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DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

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

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

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Tato práce zkoumá překlad a použití Kyöngsangského 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 Kyöngsangský dialekt liší od standartního jazyka v Jižní Koreji, a to jak v lexikologickém, tak zejména v gramatickém ohledu, pomocí techniky dvojitého překladu, která ukazuje, jak odlišné jsou gramatické částice nebo koncovky.

Abstract

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This thesis studies the translation and the usage of the Kyōngsang 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 Kyōngsang 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

INTRODUCTION	1
1. KOREAN DIALECTS	2
1.1 WHAT IS A DIALECT?	2
1.2 DIALECTOLOGY.....	3
1.3 TRANSLATION OF THE LITTLE PRINCE INTO DIALECTS	4
2. STANDARD LANGUAGE AND DIALECTS	6
2.1 STANDARD LANGUAGE	6
2.2 LANGUAGE POLICY IN SOUTH KOREA	7
2.3 THE KYŎNGSANG PROVINCE AND LANGUAGE POLICY	9
2.4 LANGUAGE POLICY IN THE DPRK	10
3 KOREAN DIALECTS	12
3.1 PHONOLOGICAL FEATURES OF DIALECTS.....	13
3.1.1 <i>Palatalization</i>	13
3.1.2 <i>Umlaut</i>	14
3.1.3 <i>Word initialization with r and n</i>	14
3.1.4 <i>Remains of Middle Korean</i>	15
3.1.5 <i>Tones and vowel length</i>	16
3.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF KOREAN DIALECTS	18
3.2.1 <i>The northwestern dialects</i>	18
3.2.2 <i>The northeastern dialects</i>	21
3.2.3 <i>The Central dialects</i>	24
3.2.4 <i>The southwestern dialect</i>	26
3.2.5 <i>The southeastern dialect</i>	30
3.2.6 <i>Cheju dialect</i>	33
4. ANALYSIS OF THE LITTLE PRINCE IN KOREAN TRANSLATIONS	35
4.1 METHODOLOGY	36
4.2 COMPARISON OF THE LITTLE PRINCE TRANSLATIONS.....	37
4.2.1 <i>translation techniques</i>	37
4.2.2 <i>Simplification technique</i>	38
4.2.3 <i>Compensation technique</i>	39
4.2.4 <i>Omission technique</i>	39
5. THE LITTLE PRINCE IN THE KYŎNGSANG DIALECT	42
5.1 PHONOLOGY OF KYŎNGSANG DIALECT	43
5.2 LEXICOLOGY OF KYŎNGSANG DIALECT IN THE LITTLE PRINCE.....	44
5.2.1 <i>Nouns</i>	46
5.2.2 <i>Verbs</i>	46
5.2.3 <i>Adverbs</i>	47
6 GRAMMAR OF THE KYŎNGSANG DIALECT	48
6.1 CASE PARTICLES.....	48
6.1.1 <i>Nominative case</i>	49
6.1.2 <i>Genitive case</i>	50
6.1.3 <i>Accusative case</i>	51
6.1.4 <i>Dative case</i>	52
6.1.5 <i>Locative case</i>	53
6.1.6 <i>Comitative case</i>	54
6.1.7 <i>Vocative case</i>	55
6.1.8 <i>Instrumental case</i>	57
6.2 AUXILIARY PARTICLES.....	58
6.3 SENTENCE CONNECTORS AND ENDINGS	60

6.3.1 -(으)모 (- <i>ü</i>)mo).....	60
6.3.2 -아가 (- <i>aga</i>).....	61
6.3.3 -(으)니까 (- <i>ü</i>)nikka)	61
6.3.4 -문서 (- <i>münsö</i>).....	61
6.4 INTERROGATIVE ENDINGS	62
6.5 OTHER SENTENCE ENDINGS.....	64
CONCLUSION	66

Figures

Figure 1 Vowel transitions in Korean Umlaut	14
Figure 2: trace of the Middle Korean in the Kyōngsang dialect in comparison with the standard Korean language.....	15
Figure 3: Korean tone system in different dialects	16
Figure 4: Vocabulary difference between the P'yōngan dialect and the standard Korean	19
Figure 5: Endings of the P'yōngan dialect.....	20
Figure 6: Vocabulary difference between the Hamgyōng dialect and the standard Korean.....	21
Figure 7: Vocabulary difference between the Yukchin subdialect and the standard Korean.....	22
Figure 8: Endings of the northeastern dialect	23
Figure 9: Kyōnggi province grammatical endings	26
Figure 10: Vocabulary difference between the Chōlla subdialect and the standard Korean.....	27
Figure 11: Vocabulary difference with tensified initial consonants between the Chōlla subdialect and the standard Korean	27
Figure 12: Vocabulary difference between the Chōlla subdialect and the standard Korean.....	29
Figure 13: Chōlla province grammatical endings.....	29
Figure 14: Difference between tone systems in Kyōngsang sub-dialects	30
Figure 15: Palatalization in the Kyōngsang dialect	31
Figure 16: Kyōngsang dialect grammatical endings.....	32
Figure 17: Cheju dialect grammatical endings	34
Figure 18: Konglish in the Kyōngsang dialect	45
Figure 19: Nouns in the Kyōngsang dialect.....	46
Figure 20: Verbs in the Kyōngsang dialect	46
Figure 21: Adverbs in the Kyōngsang dialect	47
Figure 22: Standard Korean dative particles.....	52
Figure 23: Standard Korean comitative particles	54
Figure 24: Standard Korean vocative particles	55
Figure 25: Standard Korean interrogative endings	63

Introduction

This thesis deals with the dialects of the Korean language, mainly the Kyōngsang dialect as used in a translation of *The Little Prince* from 2021, as well as the used translation methods. It compares the dialect version with one of the (various) standard Korean versions. The goal is to discover the peculiar features of this dialect translations. To establish the ground, the basic knowledge about dialects in Korea and especially about the Kyōngsang 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. South Korea and North Korea each have their own policies in regard to language. As for the various dialects, there are six major dialect areas on the Korean peninsula, which differ from each other primarily in terms of grammar, lexicology, and phonetics, usually recognizable even on a first listening. The most notable distinctions, of course, are in the vocabulary, with some of the dialects still possessing some elements from the Middle Korean.

The second part deals with the most widely read translation of the book *The Little Prince* into standard language and the one into Kyōngsang 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 Kyōngsang 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. Korean dialects

1.1 What is a dialect?

All around the world, languages evolve, expand, or completely disappear in societies. Speakers with distinctive language variants in different regions make smaller enclaves varying in many ways from the standard language, especially in morphology, phonology, or grammar. This language variety can be divided by their accent or dialect. When we talk about accent, this only refers to how a speaker of a certain language pronounce words. On the other hand, dialect possesses the phonological meaning, but also grammatical and lexical differences of the language. But according to Chambers and Trudgill, accents and dialects usually blend together without any clear separation (2004, p. 32).

Dialects are mutually intelligible forms of language that differ systematically, and each person is a speaker of some dialect. According to the Fromkin (2007, p. 269), dialects are mutually intelligible forms of a language that differ in systematic ways and every speaker, regardless of the status speaks at least one dialect. A dialect should not be inferior or degraded form of a language. That is also a case on the Korean peninsula, however dialects are often degraded in contrary to the standard language.

The contemporary Korean language that is spoken on the Korean Peninsula, even though is quite homogenous, can be divided into several dialect that show great level of mutual intelligibility. But despite the intelligibility, they show significant differences in phonology, vocabulary and even in morphology. Various dialect zones with unique dialect varieties can be identified on the Korean Peninsula. It is quite natural that the Korean language has changed over time, with the majority of scholars agreeing on seven major dialectal zones. This can be based on a fact, that the peninsula is quite mountainous, hence in these circumstances dialects are more likely to emerge. These dialects do not have a clear break between them, but rather merge into each other and form a dialect continuum (Fromkin, 2007, p. 270)

1.2 Dialectology

Dialectology is a branch of the linguistics. It studies the social and regional forms within the language. In certain ways, dialectology is a stand-alone discipline with its own methods and objectives, which is often considered as a part of sociolinguistics.

Dialectology on the Korean peninsula does not have such a long history as, for example, in Europe, where dialect studies date back to the 14th century AD. When it comes to Korean most of the researches comes from the beginning of the 20th century when the Korean peninsula was already under the rule of the Japanese Empire, therefore these researches were mostly 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 the Korean Language Association. 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).

Regarding contemporary dialectologists in Korea, Ch'oe Myŏng-ok is most frequently cited and known. In 2015 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 outlines the key variations in phonology, grammar, and lexicon of the dialects (Choe, 2019).

1.3 Translation of The Little prince into dialects

The primary focus of this thesis pertains to a literary work which has been translated into numerous regional variations of languages and that is the work of Antoine de Saint Exupéry *The Little Prince*. Consequently, it comes as no surprise that following its initial publication in 1943, the book has been rendered into over 580 languages and dialects, establishing itself as the most translated non-religious book globally. Additionally, one must consider the numerous editions within the same language or dialect, leading to a total exceeding 7,000 editions for this particular book. Initially, the book was translated into the prominent global languages, followed by small languages and even regional dialects, and more recently, it has begun to be translated into lesser-known languages into which translations are done only rarely. Examples of such languages include Abkhazian, the constructed language of Klingon, and even the indigenous Toba Qom language spoken in Argentina¹.

Looking more closely at translations into dialects, we find that Italian has unquestionably had highest number of translations into its dialects, with 58 versions and German comes in second with 47 translations. When examining the German dialect's versions, the translations occur not only into a main dialect but also into sub-dialects that are specific to an individual city (such as the dialect spoken in Düsseldorf). As for Czech, we can also find translations into Czech dialects, which are an integral part of the language. The first translation into a dialect used in the territory of the Czech Republic was *Malé Principál* (Saint-Exupéry and Jindra, 2020) in the Brno hantec dialect, which was followed by the book *Malučky Princ* (Saint-Exupéry and Odehnal, 2021) in the Wallachian dialect, *Malej Princ* (Saint-Exupéry and Bachmannová, 2023) in the Krkonoše dialect, and finally this year's version in the Moravian Slovakian dialect called *Malušenky Princ*² (Saint-Exupéry and Škarnětka, 2024).

¹ "Toba Qom." Le Petit Prince, February 13, 2021. <https://lepetitprince.eu/world/american/toba-qom/>.

² "Malý Princ Vychází ve Valaščině (Moravščině)." Moravský národ, 18AD. <https://www.moravskynarod.cz/maly-princ-vychazi-ve-valascine-moravscine/>.

The Little prince in standard Korean, according to a news article on the Chosun Ilbo³ (2020) website, was first published in a newspaper sometime in the late 1950s in brief weekly installments. However, the first legitimate book was released in 1971. Since then, the book has been published in more than 320 editions by various publishing houses and translated into standard Korean by dozens of authors. The quantity of these translations into standard Korean language rises annually, and in recent years, translators' attention has also started to shift toward the Korean dialects, which are often overlooked. The shift happened in 2020 with the first translation of *The Little Prince* into the Kyōngsang dialect, primarily its version spoken in and around the city of Pohang, which lies near other significant cities Daegu and Kyōngju. Because of the groundbreaking nature of this translation, other writers have chosen to translate this book into other dialects, such as the dialect of Cheju Island or the dialect of Chōlla Province.

³ Hōn, Yu-jong. "'ōrin Wangja'ch'oech'o Pōnyōgūn Chosōnilbo' [The Little Prince Was First Translated by Chosun Ilbo] ." Chosun Ilbo , December 24, 2020. <https://www.chosun.com/national/weekend/2020/12/05/FWYLIIEVFBCBVIIEGOLKRS6NHJA/>.

