UNIVERZITA PALACKÉHO V OLOMOUCI

Filozofická fakulta
Katedra asijských studií

DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

Double translations of literature into dialects based on The Little Prince in Kyŏngsang dialect

Metoda dvojitého překladu do literatury na základě knihy Malý Princ v Kjŏngsanském dialektu

Olomouc 2025 Bc. Mario Bukovčan

vedoucí diplomové práce: Mag. Andreas Schirmer, Dr.

Prohlašuji, že jsem diplomovou práci vypracoval samostatně a uvedl veškeré použité prameny a literaturu.

V Olomouci dne 14. května 2025 Podpis:

Anotace

Název práce:	Metoda Dvojitého překladu literatury na základě knihy Malý Princ v Kjŏngsangském dialektu
Autor:	Bc. Mario Bukovčan
Vedoucí práce:	Mag. Andreas Schirmer, Dr.
Počet stran:	76
Počet znaků:	136 887
Počet zdrojů:	68
Klíčová slova:	dialekty, standartní jazyk, překlad, Kjŏngsangský dialekt, Malý princ, technika dvojitého překladu

Tato práce zkoumá překlad a použití Kyŏngsangského dialektu v knize *Malý Princ*. V teoretické části se podíváme na rozdíly v dialektech, ve spisovném jazyce a na jazykovou politiku na Korejském poloostrově. V další části budu zkoumat a dokumentovat způsoby, jakými tato kniha a její standartní korejské překlady používají různé překladatelské techniky. A následně popíšu, jak se Kyŏngsangský dialekt liší od standartního jazyka v Jižní Koreji, a to jak v lexikologickém, tak zejména v gramatickém ohledu, pomocí techniky dvojího překladu, která ukazuje, jak odlišné jsou gramatické částice nebo koncovky.

Annotation

Title:	Double translations of literature into dialects based on The Little Prince in Kyŏngsang dialect
Name and surname:	Bc. Mario Bukovčan
Supervisor:	Mag. Andreas Schirmer, Dr.
Number of pages:	76
Number of characters:	136 887
Number of sources:	68
Keywords:	dialects, standard language, translation, Kyŏngsang dialect, The Little Prince, double translation technique

This thesis studies the translation and the usage of the Kyŏngsang dialect in the book *The Little Prince*. In the theoretical part, I elaborate on the differences in dialects and *The Little Prince* translations into different dialects, the standard language, and the language policy on the Korean peninsula. In the next part, I examine and document the ways in which this book and its standard Korean translations employ different translation techniques. Consequently, I describe how the Kyŏngsang dialect differs from the standard language in the Republic of South Korea, both in the lexicological and especially in grammatical regard, with the help of double translation technique, which shows how different the grammatical particles or endings are.

Na tomto místě bych rád poděkoval vedoucímu mé práce Mag. Andreasu Schirmerovi, Dr., za jeho čas, který mi věnoval, ochotu, vstřícnost a rady při vedení mé diplomové práce a všem, kteří mi byli oporou.

Transcription

In this thesis, the transcription used for romanization of Korean is the "McCune–Reischauer" system. Names are written in Korean language order, first the last name which is then followed by the given name.

Content

ANOTACE **1**

ANNOTATION **2**

LIST OF FIGURES **7**

INTRODUCTION **8**

1 STANDARD LANGUAGE AND DIALECTS **10**

1.1 STANDARD LANGUAGE AND STANDARDIZATION 10
1.1.1 Standard language and language policy in South Korea *12*
1.1.2 Language policy in the DPRK *15*
1.2 DIALECTS AND DIALECTOLOGY 17
1.2.1 What is a dialect? *17*
1.2.2 Dialectology *18*
1.2.3 Translation of The Little Prince into dialects *20*

2 KOREAN DIALECTS **22**

2.1 KOREAN DIALECT'S CHARACTERISTICS 23
2.1.1 The northwestern dialect *23*
2.1.2 The Northeastern dialect *26*
2.1.3 The Central dialects *29*
2.1.4 The Southwestern dialect *32*
2.1.5 The southeastern dialect *35*
2.1.6 Cheju dialect *38*

3 ANALYSIS OF *THE LITTLE PRINCE* IN KOREAN TRANSLATIONS **41**

3.1 METHODOLOGY 41
3.2 COMPARISON OF *THE LITTLE PRINCE* TRANSLATIONS 42
3.3 TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES 45
3.3.1 Simplification *46*
3.3.2 Compensation *47*
3.3.3 Omission *48*
3.3.4 Inversion *49*

4 *THE LITTLE PRINCE* IN THE KYŎNGSANG DIALECT **52**

4.1 PHONOLOGY OF KYŎNGSANG DIALECT 53
4.2 LEXICOLOGY OF KYŎNGSANG DIALECT 54
4.2.1 Nouns *56*
4.2.2 Verbs *57*
4.2.3 Adverbs *58*

5 GRAMMAR OF THE KYŎNGSANG DIALECT **60**

5.1 CASE PARTICLES 60
5.1.1 Nominative case *61*
5.1.2 Genitive case *62*
5.1.3 Accusative case *63*
5.1.4 Dative case *64*
5.1.5 Locative case *66*
5.1.6 Comitative case *67*
5.1.7 Vocative case *68*
5.1.8 Instrumental case *70*
5.2 COMPARATIVE PARTICLES 71
5.2.1 -보다 (-poda) *71*
5.2.2 -처럼 (-ch'ŏrŏm) *72*
5.2.3 -같이 (-kach'i) *73*

5.3 SENTENCE CONNECTORS AND ENDINGS 74
5.3.1 -(으)모 (-(ŭ)mo) *74*
5.3.2 -아가 (-aga) *75*
5.3.3 -(으)니까 (-(ŭ)nikka) *76*
5.3.4 -믄서 (-mŭnsŏ) *76*
5.4 SENTENCE ENDINGS 77
CONCLUSION **81**
RESUMÉ **84**
LIST OF REFERENCES **87**
LIST OF APPENDICES **94**
APPENDIX **95**

List of Figures

Figure 1: Vowel fronting in the Chŏlla dialect *24*
Figure 2: Endings of the P'yŏngan dialect *26*
Figure 3: Palatalization in the Hamgyŏng dialect *27*
Figure 4: Archaic pronunciation in the Yukchin subdialect *28*
Figure 5: Endings of the northeastern dialect *29*
Figure 6: Kyŏnggi province grammatical endings *31*
Figure 7: Vowel fronting in the Chŏlla dialect *32*
Figure 8: Initial consonants' tensification in the Chŏlla dialect *33*
Figure 9: Chŏlla province grammatical endings *35*
Figure 10: Difference between tone systems in Kyŏngsang sub-dialects *36*
Figure 11: Palatalization in the Kyŏngsang dialect *37*
Figure 12: Kyŏngsang dialect grammatical endings *38*
Figure 13: Cheju dialect grammatical endings *40*
Figure 14: Konglish in the Kyŏngsang dialect *55*
Figure 15: Nouns in the Kyŏngsang dialect *56*
Figure 16: Words translatable into the Kyŏngsang dialect *57*
Figure 17: Different verbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect *57*
Figure 18: Phonetically different verbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect *58*
Figure 19: Distinctive Adverbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect *59*
Figure 20: Less distinctive adverbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect *59*
Figure 21: Standard Korean dative particles *64*
Figure 22: Standard Korean comitative particles *67*
Figure 23: Standard Korean vocative particles *69*
Figure 24: Standard Korean interrogative endings *78*

Introduction

Language is a key tool for communication in society and plays a crucial role in shaping the way people perceive the world around them. In Korea, this is not different. The Korean language is not only a medium for exchanging information but also reflects another factors that are linked to it (cultural, social etc.). In addition to the standard language, which serves as the basis for official communication, the Korean Peninsula still has regional dialects, each with its own characteristics and specifics. The Standard Korean is based on the dialect of the capital city, Sŏul, and is used in education, government, and the media. On the other hand, dialects, which historically played a big role in the daily lives of the population, are increasingly being replaced by the standard language and are fading from use in everyday life.

This master's thesis examines *The Little prince* by Antoine de Saint-Éxupery as translated into the Kyŏngsang dialect. Since its publication in 1943, the original French version has become one of the most translated works in the word, with over 600 translations in various languages and dialects. In 2022, the book was translated into the Kyŏngsang dialect, making it the first well-known literary work to be translated into this particular variety of Korean. The translation quickly gained popularity and contributed to the development of translations into other Korean dialects.

However, the translation of literature into regional dialects is still undiscovered area within translation studies. While much of the field has traditionally focused on translations between standardized national languages, adapting literature into dialects introduces a different set of questions about language, audience reception, and cultural context. For this reason, this thesis explores the dialects of the Korean language, mainly the Kyŏngsang dialect (경상도 사투리, *kyŏngsangdo sat'uri*). Comparing the dialect version with one of the (various) standard Korean versions, the goal is to is to discover the peculiar features of this dialect translations and to establish the ground, the basic knowledge about dialects in Korea and especially about the Kyŏngsang one is summarized.

The thesis is divided into two parts. The first part deals in general with dialect and dialectology, languages policies and differences between dialects.

The main standard language I will focus on is the standard Korean of the Republic of Korea (South Korea), where the Kyŏngsang dialect is also spoken. I will also briefly address the language policy of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea), which has historically been linked to the language policy of South Korea.

The second part deals with the most widely read translation of the book *The Little Prince* into standard language published in 2022, with the help of two editions published earlier, and the one into Kyŏngsang dialect. These two translations are already different at first glance, not only because of a different language variant, but also because of the usage of a different tone of express, which makes the nuances in the two books slightly different.

The translation technique known as double translation served as a tool to compare the translations. When applied, this method can reveal the ways in which the text varies from its original source material. This technique serves as the foundation, but I will also examine additional translation techniques, that can be combined with one another when translating. Subsequently, I put focus on the Kyŏngsang dialect used in the book, outlining the fundamental differences between the standard language and this dialect on the basis of examples drawn from the translation.

The main contribution of this work is that it can serve students and other linguists to research and study this interesting dialect of the Korean language. Another contribution could be an increase in awareness of this translation, since not many people and dialect enthusiasts know about this book.

1 Standard language and dialects

1.1 Standard language and standardization

To figure out what counts as a standard language, it is important to examine the meaning of the term "standard," which can be explained by consulting different dictionary definitions. Looking at English dictionaries, the word "standard" is usually described as something that is generally accepted as normal or correct. As it is stated in the *Cambridge Dictionary*, the word "standard" has a meaning of "usual rather than special, especially when thought of as being correct or acceptable"[1]. And the online Dictionary.com specifies the word as "generally used and accepted as normal."[2] That is also how standard language is viewed in real life. However, even though all these definitions make sense, they are somewhat vague, making it hard to identify speakers of the language's nature itself (Smakman 2012). Therefore, it is important to look at how linguists define the concept to gain a clearer understanding. For example, Crystal (2008, 450) defines standard language as "unified means of communication, and thus an institutionalized norm which can be used in the mass-media, in teaching the language to foreigners, and so on." This explanation offers a basic definition that can be used to describe a standard language. On the other hand, Stewart (1968, p. 533–539) goes more into depth and gives four characteristics of the standard language: vitality[3], historicity[4], autonomy[5] and standardization[6]. These four characteristics demonstrate the standard language's complexity as a social and cultural construct that acts as a factor in forming national identity.

The standard form of a language holds great importance in a country, as it is also highly esteemed by its citizens. This variation of a language is often used as the primary means of communication in news media and literature and is commonly taught to foreigners or in schools It is also codified in dictionaries and attributed with higher social prestige (Richard and Schmidt 2013).

---

[1] https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/standard

[2] https://www.dictionary.com/browse/standard

[3] Refers to the existence of a living community of speakers, whether they are alive or dead (Bell 1976, 147–157).

[4] This refers to the idea that a specific group of people creates a sense of identity by using a particular language (Bell 1976, 147–157).

[5] A language must be perceived by its speakers as distinct from other languages (Bell 1976, 147–157).

[6] The process of codifying a language which includes developing its grammar, creating dictionaries, and producing literature (Bell 1976, 147–157).

Additionally, factors such as urbanization, mass media, and globalization contribute to the dominance of the standard language.

The importance of the standard form of a language is evident. However, the establishment of such a standard language is not a simple or instant process, since it lasts long and need a careful planning. The language standardization process can be divided into four stages, that are interconnected: selection, codification, implementation, and elaboration (Holmes 2001, 107). During the first stage, the language to be used as the standard (as the norm) is chosen over another language, or a small number of languages. The selected language is often perceived as more prestigious than other. Similarly, the Sŏul dialect was chosen as the standard language in South Korea, surpassing other dialects. This dialect has been and continues to be perceived as more prestigious. After the norm was selected, the first stage transitions into the codification phase, during which the norms and rules of grammar are selected. As Haugen stated (1983, 272) results of codification is an official system for spelling, grammar, and a comprehensive dictionary. Together, these two stages can be seen as preparatory stages (Ramlan 2018).

After these two preparatory stages, the norms are implemented in the third stage. The implementation is often through the education system or media which have been the most important areas for putting norms into practice. Finally, norm elaboration comes to the fourth and final stage. The elaboration involves development of the selected norm following its implementation, since languages change over time (Linn, Sanden, Piekkari 2018, 9). All these actions are primarily carried out by the government or, more precisely, by the state. As Duranti (1997, 70) stated, the process of state formation creates the condition where one linguistic variety acquires the status of standard language. Nevertheless, in some countries standardization is not enforced by any institution or a state body. As a prime example (Curzan et al. 2023, 20), we can pinpoint the United States of America, where standardization is mainly executed by network of language authorities (editors, teaches, dictionary).

1.1.1 Standard language and language policy in South Korea

The standard language is not only a tool for ensuring effective communication but also an instrument which strengthens national identity. In the context of South Korea, this concept takes a specific form within its language policy. The Sŏul dialect, which served as the basis for the official standard language in South Korea, has taken a leading role in government institutions, the media, the educational system, and communication. This has a certain impact on regional varieties or minority languages within country. The role of the national or official language as a unifying means of communication for the entire population is, of course, desirable for many reasons. On the other hand, the status associated with the standard language often carries social prestige, which can disadvantage speakers of dialects (Mazaná 2023).

The earliest documented effort in language planning in Korean history is attributed to King Sejong (1417–1450) who created a writing system for those unable to read Chinese characters (while at the same time promoting them for the purpose of standardizing the Korean pronunciation of Chinese characters). However, the ruling elite, who had for centuries favored Chinese characters as their exclusive writing system, regarded this new writing system as "vulgar". The shift began in the end of nineteenth century when the first Korean language policies started to be developed. During this period, both the Korean language and *Hangŭl* became essential symbols of the Korean nation, encouraged by the rise of Korean nationalism. This era also marked an increasing involvement with global linguistic developments. This intensified during the period of Japanese occupation despite significant repressions and restrictions regarding the use of the Korean language in public which still maintained its central role in the national identity. The most important orthography reform took place in 1933[7] a lot of the late modifications and rules from that continue to influence the language to this day[8] (Lee and Ramsey 2011).

Following the end of Japanese colonization (1947–1950) a movement

[7] "Proposition for the Unification of Hangŭl Orthography" (한글 맞춤법 통일안 *han'gŭl match'umbŏp t'ongiran*)

[8] *Hangŭl* writing system underwent revision and standardization. Another version followed in 1978, but it was withdrawn shortly after its launch. The most recent and final version was based on the 1933 reform, though it excluded the drastic changes introduced in the 1978 revision (Lee & Ramsey, 2011).

known as the Recovery of Our Mother Tongue (우리 말 도로찾기 운동 *uri mal toroch'atki undong*) was launched by the South Korean Ministry of Education in 1948. The success of this campaign can be attributed to the dedication of the Korean Language Society and its members (Jung 2012). After the Korean War (1950–1953) the peninsula ended up divided into different political and cultural entities, each with its own approach to cultural and linguistic development. With South Korea adopting a more standardized language, while North Korea's approach was influenced by its socialist agenda that shaped their languages. These linguistic differences between the two Koreas are now more pronounced showing their contrasting political and cultural paths. The differences extend beyond vocabulary to include variations in pronunciation, spelling, and even transcription rules.

The Korean language policy in South Korea is regulated by the National Institute of Korean Language (국립국어원, *kungnipkugŏwŏn*). This language regulator's history is not that long, since it was firstly introduced in June 1990 the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (문화체육관광부, *munhwa'eyukkwan'gwangbu*) announced the plans to upgrade already established Academy of the Korean Language (국어연구소, *kugŏyŏn'guso*) as a part of the "10-year plan for the cultural development" (문화 발전 10개년 개획, *munhwa paljŏn 10-kaenyŏn kaehoek*) and the main functions of this newly made institute were selected as standardization of the language and improvement of the international status in the new era of internationalization. The institute was officially established by the presidential decree No. 13163 (대통령령 제13163호, *taet'ongnyŏng-nyŏng che-13163-ho*) on January 23, 1991 (Hŭi and To 2021).

The law that governs the Korean language is called 'the Basic Law of the Korean language' (국어기본법, *kugŏgibonbŏp*) and it is implemented with four other laws that govern certain parts of the language. By this law we can tell that 국어[9] (*kugŏ*) means the Korean language as the official language of the Republic of Korea and that 한글 (*han'gŭl*) refers to the unique characters indicating the

[9] This word in translation means 'the national language' (*kuk* nation, *ŏ* language), therefore it does notnecessarily mean "Korean" but can, if the context suggests this, mean any other language that has the status of national language in the country.

Korean language. Among these spelling systems we can find the Hangŭl orthography (한글 맞춤법, *han'gŭl match'umbŏp*), the standard language law (표준어 규정, *p'yojunŏ kyujŏng*), the regulation of how to write foreign words (외래어 표기법, *oeraeŏ p'yogibŏp*) and the rules of romanization of the Korean language (국어의 로마자 표기법, *kugŏ-ŭi romaja p'yogibŏp*). The Basic Law of the Korean Language together with the Standard Language Law also tells us that the Seoul dialect is used as the Korean standard language. Another official language used in the Republic of Korea is the Korean sign language (한국어 수화언어, *han'gugŏ suhwaŏnŏ*), that was officially added in 2016 (Mazaná 2023).

South Korea is administratively divided into eight provinces and one special autonomous province, Cheju. This thesis primarily focuses on the Kyŏngsang dialect, which originates from a historical region known as Kyŏngsang province. As for the province's language policy is linked to the state's language policy since it is the same as that of the rest of the Republic of Korea. In contrast, the Cheju Autonomous Province has its own language policy and, as a result, its language is legally protected (Mazaná 2023). Conversely, the Kyŏngsang dialect remains unaltered, leading to multiple forms of particles, for instance, each written in a different way and this system has not been revised in any way. This lack of formal regulation and the absence of an official policy for the dialect have led to variations even in others in its written form. But still, the dialect remains as a symbol of pride that faces challenges with the national trend of declining dialect usage in favor of standard Korean, which is heavily promoted in education, media, and public life. Nevertheless, the dialect holds a significant place in local culture, with speakers of the dialect often expressing strong regional identity through its use.

1.1.2 Language policy in the DPRK

Although this thesis is primarily focused on the standard language of the Republic of Korea, it is worth to briefly mention the language policy of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea). While the early stages suggested a similar trajectory, language policy in the North ultimately developed in a different direction. After the end of the Japanese colonial rule over Korea, the language in the new-formed state of North Korea started the process of "the language decolonization", as for example Taiwan where they changed the official language from Japanese to Mandarin Chinese (Liu 2012). This process was not unique to Korea since it was a common phenomenon in other former colonies where the colonizing powers had suppressed indigenous languages. In many cases, these countries chose to retain the language of the colonizers as a lingua franca, as it had become deeply rooted in everyday speech of people.

Since the liberation of Korea, a significant issue arose due to the high levels of illiteracy among people living behind the North Korean border. Most of the materials used in this time were written in *hanmun*, Classical Chinese (Literary Sinitic), using Chinese characters (*hanja*), making it difficult to teach these complex characters in short period of time. So, the urge of abandoning the dual system of usage of Korean characters (*hangŭl*) with the Chinese characters appeared (Kumatani 1990). Therefore, publications and teaching materials without Chinese characters started to appear from the year 1947 but some words have still been written in those characters with parentheses, because some Sino-Korean words are hard to comprehend without the usage of Chinese characters.

Eradication of Chinese characters was part of the "divided orthography" period (조선어 철자법 *chosŏnŏ ch'ŏljabŏp*)[10]. The primary aim of this period was also to eliminate illiteracy among the population. Despite this even during this period the standard language was still based on the Sŏul dialect, so after a dialogue between linguists and the North Korean leader Kim Il Sung a new name for the standard language of North Korea was coined: *munhwaŏ,* meaning

[10] This orthography was established after the Korean war (1950-1953) to distinguish North Korean orthography from the one used in South Korea. Before this period, there was the period of a „unified hangŭl orthography" (한글 맞춤법 통일안 *han'gŭl match'umbŏp t'ongiran*) since 1933.

“culture language” or “cultured language”. The speech of the capital city of P'yŏngyang (평양) became the model for a revision of the standard. (Han 1990). Interestingly elements from other regions, especially from the Hamgyŏng province, we also incorporated into the language (Kumatani 1990).

Starting in the 1960s, The North Korean state started to emphasize its national characteristics and pursued a comprehensive reform of its vocabulary by replacing Sino-Korean words by native Korean words as much as is feasible. In other words, the main point was to eradicate words of purportedly foreign origin and make a new purportedly pure Korean that would display the national character. This “Koreanization” was realized by three methods (Kumatani, 1990). The first step was discarding the words that mainly represented religious concepts and feudalism to be then replaced by newly made ones or even discarded completely from the use. Second step was to use exclusively the pure Korean words, which even loan words were Koreanized by adding pure Korean elements. And the last method was adaptation of Sino-Korean words that cannot be so easily abolished, therefore are still in use to this day (Tongwan 1990).

1.2 Dialects and dialectology

1.2.1 What is a dialect?

While the previous section focused on the standard language, this part will take a closer look at the concept of dialect. To begin, I will define origins of the word "dialect." The word "dialect" first appeared during the Renaissance, originating from the Ancient Greek word dialektos, meaning discourse, language, or dialect (Mašlaň 2006). The first part of the word, "dia-" carries the meaning of "across", indicating connection. Meanwhile the second part, "-lektos" refers specifically to "speech", highlighting the communicative aspect of the term. An early recorded use of this word can be found in Christopher Langton's book An Introduction in Phisycke (1545), where the word appears with the meaning "form of speech". Over time, the meaning of "dialect" became more specialized and evolved into its current use in linguistics.

Several definitions by leading linguists form around the world can be used to describe the term "dialect". For the purposes of this paper, I will follow the definition provided by the renowned linguist Victoria Fromkin. According to Fromkin (2007, 269), dialects are mutually intelligible forms of a language that differ in systematic ways, and every speaker speaks at least one dialect. Nevertheless, it can be quite difficult to decide if the difference of speech between two people represent a dialect of the same language or entirely separate language[11]. This distinction is often influenced more by political and social factors than by linguistic criteria. When further exploring different definitions, we can also refer to the one that states that a dialect always arises when there is a language with a larger number of speakers. This is especially true when there is a geographical barrier that can separate these speakers from each other (Crystal, 142).

