AN INTRODUCTION
TO THE
KOREAN SPOKEN LANGUAGE
BY
HORACE GRANT UNDERWOOD

IN TWO PARTS:
PART I. GRAMMATICAL NOTES
PART II. ENGLISH INTO KOREAN

SECOND EDITION
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1914
It was hardly expected when this volume saw the light of day in 1889 that so many years would pass before it was supplemented by something more elaborate and better and it is only the fact that nothing else has been prepared to take its place and that the author has been so beseeched for a new edition that has led us to issue this second edition.

We have sought advice and help and suggestions for changes on every hand and regret very much that the press of work has hindered others from giving to us the assistance that would have made this book of much more value to the student of Korean.

In the present edition the author is glad to say that he has had the assistance of his son who went over the revision of the book with the enthusiasm of a new student of the language.

We regret that more changes have not been made because we feel that the imperfections of the book would have warranted a more thorough revision of the book, but a careful review of all the parts with the assistance of some of the best Korean scholars available did not result in more than what is seen in this new edition. There are one or two appendices that have been added which will contribute not a little to the study of the language. The use of the book we believe will be very much enhanced by the alphabetical indices; one, a general index in English and the other an index of grammatical forms in Korean.
Special credit should be given to Mr. Sang-Kyu Pack, Ph. B., of Brown University, U. S. A. who has assisted me throughout.

As before, so again the author would gladly welcome any criticisms or suggestions either as to form or matter with which the student of the language may kindly favor him.

Seoul, Korea, January 1914.

H. G. U.
PREFACE.

To FIRST EDITION.

In this introduction to the study of the Korean spoken language, a systematic grammar, in the strict sense of the word, has not been aimed at. It has been attempted simply to introduce the student to the study, to clear away some of the obstacles and difficulties that present themselves, and to show him the way by which he can become a proficient speaker of Korean.

Passing through Japan on my way to Korea, Dr. Imbrie’s “English-Japanese Etymology” was brought to my notice; and, the plan of study there presented appealing to me as best suited to my individual needs, I decided to adopt it in the study of Korean.

In carrying out this idea, I was greatly aided by obtaining the Korean translation of Dr. Imbrie’s sentences prepared by Mr. Song Soun Yong, (who had become my teacher) at the direction of Lieut. Bernardo (U.S.N.)

After correcting, arranging and adding to them, I found them of so great advantage to myself, and they proved of such valuable assistance to the many to whom I loaned them, that I determined, to carry the classification still further, to formulate rules of which the sentences should be illustrations, and to throw the whole into a form similar to Dr. Imbrie’s book.

Most of this was done over three years ago, but various circumstances hindered its publication, and, in the meantime, realizing that such a work was in a measure one-
sided and approached the language merely from the English standpoint, a first part, which has been called "Grammatical Notes," and which views the subject from the opposite side has been prepared.

From the very nature of the case, the second part taking English idioms and phrases and showing their Korean equivalents, assumes more of a practical than a theoretical form. On the other hand, the first part taking Korean phrases, idioms, sentences, showing their use among the Koreans, their structure, and their various forms, becomes more theoretical than practical.

This complete division of a work on a language into two parts, each of which approaches it from a different standpoint, has, it is believed, never been attempted in one book before, and yet it is felt that such a division will materially aid the student in obtaining an accurate and well systematized knowledge of neat distinctions, and idioms, and enable him more speedily to speak a pure and not an Anglicized Korean. It is true that at times, the one naturally overlaps the other, but is equally certain, that each has its own especial place, which the other can in no way fill, and a true conception of any language can best be obtained by viewing them separately.

The author takes pleasure in acknowledging valuable suggestions made by Prof. Homer B. Hulbert of the Royal Korean University, concerning some of the uses of the compound tenses, and also his indebtedness to Mr. A. Stewart Annand who kindly corrected much of the proof, and whose friendly assistance in many ways has greatly aided him.

Credit also is due to the pioneers in the language, the French missionaries, from whose work the author gained
his first ideas of Korean grammar. To more than any one else, however, thanks are due to Mr. Song Soun Yong (宋淳容) whose sound ideas on the use of the language as it is spoken to-day, and whose intimate acquaintance with the Chinese classics, combined with his thorough knowledge of the use of the native Ernmun have been of invaluable assistance.

The author will gladly welcome any criticisms or suggestions either as to form or matter, with which students of the language may kindly favor him.

H. G. U.

Seoul Korea,
November 1889.
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PART I.

GRAMMATICAL NOTES.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS ON THE STUDY OF KOREAN.

1.—The study of Korean is as yet in its infancy, ways and means are few, and good books written in the native character are still fewer.

Despite the fact that twenty odd years have passed since the first edition of this book was published and that new Missionaries have many facilities provided in the form of organized language classes and several very helpful books; the difficulties are still many. Obviously even in that part of the language which we get through books we must have the assistance of native teachers, and Koreans with an accurate knowledge of the rules of grammar or with any idea of the real functions of a teacher are still rare.

Under these circumstances, the difficulties which sur-
round the student are numerous, and while in these pages the writer tries in part to systematize the language, and to aid the student, it must be remembered that no language was ever learned entirely from books, and from the very start he must accustom his ear to accurately hear, and to retain every variety of sound, and by unremitting effort train his tongue to reproduce them exactly.

The test of exactness in pronunciation is the ability to make oneself understood, not merely by one's own teacher and native associates, who will soon become accustomed to the wrong pronunciations, and mistakes of a foreigner, but by strangers and outsiders. The writer would therefore strenuously urge upon the learner the necessity of daily use among the people, of what he learns. Let him not be afraid of mistakes, by mistakes he must learn. Let him from the very first day, though he knows but one or two words, go out and begin to use them.

We have said that the test of exactness in pronunciation, is the ability to make oneself understood by strangers and outsiders. Here we must remember that another element besides that of the individual word enters in, that of the rate of pronunciation of the combinations of syllables and words which make up, what is in fact the unit of effective speech, the sentence. Let each word be pronounced ever so correctly if the rate of speech in the completed sentence be not at least approximately correct, the result if understood at all, will be stilted and laughable.

2.—A Korean teacher is of course indispensable, but he cannot be expected to teach in any sense of the word as we understand it. He is to give the exact pronunciation, to assist in reading the character, to explain forms of
expression and idioms, if possible give distinctions between synonyms, and to correct the mistakes of the learner. From him the student is to get all he can, and upon him to practice at every opportunity. He should be a good Chinese scholar; as the Chinese enters so largely into the composition of words, and as far as possible, a man well acquainted with the native Korean character, and having no knowledge of English, so that the student shall from the start be thrown upon his own resources.

3.—It must be borne in mind, that not only are the characters and words different from those to which we have been accustomed, but also the forms of expression and the idioms. The surroundings of the Korean are entirely different and his habits of thought are necessarily as unlike ours as his surroundings; hence "Put yourself in his place" should be the motto of the student; he must early learn to put himself in the place of the Korean. He must learn to hear with Korean ears, to see with Korean eyes, to enter heartily into the life and surroundings of the Korean, to appreciate fully all their circumstances, and as far as possible in fact, to think Korean. Until this is done at least in part, no one can become a speaker of Korean, and as long as the student continues to think in English, and to translate word for word into Korean, he will not be speaking Korean at all, but simply an Anglicized jargon of words, almost as unintelligible to the uninitiated, as Pidgin English is to the foreigner when he first lands on Chinese soil, and in many cases he will convey a meaning directly opposite to what he intends.

4.—To accomplish this end and think in Korean, we must approach the language from two sides, the Korean
and the foreign. This has been the object in this work. In the first or grammar part of the book, the effort has been made to present Korean from the Korean standpoint. That is to say; to take the Korean as it is, systematize it in part, divest it of everything foreign, show as far as possible how the Korean thinks and how he constructs his sentences. In the second part, on the other hand, we have tried to approach the language from the foreign standpoint, and taking English ideas, English thoughts and English methods of expression, to show how they would be expressed by the Korean. These have been named for convenience Parts I and II, not because the one should be studied before the other, or is of more importance, for they should be studied together, and we should try to approach the language from the two sides at once.

I would particularly emphasize this last as many, even among those who teach the language, seem to consider Part I proper for the beginner and Part II a fitting study for the second year. As a matter of fact Part II would be better for the beginner, if the two parts are to be studied separately, but really the two must be taken together if the student would secure the greatest benefit from the use of this book.

In the study of the second part, the student is urged to take each sentence and analyze it carefully, ascertain the “whys” and “wherefores,” notice its structure and memorize it; at the same time reading carefully Part I, and comparing what it says with what he finds put in practice in Part II. Of course the chapter on The Alphabet and its Sounds, must be mastered first, but as soon as this is done let the student begin on the sentences in Part II.
while he is at the same time reading carefully, and learning all there is to be learned in the chapter on the noun. He need not wait till he has studied the verb but simply glance at such words and terms as may be necessary.

5.—This work does not enter into the study of the Korean written language, which differs from the spoken, largely in verbal terminations and a few expressions never used in the colloquial. A little careful study, will soon acquaint one with these and their meanings, and while much hard work would be needed to make one a proficient and exact writer of "the book language," one may soon with comparative ease understand it.

6.—In the writing of Korean, two forms of character are used, the native Önmun and the Chinese, In all official correspondence, philosophical books, and in fact in nearly all books of real value, the Chinese character was used in the past, the native Önmun being relegated to a few trashy love stories and fairy tales. This difference in the written language, led to the assertion that there are two languages in Korea, and we sometimes hear foreigners talk of "speaking in the Önmun." There are not two languages and this expression is wrong, for the "Önmun" is simply a system of writing, and it would be as sensible to talk of "speaking in Munson's system of short hand." The idea that there are two languages in Korea is strengthened by the fact, that foreigners, who are perhaps tolerably well acquainted with words purely Korean, have, when they heard conversations carried on between officials and scholars, been unable to understand what was said. They have been on their way to the houses of the officials and passing through the streets and hearing the merchants the middle classes, and the coolies, talking among them-
selves, have been able to understand, while when they came into the presence of the officials, they have been unable to comprehend the meaning of statements and questions addressed directly to them. At once they have said “There are two languages” while the truth is that the officials have simply been using those Korean terms which have been derived from the Chinese. Chinese may be called the Latin of Korea. It is more polite and scholarly to use “Latinized” Korean; but among merchants, middle classes, and in common daily conversation this is not largely used: the learner does not hear it, hence the difficulty. This however being the case, it becomes necessary to make a study of these Sinico-Korean terms, for which he will find frequent and important use.

In connection with his use of these terms one thing must be borne in mind, that if a Sinico-Korean noun is used, the adjective or pronominal adjective used to qualify or limit it, should also be Sinico-Korean and vice-versa. All such words however undergo inflection and change as though pure Korean. This rule is more apparent, and is more necessary of observation in connection with the formation of compound words.

7.—Reference was made in the previous paragraph to the two forms of writing used. They were however for the most part, kept entirely distinct, and unlike the Japanese, the two were seldom mixed. Now and then in a letter written in the Chinese, Korean particles might be interspersed to assist the reader, or in a letter written in the “Önmun” the names of persons, places, etc., might be written in the Chinese. A few books were to be found written in both the Chinese and the “Önmun” but for the most part, the Chinese character was written on one page
with its equivalent in Önmun on the other. The rule was, as we have stated, not to mix the two characters, and the almost universal practice to use either the Önmun or Chinese alone.

8.—Before leaving the subject of Chinese and "Önmun we would call attention to the fact that the great majority of the students of Korean utterly neglect the study of the Chinese characters on the ground that they cannot study two languages at once and prefer to study Korean." Nothing could be more ridiculous or more short sighted. The study of the Chinese character is not the study of a different language but the study of Korean derivations carried on in Korean and opening up new etymological avenues leading the student to a clearer understanding of the language which he hears, and nearer to a mastery of elegant and scholarly speech. It will bring him the respect and regard of scholarly Koreans and broaden his vocabulary with astonishing ease and speed as new words will appear as merely new groupings of old friends.

This lack of vocabulary on the part of missionaries is often remarked among Koreans and indeed it would be laughable were it not rather disgraceful to notice how completely at sea many even of the older missionaries are when a conversation takes a turn not directly religious or domestic or when any but a religious book is taken up. It may be claimed that a perfect knowledge of a foreign language is impossible, but whether we dispute this point or not, we ought simply to bring our knowledge to a point where we can join intelligently in conversations outside the ordinary domestic and religious lines and read with a fair amount of ease literature more difficult than the Bible and translated hymns.
9.—Great care must be exercised in the matter of pronunciation.* An effort has been made in the chapter on the alphabet and pronunciation, to give rules to aid in this, but do not be satisfied with these, test each rule given, for yourself, try them with your teacher, and prove the result by conversation with natives, who have not accustomed themselves to your peculiarities and mistakes.

There must be from the start systematic drill of both ear and tongue. Which of the two is most important it is not easy to state, but certainly if one does not manage to distinguish with the ear the different sounds it will be impossible to reproduce them with the tongue.

One must as far as possible daily go where he will hear the Koreans talking among themselves. He should do this from the second day of his arrival and note-book in hand mark down the sounds as he hears them. This should be his constant practice. He should never allow himself to get to the place where words and sounds pass him unnoticed. Get acquainted with some Korean who is popular, and has a large circle of friends, become a regular habitue of his Sarang at the hour when you know the Koreans will be assembling. At the start, it will seem as though the Koreans speak with unusual rapidity until your ear becomes more accustomed to the sounds.

The tongue also must be drilled. Various are the exercises that may be suggested but the best the writer knows, is to take a good long Korean sentence learn it off by heart, practice clause by clause until the whole can be repeated at least as fast as by the fastest Korean speaker. In order to secure this, time yourself with a watch and be sure you reach some standard, such for instance, as that suggested by Prof.

* See Appendix on phonetics.
ON THE STUDY OF KOREAN.

Cummins of 5 syllables per second. After such a sentence has been thus learned, begin again with another until it becomes one's habit to speak and talk as fast as the ordinary Korean. In this drill however from the very start one must articulate clearly and correctly, or the speed will be worse than useless.

10.—As has been observed above, Koreans think along entirely different lines from the foreigner, and we would here warn the learner against a few mistakes into which, on this account, he is apt to fall. As will be stated further on, in many cases Koreans do not use the terminations, signifying number, case, etc. unless ambiguity would be caused by their absence. It is not a universal rule, but it is so common that one is almost safe in adopting it as such, and saying: "Never use such terminations unless a true interpretation of the sentence requires them."

Foreigners are apt in their efforts to speak correctly to use postpositions wherever possible, and thus to speak in what the Korean must consider a stilted manner. This almost laconic conciseness of speech is much more observable in the use, or rather neglect of use of the personal pronouns, and here more than anywhere else the foreigner is most apt to blunder.

11.—Native grammarians make but three parts of speech, namely; Nouns, Verbs, and Particles: and, while it might have been well in some respects to have confined ourselves to this division, it has been deemed best for the sake of convenience, to classify and arrange these three divisions under nine heads, namely: Nouns, Pronouns, Numerals, Postpositions, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Interjections.
As all pronouns are in reality nouns, the chapter, on the former, immediately follows that on the latter. As nearly all true Korean adjectives, are really verbs, the chapter on verbs precedes that on adjectives.

12.—Finally we would urge that much care and pains be taken in the study of Korean honorifics. At first sight they appear so numerous and varied that the student is almost discouraged, but he will soon learn that with some trifling exceptions, the whole matter is governed by but a few rules. It is important that he address servants and attendants in low terms, and speak of himself in higher terms; while in the presence of officials and men of high rank, he must always speak of himself in low terms and address them in the highest forms. While this in theory is so contrary to the Christian idea, in practise in Korea it is almost a necessity, unless one desires to be considered entirely ignorant of both language and propriety.
CHAPTER II.

THE KOREAN ALPHABET AND ITS SOUND.

13.—Unlike most languages of the East, Korean has neither a syllabary like the Japanese, nor a system of characters representing individual ideas, like the Chinese, but a true native alphabet. The writing is always in syllables, each syllable forming we might say a separate character, but divisible into its component parts.

