Not only do the schools have similar curriculum, but teachers in both schools are Americans. The major difference is that her school-friends in Korea are mostly Korea-born, and her friends in America are English natives. Our conversations are mostly in English. Consequently, her proficiency in speaking accelerates in the U.S., more so than in Korea. The factor remains that her speech is in Korean with her schoolmates in Korea. Children learn communication skills not only from their instructors, but also from their peers. Therefore, teachers should give a student as many opportunities as possible for communication, by continuously encouraging students to use the second language not only in classroom interactions, but also outside of class. However, teachers should not reprimand the students for using their native language.
Swain (1988) suggests that a teacher should provide extended oral or written opportunities in a class or at home for students, and give feedback on errors. In particular, feedback on errors represented in written production would be instrumental in helping students to upgrade their writing skills in accuracy.

In classroom communication, “a teacher should tailor input to fit the varied levels of student proficiency and the complexity of the material (Wong Fillmore, 1985).” For instance, a teacher may ask open-ended questions or questions requiring complex structures to a higher level of students, and transversely pose questions requiring a short response to less proficient children. Wong Fillmore (1985) suggests that even though less proficient students supply short responses, a teacher should expand them into full sentences, as an example of models of complex structure.

According to Trimino and Ferguson (1993), student participation, in spite of shortcomings in language acquisition, should be encouraged. The creation of a non-threatening atmosphere is paramount to an immersion program. In the classroom, above all, the “teacher's emotional closeness to the children is important in the children's academic engagement (Watson-Gegeo, 1989).” Trimino and Ferguson (1993) add that in the early stages of language acquisition, language error correction is minimal and focuses on errors of meaning--not error in form. At a later time, corrections will acquire a more formal structure.
According to Wong Fillmore (1985), instructors should not use ungrammatical or "reduced foreigner-talk" forms; in addition, instructors should avoid using complex language as used with native speakers of the same grade level. In other words, a teacher's language should be "precise" and "expository." Teachers should not make an assumption that "students would understand them." In addition, teachers should send their messages in a variety of ways to ensure student understanding. Teachers must provide multiple opportunities for students to process the same information, while using various techniques such as paraphrase or exemplification. Wong Fillmore (1985) adds that teachers should adopt patterns, or routines, for their lessons. In other words, the same sentence frame may be used to present materials within a lesson, not only to facilitate student understanding of difficult words, but also to show discourse patterns. Moreover, teachers should speak in simple sentences at a slower pace than a native communicates, normally, to facilitate new learners in comprehending context.

When students have limited second language proficiency in the beginning, instructors should use varied teaching strategies that do not require higher language proficiency to teach the curriculum. Trimino and Ferguson (1993) suggest that an immersion teacher should employ many contextual clues: i.e. gestures, facial expressions, manipulatives, visuals, and props. These innovative techniques help immersion students easily access to new knowledge without demanding higher language skills.
Immersion instructors should continually conduct informal assessments of students as foreign language proficiency develops. The assessments allow teachers to develop teaching techniques that match the immediate language skills of students. Immersion teachers also should conduct standardized tests in order to make sure their immersion students attain district expectations in English.

In conclusion, the results from Kyoungil Elementary School are comparable to the outcomes by many experimental immersion institutions in the U.S.A. and Canada. The language achievements in the reading proficiency level showed that the immersion program might be an effective language instructional approach in a Korean setting. Yet the success of the immersion program in the reading proficiency level cannot confirm the fact that the immersion program will be the best foreign language teaching approach in Korea. Thus, other research measuring all language proficiency levels (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) over a long-term period is needed for convincing the interested institutions in the immersion programs.
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9/6 (Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

It is the first day of the immersion class. I copied a section of the McGraw-Hill books, and gave them to my students. I explained about how I would lead the class and gave a description of the immersion program. The students worried about instruction in English from the next class.