2. Standard language and dialects

2.1 Standard language

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 a main communication instrument in news media and literature, taught to foreigners or in schools or in the dictionaries and is attributed to a higher social prestige (Richard and Schmidt, 2010). In many countries of the world today, regional language or dialects are on decline due to the usage of the standard variety of the language over the dialects, since it can disadvantage the speaker to some extent.

History of standardization of Korean language is not very long, since the Korean peninsula was under Japanese colonization till 1945. The use of Korean for public life was thus limited. However even during these times a “Proposition for the Unification of hangŭl Orthography” (한글 맞춤법 통일안 *han'gŭl match'umbŏp t'ongiran*) was proposed in the year 1933, which firstly mentioned that the model for the standard language of the whole peninsula should be the so-called Sŏul speech (Lee & Ramsey, 2011). After the Korean war, the two new nations (the Korean Republic and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea) chose different standard varieties of Korean, based on the speech in the capital cities⁴.

⁴ In the South, it is called *p'yojunŏ* (표준어, “standard language”) and in the North, the standard form is known as a *munhwaŏ* (문화어, “culture language”).

2.2 Language policy in South Korea

The first Korean language policies started to develop in the beginning of the 20th century, when the Korean language and *Hangŭl* became essential symbols of the Korean nation that was made with rising Korean nationalism. This is also a period when Korea and Korean linguistics got more in touch with the world developments. This intensified during the period of Japanese occupation despite significant repressions and restrictions regarding the use of the Korean language in public. The most important orthography reform took place in 1933 a lot of the late modifications and rules from this time still exist to this day (Lee & Ramsey, 2011).

After the end of colonization between the years 1947 and 1950, there was a movement called Recovery of Our Mother Tongue (우리 말 도로찾기 운동 *uri mal to-roch'atki undong*) that was proposed by the South Korean Ministry of Education in 1948. Mainly the devotion of the Korean Language Society's members allowed this campaign to be carried out (Jung, 2012). After the Korean war (1950–1953) the peninsula ended up divided with a different political and cultural development of both countries that shaped the language. Other laws of that time included restoring Korean family names, that were once forced to adopt from Japanese and eliminate illiteracy.

This difference is currently more pronounced in language, but there are also difference between contrasting areas regarding pronunciation, spellings, transcription rules and Korean alphabetic order. The two countries even changed their standard language variety, so for the standard language spoken in the Republic of Korea, it is entirely based on the dialect, that is used around the capital city of Seoul.

The Korean language policy in South Korea is regulated by the National Institute of Korean Language (국립국어원, *kungnipkugöwön*). 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, *ku-göyön 'guso*) as a part of the '10-year plan for the cultural development' (문화 발전 10 개년 계획, *munhwa paljön 10-kaenyön 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 제 13163 호, *taet'ongnyöngnyöng che-13163-ho*) on January 23, 1991 (Hüi and To, 2021).

The law that governs the Korean language is called 'the Basic Law of the Korean language' (국어기본법, *kugögibonböp*) and it is implemented with four other laws that govern certain parts of the language. By this law we can tell that 국어⁵ (*kugö*) means the Korean language as the official language of the Republic of Korea and that 한글 (*han 'gül*) refers to the unique characters indicating the Korean language. Among these spelling systems we can find the Hangül orthography (한글 맞춤법, *han'gül match'umböp*), the standard language law (표준어 규정, *p'yojunö kyujöng*), the regulation of how to write foreign words (외래어 표기법, *oeraeö p'yogiböp*) and the rules of romanization of the Korean language (국어의 로마자 표기법, *kugö-üi romaja p'yogiböp*). 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'gugö suhwaöñö*), that was officially added in 2016 (Mazaná, 2023).

⁵ This word in translation means 'the national language' (*kuk* nation, *ö* language), therefore it does not necessarily mean "Korean" but can, if the context suggests this, mean any other language that has the status of national language in a country.

2.3 The Kyōngsang Province and language policy

The Republic of Korea, or more commonly known as South Korea, is administratively divided into eight provinces and the special autonomous province of Cheju. In the thesis, I mainly focus on the Kyōngsang dialect, but Kyōngsang province is the old name of a defunct province, which in modern times is divided into two separate provinces, the South Kyōngsang (경상남도, *kyōngsangnamdo*) and the North Kyōngsang (경상북도, *kyōngsangbukto*) provinces. However, in these two provinces there also exists three special cities designated and known as metropolitan cities, namely Daegu, Busan and Ulsan.

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 Kyōngsang 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. The particles will be introduced in the practical part of this thesis.

2.4 Language policy in the DPRK

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 decolonialization”, as for example Taiwan where they changed the official language from Japanese to Mandarin Chinese (Liu, 2012). This process took place even in another states, that were once a colony, and their language was suppressed but some of them opted to retain the language of their colonizers as a lingua franca since the language was often rooted among people and in culture.

Since the liberation, a big problem had risen because of the illiteracy of the people living behind the north Korean border. Most of the materials used in this time were written in Chinese characters (한자, *hanja*) so it was quite hard to teach these difficult characters to them in such a short time. So, the urge of abandoning the dual system of usage of Korean characters (한글 *hangŭl*) with the Chinese characters appeared (Kumatani, 1990). Therefore, publications and teaching materials without Chinese characters started to appear from 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.

Erradication of usage of chinese characters was part of the “divided orthography” period (조선어 철자법 *chosŏnŏ ch'ŏljabŏp*)⁶. The main point of this time was also to eliminate illiteracy from public. However 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, that is culture (or cultured) language. The speech of the capital city of P'yŏngyang (평양) became the yardstick for a revision of the standard. (Han, 1990) .

⁶ 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.

In 1960s and onward, the state started to emphasize its national characteristics and tried to interely reform 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 of the words, that mainly represented religious concepts and feudalism to be then replaced by a 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 adaption of Sino-Korean words that cannot be so easily abolished, therefore are still in use to this day (Tongwan, 1990).

The vocabulary was mainly composed the P’yŏngyang dialect which also makes the standard language of the North Korea (*munhwaŏ*), but interestingly even from other parts of the DPRK largely from the dialect spoken in the *Hamgyŏng* province (Kumatani, 1990). This province played a big role during an occupation and subsequent liberation of the Korean peninsula since much of partisan camps were primarily located there. Even through the first leader of North Korea Kim Il Sŏng was born in P’yŏngyang region.

3 Korean dialects

Korean dialects can be separated into several zones based on the region where it is spoken. Since the Korean peninsula is a mountainous region, the language naturally splits into dialects based on topography. The majority of academics seems to concur on six main dialectal zones:

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

Throughout the history, speakers of Korean could be found even outside of modern borders of the Korean peninsula, mainly in provinces of the northeast China, that once were ruled by Korean kingdoms. This dialectal continuum spoken by the Korean minority in China (mainly the Yanbian Autonomous Prefecture) is considered as a part of the northeastern dialect, that can be also can be found on the north Korean side of the borders in the Hamgyöng province (함경도 *hamgyöngdo*) (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).

3.1 Phonological features of dialects

Each Korean dialect shows a difference in their phonological system. The main differences can be found in palatalization, umlaut, tone system and insertion or alternation. The most studied one is the tone system which has been surveyed multiple times.

3.1.1 Palatalization

The palatalization occurs predominantly among *t*, *k* and *h* consonants when they change into the other consonants. The “*t*-palatalization” change the coronal consonants *t*, *tt*, *th* into sibilant consonants *c*, *ch* or *cc*. This change can be seen in almost every dialect on the Korean peninsula except of the P’yŏngyang and Yukchin dialect, which is part of the Hamgyŏng dialect zone. As an example, the word *갈이* (*kach’i*) goes through the palatalization process, since Ξ (*t*) is followed by the high and front vowel *i* (Hong, 1997). According to the Sohn (2006) the palatalization first appeared in the 17th century in the southern dialects (Kyŏngsang and Chŏlla) and then spread up north and got its place even in the standard South Korean language variety.

The “*k*-palatalization” indicate the change in pronunciation of the consonants *k*, *kh* and *kk* when they are then pronounced as *c*, *ch* or *cc* after the vowel [i] or semivowel [j] are placed after them. This change is more profoundly seen in the “south” dialects of the Kyŏngsang, Chŏlla, Ch’ungch’ŏng provinces and in Jeju Island’s dialect. The example of this process is the word *지름* (*chirŭm*) “oil” in the southeastern dialect spoken in Kyŏngsang province whereas in the standard language it is pronounced as *기름* (*kirŭm*). The last type of the palatalization is the “*h*-palatalization”, which occurs when the *h* consonant meets the vowel [i] or semivowel [j], for example in the standard Korean word *혀* (*hyŏ*) “tongue” which in the southeastern dialect changes into *세* (*se*).

3.1.2 Umlaut

Umlaut is a sound change in the Korean language when a back vowel is fronted by following high front vocoid. These forms are often regarded as informal forms, since they are not used in the formal speech and are marked as non-standard Korean spoken by Söulites (Kim, 2000).

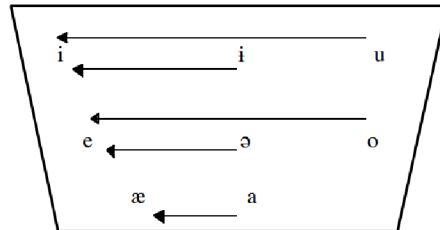


Figure 1 Vowel transitions in Korean Umlaut

The common impact of umlaut in Korean, particularly in the Kyöngsang and Chölla dialects, is that back vowels are fronted before [i] in the following syllable (Cho & Gregory, 1997). Examples of this change can be found in the word 곶양이 (*koyangi*) “cat” changes into 곶애이 (*koaei*) in the Kyöngsang province area or the word 호랑이 (*horangi*) “tiger” changes into 호래이 (*horaei*) in the same area (Pak, 2006).

3.1.3 Word initialization with *r* and *n*

In the zones of the northeastern and northwestern dialects, the speakers still retain the pronunciation of the initial *r* consonant in Sino-Korean words. However, it has either disappeared or has been replaced with *n* sound in the remaining dialectal zones. The P’yöngyang dialect nowadays frequently replaces the letter *r* with the *n* sound before *i* and *y*, but even though we can find words that still use the *r* as well. This is illustrated in the word 룰리/누리 (*ryori/nyori*) “cooking”, whereas in the standard south Korean language this word is pronounced as a 윌리 (*yori*). These changes make the most visible distinction between south Korean standard language and the one used in the North Korea (Sohn, 2001).

3.1.4 Remains of Middle Korean

The relics of the middle Korean consonants are an important part of the Korean language and its dialects. The intervocalic consonants W [β] and Δ [z], as well as the vowel o, sometimes known as “아래 아” (*arae a*), are among the residual traces of Middle Korean that are used for the classification of the Korean dialects. The Middle Korean W [β] is retained as *p* and pronounced as [b] in dialects of Hamgyŏng, Kyŏngsang, and Chŏlla provinces, when it is preceded by the high and front vowel i [i]. One of the example is the Middle Korean word “사뵙 | ” (*saf̥i*) which means a *shrimp*. This word, in the already mentioned dialects, is often pronounced as 새뵙 (*seabi*) where you can see it still retains the *p* sound, whereas in the standard Sŏul dialect it is pronounced as 새우 (*seau*) (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). But despite that, under the same phonological conditions, the Middle Korean W [β] is retained as *w* and pronounced as [u] in dialects like the Central and P’yŏngyang together with the Standard language.