14.—The Korean alphabet contains twenty-five letters, of which eleven are vowels and fourteen consonants. They are as follows:

**Vowels.**

ㅏ a, ㅑ ya, ㅗ o, ㅛ yo, ㅜ u, ㅠ yu, 
ㅡ eu, ㅣ i, ㅿ a.

**Consonants.**

ㄱ k, ㄲ kk, ㄴ n,  sharedPreferences p, ㄹ r or l, ㅅ s or final t,
ㅋ t, ㅌ tj or ch, ㅡ u, ㅊ ch, ㅋ hk, ㅍ hp, ㅎ h.

As is stated in all books on foreign languages, it is an impossibility to give the exact pronunciation of all the letters of one language in that of another, but a few words here concerning the pronunciation and use of the above alphabet, may be a help in the study of Korean.

Of the vowels, it will be seen at once that the second, fourth, sixth, and eighth are simply modifications of the
first, third, fifth and seventh, and it will be noted that this modification is shown in the writing, by the reduplication of the characteristic sign of the vowel, and expressed in the speaking, by the interposition of the sound of the English consonant y before the vowel sound. If then we give the sounds of the first, third, fifth and seventh, we will at once have the sounds for all of the first eight vowels.

Note.—No vowel can stand alone at the commencement of a Korean syllable, but if it has no consonant of its own must be preceded by the consonant ê, which is then mute.

Pronunciation of the Vowels.

Whereas English vowels may have a glide such is not the case as a rule with the Korean vowels even though final.

15.—아. This vowel has two sounds.

(1) That of the Italian ā found in the English words father, arm, etc.
Ex. 알, āl, (egg) ; 안경, an-gyeng, (spectacles).
(2) That of the regular English short ā found in mat, add, etc.

막탸이, mák-tä-gi, (a stick).

16.—어. This vowel has two sounds.

(1) That of the regular English short ö seen in not, odd, etc.
Ex. 얼핏, òl-hpit, (quickly) ; 어디, ò-daí, (where) ; 엽소, òp-sô, (to carry on the back).
(2) That of the German ö, or the English ur of urn.
Ex. 이루신택, ö-rō-si-nai, (father) ; 어룬, ö-run, (adult), and 엽소, öp-sô, (to be lacking, to be not).

17.—오. Here we can use the regular long and short English o sounds.

*See Appendix on phonetics.*
AND ITS SOUNDS.

(1) Long ő, of old, etc. is for the most part found in open syllables.
Ex. 호랑이, hō-rang-i, (a tiger); 오, ő, (five).
(2) The short ő of lot, etc. occurs generally in closed syllables.
Ex. 봉, pōng, (an envelope); 공주, kōng-sa, minister); 오늘, ő-nel, (to-day).

18.—우. From this vowel we get the sound of either the long oo of moon, or the short oo of wool.
(1) Ex. 구경, koo-gyeng, (a sight); 부리, pōo-ri, (a beak); 운, noon, (snow).
(2) Ex. 풀, hpōol, (herbage); 운, noon, (eye).

19.—As has been said above, the compound vowels 야, 여, 오, 우, have respectively the sounds of the above four simple vowels with y preceding.

Then. 야 will be either yā or yā.
여 will be either yō or German yö.
오 will be either yō or yö.
And 우 will be yoo.

20.—우. Here we have the sound of the French eu, as in feu (fire)
Ex. 그, keu, (that); 그늘, keu-neul, (shade); 빛은이, neulk-eun-i, (an old man).

21.—이. This vowel has two sounds.
(1) The sound of i in the words machine, pique.
Ex. 유, pi. (rain); 시, si, (hour); 이상한, i-sang-ha-o, (to be strange).
(2) The sound of the regular English short i of ill, hit, etc.
Ex. 기다리요, kr-da-rī-o, (to wait); 십, sip, (ten).
22.—อง, This vowel has really four sounds.
(1 & 2). The same two sounds as given for 아.
Ex.
(1) 훨으, hán-ha-o, (to hate); 소신, sá-sín, (ambassador).
(2) 기ارية, ki-dá-ri-o, (to wait).
(3) Most commonly the sound is that of the short Italian a seen in staff.
Ex. 볼, (horse); 음, ā-hai, (boy).
(4) The sound of e in cable, 오른, o-nil, (to-day);
고름, kó-rem, (pus); 기름, kí-rem, (oil).
Note —In spelling the Koreans distinguish between 아 and อง by a reference to their position in writing, calling 아 “upper a” and อง “lower a.”

23.—Before we turn to the consideration of the consonants it would be well to linger a little while over a few combinations, of vowels. In the following diphthongs and triphthongs it will be seen that อง and 앙 placed before other vowels in the syllable generally give the sound of the English w.

The combinations most commonly used with their pronunciations are as follows.
1st. 암, has the sound of the ai before r in air etc.
Ex. 개, (a dog); 네, (I); 대개, (for); 세, (new).
2nd. 암, has the same sound as the preceding:
Ex. 딕신, (instead); 딕우, (very).

24.—3rd. 암, has the regular long sound of the English a in day.
Ex. 네, (you); 셋, (three).
Sometimes also it has the sound of the short English e in end.
Ex. 메모리, (a daughter-in-law).
AND ITS SOUNDS.

It has also though very rarely, the sound of \( i \) in machine.

Ex. 메도리, \( (\text{hempen sandals}) \).

4th. \( \text{예} \), properly has the sound of the English word yea.

Ex. 계란, \( (\text{eggs}) \); 예비홍호, \( (\text{to make ready}) \).

However, after consonants where it would be hard to pronounce the \( y \), the sound is the same as \( \text{예} \), though perhaps a little prolonged.

Ex. 데일, \( (\text{the first}) \); 세상, \( (\text{the world}) \).

25.—5th. \( \text{왜} \), has the sound of \( \text{와} \), the \( a \) being the long Italian \( a \) which is seen in father, etc.

Ex. 파희, \( (\text{excessively}) \); 화초, \( (\text{flowers}) \); 실과, \( (\text{fruit}) \).

6th. \( \text{왜} \). Here we have No. 1 preceded by \( 오 \) which having the effect of \( w \) gives us the sound of \( \text{wa in ware} \).

Ex. 왜곡, \( (\text{Japan}) \); 화, \( (\text{a torch}) \).

7th. \( \text{왜} \). The exact sounds that this diphthong may have, can only be learned by practice.

Sometimes it may have the sound of \( \text{we in were} \), as \( \text{왜보}, \ (\text{to become}) \); \( \text{피롭소}, \ (\text{to be troublesome}) \); sometimes that of \( \text{wa in way} \), as \( \text{니의}, \ (\text{husband and wife}) \); sometimes almost this same sound with the \( w \) less distinct, as \( \text{죄}, \ (\text{sin}) \); and sometimes also the sound of French \( \text{eu} \), as \( \text{쇠}, \ (\text{metal}) \).

26.—8th. \( \text{왜} \), consists of \( 우 \) placed before \( \text{어} \), and may therefore have either of the two sounds which are derived respectively by placing \( w \) before the two sounds of the latter vowel.

Ex. 1st, 월, \( (\text{moon}) \). 2nd, 원숙호, \( (\text{to desire}) \); 원숙호, \( (\text{to exhort}) \).
At times also it may have the sound of wo in won.

Ex. 원, (a mandarin); 원, (a volume).

9th. 콧, may have any of the sounds of 오, preceded
by w, but for the most part it is restricted to
the sound of wa in way.

Ex. 콧, (a box); 콧, (why).

10th. 위. This diphthong has the force of w before the
long continental i sound and may be pronounced like
the English we.

Ex. 위, (ear); 위, (to be rare); 위, (back).

11th. 위. This combination of vowels is rarely found,
and it has the same sound as 위 though perhaps a
little more prolonged.

Ex. 취항, (to be intoxicated).

27.—12th. 의. The effect of this diphthong is pro-
duced by pronouncing the two sounds of 오 and 이
together, running them into one.

Ex. 경의, (a soldier).

Note.—There is a tendency among foreigners to pronounce this like
the short i of hit, but this is wrong and should be carefully avoided.

Sometimes this becomes almost the same as the
English we without movement of the lips.

Ex. 의심, (doubt).

THE CONSONANTS.

28.—Of the Korean consonants, nine are simple and
five are aspirated.

The simple are ㄱ k, ㅋ m, ㄴ n, ㅂ p, ㅍ r or l, ㅅ s,
ㅌ t, ㅈ j, and ㅊ ng.

The aspirated are, ㅋ, ㅍ, ㅊ, ㅌ, ㅊ and ㅊ.

Five of the simple consonants, ㄱ, ㅋ, ㅅ, ㅈ, and ㅊ
are often doubled when they can be written as such, or
the doubling is expressed by placing \( \text{פעילות} \) before the letter. This \( \text{פעילות} \) is then called "twin siot." These double consonants may then be written:—

\[
\text{,label} , \text{label}, \text{label}, \text{label}, \text{label}, \text{label}.
\]

The effect of the doubling, is generally expressed by a harder and more incisive utterance of the double consonant, while that of the aspirating, by a decidedly rough breathing. These differences can only be learned and reproduced by careful study and constant practice.

29.—In connection with the consonants and their sounds, euphony plays an important part, sometimes completely changing the sound of the consonant itself, sometimes merely modifying, and sometimes rendering it absolutely mute. The rules of euphony cannot all be here given, but in describing the sounds of the consonants, an attempt is made to so explain them and their changes that the main difficulties may be overcome.

It may be well to notice here, that euphony plays such an important part in Korean, that it oftentimes completely changes the initial consonant of postpositions and other suffixes. In a language where the character is syllabic like the Japanese, there is not the same latitude for such changes as in a language purely alphabetic like the Korean. It is these euphonic changes in the postpositions which have led foreigners to follow and tenaciously hold to, the example of the French Missionaries, in Latinizing the noun and giving five distinct declensions with eleven cases each.

Consonantal Sounds.

30.—We will consider first the simple consonants.
1st. 7. This has commonly the sound of \( k \) in *king*
As, 갓, kap, *(price)*; 가오, ka-o, *(to go)*.
Sometimes it may have the sound of *g* in *give*.
Ex. 빗다가, it-ta-ga, *(in a little)*, and 막다가, mak-ta-gi, *(a stick)*.
When before ヽ (m), ネ (n), or サ (r); this letter has the sound of *ng*.
Ex. 약물, yang-moul, *(medicinal water)*.
약력, yang-ryok, *(medicinal effect)*.
31.—2nd. ノ. This is pronounced like the *m* of *money*.
Ex. 머무르, mo-meu-o, *(to tarry)*.
32.—3rd. ペ. This for the most part has the common sound of *n* in *panel*.
Ex. 나노, na-nan, *(as for me)* or 나, noo, *(eye)*.
Sometimes when followed by the vowel *i*, it has the effect of the English *y*, or may be mute.
Ex. 니, yi, *(a tooth)*; 미히오, ig-hi-o, *(to be cooked)*.
When preceded or followed by カ *l*, both consonants take the sound of *l*, in *calling*.
Ex. 별노, pyel-lo, *specially*; 날닉, nal-lai, *(swiftly)*.
33.—4th. オ. Before a vowel this is mute. In Korean no vowel is allowed to stand alone, or to begin a syllable, and in cases where this would occur オ is used.
Ex. 아오, a-Ə, *(to know)*; 아마, a-ma, *(perhaps)*.
At the end of a syllable, this has the sound of *ng* in *song*.
Ex. 양, yang, *(sheep)*; 병, pyung, *(a bottle)*.
34.—5th. ㅂ. This commonly has the sound of the unaspirated p in English.

Ex. 발, pap, (rice); 보, po-o, (to see).

Sometimes it may have the sound of b.

Ex. 아바지, abaji, (father); 불가불, poul-ga-boul, (of necessity).

Before □ (m), or ▤ (n), or □ (r), it generally has the sound of m.

Ex. 혜문, hyöm-mun, (side gate); 앞니, am-ni, (front teeth); 십리, sim-ni, (ten ri).

35.—6th. ㄷ. This consonant may have the sounds of l, n, or r.

It has the sounds of l:—

(a). At the end of a word.

Ex. 봐, mal, (horse); 불, pul, (fire); 밀, mil, (wax).

(b). When it is followed by another consonant in the same syllable.

Ex. 이해소, ai-dalp-so, (to hate); 암돌, ga-dalk, (reason).

(c). When it follows or precedes the consonant. ▤

Ex. 칼노, kal-lo, (with a knife); 환란, hwal-lan, (calamity); 말니호, mal-yi-o, (to prevent).

It is pronounced n:—

(a). At the beginning of a word.

Ex. 뒤일, nai-il, (to-morrow).

(b). Sometimes at the beginning of a syllable in the middle of a word.

Ex. 공론히호, kong-non-ha-o, (to consult together).
It generally has the sound of \( r \), when coming between two vowels, or between a vowel and \( \hat{a} \).

Ex. 아름답소, a-ram-tap-so, (to be beautiful); 일홍, ir-hom, (a name).

Sometimes before \( \text{i} \), and the compound vowels, it has the sound of \( y \).

Ex. 리, yi, (profit); 루랑, yo-ryang, (deliberation).

36.—7th. \( \hat{a} \). At the beginning of a word this letter has the sound of \( s \).

Ex. 삼가소, sam-kao, (to take care); 착, sak, (pay).

At the end of a word it has the sound of \( t \).

Ex. 갓, kat, (hat); 낫, nat, (mid-day); 멋, met, (how many).

The sound of this final \( \hat{a} \) is however sometimes modified by the initial letter of the syllable which follows it.

Before another \( \hat{a} \) it becomes \( s \).

Ex. 갖수로, kas-sa-ro, (with a hat).

Before \( \text{v} \), it has the sound of \( k \).

Ex. 착기, sak-ki, (young); 착고, chak-ko, (frequently).

Before \( \text{m} \), it becomes \( n \).

Ex. 갖모, kan-mo, (hat covering).

When the compound vowels \( \text{j}, \text{m}, \text{l}, \text{n}, \text{t} \), are preceded by \( \hat{a} \), the \( y \) is mute, and they have the sounds of the corresponding simple vowels.

Ex. 상관, sang-gwan, (importance); 세상, sŏ-sang, (the world).

37.—8th. \( \text{r} \). This letter has generally the sound of \( t \), in told.
Ex. 담장, tap-jang, (answer); 달소, tal-so, (to be different).

Sometimes it may have the sound of ḍ in dance.

Ex. 농담춘소, tai-dap-hao, (to answer); 겔대오, kyun-dai-o, (to endure).

Before ㅣ, or any of the compound vowels, the y sound of the compound vowels disappears, and ḍ has the force of ch.

Ex. 디경, chi-gyung, (territory); 도소, c'ho-so, (to be good).

Note.—This rule does not hold in the province of Pyang An Do where ḍ always retains the sound of ḍ and the y sound is retained in the double consonants.

At the end of a syllable ḍ becomes ḍ, although retaining the sound of t. but in some ancient books it is still found as ḍ.

38.—9th. ṝ. This consonant for the most part has the sound in ch in choose.

Ex. 잡소, chap-so, (to catch); 쥐, chwi, (a rat).

Sometimes it may have the sound of j in joy.

Ex. 죽이오, ju-gi-o, (to kill).

As in the case of ṝ so also in the case of this consonant, when followed by the compound vowels, the y sound is lost and that of the simple vowel only, remains.

Aspirated Consonants.

39.—The aspirated consonants are.

ㄱ, ㅋ, ㅌ, ㅅ, ㅎ.
As has already been said the exact pronunciation of these aspirated consonants cannot be expressed in English. Suffice it to say that, each one has a rough explosive sound of the corresponding simple consonant.

\( \ddagger \), is aspirated \( k \).

Ex. 까, hkal, (a knife); 칫, hkeui, (height); 콧, hko, (nose).

\( \ddot{o} \), is aspirated \( p \).