It is important to acknowledge that dialects are not inferior forms of a language, but instead a legitimate variety of the same language. This is particularly important on the Korean Peninsula where dialect variations are sometimes looked down upon compared to the standard Korean language. This

[11] When dialects become mutually unintelligible (not understandable), these dialects often become different languages (Fromkin, 2007). However, in the case of Chinese dialects (Mandarin, Cantonese, Hakk etc.), this rule does not hold true. Chinese linguists still consider these "languages" as dialects, even though their speakers do not understand each other.

is not only an issue of Korea, but also in various societies around the world, there is a tendency to elevate the official version of a language while pushing regional dialectics aside for being less prestigious. However, this could lead to language being judged and impacting the speakers (Wells 1982, 13).

The contemporary Korean language, although relatively homogeneous, can be divided into several dialects that exhibit a high degree of mutual intelligibility. However, considerable variation is observed in phonology, vocabulary, and even morphology across these dialects. The Korean Peninsula is characterized by several distinct dialect zones, each with its unique linguistic features[12]. The formation of these dialects is a result of geographical and social factors, due to the peninsula's mountainous landscape which lead to linguistic diversity. Most scholars agree that there are six major dialectal zones in Korea, although these boundaries are not sharply refined, and instead dialects merge into one another, creating a dialect continuum (Fromkin, 2007, p. 270). This dialect continuums are common in areas with linguistic diversity, where geographic isolation and social factors contribute to the development of dialects (Chambers and Trudgill 1998, 6).

1.2.2 Dialectology

Dialectology is a subfield of linguistics that examines the social and regional variations within a language. It investigates how social and geographic factors influence the development of different dialects, including variations in phonology, syntax and vocabulary and it is often regarded as a branch of sociolinguistics. In other words, dialectology seeks to document, analyze, and understand these variations and how they relate to geographical and social factors (Crystal 2009).

The first know works in dialectology began in the late 19th century, when detailed surveys in the form of questionnaires were used to identify differences between language varieties. Distinct words (whether in their form or pronunciation) were of particular interest and were subsequently recorded on maps known as dialect maps (or linguistic maps). If a particular region showed

[12] From a linguistic perspective, when specific language features accumulate within a particular geographic area, the resulting variety is referred to as a regional dialect (Fromkin, 2011).

linguistic differences, it was considered evidence of a dialect. This method often made it possible to determine where one dialect ended and another began (Crystal 2009). These were referred to as dialect boundaries. However, it is clear that such boundaries are not absolute, and a new dialect does not begin precisely at a defined border. To set an example, the most famous dialect map is Atlas Linguistique de la France (1896), which, mapped the dialects of French across France, Belgium, and western Switzerland. Similar projects followed in other countries, such as Germany and later Great Britain. All the methods used during this period are today referred to as traditional dialectology (Malmkjaer 2009). In the mid-20th century, methods of data gathering in dialectology began to change with the emergence of new technologies. More frequently, data was collected in the form of audio recordings and interviews, which served as a basis for further research and more accurate identification of dialectal differences.

Dialectological studies on the Korean Peninsula does not have such a long history as, for example, in Europe. In contrast, the majority of dialectological research on the Korean Peninsula began in the early 20th century during the rule of the Japanese Empire. As a result, much of these works were written in Japanese. Among the most famous dialectologists during the period of Japanese rule was undoubtedly I Gŭk-ro who contributed to publishing a book called 한국어의 방언 (*Han'gugŏ-ŭi pangŏn*, 'The Dialects of Korean') in 1932, during his membership in in the Korean Language Association[13]. Although he was born in the South Kyŏngsang Province, he spent most of his adult life in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK), where he with his work contributed to the implementation of a standard language and language policy that is still in use to this day (Barnes-Sadler 2020).

In contemporary Korea, Professor Ch'oe Myŏng-ok, who has dedicated his entire life to the study of Korean dialects, has had a large influence on Korean dialectology. In 2019, he brought his years of research to a close with the release of the first edition of a book on Korean dialects (한국어의 방언, *Han'gugŏŭi pangŏn*) that provides a comprehensive overview of the key variations in phonology, grammar, and lexicon across the different dialects (Ch'oe 2019).

[13] The Korean Language Association is a research center founded in 1908, which purpose lies in studying, preserving, and developing the Korean language and its writing system (Barnes-Sadler, 2020, p. 315).

Although this book shares the same title as I Gŭk-ro's work, it is, of course, a more modern publication.

1.2.3 Translation of *The Little Prince* into dialects

The study of dialects is not only crucial in understanding the linguistic diversity of a given region, but also in the preservation and representation of these dialects in literary works. Dialects play an important role in conveying the unique cultural and social identity of the speakers, while translation of literature into various dialects offers an important insight into these regional variations. One prominent example of this phenomenon is Antoine de Saint-Exupéry's *The Little Prince* which will be my primary focus in this thesis. To this day *The Little Prince* has been translated into more than 620 languages and dialects since its publication in 1943. It is, therefore, regarded as the most translated non-religious book globally with the total number of editions within the same language or dialect exceeding 7,000 versions (Sandoz 2021). Initially, the book was translated into the major global languages[14], more recently, it has been translated into less known languages into which translations are done rarely. Examples of such languages include Abkhazian[15], the constructed language of Klingon, and even the indigenous Toba Qom language spoken in Argentina (Saint-Exupéry, Moreno, and Veron 2005).

Looking more closely at translations into dialects, we notice that Italian had highest number of translations into its dialects, with 58 versions and German follows with 47 translations (Sandoz 2021). In case of German dialect version – we can find translations into a main dialect but also into sub-dialects that are specific for an individual city (such as the dialect spoken in Düsseldorf). This shows just how important local language and identity are, especially in places like Germany and Italy, since it also helps keep these unique language's varieties alive.

Czech language is also rich in different dialects, that differ predominantly in pronunciation and vocabulary. The most distinct differences in comparison with the Standard language can be found in border areas and in the eastern part

[14] English (1943), Italian (1949), German (1950), Spanish (1951), Swedish (1952)
[15] A Northwest Caucasian language spoken in a partially recognized state of Abkhazia (Georgia) in the South Caucasus.

of the country. This was due to the centuries of being influenced by various languages, as well as by their isolation and distance from larger cities, where Standard Czech was more commonly used. Therefore, it is not common these days to find a book translated into a dialect. However, the book The Little Prince is different, since it was translated into several Czech dialects. The first translation made into a dialect in the Czech Republic was *Malé Principal* (Saint-Exupéry and Jindra 2020) in the Brno Hantec dialect, which was followed by the book titled *Malučky Princ* (Saint-Exupéry, Hoffmanová and Bachmannová 2023) in the Krkonoše dialect, and finally last year's version in East Moravian dialect of Moravian Slovakia called *Malušenky Princ* (Saint-Exupéry and Škarnétka 2024)

The Little Prince in standard Korean, according to a news article on the Chosun Ilbo (Hŏn 2020) website, was first published in a newspaper sometime in the late 1950s in brief weekly installments. However, the first complete book edition was published in 1971. Since its first publication, *The Little Prince* has been released in over 320 editions by various publishing houses and translated into standard Korean by dozens of translators. The number of translations into standard Korean has continued to grow annually and in recent years, there has been a noticeable shift in focus towards translating this classic into Korean dialects, which were often overlooked. This shift began in 2020 with the first translation of The Little Prince into the Kyŏngsang dialect, specifically the regional version spoken in and around Pohang. Because of the groundbreaking nature of this translation, other translators have chosen to translate this book into other dialects, such as the dialect of Chŏlla Province (translated in 2021) or the dialect of Cheju Island (translated in 2022).

2 Korean dialects

Korean dialects can be divided into several zones based on the regions in which they are spoken. One of the main factors influencing their differences is the Korean Peninsula's mountainous terrain. Mountains and rivers as well historically served as natural barriers, making it difficult for people to move freely between communities. As a result, the differences between the ways people spoke in various regions gradually increased. Despite this, most Korean dialects remain largely intelligible to speakers of the standard language as well as to speakers of other dialects. Indeed, the majority of scholars agree on the existence of six dialectal zones, which each is characterized by unique phonological, lexical and grammatical features. These zones are as follows:

1) The northwestern dialects (서북 방언, *sŏbuk pangŏn*)
2) The northeastern dialects (동북 방언, *tongbuk pangŏn*)
3) The central dialects (중부 방언 *chungbu pangŏn*)
4) The southwestern dialects (서남 방언 *sŏnam pangŏn*)
5) The southeastern dialects (동남 방언 *tongnam pangŏn*)
6) Cheju dialect (제주 방언 *cheju pangŏn*)

Throughout history, speakers of Korean could be found even outside of modern borders of the Korean Peninsula, particularly in the provinces of northeastern China, which were once ruled by Korean kingdoms. This dialect spoken by the Korean minority in China (mainly the Yanbian Autonomous Prefecture) is considered part of the northeastern dialect continuum, that can be also can be found on the north Korean side of the borders in the Hamgyŏng province (함경도, *Hamgyŏngdo*) (Yeon 2012). Another dialect that we can find outside of the Korean Peninsula is the so-called 'soviet Korean'. This term refers to Korean speakers who were moved from the east territory of the Soviet Union to the countries of Central Asia (Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan etc.) during the beginning of the 20th century. Koryo-saram, as these speakers refer to themselves, speak mainly the northeastern dialect, which also contains various words from the Russian language (King 1990).

2.1 Korean dialect's characteristics

Korean dialects, despite their mutual intelligibility, exhibit a number of differences that make them unique. This chapter will focus on the characteristics of these dialect, with particular emphasis on the areas of phonology, lexicology, and grammar.

2.1.1 The northwestern dialect

Northwestern dialect is spoken in the western part of the North Korea in the P'yŏngan province (평안도, *P'yŏngan-do*). This dialect was established as the basis for North Korea's standard language, known as "Cultural language" (문화어, *Munhwa-ŏ*), in 1964 and continues to be used to this day. Over the last 60 years, the dialect has developed significantly due to propagandistic influenced and governmental-led efforts aimed at language purification. Despite these modifications, North Korean standard language still remains deeply rooted in the Sŏul dialect, historical standard of the entire Korean Peninsula.

According to Ok (2015), the P'yŏngan's province dialect consist of eight vowels (이 [*i*], 에 [*e*], 애 [*ae*], 으 [*ŭ*], 어 [*ŏ*], 우 [*u*], 오 [*o*], 아 [*a*]), but is some areas 으 and 어, change to 우 and 오, respectively. Another interesting phenomenon the pronunciation of the vowels 에 [*e*], 애 [*ae*], which are often pronounced as long diphthongs [*ei*] and [*a:i*], as can be seen in example of the word 개 (*kae*) 'dog', which is pronounced as 가이 (*ka:i*). Additionally, P'yŏngan dialect is only dialect that allows the usage of the nasal consonant *n* in the beginning of a word when it is directly followed by the high front vowel [*i*] or glide[16] [*j*]. Notable example of this feature is the word 녀자 (*nyŏja*, woman), which in the North Korean standard dialect retains the initial nasal *n*. In contrast, this word in pronounced as 여자 (*yŏja*) in standard South Korean, omitting the nasal consonant. The northwestern dialect did not undergo the palatalization[17]

[16] Glide is a non-syllabic segment which has the phonetic characteristics of a vowel but the phonological behaviour of a consonant (Trask, 1996, p. 320). An example of the semivowel [*j*] is the English word *yes*, where the letter *y* represents this semivowel. In Korean, this phenomenon can be observed in the word 약 (*yak*), which means medicine.

[17] Palatalization in the Korean language refers to a phonological process in which a consonant sound is altered or modified to become more palatal. The palatalization occurs among ㄷ (*t*), ㄱ (*k*) and ㅎ (*h*) consonants when they change into ㅈ (*ch*), ㅊ (*ch'*), and ㅉ (*tch*) consonants when followed by the high and front vowel 이 (*i*) (Hong, 1997).

process that occurred in the southern dialects during the 17th century, development that later spread to most other regional dialects (Yeon 2020).

As was mentioned earlier, many Sino-Korean words were eliminated during the "Koreanization" period. The vocabulary of the northwestern dialect, together with other archaic terms, was standardized through *mal tadŭmgi undong* (말 다듬기 운동, the Language Purification Movement). As a result, the North Korean standard language continues to use more traditional Korean terms, unlike the standard South Korean language, which has incorporated numerous anglicisms in recent years (Yeon 2012).

	P'yŏngan dialect	**Standard Korean**
clothes	오티 *ot'i*	옷 *ot*
lunch	찬밥 *ch'anbap*	점심 *chŏmsim*
side dish	찔게 *tchilge*	반찬 *panch'an*
again	고테 *kot'e*	다시 *tasi*

Figure 1: Vowel fronting in the Chŏlla dialect

In terms of grammar, this dialect features several distinct grammatical patterns and particles that are unique within this regional variety. For example, the nominative particles that are used in this dialect are non-identical with its counterparts in the South Korean standard language. The particle -가 (*-ka*) is replaced with -래/-레 (*-rae/-re*), while allowing the usage of the nominative particle -이 (*-i*) even in situations, where we would use the particle -가 (*-ka*). This phenomenon dates back to the 15th century, when only nominative particle -이 (*-i*) was used. Over time, the particle -가 (*-ka*) became incorporated into the language (Ok 2019). An example of the particle's usage is demonstrated in the following sentences:

(1) 데 사람 코이 와 데레? (SK: 저 사람 코가 왜 저래?)
Te saram k'oi̲ wa tere? (SK: Chŏ saram k'oga wae chŏrae?)
Why is that person's nose like this?

(2) 은지야, 내레 맨저 갈랜다. (SK: 은지야, 내가 먼저 가겠다.)

Ŭnjiya, naere maenjŏ kallaenda. (SK: Ŭnjiya, naega mŏnjŏ kagetta.)

Ŭnji, I am going first.

As for the accusative particles -을/-를 (*-ŭl/-rŭl*), usage and fuctions remain same as in the standard language. However, in some parts of the province, speakers often omit the particle -를 (*-rŭl*). Particles used for conjunction have a form of -과 (*-kwa*) and -허구 (*hŏgu*). Particle -과 (*-kwa*) was used as a comitative particle before the 17th century and was divided into -과 (*-kwa*) and -와 (*-wa*) in the standard language. Tense suffixes forms also exhibit distinctive features compared to the South Korean standard language. For instance, the past tense marker -앗/아시- (*-at/asi-*) is used in the same way as the South Korean counterpart -았- (*-ass-*). However, while this marker is primarily understood as a past tense marker, it can also indicate a perfective aspect, as it signifies that the situation has already been completed. As Lee (2001) noted, this marker can convey the meaning of "anteriority", functioning as a bridge between tense and aspect.

The future marker is a form that typically indicates that the even being describes has not yet occurred but is anticipated to do so in the future. In P'yŏngan dialect, this marker is expressed by -갓- (*-kat-*) suffix (Hyeon 2020).

(3) 오놀 갓다 오갓수다. (SK: 오늘 갔가 오겠습니다.)

Onol katta ogatsuda. (SK: Onŭl katka ogessŭmnida.)

I will go and come back today.

	Polite	Intimate	plain
declarative	-(스)ㅂ네다 - (sŭ)mneda -(스)ㅂ무다 - (sŭ)mmuda -(소)와요 - (so)wayo	-(스)ㅂ네 -(sŭ)mne -(스)ㅂ데 -(sŭ)pte -소웨 -sowe	-다 -ta -(느)ㄴ다 -(nŭ)nda
interrogative	-(스)ㅂ네까 - (sŭ)mnekka -(스)ㅂ데까 - (sŭ)ptekka	-(스)ㅂ마 - (sŭ)mma -(스)ㅂ데 - (sŭ)pte -소와 -sowa	-니 -ni -네 -ne -너니 -nŏni -간 -kan
imperative	-(으)라요 -(ŭ)rayo -(으)시라요 -(ŭ)sirayo -(으)시우 -(ŭ)siu	-(으)시 -(ŭ)si -(으)시다나 -(ŭ)sidana	-(으)라 -(ŭ)ra -어라 -ŏra
propositive	-(으)ㅂ세다 - (ŭ)pseda -(으)ㅂ수다 - (ŭ)psuda		-자 -cha

Figure 2: Endings of the P'yŏngan dialect[18]

2.1.2 The Northeastern dialect

The northeastern dialect zone is located in the northeastern part of the Korean Peninsula, specifically in modern-day North Korea (Hamgyŏng province), as well as in northeastern China. According to King (2006), this dialect has not been studied in depth, and even experts cannot definitely determine the exact number of vowels present in the dialect. This lack of comprehensive research is largely attributed to the political climate of the country. Despite this, there have been a few studies conducted in Korean, most notably by the South Korean dialectologist Ok.

[18] Namu Wiki. 2024. "서북 방언 [sŏbuk pangŏn] The Northwestern Dialect." Accessed May 1, 2025. https://namu.wiki/w/서북%20 방언#s-3.2.
Ahn, Kyou-Dong, and Yeon Jaehoon. 2020. "The Classification of the Korean Language and Its Dialects." *The Oxford Guide to the Transeurasian Languages*: 59–80. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198804628.003.0006

Ok (2019) claims, that there are around 10 vowels (이 [*i*], 에 [*e*], 애 [*ae*], 위 [*wi*], 외 [*oe*], 으 [*ŭ*], 어 [*ŏ*], 우 [*u*], 오 [*o*], 아 [*a*]). However, there are tendencies to use fewer vowels with the speakers of the South Hamgyŏng province which are quite common. As previously mentioned, along with the Kyŏngsang and Chŏlla dialects, the northeastern dialect has a distinctive H (high) and L (low) tone system that differentiates between otherwise identical words. However, unlike the P'yŏngan dialect, which employs a vowel length system, the northeastern dialect primarily relies on this tonal system instead. These two phonological features cannot exist simultaneously in the same dialect.

From a phonological perspective, the northeastern dialect exhibits several distinctive pronunciation features. For instance, palatalization of the consonants *t-*, *k-*, and *h-* is commonly observed, as illustrated in the examples below. However, in a specific region of this dialectal zone, known as the Yukchin dialect (육진 방언, *yukchin pangŏn*), *h-* palatalization occurs only sporadically. Among other phonological differences, we can observe a distinct pronunciation of the consonant ㅈ and ㅊ, which are pronounced as [*ch*] and [*ch'*] respectively (Pak 2005).

	Hamgyŏng dialect	**Standard Korean**
winter	저울 *chŏul*	겨울 *kyŏul*
oil	지림 *chirim*	기름 *kirŭm*
older sibling	성님 *sŏngnim*	형님 *hyŏngnim*

Figure 3: Palatalization in the Hamgyŏng dialect

The general geographical isolation of the area unsurprisingly results in the preservation of many more archaic features in its phonology. One of these is a pervasive rule which before *i* and *y* lose the *n* and *ng* consonants and nasalizes the preceding vowel. For example, the standard Korean word for 'brother-in-law' in is 시동생 (*sidongsaeng*) and in Hamgyŏng area it is pronounced as 새위 (*saeŭi*). A very distinctive feature that can be found in the Yukchin dialect zone is surely the allowance of the combination of 댜 (*tya*), 뎌 (*tyŏ*), 됴 (*tyo*), 듀 (*tyu*) and 냐 (*nya*), 녀 (*nyŏ*), 뇨 (*nyo*), 뉴 (*nyu*) that sound quite conservative (King 2006).

	Yukchin subdialect	Standard Korean
to like	뚛다 *tyot'a*	좋다 *chot'a*
to put	녛다 *nyŏt'a*	넣다 *nŏt'a*
world	셰샹 *syesang*	세상 *sesang*

Figure 4: Archaic pronunciation in the Yukchin subdialect

From the grammatical point of view the dialect has many characteristic grammatical endings, that can be found only in Hamgyŏng area. For example, as the P'yŏngan dialect, it does not use the subject marker -가 (*-ka*) but only -이 (*-i*) and it can be combined with the word via umlaut[19]. Still in some parts of the region, the speakers can use the nominative particle -이가 (*-iga*), that can be seen in the example below.

(4) 당신네 딸이가 찾아 왓슴메. (SK: 당신네 딸이 찾아 왔소.)

Tangsin-ne ttar-iga ch'aja watsŭmme. (SK: Tangsin-ne ttar-i ch'aja wasso.)

Your daughter is here.

As for the accusative case markers, the dialect uses of shorter variation, -으/르 (*ŭ/rŭ*), compared to the standard South Korean language, which uses the -을/를 (*ŭl/rŭl*). According to Ahn and Yeon (2020), the final consonant in these markers has undergone weakening and such instances are frequently observed in this dialect.

From the lexicological point of view, many words were borrowed from Russian and underwent a process of Koreanization in the 19th century (King 1996). Due to the region's isolation from the central part of the country and the capital city, the vocabulary exhibits distinct differences.

[19] (Kim, 2000).

	Polite	Intimate	Plain
declarative	-(으/스)ㅂ네다 -(ŭ/sŭ)mneda -(으/스)ㅂ데다 -(ŭ/sŭ)mneda -수다 -suda -소다 -soda	-(으/스)ㅂ네 -(ŭ/sŭ)mne -(으)오/소 -(ŭ)o/so -(으/스)ㅂ지비 -(ŭ/sŭ)pchibi	-(으/스)ㅁ -(ŭ/sŭ)m -다/(느)ㄴ다 -ta/(nŭ)nda
interrogative	-(으/스)ㅂ니까 -(ŭ/sŭ)mnikka -(으/스)ㅂ데까 -(ŭ/sŭ)ptekka	-(으/스)ㅂ네 -(ŭ/sŭ)mne -(으)오/소 -(ŭ)o/so -(으/스)ㅂ지비 -(ŭ/sŭ)pchibi	-니 -ni -냐 -nya
imperative	-(으)ㅂ소세 -(ŭ)psose -(으)ㅂ소 -(ŭ)pso -수다 -suda	-(으)오/소 -(ŭ)o/so	-(으)라이 -(ŭ)rai -어라 -ŏra
propositive	-(으)ㅂ세다 -(ŭ)pseda -지오다 -chioda	-(으)ㅂ세 -(ŭ)pse -기오 -kio -(으/스)ㅂ지비 -(ŭ/sŭ)pchibi	-자 -cha

Figure 5: Endings of the northeastern dialect[20]

2.1.3 The Central dialects

The central dialectal zone is located in the central part of the Korean Peninsula, surrounding the provinces of Kyŏnggi (including Sŏul Metropolitan area and Inchŏn), Hwanghae, Kangwŏn, and part of Ch'ungch'ŏng (Taejŏn and Sejong city). As such, this dialect can be further divided into three subdialects based on the province in which they are spoken. Due to its proximity to the capital city of Sŏul, this dialect closely resembles the standard South Korean language, making it relatively easy to understand. However, despite these similarities, the dialect

[20] Namu Wiki. 2024. "동북 방언 [tongbuk pangŏn] The Northeastern Dialect." Accessed May 1, 2025. https://namu.wiki/w/동북%20 방언.
Ahn, Kyou-Dong, and Yeon Jaehoon. 2020. "The Classification of the Korean Language and Its Dialects." *The Oxford Guide to the Transeurasian Languages*: 59–80. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198804628.003.0006

still contains distinctive features, allowing them to be easily distinguished.