9/7 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

In this class, most students are beginners in English. They have no grammatical skills or word power. I have to underline almost all of the words in the book and tell the meanings of the words. Then I translate each sentence into Korean, explain some grammar—the difference between statements and questions. Lastly, I teach how to read the sentences instructed today.

9/8 Social Studies for Immersion Students

From the start of the class, nobody understands what I am saying. I use gestures, and draw on the board. I become a comedian, but nobody understands; I am frustrated.

Thus, I set the students’ homework. I let them underline the words on pages 10 to 11. They don’t understand, so I make them look up the dictionary to know the meaning of the words.
9/9 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
This class is much easier than the other immersion class to teach. Yet they don’t know how to pronounce the words in the book. I have to explain how to pronounce each alphabet, syllable, word, phrase, and sentence. That lasts for almost half of the class time.

9/10 Science for Immersion Students
This is the first class for science. Nobody likes this class, and they know sleeping is the answer for the class. Hard to teach. Before explaining “mammals,” I draw all animals shown on the book. When comparing two animals, I usually use body gestures. When someone tries to sleep, I call him/her and ask a question.

9/11 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
The same teaching method is applied to the class as I did last time. For example, it is easy to explain in Korean what “exclamation” is, but they don’t know the words in the example sentences. Nobody sleeps during the class. I like it.

9/13(Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students
I feel I want to give up the class. Everybody wants me to speak and explain in Korean. Yet I can’t. They are frustrated. I assume that they understand 10% of what I am saying. Thus I try to use easy and precise words. For their understanding a sentence, I try to send a message in several different ways.
9/14 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Today's topic is "word order." The topic is the most difficult part of all in English learning for Korean students. This is because Korean and English are completely different in word order. The focus of the class is to know English has five different kinds of sentences (S+V, S+V+C, S+V+O, S+V+IO+DO, S+V+O+C).

9/15 Social Studies for Immersion Students

Without any knowledge of words, there is nothing they can understand. I permitted students to look up the words in their English-Korean dictionaries at home. I proceeded my class with the students who didn't do their homework kneeing on the floor. Even though I try to speak slowly repeating the sentence and then paraphrasing it, they don't understand. The easy words to me might be very difficult ones for them. Although it seems to me that they don't understand my explanation, I keep on explaining the topic, "What happens in the classroom?"

9/16 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Today's topic is also "word order." I think understanding "word order" is very important for the students to understand English. Their weak knowledge for words prevents me from speeding up the class. No progress in their pronouncing words.
9/17 Science for Immersion Students

If I ask a question, nobody answers. Thus, for the beginners, task-based instruction is helpful. I make students draw a picture. If I say a rabbit, they draw the animal. I can use the drawing for my teaching. Did you draw a head? How many legs does it have? Did you draw it having two long ears? Raise your hands if you finished the drawing. They can't make long answers and so the answers should be short, like yes or no, or raising their hands, or standing up.

9/18 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

The same situation continues in this class.

9/20(Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

What is a command? Explaining a command, I erase the subject on each example statement and show them body language. Gestures and body language are very useful contextual clues for them to catch the meaning. Be a good actor for teaching a beginner.

9/21 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

The most difficult part of the class is to teach the students how to pronounce words. In Korean, each vowel or consonant has one pronunciation. Yet in English, each vowel or consonant has several, which confuses the students.

9/22 Social Studies for Immersion Students

Learning in the second language is very boring for the beginners. I have to make things funny. Lots of pictures I show them help them understand the
instruction well, and so they get interested in the class. Guesswork is very important for learning a second language, so I continue to explain the target word in a variety of different ways. I don't care, even though they don't understand. Someday they will, I guess, understand the meaning of the target words I try to say after hearing them a hundred and a thousand times. Not right now.