Ex. 풍, hpeum, (rank); 풀, hpool, (grass); 팔, hpal, (eight).

\( \ddot{\epsilon} \), is aspirated \( t \).

Ex. 탕شدد, htam-sim, (envy); 토호호호, hto-ha-o, (to vomit).

\( \dddot{\epsilon} \), is aspirated \( ch \).

Ex. 닭, cha, (tea); 착ᄒᄒ, chak-ha-o, (to be honest).

\( \dddot{\epsilon} \), being \( \ddot{o} \) aspirated has the effect of \( h \) in house.

Ex. 합ᄒᄒ, hap-ha-o, (to unite); 혼인, hon-in, (marriage); 홍샹, häng-säng, (always).

**Doubled Consonants.**

40.—It is no easy task to properly reproduce the sound given by Koreans to the doubled consonants, much less to describe them accurately. It may be said however that as a rule the effect of the “twin slot” or doubling is to change the natural surds \( k, p, s, t \), to the sonants \( g, b, z \), and \( d, j \). These sounds like all others must be obtained from the Koreans direct, and ear, and tongue drilled and drilled till they are distinguished and can be reproduced.

짜투리 gatouri, (female pheasant); 까다 gata, (to peel)
The Koreans have given names to the nine simple consonants, but the vowels and aspirated consonants have no distinctive names, and can only be expressed by the sounds they represent. The names of the nine simple consonants are,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ㄱ}—\text{기억}, & \quad \text{ki-ok}. \\
\text{ㄴ}—\text{입음}, & \quad \text{mi-om}. \\
\text{ㄷ}—\text{니은}, & \quad \text{ni-eun}. \\
\text{ㄹ}—\text{비읍}, & \quad \text{pi-op}. \\
\text{ㅁ}—\text{리은}, & \quad \text{li-eul}. \\
\text{ㅂ}—\text{시옷}, & \quad \text{si-ot}. \\
\text{ㅈ}—\text{디읕}, & \quad \text{ji-keut}. \\
\text{ㅊ}—\text{작}, & \quad \text{jat}. \\
\text{ㅌ}—\text{이굉}, & \quad \text{i-haing}.
\end{align*}
\]

It will be noticed that for the most part the name gives the initial and final sound of the consonant it represents.

Enough has now been said to enable the student to gain an idea of the true sounds of the Korean alphabet, and some of the various modifications that they undergo. No book can ever tell him when and where long and short sounds should be used. These he must learn by practice.
CHAPTER III.

THE NOUN.

42.—Heretofore it has been the custom to consider that the Korean noun is declinable, and grammarians have variously classified the noun as belonging to, from one to five declensions, each having a number of cases varying from six to ten. There have been two causes for this, first the intimate acquaintance of those who have tried to systematize the language, with Latin and Greek, and the tendency that would thus naturally arise to make the languages conform. Secondly, on coming to Korea they found different nouns with various endings to express the same idea, and losing sight of the fact that they were but euphonic changes of various postpositions, called them cases.

The Korean noun is however indeclinable. In what has heretofore been regarded as declension, the noun itself is not declined, undergoes no change,* remains the same

*Note.—There are probably only three exceptions to this rule 것, 무것 and 여럿 which may really be considered as one, since 여럿 and 무것 are but contractions and were originally 여러것 and 무술것. In all these words the final t or s, is taken from the stem and prefixed to the postposition. At times also, still further contractions are made and we can have 겉 for 거 솜, 무얼 for 무어 솜, etc.
throughout, and the particles affixed, which have been considered as representing various cases, are rather distinct words or postpositions. These postpositions undergo a variety of changes according to the final letter of the noun to which they are affixed, but in no case do they change the noun itself. They represent the English prepositions.

43.—The distinctions of number, subject, and object, of a sentence etc, may be designated by postpositions or may be left to the context.

For Ex. 그 사람 의게 책 주어라.

lit. that man to book give.

The exact meaning of this sentence can only be understood by a knowledge of the circumstances. It may mean, give a book, or books, to one man or two. The man, (사람), may be man or woman, boy or girl. This indefiniteness of expression, which is a characteristic of most eastern languages, is more apparent in Korean than in Japanese. It would have been perfectly correct to have omitted the 의게 from the sentence given above. In the case of the subject and object of a sentence we find the same difficulty. As has been said before, the general rule is to omit the postposition unless the sentence taken with its context and circumstances would be ambiguous without them.

The use of the postposition giving definiteness to the sentence, often has the effect of the English definite article; and, where ambiguity would arise without them, they may be used to express this. In the example given above, the accusative postposition is not expressed, but if we desired to be definite we would say.
THE NOUN.

which would be "Give that man the book."

As also. 병기 왓소 병기 가 왓소
A soldier has come. The soldier has come.

문하인 이 교군 을 불넛소.
The gateman has called the chair coolies.

44.—For a full account of the postpositions, and the various euphonic changes that they undergo, see Chapter VI. For convenience, however, we give in this place the postpositions representing some of the various case relations of the noun.

Nominative or subjective by. 이 or 가.
Genitive by ..................... 의.
Dative by ..................... 의게 or 안해.
Accusative by ..................... 을.
Instrumental by ..................... 으로.
Ablative by ..................... 에, 에서, or 를에.

These postpositions are added to the noun and give the various ideas given by the above arrangement of cases, but undergo a variety of changes according to the final letter of the noun.

45.—Gender where necessary may be expressed by employing particles denoting male and female, or by the use of distinct words.

Thus we have in the case of human beings:—

A man, 사나회, 남주, 남인.
A woman, 계집, 녀인, 녀편녀.
A child, 오희; a boy, 사나회; a girl, 계집오희.

In the case of relations, different words are used.

아 바 지, Father; 어마니, Mother.
할 아바지, Grandfather; 할마니, Grandmother.
The gender of animals also is distinguished by particular names or by the prefixing of 수 male and 암 female.

닭, a fowl; 수탉, a cock; 암탉, a hen.
소, a bull or cow; 수소, a bull; 암소, a cow.
생, a pheasant; 수생, a male pheasant; 암생, a female pheasant.
말, a horse; 수물, a stallion; 암물, a mare.

The particles 암 and 수 are not employed alone and are never applied to human beings except as terms of extreme contempt. If then we desire to speak of the gender of an animal without repeating its name, we say for the male 수놈 or 수컷, and for the female, 암놈 or 암컷.

그 거시 수탉이나 암탉이나.
(That thing male chicken is? female chicken is?)

"Is that a rooster or a hen?"

In this sentence 암 and 수 are used adjectively, but in the following sentence we see the use of 암컷 and 수컷.

그 독기 수 거시냐 암 거시냐.
(That rabbit male thing is? female thing is?)

"Is that rabbit a male or a female?"

Here the word rabbit, is not repeated, so 암컷 and 수컷 are used.

46.—The same ambiguity that has been referred to in the matter of case, etc., also exists with reference to number. The Korean noun in fact has no number. Context or circumstances decide this also.
Five patients came this morning.

They brought three horses for me to choose from.

There must be five hundred blossoms on that magnolia tree.

Note.—Must is not always rendered in this way. For its various renderings see Part II Chap. I. § 3 Sec. 10.

47.—At times however, either for the sake of emphasis or to avoid ambiguity, it is desirable to express a plural idea; and this may be done by the use of the particle 들 affixed to the nouns, to which in turn may be affixed any one of the postpositions.

 Dongseôn, Brother. Dongseôn 들, Brothers.
 Nûn, Eye. Nûn 들, Eyes.
 Hól, Horse. Hól 들, Horses.
 Chok, Flower. Chok 들, Flowers.
 Yang, Sheep. Yang 들, Sheep.
 Sôsôm, Deer. Sôsôm 들, Deer.

This particle 들 may also be used without the noun, and is then generally affixed to an adverb in the sentence, and gives a plural idea.

As:

어서 들 오시요.
quickly (plur) come.
Please come quickly.
The particle 될 used in this way, generally pluralizes the subject of the verb; and in both the above sentences it shows that the request in the first case, and the command in the second, was addressed to more than one.

48.—Students in Korea soon begin to notice the constant reduplication of nouns, verbs, syllables etc. In verbs it has the effect of signifying continued action, and is found frequently in onomatopoetic words, to designate sounds and the like, and in nouns it gives the idea of universality, or variety,

As:

점점, Every house.
코드, All colors or sorts.
곳곳, All places or everywhere.
나라나라, All countries.

49.—These then are the various ways of expressing case, gender, and number, which may be employed if desired, and are at times used by Koreans even when ambiguity would not exist without them. It cannot however be too carefully borne in mind that as a rule Koreans do not express these distinctions.

50.—In a few cases there are distinctive words which have a plural sense. They are, for the most part, compound words of Chinese origin, and to them again, if special emphasis is desired the plural ending 됨 may be added.
As:
부모 or 부모들 (rare), Parents.
식구 or 식구들, Members of a family.
형제, Brethren.

**COMPOUND NOUNS.**

51.—There are of course a large number of compound nouns, and these by the use of Chinese may be formed at will. They may consist either of nouns alone, nouns and adjectives, nouns and verbs, or of verbs alone. A knowledge of the Chinese characters and their sounds in Korean, will enable the foreigner, not only to recognize these and understand their meaning at once, but also to form them for himself. We would then urge the student not only to learn these compounds whenever he meets them, but to analyze them, ascertain their derivation, learn the Chinese character and its Korean sound and thus be able when next he meets the same characters, though perhaps in different combinations, to recognize them at a glance. This study of words and their derivations will also be a great help in giving definiteness and precision to his style.

한경, "Spectacles" from 안 “eye” and 경 “a glass.”
안절, “Ophthalmia” from 안 “eye” and 질 “disease.”
현미경, “Microscope” from 현, “exhibiting,” 미, "smallness” and 경 a “glass.”
화학, “Chemistry” from 화 “change” and 학, “study.”

No attempt can here be made to give all, or even the most important of the words belonging to this class. The
few that have been given above are sufficient to enable the
student to understand this method of forming compound
words, so that he can go forward and analyze these words
for himself. A little care in this line will be a great help to
him in his study of this class of words, and if from the
beginning he makes a systematic study of all such words,
in but a short time he will be able to understand without
difficulty most, if not all the Sinico-Korean terms so
much used in polite discourse.

52.—There are also a few words which are joined to
verbs and sometimes to other nouns, making compound
nouns having the sense, of "the work of" "doer" etc.
Among these are 군, 창이, 질, etc.

The first two of these refer to the maker or doer of
something, both have nearly the same meaning but are
restricted in their use.

창이, the more restricted, has properly the sense of
"the worker in," "the maker of" and is affixed to the
name of the thing made, or the work done.

군, the more generally used, is a termination equivalent
to the Latin "ator," or the English "er," and may be
added to almost any word with which work of any kind
is connected. Neither of these terms are respectful and
are only applied to artisans, coolies, or people whose actions
have, in the eyes of the Koreans, brought them to that
level.

---

일군, Workman, coolie. 미장이, A mason.
교군군, A chair-man. 개외장이, A tiler.
보형군, A walker. 봉장이, A pencil-maker.
작란군, A player, a trifler. 홍장이, A hooper.
슈직군, A guard. 숫장이, A charcoal-burner
농군, A farm-hand. 주막장이, A hotel-keeper.
소리꾼, A (noiser) singer. 쇼록장이, A cabinet-maker.
나무꾼, A woodman. 갓장이, A hat-maker.
노룡꾼, A gambler. 오입장이, A dissolute-fellow.

With reference to the termination 먹, it may be said that its use varies greatly with the locality.

It has properly the sense of "the work of," and is commonly joined to the name of the tool or instrument with which any work is done. By certain people, and in certain places however, its use has been very much enlarged and in the province of Kyeng Sang Do it may be heard affixed to almost any noun or verb.

The following examples illustrate its proper use:—

 바느질, Needlework.
 달림이질, Ironing.
 체척질, Whipping.
 로질, Rowing.
 봉처질, Fanning.

VERBAL NOUNS.

53.—In Korea there are two regular ways of forming verbal nouns. They are formed by adding 口 and 기 to the verbal stem. With the verb 헤오, they will then be 헤 and 헤기 and we designate them verbal noun in 헤, and verbal noun in 헤기. While a large number of Koreans have come to consider these as synonyms, and to use them interchangeably, they are not the same, and good scholars never consider them so. The distinction made by the French missionaries in their admirable "Grammaire Coréenne" should always be maintained.

The noun in 헤, is an abstract noun referring to the quality or attribute as love, hate, and fear.
The noun in 음기, retains more of the verbal idea and is rather, the act of loving, hating, fearing, and would be used where we would employ either the infinitive of the verb, to love, to hate, to fear, or the present participle.

It is about equivalent to the Latin Supine, being a verb in force and a noun in form and inflection. It can both govern and in turn is governed. In use it is generally employed as we would employ the ablative Supine.

An examination of the following sentences will make this distinction plain.

Illustrating the use of Verbal noun in 음기:—

무서움이 집중히 의게 담혹 가시요.  
_Fear belongs to cowards._

착함이 덜이 되오.  
_Honesty is a virtue._

분홍이 그로름을 배오.  
_Anger brings trouble._

Illustrating the use of verbal nouns in 음기:—

원수 용서음기가 어렵소.  
_It is hard to forgive an enemy._

시방은 운 세상을 도타 드니기 십소.  
_Now, it is easy to go round the whole world._

그런 사름 소향향가 어렵지안소.  
_Loving such a man as that, is not hard._

Illustrating the use of both verbal nouns together:—

무음에 소향향이 있는 사름 높을 소향향기 쉽소.  
_It is easy for a man who has love in his heart to love others._

죽음이 압회 잇신즉 죽기률 면혹수 쉽소.  
_As death is before us, to avoid dying is impossible._
54.—A few words here about Korean given names and
titles; may be a help to the student. The Korean sur-
names are but few and for the most part consist of but
one syllable. A few, but five or six at the most, consist of
two syllables. The total number of surnames in Korea,
being under a hundred, can be learned with comparative
ease. In writing their surnames they seldom use any but
the Chinese character, and it is a necessity for almost any
one who expects to have much dealing with Koreans, to
learn these eighty or hundred characters. The ending 자
may be added to the surnames with the sense of the
family, tribe, household of, as 민가. "The Min family"
or "the Mins," 박가. "The Yi family" "the Yis" etc.
While it is perfectly proper, and no act of disrespect to use
this ending in speaking of any family or person; in their
presence or in addressing them, it is not polite.

Note:—This ending 자 is also used in speaking of servants. It
would not be proper in sending for your gate-man to say—
박서방 볼너 오너라 or "Call Mr. Pak."
but—
박가 볼너 오너라. "Call Pak."

It may be well here, however, to state that the ordinary Korean
way of summoning a servant, is not to use the surname at all, but the
given name or the office that they fill.

To these surnames may be prefixed or affixed names
of towns or places. If the name of the town precedes
the surname, it signifies that the place mentioned was
the original home of the branch of the family spoken of.
In a country where surnames are so limited, this becomes
a necessity.

When the names of the place follows the surname
it may have one or other of two significations; that most
common is, that the party referred to, is now, or was lately the magistrate of that place.

Among travelling pedlars however, this same method has been adopted to designate their domicile.

안동 김가 The "An Dong Kims," or the Kims of An Dong.

청풍 김가 The "Chyeng Pung Kims."

전주 린가 The "Chyeng Ju Yis."

연안 린가 The "Yern An Yis."

Among pedlars—

조 축산 "Cho Chuk San" means the Cho who is now, or was lately, magistrate at Chuk San.

린 고양 "Yi Ko Yang," the Yi who was, or is, magistrate at Ko Yang.

Among pedlars—

린 강계 "Yi Kang Gay" means that Kang Gay is Mr. Yi's home.

한 의주 "Han Eui Ju," that Eui Ju, is Mr. Han's home.