From the phonological point of view, the dialects can have around 7 to 10 vowels (이 [i], 에 [e], 애 [ae], 위 [wi], 외 [oe], 으 [ŭ], 어 [ŏ], 우 [u], 오 [o], 아 [a]) depending on research (Ok 2019). In the Ch'ungch'ŏng area we can see many cases of vowel raising, that means that some vowels change into another. For instance, the vowel *o* in the word 못해 (*mothae*) 'cannot do' changes into *u* vowel 뭇해 (*muthae*) or the vowel *e* changes into *i*. As can be seen in the example with the word 세다 (*seda*), 'to be strong,' which changes into 시다 (*sida*). In contrast to the tone system, this dialect possesses the vowel length system that differentiates the meaning of words based on their vowel length. However, the vowel lengthening disappears when the word is connected in a multisyllable word. The words 벌 (*pŏl*) and 일벌 (*ilpŏl*) can serve as an example, since the first one contains the long vowel 어: (*ŏ:*), whereas the second one has only short vowel (Ahn and Yeon 2019).

The grammatical structure of the central dialects closely resembles that of Standard Korean, therefore, making their particles and other grammatical features easily distinguishable. Like Standard Korean, the central dialects use the conjunctive particles and make distinctions between -와 (wa) and -과 (kwa). Nevertheless, the conjunctive particle -하고 (hago) appears in these dialects somewhat differently, since it uses different sets of vowels. It can be written and pronounced as -하구 (*-hagu*) or -허구 (*-hŏgu*), which is used mainly in the Kanggwŏn province, since its isolation and distance from the Sŏul area. In the given example below, the use of the comitative particle in connection with nouns is clearly visible.

(5) 국허구 밥허구 놓구. (SK: 국과 밥을 놓고)

Kuk-hŏgu pap-hŏgu nok'u. (SK: Kuk-kwa papŭl nok'o)

To put soup and rice.

As for the conditional particle -(으)면 (*-(ŭ)myŏn*), the counterpart in this dialect is -(으)믄 (*-(ŭ)mŭn*) and it is used to express conditionality of a sentence. The use of this conditional marker can be seen down in the example (Ok 2019).

(6) 그렇지 않으믄 소와 말이 같이 뛴다. (SK: 그렇지 않으면 소와 말이 같이 뛴다.)

Kŭrŏch'i an-ŭmŭn so-wa mar-i kach'i ttwinda. (SK: Kŭrŏch'i an-ŭmyŏn so-wa mar-i kach'i ttwinda.)

Otherwise, cows and horses run together.

Kyŏnggi and Kangwŏn dialect use the particle -겠 to express hypothesis or purpose (often translated as future tense), similar to the standard Korean. Hwanghae dialect employs -갓 to convey the same concept. The endings are pretty much same in the dialects zone, the Ch'ungch'ŏng subdialect is no exception, however it still possesses distinctive grammatical patterns. For example, the grammatical ending -이우 (*-iu*)[21] is particularly distinctive from a phonological point of view, as it is pronounced with a rise in pitch followed by fall, which is characteristic of the generally slower speed tempo for which this dialect is known (Ahn and Yeon 2020).

	Polite	**Intimate**	**Plain**
declarative	-(스)ㅂ니다 (sŭ)mnida	-어요 -ŏyo -어유 -ŏyu	-다/(느)ㄴ다 -ta/(nŭ)nda -어 -ŏ
interrogative	-(스)ㅂ니까 (sŭ)mnikka	-어요 -ŏyo -어유 -ŏyu	-냐 -nya -니 -ni
imperative	-(으)십시오 (ŭ)sipsiyo	-(으)세요 (ŭ)seyo -어요 -ŏyo -어유 -ŏyu	-어라 -ŏra -어-ŏ
propositive	-(으)시지요 (ŭ)sijiyo -(으)시쥬 -(ŭ)sijyu		-자 -cha -어 -ŏ

Figure 6: Kyŏnggi province grammatical endings[22]

[21] Comparable to the South Korean's standard ending -요 (-yo).

[22] Namu Wiki. 2024. "경기 방언 [kyŏnggi pangŏn] Dialect of Kyŏnggi Province." Accessed May 1, 2025. https://namu.wiki/w/경기%20 방언.
Ahn, Kyou-Dong, and Yeon Jaehoon. 2020. "The Classification of the Korean Language and Its Dialects." *The Oxford Guide to the Transeurasian Languages*: 59–80.

2.1.4 The Southwestern dialect

The southwestern dialect, also known as the dialect of Chŏlla provinces is one of the dialects of the Korean language spoken in the southwestern part of the Korean Peninsula. It is primarily used in the Honam region (호남 지방, *honam chibang*), which includes South Chŏlla province, Chŏnbuk state (formerly known as the North Chŏlla province), and Gwangju Metropolitan City. Historically, this region has been associated with political resistance and economic hardship. Despite its rich cultural heritage, some still view Chŏlla accent negatively and it is often used in Korean comedic imitations (Kang 2015, 26).

The phonological features of this dialect are thoroughly studied, since there are a lot of studies from well-known dialectologists. The dialect contains 9 vowels (이 [*i*], 에 [*e*], 위 [*wi*], 외 [*oe*], 으 [*ŭ*], 어 [*ŏ*], 우 [*u*], 오 [*o*], 아 [*a*]), because of merging of 에 (*e*) and 애 (*ae*). However, among older speakers we can find that they make a difference in pronunciation between the close front vowel 에 (*e*) and open front vowel 애 (*ae*), in that case, we can say that it has 10 vowels. As for the vowels, the vowel lengthening system is quite prominent in this dialect, unlike the neighboring Kyŏnsang dialect which uses the tone system.

Common phenomenon is the change of the final *i* vowel into the *u* sound after *m*, *p*, *k* and *ng*, that is also found in the Kyŏngsang dialect area. Another change that is widespread in this area is the fronting of *ŭ* into *i* sound which happens both within morphemes and at morpheme borders (King 2006). These changes can be seen in the examples down below.

	Chŏlla dialect	**Standard Korean**
butterfly	나부 *nabu*	나비 *nabi*
spider	거무 *kŏmu*	거미 *kŏmi*
chest	가심 *kasim*	가슴 *kasŭm*

Figure 7: Vowel fronting in the Chŏlla dialect

Occasionally, the Chŏlla dialect features a final *a* vowel connected with the *i* vowel. This combination is commonly observed in the south Chŏlla dialectal zone. For example, the word 그림재 (*kŭrimjae*) meaning 'shadow'

contrasts with the standard Korean word 그림자 (*kŭrimja*) which does not include this vowel combination. Additionally, unlike other dialects, the Chŏlla dialect exhibits significant tensification of word-initial consonants such as *k*, *p*, *t*, and *s*, which is a notable characteristic of this language variety.

	Chŏlla dialect	**Standard Korean**
tofu	뚜부 *ttubu*	두부 *tubu*
soju	쐬주 *ssoeju*	소주 *soju*
corn	깡냉이 *kkangnaengi*	강냉이 *kangnaengi*

Figure 8: Initial consonants' tensification in the Chŏlla dialect

K- and *h*-palatalization are also immensely widespread in the dialects of the whole Honam region. However, the k-palatalization is commonly found in word-initiation position. The example are words 전디다 (*chŏndida*) 'to endure' and 짐 (*chim*) 'seaweed' which in the standard south Korean language are written with the initial *k* consonant as 견디다 (*kyŏndida*) and 김 (*kim*) (Yeon 2012).

In terms of grammar, the Chŏlla dialect a lot of characteristic propositions and markers that are quite unique to this dialect. One of the widely recognized grammatical markers is expressed in Standard Korean as -(으)니까 (*-(ŭ)nikka*). In the Chŏlla as well as in the southern part of Ch'ungch'ŏng dialectal zone, the speakers use a form -응게 (*-ŭngke*) or -응께 (*-ŭngkke*). According to Kim (2017), the grammatical marker with the tensified *k* consonant is mainly used in the South Chŏlla region, while in the north of the Honam region the standard *k* consonant is used. The usage can be illustrated in the following example.

(7) 그분들이 많이 살고 있응께 ... (SK: 그분들이 많이 살고 있으니까 ...)
Kŭbun-dŭr-i mani sal-go iss-<u>ŭngkke</u> … (SK: Kŭbun-dŭr-i mani sal-go iss-ŭnikka…)
Because a lot of them live …

Other grammatical markers that would likely be associated with the Honam region dialect by most Koreans include -땀시 (*-ttamsi*) or -땜시 (*-ttaemsi*) and other variations with the meaning of 'because of' which in standard speech is pronounced as -때문에 (*-ttaemune*). While the past tense suffixes align with those in Standard Korean, the future tense -겠 (-kess) is pronounced with back unrounded vowel ŏ as -겄 (-kŏss). Another distinctive feature of South Chŏlla variety is the use of -게 (*-ke*) or -겨 (*-kyŏ*) to express an honorific marker -(으)시 (*-(ŭ)si*), as demonstrated in the example (King 2006).

(8) 금세보 오겨라우? (SK: 벌써 오셔요?)
Kŭmsebo ogyŏrau? (SK: Pŏlssŏ osyŏyo?)
Is (someone) coming already?

In this example, not only the honorific marker is used, but also a very specific ending form -라우 (*-rau*) that has the same functions as -요 (*-yo*) to indicate honorifics in the standard language. An additional usage of this ending is used in the greeting word "안녕하셔라우" (*annyŏnghasyŏrau*), which is a dialectal variation of the standard "안녕하세요" (*annyŏnghaseyo*) (Lee 2005).

	Polite	Intimate	Plain
declarative	-아라우 -arau -요 -yo -소 -so -(스)ㅂ디다 -(sŭ)ptida	-네 -ne -(이)시 -(i)si	-어야 -ŏya
interrogative	-(음)니껴 -(ŭm)nikkyŏ -소 -so -오 -o	-(능/웅)가 -(nŭng/ŭng)ka -등가 -tŭngga	-냐 -nya -드냐 -tŭnya
imperative	-(으)씨요 -(ŭ)ssiyo	-세 -se	-야 -ya
propositive	-(으)ㅂ시다 -(ŭ)psida	-더라고 -tŏrago	-더라고 -tŏrago

Figure 9: Chŏlla province grammatical endings[23]

2.1.5 The southeastern dialect

The speakers of this dialect are mainly located in the Yŏngnam region (영남 지방, yŏngnam chibang) that consists of the provinces of North and South Kyŏngsang and the self-governing cities of Taegu, Busan and Ulsan. This brings the total number of speakers of the dialect to around 13 million, making it the most widely spoken dialect in South Korea. However, much like the dialect of the Chŏlla provinces, the speakers are often made fun of, and the dialect is frequently portrayed in media and TV dramas as the speech of gangsters or non-educated characters.

The southeastern dialect as a sub-branch of the Korean language is spoken in the south part of the Korean Peninsula and due to the mountainous character of the region and its isolation the dialect has kept many unique characteristics in the phonology, grammar, and lexicology, but still not as prominent as in the Cheju dialect. The most well-documented aspect of the southeastern dialect's phonological system is undoubtedly its tone system, which

[23] Namu Wiki. 2024. "서북 방언 [sŏbuk pangŏn] The Northwestern Dialect." Accessed May 7, 2025. https://namu.wiki/w/서북%20 방언#s-3.2.
Ahn, Kyou-Dong, and Yeon Jaehoon. 2020. "The Classification of the Korean Language and Its Dialects." *The Oxford Guide to the Transeurasian Languages*: 59–80. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198804628.003.0006

remains in use today though with slight variations across the former Yŏngnam region. This tone system bears resemblance to that of the Hamgyŏng region, but unlike its tone system, this dialect zone's tones start from L (low) tone to H (high) tone. However, some linguists still dispute whether the South Kyŏngsang dialect can have three sets of tones L (low), M (medium) and H (high) with the L tone only used in the phrase initial position and M and H for other positions. The tones system can be seen in an example below (Kim 2013).

	South Kyŏngsang	**North Kyŏngsang**
말 "language"	L	M
말 "a unit of weight"	M	M
말 "horse"	H	H

Figure 10: Difference between tone systems in Kyŏngsang sub-dialects

This table shows the use of tone and the distinction between words that appear identical at first glance. However, most linguists believe that this dialect has only two tones, being supported mainly by linguists from the North Kyŏngsang, who are native speakers of the dialect (Lee and Davis 2009, 5).

The vowel system and the number of vowels in the dialect remain a topic of debate, but according to the majority of dialectologists, the number is around six. The limited number of vowels in the dialect can be attributed to the merging of certain vowels that are distinct in the standard language. For example, the standard vowel 애 (*ae*) has merged into 에 (*e*) and 으 (*ŭ*) has shifted to 어 (*ŏ*). As a result, two distinct words in standard language 언어 (*ŏnŏ*) and 은어 (*ŭnŏ*) are pronounced the same as 언어 (*ŏnŏ*) (Ok 2019).

The dialect also features several types of umlaut sound changes, where a back vowel is fronted before the sounds *i* or *y*. One example is the 아→애 (*a→ae*) shift, as seen in the word 소나기 (*sonagi*), meaning 'rain shower', which becomes 소내기 (*sonaegi*). Another sound change involves the substitution of vowels 오 (*o*) or 우 (*u*) with 이 (*i*) transforming the word 쇠고기 (*soegogi*) into 시기기 (*sigigi*) (Park 2006). As in other dialects, the palatalization of *k* and *h* consonants is also a significant feature of this dialect zone. This phenomenon is so prevalent that the region is considered as the epicenter of *k*-palatalization on

the Korean Peninsula (King 2006). The *k* consonants palatalization happens before [*i*] vowel or semivowel [*j*].

	Kyŏngsang dialect	**Standard Korean**
street	질 *chil*	길 *kil*
coughing	지첨 *chich'ŏm*	기침 *kich'im*
seaweed	짐 *chim*	김 *kim*

Figure 11: Palatalization in the Kyŏngsang dialect

The initial consonants in this dialect undergo a process of tensification, which is one of its defining characteristics. As a result, it is relatively easy for speakers of the Korean language to identify the speaker from the Kyŏngsang area. However, speakers in certain parts of the region (Taegu, Yŏngchŏn) do not differentiate between the standard *s* and the tensified *ss* consonants at beginning of a word.

The grammatical particles that are used by the speakers of this dialect are often characteristic to the Kyŏngsang region. The accusative case markers are very common, and its numbers is bigger than in the standard Korean. The speakers in the north province use -얼/럴 (*-ŏl/rŏl*) when these forms are results from the phonetic change of the standard Korean -을/를 (*-ŭl/rŭl*). However, according to Pak and Kim (2015), these days mainly younger speakers choose to use the standard form instead of the dialect's form and this change happened only within 20 years. This shows us how language is still alive and is changing every day. Other versions of the accusative particles are the -으를 (*-ŭrŭl*) use in the Yŏngdŏk are of the North Kyŏngsang province or -(으)로 (*-(ŭ)ro*), -(으)러 (*-(ŭ)rŏ*) used around Kyŏngju and Uljin areas (Kadoríková 2018). For the comitative marker, the dialect uses a particle -캉 (*-k'ang*) the origin of which most likely goes back to the Middle Ages Korean. Korean linguists conclude that initially the connecting particle was only one, namely the particle -과 (*-kwa*) and through phonetic changes from this original particle other varieties of connective markers has risen in other Korean dialects, including Kyŏngsang (Ok 2019).

(9) 술캉 떡캉 음시글 마이 머걷따. (SK: 술과 떡과 음식을 많이 먹었다.)
Sul-k'ang ttŏk-k'ang ŭmsigŭl mai mŏgŏtta. (SK: Sul-gwa ttŏk-kwa ŭmsigŭl mani mŏgŏtta.)
I ate a lot of alcohol, rice cakes, and food.

	Polite	Intimate	Plain
declarative	-아라우 -arau -요 -yo -소 -so -(스)ㅂ디다 -(sŭ)ptida	-네 -ne -(이)시 -(i)si	-어야 -ŏya
interrogative	-(음)니껴 -(ŭm)nikkyŏ -소 -so -오 -o	-(능/웅)가 -(nŭng/ŭng)ka -둥가 -tŭngga	-냐 -nya -드냐 -tŭnya
imperative	-(으)씨요 -(ŭ)ssiyo	-세 -se	-야 -ya
propositive	-(으)ㅂ시다 -(ŭ)psida	-더라고 -tŏrago	-더라고 -tŏrago

Figure 12: Kyŏngsang dialect grammatical endings[24]

2.1.6 Cheju dialect

This dialect of the Korean language is spoken on the island of Cheju, located south of the Korean Peninsula. From the perspective of Korean legislation, the correct name is "Cheju dialect". however, the name Cheju language also appears in official document, for example in the official "*Regulations on Preservation and Promotion of Cheju language*" (제주어 보전 및 육성 조례, *chejuŏ pojŏn mit yuksŏng chorye*) which was approved by Cheju provincial council in 2007 (Cultural policy division 2007). The definition provided in the document explains what the Cheju dialect is, reflecting the current approach of the local government toward its own language. It is considered a valuable culture heritage

[24] 동남 방언 [tongnam pangŏn] The southeastern dialect . (2024e). https://namu.wiki/w/동남%20 방언
Ahn, Kyou-Dong, and Yeon Jaehoon. 2020. "The Classification of the Korean Language and Its Dialects." *The Oxford Guide to the Transeurasian Languages*: 59–80. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198804628.003.0006

of the island. Over time, however, it has increasingly started to be referred to as a separate language. Due to a decline in usage, it has been classified as a critically endangered language, spoken by only around five to ten thousand speakers (Yang, Yang, and O'graddy 2020).

The phonological part of this dialect fascinating, as it still preserves some features from Middle Korean. One clear example is the use of the open back rounded vowel [*ɒ*] and is written like this '•'. Other vowels are more or less the same as in the Standard Korean, but some older speakers still maintain a distinction between 애 (*ae*) and 에 (*e*), a contrast that has mostly been preserved in initial syllables (Tŏk et al. 2015). In terms of suprasegmental elements[14], the Cheju dialect does not use vowel length, stress, or tone as distinctive features. Moreover, its prosodic characteristics are similar to those of the Sŏul dialect. Notably, the only other dialect this lacks these features is the Hwanghae dialect, spoken in North Korea (Yang, Yang, and O'Grady 2020).

In terms of grammar, the Cheju dialect features distinctive grammatical particles, many of which have evolved due to the island's isolation. This isolation led to changes in some words to the point of making them unrecognizable or even creating entirely new words. One such particle is the plural marker -덜 (*-tŏl*), which is quite similar to the plural marker in standard Korean, with the usage being the same (Yang, Yang, and O'Grady 2020). Another plural marker, -네 (*-ne*), is a relic from Middle Korean that disappeared in other dialects during the transition to Early Modern Korean, mainly due to its informal tone (Lee and Ramsey 2011, 256). In the terms of nominative case markers, the Cheju dialect uses the familiar particles -이/가 (*-i/ka*), which serve the same function as they do in other Korean dialects, However, these are also unique particles that are characteristic of the Cheju region. Notably, the particles -래/라 (*-rae/ra*) function in the same way as -이/가 (*-i/ka*) but are more commonly used by older generations. Younger speakers, on the other hand, tend to use the standard nominative case markers in their speech (Mazaná 2022).

The Cheju dialect features numerous other particles and endings that are worth noting. Below a table outlining some of these distinctive endings, which highlight the dialect's linguistic characteristics.

	Polite	Intimate	Plain
declarative	-아라우 -arau -요 -yo -소 -so -(스)ㅂ디다 -(sŭ)ptida	-네 -ne -(이)시 -(i)si	-어야 -ŏya
interrogative	-(음)니껴 -(ŭm)nikkyŏ -소 -so -오 -o	-(능/응)가 -(nŭng/ŭng)ka -등가 -tŭngga	-냐 -nya -드냐 -tŭnya
imperative	-(으)씨요 -(ŭ)ssiyo	-세 -se	-야 -ya
propositive	-(으)ㅂ시다 -(ŭ)psida	-더라고 -tŏrago	-더라고 -tŏrago

Figure 13: Cheju dialect grammatical endings[25]

[25] Namu Wiki. 2024. "동남 방언 [tongnam pangŏn] The Southeastern Dialect." Accessed May 7, 2025. https://namu.wiki/w/동남%20 방언.
Ahn, Kyou-Dong, and Yeon Jaehoon. 2020. "The Classification of the Korean Language and Its Dialects." *The Oxford Guide to the Transeurasian Languages*: 59–80. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198804628.003.0006

3 Analysis of *The Little Prince* in Korean translations

For the practical part of my master's thesis, I have chosen to compare translations of *The Little Prince* by Antoine de Saint-Exupéry in three versions: the Kyŏngsang dialect, modern standard Korean, and English. Over the years, *The Little Prince* has been translated into numerous languages and dialects, making it the second most translated work in the world after the Bible.

First translation into modern standard Korean was published in the 1960s and quickly gained popularity in South Korea. In 2020, the first version in the Kyŏngsang dialect was released, following the earlier Cheju dialect edition. In 2021, a translation in the Chŏlla dialect also became available. The Kyŏngsang dialect version gained popularity among Korean readers, showing the general underrepresentation of dialect literature in Korean society. During my research, I discovered that very few books are written or translated into reginal dialects in South Korea. *The Little Prince* is notable as the first internationally recognized work to be translated into multiple Korean dialects, making it a unique case study for examining usage of regional dialects.

One of the most immediate lexical differences between the standard and dialectal versions is visible in the title of the Kyŏngsang edition: 애린 왕자 (*aerin wangja*), as opposed to the standard 어린 왕자 (*ŏrin wangja*). The term 애리다 (*aerida*), meaning 'young', is a distinctive lexical item used predominantly in the North Kyŏngsang province. This variant phonetically different from the standard 어리다 (*ŏrida*), which is commonly used in the standard variant. The use of the word 애리다 (*aerida*) reflects the linguistic features of the dialect, particularly that spoken around the city of Pŏhang. The translation process involved collaboration with dialectologists who specialize in documenting and analyzing the linguistic features of this region.

3.1 Methodology

The practical part of this thesis analyzes Korean translations of *The Little Prince* to identify the strategies used during translation. It then compares the modern Standard Korean spoken in the Republic of Korea (commonly known as South Korea) with one of the most widespread dialect features in the book, spoken in the Kyŏngsang province. Primarily morphological and grammatical variations

present in the dialect. There are several versions of the Korean translation in modern Standard Korean, each differing in the translation methods used, which will be addressed in the following section.

Sentences and phrases from the Standard Korean translation as the research material and were reviewed alongside the Kyŏngsang dialect translation (chapter 1 to 8) using the double translation technique. During this process, I examined and compared the texts to identify the translation strategies that were applied. The aim of this study wat to determine which methods were used most and least frequently in the two translations. To achieve this, the original text and its translations were analyzed, and the translation strategies employed were written down.

Consequently, I conducted a survey of Korean translations to identify key differences between modern Standard Korean and its dialectal counterpart spoken in the southeastern part of the Korean Peninsula. Using the double translation technique, I focused primarily on grammatical part, while also briefly touching on phonological and lexical aspects of the dialect. This survey can help both language learners and even native speakers recognize the essential characteristics of the Kyŏngsang province dialect, which can at times be confusing for those unfamiliar with it.