The Middle Korean consonant *z* (Δ) has entirely vanished, and the sound is no longer used in any part of Korean. But occasionally, the sound *s* is heard in its place, depending on the dialect. Many people think that the consonant in these languages with a comparable *s* has been maintained in a more ancient form than Middle Korean (Lee & Ramsey, 2000).

	Kyŏngsang province	Standard Korean
‘village’	마슬 <i>masŭl</i>	마을 <i>maŭl</i>
‘fox’	야시 <i>yasi</i>	여우 <i>yŏu</i>
‘kitchen’	부석 <i>pusŏk</i>	부엌 <i>puŏk</i>

Figure 2: trace of the Middle Korean in the Kyŏngsang dialect in comparison with the standard Korean language

Another interesting relic that can be found in one of the Korean dialects, is a tensed central vowel [ʌ], that is still in use in the Korean dialect of the Jeju Island (O’Grady & Yang, 2019). It is evident that the Jeju vowel preserves that otherwise extinct Middle Korean phoneme and one of the main reasons the vowel is still in use is that Jeju is an island that is somewhat isolated from the mainland, thus it could be preserved (Lee & Ramsey, 2000).

3.1.5 Tones and vowel length

Even though modern standard Korean language does not have a tonal system, it does not mean that it never existed. The evidence of a tone system (성조, *sŏngjo*) can be found in the well-known *Hunminjeongeum* (훈민정음) a famous text, in which we can find evidences of creation of the Korean alphabet made in 1446 by the King Sejong. In this document, we see the first version of the Korean alphabet *hangŭl* with side-dot notation to indicate Korean tonal contrasts and demonstrate insights in the language's phonological structure. One dot marked high tone, two dots marked a rising tone and a syllable without any dot showed the low tone (Wang, 2020). From that time, the usage of tones was slowly lost in the central dialects, however it is still preserved in the Kyŏngsang dialect zone and Hamgyŏng dialect. In other word, tone usage covers the eastern part of the Korean peninsula except for the central part (Kangwŏn-do dialect).

Unlike in Chinese, the Korean tone system has changed dramatically over the years, so it does not resemble its Chinese counterparts like few centuries before, since it only consists of an opposition between high and low pitch. However, even the two dialects withing the Korean peninsula that still use tones do not have the same type of tones, since the Hamgyŏng dialect has a low-high tone system, while in the Kyŏngsang area the tones are mainly high-low tones. The following examples down below are used with the help of a nominative particle that shows the tones better (Ito and Kenstowicz, 2017).

	Kyŏngsang dialect	Hamgyŏng dialect	meaning
술이	súr-ì	sùr-í	'rice wine'
눈이	nún-ì	nùn-í	'wind'

Figure 3: Korean tone system in different dialects

The western portion of the nation, in contrast to the rest of the east part, uses a word's vowel length to determine its meaning. This feature is predominantly observed in the central dialects such as Kyōnggi and Kangwōn province dialect's zones, where the wrong length can change the meaning of a whole sentence. For example, when the word 밤 is pronounced with the short vowel [pam] it means "night", whereas with long vowel [pa:m] the meaning changes to the "chestnut".

It should be noted, nevertheless, that while vowel length and tone characteristics are not found in the same dialect at once, in other words, both features cannot be found in a dialect at the same time. Vowel lengthening and tones are used mainly in North Kyōngsang and the Yōngdon region of Kangwōn to differentiate word meanings. However, there is one exception and that is Jeju dialect, which does not show any tone system nor vowel lengthening (Ahn & Yeon, 2020).

3.2 Characteristics of Korean dialects

Each of the Korean dialect has its own phonological and grammatical endings system that differ in every part of the Korean peninsula.

3.2.1 The northwestern dialects

The northwestern dialect is spoken in the western part of the North Korea in the P'yŏngan province (평양안도, p'yŏngan-do). This dialect also functions as the standard language variety in the North Korea, where it was characterized as the *munhwa-ŏ* in 1964 and is still used as such to this day. During the last 60 years, the dialect has gone through a big change because of a propagandistic tendencies and governmental purification attempts. However, many linguists claim that the North Korean standard language is still deeply rooted in the Sŏul dialect, which had long been the norm on the whole peninsula.

According to the Ok (2015), the P'yŏngan's province dialect has eight vowels (ㅇ [i], 예 [e], 얘 [ae], 으 [ü], 어 [ö], 우 [u], 오 [o], 아 [a]), but in some areas the 으 and 어 vowels, change to 우 and 오, respectively. Beside this, another very interesting phenomenon is that the vowels 예 [e], 얘 [ae] are often pronounced as the long diphthongs [ei] and [a:i] as for example the word 개 [kae] 'dog' is pronounced as 가이 [ka:i]. Moreover, this also the only dialect that allows the usage of the nasal consonants *n* in the beginning of a word when it is directly followed by the high front vowel [i] or the glide [j]. The most used example is surely the word 녀자 (*nyŏja*, woman), which in the standard language of South Korean is pronounced without the *n* consonant 여자 (*yŏja*).

In comparison with other dialects, this language variety did not go through the palatalization development that happened in the southern dialects during the 17th century and then expanded to most of the other dialects.

As it mentioned before, during the “Koreanization” period many Sino-Korean words were eliminated, while northern dialect’s vocabulary and other archaic words were standardized during the so-called *mal dadŭmgi undong* (말다듬기 운동, language purification movement). Therefore, unlike the standard South Korean language where you can see many anglicisms that was adapted into the language in recent years, the language still retains its Korean words. The examples can be seen below (Yeon, 2008).

	P’yŏngan dialect	Standard Korean
‘clothes’	오티 <i>ot'i</i>	옷 <i>ot</i>
‘lunch’	찬밥 <i>ch'anbap</i>	점심 <i>chŏmsim</i>
‘side dish’	찜계 <i>tchilge</i>	반찬 <i>panch'an</i>
‘again’	고테 <i>kot'e</i>	다시 <i>tasi</i>

Figure 4: Vocabulary difference between the P’yŏngan dialect and the standard Korean

From the grammatical point of view, the nominative particles, that are used in this dialect are non-identical with its counterparts in the South Korean standard language. The particle ‘-가’ are replaced with ‘-래/-래’ (-*rae/-re*), but at the same time we can use the nominative particle ‘-이’ (-*i*) even in the situations, where we would use the particle ‘-가’ (-*ka*). This phenomenon can be found in the 15th century, since at this time and onwards there was only one nominative particle ‘-이’ and throughout the time ‘-가’ found its way into the language. The example can be seen below (Ok, 2015).

(1) 데 사람 코이 와 데래? (SK: 저 사람 코가 왜 저래?)

Te saram k'o_i wa tere? (SK: chŏ saram k'oga wae chŏrae?)

‘Why is that person’s nose like this?’

(2) 은지야, 내래 맨저 갈렌다. (SK: 은지야, 내가 먼저 가겠다.)

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

‘Ŭnji, I am going first.’

As for the accusative particles ‘-을/-를’ (-*ŭl/-rŭl*), usage and functions are the same as in the Standard language. However in some parts of the province, the speakers often omit the ‘-를’. Another particles used for the conjunctive purposes have a form of ‘-과’ (-*kwa*) and ‘-허구’ (*hŏgu*). Even this ‘-과’ particle was used as a sole comitative particle before the 17th century and was divided into ‘-과’ and ‘-와’ (-*wa*) in the standard language. The tense suffixes forms are another part that is distinctive in comparison to the standard

language used in the South Korea. For example, the past tense marker ‘-았/아시-’ (-at/asi-) is used in the same way as the south Korean counterpart ‘-았-’ (-ass-). However, even though it is mainly known as a past tense marker, it can even show a perfective aspect, because the situation is already over. As Lee mentioned (1990), this marker can fall under the meaning of ‘anteriority’, that can be used as a medium between tense and aspect.

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

(3) 오늘 갓다 오갓수다. (SK: 오늘 갔가 오겠습니다.)

onol katta ogatsuda. (SK: onül katka ogessŭmnida.)

‘I will go and come back today.’

	Polite	Intimate	plain
declarative	-(스)뉘네다 -(sŭ)mnedā	-(스)뉘네 -(sŭ)mne	-다 -ta
	-(스)뉘무다 -(sŭ)mmuda	-(스)뉘데 -(sŭ)pte	-(느)ㄴ다 -(nŭ)nda
	-(소)와요 -(so)wayo	-소웨 -sowe	
interrogative	-(스)뉘네까 -(sŭ)mnekka	-(스)뉘마 -	-니 -ni
	-(스)뉘데까 -(sŭ)ptekka	(sŭ)mma	-네 -ne
		-(스)뉘데 -(sŭ)pte	-너니 -nŏni
		-소와 -sowa	-간 -kan
imperative	-(으)라요 -(ŭ)rayo	-(으)시 -(ŭ)si	-(으)라 -(ŭ)ra
	-(으)시라요 -(ŭ)sirayo	-(으)시다나	-어라 -ŏra
	-(으)시우 -(ŭ)sieu	-(ŭ)sidana	
propositive	-(으)뉘세다 -(ŭ)pseda		-자 -cha
	-(으)뉘수다 -(ŭ)psuda		

Figure 5: Endings of the P'yöngan dialect⁷

⁷ 서북 방언 [söbuk pangön] The northwestern dialect . (2024c).

<https://namu.wiki/w/서북%20방언#s-3.2>

3.2.2 The northeastern dialects

The northeastern dialect zone lays in the northeastern part of the Korean peninsula in the modern North Korea (Hamgyŏng province) and in the northeastern China. According to the King (2006) this dialect has not been studied in the depth to this day, so even professionals can not settle on how many vowels are present in this dialect. This primarily caused by the state’s national and foreign policy and the linguists mainly publish their works in Chinese or Russian. Nevertheless, there are few studies that were made in Korean, by the famous South Korean dialectologist Ok.

Ok (2019) claims, that there are around 10 vowels (이 [i], 에 [e], 애 [ae], 위 [wi], 외 [oe], 으 [ũ], 어 [ǒ], 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. According to the other study that was conducted by the University in Thailand (2021), the pronunciation of the 어 [ǒ] and 오 [o] sounds similar so for instance, Hamgyŏng word 봄 (*bom*) ‘spring’ similarly to 범 (*bǒm*) ‘tiger’ and that is why we can find claims which state that this dialect contains only 8 vowels. As it was already mentioned, together with the Kyŏngsang and Chŏlla dialects, this dialect has a very distinctive H (high) and L (low) tone system that shows a difference between same words. However, it mostly lacks the vowel length system unlike P’yŏngan dialect, that utilizes this system.

From the phonological aspect, the dialect shows many features in the pronunciation that we should pay attention to. For instance, *t-*, *k-*, and *h-* palatalization is largely present as can be seen down below in examples. One specific part of this dialectal zone called the Yukchin dialect (육진 방언, *yukchin pangŏn*) zone on the other hand has only sporadic *h-* palatalization and pronounce ㅈ and ㅊ as [ts] and [tsʰ] (Pak, 2005).