55.—In connection with the Korean given names there appears to the foreigner an almost unlimited amount of confusion. He hears a man with whose name he is acquainted called by a name entirely different, and is told that it is still his name, his given name. A boy whom he has known for years, marries; and coming to pay his respects, sends in a card bearing a name that he has never before seen. This too, the foreigner learns is his given name. This apparent confusion arises from the fact that each Korean has several given names, and that by which he was known as a boy, is entirely put aside on his attaining manhood.
We shall here speak of but three classes of names: the civil name, the name held during boyhood, and that given at marriage.

The civil name is properly only found among the nobility and upper classes. It is the name by which the individual is legally known from boyhood up, and continues with him throughout life. It always consists of two characters, one of which will have been settled generations before, and all the members of the same generation of any one family will have this same character and will be called brothers.

As:— 김복호, 김두호, 김길호.

Here the presence of the same character 호, as the last half of all their names shows that they are of the same generation. Their sons will be—

김영식, 김영균, 김영환.

Here the second character 영, is the same throughout. In the next generation it will again be the third character that will be the same and it will be 식.

As:— 김용식, 김명식, 김공식.

And thus it alternates from the second to the third character of their names, the surname of course as in all Eastern languages coming first and the remaining character being left to the option of the parents.

In common use among friends, however, this civil name is seldom used. As a boy, he has a boyish name, given him by his parents at his birth, which remains with him until his marriage. On this occasion, his parents again give him another name: that by which he was known as a boy is no longer used, and his friends now call him by his 노, or name given at marriage. At times,
also, friends give complimentary names and nicknames of which we need not speak here.

Here as in other things the times are making great changes. The old habits are passing away and the advantage as well as necessity of maintaining one's individuality is causing people more and more to use one name and that the civil.

56.—The titles by which Koreans are known and addressed: with the officials, follow the office held; with those who are not officials, they are 서방 (Mr.) 석수 (Esq.) 성원 (Revered Sir) and many others. To these at times are added the honorific particle 님, and we have 서방님, or 성원님. More lately the terms 장 and 공 have been used and we hear 김장, 김공, etc. All these are affixed to the surname, and when used, the civil, or given name must be dropped. In addressing or speaking of old men or those whose rank gives them the right to wear the jade button, we use the word 형갑: and those whose rank gives them the right to wear the gold button, are spoken of as 대갑. But when these words are used, it is as independent titles without the surname. The use of the surname with either of these words is habitual among certain classes; but is not considered good Korean and should be avoided.

57.—One of the surprising facts which met the Westerner on his arrival in Korea, was that the girls and women of the land had no names. Parents give a pet name to little girls as well as to boys, at their birth; but after they have reached the age of ten, this name is no longer known. From this time on, they were known as "Mr. Kim's daughter" or even "Mr. Kim's girl baby;" and strange to say the latter term is the more honorific.
When there is more than one daughter in the family, they are distinguished by such words as: "big" (for the eldest), "second," "third," "fourth," etc.

After marriage, they are still, o'en known by their husband's name and title, with the word 딸 or 집 (house) affixed.

As:

김씨 방 딸 Mrs. Kim.
리참판 딸 Mrs. Yi Champan or Lady Yi.
한씨 방 집 Mrs. Han.

Of these two, 딸 is the more honorable.

They may also be designated by the name of the place from which they came when marrying, prefixed to such words as 마님 or 마루마님, if the person is old; or to 아가씨 or 아씨, if young.

As: 고양 마님 or 고양 마루마님, The old lady who came from Ko Yang.

공주 아씨 or 공주 아가씨, The young lady from Kong Ju.

It should always be remembered in connection with the names for women and girls that it is not customary in Korea for any except relatives or those extremely intimate to ask concerning the female members of another's family.

Christian civilization has however been changing all this. The baptismal names are more and more being used. The individuality of the woman as distinct from her husband is being asserted. All over the land it is more and more becoming the custom for the women to have their distinct names. In fact now the new laws of the Empire require it.

58.—Before closing this subject, a remark or two on the Korean employment of the word 부인 that has come into
such common and erroneous use by foreigners, should be given. This term 부인 was properly equivalent to the English title,—"Lady": and if strictly used could only be applied to the wives of high officials. Even then it was not in common use, and the official himself would not use it in speaking of his own wife; unless perhaps in addressing a foreigner, who, he feared might not understand another word. It would however have been proper in speaking of the wife of a high official to use this term where in English we would use "Her Ladyship." A change has been brought about of late years and it is now proper to refer to the wife of another as 부인 but never to use the term in speaking of one's own wife. In speaking of one's own wife the terms 안 희, 안 약, 안, etc., would be used; or in addressing an inferior, 아씨, 아 기 씨, 마 닐, 마루 라 닐.
CHAPTER IV.

PRONOUNS AND PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

59.—With reference to Korean pronouns, it is doubtful whether such in the true sense of the word really exist. It is so easy, with most of the words used for pronouns to trace out their original meaning, and to show that they are really nothing but nouns which have either become restricted in use to one or other of the three persons, or else are convenient words, either by the designation of one's self or others, for rendering honor or its opposite to the person spoken to or of; that we are tempted to believe that by diligent research we should find that all the pronouns were originally nouns. We are strengthened in this idea by the fact that the native grammarians arrange their words into but three classes, including all pronouns under the head of nouns. For the sake of convenience, however, it has been deemed best to treat of these words by themselves; and in the consideration of Korean pronouns and pronominal adjectives, we will divide them into Personal, Reflexive, Interrogative, or Indefinite, Demonstrative, and Distributive.
Personal Pronouns.

60.—The First Person. The word most commonly used to render the first person is 나, 네, or 내가: many other words, however, are also used, as, 자기, 제가, 소인, 이사람, 본인, as well as many others. 자기 is properly "one's self"; 제가, "this one," 소인 "the little man."

우리 or 우리가, is used to express the first person plural; and to this may be added the plural ending 들 which hardly makes a plural of a plural, but simply emphasizes the we.

우리 is not restricted in meaning, to the first person plural, but is a somewhat more polite way than 나, of expressing the first person singular.

For Ex:—우리 집, lit. "our house," means, "my house," "home."

우리 애첩, "our wife," means, "my wife."

It would hardly be considered proper to say 네 애첩.

61.—The Second Person. The equivalents of a pronoun of the second person, from the very nature of the case, are extremely numerous: the most common is 너, 네 or 네가. This word however has a low or disrespectful meaning, and while it is applied for the most part, to none but inferiors it is still the nearest to a true personal pronoun of the second person. When we come to use any other word, it at once assigns a rank or grade, which 너 does not, and hence it has been used for the second person in addressing the Deity, as in the form used in the Lord's Prayer by some. A study of the true meanings of any of its equivalents, some of which are given below, will at once make plain the impossibility of using any one of them,
and the necessity of either using 너 in this case, or of not translating the word thou at all, but of replacing it by some other word, such as 주 (Lord). Other words that may be used to represent the second person are 조 네, 공, 당신, 로 형, (Elder brother), 어 루 신 네, (Aged father).

The plural of the 2nd Person is 너 회 to which, like 우리, may be affixed the plural ending 들, and with the same effect.

62.—As in the case of nouns, so also in the case of these pronouns, they may be followed by postpositions; but, like other nouns, the postposition need not be affixed unless the sense demands it.

Euphony has played more than its accustomed havoc with the postpositions when affixed to the pronouns 나, 우리, 너, 너 회. Various contractions have taken place, so that it may be said that the personal pronoun and postposition have become one; and no matter what may have been the condition of affairs originally, the contractions as they exist to-day, present us with what may be termed a declension.

For the convenience then of the student, we give these pronouns with their postpositions affixed, and the contractions they have undergone though it must be remembered that in many cases the uncontracted form is preferable.

| Stem. | 나...............................I. |
| Nom.  | 내 or 내가 .....................I. |
| Gen.  | 나의 contr. into. 내......My. |
| Dat.  | 나의 게  "  "  내게...To me. |
| Accus.| 나를  "  "  나.....Me. |
| Instrum.| 나으로  "  "  날노...By me. |
### PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

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### Third Person.

There is in Korean, no third personal pronoun; and we are safe in saying that this language has no equivalents for he, she, it, they, etc. The words and phrases that foreigners are apt to use in the place of these pronouns are in no sense their equivalents. We do not mean to say, that the phrases and sentences in which those equivalents are used are not good Korean; but we do mean to say that they are not true translations of the sentences which they are meant to represent.
For Ex.—Among the words most commonly used by foreigners, and by Korean students of English, to represent these terms, are the Korean demonstrative pronouns either with or without an additional word as 것, or 사물, and

which has been taken as the equivalent of

*He has come.*

The sentence given above is correct enough Korean, but it does not mean "he has come," and never can be properly used where we would employ those words, it means simply.

That man has come.

Again 不, 가저 오너라,

does not mean.

"Bring it;" but "Bring that;"

Where in English we use the personal pronouns of the third person, it is always when immediately speaking of the person, thing, or place represented by the pronoun; and when in Korean we do this, the pronoun is not translated.

*He has come*

becomes then simply, 왓소.

Bring it.

is simply, 가저 오너라.

In places where special emphasis is needed, or where in contrast, one party or thing is spoken of with the personal pronoun, a circumlocution such as "the person spoken of," or either a demonstrative, or reflexive pronoun may be used.

The few examples given below will help to illustrate this point:—
Mr. Song came yesterday and said he could not let me have the money.

If you give me money don't let him know about it.

He ridicules his father but he loves his mother.

If you see the Amah tell her to come; she has forgotten the baby, and he's been crying a long time.

Have you seen Mr. Kim lately? No, he went to Chemulpo and has not come back yet.

I will pay you all this month, but he won't pay till next month.

No, my brother is the merchant: he is the teacher.

These then are the various ways that Koreans have of expressing the first, second, and third persons; but it must not be forgotten that their use is much more restricted by the native than by the foreigner. For the most part it is left entirely to the surrounding circumstances, or to the context, to decide what may be the subject or object in the sentence. Throughout this work, in many places where we have translated I, it might equally well have been he or you, or vice versa. Of
course with reference to the second person, one is so often desirous of being polite or of assigning to the person spoken to his proper station, that words are much more frequently used to represent the second person, than any other.

**REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.**

65—There are a few words in Korean that are used with or without the personal pronouns given above and have a reflexive sense. They are:

저, 제, 제가, and 자기.

These words have properly the sense of self, one's self, himself, etc.

There are several other words that also have this same reflexive idea: 친히 (properly), 스스로 (of itself), 손수 or 손조 (with his own hand), 자기로 (of itself), and 절노 (by nature). These latter cannot be called reflexive pronouns, those first given, only are such. But these which are really adverbs or nouns with the postposition 로 are given here as they have the same effect.

The word 서로 (mutually) may be termed a reflexive pronoun, and will be rendered into English by each other or one another.

The word 피ヵ may in a sense be termed a reflexive pronoun. It has the sense of "either this or that," "both," and is used largely when comparing two people or things etc. It can sometimes be translated by the English "each other."

As far as use is concerned, the silver dollar and the paper dollar equal each other.
As for the Emperors of Germany and Russia, in rank, the one equals the other.

This same reflexive idea is given to certain verbs derived from the Chinese, by prefixing \textit{\textbf{I}} as \textit{\textbf{I}}매\textbf{I}, (to sell one's self); \textit{\textbf{I}}침\textbf{I}, (to lance one's self); \textit{\textbf{I}}득\textbf{I}, (to obtain by one's self) and many others.

(For examples please see Reflexive Pronouns. Part II.)

**INTERROGATIVE OR INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.**

66.—All Korean interrogatives have also an indefinite sense: hence, what would be two classes in English, form but one in Korean.

They are:—

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{누}, \textbf{누구}, \textbf{누가}, \textbf{뭐}, \textbf{뭐가}, Who, some one.
  \item \textbf{어누}, Which, a certain, some.
  \item \textbf{갖던}, Which, what kind of, a certain.
  \item \textbf{ﯡ}, What kind of, a certain.
  \item \textbf{무}, What, some.
  \item \textbf{무엇}, What, something.
\end{itemize}

Of these \textbf{누}, in its various forms, and \textbf{무엇} having more of a pronominal than an adjectival use, may be joined to any of the various postpositions, and when this is done like the personal pronouns they undergo various contractions. For convenience, then, they are given below with the various postpositions and their contractions.

**Stem.** \textbf{누} or \textbf{뭐} ................. Who or some one.

**Nom.** \textbf{누가} or \textbf{뭐가} ............. Who or some one.

**Gen.** \textbf{누의} contr. into \textbf{뭐} ...... Whose or some one's.

**Dat.** \textbf{누의게} ,, \textbf{뭐게} ... To whom or to some one.

**Acc.** \textbf{누를} or \textbf{누구를} ........... Whom or some one.

**Instr.** \textbf{누로} or \textbf{누를로} ........... By whom or by some one.
Stem. 무엇.................. What or something.
Nom. 무엇或 무엇시 ........ What or something.
Gen. 무엇서.................. Of what or of something.
Dat. 무엇서게.................. To what or to something.
Acc. 무엇술 contr. into 무엇.. What or something.
Instr. 무엇서로 "" 무엇노. By what or by something.

67.—어느, 것던 and 무엇, being always used adjectively, cannot be united with the various postpositions. If it is desired to use these as pronouns it can only be done by joining them to such words as 사람, 이, 것, etc. The distinctions between these are not always observed by Koreans.

엇던 means rather, what kind of, or indefinitely a certain.

어느, Means rather, which of a number.

무엇, Has the idea of what.

As:—  

엇던 사람 이요.  
What kind of a man is he?  

어느 사람 이요.  
Which man is it?  

며 무엇 사람 이요  
What man is that?

The answer to the first would tell whether the man was good or bad, rich or poor; the answer to the second simply decides which one of a number; while the answer to the third states whether he is a farmer, labourer, or what his business is.

In using these words indefinitely an adherence to these distinctions should be aimed at, though it is not always possible.
68.—These interrogatives, may be made still more indefinite by affixing to them the Korean equivalent of the English either or whether. As 누구나, 누구든지, (A contraction of 누구이든지), 누구든지, (A contraction of 누구일든지), 누구라도.

These really have rather the sense of any one whatever, whoever, and the other pronouns may be treated in the same way, with a like result.

69.—It has been said above that the interrogative pronouns take the place of the indefinites; but the pronoun 아모 (any) has an indefinite sense only, and may be used both adjectively, and pronominally. When used pronominally it may be joined with any of the various postpositions. Like the other indefinites it may be made more indefinite as in ¶ 68.

70.—Some of the numerous distributive pronouns are as follows.

어리, (some) signifies a part or portion of anything. 어리...어리 or 어리...어리 are equivalent to the English “some one” or “some others.”

또, (other, others, another) applies to people generally, as distinguished from oneself.

다, 모두, 모든, 운, (all) may be used almost interchangeably. 다 and 모두 are employed substantively, and at times we can use them with one or other of the postpositions, 모두 can only be used adjectively, and cannot therefore be united with postpositions; 운, signifies all in the sense of the whole, with reference to extent or duration. It is used solely as an adjective, and can only be used as a pronoun by the addition of some such word as 봉, becoming then 운봉 (the whole, the entirety).

여러, 여럿, 여러히, (several, a good number, many).
The first form alone can be employed as an adjective; and to the other two only, can the postpositions be affixed.

마다, 럼 (every), 각 (each separate) and 식 (a piece) are all distributive indefinite pronouns and may at times be used interchangeably. They differ, however, in their use in some respects.

마다 and 럼 are, respectively, the pure Korean and Sinico-Korean equivalents for the same idea. 마다 should then, properly, be only used in connection with pure Korean terms, and always follows the noun which it distributes. 럼 On the other hand can only be used with Sinico-Korean terms, and precedes its noun.

Note.—While with most words this rule is rigidly observed, there are exceptions with these terms, and we do find 마다 at times acting as distributor for a Sinico-Korean term, and 럼, for a pure Korean; but this is not elegant.

럼 and 마다 have properly the sense of every, and refer to the separate individual parts constituting a whole, regarded one by one. 럼 precedes while 마다 follows the word it limits.

각 on the other hand, refers rather to each separate individual; and denotes every one composing a whole, considered separately from the rest.