3.2 Comparison of *The Little Prince* translations

In this section of the thesis, I compare translation of *The Little prince* in both modern Standard Korean (2013, 2014, and 2022 editions), which are nearly identical and the Kyŏngsang dialect, with the English text serving as the source language. I have chosen the 2022 edition of *The Little Prince* as my primary working text. The other two editions are used as supplementary materials for a broader comparison of the translations of this literary work. The translations in the Kyŏngsang dialect and standard Korean adopt slightly different approaches, employing various strategies and techniques throughout the translation process. Several of these techniques are relevant in this thesis. Therefore, in this part of the thesis I am going to explain the techniques and find the differences between the two translations (Standard Korean and Kyŏngsang dialect). The double translation technique is used alongside other methods to highlight differences

between translations of a text in the books. It involves translating a source language into a target language, then translating it back into the original language to identify possible differences.

The first Korean translation was published in 1955, and since then, several versions in standard Korean have been published. In this thesis, I focus primarily on the 2022 edition of The Little Prince, which I compared with the 2013 and 2014 editions to better understand the text and tone of the sentences. The aim was also to identify the differences among the various Korean translations.

A comparison of the two versions from 2013 and 2014 reveals that the differences between the translations are minimal. The meaning of the sentences remains virtually identical, with the primary distinctions found in tone and subtle stylistic nuances. The 2014 version features a more relaxed tone and uses more playful expressions. The language used is also more colloquial, as seen in the choice of grammatical particles and sentence endings. In contrast, the 2022 version is stylistically closer to the 2013 translation, which also employs more formal grammatical constructions typical of written language. However, the 2022 version still possesses more direct and modern tone of translation. Examples differences are provided below.

(1) 2013 version: 위의 그림은 그것을 옮겨 그려 본 것이다[26]. (*Wiŭi kŭrimŭn kŭgŏsŭl omgyŏ kŭryŏ pon kŏsida.*)
2014 version: 위의 그림은 그걸 옮겨 그려 본 것이다[27]. (*Wiŭi kŭrimŭn kŭgŏl omgyŏ kŭryŏ pon kŏsida.*)
2022 version: 여기 그 그림의 모사본이 있다[28]. (*Yŏgi kŭ kŭrimŭi mosaboni itta.*)
English translation: The picture above is a reproduction I drew from memory.

This example shows that the 2022 translation differs the most, since is more direct and more colloquial. The 2013 version contains the same translation as the

[26] Exupéry and Kim, 2013, 19
[27] Exupéry and Song, 2014, 7
[28] Exupéry and Lee, 2022, 11

2014 version, but differs in the use of the word 그걸 (*kŭgŏl*), which is used more in informal speech. In the

(2) 2013 version: 그렇게 해서 셋째 날 나는 바오밥나무의 비극을 알게 되었다[29]. (*Kŭrŏk'e haesŏ setchae nal nanŭn paobamnamuŭi pigŭgŭl alkke toeŏtta.*)
2014 version: 그렇게 해서 사흘째 되는 날 나는 바오밥나무의 비극도 알게 되었다[30].
(*Kŭrŏk'e haesŏ sahŭlchae toe'nŭn nal nanŭn paobamnamuŭi pigŭkto alkke toeŏtta.*)
2022 version: 3일째 되는 날, 나는 바오바브나무의 참극을 알게 되었다[31].
(*3iltchae toenŭn nal, nanŭn paobabŭnamuŭi ch'amgŭgŭl alkke toeŏtta.*)
English translation: And so, on the third day, I learned about the tragedy of the baobab tree.

In the next example, it is clear that the differences are minimal and consist only in the use of synonyms or other expressions. One notable difference is the word "baobab," which shows slight variation from the 2013 and 2014 versions.

(3) 2013 version: 그냥 물건이 아니야[32]. (*Kŭnyang mulgŏni aniya.*)
2014 version: 이건 예사 물건이 아니야[33]. (*Igŏn yesa mulgŏni aniya.*)
2022 version: 이건 그냥 물건이 아냐[34]. (*Igŏn kŭnyang mulgŏni anya.*)
English translation: But it is not just a thing

The third example once again shows that the 2022 translation is more colloquial and closer to modern spoken Korean. In contrast, the 2014 version carries deeper meaning. The use of the word 예사 (*yesa*), meaning "ordinary," add emphasize and reinforces the uniqueness of the object in the sentence.

[29] Exupéry and Kim, 2013, 36
[30] Exupéry and Song, 2014, 27
[31] Exupéry and Lee, 2022, 34
[32] Exupéry and Kim 2013, 27
[33] Exupéry and Song 2014, 17
[34] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 23

3.3 Translation techniques

Both books[35], feature a variety of translation techniques employed in the process of translation from the source language into the target language. These techniques, or methods, each serve specific purposes of usage depending on the context, linguistic differences, and the indented function of the translation.

One of the commonly used translation techniques is borrowing. The process of borrowing involves directly incorporating a foreign word or expression into the target language without translating or modifying it. This technique is particularly useful for terms that do not have a direct equivalent in the target language (Newmark 1988). Taking a word from the language of origin into another without translation is even a frequent method of forming new words in Korean language. In recent decades, Anglicisms have infiltrated the Korean language, where they have found their place in everyday communication and become a common part of the language. Therefore, there is no surprise that in every translation of *The Little Prince* in Korean and in the dialectal version, we can find a lot of words of English origin. Examples of this can be found throughout the book, such as 골프 (*kolp'ŭ*, golf) and 넥타이 (*nekt'ai*, necktie). As observed, these words maintain the same form in both standard speech and the dialect. In other words, both variants use the same words in the same way.

Another type of translation present in both versions of The Little Prince is the calque. This method involves a literal translation of words or phrases from a foreign language when the individual components are translated word for word. Calques are often used to preserve the original meaning of the source text, especially in literary works where metaphor and symbolism are important (Hidayati 2020). An example of this method can be seen in the word 소행성 (*sohaengsŏng,* small planet), a direct translation of the term "asteroid" that retains its original meaning. Another example of this method in use is the word for 'common boa snake,' which was translate into Korean as 보아뱀 (*poabaem*) in both versions.

[35] Standard Korean version from 2022 and the Kyŏnsang dialect's version.

3.3.1 Simplification

This technique, as its name suggests, is used to simplify the translation from the original language. Upon scrutinizing the translation of *The Little prince* into both standard language and dialect, it becomes apparent that each translation utilizes this particular method to varying extents. The dialect version exhibits a greater degree of simplification in translation compared to the most recent 2022 version. The remaining standard language adaptations, on the other hand, demonstrate a relatively uniform frequency of employing this translation technique.

The Kyŏngsang dialect version contains around 62 [36] uses of this translation technique, unlike the standard language versions, which translates things more literally. Of course, every translation of *The Little Prince* differs to some extent, so there may be versions in the standard language that employ the simplification more frequently. But, for the purpose of my analysis, I have focused on editions that do not make extensive use of this strategy. Upon closer inspection of translation produced with this technique, we might discover that the final translation sounds somewhat different from the source text in some parts.

(4) SK[37]: 나의 그림 1 번. (*Na-ŭi kŭrim 1pŏn.*)[38]
KD[39]: 내 첫 작품이데이. (*Nae ch'ŏt chakp'umidei.*)[40]
BT[41]: My first work (drawing).

In *The Little Prince*, the original sentence "I succeeded in making my first drawing" was shortened, and in my opinion, this also led to a loss of meaning that contributes to a fuller understanding of the context. Such simplification can therefore influence how we perceive the plot of the book.

[36] From chapter 1 to 8 in the book The Little Prince in the Kyŏngsang dialect.
[37] SK = Standard Korean language
[38] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 12
[39] KD = Kyŏngsang dialect
[40] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 9
[41] BT = book translation

(5) SK: 무섭지 않은지 물었다. (*musŏpji anŭnji mureotta.*)[42]

KD: 안 무섭닝교라고 물으니까 ... *(an musŏp-nin'gyo-rago mur-ŭnikka*)[43]

BT: He asked if it was not scary.

In the following example, a simplification of tone can be observed. Above, an alternative grammatical structure, the ending -닝교 (*ninggyo*) or -는교 (*nŭngyo*), is used, which will be explained in more detail in the next chapter. This grammatical form softens the expression and simplifies the overall tone of the sentence. Moreover, the sentence in dialectal version of *The Little Prince* is does not end with the verb 물다 (*mulda*), but instead uses the connective particle -(으)니까 (*-(ŭ)nikka*). Another translation method, named ellipsis was used. During the application of this method, various parts of the sentence are intentionally omitted (Assalam and Budiharjo 2020). Sometimes, as in this example, the dots at the end of the sentence are also omitted, creating a smoother flow when connecting with another sentence.

3.3.2 Compensation

Compensation method is a common lexical transfer technique in which meanings from the source language that are lost during translation are recreated in the target language text at a different location or through a different method. It often involves making up for the loss of meaning, tone, nuance in one part of the text by enhancing another part (Albir and Molina 2002, 500).

(6) SK: 응. (*Ŭng.*)[44]

KD: 뭐라카노? (*Mwŏrak'ano?*)[45]

BK: What!

This instance demonstrates a compensation strategy: in standard speech, *The Little Prince* simply responds with 응, which means "hm!", but in the dialect,

[42] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 13
[43] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 9
[44] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 16
[45] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 11

he asks directly, “What did you say?”. The reader gets the impression that the speaker was more surprised by this, as the tone of the entire speech is raised.

3.3.3 Omission

Another method frequently and effectively used in translation is omission. This refers to the intentional removal of an expression from the source text when rendering it in the target language. Omission is typically used when the omitted element does not significantly alter the meaning of the original sentence (Albir and Molina 2002, 504). While the difference (primarily in the sentence structure) between English and Korean are considerable, the translators of the 2022 modern Standard Korean version of *The Little Prince* opted for a more literal approach, trying to preserve as much of the source content as possible. In contrast, the dialectal version demonstrates a more liberal use of omission, even omitting words that are otherwise easily translatable into Korean. A clear example of this can be found in the opening sentence of chapter 3 (Ch’oe 2021, 15).

(7) KD: 날라댕기는 긴데, 내 뱅기다. (*Nalladaengginŭn kinde, nae paenggida*)[46]
SK: 날아다녀. 이건 비행이야. 내 비행이지. (*Naradanyŏ. Igŏn pihaengiya. Nae pihaengiji.*)[47]
EN[48]: It flies. It is an airplane. It is my airplane.

The Kyŏngsang dialect version omits the middle sentence, and it can be translated only as “It flies, it is my airplane.”. In my opinion, it was used without the middle sentence to make the reading more comfortable, however, the original English version and the authoritative Korean translation, which is translated word by word, might sound more poetic.

[46] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 15
[47] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 23
[48] = English translation

(8) SK: 내 비행기는 그리지 않으련다. (*Nae pihaenggi-nŭn kŭriji anŭryŏnda.*)[49]
EN: I won't draw my airplane.

In certain cases, the omission of an entire sentence may occur in the translation. This omission is again primarily due to the informal tone of the overall translation. Furthermore, the sentence is omitted because the Little Prince will later explain the same point in a consequent dialogue. As such, the omission does not disrupt the continuity of the narrative without losing important context.

3.3.4 Inversion

Another notable translation technique used in the Kyŏngsang dialect version, in comparison to the modern standard Korean versions of *The Little Prince* used in this thesis, is inversion. Along with omission, which are the most frequently employed translation methods, this version significantly diverges from its standard Korean counterparts, as observed from the very beginning. The instances of omission and inversion are frequent throughout the translation, enhancing its accessibility and readability.

This technique can be observed right at the beginning of *The Little Prince* in the Kyŏngsang dialect, where the first two sentences of the opening chapter employ inversion. Additionally, in the dialect version, the word 'copy' is omitted, a feature that is not present in the standard language versions. In contrast, the sentences in the standard language versions are translated in the same order as the English versions, reflecting a more literal, word-for-word approach to translation (Albir and Molina 2002, 500). As a result, readers familiar with the original version may experience a different interpretation of the book when reading the dialect version.

[49] Exupéry and Song 2014, 17

(9) KD: 우에 그림 있제. 저거데이. (*Ue Kŭrim itche. Chŏgŏdei.*)[50]
SK: 여기 그림의 모사본이 있다. (*Yŏgi kŭrimŭi mosaboni itta.*)[51]
BT: Here is a copy of the drawing.

The inversion in this example is clearly noticeable. The standard version maintains a literal and neutral translation, whereas the dialectal version demonstrates a certain degree of structural and stylistic change. This change is particularly evident in the second part of the example, which has been split into two sentences. The second sentence emphasizes the location of the object (the drawing), which changes the emphasize.

Another type of inversion that appears most frequently in the text is the change in word order within a sentence. This inversion has minimal impact on the overall meaning, as the change in word order does not affect comprehension. An example of this can be found in chapter 2, where the order of the location is rearranged in the sentence, and a personal pronoun is added.

(10) KD: 구란데… 거서 니는 뭐하노? (*kurande… kŏsŏ ninŭn mwŏhano*?)[52]
SK: 그런데… 너는 여기서 뭐 하니? (*kŭronde … nŏnŭn yŏgisŏ mwŏ hani*?)[53]
EN: But … What are you doing here?

I discovered that the translations of *The Little Prince* in the standard Korean language bore the closest resemblance to the original work, which was in the English language. Even though the Korean language differs greatly from English grammatically, the structure of sentences was kept as close to the original as possible, not only in terms of words used. On the contrary, in the case of the version in the Kyŏngsang dialect, the authors tried to distance themselves from the original (Korean version). These differences can be found in the sentence structure, where some sentences were combined into one or, conversely,

[50] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 9
[51] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 11
[52] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 12
[53] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 19

divided into multiple sentences. This method can even change the nuances of the whole sentence since the subsequent translation may not contain all the words as in the original work.

4 *The Little Prince* in the Kyŏngsang dialect

The Kyŏngsang dialect is among the most extensively studied regional varieties of Korean (Hwang, 2019). As with many other dialects, the majority of research has focused on its phonological aspect with its distinctive tonal system. In contrast, grammatical features have received comparatively less attention. However, this does not imply that the grammar of the Kyŏngsang dialect has been entirely overlooked. Interestingly, grammar is regarded as one of the dialect's most maintained element. Notably, even younger generations use it in casual conversation, as observed during my stay at a university located in the region where the dialect is spoken.

The standard variety of Korean has traditionally been associated with the upper class and educated elite. In contrast, speakers of regional dialects (particularly the Kyŏngsang dialect) have often been stigmatized, stereotyped as uneducated, rural villagers of lower social standing. This hierarchical perception is frequently reinforced through portrayals in television dramas, films, and literature. Dialect usage is commonly employed to signal a character's provincial background, often for comedic effect, thereby reinforcing stereotypes. While recent years have seen a shift toward more positive or neutral attitudes toward regional dialects, they still do not enjoy the same prestige as Standard Korean. Particularly, the Kyŏngsang dialect is still frequently employed by "gangsters" in movies and TV series[54].

With the translation of this book into this dialect, Korean readers were given the opportunity to become familiar with a dialect into which books are rarely translated. During my stay in South Korea, I met Koreans who started reading *The Little prince* in Kyŏngsang dialect and were surprised because depending on where they lived, they understood it differently. In this section, I will compare both the Standard Korean and dialectal translations, analyzing how the Kyŏngsang dialect version differs in terms of lexicology and, more

[54] A prime example of a film that showcases these negative connotations is *The Gangster, The Cop, The Devil* from 2019. In this film, the main character, the gangster, uses the Kyŏngsang dialect to emphasize his regional identity and tough-guy image. Another interesting example is the 2023 series *Oasis*, where one of the main characters from a village, speaks in this dialect. Once again, the character embodies the rebellious and tough persona, reinforcing these stereotypes.

importantly, grammar. I will use the double translation technique to explore these differences.

4.1 Phonology of Kyŏngsang dialect

Phonological part of the dialect cannot be seen just from the books itself, since this branch of linguistics research how a language sounds or how it organizes phonemes. In Kyŏngsang, a region in southeast of South Korea, we may observe a usage of lexical tone, that has occasionally been referred to as a pitch accent system. In this system, each word has one high-pitched syllable, or "tonal accent", and the remaining words create a pitch contour around the high-pitched syllable. Tones are not marked in the text, so the pronunciation and tone of the word cannot be easily determined. The tones in the Kyŏngsang dialect are different from speaker to speaker, for example a speaker from Busan uses a different tones system than a speaker from Daegu (Ito and Kenstowicz 2017). Therefore, books are not an ideal source of knowledge for studying the phonological aspects of the language.

If we look at another dialectal version of *The Little Prince*, which was published in recent years, the dialectal of the Chŏlla region can express one of its pronunciation features in the text, namely the lengthening of vowels. In my opinion, this tone system should be also shown in the text somehow, so that the reader can imagine how this system works in different parts of the sentence. Example of the usage of vowel lengthening in text can be seen down below together with the same sentence in Kyŏngsang dialect, that does not depict any of its unique phonological features.

(11) CD[55]: 그러믄 너도 다른 **벨:서** 왔냐? (*Kŭrŏmŭn nŏdo tarŭn* ***pel:sŏ*** *wannya?*)[56]
KD: 그라믄 니는 다른 별에서 왔나? (*Kŭramŭn ninŭn tarŭn pyŏresŏ wanna?*)[57]

[55] CD = Chŏlla dialect
[56] Exupéry and Sim 2021, 16
[57] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 16

SK: 그러니까 너는 다른 별에서 왔다는 거니? (*Kŭrŏnikka nŏnŭn tarŭn pyŏresŏ wattanŭn kŏni?*)[58]

EN: So you came from another planet?

4.2 Lexicology of Kyŏngsang dialect

The Little Prince was primarily translated by authors based in Pohang, a city located in the southeastern part of the Korean Peninsula and a cultural center of the Kyŏngsang province, where the dialect is actively spoken and preserved. As previously mentioned, the translators collaborated with local dialectologists, who provided insights into the specific phonological, lexical, and grammatical features of the dialect. Notably, this partnership ensured a high level of linguistic accuracy and authenticity, resulting in a translation that is both linguistically rich and culturally resonant. This particular translation of *The Little Prince* stands out in the Korean literature, as it represents one of the few efforts to publish a full work in a regional dialect. Unlike global bestsellers such as *Harry Potter*, which have yet to be translated into non-standard Korean dialect. I believe the reason why Harry Potter has not yet been translated into Korean dialects is primarily because such a translation is both time-consuming and financially demanding, and it may not represent a profitable investment for publishers. In contrast, The Little Prince is significantly shorter in length, which has allowed it to be translated into a larger number of dialects. It is an aspect for which it has also become well known.

Regarding the vocabulary used in *The Little Prince*, the translators aimed to incorporate vocabulary that differ not only from Standard Korean but also from other subdialects within the Kyŏngsang region. However, they still use a fair number of vocabulary to prevent confusion among readers who are not familiar with the dialect. The subdialects can vary in vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, and grammatical constructions depending on the specific location. However, most of the words are used throughout the territory of the Kyŏngsang province. When compared with Standard Korean, this dialect exhibits a rich vocabulary that is distinct, due to the geographical isolation of the region. Many words have evolved independently. These words contain some characteristics

[58] Exupéry and Lee 2022, 24

from the Middle Korean language that have long since disappeared from other dialects. One notable phonological change in the dialect is the frequent shortening or contraction of words, which contributes to its unique sounding.

Highly intriguing question was to find out, if the dialect uses the loanwords in the same way as its standard counterpart. And according to my research, the dialect utilizes same loanwords and with the same spelling. The examples, which can be seen down below, are taken from the last part of first chapter, where you can see English loanwords. Korean words are often borrowed and koreanized from other languages (nowadays especially from English), therefore it is clear that even dialects will adopt these words through the standard language with the same meaning, since they are so widespread in everyday conversation. Following words are examples taken from the dialectal version of *The Little Prince* (Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 11).

English	**Korean**
golf	골프 *kolp'ŭ*
necktie	넥타이 *nekt'ai*

Figure 14: Konglish in the Kyŏngsang dialect

When we look at the different word classes in this Korean dialect, we certainly must not overlook pronouns. Especially personal pronouns are not as widely used as in European languages. However, the translation of *The Little Prince* uses a lot of pronouns, which usually have a different form that may confuse some readers who are not familiar with this form. The most common pronouns, which may cause misunderstanding to an uninitiated reader during reading, are certainly shortened words. As an example, I can use the word 누 (*nu*) which in English means "who" or the word 멋 (*mŏt*) with a meaning of 'what'. The forms in standard language are 누구 (*nugu*), respectively 무엇 (*muŏt*). The characteristic word-shortening is especially evident in the first word, making it easily recognizable as part of the Kyŏngsang dialect. This distinct feature allows sentences containing these words to maintain their meaning when using the double translation technique. As a result, the sentence conveys the same message in both the dialect and the standard language, without any loss of meaning.

4.2.1 Nouns

Korean nouns (명사, *myŏngsa*), including those in the Kyŏngsang dialect, are not inflected for gender or number, as is common in languages like Czech. They remain in their base form regardless of the context. Instead, particles are attached to the nouns, and unlike the nouns themselves, these particles change depending on the syntactic and contextual function within the sentence. In the Kyŏngsang dialect, the grammatical system of nouns does not differ significantly from that of the Standard Korean. However, differences often appear in word form or pronunciation. A lot of nouns in the dialect have a distinct local form or are even replaced by entirely different words.

In the book *The Little Prince*, we can encounter a lot of unknown or different nouns in comparison with the standard Korean. As every dialect in Korea, there are thousands of different words and with different pronunciation and accent it can cause a great problem for the uninitiated people to understand. Below I list some of the different nouns from the book that appears multiple times.

	Kyŏngsang dialect	**Standard Korean**
potato	거스마 *kŏsuma*	감자 *kamja*
friend	벗 *pŏt*	친구 *ch'in'gu*
(flower) bud	망울 *mangul*	봉오리 *pongori*

Figure 15: Nouns in the Kyŏngsang dialect

This table lists nouns that differ significantly from the Standard Korean version. A close examination of these words reveals that they are not commonly used in modern Standard Korean and have a different morphological structure. We can also say that these dialectal words are of an archaic nature.

A large number of nouns have not been translated into the Kyŏngsang dialect's version of The Little Prince and haver retained their standard form. Although there are words in this dialect that differ from standard Korean and are still in use. These differences are shown in the table below. Some words have only a different pronunciation, while others are entirely different and have their own dialectal equivalents.

	Original dialect	Book's dialect
way	질 *chil*	길 *kil*
sky	화날 *hwanal*	하늘 *hanŭl*
face	모찌방 *motchibang*	얼굴 *ŏlgul*

Figure 16: Words translatable into the Kyŏngsang dialect

4.2.2 Verbs

Verbs (동사, *tongsa*) in Korean express actions, states, or changes in states. Like in other languages, verbs play a crucial role in sentence construction as they indicate what is happening to the subject or what the subject's state is. Unlike in Czech, verbs in Korean (also in the Kyŏngsang dialect) appear at the end of the sentence and do not conjugate according to the subject, as they do in other primarily European languages (Czech, French, German etc.).

Verbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect are grammatically similar to those in Standard Korean, with main differences being in the endings and pronunciation. These endings play a significant role in creating the specific tone of the dialect. The main endings used in the book *The Little Prince* will be explained in the following chapter.