9/23 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Thanksgiving day in Korea

9/24 Science for Immersion Students
Thanksgiving day in Korea

9/25 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Thanksgiving day in Korea

9/27(Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

Today's topic is "What is an exclamation?" I show them lots of easy examples that show strong feeling. The rules are (What+a +adjective+noun+subject+verb+!), (How+adjective+subject+verb+!), etc. I try to explain the rules several times, but they can't understand those. I am frustrated. They look sleepy. Some students didn't get interested in the grammar. "Everybody stand up and stretch up your arms!" I gave them an one-minute chatting time. Nobody chats in Korean, but I don't care. I start to explain the grammar again after a break.
9/28 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

More than half of the class is still dedicated to pronunciation. Although I try to teach them more sentences, I can’t. Although they understand the sentence meaning more easily than before, they can’t read the sentences aloud, because they don’t know how to pronounce the words.

9/29 Social Studies for Immersion Students

I let students draw their school map and name on each part of the map. I write down the map’s key words: gate, playground, office, and gym. It seems that memorization on related words at the same time is easier for them than rote-memorization.

9/30 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Keep going. Nothing different.

10/1 Science for Immersion Students

When I compare the color of the polar bear with the elephant, I teach them several other colors. What is my T-shirt color? What color do you like best? I give them several other related questions. Some students follow my questions well. Some are indifferent. Some stare at their friends who follow me well, and try to do that. I give them the same question again, giving them a chance to answer the question.

10/2 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I give students the meaning of all words on each sentence. I never translate nothing of the sentence before the students do. Before I tell them the
meaning of the sentence, I give them 2 or 3 minutes to translate it by themselves. That improves their reading and understanding skills.

10/4(Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

All students want me to teach in Korean. If I continue to speak in Korean, the students say, they want to drop the class. The students threaten me. The class is not mandatory, so I am scared of that. The students say they can’t stand any more, if the class continues to be instructed in English. I have to decide what to do. I decide to teach them in Korean for one month only. They like that.

10/5 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I give students homework every day, memorizing the words instructed in the last class. I let the students who didn’t memorize the words kneel on the floor.

10/6 Social Studies for Immersion Students

Even though I started to teach them in Korean, I usually speak English first, and then Korean. Still, they have much more opportunity to listen in English than Non-Immersion students do.

10/7 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new happened.

10/8 Science for Immersion Students

Most students like the class spoken in their native language. No students sleep during the class. Yet I am worried about this kind of class. That is not an
immersion method. I feel again the immersion class should be mandatory, not optional.

10/9 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I feel paddling needs for some lazy students who don’t continually do their homework. Yet I don’t like paddling. Paddling is not good for good education. Yet kneeling on the floor is not enough for some students. I am confused.

10/11 (Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

Nothing new.

10/12 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I feel some smart students understand how to pronounce words, but most are not good pronouncers.

10/13 Social Studies for Immersion Students

Nothing new.

10/14 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I don’t expect them to be good writers, but good readers and pronouncers at this time, but that is only my expectation.

10/15 Science for Immersion Students

It is too difficult to improve the students’ language skills in a month. I think nothing is different, after teaching in Korean.
10/16 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Before translating a sentence by the teacher, thinking the meaning of the sentence by oneself is very, very important for a student to improve reading ability. Yet I usually have each student consult with a friend sitting next to him/her about the meaning of a sentence. That makes the class more interesting, and they can learn the reading skills from their friends.

10/18(mon) Language Arts for Immersion Students

Nothing new.

10/19 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

The main frame of the class is to take a word test, to select the words that children might not know from the pages they will learn today and teach the word meaning, to translate each sentence into English, to explain the grammar on the pages, and to train the children to pronounce the sentences fluently.

10/20 Social Studies for Immersion Students

Nothing new.

10/21 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

This teaching method is good for reading, grammar, and vocabulary, but not for listening, speaking, and writing, so I understand that in the new teaching method, time is needed for the latter skills. Thus, the new teaching method being used for the other immersion class should be added to this class. Yet, the immersion also has many teaching problems. I feel that for the beginners, late immersion might be better than early immersion. Early immersion looks
like torture, not only for the students, but also for the teachers. Learning English in Korean language comes first. Then much later, after students have good abilities at least in reading, grammar, and vocabulary, comes learning English in a class where the subject matter or content is instructed in English.