식 generally means at a time, together; but used with the pronoun 몇나, has the sense of one at a time or each. Quite often we find this used together with 각, 마다, or 럼.

It may also, at times, have the sense of each when standing alone.
(Give three each.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{셋식 주어하} & \quad \text{......}\quad \text{or} \\
\text{미명 열랑 받았소} & \quad \text{......} \\
\text{사름 마다 먹을 거슬} & \quad \text{너넉히 주어하} \\
\text{물 마다 사름 흉나식} & \\
\text{뜻소} & \quad \text{......} \\
\text{각 나라풍속이 다르오} & \quad \text{......}
\end{align*}
\]

Every man received ten nyang.

Give every man enough to eat.

Each horse had a rider.

Each country has its own customs.

For further examples see Part II. the chapter on Pronominal adjectives.

DEMONSTRATIVES.

71.—In Korean there are three commonly known, and constantly used, demonstrative pronominal adjectives: 이, 너 and 그. While at times they are employed substantively, they are for the most part used as adjectives; and when the pronominal form is needed, it is more common to affix such a word as 것 or 사물 etc., than to use the demonstrative alone. It is admissible, however, to employ any one of them substantively, and then there may be affixed, any of the various postpositions. This use is not at all common, and when referring to persons, is extremely disrespectful and contemptuous. In uniting with the various postpositions there are no contractions.

Used as adjectives, of course they cannot be joined to the postpositions, and they precede the noun they limit.

이 is equivalent to this.

너 is equivalent to that, and is used of things near at hand or in sight.
also is equivalent to that; but refers to things remote and not in sight.

72.—From these three demonstratives are formed various adverbs, verbs and adjectives, that are much used by Koreans and all of which retain these distinctions. We have from 오 (thus), often corrupted into 오려 which becomes a verb 오려히오 (to do thus) or 오려소 (to be so). From this verb we get 오려히 or 오려 an adjective meaning such, in the sense of such as this: and the adverb 오려끼 (thus in this way). From 오 we also get 오리 (here), and 오리로 (by this way or hither.)

In like manner we get adverbs, verbs and adjectives from all of these demonstratives, and the following table of some of them may be of use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>오</th>
<th>This (Subst. and Adj).</th>
<th>그</th>
<th>That (Subst. and Adj).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>이것</td>
<td>This (Subst).</td>
<td>그것</td>
<td>That (Subst).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오려히오</td>
<td>To do it in this way.</td>
<td>오려히오</td>
<td>To do it in that way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오려소</td>
<td>To be so.</td>
<td>오려소</td>
<td>To be that way, thus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오려히</td>
<td>This kind of.</td>
<td>오려히</td>
<td>That kind of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오런</td>
<td>Such as this.</td>
<td>오런</td>
<td>Such as that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오리</td>
<td>In this way, thus.</td>
<td>오리</td>
<td>In that way, thus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오리끼</td>
<td>오리로</td>
<td>오리로</td>
<td>By this way, hither.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—From these three words again, have been derived three exclamatory demonstrative pronouns expressing disgust. They are, 오, 오, and 오. They are much used, but only as exclamations of disgust, and cannot be called elegant Korean. Ex. 오, This fellow.
73.—In Part II. it is stated that there are no relative pronouns in Korean. There are, however, two words that have, by some, been classified as demonstrative pronouns, and that in a sense hold this place. They are the words ㅈ and ㅂ. They are only used with relative participles, and may be said to express that which, he who, etc. The “which” or “who” being then considered the subject of the verb contained in the preceding participle. It must be remembered, however, that the employment of these words is largely restricted to books.
From the very nature of the case, the conditions of the Korean language present us with two sets of numerals. The one pure Korean, the other Sinico-Korean.

The pure Korean numbers carry us only as far as ninety-nine, and above this we are forced to rely entirely upon those derived from Chinese.

The pure Korean numbers may serve either as substantives or adjectives, and a few of them have two forms, which may be termed, respectively "substantive form," and "adjective form." With the number the substantive form can never be used adjectively, in all the others it may; but the special adjective form can never take the place of the substantive. To the substantive forms may be affixed the various postpositions, but this of course cannot be done with the adjective forms. Commonly the adjective forms are only used as high as six. Of course the rule given before, concerning the use of Sinico-Korean and pure Korean terms, holds here also: and properly the pure Korean numerals can only be used qualifying pure Korean nouns.
When the substantive form is used substantively it does not qualify the noun as an adjective; but stands in apposition to, and follows it. This being the case, when this is done, we may often find a Sinico-Korean word standing in apposition to a pure Korean numeral substantive.

The adjective and substantive forms from one to six are given below.

**Adjectives.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>한</th>
<th>수나</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>두</td>
<td>돈</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>세</td>
<td>셋</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>넷</td>
<td>넷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>다섯</td>
<td>다섯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>여섯</td>
<td>여섯</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Substantives.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>수나</th>
<th>한</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>돈</td>
<td>두</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>셋</td>
<td>세</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>넷</td>
<td>넷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>다섯</td>
<td>다섯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>여섯</td>
<td>여섯</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

75.—The numerals derived from the Chinese have but one form, and that adjectival. Until we get above ninety-nine they may only be properly used with Sinico-Korean words, and must always precede the words which they qualify. When a substantive form is desired, it can only be rendered by the use of some other Sinico-Korean word, or one of the numerous "Specific Classifiers" some of which will be given further on, which word will then stand in apposition to the noun. As in the case of the pure Korean numeral, so also here, when this is done we may have a Sinico-Korean numeral, qualifying a Sinico-Korean noun, which latter stands in apposition to a pure Korean noun. In paging, figuring and numbering, the Chinese characters themselves are used, and one seldom meets with the Korean numerals spelled out in the Önmun. Even in Önmun books, the paging will be in
Chinese characters, and quite often in letters written in the native character, where numbers are mentioned, the Chinese characters may be used.

76.—We give below a list of the Korean cardinal numbers, giving first the Chinese character, then the pure Korean, and lastly the Sinico-Korean.

**Korean. Sinico-Korean.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean</th>
<th>Sinico-Korean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>一</td>
<td>일</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>二</td>
<td>이</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>三</td>
<td>삼</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>四</td>
<td>사</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>五</td>
<td>오</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>六</td>
<td>륭</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>七</td>
<td>일</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>八</td>
<td>팔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>九</td>
<td>구</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>十</td>
<td>십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>十十一</td>
<td>십일</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>十二</td>
<td>십이</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>二十</td>
<td>이십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>二十一</td>
<td>이십일</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>二十二</td>
<td>이십이</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>三十</td>
<td>삼십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>四十</td>
<td>사십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>五十</td>
<td>오십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>六十</td>
<td>륭십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>七十</td>
<td>일십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>八十</td>
<td>팔십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>九十</td>
<td>구십</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Etc.
SPECIFIC CLASSIFIERS.

77.—As has been said above, the Korean numeral has both an adjective and a substantive form. Its adjective form may be used in direct connection with the word which it limits, when it precedes it; but the Korean much prefers to place the numeral with some other word, which stands in apposition to the noun limited, after the noun. As in English, we speak of so many "head of cattle" so many "sheets of paper," so also in Korea is this form used. It is, however, carried much further here; and we find a large class of words that are used for this purpose. They have been variously termed "numerals," "auxiliary numerals," "classifying numerals," and "classifiers;" but it seems to us that the term "specific classifiers," answers more nearly the demands of the case. The following list of those most commonly in use, will greatly aid the stu-
dent; and we would urge that he take pains to make himself intimately acquainted with all, and with their use, as a mistake in this line is extremely ridiculous in the eyes of the Koreans.

개, 篇, Numeral for almost all small things, or of things of which a number may be used.

것, Piece, roll, bolt. Used for all piece goods.

길, Set as of books.

권, Volume, numeral for books. Also a measure of paper consisting of twenty sheets.

커리, Pair, numeral of all things that are made in pairs.

마리, Numeral for all animals.

명, Numeral for men.

많, (A grain). Used for almost all extremely small things.

립, Numeral for hats, mats, etc.

별, Suit, suite, a complete set, an outfit. Numeral for sets.

부, The same as 커리, used for things made in pairs and also for books.

병, The same as 자로. Numeral of things that one grasps in using.

필, Numeral for horses and oxen. Also used for 쓰 q.v.

천, Slice. Used of dried beef and fish, etc. Also, Page, chapter, book.

쌍, Brace, couple, pair. Of animals and things that go in couples but whose usefulness is not impaired when used singly.

섭 or 석, Bag, sack. Used of grains, etc.
세, Numeral for flocks, broods, crowds, etc. A company; a crowd, a flock.

정이, Measure of paper. 100 정. Numeral of all large round things, as,—pumelos, leaves of bread.

동, Bundle. Numeral of things bound together.

자로 The same as 병. Numeral for all things that are grasped in using.

삭, Numeral for one of pairs.

장, Sheet, leaf. Numeral for such, and for letters and notes. Used also for chapters of a book.

좌, Numeral for houses, tables, chairs or anything that sets firmly on a broad base.

쪽, Piece, numeral for parts of anything.

처, Numeral for boats, and ships.

78.—The following are a few examples of the use of the above words.

개. 비혼 개사 오너라. Buy a pear.

키리. 집신 혼 키리 사면 You had better buy a pair of straw shoes.

도켓소. Two dogs are fighting together.

מיד. 개 두 마리가 서로 How many Japanese soldiers are there?

싸호오. Do not drop a single grain of corn.

명. 일본 군수가 몇 명 There are two pair of pigeons on that house.

이오. What is the price of a bundle of wood?

낫, 곡식을 혼 낫 도 혼너 Do not drop a single grain 지 마라. of corn.

지 마라. There is not a single pen

상, 더 집에 비돌이 두 상 쓸 것 입소. that can be used.
How many double pages of the book have you written to-day.

Eat a piece of muskmelon.

**KOREAN MONEY.**

79.—When foreigners first came to Korea the Koreans had only, what is known in the East as "cash" as a circulating medium. Around the capital the "five cash piece" and in the interior the old one cash piece were in use. The unit of currency, however, was not the cash. Foreigners coming from China had taken this as the unit, and had thus made for themselves and others much confusion. The native unit was the 양 (nyang) or one hundred cash, this was divided into ten 품 (póón) or 닥 (nip). This last stood simply for "one piece" (of money) and hence might as a consequence, referring to the old cash, mean either simply "one cash" or referring to the new cash mean one five cash piece. On account of this difficulty, it was quite customary, when speaking of prices of small things which cost only a few cash, when the word 품 was used, if the "five cash piece" was meant to precede the price by the words 당호.

당호 품은, meant five cash.

당호 두품, meant ten cash.

In the reading of old books this must be kept in mind as well as the fact that before the introduction of money, barter was commonly assisted by the use of gold and silver according to weight in 양 and 품.
80.—After the advent of foreigners, the yen and Mexican dollar came into constant use.

Now of course the monetary system of the whole Empire applies equally here. The old Korean terms are still sometimes used and confusion has arisen from a lack of uniformity. In certain sections the 업 is used to designate twenty sen, in Seoul it most commonly means two sen and in most of Korea ten sen. More and more however the terms 업 for yen and 업 for sen are coming into vogue all over the country.

**Ordinal Numbers.**

81.—Just as there are two sets of cardinal, so there are two sets of ordinal numbers. They are formed from the pure Korean by affixing 제 to the substantive form. In the case of the first, generally the term 첫 replaces 첫. They are formed from the Sinico-Korean by prefixing the term 제. From one to one hundred then they are as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean</th>
<th>Sinico-Korean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>첫제</td>
<td>제일</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>둘제</td>
<td>제이</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>셋제</td>
<td>제삼</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>넷제</td>
<td>제사</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>다섯제</td>
<td>제오</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>여섯제</td>
<td>제육</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>일곱제</td>
<td>제칠</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>여덟제</td>
<td>제팔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>아홉제</td>
<td>제구</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>열제</td>
<td>제십</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>열전제</td>
<td>제십일</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Koreans do not make a distinction between the terms month and moon, as since their calendar month is a lunar month, they are co-ordinate. They designate them, then, as the "first moon," "second moon," etc, using Sinico-Korean terms: and every third year adding a thirteenth month, which they call 윈월, or 윈, which is variously interspersed, their calendar corresponding with the Chinese. The names of the months are:

정월..........................The first moon.
이월..........................The second moon.
삼월..........................The third month.
수월..........................The fourth moon.
오월..........................The fifth moon.
육월..........................The sixth month.
칠월..........................The seventh month.

Times and Seasons.
The eighth moon.  
The ninth moon.  
The tenth moon.  
The eleventh moon.  
The twelfth moon.  

(The extra month in the Korean leap-year.

Note.—As will be seen, pure Korean terms may be used for the eleventh, twelfth, or leap months.

The western calendar has however now been the legal calendar for some years and little by little it will displace the old.

83.—Their months vary in length from twenty-nine to thirty days, and are designated respectively from their size 적은 동 or 쇼월 (little moon) and 큰 동 or 대월 (big moon).

In naming their days, either series of numerals may be used, but of course with the corresponding term for day. The pure Korean terms have undergone certain contractions and modifications, as can be seen from the table below. In speaking of the day of the month from the first to the tenth, the term PREFIXED, is prefixed and we speak of the “first first” the “first second” the “first third,” etc. This arises from the fact that when they speak of those above ten or twenty, it is not necessary to prefix the ten or the twenty. Koreans suppose that most people will know whether they are in the first, second or third ten days. If then it is the seventh, seventeenth or twenty-seventh, and they are asked what day of the month it is, it is perfectly proper, and in fact customary for them simply to reply “The seventh.” If, even then, it is not certain what day of
the month it is, the inquirer would again ask "Which seventh?" and the reply would be, "The first seventh," "the seventeenth," "or the twenty seventh" as the case might be. This practice is not universal, but quite common and follows out the Korean custom of using as few words as possible. We have then the following as the days of the month.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KOREAN</th>
<th>SINICO-KOREAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>초월로......... 초일일.......... The first.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초이월 or 초월, 초이일.......... &quot; second.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초삼일.......... third.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초수일.......... fourth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초오월.......... fifth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초육일.......... sixth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초칠일.......... seventh.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초팔일.......... eighth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초구일.......... ninth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초십일.......... tenth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초십일.......... eleventh.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초십일.......... fifteenth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초십일.......... twentieth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초십일.......... twenty-first.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>초사월......... 초십일.......... twenty-second.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>금음......... 삼십일.......... last day of the month.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

84.—If we drop off the 초, which precedes the first ten of the above days of the month; the names of the days may also be used to express duration of time: and 일로, or 일일, may mean either one day or the first day;
열흘, or 십 일, may mean ten days or the tenth day; 보름, or 십 오 일, fifteen days or the fifteenth day.

Often when used this way, they will affix such words as 간, 동안, meaning space, duration. 금 음, meaning the last day of the month, cannot of course be used in this way.

85.—Until recently Koreans divided their day into twelve, instead of twenty four hours; and, in speaking of the hour, they did not as we do, refer to the end of the hour, but to the whole time covered by it. Thus 오시], which is the Korean hour which comes in the middle of the day, and corresponds to our time from eleven A.M. to one P.M., means neither, eleven, twelve, nor one o'clock, but the whole time from eleven to one. To say then, that you will meet a person at 오시, or noon, is extremely indefinite. If one desires to be more definite the terms 초 “the beginning,” 중 “the middle,” and 말 or 것 “the end.” may be used: 오시초, will then be a little past eleven, 오시중, about twelve, and 오시것, a little before one.

The times of the night were known throughout the country, by the five watches; the beginning of which were signalized at each magistracy, either by drum beating or horn blowing. In the farming sections, where sundials and anything resembling a time-piece is unknown, such primitive terms as “sunrise” and “sunset,” “when the sun is high in the east” or “low in the west,” the “first” and “second cock-crowing,” are used to mark the time.