	Kyŏngsang dialect	Standard Korean
to fall	뿟지다 *pputchida*	떨어지다 *ttŏrŏjida*
to get scolded	시껍하다 *sikkŏphada*	혼나다 *honnada*

Figure 17: Different verbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect

In the examples provided above, we observe variations in verbs when compared to the Standard Korean. Through my research, I discovered that the majority of verbs presented in The Little Prince in the Kyŏnsang dialect closely resemble those in the standard language. The additional verbs listen in the table below are those I have selected for their phonological differences and because they occur frequently in the text.

	Kyŏngsang dialect	Standard Korean
to go around	돌아댕기다 *toradaenggida*	돌아다니다 *toradanida*
to tell	이바구하다 *ibaguhada*	이야기하다 *iyagihada*
to eat	묵다 *mukta*	먹다 *mŏkta*
to draw	기리다 *kirida*	그리다 *kŭrida*

Figure 18: Phonetically different verbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect

4.2.3 Adverbs

Korean adverbs (부사, *pusa*) are words that largely describe degree of an action or state expressed by a verb, adjective, or another adverb. In standard Korean, adverbs are often formed by adding the suffix -게 (*ke*) to the root form of a word. In the Kyŏngsang dialect, adverbs are formed in the same way as in the Standard Korean, which can be seen in the example below (Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 12).

(12) KD: 근데 야가 심각하게 또 같은 말을 다시 하는 기라. (*kŭnde yaga simgakha-ge tto katŭn mar-ŭl tasi hanŭn kira*)
SK: 그런데 그 아이가 심각하게 또 같은 말을 다시 하는 거야. (*kŭrŏnde kŭ aiga simgakhage tto katŭn marŭl tasi hanŭn kŏya*)
EN: But the kid seriously repeated the same words again.

The adverbs used in the translation of The Little Prince in the Kyŏngsang dialect can be also classified as either identical or similar to standard Korean, or as distinct. The distinct ones can be considered as “well know” adverbs because their usage immediately signals affiliation with the dialect of the Kyŏngsang province.

	Kyŏngsang dialect	Standard Korean
greatly	억수로 *ŏksuro*	대단히 *taedanhi*
already	하마 *hama*	벌써 *pŏlssŏ*
again	꼬 *kko*	다시 *tasi*
a little	쪼매 *tchomae*	조금 *chogŭm*

Figure 19: Distinctive Adverbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect

In the table below, adverbs that differ only in pronunciation can be observed. For clarity, I have excluded adverbs that contain the suffix '-게' (*ke*). Since they are similar to the standard language.

	Kyŏngsang dialect	Standard Korean
and	그라고 *kŭrago*	그리고 *kŭrigo*
a lot	마이 *mai*	많이 *mani*
in that case	그라믄 *kŭramŭn*	그러면 *kŭrŏmyŏn*
not much	밸로 *paello*	별로 *pyŏllo*

Figure 20: Less distinctive adverbs in the Kyŏngsang dialect

5 Grammar of the Kyŏngsang dialect

In this section, I will examine the grammar of the Kyŏngsang dialect, which exhibits certain characteristics different from the standard language. Grammar is a fundamental component of any language and although the Southeast regional variety of Korean is a subbranch of the broader Korean language, many grammatical particles or endings are used similarly to those in the standard variety. However, notable differences exist, and these can lead to misunderstanding or misinterpretation among those unfamiliar with the dialect's unique characteristics. This section will introduce the various Kyŏngsang dialect's particles and endings as they appear in *The Little Prince,* using a double translation technique to illustrate their usage. I will analyze both the distinctions and similarities between the dialectal form and their counterparts in modern Standard Korean.

5.1 Case particles

In Korean language, nouns in a sentence are marked with particles (조사, *josa*) that indicate their grammatical role, allowing the noun's function withing the sentence to be clearly understood. Word order is not crucial in Korean sentences as long as these role-marking particles are present. These particles are not separate words but are attached directly to the end of the nouns phrase, and they indicate, for example, the subject, the object, or the direction of the action (Song 2005, 109).

Both standard Korean and dialect-specific particles are included in the Kyŏngsang dialect. According to my research, particularly the younger generation has started to employ standard language's particles in recent decades, because they are more influenced by the standard language that is used in schools and in the media. Likewise, in different parts of the province one's may meet with different forms of the same particle, however, although there are a lot of distinctive ways to express them, this does not imply that their meanings are equally numerous. Even in the book itself, the usage of the case particles is very limited to only some forms, since the authors, in my opinion, tried to use the standard Korean case particles as much as possible. Therefore, readers

unfamiliar with Kyŏngsang case particles do not have such a problem with understating this book from a grammatical perspective.

5.1.1 Nominative case

The nominative case (주격, *chugyŏk*) is one of the grammatical cases that shows subject of a sentence. The dialect uses several forms of nominative particles. However, this study is based on *The Little Prince* and the dialectal version does not include some of the forms used in other parts of the province. The authors aimed to make the dialect's version as close as possible to the standard language, so it mainly uses the nominative particles "-이/가" (*-i/ga*). While these are also used in other parts of the province, other forms are frequently found in actual regional usage.

In the book, we can encounter the same use of nominative particles as in the standard form of the Korean language, that means that particle -이 (*-i*) is added after consonants and -가 (*-ga*) is added to vowels. However, some speakers around Daegu and other parts of the province, add the -이 (*-i*) after certain words which ends in vowel. As an example, we can use the word 코 (*k'o*, nose), which when combined has the form 코이 (*k'oi*). This can be attributed to the fact, that the particle -이 (*-i*) was predominant in this region in the past (Kadoríková 2018). However, these changes do not appear in the book, and nominative particles are used in the standard way, as in the standard language. Below you can see some examples of the use of this particle in the book with applied double translation technique.

(13) KD: 내**가** 원하는 기 바로 이기다. (*Naega wŏnhanŭn ki paro igida.)*[59]
SK: 내가 원하는 거 바로 이거다. (*Naega wŏnhanŭn kŏ paro igŏda.*)
EN: This is exactly what I want.

[59] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 14

(14) KD: 애린 왕자 별**이** …. (*Aerin wangja pyŏri* …)[60]
SK: 어린 왕자 별이 …. (*Ŏrin wangja pyŏri* …)
EN: The Little Prince's star ….

Another nominative particle, which does not appear in the book, has the form -이가 (*-iga*) and it is predominantly used in the northern part of Kyŏngsang province. This form was created by combining these two nominative particles into one and possesses the same meaning.

5.1.2 Genitive case

This case's (속격, *sokkyŏk*) is used to indicate possessive relationship between nouns. In modern Standard Korean, it is marked by the particle -의 (*-ŭi*). One of this marker's characteristic is that in a sentence it can be omitted, since even without its presence, as the context usually makes the possessive relationship clear. This omission occurs not only in the Standard Korean but also in regional dialects such as the Kyŏngsang dialect.

Throughout the Kyŏngsang province, there are several ways how to express the genitive case with different set of particles. However, to my surprise the book only showed us the Standard Korean version -의 (*-ŭi*). The closest to the standard possessive case marker is surely -에 (*-ae*), which in standard Korean indicates the locative case, so the use of the standard particle may be to keep readers from getting confused, even though the context makes it clear that it is a possession. But even in the Standard Korean the possessive marker -의 (*-ŭi*) is often read as -에 (*-ae*) due to its harder pronunciation.

(15) KD: 최악**의** 상황 … (*Ch'oeag-**ŭi** sanghwang*)[61]
SK: 최악의 상황 … (*Ch'oeag-ŭi sanghwang*)
EN: the worst situation …

[60] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 18
[61] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 28

(16) KD: 나쁜 식물의 싹이모 … (*Nappŭn singmurŭi ssagimo*)[62]
SK: 나쁜 식물의 싹 … (*Nappŭn singmurŭi ssak*)
EN: the sprout of a bad plant

Another particle used throughout the region is also the same one found in the standard language, namely -ㅅ- (-*s*-). It is used to connect two nouns into one to make a composition noun (Lee 2001). This particle is used usually between two pure Korean words or pure Korean word and Sino-Korean word. An example of the use of this word can be found on page 11 in the word 뱃사람 (*paetsaram*, sailman), where the combination of the words 배 (*pae*, boat) and 사람 (*saram*, person) occurs.

(17) KD: 우에 뱃사람보다 훨씬 외로븐기라. (*Ue paetsaramboda hwŏlssin oe robŭn'gira.*)[63]
SK: 위의 뱃사람보다 훨씬 외로운 거야. (*Wiŭi paetsaramboda hwŏlssin oeroun kŏya.*)
EN: It is much lonelier than the sailor on it.

5.1.3 Accusative case

This grammatical case (대격, *daegyŏk*) is used to mark the direct object of a verb in a sentence. In Standard Korean, this is typically indicated by the particles -을/를 (*-ŭl/rŭl*). Words ending in a vowel take the particle -를 (*-rŭl*), while words that end in a consonant také the particle -을 (*-ŭl*). When a word ends in a vowel, the particle -를 (*-rŭl*) is often reduced to -ㄹ (*-l*), especially in spoken language. A similar phenomenon is observed in the Kyŏngsang dialect, where the reduction is more frequent than in Standard Korean.

The dialectal version of *The Little Prince* in, once again, uses only the Standard Korean language particles, despite the existence of several alternative forms in the dialect. Specifically, in regions like Pohang region and around Daegu, one form is commonly used -으르 (*-ŭrŭ*). However, we do not encounter this form

[62] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 23
[63] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 11

in the book, although it is often used in the spoken form. Additionally, another version of the accusative particle that can be heard around the region of Pohang is -(으)로 (*-(ŭ)ro*) or -(으)러 (*-(ŭ)rŏ*) particles. This form closely resembles the directional case marker, respectively particle that can be translated as 'in order to' in modern Standard Korean (Kadoríková 2018).

(18) KD: 이바구를 아마이 구구절절 하믄서 … (*Ibagurŭl amai kugujŏljŏl hamŭnsŏ*)[64]

SK: 이야기를 아마도 구구절절하게 하면서 … (*Iyagirŭl amado kugujŏljŏrhage hamyŏnsŏ*)

EN: The story, perhaps, is being told in great detail.

(19) KD: 의견을 들아줬다쿠네. (*Ŭigyŏnŭl tŭrajuttak'une.*)[65]

SK: 의견을 들어줬다구나. (*Ŭigyŏnŭl tŭrŏjwŏttaguna.*)

EN: It seems that they listened to the opinion.

5.1.4 Dative case

The grammatical case (여격, *yŏgyŏk*) marks the indirect object of a sentence. In Standard Korean, we encounter various particles denoting this case. The key distinction of the dative case from most other cases is the differentiation between animate and inanimate objects, as well as the existence of polite variants of the particles.

	colloquial	**polite**
animate	-에게 *-ege* -한테 *-hant'e*	-께 *-kke*
inanimate	-에 *-e*	

Figure 21: Standard Korean dative particles

[64] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 19
[65] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 19

In the chart above provides an overview of the Korean dative particles commonly used in everyday language. Additionally, the Kyŏngsang dialect contains its own variants of these particles, which are used in ways that differ from Standard Korean. During the reading of *The Little Prince* in Kyŏngsang dialect, it becomes apparent that the authors made an effort to use the standard version of these particles whenever possible. However, even, here, there are some exceptions, although they are quite rare. One such example can be found in several parts of the book, where the phrase „내한테“ (*nae-hant'e*) is used, which in standard language would be „나에게“ (*na-ege*).

(20) KD: 내한테 이래 묻는기라. (*Naehant'e irae munnŭn'gira.*)[66]
SK: 나에게 이렇게 묻는 거야. (*Naege irŏk'e munnŭn kŏya.*)
EN: I told him.

Another dative particle that is used often in the dialect is -자테 (*chat'e*) and its other forms. This particle was formed by joining the postposition 곁 (*kyŏt*), which was then palatalized, with the locative particle -에 (*e*). These forms then changed into various other forms according to the region that they are used in due to the different pronunciation. Examples of the other forms are -저테 (*chat'e*) or -잔테 (*chant'e*) (Kadoríková 2018). We may encounter this particle quite often in the book, where it is directly attached to a word without any additional change, as for example in the following passage:

(21) KD: 으른들**자테**는 이래 말해 주야한다. (*Ŭrŭndŭl-**jat'e**nŭn irae marhae chuyahanda.*)[67]
SK: 어른들께는 이렇게 말해 드려야 한다. (*Ŏrŭndŭl-kkenŭn irŏk'e marhae tŭryŏya handa.*)
EN: This is what you have to say to adults.

Here, the dative particle is connected to the word after the plural particle -들 (*-tŭl*) and as you can see the topic particle -는 (*-nŭn*) is added to this suffix.

[66] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 15
[67] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 19

This really shows us how the standard language and its dialects can form highly agglutinative word structures.

5.1.5 Locative case

This grammatical case (처격, *ch'ŏgyŏk*) is used to indicate either the starting point of a movement or the location where an action takes place. In modern Standard Korea, this function is typically expressed using the particle -에서 (-*esŏ*), which carries two meanings. One refers to the place where and action or activity occurs, and the other indicates the point from which an action begins.

In The Little Prince, only the standard locative particle is used, although the Kyŏngsang dialect contains additional locative particles. It appears that the authors deliberately chose to use the standard forms, despite the availability of alternatives in the dialect. One such dialectal variant not found in the book is -이서 (-*isŏ*), a locative particle commonly used in regions such as Taegu, Kyŏngju, and Pohang. According to Cho (2010), this form functions identically to the standard -에서 (-*esŏ*). However, it often assimilates with the final vowel of the preceding noun when it ends in *a* or *ŏ*. For instance, in the case of the word 사과 (*sagwa*), the final vowel merges with the particle, resulting in the form "사과아서" (*sagwa-asŏ*, in the apple or from the apple).

(22) KD: 저승사자 눈 앞에서 … (*Chŏsŭngsaja nun ap'esŏ*)[68]
SK: 저승사자 눈 앞에서 … (*Chŏsŭngsaja nun ap'esŏ*)
EN: The grim reaper in front of my eyes.

(23) KD: 아재가 하늘에서 떨어졌다고? (*Ajaega hanŭresŏ ttŏrŏjyŏttago?*)[69]
SK: 아저씨가 하늘에서 떨어졌다고? (*Ajŏssiga hanŭresŏ ttŏrŏjyŏttago?*)
EN: Are you saying that an older man fell from the sky?

[68] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 12
[69] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 15

The example from *The Little Prince* clearly show that the authors, as mentioned before, chose to use only the Standard Korean locative particle -에서 (*-esŏ*). If, instead, we used the Kyŏngsang locative particle -이서 (*-isŏ*), and applied assimilation with the final vowel form the word in the example number 22, the resulting form would be "앞아서" (*ap'asŏ*).

5.1.6 Comitative case

This grammatical case (공동격, *kongdonggyŏk*) is often translated where English would use the "with". There are several ways how to express this case in Standard Korean depending on the politeness of the speech as you can see in the chart below (Ahn, Lee, and Han 2014, p. 76).

	vowel	**consonant**
polite	-며 *-myŏ*	-이며 *-imyŏ*
casual	-하고 *-hago*	-하고 *-hago*
casual	-와 *-wa*	-과 *-kwa*
colloquial	-랑 *-rang*	-이랑 *-irang*

Figure 22: Standard Korean comitative particles

In the Kyŏngsang dialect, there are only two versions of these comitative particles, and both are used in *The Little Prince*. The particles do not differ in usage or in levels of politeness and can therefore be used interchangeably without changing the meaning of the sentence. One of them is the commonly known particle -하고 (*-hago*), while the other, less frequently used form is -카/캉 (*-k'a/k'ang*). The second of these particles is used and is a direct translation of the Standard Korean particles -와/과 (*-wa/kwa*). According to Ch'oe (2015), the original form was -과 (*-kwa*), and phonetic modifications presumably led to the emergence of this form of connective particle in the Kyŏngsang region's dialect.

In the Kyŏngsang dialect translation of *The Little Prince*, the form -캉 (*-k'ang*) appears most frequently, occurring in several instances throughout the text. This particular form is primarily used in regions around Taegu and Pohang,

so its usage in the book is unsurprising. Following example illustrates how this particle is used in connection with a noun.

(24) KD: 호주미에 종이캉 만년필 꺼냈다 아이가. (*Hojumie chongi-k'ang mannyŏnp'il kkŏnaetta aiga.*)[70]
SK: 호주미에서 종이와 만년필을 꺼냈잖아. (*Hojumiesŏ chongiwa mannyŏnp'irŭl kkŏnaetchana.)*
EN: He took out a paper and a fountain pen from the pocket

In the original version of *The Little Prince*, written in modern Standard Korean, the comitative particle used is -과 (*-kwa*), its standard form. This suggests that the authors of dialect version intentionally chose to use the dialectal particle -캉 (*-k'ang*) to express the same grammatical relationship.

Notably, the second common comitative particle, -하고 (*-hago*), does not appear in the dialect version of the book *The Little Prince* at all. Presumably, the authors mainly used the particle -캉 (*-k'ang*) instead of -하고 (*-hago*), because it is the most used connective particle in the area around Pohang and Daegu city.

(25) KD: 미나무캉 비스무리한데. (*Minamuk'ang pisŭmurihande.*)[71]
SK: 미나무와 비슷한데. (*Minamuwa pisŭthande.*)
EN: Similar to a pagoda tree.

The comitative particle can also function as a comparative marker, rather than carrying its typical meaning of companionship. This is demonstrated in the example above.

5.1.7 Vocative case

The vocative case (호격, *hogyŏk*) is used to directly address people. Although this grammatical case is rarely used in everyday conversation, it tends to appear in informal speech when it does occur. For example, when parents address their children. Nevertheless, even vocative particles are often omitted in spoken

[70] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 12
[71] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 22

language. The chart below presents the vocative particles used in the standard variety of Korean, further classified according to whether they follow a vowel or a consonant.

	vowel	**consonant**
informal	-아 *-a*	-야 *-ya*
formal	-이어 *-iŏ*	-여 *-yŏ*

Figure 23: Standard Korean vocative particles

The Kyŏngsang dialect, the usage of this particles is also limited, since it is not used that much these days and furthermore, younger people tend to use more of the standard forms of this case in the everyday speech. In my survey, the dialect around Daegu uses a different set of this particles, which are distinctive in their forms.

The most prevalent vocative particle used in the Kyŏngsang province is -요 (*-yo*). This form of the particle can be found not only in the previously mentioned province, but also in the Hamgyŏng, P'yŏngan or Kangwŏn where it also appears with the same function. Certainly, as in other subdialects, we can also find different forms of this grammatical case in other parts of the province. For example, in the subdialect of the city of Taegu and its surrounding cities, the particle has -예 (*-ye*) form. Both particles may be attached to words ending in either vowel or consonants, as their form remains consistent regardless of the final sound of the preceding vowel.

Upon a careful examination of *The Little Prince*, it becomes evident that vocative suffices, whether in dialectal or standard form, appear in the text only once. In general, people are addressed without the use of these particles, and the single vocative particle that does appear is from Standard Korean. This can be observed in the example below, which compares the same sentence form *The Little Prince* in both the dialectical and standard language forms.

(26) KD: 야야, 니는 어디서 왔노? (*Ya-**ya**, ninŭn ŏdisŏ wanno?*)[72]
SK: 꼬마야, 넌 어디서 왔니? (*Kkoma-**ya**, nŏn ŏdisŏ wanni?*)
EN: Child, where did you come from?

This example is the only one with the vocative suffix. Apart from this single example, individuals are addressed without vocative suffixes in both the dialectal and standard versions of *The Little Prince*.

5.1.8 Instrumental case

The instrumental case (조격, *chogyŏk*) primarily functions to indicate the means or method by which an action or state is realized. In modern Standard Korean, this case is expressed through a set of particles, most commonly -(으)로 (*-(-ŭ)ro*) and -(으)로써 (*-(ŭ)rossŏ*). These particles serve a wide range of functions, including indicating the direction of motion, the tool or instrument used, the material from which something is made, and more.

The Kyŏngsang dialect expresses this grammatical case using its own suffixes. However, as with the previously mentioned case endings, this case is often expressed with the modern Standard Korean suffixes. Nevertheless, alternative forms are still used, particularly among older speakers in more rural areas.

Probably the most common form of this grammatical case in the Kyŏngsang dialect is -(으)러 (*-(ŭ)rŏ*), which can be encountered throughout the entire Kyŏngsang province. This form likely developed as a result of a phonetic change from the literary -(으)로 (*-(-ŭ)ro*). However, *The Little Prince* translation in the Kyŏngsang dialect does not again feature any other form of the instrumental case suffix apart from those found in the Standard Korean variety. The example below illustrates the use of the instrumental case.

[72] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 16

(27) KD: 앞으로 쭉 가삐도 벨로 멀리 가지도 모한다… (*Ap'-ŭro tchuk kappido paello mŏlli kajido mohanda…*)[73]

SK: 앞으로 쭉 가도 별로 멀리 가지도 못한다… (*Ap'-ŭro tchuk kado pyŏllo mŏlli kajido mothanda…*)

EN: Even if you go all the way forward, you won't be able to go far …

5.2 Comparative particles

Comparative particles in Korean are a key tool for making comparisons between two or more things, actions, or states. These particles function similarly to the English words "than," "like," or "as," indicating degree of difference or similarity between these entities or actions. Unlike English, which often rely on word order or prepositions to express comparative relationships, Korean uses postpositional particles. This means that they are attached directly to nouns, verbs, or adjectives. This system allows for greater flexibility in word order within a sentence, while still maintaining clarity of meaning (Rhee, 2022).

The most used comparative particles in Korean are attached to a noun, verb, or adjective to express comparisons between two words. These include -보다 (*-poda*), -같이 (*-kach'i*), -처럼 (*-ch'ŏrŏm*), and -만큼 (*-mank'ŭm*). Each of these particles conveys a comparison but have slightly different meanings depending on the context in which they are used. While the standard particles are prevalent in the Kyŏngsang province, speakers in this region may also use variants of these particles or entirely different forms that express the same comparative meanings.

5.2.1 -보다 (*-poda*)

The first of these particles, -보다 (*-poda*), is commonly used to compare differences between two nouns and is typically translated into English as the conjuction "than". When used, this suffix follows the noun it refers to and is frequently accompanied by adverbs such as 더 (*tŏ*, more) or 덜 (*tŏl*, less) to indicate the degree of comparison. In *The Little Prince*, this comparative particle appears regularly, making its meaning clean and understandable for readers.

[73] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 18

However, the Kyŏngsang dialect also features a distinct particle -카마 (*-k'ama*), which functions in the same way as -보다 (*-poda*). According to Cho (2010), this form is primarily used in the areas around Pohang, Taegu, and Kyŏngju. Despite its regional significance, *The Little Prince* in the Kyŏngsang dialect does not include this particle or any of its dialectal variants. Since -카마 is used specifically in the Kyŏngsang region, its absence from the text is somewhat surprising, particularly since the authors aimed to reflect the local dialect. The example below illustrates the use of the comparative particle -보다 (*-poda*) as found in *The Little Prince*, where the double translation method is employed.