	Hamgyŏng dialect	Standard Korean
‘winter’	저울 <i>chŏul</i>	겨울 <i>kyŏul</i>
‘oil’	지름 <i>chirim</i>	기름 <i>kirŭm</i>
‘older sibling’	성님 <i>sŏngnim</i>	형님 <i>hyŏngnim</i>

Figure 6: Vocabulary difference between the Hamgyŏng dialect and the standard Korean

The general geographical isolation of the area not-surprisingly shows many more archaic features in phonology. Thrilled *r* sound is also found in this dialect in all positions, except before the ㄷ (*r*) consonant and it can also be found in the dialects of Korean immigrants located in the former Soviet Union countries (Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan etc.) (King, 1987). Another aspect of the phonological changes is a pervasive rule which before *i* and *y* lose the *n* and *ng* consonants and nasalizes the preceding vowel. Therefore, the word for ‘brother-in-law’ in standard Korean is 시동생 (*sidongsaeng*) and in Hamgyŏng area it is pronounced as 새위 (*sea^hwi*). A very distinctive feature that can be found in the Yukchin dialect zone is surely the allowance of the combination of 닢 (*tya*), 더 (*työ*), 도 (*tyo*), 뉘 (*tyu*) and 냐 (*nya*), 녀 (*nyö*), 뇨 (*nyo*), 뉜 (*nyu*) that sound quite conservative (King, 2006).

	Yukchin subdialect	Standard Korean
‘to like’	똥다 <i>tyot’a</i>	좋다 <i>chot’a</i>
‘to put’	넝다 <i>nyöt’a</i>	넣다 <i>nöt’a</i>
‘world’	세샹 <i>syesang</i>	세샹 <i>sesang</i>

Figure 7: Vocabulary difference between the Yukchin subdialect and the standard Korean

From the grammatical point of view the dialect has many very 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’ but only ‘-이’ and it can be combined with the word via umlaut. Still in some parts of the region, the speakers can use combination of the two ‘-이가’, that can be seen in the example below.

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

Tangsin-ne ttar-iga ch’aja watsümme. (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*), than in the standard South Korean language that uses the 을/를 (*ŭl/rŭl*). According to Ahn and Yeon (2020), the final consonant has been weakened and we can see a lot of such cases in this dialect.

From the lexical view, many words were adopted and went through a Koreanization process from Russian in the 19th century (King, 1996). And because of the isolation from the central part of the country and capital city, the vocabulary shows certain differences.

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

Figure 8: Endings of the northeastern dialect⁸

⁸ 동북 방언 [tongbuk pangõn] The northeastern dialect . (2024b).

<https://namu.wiki/w/동북%20방언>

3.2.3 The Central dialects

This dialectal zone lies in the central part of the Korean peninsula, in the provinces of Kyōnggi (including Sōul Metropolitan area and Inchōn), Hwanghae, Kangwōn and part of Ch'ungch'ōng (Taejōn and Sejong city). Thus, we can say that this dialect contains three subdialects based on the province, where it is spoken. Since this dialect is similar to the standard South Korean language, due to the proximity to the capital city of Sōul, it makes it easy to understand, but it still has its own peculiarities in different regions of this dialectal zone, so each of them can be distinguished quite easily.

From the phonological point of view, the dialects can have around 7 to 10 vowels (이 [i], 예 [e], 애 [ae], 위 [wi], 외 [oe], 으 [ũ], 어 [ǒ], 우 [u], 오 [o], 아 [a]) depending on a research, that differs based on the region (Ok, 2019). In the Ch'ungch'ōng area we can see many cases of vowel raising, that meant that some vowels change into another. For instance, the vowel *o* in the word 못해 (*mothae*) 'cannot do' changes into *u* vowel 못해 (*muthae*) or the vowel *e* changes into *i* as in the example with the word 세다 (*seda*) ,to be strong' which changes into 시다 (*sida*).

Opposed to the tone system, this dialect possesses the vowel length system that distinguishes meaning of words based on their vowel length. However, the vowel lengthening disappears when the word is connected in a polysyllabic word. The words 벌 and 일벌 can serve as an example, since the first one contains the long vowel '어:' (ǒ:), whereas the second one has only short vowel (Ahn & Yeon, 2019).

The grammatical part resembles Standard Korean to a high degree, therefore, the particles and other grammatical features are clearly distinguishable. The central dialects use the conjunctive particles and make distinctions between ‘-와’ (wa) and ‘-과’ (kwa) as the standard Korean language do. Nevertheless, the conjunctive particle ‘-하교’ (hago) looks in these dialects little bit different, since it uses different sets of vowels. It can be written and pronounced as ‘-하구’ (-hagu) or ‘-허구’ (-hǒgu) which is used mainly in the Kanggwŏn province, since its isolation form the Sŏul area.

(5) 국허구 밥허구 놓구. (SK: 국과 밥을 놓고)

Kuk-hǒgu pap-hǒgu nok’u. (SK: kuk-kwa papŭl nok’o)

‘To put soup and rice.’

As for the conditional particle ‘-(으)면’, the counterpart in this dialect is ‘-(으)믄’ 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 뛰다. (SK: 그렇지 않으면 소와 말이 같이 뛰다.)

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 possess very distinctive grammatical patterns. Like for example, the grammatical ending ‘-이우’ (-iu)⁹ that is very specific from the phonological point of view, because it is pronounced with a rise in pitch and then followed by fall in pitch, related to a generally slower speed of speech, which the dialect is famous for (Ahn & Yeon, 2020).

⁹ Comparable to the South Korean’s standard ending -요 (-yo).

	Polite	Intimate	Plain
declarative	-(스)버니다 -(sŭ)mnida	-어요 -öyo -어유 -öyu	-다/(느)ㄴ다 -ta/(nŭ)nda -어 -ö
interrogative	-(스)버니까 -(sŭ)mnikka	-어요 -öyo -어유 -öyu	-냐 -nya -니 -ni
imperative	-(으)십시오 -(ŭ)sipsiyo	-(으)세요 -(ŭ)seyo -어요 -öyo -어유 -öyu	-어라 -öra -어 -ö
propositive	-(으)시지요 -(ŭ)sijiyo -(으)시쥬 -(ŭ)sijyu		-자 -cha -어 -ö

Figure 9: Kyönggi province grammatical endings¹⁰

3.2.4 The southwestern dialect

The southwestern dialect or the dialect of Chölla provinces is one of the dialects of the Korean language spoken in the southwestern part of the Korean peninsula. In general, it is used in the Honam region (호남 지방, *honam chibang*) that covers South Chölla province, Chönbuk state (formerly known as the North Chölla province), and Gwangju Metropolitan City. This region was historically associated with political resistance and economic deprivation. Some still view a Chölla accent negatively and it is often used in Korean comedic imitations.

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 (ㅣ [i], 예 [e], 위 [wi], 외 [oe], 으 [ũ], 어 [ö], 우 [u], 오 [o], 아 [a]), because of merging of 예 (e) and 얘 (ae). However among older speakers we can find that they make a difference in pronunciation between the close-mod front vowel 예 (e) and open-min front vowel 얘 (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 Kyönsang dialect which uses the tone system.

¹⁰ 경기 방언 [kyönggi pangön] dialect of Kyönggi province . (2024).

<https://namu.wiki/w/경기%20방언>

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

	Chölla dialect	Standard Korean
‘butterfly’	나부 <i>nabu</i>	나비 <i>nabi</i>
‘spider’	거무 <i>kömu</i>	거미 <i>kömi</i>
‘chest’	가심 <i>kasim</i>	가슴 <i>kasüm</i>

Figure 10: Vocabulary difference between the Chölla subdialect and the standard Korean

Occasionally, the Chölla dialect words are often found containing the final *a* vowel, that is connected with the *i* vowel. This combination is seen mainly in the south Chölla dialectal zone and we can use the word 그림재 (*kürimjae*) ‘shadow’ as an example, unlike the standard Korean word 그림자 (*kürimja*) which does not appear to have this vowel connected. Unlike other dialects, the tensification of word-initial consonants such as *k*, *p*, *t*, *s* is very immense and is one of the peculiarities of this variety of language.

	Chölla dialect	Standard Korean
‘tofu’	뚜부 <i>ttubu</i>	두부 <i>tubu</i>
‘soju’	쇠주 <i>ssoeju</i>	소주 <i>soju</i>
‘corn’	깡냉이 <i>kkangnaengi</i>	강냉이 <i>kangnaengi</i>

Figure 11: Vocabulary difference with tensified initial consonants between the Chölla subdialect and the standard Korean

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 견디다 (*chöndida*) ‘to endure’ and 짐 (*chim*) ‘seaweed’ which in the standard south Korean language are written with the initial *k* consonant as 견디다 (*kyöndida*) and 김 (*kim*) (Yeon, 2012).

As for the grammatical part, the dialect has a lot of characteristic propositions and markers, that can be found only in this dialect. The most well-known grammatical marker, that shows a reason and in the standard Korean language, it is pronounced as ‘-(으)니까’ (-(*ũ*)*nikka*). In the Chõlla as well as in the southern part of Ch’ungch’õng dialectal zone, the speakers use a form -으께 (-*ũngke*) -으께 (-*ũngkke*). According to the kim (2017), the grammatical marker with the tensified *k* consonant is mainly used in the South Chõlla region, whereas in the north of the Honam region the normal *k* consonant is used. The usage can be seen in the example.

(7) 그분들이 많이 살고 있으께 ... (SK: 그분들이 많이 살고 있으니까 ...)

Kũbun-dũr-i mani sal-go iss-ũngkke ... (SK: Kũbun-dũr-i mani sal-go iss-ũnikka ...)

‘Because a lot of them live ...’

Other grammatical markers, that most Koreans after hearing would link with the dialect of Honam region is undoubtedly ‘-땀시’ (-*ttamsi*) or ‘-땀시’ (-*ttaemsi*) and other variations with the meaning of ‘because of’ which in standard speech is pronounced as ‘-때문에’ (-*ttaemune*). The past tense suffixes are same as the ones in the standard language, however, the future tense ‘-겠’ (-*kess*) is pronounced with back unrounded vowel *ö* as ‘-졌’ (-*köss*). Quite specific is also another feature of South Chõlla variety of language, the speakers use ‘-게’ (-*ke*) or ‘-겨’ (-*kyö*) to express a honorific marker ‘-(으)시’ (-(*ũ*)*si*) as can be seen in the example (King, 2006).

(8) 금세보 오겨라우? (SK: 벌써 오셔요?)

Kũmsebo ogyörau? (SK: Põlssö osyöyo?)

‘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’ (*annyõnghasyörau*) (Lee, 2005).

The following words, that are used in the example are typical for the Chöllla dialects.

	Chöllla dialect	Standard Korean
‘lie’	거지깁 <i>kǒjikkal</i>	거짓말 <i>kǒjinmal</i>
‘what’	몯: <i>mǒt:</i>	무엇 <i>muǒt</i>
‘cat’	괭이 <i>kwaengi</i>	고양이 <i>koyangi</i>
‘but’	간:디 <i>kan:ti</i>	그런데 <i>kǔrǒnde</i>
‘stone’	가새 <i>kasae</i>	가위 <i>kawi</i>

Figure 12: Vocabulary difference between the Chöllla subdialect and the standard Korean

As you can see some words use the double dot which represents the length in the word and in the last example the s is a relic of the Middle Korean Δ [z] that is still preserved in the dialect to this day.

	Polite	Intimate	Plain
declarative	-아라우 -arau -요 -yo -소 -so -(스)버디다 -(sǔ)ptida	-네 -ne -(이)시 -(i)si	-어야 -ǒya
interrogative	-(음)니껴 -(ǔm)nikkyǒ -소 -so -오 -o	-(능/응)가 -(nǔng/ǔng)ka -등가 -tǔngga	-냐 -nya -드냐 -tǔnya
imperative	-(으)씨요 -(ǔ)ssiyo	-세 -se	-야 -ya
propositive	-(으)버시다 -(ǔ)psida	-더라고 -tǒrago	-더라고 -tǒrago

Figure 13: Chöllla province grammatical endings¹¹

¹¹ 서북 방언 [sǒbuk pangǒn] The northwestern dialect . (2024d).