10/22 Science for Immersion Students

Nothing new

10/23 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

The teaching method should not be changed because of the research, I know.

10/25(Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

Nothing new.

10/26 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

My child was born in America, and stayed in America from her birth to age 3. Then she stayed in Korea from age 3 to 4. She has a good listening ability, but not in speaking, reading, and writing. Even though she has poor grammatical and speaking abilities, she knows how to speak but not like a native. I know she is eligible for the early total immersion education. The immersion education is not torture, but natural for her. She was cared for in a U.S.A. day-care center for two years, and then in an American school in Korea for one year. From my teaching experience and the case of my child, I conclude that in Korea, early total immersion should begin from the birth. The early total immersion program started from the elementary school might have good results, but the program has several problems, such as missing the
chance to learn the native language at the right time, and above all, the children’s sacrifice in adapting the program for 1 to 3 years. I think the late total immersion is desirable for the elementary school. In my opinion, the school implementing the late total immersion must allot at least one hour for the potential immersion students to prepare for the real immersion class 4 or 5 years later. The English class before the late total immersion program starts should be taught in their native language like the Language Arts class for Non-Immersion students I am presently doing for my research.

10/27 Social Studies for Immersion Students

10/28 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing happens.

10/29 Science for Immersion Students


10/30 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I feel half of students might know how the English words are pronounced. Teaching this class is much easier than before and interesting to me.

11/1(Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

Can you say this kind of class is OK? Yes, I can experiment with the late immersion program. Yet, one month is too short to improve student language ability, and my research also is supposed to be an early immersion experiment.
11/2 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I was really surprised that the speed of learning a second language is so slow for the beginners. The learning speed can’t satisfy my expectation.

11/3 Social Studies for Immersion Students

* Immersion program should be implemented from the birth. The younger the children who are educated in the immersion school or center, the better the program is for the students. No sacrifice or torture for the children.

* Immersion program should be mandatory, not optional. It will take a long period of time.

* Middle or late total immersion program is desirable for the elementary school which wants to apply for the immersion in the current system.

Enough second language education, instructed in their native language, is needed for the students who will enter the middle or late total immersion.

* If some school wants to implement the early total immersion program in its school system, I recommend the school as open a kindergarten where the target language is taught in Korean.

* Learning should be interesting to the learning students, not torture and frustration.

* Although the immersion program is an ideal teaching method, more than 99% of Korean schools cannot apply the program for their schools. What should the specialist for the instructional programs do? The answer is that
they should fix the current teaching system in most of the Korean school. I suggest 2 more innovational teaching methods: ESL and whole language theory.

11/4 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

11/5 Science for Immersion Students
Even though the students want me to continuously teach in Korean, I said I would use real immersion teaching methods from the next class.

11/6 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

11/8(Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion
Class day was changed.

11/9 Language Arts for Immersion Students
They seem to be less afraid of the immersion class than the class started on September. Yet nothing is much different in their language abilities.

11/10 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Students continually drop the class. I try to call the dropped students’ homes. There is no use calling. The class should be mandatory.

11/11 Social Studies for Immersion Students
For their easy understanding, I try to use the same sentence patterns. For instance, “I met Tom in the classroom; Tom met his sister in the classroom; I met Jane in Tom’s classroom.”
11/12 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

In my opinion, paddling should be allowed in the class. Some students didn't do their homework, but after paddling, they do well.

11/13 Science for Immersion Students

Communication is very useful for improving student speaking skill. I want to give them as many opportunities to speak with their friends as possible. Yet, their communication between friends is nothing. Until now, some students barely know the alphabet from A to Z, nothing more. How can this kind of student communicate with friends? Impossible.

11/15(Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing

11/16 Language Arts for Immersion Students

Nothing new.

11/17 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Paddling is good for the students who failed the test for vocabulary.

11/18 Social Studies for Immersion Students

I usually ask questions needing short answers of students, but I sometimes give questions needing longer response from them. I know they can't make complex answers, but I will try.