(28) KD: 덧셈보다 더 중요하고 (*Tŏtsemboda tŏ chungyohago*)[74]
SK: 덧셈보다 더 중요하고 (*Tŏtsemboda tŏ chungyohago*)
EN: more important than addition

(29) KD: 우에 뱃사람보다 훨씬 외로븐기라. (*Ue paetsaramboda hwŏlssin oe robŭn'gira.*)[75]
SK: 위의 뱃사람보다 훨씬 외로운 거야. (*Wiŭi paetsaramboda hwŏlssin oeroun kŏya.*)
EN: It is much lonelier than the sailor on it.

5.2.2 -처럼 (-ch'ŏrŏm)

Another comparative particle that has its own dialectal version is -처럼 (*-ch'ŏrŏm*). In the English language, it translates as 'like' and is used to express the similarity between two things. This particle also appears countless of times in the book, where it has the same meaning as in the standard language variety. Nevertheless, in the dialect of the Pohang region we can encounter another version of the same suffix, namely -맨치로 (*-maench'iro*), which is often used instead of the standard variant.

[74] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 29
[75] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 11

(30) KD: 니는 처음에 놀란 토깽이**처럼** 내를 보디… (*Ninŭn ch'ŏŭme nollan t'okkaengi-**ch'ŏrŏm** naerŭl podi*)[76]
SK: 너는 처음에 놀란 토끼처럼 나를 보더니 … (*Nŏnŭn ch'ŏŭme nollan t'okkich'ŏrŏm narŭl podŏni*)
EN: You looked at me like a startled rabbit at first and …

In the example, we can see the usage of this particle that has the same form as in the Standard Korean language variant. This particle can therefore be replaced by -맨치로 (*-maench'iro*), since it has the same function and meaning. The example sentence then would then appear like this and would convey the exact same meaning when using the double translation technique.

(31) KD: 니는 처음에 놀란 토깽이**맨치로** 내를 보디 … (*Ninŭn ch'ŏŭme nollan t'okkaengi-maench'iro naerŭl podi, …*)
SK: 너는 처음에 놀란 토끼처럼 나를 보더니 … (*Nŏnŭn ch'ŏŭme nollan t'okkich'ŏrŏm narŭl podŏni*)
EN: You looked at me like a startled rabbit at first and …

5.2.3 -같이 (*-kach'i*)

The particle -같이 (*-kach'i*) is commonly used in Korean to convey similarity or comparison, and it can be translated as "like" or "as" in English. This particle often appears in both written and spoken Korean, including the Kyŏngsang dialect. In the Kyŏngsang dialect translation of *The Little Prince*, the particle -같이 (*-kach'i*) is used, although it appears slightly more often than its counterpart -처럼 (*-ch'ŏrŏm*), that similarly expresses likeness or similarity. Among the most used dialectal suffixes found in the Kyŏngsang dialects are -겉이 (*-kŏch'i*) or -글이 (*-kŭch'i*), which serve the same function but differ in pronunciation. However, these particles also do not appear in Kyŏngsang dialect translation of *The Little Prince*.

[76] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 26

(32) KD: 햇님 같이 태어났지. (*Haennim kach'i t'aeŏnatchi*)[77]

SK: 햇님 같이 태어났지. (*Haennim kach'i t'aeŏnatchi*)

EN: (He/She/It) was born as the sun.

(33) KD: 으른들 같이 될지도 모리고야. (*Ŭrŭndŭl kach'i toeljido morigoya*)[78]

SK: 어른들 같이 될지도 모르겠어. (*Ŏrŭndŭl kach'i toeljido morŭgessŏ*)

EN: I might end up becoming like the adults.

5.3 Sentence connectors and endings

Both Modern Standard Korean and the Kyŏngsang dialect feature a wide range of grammatical elements that provide different meanings and nuances to a sentence. These endings or connectors are commonly attached to verbs, although they can also be found in the end of nouns and adjectives. From the perspective of speakers of Indo-European languages, Korean may seem to include a large number of grammatical structures with multiple meaning. Such languages often do not distinguish between certain grammatical forms in the same way Korean does.

The Kyŏngsang dialect includes many of the same grammatical constructions found in Standard Korean. The biggest difference is in their form, which may differ only slightly in pronunciation, and at other times being entirely distinct. In this section, I focus on those grammars that appear most often in *The Little Prince* and can be useful for readers unfamiliar with the Kyŏngsang dialect. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that even here, standard forms often appear in place of the dialectal ones, despite the existence of existing regional equivalents.

5.3.1 -(으)모 (*-(ŭ)mo*)

This ending is the most commons sentence connector used to express conditionality, and it can be translated into English as "if." In the Kyŏngsang dialect, when the verb stem ends in a vowel, the suffix -모 (*-mo*) is added,

[77] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 31
[78] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 20

whereas -으모 (*-ŭmo*) is used after stem, which ends in consonant. By contrast, modern Standard Korean uses the form -(으)면 (*-(ŭ)myŏn*) to convey the same grammatical function. The difference between these forms is primarily phonetic, since their grammatical function and meaning remain the same.

(34) KD: 밤에 길 잃으모 우짜꼬 걱정했는데. (*Pame kil ir-ŭmo utchakko kŏkchŏnghaennŭnde.*)[79]
SK: 밤에 길 잃으면 어쩌지 하고 걱정했는데. (*Pame kil irŭmyŏn ŏtchŏji hago kŏkchŏnghaennŭnde.*)
EN: I was worried, thinking what if I get lost at night?

(35) KD: 으른들자테 말하모 … *(Ŭrŭndŭljat'e marhamo*)[80]
SK: 어른들한테 말하면 … (*Ŏrŭndŭrhant'e marhamyŏn*)
EN: If you tell the adults…

5.3.2 -아가 (*-aga*)

This grammatical suffix expresses a causal subordinate clause, where it is connected to the stem of an adjective or verb and is usually translated into English as "because" or "since." Its standard Korean counterpart -아서 (*-asŏ*), is widely used throughout the Kyŏngsang province. However, according to my observation, the standard form -아서 has become predominant in recent years, especially among young people. In other words, standard form is replacing older dialectal variant.

(36) KD: 책을 숩게 읽는 건 싫아가 … *(Ch'aegŭl supke ingnŭn kŏn siraga*)[81]
SK: 책을 쉽게 읽는 건 싫어서 … (*Ch'aegŭl shwipke ingnŭn kŏn sirŏsŏ*)
EN: Because I do not like reading books easily …

[79] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 31
[80] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 19
[81] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 12

(37) KD: 기가 죽아가 화가가 몬 됐제. *(Kika chugaga hwagaga mon twaetche*)[82]

SK: 기가 죽어서 화가가 못 됐다. (*Kiga chugŏsŏ hwagaga mot twaetta*)

EN: Because he lost confidence, he could not become a painter.

5.3.3 -(으)니까 (*-(ŭ)nikka*)

This grammatical conjunction is also used in the Standard Korean language and has a function similar function to the previously mentioned particle -아서 (*-asŏ*) with the meaning of a reason. However, unlike this particle, it can be used in more situations. This form is also often encountered in *The Little Prince*, however, there are multiple forms of this particle in the Kyŏngsang dialect, such as -(으)니꺼 (*-(ŭ)nikkŏ*) or -(으)니꺼네 (*-(ŭ)nikkŏne*), which are characteristic for this regional variety.

(38) KD: 안 무섭닝교라고 물으니까 … (*An musŏmninggyorago murŭnikka*)[83]

SK: 안 무섭냐고 물으니까 … (*An musŏmnyago murŭnikka*)

EN: I asked if it is not scary, so …

(39) KD: 눈을 실 떠보니까 … (*Nunŭl sil ttŏbonikka*)[84]

SK: 눈을 슬쩍 떠보니까 … (*Nunŭl sŭltchŏk ttŏbonikka*)

EN: As I tried slightly opening my eyes …

5.3.4 -믄서 (*-mŭnsŏ*)

This grammatical ending, which appears as -(으)면서 (*-(ŭ)myŏnsŏ*) in Standard Korean, expresses the simultaneity of two actions or states. It is often interchangeable with the structure -(으)며 (*-(ŭ)myŏ*), which possess a similar meaning. Both forms are typically translated into English as "while doing something". In the Kyŏngsang dialect, the equivalent expression takes the form

[82] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 19
[83] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 10
[84] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 12

-믄서 (*-mŭnsŏ*). In the Kyŏngsang translation of *The Little Prince*, both the dialectal form (first example) and the standard form (second example) are used.

(40) KD: 내 뱅기를 보믄서 고개만 까딱카데. (*Nae paenggirŭl pomŭnsŏ kogaeman kkattakk'ade.*)[85]
SK: 내 비행기를 보면서 고개만 끄덕이더라. (Nae pihaenggirŭl pomyŏnsŏ kogaeman kkŭdŏgidŏra.)
EN: As I tried slightly opening my eyes …

(41) KD: 친구는 배시시 웃으면서. (*Ch'in'gunŭn paesisi usŭmyŏnsŏ.*)[86]
SK: 친구는 배시시 웃으면서. (*Ch'in'gunŭn paesisi usŭmyŏnsŏ.*)
EN: The friend smiled softly while laughing.

In the Kyŏngsang dialect, numerous grammatical conjuctions exist in forms that differ from their counterparts in the standard language. However, in the Kyŏngsang dialect translation of *The Little Prince*, the translators favored more recognizable forms. In my opinion, it is likely to avoid confusion among readers less-familiar with the dialect. In contrast, the translators of the Chŏlla dialect version of *The Little Prince* tried to incorporate more unique particles and connectors.

5.4 Sentence endings

An interrogative sentence is often divided into yes-no questions, which ends with a question mark. In Korean, such sentences often ends in different particles or are followed by a rising intonation. These sentence endings vary mainly based on the level of politenesss, of which the Korean language traditionally distinguishes around six. However, in everyday communication, only about four levels are commonly used (Song, 2001). The chart below presents the most frequently used interrogative endings in Modern Standard Korean.

[85] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 16
[86] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 12

Politeness level	Endings
Plain	-니, -냐 *(-ni, -nya)*
Intimate	-아/-어 *(-a/-ŏ)*
Polite	-아요/-어요 *(-ayo/-ŏyo)*
Formal	- (스)ㅂ니까 *-(sŭ)mnikka*

Figure 24: Standard Korean interrogative endings

Indeed, the Kyŏngsang dialect also possess particles that are the counterparts of the already mentioned endings from the standard language. Nonetheless, my research indicates that there are a lot more endings and their variations than in the standard variation.

Since the book *The Little Prince* is written in an informal language according to the translators, this book mainly contains informal sentence endings. In compliance with Choe (2019), the dialect uses the formal endings -(음)니꺼 (*-(ŭm)nikkŏ*) or -(읍)디꺼 (*-(ŭp)tikkŏ*), which resemble the standard variant -(스)ㅂ니까 (*-(sŭ)mnikka*). Nevertheless, these forms are not utilized at all because of the book's informal tone, since this level of speech politeness is primarily used between strangers or during work meetings.

In the Pohang area, formal endings are rarely used because, in the opinion of the speakers, they are excessively polite. Instead, Kim (1992) claims that -는교 (*-nŭn'gyo*) is used instead as the most polite form. This ending originated from the phrase -는 것이요 (*-nŭn kŏsiyo*), when over the years this ending was shortened to its current form as we can see today. Contrary to informal sentence endings, this particle is uncommon in the text because the writers primarily use an informal tone.

(42) KD: 안 중요하단 말인교? (*An chungyohadan marin'gyo*)[87]
SK: 안 중요하단 말이야? (*An chungyohadan mariya*)
EN: Are you saying it's not important?

The book features several informal sentence endings, commonly used in casual speech between close friends or individuals of the same age. In the

[87] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 29

Kyŏngsang dialect, several types of sentence endings conveys the same meaning but differ in form. Among the most commonly used are -가/고 (*-ka/ko*), -나/노 (*-na/no*), -다/도 (*-da/do*), which are prevalent throughout the province, particularly in the cities of Daegu and Pohang. Below are examples illustrating the usage of these particles.

(43) KD: 니는 그마이 슬폈단 말이가? (*Ninŭn kŭmai sŭlp'yŏttan mariga*)[88]
SK: 너는 너무 슬폈단 말이야? (*Nŏnŭn nŏmu sŭlp'yŏttan mariya*)
EN: Are you saying that you were really sad?

(44) KD: 어느 별에서 왔노? (*Ŏnŭ pyŏresŏ wanno*)[89]
SK: 어느 별에서 왔어? (*Ŏnŭ pyŏresŏ wassŏ*)
EN: Which star did you come from?

The Little Prince in the Kyŏngsang dialect contains not only interrogative endings but also other types of sentence endings, such as declarative endings, to ensure a natural flow of dialogue. In Standard Korean, the degree of politeness is also marked by these endings, with a distinct ending for each situation. The Kyŏngsang dialect also features several types of sentence endings, many of which closely resemble their counterparts in Standard Korean. But the dialect also possesses some unique forms.

The most common polite ending in Standard Korean is -요 (*-yo*), which is used in everyday conversations, particularly when speaking to strangers, colleagues, or people one do not know well. While the -요 (*-yo*) form is widely used, the form -예 (*-ye*) also appears in both The Little Prince and the Kyŏngsang dialect as whole. These two forms are interchangeable and have the same meaning.

[88] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 27
[89] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 16

(45) KD: 참 아름답네예. (*Ch'am arŭmdamneye*)[90]
SK: 참 아름답네요. (*Ch'am arŭmdamneyo*)
EN: It is truly beautiful.

Certainly another commonly used sentence ending is the dialectal form -다카이 (*-tak'ai*), which does not have any equivalent in the standard language. It is mainly used to express emphasis or certainty. In Standard Korean, this would be expresses by the plain verb form without -카이 (*-k'ai*).

(46) KD: 정신이 하나도 없었다카이. (*Chŏngsini hanado ŏpsŏttak'ai*)[91]
SK: 정신이 하나도 없었다. (*Chŏngsini hanado ŏpsŏtta*)
EN: I was completely out of my mind.

Similar and frequently occuring ending throughout the book is -기라 (*kira*) in the text is written as -는 거예요 (*nŭn kŏyeyo*) in standard Korean.

(47) KD: 모디에 머가 나간기라. (*modie mŏga nagan'gira*.)[92]
SK: 모두에 뭐가 나간 거예요. (*Modue mwŏga nagan kŏyeyo*.)
EN: Everything has disappeared.

[90] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 31
[91] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 27
[92] Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022, 11

Conclusion

In my master's thesis, I explored the topic of dialects, with a particular focus on the Kyŏngsang dialect used in *The Little Prince* book. This literary work from 2021 allowed people unfamiliar with the dialect to experience it through a classic text that many Koreans (even foreigners) remember from their childhood. This translation not only made the Kyŏngsang dialect more accessible to a wider audience but also inspired speakers of other Korean dialects to translate *The Little Prince* into their own dialect. This is evident in the increasing number of translations into various dialects (Cheju, Chŏlla).

In the theoretical part, I first defined the concept of a standard language, its process of formation, and its form in South Korea, while also briefly touching on the situation in North Korea. The process of establishing the standard variety of the Korean language was relatively lengthy and was delayed over the years by various political and war influences. The Korean language is regulated by a low that is supplemented by four additional laws influencing its writing system and romanization. This law also defines that the Standard Korean language is based on the dialect of the capital city, Sŏul and its surrounding areas.

After explaining the standard language, I proceeded to explain dialects, dialectology, and the translation of *The Little Prince* into various dialects around the world. *The Little Prince* is one of the most translated books worldwide, making it unsurprising that is has also been translated into lesser-known or smaller languages and dialects. which often have a limited of literary works available. Korean dialects gained wider attention only from 2021, when The Little Prince was translated into the Kyŏngsang dialect with the help of dialectologists. This translation, primarily based on the dialect of the Pohang area, became a sort of starting point for translating this literary work into various dialects of Korea.

In the next subsection of the second part, I focused on the characteristics of Korean dialects, which differ from each other both phonetically and lexically as well as grammatically. This overview of the main features of the various dialectal areas on the Korean Peninsula shows how distinct these dialects can be, and also that some include features not present in the standard language. For

example, some dialects have a special tonal system that differentiates the meaning of words.

In the practical part of this thesis, I focused on the content of The Little Prince translated into the Kyŏngsang dialect, which is spoken in the southern region of the Korean Peninsula. this section is divided into two parts, in which I examine the translation and characteristics of the Kyŏngsang dialect as presented in the book, and how it differs from the naturally spoken form of the dialect. In both parts, a form of double translation technique was used to reveal differences, both between the translations and in the use of the dialect.

In the first, shorter part, I compared the standard Korean versions of *The Little Prince* (three different versions) with the Kyŏngsang dialect version. The analysis showed that the main differences lay in the translation techniques used. While the standard versions differ often slightly from the original English text and are largely translated literally, the Kyŏngsang version uses a wider range of translation strategies, which in some parts give the context a slightly different tone. Another notable difference is the level of formality. Because the standard versions use a more formal language, the dialectal version uses an informal style that more reflects the spoken language of the region.

In the second part of the particle section of this thesis, I focus on the linguistic features of the dialect as presented in the translation of *The Little Prince*. The initial subsections are dedicated to phonology and lexicology, which then lead to the grammar. Phonological features are largely absent from the book's text. The tonal system, which is one of distinctive features of the Kyŏngsang dialect is missing. This is a contrast to the translation into the Chŏlla dialect, where at least some phonological symbols (such as for word lengthening) are marked in the text.

As for vocabulary, the Kyŏngsang dialect is well known for its distinct vocabulary that differ significantly from the Standard Korean. While the translated version of The Little Prince does include dialect specific vocabulary, it does not do so to the full potential. There are many more words that could have been translated in the dialect. Even some basic words that have clear dialectal variants remain in their standard forms.

In the grammar section, I first examined case particles, which are among the most fundamental elements in both Standard Korean and its dialects. The

research revealed that most of the case particles in the translation appear in the same form as they do in standard language. This was evident in the example sentences, which were analyzed using the double translation method. Only a few grammatical particles clearly showed dialectal features. The same applies to comparative particles, which were also presented in their standard form, despite the fact that dialectal variants exist and are commonly used in the Kyŏngsang province. More significant differences were observed in the section on sentence connectors and sentence-final endings. These grammatical elements showed differences in their forms.

In conclusion, The Little Prince translated in the Kyŏngsang dialect is a valuable contribution that raises awareness of the dialect. While it would certainly be possible to incorporate more vocabulary and grammatical structures typical of the dialect, the translation serves as a useful and accessible resource for beginners and those unfamiliar with the dialect, offering a solid foundation for further study.

Resumé

Ve své diplomové práci jsem se zabýval tématem dialektů, se zvláštním zaměřením na dialekt Kjongsang, použitý v knize *Malý princ*. Toto literární dílo z roku 2021 umožnilo lidem, kteří s tímto dialektem nejsou obeznámeni, seznámit se s ním prostřednictvím klasického textu, který si mnoho Korejců (a dokonce i cizinců) pamatuje z dětství. Tento překlad nejen zpřístupnil dialekt Kjongsang širšímu publiku, ale také inspiroval mluvčí jiných korejských dialektů k tomu, aby *Malého prince* přeložili do vlastního nářečí. To dokazuje rostoucí počet překladů do různých dialektů (např. Čedžu, Čolla).

V teoretické části jsme nejprve definovali pojem spisovného jazyka, jeho vznik a podobu v Jižní Koreji, přičemž jsme se krátce zmínili i o situaci v Severní Koreji. Proces ustanovení spisovné korejštiny byl poměrně zdlouhavý a v průběhu let ho ovlivňovaly různé politické a válečné události. Korejský jazyk je regulován zákonem, který je doplněn čtyřmi dalšími zákony ovlivňujícími jeho písmo a romanizaci. Tento zákon zároveň definuje, že spisovná korejština vychází z dialektu hlavního města Soulu a jeho okolí.

Po vysvětlení pojmu spisovného jazyka jsem se zaměřil na dialekty, dialektologii a překlady knihy *Malý princ* do různých světových nářečí. *Malý princ* je jednou z nejpřekládanějších knih na světě, a proto není překvapující, že byl přeložen i do méně známých jazyků a dialektů, které často mají jen omezený počet dostupných literárních děl. Korejské dialekty získaly širší pozornost až od roku 2021, kdy byl *Malý Princ* přeložen do dialektu Kjongsang za pomoci dialektologů. Tento překlad, který vychází především z nářečí oblasti Pchohang, se stal jakýmsi výchozím bodem pro překlady tohoto literárního díla do různých korejských dialektů.

V následující podkapitole druhé části jsem se zaměřil na charakteristiky korejských dialektů, které se od sebe liší jak foneticky a lexikálně, tak i gramaticky. Tento přehled hlavních rysů různých dialektálních oblastí Korejského poloostrova ukazuje, jak odlišné tyto dialekty mohou být, a že některé obsahují prvky, které ve spisovné korejštině nenajdeme. Například některé dialekty mají zvláštní tónový systém, který rozlišuje význam slov.

V praktické části této práce jsem se zaměřil na obsah *Malého Prince* přeloženého do dialektu Kjongsang, který se používá v jižní části Korejského

poloostrova. Tato část je rozdělena do dvou oddílů, v nichž zkoumám překlad a vlastnosti dialektu Kjongsang, jak jsou v knize prezentovány, a jak se liší od přirozené mluvené podoby tohoto dialektu. V obou částech byla použita metoda dvojího překladu, která měla za cíl odhalit rozdíly mezi jednotlivými překlady a v samotném užití dialektu.

V první, kratší části jsem porovnával tři různé standardní korejské verze *Malého prince* s verzí v dialektu Kjongsang. Analýza ukázala, že hlavní rozdíly spočívají v použitých překladatelských technikách. Zatímco standardní verze se často jen mírně liší od původního anglického textu a jsou většinou přeloženy doslovně, verze v dialektu Kjongsang využívá širší škálu překladatelských strategií, které v některých pasážích dodávají kontextu mírně odlišný tón. Dalším významným rozdílem je úroveň formálnosti. Zatímco standardní verze používají formálnější jazyk, dialektová verze využívá neformálnější styl, který více odpovídá mluvené podobě jazyka daného regionu.

Ve druhé části praktické části této práce jsem se soustředil na jazykové rysy dialektu, jak jsou prezentovány v překladu *Malého prince*. Úvodní podkapitoly se věnují fonologii a lexikologii, na které navazuje gramatika. Fonologické rysy jsou v textu knihy většinou nepřítomné. Tónový systém, který je jedním z výrazných znaků dialektu Kjongsang, zde chybí. To je v kontrastu s překladem do dialektu Čolla, kde jsou alespoň některé fonologické prvky (například prodlužování slov) v textu zaznamenány.

Co se týče slovní zásoby, dialekt Kjongsang je známý svou specifickou slovní zásobou, která se značně liší od spisovné korejštiny. Přestože překlad *Malého Prince* obsahuje některá slova specifická pro tento dialekt, není jejich počet úplně největší. Mnoho dalších slov by mohlo být přeloženo v dialektu – dokonce i některá základní slova, která mají jasné dialektní varianty, zůstala ve své standardní podobě.