<https://namu.wiki/w/서북%20방언#s-3.2>

3.2.5 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. These makes the total speakers of this dialect around 13 000 000 people and that means that this dialect is the most prevalent in the South Korea. However, like the dialect of the Chŏlla provinces, the speakers are often made fun of, and the dialect is often used as speech of mafia or other non-educated people. 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 big as in the Jeju dialect.

The representative and well-studied part of the southeastern dialect's phonological system is surely the tone system, which is still used to this day even though it is slightly different in parts of the former Yŏngnam region. This tone system resembles the one in the previously mentioned 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: ¹²
말 'a unit of weight'	M	M
말 'horse'	H	H

Figure 14: Difference between tone systems in Kyŏngsang sub-dialects

The thought of having three tones is mainly supported by the linguists from the North Kyŏngsang, who are native speakers.

¹² This double dot represent the long vowel in the word.

The vowel system and the number of vowels in the dialect is still under debate, but according to the majority of dialectologists the number is around 6. The reason for the limited number of vowels is that some vowels have merged and are pronounced as different ones. In this dialect, the standard ‘애’ (*ae*) merged into ‘에’ (*e*) and ‘으’ (*ǔ*) changed into ‘어’ (*ǒ*), so for example two different words in the standard language 언어 (*ǒnǒ*) and 은어 (*ǔnǒ*) are pronounced the same as 언어 (*ǒnǒ*) (Ok, 2019).

The dialect also possesses several types of umlaut sound change when a back vowel is fronted before the *i* or *y* sound. One of the umlauts is a ‘ㅏ→ㅓ’ (*a→ae*) which can be seen in the word ‘소나기’ (*sonagi*) with a meaning of ‘rain shower’ when it changes into ‘소내기’ (*sonaegi*). The second sound change is a substitute of vowels ‘오’ (*o*) or ‘우’ (*u*) with ‘이’ (*i*) which changes the word ‘쇠고기’ (*soegogi*) into ‘시기기’ (*sigigi*) (Park, 2006).

As in other dialects, the palatalization of *k* and *h* consonants is also a big part of this dialect zone. It is present in it so much that this region is known as an epicenter of *k*-palatalization on the Korean peninsula (King, 2006). As I mentioned on page ... the *k* and other consonants palatalization happens before [i] vowel or semivowel [j].

	Kyōngsang dialect	Standard Korean
‘street’	길 <i>chil</i>	김 <i>kim</i>
‘coughing’	지침 <i>chich'ǒm</i>	기침 <i>kich'im</i>
‘seaweed’	짐 <i>chim</i>	김 <i>kim</i>

Figure 15: Palatalization in the Kyōngsang dialect

The initial consonants go through the process of tensification, and due to this phenomenon, it is easy for speakers of Korean language to distinguish the speaker from the Kyōngsang area, and it is one of its typical characteristics. However, speakers of some areas in the region (Taegu, Yōngchǒn) do not differentiate between the normal *s* and tensified *ss* consonants in beginning of a word.

The grammatical particles that are used by the speakers of this dialect are often characteristic to the Kyōngsang 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/ړ’ (*-ǒl/rǒl*) when these forms are results from the phonetic change of the standard Korean -을/ړ (*-ǔl/rǔl*). 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 ‘-캬’ (-*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) 술캬 떡캬 음식캬 마이 먹캬따. (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)버디다 -(sŭ)ptida	-네 -ne -(이)시 -(i)si	-어야 -ŏya
interrogative	-(음)니껴 -(ŭm)nikkyŏ -소 -so -오 -o	-(능/ung)가 -(nŭng/ŭng)ka -등가 -tŭngga	-냐 -nya -드냐 -tŭnya
imperative	-(으)씨요 -(ŭ)ssiyo	-세 -se	-야 -ya
propositive	-(으)버시다 -(ŭ)psida	-더라고 -tŏrago	-더라고 -tŏrago

Figure 16: Kyŏngsang dialect grammatical endings¹³

¹³ 동남 방언 [tongnam pangŏn] The southeastern dialect . (2024e).

<https://namu.wiki/w/동남%20방언>

3.2.6 Cheju dialect

This dialect of the Korean language is spoken on the island of Jeju, south of the Korean peninsula. From the point of view of Korean legislation, the correct name is Jeju dialect, however, the name Jeju 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) that was approved by Cheju provincial council in 2007 (Cultural policy division, 2007). The definition contained in the document gives an explanation of what is the Cheju dialect, which reflects the current approach of the municipalities on its own language and consider it as a valuable culture heritage of the island. However, throughout the time, has started to be referred more and more as a separate language, which due to its decrease in usage was classified as a critically endangered language and is spoken only by around five thousand or 10 thousand speakers (Yang, Yang, O’graddy 2020).

The phonological part of this dialect fascinating, because it still to this day contains some elements from Middle Korean, that can be seen in the usage of the open back rounded vowel [ɔ] and is written like this ‘ㅓ’. Other vowels are pretty much same as in the standard Korean, but some of the older speakers still maintain a contrast between ‘ㅐ’ (*ae*) and ‘ㅔ’ (*e*), that has been maintained mainly in the initial syllables (Tök et al. 2015).

As for the suprasegmental elements, in the Cheju dialect, vowel length, stress or tone are not employed in contrasting ways. Furthermore, the language variety has prosodic characteristic with the Sŏul dialect of Korean. The only other dialect that does not use any of these features is the Hwanghae dialect in the North Korea (Yang, Yang, O’graddy 2020).

As for the grammar, Cheju dialect has very distinctive grammatical particles. Of course, this distinction is mainly caused by the island's isolation, that changed some words beyond recognition or even made a new one. The plural marker ‘-덜’ (-*töl*) is pretty similar to the one found in the standard language and the usage is same, as well (Yang, Yang, O’graddy 2020). The second plural marker ‘-네’ (-*ne*) is a relic from the Middle Korean that disappeared in other dialects during the arrival of Early modern Korean due to its informality (Lee & Ramsey, 2011). The usage can be seen in an example below.

For the nominative case markers, this dialect uses aforementioned particles ‘-으|가’ (-*i/ka*) that serve the same purposes in other dialects. Nevertheless, other non-existent in other dialect are important to mention, since they are characteristic for the region. Particles ‘-래|라’ (-*rae/ra*) acts the same as ‘-으|가’ (-*i/ka*), but are more used among older generation, since the younger people tend to use the standard Korean particles more in their speech (Mazaná, 2022).

This dialect has many more particles and endings, that are worth mentioning. Therefore, below can be seen the table of Cheju dialect’s endings.

	Polite	Intimate	Plain
declarative	-아라우 -arau -요 -yo -소 -so -(스)버디다 -(sü)ptida	-네 -ne -(으)시 -(i)si	-어야 -öya
interrogative	-(음)니껴 -(üm)nikkyö -소 -so -오 -o	-(능/응)가 -(nüng/üng)ka -등가 -tüngga	-냐 -nya -드냐 -tŭnya
imperative	-(으)씨요 -(ü)ssiyo	-세 -se	-야 -ya
propositive	-(으)버시다 -(ü)psida	-더라고 -törago	-더라고 -törago

Figure 17: Cheju dialect grammatical endings¹⁴

¹⁴ 제주 방언 [cheju pangŏn] The Cheju dialect . (2024f). <https://namu.wiki/w/제주%20방언>

4. Analysis of *The Little Prince* in Korean translations

For the practical part of the master's thesis, I decided to compare the translation of *The Little Prince* by Antoine de Saint-Exupéry in the dialectal version (Kyōngsang dialect) with its counterparts in modern standard version and in English. Over the years, the book was translated into numerous languages and even dialects and the second most translated work after the Bible. First translation into modern standard Korean language was published during 1960s and became very famous in South Korea. In the year 2020, the first version of *The Little Prince* in Kyōngsang dialect that accompanied already published book in Cheju dialect and then in 2021 it was followed by the dialect of Chōlla province. After its publication, the dialect version became very popular among Koreans since books written in dialects are underrepresented in the Korean society. During my research I discovered that there are only few books written in dialects and only *The Little Prince* is the first well-known book translated into the local language of South Korea.

As for *The Little Prince* in Kyōngsang province dialect, the first difference in vocabulary can be seen in the name of the book 애린 왕자 (*ōrin wangja*) that on the other hand in modern standard language is pronounced as 어린 왕자 (*aerin wangja*). The word ‘애리다’ (*aerida*) in the dictionary form with the meaning of ‘young’ is distinctive from the standard form and is used mainly in the North Kyōngsang province. The use of this word is not surprising because authors used the version of the dialect around the city of Pōhang with a help of dialectologists that surveys the version of Korean language around the city.

4.1 Methodology

This research investigates Korean translations of *The Little Prince* to find out which strategies were used during translation, and then I identify the differences between the modern standard language spoken in the Republic of Korea (more known as South Korea) with one of the most widespread dialect found in Kyōngsang province contained in the book. The main differences, I cover in the thesis, are morphological and grammatical varieties that are used in the dialect. There are several versions of Korean translation into modern standard language, that differs in usage of different translation methods, which will be mentioned in the next part.

Sentences and phrases from the text in English served as the research resources and was reviewed with its translations by double translation technique. During this time, I examined and contrasted the text, where I could see the suggested strategies of translation. The purpose of this study was to determine which methods were employed most and least frequently in these two translations. To accomplish this, the original text and all its translations were reviewed, and the tactics that were used were written down.

Consequently, I survey Korean translations to find the key differences between the modern standard Korean and its dialectal counterpart spoken in the Southeast part of Korean peninsula by the double translation technique mainly in its phonology, lexicology and grammatology. This survey can help learners or even native speakers to see the essential characteristic of dialect of Kyōngsang province, that can sometimes be confusing for the uninitiated.

4.2 Comparison of The Little Prince translations

In this part, I will compare translations of *The Little Prince* in modern standard Korean language variety (2022, 2013 and 2012 versions) and the one in Kyōngsang dialect with their source language, which is English. These two books take a different approach in translation and use different strategies and techniques that can be used in translation process. There are several types of techniques that can be used during translation process, such as. Therefore, in this part of the thesis I am going to explain the techniques and find the differences between the two translations.

The double translation technique is used together with other methods to show how different the translations of the books are. This method is used to guarantee the linguistic match in translation when a source language is translated to a target language and then back to identify possible differences in translation.

4.2.1 translation techniques

In both translations we can encounter all types of literary translation strategies with the most used being the borrowing technique. Taking a word from the language of origin into another without translation is even a frequent method of forming new words in Korean language. Therefore, there is no surprise that in every translation of *The Little Prince* in Korean, we can find a lot of words of English origin. The examples can be found throughout the book, as for example *골프* (*kolp 'ŭ*, golf), *넥타이* (*nekt 'ai*, necktie).

Another technique which is covered in the books is calque. When we talk about taking a word or phrase from another language and translating its constituent parts to form a new lexeme in the target language, that is the calque technique. The example can be seen the word *소행성* (*sohaengsöng*, “small planet”), which is the direct translation of the term ‘asteroid’ while retaining its meaning. The same word is used with the same meaning in the dialectal version of the book. Another example of usage of this method is surely the word for ‘common boa snake’, which in Korean was translated as *보아뱀* (*po-abaem*) in both versions.

4.2.2 Simplification technique

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 Kyōngsang dialect version contains around 62 uses of this translation technique, unlike the standard language versions, which translates more literally. Of course, every translation of this book is different, so there may be versions in the standard language that use more of the simplification technique, but for my work I used books that do not utilize the technique as often. Upon closer inspection of translation produced with this technique, we might discover that the final translation sounds somewhat different from the source text.