The introduction of foreign time-pieces, however, has changed all this; and the foreign hours are marked by the use of the adjectival numerals, either pure or Sinico-
Korean, with the word 시 (time, or hour). It should be noted that while the Sinico-Korean numerals may be used; the pure Korean are more commonly heard. The minutes are represented by the word 분 together with generally the Sinico-Korean numerals; but either may be used. In speaking of the time then, the hour preceded by its numeral comes first, and then the minute preceded by its numeral.

As:

열시 or 섭시.................. Ten o’clock.
열두시 or 십이시.......... Twelve o’clock.
다섯시 오분............... Five minutes past five.
여섯시 십오분............... A quarter past six.
일곱시 반.................. Half past seven.
일곱시 스십오분 } ...... A quarter to eight.

The difference between “A.M.” and “P.M.” can only be marked by such words as, “before noon” and “afternoon,” “morning” and “evening.”

Fractions and Multiples.

86.—Fractional numbers are not used by Korean to the same extent as by foreigners. We find such words as 반 and 절반 to express half, and 반반 or “half, half,” to express a quarter. Other fractions may be expressed by the use of 분 “a part,” which being Sinico-Korean generally requires corresponding numerals.

삼분 지일 { “three part-of, one” or “of three parts, one” } = One third.
소분 지일, “Four part-of, one” = One fourth.
오분 지상, “Five part-of, three” = Three fifths.
십분 지륙, “Ten part-of, six” = Six tenths.
These same quantities may be expressed by the use of Pure-Korean numerals; but if such is done, the post-position must be used, and the result is clumsy and awkward. We would then have:

세분 예 두분 "Three part-in two part" = two thirds.
다섯분 예 네분 "Five part-in four part" = four fifths.
두분 예 흔분 "Two part-in one part" = one half.

87.—Various words such as, 감, 동감, 감절, 금, 금절, 비, etc., hold the place of multiples in Korean, and are affixed to the various numerals. 비, being Sinico-Korean, must be used with the corresponding numerals; the others, for the most part, being restricted to pure Korean numerals; 동감, 감절 and 금절, may be used independently, without any numeral, and have then the sense of double.

The following examples will illustrate the use of these words:

이 보다 삼비 가저 Bring three times as much as this.
오너라. The price is twice as much.
감시 감절 되엿소. This is twice as large as that.
이 거시 그것 보다 크기 동감 이요.
어제 가져온 거슨 오늘 열곱 이요.

What you brought yesterday was ten times what you have to-day.

88.—Interest on money is, for the most part, reckoned per month; and the rate is expressed by so many cash per nyang, though the word nyang is universally left to be understood. The word 벌 (interest) is affixed to the amount and, 흔푼벌, means one cash interest or
“one cash per hundred” and equals *one per cent*. Interest at less than one per cent is seldom spoken of in Korea, and when it is, the term 을 (equivalent to one tenth of a 푽 or cash) is used. We have then the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Term</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>혼리면 or 일리면</td>
<td>1/10 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오리면</td>
<td>1/10 % or 1/5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>혼푼면 or 일푼면</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>혼돈면 or 대돈면</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discount on bills or prices is expressed by the use of 할리 (割利) prefixed of the numerals and means "tenth discount" and we have the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Term</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>일할리</td>
<td>1/10 or 10% discount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>이할리</td>
<td>1/10 or 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>수할리</td>
<td>1/10 or 40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오할리</td>
<td>1/10 or 50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>팔할리</td>
<td>1/10 or 80%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

89.—The Korean word 번, which has by some been termed a multiple, has the sense of the English word *time* or *times*; and is affixed to numerals of either kind. Then 세번 or 삼번 means three times; 네번 or 소번, four times, etc. To these may be added the particle 재, which gives an ordinal sense; and 세번재 becomes "the third time;‟ 네번재, "the fourth time;” 다섯번 재, the fifth time. While this 재 may at times be affixed to 번, when accompanied by Sinico-Korean numerals, it is not common and is considered inelegant.

**Weights and Measures.**

90.—To the student of Korean, a knowledge of all the weights and measures used in Korea is unnecessary;
but a few words concerning those most commonly used may be of service. The one main difficulty everywhere was, that there was no one authorized and regularly acknowledged standard.

In measures of small length, carpentering, etc., the 拃 or what we might call foot, is the unit; but the 목척 or carpenter’s 拃, varies considerably from that used to measure cotton goods; and this again from that used in measuring silks, satins, etc. Whatever the 拃 used, one tenth will be one 寸 or inch, which is again divided into ten 분; the 寸 and 분 varying of course with the 拃. The 목척 exactly equals the English foot of twelve inches. The 拃 used in measuring cloth goods, varies from eighteen to twenty-two inches, but the usual length is about twenty inches. In measuring cord, wire and the like, the 발 (fathom or brace), the distance from hand to hand with arms outstretched; in measuring depths, the 긝 (man’s height); and in measuring small lengths, quite frequently, the 셔 (span), the distance from thumb to middle finger, are used.

The measure of distance, or 리, has been said to be about one third of a mile, but the 리 itself varies so much in different localities, that no definite comparison can be made. It is short among the mountains and long on the plains; and it has been aptly remarked that the Korean 리 is hardly a measure of distance, but should rather be called a measure of the time taken to travel the distance; as, in ordinary Korean travelling with coolies and pack ponies, it averages an hour for every ten 리 whether they be long or short.

91.—The Korean weights were the same as the Chinese, and the 両 or catty, was about one and one third English
pounds. It is divided into sixteen 양 (nyang), or ounces, which are again divided into ten 돔, the 돔 into ten 콸, the 콸 into ten 리.

In the measuring of grain still greater confusion existed. The system used in the country districts differed entirely from that used in Seoul. The measures used in the country were as follows:

- Ten 소 = one 홍 or about one handful.
- Ten 홍 = one 되.
- Ten 되 = one 백.
- Twenty 백 = one 석 or 석 or one bag.

Note.—The 소 is only used in computing government taxes.

The measures used in Seoul differed largely from these. It took three of the above 되 and a little more, to make one 화인되.

- Ten 화인되, (commonly spoken of as ten 되) = one 백.
- Four 백 = one 석 or bag.

This latter 백, contained about one and a half pecks.

All this has however been now changed: standard weights and measures have been introduced throughout the whole land and correspond to those in use in Japan proper.

Land was measured either by the amount of grain taken to sow it, (and from the above we get the measures 석 직 이, 마직이, 되직이): or, as in some parts of the United States, by the number of days it will take to plough it.

92.—In closing this chapter on numerals, we would notice a peculiar use of the adjectival numeral 셉. It is often placed before other numerals, or nouns signifying quantity, distance, amount, etc., to give an indefinite sense; and may then be translated by the English word
"about." 즈음, placed after the numeral, has also this same effect and may often be used in conjunction with 훗, following the numeral or quantity which 훗 precedes.

Ex. —

그 집이 훗 육십 간뇌요. That house contains about sixty kan.

나히 훗 오십 즈음 된 뜻 훗요. His age is probably somewhere about fifty.

Note.—To the Chapter on nouns, as well as elsewhere, attention was called to the fact, that the plural ending 倫, like the postpositions, was only to be used when its absence would cause ambiguity. We would here remind the student, that when numerals are used, (according to the rule then given) unless special emphasis is desired, 倫 should not be used. Let him then, when talking Korean, not speak of five houses but five house, etc.
CHAPTER VI.

THE POSTPOSITION.

93.—There is a large class of words, which are affixed to nouns, and show their relation to some other word or words in the sentence. Some of these have arbitrarily been taken and made to stand as case inflections or parts of the noun. For such an arbitrary selection, there can be no authority. If some are case inflections all should be taken as such. Such a method would, however, complicate matters greatly, and it is far more simple to consider all these, as separate words or postpositions. Most of them were originally nouns or parts of nouns; this, however, is not the place to enter upon a study of derivations and the original meanings of words, since we are neither making a language nor trying to force one that exists at present to conform to ancient and now obsolete rules, but taking a language as we find it to-day, and trying to systematize it and show how it is used. In this connection, it may be well to note that certain compound postpositions, and other words, have in the course of time undergone changes; and the form of the original simple postposition, from which these compounds were made, has been lost. Some have desired to change this and go back to the original and correct form. This, however, is not the part of a gram-
marian, who must take facts as he finds them, and show perhaps the order of the change, but can go no further.

We find three classes of postpositions which we will call Simple, Composite, and Verbal: Composite being made up of a noun and a simple postposition.

**Simple Postpositions.**

94.—The simple postpositions are:

- 이, 가, 섬서 ...... Signs of the Nominative.
- 이 .................. *The man who.*
- 의 .................. *Of*; sign of Genitive case.
- 의계, 안데, 데러(To, from, at, unto); Signs of the
  셔 .................. Dative case.
- 에 .................. *In, into, to, at*; called by some the
  sign of Locative case.
- 을 .................. Sign of Accusative case.
- 로 or 으로 ........ By, with, by means of, for; Sign of
  Instrumental case.
- 아 .................. Sign of Vocative case.
- 에서, 빌러 ........ From, at, since; Sign of Ablative
  case.
- 은 .................. As for, as far as, regarding; Sign of
  Oppositive case.
- 서지* ............... To, up to, as far as.
- 야 .................. Only, but, merely.

95.—Before we speak of all the various postpositions and their uses, it may be well to mention a few of the rules governing the euphonic changes that these particles undergo, in uniting with the nouns.

* The Korean word *서지* is more than the English equivalent here given and means *up to and including* being always used thus inclusively if the word it modifies.
Nouns ending with 유 or 만 generally interpose an 만 before the postposition: A few nouns in 만 may interpose 만, but when this is done, it will be generally found that there are two forms, and that either the form in 만 or 만 can equally well be used.

Note.—We are pretty safe in saying that this difference between 만 and 치, arises from what was originally a difference in the final letter of the word. No word can end in 치; no word ending in 만 is pronounced as though it were 만; consequently the distinction between words ending in 만 and 치, was lost. It re-appears, when a postposition, beginning with a vowel is affixed. For example 만 (hat) pronounced now kat, was evidently originally pronounced with the sound of s. 만 (field) on the other hand evidently ended originally in 치, which being unable to stand at the end of a word became 만. When the postposition is added, however, the old difference of sound re-appears, and we have 만시 for hat with the nominative ending; and 만 자 for field.

The Korean does not like to have the vowel 오 (en) in a syllable preceded by 만, 치, or 유; consequently in all such places, this letter is replaced by 오 ("lower a"). In a few cases of nouns ending in vowels, and some, ending in 유, the letter 오 is interposed, and becomes the initial letter of the postposition. In many cases of nouns ending in vowels, contractions occur; but for the most part, these are not allowable in writing.

96.—이, 가, 섬시. These three postpositions are all signs of the Nominative case, but (like all postpositions, as has been said before) are only used when the sense requires it.

이 may be joined to any noun; and, according to the rules given above, may become 시, 치, or 시. When preceded by a vowel the initial 오 may be dropped, and, without any initial consonant, it may be placed below its noun.
가 can only be used with nouns ending in vowels. With such, the postposition 가 is more commonly used than 이, though the latter may always be used.

서서 is an honorific, and is commonly used, for the Nominative case. At times, it is used to represent other cases; but such a practice is wrong and should be avoided.

어제 보낸 사람 이 다 왔소. All the men you sent yesterday have come.

가치 대단히 비싸오. The hats are terribly dear.

조선에 호랑이가 만소. Tigers are plentiful in Korea.

 нед 석서 오늘 저녁히오. The King goes out today.

97.—The postposition 이 has also another use: it is added to Relative Participles in the sense of—*the man who, he who*. Used in this sense, it is probably derived from 인, the 레 having been elided; and when so used, it can be followed by any one of the other postpositions.

어제 였이. He who came yesterday.

98.—의. This postposition means of, and denotes the Possessive case. According to the rules given above this may become 회, or 서, or, when preceded by a vowel, a contraction may occur. While, for the most part, any such contractions would not be allowable in writing, in certain words, prominent among which are the personal and interrogative pronouns, they are both allowable and common.

내 책 왔소. My books have come.

오늘은 낮금의 탄일이오. Today is the King's birthday.

그옷서 빛칠 솔화여 녹오. I don't like the color of these clothes.
99. — 의계, 안례, 득례, 셰. These four all mean—from, at, unto, etc., and denote the Dative case. 의계 may become 최계, 식계, and at times, simply 계. This last, although quite common in speaking is, with a few exceptions, not allowable in writing. 의계 can be replaced by 안례 or 득례, which have exactly the same effect, or 셰, which is honorific. While these words originally meant to, unto, at, they are also used with verbs of receiving, in the sense of at the hand of, or from.

이칙 리서방 의계주어라. Give this book to Mr Yi.
박서방 안례 내가 은전 I received ten dollars from
십원 받았소.
글썽고 시분이 의계 척이 Books are valuable to one
진승오.
민판서 의계 하인이 대 There are a great many
단이 만소.

With Passives and Intransitives, 의계 and 안례 often correspond to the English word by.

포교 안례 잡ختص소. They were arrested by the
도적 농의계 죽ختص소. He was killed by robbers.
(Here the Koreans use the intransitive, he died).
그 사람 안례 속ختص소. I was cheated by that man.

100.—을 is the sign of the Accusative case. It may become according to the rules given above 즈 or 술, etc. After nouns ending in a vowel, it commonly becomes 줄. In many places where we would suppose it necessary, it is omitted: and its presence in a sentence where it is not really needed, has the effect of the definite article.

그 사람 이제개를 죽ختص소. That man killed his dog.
The doctor gave the medicine.

Sometimes this postposition may also be translated by the English, for, about, of, to.

I (or he) waited five hours for him.

As for the book, give it to that man.

We were talking about what you told us yesterday.

We were speaking of you just now.

The original sense of 에 is in, into, to, at, and it may consequently many times be used for 의해. It may be changed for euphony into 해 or 서.

The distinction between 에 and 의해, is, while not always rigidly adhered to, that 의해 cannot be used of any but animate objects. Thus you would not say 퀴 의해 두었다; but 퀴 에 두었다 (Put it in the book); you would not say 집 의해 가기라 but 집 에 가기라; (Go home). Properly, 에 should only be used with inanimate objects.

My ring fell into the river.

Do any Americans live in your neighbourhood?

It is in the book.

There is plenty of that at home.

Put them into the box.

Send this duck to the kitchen.
With intransitive and passive verbs, at times 였에 corresponds to the English words by or with.

He was killed with a knife.
It was burnt by fire.

Note—The distinction made in the use, on the one hand of 에, 의게 or 안에; and on the other hand of 로; with the Passive or Intransitive verb is not always adhered to.

Where the instrument is considered as the instrument in the hands of some one else, 로 may be used; but when it is considered as the agent accomplishing the result 에 or 의게 must be used.

On this account we cannot say—포교 로 잡혀서; but as seen above we may say—포교 의게 잡혀서 (he was arrested by the police).

Of course the distinction between 에 and 의게 mentioned above is maintained here also.

102.—로 This postposition has the sense of—by, with, by means of, for. It generally denotes that by which anything is accomplished—the instrument used.

When joined to a syllable ending with a consonant, it becomes 으로. This, again, according to the rules given above, may become 희로, 스로, or 씨로. When preceded by the consonant ㄹ, there is no need for the interposition of the vowel: 로 becomes 노, and the ㄹ and ㅗ coming together have the sound of double l.

Cut it with a knife.
Fasten it with a string.
What is this called in Korean?
We came by the mountain road.
I took you for Mr. Song.

This postposition has also the sense of to, and from. From its meaning as the instrument, it comes to mean
the place from which one begins, or at which one ends a journey.

I came from Pyeng Yang and am going to Kong Ju.

Note.—From this use of this postposition ambiguity may arise, and 송도로 갑소 may mean either that he ends his journey at Song Do, and has gone there; or that on his way to some other place, he has gone via Song Do.

103.—아 This postposition was probably originally derived from 에 but has now lost its original meaning, and is used as an exclamatory particle, representing what may be termed the "Vocative Case." From the very nature of the case, it is not as commonly used as many of the other postpositions. It may at times become 와, and generally does so when following a vowel, and of course like the other postpositions becomes 사 or 하, and at times, though very rarely 어.