V části věnované gramatice jsem se nejprve zaměřil na pádové partikule, které jsou základními prvky jak ve spisovné korejštině, tak v jejích dialektech. Výzkum ukázal, že většina pádových partikulí se v překladu vyskytuje ve stejné podobě jako ve spisovném jazyce. To bylo patrné i v příkladových větách, které byly analyzovány pomocí metody dvojího překladu. Jen několik gramatických partikulí vykazovalo jasné dialektální rysy. Totéž platí i pro srovnávací partikule, které byly rovněž uvedeny ve své standardní podobě, přestože dialektální

varianty existují a běžně se používají v oblasti Kjongsang. Významnější rozdíly byly zaznamenány v části věnované spojkám a koncovkám vět. Tyto gramatické prvky vykazovaly větší míru odlišnosti ve svých formách.

Na závěr lze říci, že překlad *Malého prince* do dialektu Kjongsang je cenným přínosem, který zvyšuje povědomí o tomto dialektu. Ačkoliv by bylo jistě možné zapracovat více slovní zásoby a gramatických struktur typických pro dané nářečí, překlad slouží jako užitečný a přístupný zdroj pro začátečníky a osoby s tímto dialektem neobeznámené, a poskytuje solidní základ pro další studium.

List of References

Ahn, Kyou-Dong, and Yeon Jaehoon. 2020. "The Classification of the Korean Language and Its Dialects." *The Oxford Guide to the Transeurasian Languages*: 59–80. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198804628.003.0006

Albir, Amparo Hurtado, and Lucía Molina. "Translation Techniques Revisited: A Dynamic and Functionalist Approach." *Translator's Journal* 47 (4): 498–512 https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=2809718.

An, Chin-Myŏng, Kyung-Ah Lee, and Han Hu-Yŏng. 2010. "Korean Grammar in Use: Beginning." *Darakwon*. https://hoclai.files.wordpress.com/2015/06/korean-grammar-in-use-beginner.pdf

Assalam, Try, and Bayu Budiharjo. 2020. "Translating Ellipsis: Rendering the Missing Elements." *Proceeding of the First International Conference on Communication, Language, Literature, and Culture*. https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.8-9-2020.2301443.

Barnes-Sadler, Simon. 2020. "Exploring Early Korean Perspectives on Dialectology: Translation and Commentary of Lee Guk-Lo's 'The Dialects of Korean.'" *The Review of Korean Studies* 23 (2). https://doi.org/10.25024/review.2020.23.2.313

Bell, T. Roger. 1976. "Sociolinguistics – Goal, approaches and Problems." *Batsford*. https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/journal-of-linguistics/article/abs/roger-t-bell-sociolinguistics-goals-approaches-and-problems-london-batsford-1976-pp-252/0669877A4B026482E5A830D284C6C362

Chambers, J.K., and Peter Trudgill. 2004. "Dialectology." *Cambridge University Press* https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511805103

Crystal, David. 2009. "A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics." *Blackwell publishing* https://hslcorner.wordpress.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/david-crystal-a-dictionary-of-linguistics-and-phonetics-1.pdf

Cultural Policy Division. 2018. "Chejuŏ Pojŏn Mit Yuksŏng Chorye" [(Parallel title:) Regulations on Preservation and Promotion of Cheju Language]. https://jst.re.kr/upload/board/pdf/122_1547433117269.pdf

Curzan, Anne, Robin M. Queen, Kristin VanEyk, and Rachel Elizabeth Weissler. 2023. "Language Standardization & Linguistic Subordination." *Daedalus* 152 (3): 18–35. https://doi.org/10.1162/daed_a_02015

Cho, H.-J. 2010. "Kyŏngbuk pangŏnŭi kyŏkchosa yŏn'gu" [(Parallel title:) A Study on Particle of Gyeong-Buk Dialect]. *Daegu Catholic University*. http://www.riss.kr/link?id=T11909188&outLink=K

Ch'oe, Myŏng-Ok. 2019. "Han'gugŏŭi pangŏn" [(Parallel title:) Korean Dialects]. *Sechang Publishing*. https://books.google.cz/books/about/한국어의_방언.html?id=7IXCDwAAQBAJ&redir_esc=y

Duranti, Alessandro. 1997. "Linguistic Anthropology." *Cambridge University Press*: 69–83. https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511810190

Eliáš, Jindra, Aleš Leznar, and Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. 2020. "Malé Principál." *Jota*. https://www.jota.cz/male-principal.html

Fromkin, Victoria. 2011. "An Introduction to Language." *Cengage learning*. https://ukhtt3nee.wordpress.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/an_introduction_to_language.pdf

I, Dae-Yŏng. 2005. "Kohyang marŭl ch'ajasŏ: Jŏllabuk-to pangŏn iyagi" [(Parallel title:) In Search of Hometown Speech: A Story of the Chŏllabuk-to Dialect]. *Saegugŏ saenghwal* 15 (2): 145–52. https://www.dbpia.co.kr/journal/articleDetail?nodeId=NODE07253422

Lee, Dongmyung and Stuart Davis. 2009. "On the Pitch-Accent System of South Kyungsang Korean: A Phonological Perspective." *Second Language Research* 45: 3-22. https://cl.indiana.edu/davis/LeeDavisLgResearch2009.pdf

Lee, Iksop, and S. Robert Ramsey. 2001. "The Korean Language." *State University of New York Press*. https://doi.org/10.2307/jj.18252470

Lee, Ki-Moon, and S. Robert Ramsey. 2011. "A History of the Korean Language" *Cambridge University Press*. https://altaica.ru/LIBRARY/KOREAN/Lee_Ramsey_A_history_of_the_korean_language.pdf

Linn, Andrew, Guro Refsum Sanden, and Rebecca Piekkari. 2018. "Language Standardization in Sociolinguistics and International Business: Theory and Practice Across the Table." *De Gruyter*. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501506833-002

Liu, Ruey Ying. 2012. "Language Policy and Group Identification in Taiwan." *Mind, Brain, and Education* 6: 108–116. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-228X.2012.01143.x

Kadoríková, Klára. 2018. "Pádové a pomocné partikule v dialektu provincie Kjŏngsang" [(Parallel title:) Case Particles and Auxiliary Particles in the Kyŏngsang Dialect]. *Charles University*. https://dspace.cuni.cz/bitstream/handle/20.500.11956/103298/130238255.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Kang, Yoo Jin. 2015. "Perceptions of Korean Dialects by Gyeongsang Residents." *San Diego State University*. https://digitalcollections.sdsu.edu/do/d81c5093-17ca-4997-9755-399303ea7399

Kumatani, Akiyasu. 1990. "Language Policies in North Korea." *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 82: 87–108. https://doi.org/10.1515/ijsl.1990.82.87.

Kim, Hyunsoon. 2000. "Korean Umlaut Revisited." *Second Language Research* 36: 381-415. https://www.academia.edu/111324179/Korean_Umlaut_revisited

King, Ross. 1987. "An Introduction to Soviet Korean." *Language Research* 2 (23): 233–272. AN INTRODUCTION TO SOVIET KOREAN ㅅㅓㅇㅜㄹㄷㅐㅎㅏㄱㄱㅛ https://s-space.snu.ac.kr › bitstream

King, Ross. 2006. "Dialect variation in Korean." *Korean Language in Culture and Society*: 264-280. https://www.academia.edu/3358614/Dialect_Variation_in_Korean

King, Ross. 1996. "Russian Loanwords in Hamkyeng and Soviet Korean Dialects." *Essays in Honor of Ki-Moon Lee*: 939–965. https://www.academia.edu/3358573/Russian_Loanwords_in_Hamkyeng_and_Soviet_Korean_Dialects

Han, Tongwan. 1990. "Pukhanŭi kugŏhakkwa hyŏnsilgwaŭi kwan'gye" [(Parallel title:) The Relationship Between North Korean Linguistics and Reality] *Sogang University*. https://scc.sogang.ac.kr/Download?pathStr=NDgjIzU3IyM1NyMjNTAjIzEyNCMjMTA0IyMxMTYjIzk3IyM4MCMjMTAxIyMxMDgjIzEwNSMjMTAyIyMzNSMjMzMjIzM1IyM1MCMjMTI0IyMxMjAjIzEwMSMjMTAwIyMxMTAjIzEwNSMjMzUjIzMzIyMzNSMjNTMjIzUzIyM1MCMjNTQjIzUwIyM1NiMjMTI0IyMxMDAjIzEwNSMjMTA3IyMxMTI=&fileName=02.++한동완.pdf&gubun=board

Haugen, Einar. 1982. "The Implementation of Corpus Planning: Theory and Practice." *De Gruyter eBooks*: 269–90. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110820584.269

Hidayati, Nurul. 2020. "Analysis of Translation Techniques, Methods, and Ideology on Children's Bilingual Story Books. " *ALSUNA Journal of Arabic and English language* 3 (2): 94–114. 10.31538/alsuna.v3i2.685

Hoffmanová, Klára, Jarmila Bachmannová, and Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. 2023. "Malej Princ." [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince]. *Jota*. https://www.jota.cz/malej-princ.html

Holmes, Janet. 2001. "An Introduction to Sociolinguistics." *Routledge*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833057

Hong, Soonhyun. 1997. "Palatalization and Umlaut in Korean." *University of Pennsylvania Working Papers in Linguistics*. https://www.academia.edu/98562000/Palatalization_and_Umlaut_in_Korean

Hŏn, Yu-jong. "Ŏrin Wangja'ch'oech'o Pŏnyŏgŭn Chosŏn Ilbo" [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince Was First Translated by Chosun Ilbo]. *Chosun Ilbo*, Accessed April 19, 2025 https://www.chosun.com/national/weekend/2020/12/05/FWYLIIEVFBCBVIEGOLKRS6NHJA/

Hŭi, H., & To, J. 2021. "kugŏ chŏngch'aek yŏn'guŭi t'ŏrŭl tajida" [(Parallel title:) Laying the groundwork for the study of Korean langauge policy]. *National Institute of Korean Language*. https://www.korean.go.kr/nkview/news_pdf/2021_2.pdf

Ito, Chiyuki and Michael Kenstowicz. 2017. "Pitch Accent in Korean." *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Linguistics*. https://lingphil.scripts.mit.edu/papers/kenstowicz/OUP.pdf

Jaehoon, Yeon. 2008. "How Different Is Pyongyang Speech from Seoul Speech?" *Korea: The Past and the Present*: 147–55. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004217829_012

Jung, Jae Hwan. "Haebang Hu Urimal Toro Ch'atki Undongŭi Naeyonggwa Sŏnggwa" [(Parallel title:) Recovery Campaign of Mother Tongue and Its Result after Korean Liberation.] *Hangeul* 296: 151–196. https://doi.org/10.22557/hg.2016.06.296.151

Malmkjaer, Kirsten. 2009. "The Routledge Linguistics Encyclopedia." *Routledge*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203874950

Mazaná, Vladislava. 2023. "Morfologická Charakteristika Korejského Dialektu Ostrova Čedžu, Porovnání se Standardní Varietou a Analýza Zachovalých Prvků Středověké Korejštiny" [(Parallel title: Morphological Characteristics of the Korean Dialect of Jeju Island: A Comparison with

the Standard Variety and an Analysis of Preserved Elements of Middle Korean). *Charles University*. https://dspace.cuni.cz/bitstream/handle/20.500.11956/180279/140107044.pdf?sequence=4&isAllowed=y

Newmark, Peter. 1988. "A Textbook of Translation." *Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press*. http://ilts.ir/Content/ilts.ir/Page/142/ContentImage/A Textbook of Translation by Peter Newmark (1).pdf

Odehnal, Petr, Roman Kudláček, and Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. 2021. "Malučký Princ" [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince]. *Jota*. https://www.jota.cz/malucky-princ.html

Pak, Nelli. 2005. "Yukch'in Pangŏnŭi T'ŭkching" [(Parallel title: Characteristics of the Yukchin Dialect)]. *Cross-Cultural Studies* 11 (2): 245–254. https://www.dbpia.co.kr/journal/articleDetail?nodeId=NODE06288962

Pak, Jisu, and Tŏkho Kim. 2015. " Kyŏngbuk Sangju Chiyŏgŭi Ŏnŏbyŏnhwa Kwajŏnge Taehan Yŏn'gu" [(Parallel title:) A Study on the Language Change Process in Sangju, Kyŏngsang-do]. *hanminjogŏmunhak* 69: 317–357. https://www.kci.go.kr/kciportal/ci/sereArticleSearch/ciSereArtiView.kci?sereArticleSearchBean.artiId=ART001984570

Ramlan, Ramlan. 2018. "Language Standarization in General Point of View." *Budapest International Research and Critics Institute (BIRCI-Journal): Humanities and Social Sciences* 1: 27–33. https://doi.org/10.33258/birci.v1i1.4

Ramsey, Samuel Robert. 1978. "Accent and Morphology in Korean Dialects: A Descriptive and Historical Study." *Kugŏhak ch'ongsŏ* 9. https://tufs.repo.nii.ac.jp/record/1727/files/jaas019007.pdf

Rhee, Seongha. 2022. "Comparatives in Korean: A Grammaticalization Perspective." *Lingua* 265 (3). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2021.103163.

Richards, Jack C., and Richard W. Schmidt. 2013. "Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics." *Routledge*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833835

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine de, and Hyeon-Ae Ch'oe. 2021. "Aerin Wangja" [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince] *Ip'ap*. https://m.yes24.com/goods/detail/96174953

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine de, and Lee, J.-S. (2022). "Ŏrin Wangja" [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince] *Ttŭtpak*. https://m.yes24.com/goods/detail/116460289

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine de, and Sim, C. (2021). “Erin Wangja” [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince] *Ip’ap*. https://m.yes24.com/goods/detail/105369940

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine, and Kyŏngju Kim. 2014. “Ŏrin Wangja” [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince]. *Hummingbird*. https://m.yes24.com/goods/detail/41054157

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine, and T'aehyo song. 2013 “Ŏrin Wangja” [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince]. The New People. https://m.yes24.com/Goods/Detail/12819370

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine, Valentin Moreno, and Veron Felipe. 2005. “So shiỹaxauolec nta’a” [(Parallel title:) Le Petit Prince]. *Association pour l’échange artistique et culturel* https://www.petit-prince-collection.com/lang/show_livre.php?lang=en&id=720

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine de, and Katherine Woods. 1971. “The Little Prince”. *Harcourt Brace & Co*. https://archive.org/details/littleprince00sain/page/n5/mode/2up

Sandoz, Angie. 2021. “7510 Different Editions of Saint-Exupery’s ‘Little Prince.’” Accessed April 16, 2025. https://petit-prince-collection.com/lang/collection.php?lang=en.

Smakman, Dick. 2012. “The Definition of the Standard Language: A Survey in Seven Countries.” *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 218: 25–58. https://doi.org/10.1515/ijsl-2012-0058.

Sohn, Ho-min. 2006. “Korean Language in Culture and Society.” *University of Hawaii Press*. https://uhpress.hawaii.edu/title/korean-language-in-culture-and-society/

Song, Jae Jung. 2001. “The Korean Language: Structure, Use and Context.” *Taylor & Francis US*. https://www.routledge.com/The-Korean-Language-Structure-Use-and-Context/Song/p/book/9780415544368?srsltid=AfmBOorKjWGn3o1oEJRJglNNa0HWzmjZd20UlFuSdiALRzf--QGSXfbL

Stewart, William A. 1968. “A Sociolinguistic Typology for Describing National Multilingualism.” *De Gruyter eBooks*: 531–539. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110805376.531.

Suwanajote, Napasri, Yothin Sawangdee, Cholticha Sudmuk, Phuwithch Ngiwline, and Suwaree Yordchim. 2021. “The Sound System Of The North Korean Dialect Of Hamgyeong.” *Linguistica Antverpiensia, New Series – Themes in Translation Studies* 3: 7078–7090. https://doi.org/10.52034/lanstts.v0i0

Škarnétka, Cyril, Francka Kubíková, and Antoine de Saint-Exupéry. 2024. “Malušenký princ” [(Parallel title:) The Little Prince]. *Jota*. https://www.jota.cz/malusenky-princ.html

Yang, Chen, Sejung Yang, and William E. O’Grady. 2019. “Jejueo: The Language of Korea’s Jeju Island”. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvwvr2qt

Yeon, Jaehoon. 2012. “Korean Dialects 6 Korean Dialects: A General Survey.” *The Languages of Japan and Korea*: 168–185. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203124741.CH6

Yusŏn, Hyŏn. 2020. “Kye Kongmook-kwa P’yŏngbuk Pangŏn” [(Parallel title:) Kye Kongmook and P’yŏngbuk Dialects]. *Journal of Humanities* 77 (3): 257–287. https://ih.snu.ac.kr/wp-content/uploads/mangboard/journal/2469304172_9ZMxu6jl_07_EC9DBCEBB0983_EC9CA0EC849CED9884_257-287_.pdf

Wang, Yongzhun. 2020. “Han’gugŏ sŏngjo yŏn’gue kwanhan yŏksajŏk yŏn’gu” [(Parallel title:) A Historical Study on the Study of the Korean Tone]. *Pukyong National University.* https://repository.pknu.ac.kr:8443/bitstream/2021.oak/2645/2/한국어 성조 연구에 관한 역사적 연구.pdf

List of Appendices

Text 1: First eight chapters of The Little Prince in the Kyŏngsang dialect (Exupéry and Ch'oe 2022)

Appendix

1.
나는 보아뱀이라 카능 기 정글에서 젤로 무서븐 기라꼬 생각했데이. 여섯 살 땐가 한 번은 <체험담> 이라 카는 책을 읽았는데 보아뱀이 지보다 더 큰 짐승을 꿈적기리지도 모하 게 또아리를 틀어가 꽉 잡아 놓고 입을 쩍 벌리고 있는 그림을 봤다 아이가. 조 우에 그림 있게. 저거데이. 책에 보마 보아뱀이 잡은 거는 안 씹아묵고 통째로 삼킨다 카데, 그라믄 배가 불러나띠 몸은 몬 움직이고 소화될 때까 지 반 년을 들누바가 잠만 잔다카이 머 이린 기 있나 싶어가 색연필 들고 생각해 보이까 딱 요래 안 그려지겠나. 내 첫 작품이데이.

그림 자랑이 너무 하고 싶아가, 으른들자테 비주고 안 무섭 닝교라고 물으니까 모자가 머가 무섭노 카능기라. 나는 모자 기린 게 아이고 코끼리 아가, 소화시킬라꼬 누바있 는 뱀 기린긴데. 안되겠다 싶아가 다시 기려뿌짜나. 요게 밀에 그림 아이겠나.
더 허패 디비끼는 기는 으른들이 속 비는 기나 안 비는 기나 보아뱀은 고마 치아뿌고 국영수 중심으로 공부하라카데. 이래가 내가 여섯 살 묵고 화가는 몬 되겠다 포기해뿟제. 다 커가 으른인데도 혼자 이해 도 몬하고 있으므 그때그때 설명해주기도 참 디다카이.
그래가 뱅기 운전하는 거 안 배았나. 세계 구경하고 여기저기 마이도 돌아댕겠지, 그라고 지리 공부는 참 잘했다 싶은 게, 한 번 쓱 보모 중국하고 미국 애리조 나는 곰방 구별이 되는기라. 밤에 길 잃으모 우짜꼬 걱정했는데 배아가 남 주는 기 하나도 없다 싶응기 라. 살아오문서 진지하다카는 사람들 억수로 마이 만났데이. 으른들이 마, 우에 사는 지 다 봤 는 기라, 그러타꼬 내 생각이 달라지겐나.
좀 똑똑해 빈다 싶으로 가지고 댕겼던 처음 기린 그림 꺼내 가 알아보나 몬 알아보나 시험해 보능데, 마카다 모자란다.
진짜 모자라나 싶다. 내도 입 꾹 닫아삔다. 원시림, 별 이바 구 해가 뭔 소용있겠노 싶아가. 그라다가 알아묵겠다 싶은 카드놀이나 골프, 정치, 넥타이 이바구나 하능기지. 그라믄 그 으른은 내보고 분별구마 카서 좋아 하는 기라

2.
속 이바구할 인간도 없게, 일 이바구 밖에 할 게 더 있긋나.
육년 전에 배기 몰다가 사하라 사막에 떨어져뿟지. 모다에 머가 나간기라. 기관사가 있나 손님이 있었긋나 수리할라믄 내 혼자 욕 바야지 별 수 있긋나. 가진 물로까 일주일 겨우 버 틸랑가 싶았제. 첫날은 복새 우에 누바가 잤지. 사람 코 빼기도 안 비는 허허벌판 사막에 있다보이 바다 가분데서 뗏목타고 둥둥 흘러가는 난파선 우에 뱃사람보다 훨씬 외로븐기라. 어슴푸레 해 뜰 때쯤 됐을랑가 웬 얼라가 낼 깨아가 시껍했다아이가.
"저기… 양 한 마리만 기레도."
"뭐라카노."
"양 한 마리만 기레달라켔는데.

마 뒷골이 서늘한기라. 그 때 눈을 실 떠보니까 쪼매난 아 가 내를 뚤바져라 보고 있데. 여그 초상화 있데이, 내가 봐도 이 그림이 모델로 기린 것 중에 젤로 개안은 기다. 근데 그립 이 그 얼라맹키로 멋있을라카믄 아직 한참 멀었데이. 알겠지 만도 그긴 내 잘못 아이다. 내 여섯 살 묵고 어른들 때메기 가 죽아가 화가가 몬 됐제, 그려본 게 속 들바다 비고 안 비는 보아뱀 밖에 더 있나.
아무튼가네 나도 놀래가 눈 뿔시모 안 쳐다밨겠나. 분미 여 는 마을서도 수만리 떨어진 덴데 야는 길 잃은 아 맹키로도 안 비고 디 비지도 않고 배 골은 아로도 안 비고 목말라 비지 도 않은 게 아가 겁도 안 묵고 희한한기라. 사막 한 가분데 길 잃은 얼라가 아인기라. 기운 내가 겨우 입 띠고 이래 물았지.

구란데••••·거서 니는 뭐하노?"
근데 야가 심각하게 또 같은 말을 다시 하는 기라.
"저기•••• 양 한 마리만 기레도·•••.." 기가 맥혜도 이게 쎈 느낌을 주모 감히 거절을 몬하는기 라. 그래가 사막 한 가분데 저승사자가 눈 앞에서 손짓하는 판국에 참말로 멍충한 짓거린가 싶다가도, 호주미에 종이캉 만년필 꺼냈다 아이가. 그란데 내가 뭐 공부한기 고작 지 리, 역사, 산수강 문법이라가 (쪼매 승질이 올라오데) 얼라 한테 그림 기릴 줄 모린다카이 내한테.
"갠찮다. 양 한 마리만 기래도." 라 안카나. 내사 양을 한 번도 그레 본 적도 꼬 내가 기릴 수 있는 그림이 딱 두 개 아이가. 속 안 비는 보아뱀 기레주이까 그 얼라가 이래 답 하는기라.
"아니, 아니. 보아뱀 안에 코끼리는 실타마. 보아뱀은 위험코 코기리는 여수로 옥순시리가 내 사 는 데는 쪼매해가 양이 갖고 시픈데. 양 한 마리만 그레도."
그래가 양을 요래 기렀따. 얼라가 한참을 살펴보디 이카는 기라.
"아니! 이기는 하마 비실대모 병들았네. 따른 걸로 하나 기레도."
나는 요 그림을 기렀지.
친구는 배시시 웃으면서, 너그럽구로 말하는 기라
"참말로••••· 이게 아니라 카이. 이기 숫양인데 뿔이 있어가
그래가 나는 요 그림을 기렀지.
구란데 요거도 앞에 거 즈로 퇴짜를 안 놓겠나.
"요고는 너무 늙았자나. 나는 오래 살 양이 필요한데."
그 때 나는 모다를 우에 분해할 지 급해가 몬
참고 아물따나 쓱 그어대띠, 그게 요런기라. 그라고 그림 던져주 고 이랬제.
"요게 상자데이. 니가 갖고 싶어 하는 양은 고 안에 들어 있는기라."
그란데 놀랍게도 얼라 감독관 얼굴이 밝아지더라고.
내가 원하는 기 바로 이기다! 양 떡일라카믄 풀이 많이 있
어야 하나?"
"그게 와 걱정인데?"
"내 사는 데가 억수로 쪼맨해가."
아마 충분할 낀데. 내가 기린 기 아주 쪼매난 양이다." 얼라가 고개를 숙이디 그림을 들바다보데.
"그마이 쪼맨하지도 않은데•••· 요고 보래이! 잠 들았

노•••..."
내는 이래가 애린 왕자를 알았따.