(10) SK¹⁵: 나의 그림 1 번. (*Na-ŭi kŭrim Ipŏn.*)¹⁶

KD¹⁷: 내 첫 작품이 테이. (*Nae ch'ŏt chakp'umidei.*)

BT¹⁸: My first work (drawing).

In the novel *The Little Prince*, this sentence was shortened from “I succeeded in making my first drawing”, and in my opinion, also lost meaning, which includes an enhanced comprehension of the context. This phenomenon can therefore alter our perception of the book’s plot.

¹⁵ = Standard Korean language

¹⁶ = Lee (2022), page 12

¹⁷ = Kyōngsang dialect

¹⁸ = book translation

4.2.3 Compensation technique

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.

- (11) SK: 응. (*Ŭng.*) (p. 16)
KD: 뭐라카노? (*Mwŏrak'ano?*) (p. 11)
BK: What! (p. 6)

This instance demonstrates a compensation strategy: in standard speech, the Little Prince simply responds with ‘응’, which means “hm!”, but in the dialect, 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.

4.2.4 Omission technique

Another which which can be used and is used quite profoundly is called omission. It is an act of removing an expression from the source text and using it in the target text and is usually employed when removing an idea that doesn’t change the original sentence meaning. Even though the difference between English and Korean language is remarkable, the translators of the most selling version in the modern standard Korean (2022) tried to translate everything more literally. On the other hand, the dialectal version shows the use of the omission technique during the translation, as it omits even some words easily translatable into Korean. The example can be seen in the first sentence of the third chapter.

- (12) KD: 날라댕기는 건데, 내 뻥기다. (*Nalladaengginŭn kinde, nae paenggida.*)
(p. 15)
SK: 날아다니는 건데, 내 비행기다. (*Naradaninŭn kŏnde, nae pihaenggida.*)
EN¹⁹: It flies. It is an airplane. It is my airplane.

¹⁹ = English

The Kyōngsang 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.

4.2.5 Inversion technique

Another used translation technique in the Kyōngsang dialect version in comparison with the versions in modern standard Korean of the Little Prince I use for this thesis, is certainly inversion. Together with omission, which are the most used translation methods, the version differs in comparisons with its counterparts in modern standard Korean, which can be seen from the beginning. According to the authors, they tried to translate it in less formal way than the original, so the readers can have a feeling of friendly conversation during the time of reading the book. Therefore, you can find a lot of cases of omitting or inversion in the translation to make it easier to read.

We can encounter this technique right at the beginning of The Little Prince in the Kyōngsang dialect, where the very first two sentences of the first chapter contain the inversion technique and in the dialect version the sentence even contains omission of the word ‘copy’. In the standard language versions, these sentences are translated in the same order as in the English versions, so here we can see that the translators stuck to the original and tried to translate these versions word by word. That is the exact reason why readers of the dialect version who are also familiar with the original version might experience different understanding of the book.

(13) KD: 우에 그림 있제. 저거데이. (*Ue kŭrim itche. chŏgŏdei.*) (p. 9)

SK: 여기 그림의 모사본이 있다. (*Yŏgi kŭrimŭi mosaboni itta.*) (p. 11)

BT: Here is a copy of the drawing. (p. 4)

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. Furthermore, the standard Korean (mainly 2022 and 2012 versions) and English versions shared over 95% of identical translation and sentence structure. On the contrary, in the case of the version in the Kyōngsang dialect, the authors tried to distance themselves from the original. These differences can be found in the sentence structure, where some sentences were combined into one or, conversely, 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.

5. The Little Prince in the Kyōngsang dialect

The dialect of Kyōngsang province is one of the Korean dialects that has been studied the most. As in the case with other dialects, most studies deal with its lexicology, or many other articles also describes the tone system used in this dialect. However, the grammatical part does not get that much attention, but that does not mean it is completely unexplored part of this dialect. Surprisingly, grammar is regarded as one of the dialect's most maintained element, and even younger generations use it in casual conversation, as I heard it during my stay at a university where the dialect is spoken.

The standard language variety of Korean has been considered as a language used by the upper class and educated people. Conversely, speakers of the dialect were despised and viewed as lower, class, illiterate villagers. This mindset is also evident in TV series and books. Most of the time, characters use dialect to highlight their place of origin to make viewers or readers laugh. It cannot be claimed that the Korean dialect is seen and depicted as favorably as standard Korean, even though attitude toward speakers of the dialect have recently improved and is no longer seen as adversely. Particularly, the Kyōngsang dialect is still frequently employed by “gangsters” in movies and TV series.

With the translation of this book into this dialect, Korean readers had the opportunity to become familiar with a dialect into which books are not often translated. During my stay in South Korea, I met Koreans who started reading *The Little prince* in Kyōngsang dialect and were surprised because depending on where they lived, they understood it differently. In this part I will compare both Korean and dialectal translations and find out how different in the terms of lexicology and primarily grammar the Kyōngsang dialect's book translation really is with the help of the double translation technique.

5.1 Phonology of Kyöngsang 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 Kyöngsang, 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 Kyöngsang dialect are different from speaker to speaker, for example a speaker from Busan uses a different tones system than a speaker from Daegu. Therefore, for studying the phonological part of the language, books are not a great source of knowledge on this subject.

If we look at another dialectal version of the Little Prince, which was published in recent years, the dialectal of the Chölla region (Sim, 2021) 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 Kyöngsang dialect, that does not depict any of its unique phonological features.

- (14)CD²⁰: 그러믄 너도 다른 벨:서 왔냐? (*Kürömmün nõdo tarün pel:sõ wannya?*)
- KD: 그러믄 니는 다른 별에서 왔냐? (*Kürammün ninün tarün pyöresõ wanna?*)
- SK: 그러니까 너는 다른 별에서 왔다는 거니? (*Kürönikka nõmün tarün pyöresõ wattamün kõni?*)
- EN: So you came from another planet?

²⁰ CD = Chölla dialect

5.2 Lexicology of Kyōngsang dialect in *The Little Prince*

The Little Prince was primarily written by authors in Pohang city, which is one of the centers of Kyōngsang province where the dialect is heavily spoken. And as I mentioned earlier, the authors had the opportunity to work cooperate with local dialectologists who deal with the dialect and its main characteristics that differs from other parts of the province. The result of this collaboration is outstanding, which simply has no competition in Korea, because other books, such as the well-known Harry Potter, have still not been translated into other dialects.

Regarding the vocabulary used in this book, the authors attempted to use as much different vocabulary as possible from the standard language and other parts of the Kyōngsang region as well. Each dialect on Korean peninsula can be divided into subdialects, which differs in use of vocabulary, idioms, or grammar in the regions where you may encounter it, which is the case in *The Little Prince*. However, most of the words are used throughout the territory of Southeast Korean province of Kyōngsang.

From lexicological point of view, this dialect is rich in words that are highly distinctive from the standard language, because due to the remoteness of the region, so some words have developed differently. These words also contain some characteristics from the Middle Korean language that have long since fallen out of use in other dialects. A frequent change is certainly the shortening of words.

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 book (page 11).

English	Korean
golf	골프 <i>kolp'ŭ</i>
necktie	넥타이 <i>nekt'ai</i>

Figure 18: Konglish in the Kyōngsang dialect

When we look at the different word classes in this Korean dialect, we certainly must now overlook pronouns, which are not, especially personal pronouns, 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 (*mōt*) with a meaning of ‘what’. The forms in standard language are 누구 (*nugu*), respectively 무엇 (*muōt*). Predominantly in the first word we can see the characteristic shortening, which makes it familiar both among Koreans and foreigners and immediately recognize that it is the Kyōngsang dialect. So, when using the double translation technique, a sentence using these words has the same meaning both in the dialect and in the standard language and do not lose any of its meaning.

5.2.1 Nouns

In the book 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.

	Kyöngsang dialect	Standard Korean
airplane	뻥기 <i>paenggi</i>	비행기 <i>pihaenggi</i>
story	이바구 <i>ibagu</i>	이야기 <i>iyagi</i>

Figure 19: Nouns in the Kyöngsang dialect

5.2.2 Verbs

Certain verbs in the Kyöngsang dialect have a different form than those in standard speech, since irregular verbs follow different rules for conjugation. For instance, in irregular verb conjugation, the consonant “ㅂ” (p) typically stays in its original position during word conjugation, unlike standard Korean where it disappears when more suffixes are added. The most frequently used verbs in the text are listed below.

	Kyöngsang dialect	Standard Korean
to go around	돌아댕기다 <i>toradaeng-gida</i>	돌아다니다 <i>toradanida</i>
to tell	이바구하다 <i>ibaguhada</i>	이야기하다 <i>iyagihada</i>
to get scolded	시껍하다 <i>sikköphada</i>	혼나다 <i>honnada</i>
to do not know	모리다 <i>morida</i>	모르다 <i>morŭda</i>

Figure 20: Verbs in the Kyöngsang dialect

5.2.3 Adverbs

The book in the Kyöngsang dialect contains several adverbs that differ completely from the standard Korean and the most used ones will be listed below.

	Kyöngsang dialect	Standard Korean
greatly	억수로 <i>öksuro</i>	대단히 <i>taedanhi</i>
already	하마 <i>hama</i>	벌써 <i>pölssö</i>
and	그라고 <i>kŭrago</i>	그리고 <i>kŭrigo</i>
a lot	마이 <i>mai</i>	많이 <i>mani</i>

Figure 21: Adverbs in the Kyöngsang dialect

6 Grammar of the Kyōngsang dialect

In this part, I will focus on the grammar of the Kyōngsang dialect, which exhibits certain characteristics different from the standard language. Grammar is an integral part of every language and even though the Southeast regional language variety of Korean is a sub-branch of the Korean language, most grammar particles or endings are used in the same way as in the standard language, however, even here we still can find differences. These differences can cause misunderstanding or even misinterpretation to people unfamiliar with the distinctive features of the dialect. This section will introduce the various Kyōngsang dialect's particles and grammars found in *The Little Prince* using examples with applied double translation technique. I will highlight the distinctions and similarities between the dialect and modern standard Korean grammar.

6.1 Case particles

Korean languages and its dialects use various suffixes to express case bonds, which we can refer to as case particles. In a sentence, the case particles cannot stand alone and when connected, they express a grammatical relationship to another clause or a semantic relationship to another word.

Both standard Korean and dialect-specific particles are included in the Kyōngsang 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, even though 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 Kyōngsang case particles do not have such a problem with understating this book from a grammatical perspective.

6.1.1 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 for my research, it is based on the Little Prince book which does not include some forms that are used in other parts of the province. The authors tried to make this dialect as close as possible to the standard language, so it uses the nominative particles “-으|가” (*-i/ga*), which are of course used in other parts of the Kyŏngsang province are, but other forms are often used there.

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 “-으” (*-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 “-으” (*-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 ‘코으’ (*k’oi*). This can be attributed to the fact, that the particle “-으” (*-i*) was predominant in this region in the past. Below you can see some examples of the use of this particle in the book with applied double translation technique, which can be seen in the standard Korean translation.

(15)KD: 내가 원하는 기 바로 이기다. (*Naega wŏnhanŭn ki paro igida.*)²¹

SK: 내가 원하는 거 바로 이거다. (*Naega wŏnhanŭn kŏ paro igŏda.*)

EN: This is exactly what I want.

(16)KD: 애린 왕자 별이 (*Aerin wangja pyŏri ...*)

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 “-으|가” (*-iga*) and it is predominantly used in the northern part of Kyŏngsang province. This form, in my opinion, was created by combining these two nominative particles into one and possesses the same meaning.