104.—에서. This postposition is properly a contraction of 에 and the verbal participle 잇서 from 잇소 (to be); and has the sense of—being at, or, having been at. From this, then, we get, in English, the sense of—from, since, at; referring to the time or place at which, or from which anything takes place. Euphonically it may change to 해서 or 시서, and quite often is contracted to simple 서. It has generally been regarded as the sign of the Ablative case.

미국 서 쳐 왔소. A box came from America.
의아문에서 밋낫소. I met him at the Foreign Office.
여기서 송도가 며 레오. How far is it from here to Song Do.
105.—은 This postposition has generally been classified as the sign of the Oppositive case, because of its constant use in contrasts. It has the effect of emphasizing the word to which it is joined, and may be translated into English by the words—as far, as far as, with regard to. In many places where in English, the contrast of the words, or the emphasis desired to be given, is sufficiently plain without these words, in Korean this postposition will be used. For instance, with the indefinite pronominal adjective 데 뤼 (some), in English we consider the repetition of the word sufficient emphasis, and, while this is allowable in Korean, the two words, each with the postposition would be preferable.

Following a vowel, this becomes 은, and according to the rules given at the beginning of this chapter, it may also become 흘, or 승, or 족.

내가 시간은 아조 넓소.
이 흐름은 미우 넓소.
공의 편지 는 쓰겼소.
맏손 리월에 쓰겼소.

Now I am quite well.
(I have been sick).
These apples are much nicer.
With regard to your letter, it will do.
As far as the flowers are concerned, next month will do.

This same postposition may be added also to verbal participles, when it has a conditional effect; and may be used either of the present or future. Sometimes its effect is simply temporal.
When my eyesight was good, I could read books easily.

If you were to fall into the water, you would drown.

If you don’t take this, you will die.

This postposition also may be, and is quite frequently, added to other postpositions. It emphasizes thereby, not the postposition, but the word to which that postposition is joined.

106.—보려. The postposition 보려 has the sense of from, since, and refers to either time or place. In many cases, it takes the place of 에서. It may be written 브럼.

Note.—This word will often be found written with a 려 instead of 려—but the best authorities write 보려, and 보려 is seldom met with to-day.

From to-day on, do your work well.

I have not eaten a morsel since the day before yesterday.

He has been getting worse from the time you left.

From Hwangju to Chungwha there was nothing but mud.

107.—서지 is the opposite of 보려 and means, up to, as far as, to. It is inclusive.
The English words to, up to, till etc are not the exact equivalents for 

여기 십 훤 시지 보아도 

아니 맛았소.

오리골 샤지 가서 맛낫소

물이 몰 가슴 시지 띄소.

오한복음십칠장시지보라.

철일시지잇스라고ᄒᆞ엿소.

I offered, up to ten yen but he would not take it.

We went as far as Oricole, and met them there.

The water came up to the horse's chest.

Read to the eighteenth chapter of John's Gospel.

He asked me to stay till the end of the seventh month.

In a few cases, but rarely, this word is found written but it is not elegant and should not be imitated.

108.—아. This postposition has heretofore been overlooked as such. It may be joined to nouns, adverbs and is largely found added to verbal participles. It is exclusive in its use and has the sense of,—only, merely.

With a verbal participle, and followed by the future of must. Followed by the future of any other verb it has the effect of stating what must be done in order to accomplish the act, or bring about the state expressed in the principal verb.

As there are cannon, is there any use in mere bows?
THE POSTPOSITION.

Since that man has been dead for some time, the mere bringing of medicine is useless.

Such as that can only be found in the Palace.

One must have a boat to cross the sea.

Man must eat to live.

You must work, to receive wages.

I must have paper to write on.

The carpenter must come, if we are to work together.

I must go to Hain Heung next month.

나나. This word is properly a conjunction, but in many cases it takes the place of a postposition. It may be written 이나 and corresponds to the English "or," "either." Repeated it is "either...or." Used alone as a postposition joined to a noun, it has the sense of, at least. Joined to verbs it has a concessive force. In this place, however, we have but to deal with it as a postposition meaning, at least, even.

I at least will go.

Even this will do.

가. This word, also, can hardly be called a postposition as it is not added to nouns. It is joined to almost any verbal form, and asks a question. It is not used so
much in asking questions of another, as in soliloquies where one is in doubt or in hesitation.

SHAII I go?
Shall I take it away?
Will it rain to-day?
Is it good?
If I take the medicine shall I get better?
Shall I eat it or not?

100.—In many cases one or more postpositions may be combined, just as in English we use one or more prepositions.

In these cases, for the most part, the effect of all the postpositions is manifest.

The following sentences will illustrate this:—

I can't do it with such skill as that man shows.
That's something I have not seen in this book.
As far as the king is concerned, he is a good man.
He came from Japan.
Send it to Mr. Yi.
It is well worth taking great care, in paying a visit to the king.

111.—The composite postpositions are nouns to which are affixed simple postpositions, and which are now in turn affixed to other nouns in a sentence and hold the same place as simple postpositions. A few of them are
given below. It will be noticed that in some cases the simple postposition has slightly changed its form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inside of, inside.</th>
<th>Lower part of, or below.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outside of, outside.</td>
<td>This side of, on this side,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the top of, above.</td>
<td>That side of, on that side.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below, underneath.</td>
<td>Instead of, in place of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the side of, beside.</td>
<td>Inside of, inside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behind.</td>
<td>Outside of, outside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Front of, in front.</td>
<td>After.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On account of.</td>
<td>Before.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of.</td>
<td>At the end of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the side of.</td>
<td>At the side of.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

112.—In the use of these composite postpositions, originally the simple postposition \\ was placed after the noun before the composite postposition; but this is no longer done except in a few very rare instances, the composite postposition directly governing the noun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In front of the house.</th>
<th>“On account of that man.”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inside the box.</td>
<td>Outside of thought, unexpectedly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the table.</td>
<td>Instead of you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneath the box.</td>
<td>“On this side of the road.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
113.—There are a number of verbal participles that are now used as postpositions. They can follow a noun, or at times are preceded by a simple postposition. When met with, they can generally be recognized in a moment, but a few are given below as examples.

위해서, "In behalf of," "For the sake of."
인해서, "Because of," "On account of."
 넘어, "Having gone over," beyond.
전너, "Having crossed," across.
114.—It has been said, and that rightly, that the verb presents the greatest difficulty which the student has to meet in the study of Korean. This difficulty arises not so much from the great variety of forms to express time and mood, through which the verb may be carried: as from the number of nouns, adverbs, conjunctions etc., which may be joined to it, slightly changing its meaning, or from the way in which any verb can play into almost any other. No fully adequate classification of these various words and forms has as yet been made. They have been joined to the verb, and most of them classed under the general head of terminations. Admitting, as all those in the verb form do, of being put in turn through a complete conjugation, the whole subject has presented to the student, an almost impassable barrier. If, however, we can take these various forms, separate them into their elements, and show rules by which they are joined, matters will be greatly simplified.

An attempt to do this has been made in the following pages, and while the writer realizes how inade-
quately this has been done, he trusts that the classification aimed at and begun, will enable the student not only to carry it to its completion, but to gain a firm grasp of the verb in all its forms.

115.—One thing to be remembered in connection with the Korean verb is its absolute impersonality, and its entire lack of number. This was hinted at, while speaking of the Korean personal pronoun. The same form is used for first, second, or third person, singular or plural, and, as has been said before, these distinctions are left to the context.

116.—There are a few forms, which from the very nature of the case, can only belong to one or other of the persons. In such cases, however, the person is expressed rather in the sense of the verb than in its form. For example, in the expression for direct command, one does not "command" oneself, nor can the "command" be said to be in the third person, it can only be in the second.

As:—

어서 가거라.

(Go quickly).

Here of course this can only be in the second person; and as in English, it may be addressed to one or more. If one is desirous of showing that the direction is addressed to more than one, it may be done by the insertion of the plural particle 들, immediately after the adverb, and we have.

어서 들 가거라.

(Go ' (plur)' quickly).

This last shows that the command is addressed to more than one.
117.—Again in what we have termed *Volatile mood, first person*, the first person exists in the very meaning of the word. It is a proposition, that the speaker, together with the person or persons addressed, shall act. We can then but call it, "first person plural," making it equivalent to the English "Let us."

As

(LET US GO UP NAM SAN).

118.—There are also a few forms which have been said to designate the first person, but these too, as was remarked above, get their *first person* rather from their sense, and may be termed forms of *assent*, or *compliance*.

Thus we have the termination *마*, which is affixed to the stem of the verb giving it this sense.

Note.—Sometimes euphony requires that ∷ shall be inserted between the stem and this ending.

Then, in reply to a request, in assenting, we have:—

그럼 갈게.
(*Then I will go*).

or

قانون 마
(*I will make it*).

We have also a first personal termination *노라*, which may replace the termination of any one of the simple tenses, and can then only refer to the person speaking. This is commonly a book form.

그것 회노라, I am doing that.

이것 노라, I will do that.

이것 노라, I did that.

 nósu ít
With these exceptions, which in reality can scarcely be called such, we repeat; "There is no such thing as person or number in Korean verbs."

**Different kinds of verbs.**

119.—We divide Korean verbs into two classes, Active and Neuter; giving to these terms not the sense in which they are used by most grammarians, but that given in the "Grammaire Coréenne." All verbs that express action, whether the subject acts or is acted upon, whether the action does or does not terminate on some object, we call active verbs.

From the standpoint then of foreign grammarians, the Korean active verb may be either, active or passive, transitive or intransitive.

120.—Neuter verbs are those which predicate a quality of the subject, and have been termed by many, "Adjectival verbs." As will be seen further on, there are but few true adjectives in Korean, and even these few were originally nouns. For the most part when a quality is predicated of a noun, a verb is used; and if the adjectival form is desired, the relative participle must be employed.

121.—It may be said that Korean verbs, have three distinct voices, Active, Causative and Passive. From the very nature of the case, many verbs do not admit of all three voices, and in some we find but an Active and a Causative, in some simply an Active and a Passive, but in some again, all three. A large number of Korean active verbs have a passive sense as עונש (to be cheated) and these when put in the causative voice give us
naturally the equivalent of the English transitive verb. Such verbs admit of no passive voice, and although according to rule, it might be formed, from the nature of the case it is useless. Some neuter verbs on the other hand, forming a causative give us the effect of the English transitive verb. A passive of these causatives may be formed, but the Korean prefers to return to his neuter form. For example the neuter verb

모래오, To be dry.

becomes 물니오, To make to be dry, or to dry.

The passive of this can be formed and we would then have

물을이오, To be dried.

This last is perfectly correct according to rule, but it is not what the Korean would use. He would prefer to return to the neuter verb and say simply, “It is dry.”

122.—The method of forming the passive and causative voices being so similar, among Koreans themselves there is much confusion in this matter. The causative voice may be formed by the addition of 오, 오, or ㅓ to the verbal stem. Causative forms usually are made from neuter or intransitive verbs, or even from those transitive verbs which are used at times intransitively. The addition to the stem of the verb is of course much modified by the final letter of the stem. After vowels we commonly find the form in 오 or ㅓ; though the form in 오 is also quite frequent. After 오 or ㅏ; ㅜ is often inserted, giving us ㅣ instead of 오; after ㅗ, or a form in which there is a latent aspirate; 하 will be used. But these changes, as will be seen at a glance, are all euphonic, and to these rules
there are many exceptions. A few of these causative forms are given below.

녹소, To melt (v.i.) ... 녹이오; To make to melt, to melt (v.t.).
죽소, To die ... 죽이오, To kill.
우오, (r. 옠) To cry ... 울니오, To make to cry.
지오, To carry ... 지우오, To load.
먹소, To eat ... 먹이오, To feed.
볼소, To be bright ... 볼이오, To make bright, to lighten.

식소, To be cold ... 식이오, To cool.
눕소, To be high ... 냉히오, To elevate.
녀르소, To be broad ... 널니오, To broaden.
보오, To look ... 보이오, To show.
써오, To awake ... 써우오, To waken.
더울소, To be hot ... 데오, or 데우오, To heat.

123.—All verbs do not admit of such a causative from, but a causative sense can always be given by the use of the future verbal participle with 헌오, which, however, often has the sense of to force, to make, to oblige, to compel, and is the stronger of the two.

가게히오, To make him go.
호게히오, To make him come.
큼게히오, To make to be beautiful.

124.—The passive voice is formed by affixing 오 to the stem, and, as has been noted above, it may be affixed to the stem of either an active or causative verb. From the nature of the case the passive voice can only be formed from verbs having a transitive sense. For the most part, however, the Koreans prefer not to use these forms, and
as is noted in Part II on passive constructions, the English passive is generally rendered into Korean by a change of form. As was seen in ¶ 121, where there is an intransitive verb expressing the idea of the passive, it is preferred. The Korean verb “to kill” being the causative voice of their verb “to die,” in place of saying “he was killed,” which would be a passive of their causative voice, they would simply say, “he died;” and in expressing the agent “he died by” or “he died at the hands of.” A few passive forms are in constant and frequent use. Which these are, the student must learn from practice; but he will be always safe and much more in accordance with Korean usage, if he changes the form and employs an active construction. The following are sufficient to illustrate.

담소, To shut .................담치오, To be shut.
여호 (r. 열) To open ...............열니오, To be opened.
잡소, To seize ...................잡히오, To be seized.
막소, To stop ...................막히오, To be stopped.

THE CONJUGATION.

125.—It has been said, and rightly, that the Korean verb has but one conjugation, and in the formation of the various moods and tenses, there are certain regular and well defined governing laws; and these laws may in a sense he said to be the same throughout all the moods and tenses. What these laws are and how they are used, will be developed in the following paragraphs.

126.—Throughout what have been termed the various voices and forms of the verb, as, active and passive, dubitative, desiderative etc., we find these same rules holding good, and a thorough acquaintance with what
we have termed the "Basal Conjugation" and its various euphonic and other changes, will enable us to comprehend almost at a glance any other part. We shall enter, then, into a careful consideration of this conjugation.

THE BASAL CONJUGATION.*

127.—This conjugation is the basis of all other forms. All other voices or forms of what have been termed various conjugations, no matter what they may be, are not only derived from some one or other part of the Basal Conjugation; but, after they have been so derived, they may in turn, be carried through all its various forms.

Each part of the Basal Conjugation, except the participles, supine, and bases, may be divided into three parts. The Stem, the Tense root and the Termination.

Note.—The student should not confound this division with the division made with similar terms in the "Grammaire Coréenne." Their "sign of the time" did not include all that the "tense root" here does and in fact the "tense root" here given includes their "sign of the time" and part of their "termination." The "termination," as used here, differs entirely from theirs.

128.—The stem of the verb expresses simply what the action or state may be, and therefore generally remains the same throughout. It may be the stem of a simple verb, when it may also be called the root; it may be causative or passive, when it will have the causative or passive ending affixed. If the verb is in one of the more complicated forms, such as desiderative, intentional, etc., the verbal stem may include more than one word. It was just noted that the stem generally, remains the same. This was so put, because there is a class of verbs (and that

* For the complete paradigm see p. 179 and 180.
not a small one) in which, in the present tense the stem undergoes a slight change, which holds also in the relative participles.

In 가오 (to go) the stem is 가.
,, 먹소 (to eat) ,, ,, 먹.
,, 여오 (to be open) the stem is 열.
,, 열니오 (to be opened) the stem is 열니.

And in 가저오라고출오 (to order to bring), it is 가져 오라고출. In this last example, we have first 가져 the past verbal participle of the verb 가지오 (to take); 오 the stem of the verb 오오 (to come); 라 the contraction of the imperative ending, showing that it was an order; 르 the conjunction uniting it to 춰오 and used commonly in indirect discourse; and 춰오, with the sense here of to say. Dropping then the termination 오 we have the stem of the verb, to order to bring, and this may in turn be carried through the whole Basal Conjugation.