3.

가가 어디서 왔는지 아는 데 한참 걸렸는데, 지는 질문 막 하믄서 내 질문은 귀담아 듣지도 안테. 어찌어찌 들은 말 을 모아보이 차차 알겠더라고.
예를 들, 맨 첨에 내 뱅기를 보두만 내한테 이래 묻는기라.
"이 물건은 머고?"
"이기 물건이 아이고 날라댕기는 긴 데, ㅇ."
날아댕긴다는 거를 갈켜주이 마 내 가 머가 된 거 맹키로 으쓱해지데. 그라더이 가가 큰 소리로 외치데.
"와, 아재가 하늘에서 떨어졌다 고?" “구래."
내는 진지하게 대답했눈데
"와, 그거 참 웃기데이•••·
그라고 애린 왕자가 웃음을 빵 터트렸는데 나는 쫌 열불 이 나데. 내 딴에는 지금 내 상황이 심각한 기로 으면싶 았는데. 가가 좀 있다 이래 묻는기라.
"그라믄 아재도 하늘에서 왔네! 어느 별에서 왔노?" 듣자마자 가가 누군동 풀리지 않는 수수께끼를 푸는 데 빛이 번쩍 비추는 거 같아서 내도 이래 물았지.
"그라믄 니는 다른 별에서 왔나?" 대답은 안코 내 뱅기를 보믄서 고개만 까딱카데.
"글켓지. 저걸 타고 그레 먼 데서 여꺼정 우에 왔을라
꼬…….”
그라고 오랫동안 먼 생각을 하드만 호주미에 양 그림 을 꺼내디 고 보물을 뚤버져라 들바다 보데.
슬쩍 다린 별> 얘기를 하다말고 관두이 내가 얼마나 애 가 타든 동 여러분들도 짐작했을끼라. 그래가 나는 좀 더 깊숙이 알라볼라 애썼데이.
"야야, 니는 어디서 왔노? <니가 사는 데>가 어디고?
내 양을 얼로 델꼬 갈라 하노?"
오랫동안 먼생각을 한다고 말이 없더이 이래 답하데.
"잘 됐데이. 아재가 준 상자요, 밤이면 양 울타리가 될 수 있겠더라고."
"맞데이, 그라고 니가 말 잘 들으므, 낮에는 양 묶아둘 수 있는 이까리도 하나 줄꾸마. 말띠기도 주께.” 이래 제안했는데 좀 놀란 눈친기라.
"묶아둔다고? 참 희한하데이."
"안 묶으모 여그저그 돌아댕기다 길 잃가뿔낀데." 그 말에 가가 다시 웃는기라.
"아니, 가긴 얼로 간다는 기고?
"어디든지, 앞으로 쭉
." 그라디 애린 황자가 심각하게 말하데. 괜찮타, 내 집 은 진짜 작은 데 머!"
그라고는 좀 우울하게 말하데.
"앞으로 쭉 가삐도 밸로 멀리 가지도 모한다··•..."

4.

이래가 나는 두 번째로 중요한 사실을 알았데이. 애린 왕자가 살고 있는 별이 뽀도시 집 하나 보다 쪼매 클랑가.
그게 내한테는 밸로 놀랍지도 안능기라. 지구, 목성, 화성, 금성 이래 이름이라도 있는 행성 말고도 망원경으로 잘 안 비는 쪼매한 별들이 천지빼까리 아이가. 천문학자가
이런 별을 한 개라도 보몬, 이름 대신 번호를 안 붙 이나. 예를 들모 <소행성 3251> 이라 카든가.
애린 왕자 별이 소행성 B612 라는 기를 믿을 만한 중대한 이유가 있다.
1909 년에 어느 터키 천 문학자 망원경에 딱 한 번 빘다카는데 이 학자가 천문학회서 이걸 길게 논증했다 쿠네. 근데 하믄 모하노.그 노무 옷 때매 아무도 안 믿어줬다 카네. 으른들이 글 치머. 소행성 B612 한테는 참 다행인데, 터키 한 독재자 가 국민들자테 구라 파식으로 옷 안 입 으모 사형시킨다꼬
명령을 안 내릿겐나. 이번에 천문학자가 1920 년에 삐까뻔 적하게 차려입고 논증을 다시 하이, 이번에는 마카다 학자 의견을 들아줬다쿠네.
내가 소행성 B612 이바구를 이마이 구구절절 하믄서 번 호까지 밝히는 기는 다 으른들 때문이다. 으른들은 숫자 좋 아하자나. 여러분은 새 친구 사다꼬 으른들자테 말하모, 으른들이 언제 중요한 거 물어보드나.
"그 아 목소리는 어떤노? 그 아는 먼 놀이 좋아하노? 그 아도 나비 채집하드나?"
절대로 이래 안 물어보제. 그 아는 나이가 몇이고? 형제는 몇이고? 몸무게는 얼마고? 그 아 아부지는 얼매나 버노?
맨날 이래 안 묻더나. 이래 묻고 나야 으른들은 마 친구를 잘 안다 생각카제.
만일 여러분이 "나는 억수로 아름다 장밋색 벽돌집을 밨는데,
창문에는 제라늄, 지붕 우에 비둘기… 이라믄 마 어른들은 그 집을 상상 몬할끼다.
으른들자테는 이래 말해 주야한다.
내는 10 억짜리 집 봤니더." 이라면 알아 묵고 "그 집 정말 이뿌겠네" 하는기라.
그라이 여러분들이 "애린 왕자가 있었다는 정거를 대보 끈, 가는 정말 멋진 얼라고, 가가 웃었다는 거, 가가 양을 갖 고 싶어했다는 거, 누가 양을 갖고 싶다카믄, 그게 사람이 살 아 있다는 정거다" 카서 같이 말해 보믄, 으른들은 니가 마 얼란갑다카서 어깨를 으쓱할낀기라. 근데 "가가 소행 성 B612 에서 왔다" 카 으른들이 딱 알아묵고, 질문 같은 거 안 하고 귀찮게 안할끼라. 으른들이 일타. 탓하지는 말그 래이. 얼라들이 으른들자테 아주 너그러버야 한데이.
물론 삶을 이해하고 있는 우리자테 숫자 같은 기야 우습 제. 나는 이 이바구를 선녀 야기 맹크로 시작하고 싶데이. 이 래 이야기 했으면 참 좋았을 낀데.
"옛날 옛적, 한 애린 왕자가 지보다 쪼매 클까 말까 한 별에 살았는데, 친구가 너무 필요해가……" 삶이란 문지 좀 안다카는 사람들 눈에는 이런 이바구가 더 진실하게 안
빘겠나.

딴 사람들이 내 책을 숩게 읽는 건 싫아가 이케 주낀다. 인 자 그 추억을 이야기할라카이 그마이 슬파가 안글나. 내 친 구가 양 갖고 떠난지도 하마 육 년이다. 내가 여다 그 모습 을기릴라고 애쓰는 것도 그 아를 안 잊을라카는 기지. 친구 를 까묵으모 슬프자나. 누구나 다 친구가 있었던기도 아이고, 내도 숫자만 아는 으른들같이 될지도 모리고야. 내 가 다시 그림물감 한 잡하고 연필 몇 자루 사온 것도 다 이런 이유때문이제. 이 나이에 다시 그림 기리는 기 얼매 나. 힘든동. 여섯 살 때 속 들바다 비는 보아하고 속 안 비는 보아뱀 기린 게 단데! 힘 닿는대로 애린 왕자 마이 닭 은 초상화 그릴라꼬 노력은 하는데 성공할지는 모리겠다.
어떤 기는 바 줄만 한데 어떤 기는 완전 딴판인기라. 키 어 림잡는 것도 좀 어설프고. 이짝에 애린 왕자는 너무 크고 저 짝은 또 너무 쪼맨코. 옷 색깔도 잘 못 고리겠다. 그래가 마 되든 안되는 이래 저래 해 보는 기 다다. 언젠가 중요한 부분에서 실수할 꺼 같은데. 그래도 용서해도. 가는 내 아 무 이바구를 안 하이, 우짜 내 지 같다 생각 안했겠 나 싶다. 구란데 내는 마, 가 맹키로 상자 속에 양을 볼 줄 모린다. 우짜 내도 얼맹큼은 인자 으른이 된기라. 늙었다 카이.

5.
나는 맨날 가 별이라카든지, 가가 별을 떠난 야그든지,가 여행 카능기 어땠는지 얼맹큼씩 알게 됐다. 가가 요래조래 생각카는 거를 맞차보이 천천히 알게 된기라. 한 삼 일쯤됐 나, 가가 바오밥나무를 안 좋아한다는 기도 이래 안 알았긋 나. 요번에도 저번 맹키로 양 덕분에 알았다. 애린 왕자가 질 문을 불쑥 하능기라. 나는 또 가가 어디에 홀린나 싶아가 시껍묵았다.
"양들은 쪼매난 풀뭉티 뜯아 묵제?"
"그래, 맞데이."
아, 그라믄 됐다."
나는 양이 작은 풀뭉터 묵는다는 기와 중요한지 몰 랐는데, 애린 왕자가 구카데.
"그라믄 양들은 바오밥나무도 묵겠네?" 나는 애린 왕자테, 바오밥나무는 작은 풀뭉티가 아니라 교회 건물 맹키로 큰 나무고 코끼리 한 부대를 델꼬가 도 바오밥나무 하나 다 못 뜯아 묵을끼라켔지.
코끼리 한 부대라카는 말에 애린 왕자가 실 웃데.
그라믄 코끼리 등에다 코끼리를 포개놓으면 되겠구만.
그라고 나서 참 똑띠 말하데.
"바오밥나무들도 다 크기 전에는 쪼맨하제."
"완전 맞는 말이데이! 근데 와 양이 작은 바오밥나무 를 무그야 하노?"
가는 무신 당연한 걸 묻냐카듯이 이래 답하는기라.
"아이참! 그기야."
그라고 나는 이 수수께끼 푼다고 혼자 머리를 쥐아짰다.
사실은 그게 이런 거드라, 애린 왕자 별에는 어느 행 성 맹키로, 좋은 풀떼기하 고 나쁜 풀떼기가 있는 기 라. 그 말은 좋은 풀떼기의 좋은 씨, 나쁜 뿔떼기의 나쁜 씨가 있는 기라. 그란 데 씨앗들은 눈에 안 비제.
씨앗들은 땅 속에 숨어가 잠을 코 자다가, 고 중에 하 나가 인자 깨야겠다 생각이 들모 기지개를 피고 태양을 보미, 첨에 꼬물딱대다가 고이 쁘고

보드라 싹을 쑥 내밀자나. 무나 장미나무의 애린 싹이사 내비둬도 갠찮타. 근데 나쁜 식물의 싹이모 보자마 자 뽑아삐야지 그란데 애린 왕자 별에 무서븐 씨앗이 있았는데••••·· 그기 바로 바오밥나무 씨앗인기라. 마 그 별에 바오 밥 씨앗이 천지빼까리였던기라. 그란데 바오밥나무는 너무 늦게 손 쓰모 감당이 불감당이라. 나무는 온 별을 다 더 파삐 제, 뿌리는 별에 구미를 쑹 뚤바뿌이, 별은 쪼매한데 바오 밥나무가 많아바라 별이 터자뿌지.
•이기 훈련의 문젠기라 애린 왕자가 이카데, 아침에 세수하모 별도 세수시키야 한다. 바오밥나무가 얼릴 때는 강 미나무캉 비스무리한데, 구별할 수 있으므 그 때는 확 뽑아 삐야한다. 귀찮아도 얼매나 쉬운 일이고." 그라고 어느 날 내한테 아름다븐 그림을 그려가꼬 우리 땅에 사는 얼라들 머릿 속에 그거를 새기여라카데. "언젠가 그 아들이 여행을 하모 그게 도움이 될끼라. 가끔 할 일 미 룬다고 별일 있드나. 그란데 바오밥나무는 난리날끼다. 나는 게으름뱅이가 사는 별을 아는데, 고마 작은 풀띠 세 그루를 내비뒀드이....."
그래가 나는 애린 왕자가 설명한데로 게으름뱅이 별을 기렀지. 나는 도덕 선생 같은 말투는 밸로 안 좋아한데이.
근데 바오밥나무가 위험하다는 걸 사람들이 너무 모리 고, 혹시라도 길 잃고 소행성에 드간다 해봐라 음청 위험 하겠제. 그래가 한 번 예외를 둘꾸마.
"얼라들아! 바오밥나무 조심해래이!" 내가 이케 요 그림에 공 들이는 기는, 내 친구들이 내문 키로 암것도 모리는 위험을 지나가면서 알려줄라 안카나. 마 배운기는 내가 이마이 본 값어치가 있었다카능기다.
쪼매 궁금할끼라 와 이 책에 다린 그림들을 바오밥나무 문치로 웅장하게 안 그렸나꼬, 대답은 간딴다. 내는 죽을 똥 살 똥 힘은 줬는데 성공을 모한기라. 근데 바오밥나무 아넘았지.
기릴 때는 영감을 주는 사람이 옆에 있으이 고마 내를 뛰아넘았지.

6.
아! 애린 왕자, 나는 니가 마이 외로븐 생활 한 거를 이래 쪼매 씩 알았데이. 그동안 니를 달래준 기 해가 저무는 풍 경밖에 없었다 생각하이 와 나도 슬플라카노. 넷째날 아 침인가 니는 이켔제.
"내요, 해넘이를 진짜 좋아하니더. 지금 해넘이 보러 갈란교•.."
"하지만 기다려야 할낀데•···"
"기다린다니 멀?"
"해가 지기를 기다레야한다꼬"
니는 처음에 놀란 토깽이처럼 내를 보디, 곰방 어이가 없다는 듯 웃았제, 그라고 이켔제.
"내는 아직 내 별에 있는 줄 착각했다아잉교.
하모. 미국이 한낮이모 프랑스에서는 해가 지니까네.
다 이리 생각할끼고마는. 해넘이 볼라믄 마 1 분 안에 프랑스로 날라갈 수 있으면 될낀데. 불행히도 프랑스는 한참멀제, 쪼매한 니 별에는 의자 좀 땡기앉으모 될 낀데.
그래가꼬 니가 보고 싶을 때마다 저무는 노을을 자

"한 날은 마흔네 번이나 해넘이를 봤다아잉교!" 그라고 이켰제.
"아재도 알끄다•••…… 그래 슬프모 누구든동 노을이 보고 싶은기다."
마흔네번 해넘이 본 날에, 니는 그마이 슬펐단 말이가?
애린 왕자는 대답을 안했따.

7.
다섯째 날에 그 날도 양 때매 애린 왕자가 우에 살았는지 요 비밀을 알았다카이. 오랫동안 말 읍시 생각해 왔던 궁금증이 고 마 열매를 맺았지, 밑도 끝도 없이 질문을 해 샀는기라.
"양이 쪼매한 풀데기 묵으문 꽃도 묵나?"
"양은 닥치는 대로 묵는다."
"가시가 있는 꽃도 글나."
"하모, 가시가 있는 꽃도."
"그라믄 가시는 먼 쓸모가 있노?" 나는 그건 모리겠더라고. 그 때 모다에 꽉 낑긴 볼트 푼다고 정신이 하나도 없었다카이. 고장은 심각하게, 마실 물은 다 떨어져가제. 최악의 상황을 안 생각한다는 기 더 이상한기라.
"가시는 먼 쓸모가 있노?"
애린 왕자는 질문하모 포기를 모린다. 볼트 때메 화딱지가 나가 아물따나 대답했다.
"가시 그거 먼 소용 있노. 꽃들이 괜히 뿔따구 부리는 거 아이가."
"아!"
가가 한동안 말이 없더 악에 받체가 내를 잡아 묵을라카 데. "그랄 리가 없다! 꽃들은 약하고 순진하다. 할 수 있는 데까지 지를 지킬라카는 거다. 꽃은 가시 있다꼬 지들 이 무서븐 줄 알던데•••••."
인자 내가 대답을 안했다. 그 때 이런 생각켰거든. "이노 무 볼트가 이케도 안 풀리면 망치까 확 뚜드리 뽀사뿔 란다." 애린 왕자가 또 내 머리 속을 저지리하는기라.
"마, 아재는 그래 생각하제, 꽃들이••••.."
"그기 아니라카이 아니라꼬. 암 생각도 없다카능데! 아 물따나 대답한기다. 나는, 나는 말이다, 지금 중요한 일 하니라 바쁘다꼬!" 가가 시껍해가 나를 째리봤다.
"중요한 일이라카이!"
손꾸락에 껌정 기름 묻히고 손에는 망치 들았게 가 눈에 분미 흉측하게 비는 물건자테 엎드리 있았제 가가 그 옆 에 서가 나를 한참 쳐다보데.
"아재도 마 다린 으른들 맹키로 주끼샀노."
그 말에 얼굴이 달아올랐는데 미낄시리 한 마디 더 했뿌 데. "아재도 다 엉망진창이고, 다 뒤죽박죽이네."
가 진짜 화 났더래이. 금색 머리카락 막 날리문서.
"내가 아는 별에 얼굴 벌건 으른이 사는데, 꽃 향기 맡은 적도 없고, 누구 하나 사랑해 본 적 도 없고, 덧셈만 하믄서 살데, 그라믄서 하루 죙일 아재 같 이 주끼더라고. '나는 중요한 일 하는 사람이데이! 나는중 요한 일 하는 사람이데이!' 그라고 으스댄다 아인교. 근데 사람이 아니라꼬. 그긴 버섯이라꼬!"
"뭐라고?"
"버섯이라꼬!" 애린 왕자는 화가 나가 인자 얼굴이 허여케 질렀다.

"꽃들이 가시를 수 백만 년전부터 맹글어 왔고, 양은 고 꽃들을 수백만 년 전부터 묵았고. 근데 와 꽃들이 아무 쓸모없는 가시 맹근다고 고생 하는 동 알아보는 기 그래 안 중요하단 말인교?
양하고 꽃들의 전쟁이 안 중요하단 말이제?
뚱띠에 얼굴 벌건 으른이 하는 덧셈보다 더 중요하고 진지한 일이 아니라꼬?
내 별 떠나가는
못 보는, 시상에 딱 한 송이 꽃을 생각해 보소.
아침에 쪼매한 양이 몇도 모리고 이래 꿀꺽 없애부릴지도 모리는 그 꽃은 내 가 사랑한다고 해봐라. 근데 그게 중요한 일이 아니라 카 는 게 말이 되나 안되나?" 가가 얼굴이 빨개가 다시 주께데.
•수백만 또 수백만이 넘는 별이사 차고 넘치지만도 그 속에 딱 한 송이밖에 없는 꽃을 누가 사랑하모, 가는 별을 보는 걸로도 행복할끼라. 저 하늘 어딘가에 내 꽃이 있네.•·....
이라서 혼자 이바구하겠제. 근데 양이 그 꽃을 묵아뿌 먼 우에 되겠노. 가는 그 모든 별이 확 다 꺼져가 껌껌해질까 라! 그래도 이게 안 중요하나!
가는 더 말을 모하고 갑자기 찔찔 짜는기라. 하마 어둡 더라. 나는 연장 다 던져뿌따. 망치도 나사도 목 마러븐 것도 죽는 기도 머 눈에 안 비더라고. 어떤 별, 어떤 행성 우에 내 별인 이 지구 우에, 내가 달래주야 하는 애린 왕자가 있는 기라! 나는 가를 살포시 안았데이. 가마이 흔들어 달래주찌.
내가 가한테 말했따.
"니가 사랑하는 꽃은 인자 안 위험할끼다··•·•• 양 입 우에 씌우는 허거리 하나 그리 줄꾸마•••.. 니 꽃을 위해가 내가 갑옷도 그래줄••••·•내•••••" 내사 뭐라 말할 지 몰랐눈데 내가 참 서툴러 비는 기라. 우찌 해야 가를 달랠 수 있을지, 어디를 가야 가 마음을 잡을 수 있을지·••·. 내사 마 하나도 모리겠능기라. 눈물의 나라, 참 신비롭데이.

8.
나는 인자가 꽃에 대해 전보다 더 잘 알게 됐데이. 가 별에 는 오래 전부터 (멋 부릴 줄 모리는) 수수한 꽃들이 있었다 던 갑데. 꽃 이파리 하나 있는 요 꽃이사 밸로 자리 자치를 했긋나, 누구 맘을 꼬시는 것도 아이었고야. 어느 아침에 풀 띠 속에서 나왔나 싶았다 어느 밤에 조용히 사라져뿌는기라.
그란데 어서 날라왔는동 모리겠는 씨앗 하나에서 싹이 나, 다른 거랑은 다른 요 애린 싹을 애린 왕자가 자태서 살피는기라. 우짤란가 새 바오밥나문가 켔는데 이기 더 자라 지는 않고 꽃을 막 피울라 카능기라. 애린 왕자는 그 커다란 꽃망울을 지켜보이 마 기적이 일어날 거 같은 기라. 그란데 야가 필 기미도 엄꼬 이파리 안에 꼭 숨아가 꽃단장을 하고 있데. 꽃은 천천히 옷 차레 입고 이파리 하나하나 다듬띠, 개양게비처럼 아물따나 차리고 안 나갈라 카데. 이뿌게 빌라고 환한 빛이 비출 때 나갈라카더라니까. 하모! 진짜 멋 재이 꽃이제! 신비러분 화장은 그래가 한 세월 걸리따. 한 날 아침 해가 뜨모 고때 딱 핀 기라.
화장 곱게 해노쿠는 하품을 하믄서
"아! 내 인제 일어났니더••••· 미안한데예, 아직 머리도 온 통 헝클어져 있고예·•••.." 요래 내숭을 안 떨긋나.

근데 애린 왕자는 너무 감격한기라.
"참 아름답네예."
그래예? 꽃이 나직하게 대답하데,
"지는요, 햇님 같이 태어났지···•••.
애린 왕자는 야가 밸로 겸손치는 안타꼬 대번에 알아봤다카이. 근데 그마이 맘을 흔드는 꽃 아이가!