11/19 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I always try to make all my students pay attention to me when I explain something. I start to explain something only when they look at me.
11/20 Science for Immersion Students

For their writing skills, I ask them to rewrite the sentences they learned today. They don’t have creative writing skills, and need to write only what is instructed in the class. I give them 2 or 3 minutes to look through the sentences again and let them write the sentences.

11/22(Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

11/23 Language Arts for Immersion Students

Every sentence can be called one of four different types of sentences: statement, question, command, and exclamation. I want to give students as many example sentences as possible. Yet I can’t do that, because of their limited word power. If I give them many examples, that confuses them. Every sentence should not have more than one unfamiliar word. When I explain grammar, the selected words should not be beyond their word power, like for instance, “I love Tom. Do you love Tom? Love Tom. What a lovely boy Tom is!”

11/24 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Almost half of the students follow the class and understand well, but not half. After the class, I give the students who don’t understand well what I am teaching some extra teaching.
11/25 Social Studies for Immersion Students

A good textbook for the beginner should include as many pictures as possible. When the teacher explains something they don't know, they can guess what is being explained by the teacher more readily through the picture on the textbook, than without the picture. Pictures and drawings on the board by the teacher are important clues to understanding.

11/26 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

11/27 Science for Immersion Students

Nothing new

11/29(Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

11/30 Language Arts for Immersion Students

Nothing new

12/1 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

How can I control the number of students who drop the class? I am worried about my research. The class should, I feel, be mandatory.

12/2 Social Studies for Immersion Students

Nothing new

12/3 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

I think if the class is to have good results for the students' language skills, the class should at least continue for one to two years. I am not sure when the
class will stop, because of students dropping the class.

12/4 Science for Immersion Students

Three birds ate 2 raisins, 8 seeds, 1 cracker, and 3 peanuts. When I explain the sentence above, I need drawings and pictures, body language and gestures, which are everything I need for their understanding the meaning of the sentence. I think I must be a good actor.

12/6(Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

12/7 Language Arts for Immersion Students

I can’t control the number of students in my class. Almost half of the students have already dropped out of my class. Oh, my! I didn’t know doing research is really hard, like torture. I want to stop it.

12/8 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

12/9 Social Studies for Immersion Students

12/10 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

12/11 Science for Immersion Students

12/13(Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

12/14 Language Arts for Immersion Students
12/15 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

12/16 Social Studies for Immersion Students

12/17 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

12/18 Science for Immersion Students

12/20(Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

12/21 Language Arts for Immersion Students

12/22 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Test-paddling-translating-grammar-pronunciation train-supplementary lessons

12/23 Social Studies for Immersion Students

12/24 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

12/25 Science for Immersion Students
Christmas Day

12/27(mon) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

12/28 Language Arts for Immersion Students

12/29 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students
Nothing new

12/30 Social Studies for Immersion Students
12/31 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

1/1 Science for Immersion Students

Happy New Year

1/3 (Mon.) Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

1/4 Language Arts for Immersion Students

1/5 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

1/6 Social Studies for Immersion Students

1/7 Language Arts for Non-Immersion Students

Nothing new

1/8 Science for Immersion Students

The class ends. I need much more time to get a good result for the immersion students, but I can't any more, because I can't control the number of students.

1/10 (Mon.) Language Arts for Immersion Students

The class ends.
VITA

Jaiwon Jung was born in 1966 in Ulsan, South Korea. He earned a Bachelor of Art degree in English Literature from Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo, Michigan, in 1994. After graduation, he entered the graduate program at Louisiana State University at Baton Rouge where he received his Master of Art degree in Linguistics in 1996. Following his graduation, he continued his graduate studies at the same school. He is married to Simong Joo and they have a child: Yesol Jung (5 years old).
DOCTORAL EXAMINATION AND DISSERTATION REPORT

Candidate:  Jaiwon Jung

Major Field:  Linguistics

Title of Dissertation:  English Immersion Program in Korea: Student Progress after Four Months of Implementation

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

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