²¹ page 14

6.1.2 Genitive case

This case's (속격, *sokkyŏk*) function is to mark a possessive relations by a noun and in modern standard Korean language it is marked by “-의” (*-ŭi*) genitive case marker. One of this marker's characteristic is that in a sentence it can be omitted, since even without its presence, the possession can be easily recognizable. This can happen in standard language and even in 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 modern 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 hard pronunciation.

(17)KD: 최악의 상황 ... (*ch'oeag-ŭi sanghwang*)²²

SK: 최악의 상황 ... (*ch'oeag-ŭi sanghwang*)

EN: the worst situation ...

Another particles used throughout the region is also the same one found in the standard language, namely “-ㅏ” (*-sa*). It is used to connect two nouns into one to make a composition noun (Lee, 2020). This particle is used usually between two pure Korean words or pure Korean word and Sino-Korean word.

²² page 28

6.1.3 Accusative case

This grammatical case (대격, *daegyŏk*) is used to mark the object of a verb in a sentence. In the standard language, we encounter with the particles „-을/를“ (-*ŭl/rŭl*). Words ending in a vowel are attached with the particle „-을“ (-*ŭl*), whereas words ending in a consonant are attached with the particle „-를“ (-*rŭl*). After a vowel, „-를“ (-*rŭl*) is often reduced to „-르“ (-*l*), especially in spoken language. Similar to standard Korean, the Kyŏngsang dialect also experiences this phenomenon, albeit somewhat more frequently.

The Little Prince in the Kyŏngsang dialect again uses only the standard Korean language particles even though in the dialect, there are several other forms that can be used instead. Even in Pohang region and around Daegu, there is one form that is often used and that is “-으르” (-*ŭrŭ*). However, we do not encounter this form 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. Its shape resembles the directional case marker, respectively particle that can be translated as ‘in order to’ in modern standard Korean.

6.1.4 Dative case

The meaning of this grammatical case (여격, *yŏgyŏk*) is to mark an indirect object of a sentence. In standard Korean, we can come across many particles denoting this case, because their biggest difference from the vast majority of other cases is the distinction between animate and inanimate gender and also forms that have their own polite variant.

	colloquial	polite
animate	-에 게 <i>-ege</i> -한테 <i>-hant'e</i>	-께 <i>-kke</i>
inanimate	-에 <i>-e</i>	

Figure 22: Standard Korean dative particles

In the chart above, you can see an overview of the Korean dative particles that are used daily in the language. And of course, the Kyŏngsang dialect contains its own forms of these particles, which are used in their own forms. During the reading of *The Little Prince* in this dialect, we can notice that the authors of this book have again tried to use the standard version of these particles as much as possible, nevertheless even here I could find exceptions, although in a very small number. An example of the use of the dative particle can be found in several parts of the book, where we encounter the phrase „내한테“ (*nae-hant'e*), which in the standard language has the form „나에게“ (*na-ege*).

(18)KD: 내가 가한테 말했다. (*nae-ga ka-hant'e marhaetta.*)²³

SK: 내가 그에게 말했다. (*nae-ga kŭ-ege marhaetta.*)

EN: I told him.

²³ page 30

Another dative particle that is used often in the dialect is “-자테” and its other forms. This particle was formed by joining the postposition “-곁”, which was then palatalized, with the locative particle “-에”. 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” or “-잔테” (Sök, 2010, p. 50). We may encounter this particle quite often in the book, where it is directly attached to a word without any additional change. Here, I mention an example from the book, which can be found on the page 19.

(19)KD: 어른들자테는 이래 말해 주야한다. (*Ūrëndŭl-jat'emŭn irae marhae chuyahanda.*)²⁴

SK: 어른들께는 이렇게 말해 드려야 한다. (*Örëndŭl-kkenŭn irök'e marhae tŭryöya handa.*)

EN: This is what you have to say to adults.

The example sentence contains the dative particle connected to the word after the plural particle “-들” (*-tŭl*) and as you can see the topic particle “-는” (*-nŭn*) can also be connected to this suffix. This really shows us how the standard language and its dialects can form highly agglutinative word structures.

6.1.5 Locative case

This grammatical case (처격, *ch'ögyöök*) is used to indicate the starting point of a movement or a place where certain movement is taking place. In modern standard Korean, the particle “-에서” is used to express this case. Additionally, this particle has two basic meaning. One of the meanings refers to the place where some action or activity takes place. And the second meaning indicates the starting point of an action.

In the book, readers can encounter only with the standard Korean locative particle, even though again the dialect possesses even more locative particles and its forms. In my opinion, the authors tried again to use the standard variants of the locative particle, even though they could have directly used the variants used in the dialect.

²⁴ page 19

Another variant that is not included in the book but is often used is the “-이셔” (-*isŏ*) form of the locative particle. According to Sök (2020, p. 58), this version is used around Daegu city, Kyōngju and Pohang and usage is identical to the standard version. However, this version shows a tendency to combine with the last vowel when the word ends with ‘a’ or ‘ŏ’ vowel. As for example, the last vowel of the word “사과” (*sagwa*, apple) assimilates with the particle and the final form is “사과아셔” (*sagwa-asŏ*, in the apple).

6.1.6 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.

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

Figure 23: Standard Korean comitative particles

In the Kyōngsang dialect, there are only two versions of these comitative particles and exactly these two are used in the book. The particles do not differ in usage, and there is also no distinction between them in politeness, therefore they can be used interchangeably without changing any further meaning. One particle is already known “-하고” (-*hago*) and not so common “-카/캉” (-*k’a/k’ang*). The second of these particles is used and is a direct translation of the standard particles “-와/과” (-*wa/kwa*). Ch’oe (2015) mentions that originally, there was only one connecting particle, “-과” (-*kwa*). Phonetic modifications presumably led to the emergence of this form of connective particle in the Kyōngsang province language variety.

In the book, we mainly encounter the form “-캉” (-*k’ang*), which appears in several cases in the text. This form is mainly used around the city of Daegu and Pohang, therefore it comes as no surprise that it was used in the book. An example sentence that was used in chapter 2. shows us how it is used in connection with a noun.

(20) KD: 호주미에 종이^ㄱ 만년필 꺼냈다 아이가. (*Hojumie chongi-k'ang man-nyönp 'il kkönaetta aiga.*)²⁵

SK: 호주미에서 종이와 만년필을 꺼냈잖아. (*Hojumiesö chongiwa man-nyönp 'irül kkönaetchana.*)

EN: He took out a paper and a fountain pen from his pocket.

In the original version that is written in modern standard language variety, the particle used is its real counterpart “-과” (*-kwa*), so we can judge from that that authors of this book used this dialectal particle to express the same grammatical relations.

Nevertheless, if we wanted to locate the second comitative particle “-하고” (*-hago*) in the book, we would not find not even one, since the book *Little Prince* does not contain this particle at all. In my opinion, the authors mainly used the particle “-^ㄱ” (*-k'ang*) instead of “-하고” (*-hago*), because it is the most used connective particle in the area around Pohang and Daegu city.

6.1.7 Vocative case

This grammatical case (*호격, hogyök*) is used to address people and in modern standard Korean there two pairs of vocative particles that are used in informal and formal speech. However, this grammatical case is not used that much in a speech, but when used, it can be primarily found in the informal speech to address for example children by their parents. Nevertheless, it is often omitted during conversations. In the chart below, you can see the vocative particles in modern standard language variety, which can be also divided if they are used after a vowel or a consonant.

	vowel	consonant
informal	-아 -a	-야 -ya
formal	-이 어 -iö	-여 -yö

Figure 24: Standard Korean vocative particles

²⁵ page 12

The Kyōngsang 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 grammatical case's particle that is used around the Kyōngsang province is doubtlessly particle “-요” (-yo). This version of the particle can be found not only in the previously mentioned province, but also in the Hamgyōng, P'yōngan or Kangwōn where it has 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 Daegu and its surrounding cities, the particle has “-예” (-ye) form. These two suffixes connect to a word, whether it ends in a vowel or a consonant, since they have a same form for both.

When attentive examination of the book *The Little Prince*, we can again notice that vocative suffices in the dialectal forms do not appear in any case in the text, since addressing of people is done without the usage of these particles and even the used vocative particle is the one from standard Korean as can be seen in the example below in comparison with the same sentence in the *Little Prince* in the standard language.

(21)KD: 야야, 너는 어디서 왔노? (*ya-ya, ninŭn ōdisŏ wanno?*)²⁶

SK: 꼬마야, 넌 어디서 왔니? (*kkoma-ya, nŏn ōdisŏ wanni?*)

EN: Child, where did you come from?

This example is the only one with the vocative suffix, therefore addressing of a person or people is done without any of these suffixes in both dialectal and standard versions of the book.

²⁶ page 16

6.1.8 Instrumental case

This grammatical case (조격, *chogyŏk*) main function is to express the means by which the action or state is realized and to express this case modern standard Korean uses a set of different particles. In standard Korean language this includes particles “-(으)로” (*-(-ŭ)ro*) or “-(으)로써” (*-(-ŭ)rossŏ*), which have many functions when used as for examples direction of a motion, tool, material, method, transition into something and many more.

The Kyŏngsang dialect expresses this grammatical case with its own suffixes, however as the previously mentioned case endings, even this case is often expressed with the modern standard Korean forms of suffixes. Nevertheless, there are also different forms that are used mainly among older people in more remote areas.

Probably the most common form of this grammatical case is the “-(으)러” (*-(-ŭ)rŏ*) that can be encountered in all parts of Kyŏngsang province and it likely was formed as a result of a phonetic change from the literary “-(으)로” (*-(-ŭ)ro*). However, the book *Little Prince* does not contain any other form of the instrumental case’s suffix other than that of standard language variety. The example below shows the usage of instrumental case and can be found on page 18.

(22)KD: 앞으로 쪽 가뻐도 뻐로 멀리 가지도 모한다... (*ap-ŭro tchuk kappido paello mŏlli kajido mohanda...*)²⁷

SK: 앞으로 쪽 가도 뻐로 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 ...

²⁷ page 18

6.2 Auxiliary particles

The auxiliary particles are attached to separate words and are written together with them. As the case particles, even if these particles are deemed as a separate element of speech, it cannot stand alone in a sentence. Although they are primarily linked to nominal phrases, they can also be found following converbs, adverbs, and other case particles. They have lexical as well as grammatical meaning and to a certain extent, these particles can explain the situation and provide the word they are tied to more context or specificity.

In the following sub-chapter, I will focus on the most used auxiliary particles of Kyöngsang dialect, which are not found at all or only to a very limited extent in any of the other Korean dialects. This will be based on examples taken from the translation of *The Little Prince* into Kyöngsang dialect.

The most used comparative particles are attached to a word and express a comparison between two words. Particles “-보다” (*-poda*), “-같이” (*-kach'i*), “-처럼” (*-ch'öröm*) and “-만큼” (*-mank'ŭm*) are included here, however they have a slightly different meaning depending on the usage in a sentence. The standard particles are undoubtedly used in the area of the Kyöngsang province, but even here speakers use suffixes with a slightly different form or completely distinctive particles that have the same meaning.

The first of these particles, “-보다” (*-poda*), usually compares the difference between two nouns and is translated into English as the conjunction ‘than’. When used, this suffix is found after the noun and is often accompanied with the adverbs “더” (*tö*, more) “덜” (*töl*, less) to show a degree of comparison. In the book, we encounter this comparative particle quite regularly, therefore readers have no problems understating its meaning. But on the hand, in the Kyöngsang dialect, there is also the particle “-카마” (*-k'ama*), which has the same meaning as the above-mentioned particle. However, the book does not contain this form or one of its forms of this particle at all. As Cho (2012) mentions in his work, the particle “-카마” (*-k'ama*) is used in the area around the cities of Pohang, Daegu and Kyöngju, so it is surprising that the authors did not use this particle, which is uniquely used in this area.

Another 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.

(23)KD: 나는 처음에 놀란 토끼처럼 나를 보디, ... (*ninŭn ch'ŏŭme nollan t'ok-kaengi-ch'ŏrŏm naerŭl podi, ...*)²⁸

EN: You are like a rabbit who was surprised at first ...

In the example, which can be found in chapter 6 (page 26), you can see the usage of this particle that has the same form as in the standard Korean language variant. However, authors could employ the native variant “-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.

(24)KD: 나는 처음에 놀란 토끼맨치로 나를 보디, ... (*ninŭn ch'ŏŭme nollan t'ok-kaengi-maench'iro naerŭl podi, ...*)

SK: 너는 처음에 놀란 토끼처럼 나를 보더니, ... (*nŏnŭn ch'ŏŭme nollan t'ok-kich'ŏrŏm narŭl podŏni*)

EN: You are like a rabbit who was surprised at first ...

The particle “-같이” (*-kach'i*) that can also be translated to English, as its previously mentioned counterpart, as ‘like’. This particle also appears in the text to a slightly greater extent than “-처럼” (*-ch'ŏrŏm*). In the Kyŏngsang dialect, the standard version is used primarily in speech, but there are also variants that have a slightly different form. The most used ones certainly include the form “-겉이” (*-kŏch'i*) “-글이” (*-kŭch'i*) that differ in the vowel used in the first syllable.

²⁸ page 26

6.3 Sentence connectors and endings

Both modern standard Korean and the Kyōngsang dialect contain a large number of grammatical parts that give different meanings to a sentence. These sentence connectors can be attached to nouns and adjectives, but most of them are attached primarily to verbs. From the perspective of a speaker of one of the Indo-European languages, the Korean language may appear to contain a great number of the grammars with similar meaning, since our languages do not make the distinctions between grammars that Korean speakers otherwise do.

The Kyōngsang dialect contains the same grammars that have a counterpart in the standard language variety. The biggest difference is in their form, which may differ only in form or may look completely different. In this section, I will mention only grammars that appear most often in the book and can be useful for those who do not know this dialect. However, even in this part we can encounter the use of standard variants of these connectors, even if we can find their counterparts in the dialect.

6.3.1 -(으)모 (-*ŭ*)mo

This ending is the most common sentence connector expressing a conditionality and it can be translated into English as ‘if’. In the case of connecting to a verb ending in a vowel, the ending “-모” (-*mo*) is added, and in the case of a consonant “-으모” (-*ŭmo*) is connected to a verb stem. Taking a closer look at the modern standard Korean language, we can find the form “-(으)면” (-*ŭmyŏn*), which expresses the same grammatical function.

(25)KD: 밤에 길 잃으모 우짜꼬 걱정했는데. (*Pame kil ir-ŭmo u tchakko kŏkchŏnghaenmŭnde*)²⁹

SK: 밤에 길 잃으면 어떻게 할까 걱정했는데. (*Pame kil irŭmyŏn ōttŏke halkka kŏkchŏnghaenmŭnde*)

EN: I was worried if I get lost at night.

²⁹ page 10

6.3.2 -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’. With its standard counterpart “-아서” (-asō), it is used all over the Kyōngsang province, but according to my research, the particle “-아서” is used predominantly nowadays, especially among young people.

(26)KD: 기가 죽아가 화가가 못 됐다. (*Kika chugaga hwagaga mon twaetche.*)³⁰

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

EN: I was so discouraged that I could not be a painter.

6.3.3 -(으)니까 (-*ŭ*)nikka)

This grammatical conjunction is also used in the standard Korean language and has a similar function to the previously mentioned particle “-아서” (-asō) 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 book, however, there are multiple forms of this particle in the Kyōngsang dialect, such as “-(으)니까” (-*ŭ*)nikkō) or “-(으)니까네” (-*ŭ*)nikkōne), which are native for this region.

(27)KD: 안 무섭녕교라고 물으니까 ... (*An musōmninggyorago murŭnikka*)³¹

SK: 안 무섭냐고 물으니까 ... (*An musōmnyago murŭnikka*)

EN: I asked if it is not scary, so ...

6.3.4 -면서 (-*mŭnsō*)

This grammatical ending, which has the form “-(으)면서” (-*ŭ*)myōnsō) in the standard variant, expresses the simultaneity of two events or states. It can often be replaced with the grammar “-(으)며” (-*ŭ*)myō), which has a similar meaning and both of them can be translated into English as ‘while doing something’. In the book we come across the use

³⁰ page 12

³¹ page 10

of both forms, the dialectal “-문서” (*-mŭnsŏ*) and the standard one, so from my point of view it would be better if the authors used primarily the dialectal variant, to really show the usage of non-standard variant.

(28)KD: 내 뺑기를 보문서 고개만 까딱카데. (*Nae paenggirŭl pomŭnsŏ kogaeman kkattakk'ade.*)³²

SK: 내 비행기를 보면서 고개만 끄덕였다. (*nae pihanggihirŭl pomyŏnsŏ kogaeman kkŭdŏgyŏtta.*)

EN: He nodded while seeing my airplane.

In the dialect of the Kyŏngsang province, there are many other grammatical conjunctions that can have a distinctive form in comparison with the particles that can be found in the standard language variety. But in the case of the book *The Little Prince*, the authors mainly used the forms of these conjunctions, which even an unknown reader will find similar, due to the possible misunderstanding. However, in the case of the book in the dialect of Chŏlla province which can be used as a comparison, the authors tried to include more of particles native to the dialect of this region.

Another very interesting area of this dialect is its sentence endings, which differ from the standard language and may be unique to this dialect. For my research, I mainly focused on interrogative questions that are very interesting for both foreigners and Koreans who do not speak this dialect.

6.4 Interrogative endings

This type of a clause is often divided into yes-no sentences and ends in the question mark that closes the statement. These types of sentences in Korean language often ends in different particles or are followed by a rising intonation. If we look at the interrogative endings, we can notice that they differ primarily according to the level of politeness, which there are around 7 levels in the language, but in common speech only 4 levels are mostly used. Below, you can see the chart with the most used interrogative endings in Modern Standard Korean.

³² page 16

Plain	-니, -냐 (-ni, -nya)
Intimate	-아/-어 (-a/-ǒ)
Polite	-아요/-어요 (-ayo/-ǒyo)
Formal	-(스)버니까 -(sǔ)mnikka

Figure 25: Standard Korean interrogative endings

Indeed, the Kyōngsang 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 authors, this book mainly contains informal sentence endings. In compliance with Choe (2019), the dialect uses the formal endings “-(음)니까” (-*ǔm*)nikkǒ) or “-(음)디까” (-*ǔp*)tikkǒ), which resemble the standard variant “-(스)버니까” (-*sǔ*)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” (-*nǔn*’gyo) is used instead as the most polite form. This ending originated from the phrase “-는 것이요” (-*nǔn* kǒsiyo), 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. I use the following sentence from chapter 7 (page 29) as an example.

(29)KD: 안 중요하단 말인교? (*An chungyohadan marin’gyo?*)³³

SK: 안 중요하단 말입니까? (*An chungyohadan marimnikka?*)

EN: Am I saying that it is not important?

In the book, I come across several informal endings that are used in informal speech between close friends or people of the same age. In the Kyōngsang dialect, several types of endings are used with the same meaning but a different form. Among the most used

³³ page 29

are definitely “-가/고” (-*ka/ko*) “-나/노” (-*na/no*) “-다/도” (-*da/do*), since they are used in all parts of the province and especially around the city of Daegu and Pohang. Here are some examples of how these particles are used.

(30)KD: 나는 그마이 슬펐단 말이가? (*Ninŭn kŭmai sŭlp’ŏttan mariga?*)³⁴

SK: 너는 너무 슬펐단 말이야? (*Nŏnŭn nŏmu sŭlp’yŏttan mariya?*)

EN: Are you saying that you were that sad?

(31)KD: 구란데 ... 나는 거서 뭐하노? (*Kurande ... nanŭn kŏsŏ mwŏhano?*)³⁵

SK: 그런데 ... 나는 거기서 뭐하니? (*Kŭrŏnde ... nanŭn kŏgisŏ mwŏhani?*)

EN: So ... what am I doing there?

6.5 Other sentence endings

The book contains other kinds of sentence endings, like declarative endings, in addition to interrogative endings. The degree of politeness is also distinguished by these endings in standard Korean declarative sentences, and there is a distinct ending for every circumstance. The Kyŏngsang dialect contains several types of the endings, which resemble their counterparts in the Standard language variety in most cases, but there we can also find different forms.

The most used ending in polite Korean is “-요” (-*yo*), which is most frequently utilized in day-to-day interactions, since it can be used with strangers and colleagues. Although the “-요” (-*yo*) form is also frequently used, the “-예” (-*ye*) is another frequently used form in the book and in the dialect, because both of the forms have exactly the same meaning interchangeably.

(32)KD: 참 아름답네예. (*Ch’am arŭmdamneye*)³⁶

SK: 참 아름답네요. (*Ch’am arŭmdamneyo*)

EN: It is really beautiful.

³⁴ page 27

³⁵ page 12

³⁶ page 31

Certainly another commonly used sentence ending is the dialectal form “-다카이” (-*tak'ai*), which is equivalent to the standard form “-다고” (-*tago*). This grammar is used to express indirect speech when one asks for clarification about something that is not clear in the speech.

(33)KD: 정신이 하나도 없었**다카이**. (*Chöngsini hanado öpsöttak'ai*)³⁷

SK: 정신이 하나도 없었다고. (*Chöngsini hanado öpsöttago.*)

EN: I said I was out of my mind.

³⁷ page 27

Conclusion

In my master's thesis, I focused on dialects and in particular the dialect of Kyōngsang province based on the book *The Little Prince* which was translated into this dialect in 2021. This translation allowed people unfamiliar with the dialect to experience it in an easy way with a classic text that many Koreans have read in their childhood or youth.

In the theoretical part, I first established some basics about translations of *The Little Prince* into different languages and dialects before I discussed the terms dialect and cover basics of dialectology. In this connection, I also introduced the two most famous Korean dialectologists. Then I described the features of Korean dialects, starting with phonology. In the next section, I introduced the main differences between the various dialectal areas on the Korean peninsula. Each dialect has its own characteristics that make it unique, but dialects often have things in common that do not seem so at first glance.

In the practical part, we took a closer look at the translation of the *Little Prince* in the dialect and its counterparts in the standard language. I found that the translators use various translation techniques that could slightly change the nuances of the sentences in the book. According to the authors of Kyōngsang dialect version, this is also due to the fact that they tried to make the translation not literal and less formal, in order to make the book easier to read.

In the next section I gave a systematic description of Kyōngsang dialect, based on the peculiarities found in the translation. I examined the book's phonological and lexicological characteristics of this dialect. Then I examined the grammatical particles and endings contained in the book again together with help of the double translation technique, where I compared them with their standard Korean's counterparts. Surprisingly most of the used case particles were the same as in the standard Korean language, even though there exist their counterparts in this dialect. The sentence connectors and mainly the endings were mostly the dialectal ones, with forms unique to the city of Pohang's dialect where the authors of this book were primarily from. Lastly, I would like to point out that the translation of *The Little Prince* into the Kyōngsang dialect is an incredible work and readers or those interested in studying the dialect can use this book as a basis for their study.

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