129.—The Tense Root, shows the time of the action, whether past, present, future, perfect or imperfect or even continued action. For the most part, when no tense root is expressed, the present is understood, but with Korean active verbs, we find 누 contracted into 뷰 after a stem ending in a vowel, acting as a present tense root. In the indicative, however, except in the form used to inferiors, no present tense root is used.

130.—To express past time, we have the tense root 옛 or 얀, and quite frequently 옛. Whether the compound or simple vowel should be used is entirely a matter of euphony, and it seems as though the distinction between 아 and 어 depended also on the same cause. It has been suggested that, on account of this
difference in the past tense, we classify the Korean verb as having two conjugations, the one forming its past in ṭ, the other in =edge=. This may be advisable, but when the difference exists simply in the tensal root of the past, and in the past verbal participles, and as it can be accounted for on the score of euphony, it hardly seems necessary. The past tense in this matter follows the lead of the verbal participle, and it will be noticed, that nearly all verbs the ultima of whose stem has the sound of ṭ or ᵉ, take their past tense root in ṭ while nearly all others take it in ᵜ. It will also be seen that euphony goes still further, and where the ultima of the stem requires it, we shall find a consonant prefixed to the tense root. Stems ending in ᵉ, generally prefix ṭ-, those ending in ᶫ or containing a latent aspirate, prefix ᵜ, and at times we find a final vowel uniting with the tense root.

131.—The future tense root ṭ is the simplest of all, and except in the case of verbs whose stems contain a latent aspirate, when it becomes ᶫ, it is always the same.

There is also another future tense root ᱸ though this is somewhat defective in its use with the various terminations.

Note.—The true distinction between ᱸ and ᱲ though not always adhered to, is that ᱸ signifies purpose, intent; while ᱸ is simple future.

These signify simple future time and are used where we would use the future. The future is at times, though rarely employed to render the English present and such phrases as, 알겠소 and 모른겠소 need have in truth, no future significance; but should be rendered into English by the present, I know, and I do not know. This use of the future for the present, is comparatively
rare, but on the other hand the expression of a vivid future, by the simple present is quite common.

The *past tense root* may be repeated giving us through euphony *have have done* and the effect, "have have done" or *have already done* or a *Complete or Perfect Past*.

The future tense root is at times used together with the past tense root, *will will go* giving us, as we might expect, a future past. When used in this way, the future follows the past tense root, which will be seen, is the reverse of the English method. The Korean says "I have will go," where we say "I will have gone."

132.—The particle *-ly* shows that the action signified by the verbal stem, was continuing or progressing, at the time shown by the tense root, and may be used alone, or with either the past or future tense root, or with both. When used alone, it signifies that the action was continuing or progressing, and can be used with either present or past time.

김서방 오늘 그 일 했어요 Mr. Kim is doing that today,
김서방 어제 그 일 했어요 Mr. Kim was doing that yesterday.

When used with either the future, perfect, or future-perfect tense root, this same progressive idea holds, and has the effect of taking the speaker and placing him in the time of the principal tense root. That is to say, if used with the past root, it causes the speaker to view the action not from the present as something done, but from the past, as something done in the past, giving us then, almost the exact equivalent, of the English pluperfect. With the future tense root, on the other hand, the speaker
is caused not to look at the action from the present, as something to be done in the future, but is projected forward into the future, and made to view the action as progressing then.

133.—We thus get, by the use of these various tense roots with the verbal stem, two classes of tenses which we have called "Simple" and "Compound." The simple, are formed by the use of either no tense root, or the future, or past, or both; giving us then as—

**Simple Tenses.**

- Present.
- Past.
- Perfect Past.
- Future Past.

The compound tenses, we have so named because they contain the two ideas of present, past, or future, together with that of progression. We have then, as—

**Compound Tenses**

- The Progressive (present or past).
  - 1st Pluperfect.
  - 2nd Pluperfect.
  - Continued Future.
  - Probable Future Past.

134.—A few words on the use of these tenses:

The **Present** represents action simply as in present time, whether continuing or not.

(A)

It is used to express general truth;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>장마가치마마여름에지오</th>
<th>The rainy season comes every summer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>이슬이담에눈리오</td>
<td>Dew falls at night,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
or as a vivid future:

We go to Seoul to-morrow.

or in historic narration as a preterit.

Now when Jesus was born in Bethlehem of Judea in the days of Herod the king, behold, there came wise men from the east by Jerusalem saying.

(Note the Korean use of presents throughout)

or of present action:

The farmer (or farmers) is eating his lunch.

The boys are reading.

Action going on in the actual present is often expressed by verbal participle with 이요

The servants are already starting.

A village boy is coming to sell chickens.

The Past represents action as past, and may correspond to what is known in Latin grammars as “perfect indefinite” (simple past action) or “perfect definite” (action completed); and thus corresponds to both the “past tense” and “present perfect tense” of later English grammars.
THE VERB.

He came to Seoul yesterday.

He has eaten his breakfast.

The Perfect Past tense, or as Dr. Gale calls it Past Perfect, was not noticed by Korean students until the appearance of Dr. Gale's "Grammatical Notes" and although in frequent use by Koreans has still been almost neglected by foreigners. It is formed by the use of the doubled past tense root and expresses a completed action. The Koreans call it a "perfected past." It is often equivalent to the English pluperfect.

When we left Inchun had we not sent a telegram to Kim Chusa?

Why! you had absolutely forgotten my commission when you were starting.

In the mean time he has been to Seoul.

That man had already left on the last boat.

The Future tense expresses what will take place in future time and corresponds to the simple English future. It is used also in many places where we would use such auxiliaries as "may," "can." At times if desired, an adverb to give the idea of ability, permission etc., may be used with the future, but this is rare, and the simple future is sufficient. Like so many other distinctions, these are left largely to the context, and it will be noticed, that the potential forms, hereafter to be mentioned in 


text extracted
I will do as you have commissioned me.
I will read that newspaper and study English at the same time.
I can finish that in six years.

The Future-past tense may at times coincide with what in English we call the future-perfect, and at times with the potential-past-perfect. Perhaps the term “past-future” would have better designated it. It represents that an action will or should or would have been done at some time in the past. This tense should not then be confounded with the English future perfect, and where the English future perfect refers to an action that will be completed, at or before a certain time in the future, this tense cannot be used.

At such times, the simple future, with some adverb signifying entirely, completely, etc., must be employed. The Korean future past will be rendered by such phrases as, “He must have,” “He will have,” “He would have,” when such phrases are used with a present or past time, and refer to some action that is, or has been completed. We consequently often find this in the conclusion of a conditional clause.

"He certainly must have come yesterday."
"He will have come by this time."
"If the doctor had not come, he would have died long ago.

"It must have been used up some time ago."

135.—To a certain extent, it will be seen that the compound tenses overlap the simple, and in many cases, as far as the foreigner is concerned, one or other of the simple tenses could be made to replace a compound tense. To the Korean, however, there is always a distinction, and the one cannot properly replace the other, therefore it should be the constant effort of the student to find out, when the one or the other should be used, and to use them accordingly. The following rules for the uses of the compound tenses while not complete in themselves will aid him in this.

The Progressive tense represents the action as incomplete, and progressing; and may be either present or past. It is, however, more commonly used in the past tense, and is then exactly equivalent to the imperfect tense of the Greek. With neuter verbs, it is almost restricted to this past tense, but even with these, it may be used in the present.

With active verbs; it may then be rendered into English, by the present participle, with the present or past of the verb "to be." With neuter verbs, it may be rendered, by the simple present, or it would be better expressed by the use of the words "continue to" or if the past sense is intended, by the simple past. It is used for the most part, of what one has seen or experienced or known and is seldom employed in any but the third person.
"There were many camellias in Japan."

We might add to this sentence the words 지금 (now) and it would be—

"There are now many camellias in Japan" but it would signify that the speaker had just seen them.

아비는 게할년도 아들은 보자런 좋더라.

"As for the Japanese they farm well."

The speaker knows this for a fact.

The 1st Pluperfect tense represents the action or state, as completed or having existed, at or before, a certain past time, and is exactly equivalent to the English pluperfect, or past perfect tense.

어제 아침 쓴 첫 번째 셋 셔였다.

"He had written three letters by breakfast yesterday."

공의 쓴 첫 번째 셔에 화문서 쓴적이다.

"When your letter came the steamer had started."

비 시작 훧째 쓴 다 심앗더라.

"He had planted all the seeds when it began to rain."

The 2nd Pluperfect tense of the Korean is formed of the adding of the particle 더 to the doubled past tense root of the Perfect Past tense. In use it is, like the 2nd Pluperfect of the Greek hardly distinguishable from the First Pluperfect. It has been termed a Continued Perfect Past. It differs not a little from the English pluperfect. A few sentences will illustrate its use:—

Last autumn the harvest from the paddy fields of Koyang was excellent.
The other day I went to see the study room at Mr. Kuk's house, certainly the old scholars had written well.

I went to see a wedding at Mr. Kal's yesterday, many guests were there.

The following illustration of the four past tenses may help to distinguish between them.

지금 사람이 얼마나 왔느냐. How many have now come?

오늘장에 사람이 얼마나 왔느냐. How many came to today's market?

어제는 장에 사람이 얼마나 왔느냐. How many had come to yesterday's market.

어제는 장에 사람이 얼마나 왔느냐. How many had come to yesterday's market, (and were still there).

The Continued Future as has been stated above, projects the speaker forward into the future, and causes him to view the action from that standpoint.

It refers then, to some action or state that will be in progress, or existing at some future time. It may be rendered into English by the use of the present participle with the future of the verb "to be," or by the colloquial phrase "going to."

"If you want to see how he makes it, he will be making it the day after to-morrow."
"He is going to finish it to-morrow."

"He did not kill to-day; he will be killing the day after to-morrow."

What we have termed the **Probable Future Past**, we have thus named, because it has the sense of the future past, given above, but with simply the idea of strong probability. It would not be used of something that is known for a fact, and it represents possibility or contingency with respect to some past action which, it is implied, did not, or may not have occurred. It may be rendered into English by the present participle, with "He must have been" or "He most probably was" etc., etc.

"Since in spite of his extreme age he draws so well, when young he was most probably a famous draughtsman."

"As he has just come out of a wine shop, he must have been drinking again."

"It must have rained last night."

136.—In the Basal Conjugation, we find that the form in **-n** is defective, and is not used with what is most commonly known as the ordinary polite termination. It is, however, found in both low and high forms. In addition to this, this form from its very nature, occurs less frequently in the direct indicative form, than when joined with one or other of the conjunctions; and it was this fact, together with the defect in the verb itself, that led the writers of the "Grammaire Coréenne" to classify the form in **-n** as a
simple imperfect, or rather as the ending for all of what they termed "Secondary tenses."

The ending \(1\) is a conjunction, and it is this absence of discrimination between conjunction, and simple termination, that has made the study of the verb, so involved. This distinction must always be made, and when we find that the English word that we have taken to represent a certain conjunction will not hold with certain forms of the verb, we have no right to conclude, that the same form, used in the same way, but after a different mood or tense of the verb is a different conjunction, but simply that the investigations that we have made thus far, have been wrong. From neglect of this rule, and from omitting almost entirely a distinction between termination proper, and true conjunction, a great deal of confusion has arisen. The cause of the want of discrimination has been, that when a conjunction unites itself to a Korean verb, the termination proper is dropped, and in the literal sense of the word, the conjunction becomes the termination. If, however, we desire to arrive at anything like a true conception of the Korean verb, this distinction must be made, and held throughout. What, we here denominate "termination" or "termination proper," is that part of a verb which ends a direct statement, in an independent sentence, and in Korean, this varies with the relative positions of the speaker and the one addressed.

In dependent clauses, the dependence is shown in Korean by the use of one or other of the conjunctions, and when this is done, as was just noted, the termination is dropped.

In exclamatory sentences also, the interjection will often be affixed to the verb, and here again the termination is dropped.
137.—In considering the terminations then, we find four classes, two obtained from the indicative mood, and two from what we have called the volitive mood.

From the Indicative... \{ Declarative. \\
Interrogative. \}

From the Volitive...... \{ Propositive. \\
Imperative. \}

The difference between the termination under each head, is the relative position of the speaker, and the person spoken to. There is also a further difference in Korean verbs, to signify the position of the subject of the act or state.

In the declarative and interrogative terminations, having to do simply with the person speaking, and the person addressed, this consideration has no effect; but in the volitive, where the person addressed and the person speaking, must in the one case, and may in the other, be at the same time, the subject of the verb, a change may and generally does occur. For a further understanding of Korean honorifics see Chap. XI, Part 1.

The old dictionaries show that originally there was an honorific form of the verb ictionaries show that originally there was an honorific form of the verb ewise in the present tense root and terminations of honorific forms.

**Declarative Terminations.**

138.—The declarative terminations as given below are given in the order of their relative use, beginning with the terms for addressing inferiors.

They are given throughout with the three verbs  to do),  to eat), and  to be deep), in the present tense.

Note.—The first two are active verbs, one with a stem ending in a vowel, the other in a consonant; the second is a neuter verb.

It will be noticed that in the form used for inferiors, the present tense root  of an active verb or a remnant of it, is generally seen. Of course this does not appear in the neuter verb, and when uniting with the other tense roots.
# DECLARATIVE TERMINATIONS.

## Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(He does).</th>
<th>(He eats).</th>
<th>(It is deep).</th>
<th>Termination.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) 히다...</td>
<td>먹는다...</td>
<td>김다...</td>
<td>다...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 히니 or 흠세</td>
<td>먹니</td>
<td>김혜...</td>
<td>이...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 히오...</td>
<td>먹소...</td>
<td>김소...</td>
<td>오 or 소...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) 히지오...</td>
<td>먹지오...</td>
<td>김지오...</td>
<td>지오...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) 히음지오...</td>
<td>먹음지오...</td>
<td>김음지오... {음지오...</td>
<td>음지오...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) 히누이다...</td>
<td>먹누이다...</td>
<td>김누이다...</td>
<td>누이다...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) 히음누이다*</td>
<td>먹음누이다...</td>
<td>김음누이다... {음누이다...</td>
<td>음누이다...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) 히음음누한다...</td>
<td>먹음음누한다...</td>
<td>김음음누한다... {음음누한다...</td>
<td>음음누한다...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) 히도다†...</td>
<td>먹도다...</td>
<td>김도다...</td>
<td>도다...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Termination.**
  - Used to servants, children, etc.
  - Used to intimate friends, aged servants, etc.
  - "Half-talk," used among equals and those who are willing to dispense with more polite forms.
  - Honorable terms in the order given.
  - Honorable term, used generally of positive beliefs.
  - Exclamatory and poetic.

*Note.—These are pronounced ham-ni-da, mok-sim-nida and kip-sim-nida.

† Changes to 로다 with verb 이오 etc.

These terminations for the most part can be used with all the simple tenses, though the future tense in 히 is defective, and as far as terminations are concerned, follows in the line of the compound tenses. In (1) and (2) the 히 or its remnant in 히 was seen. This of course disappears with the other tenses and it may also be noted that the terminations
(5) and (7) take the form in 㝷 when the verbal stem or tense root to which they are affixed ends in consonants.

Note.—It would be well, right in this place, to notice that the form in 㝷 is without doubt a remnant of the old honorific form in 㝷 and if we were to write in the ways of the ancients, should be written thus. Time, however has changed this, and to-day 㝷 is the form in common use and must then be taken as correct. The old form in 㝷 is still found in such forms as ṭọọni etc.

To illustrate the use of these terminations and their method of affixing themselves to tense roots, we give the following with the past tense.

**Past Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(He did).</th>
<th>(He ate).</th>
<th>(It was deep).</th>
<th>Termination.</th>
<th>To servants children, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
<td>ṭọọnta</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To intimate friends, girl servants, etc.

Polite form used among equals.

Honorifics in the order given.

Honorable term, used generally of positive beliefs.
139.—The Terminations in the Future tense in
and the Compound tenses are defective. In the Compound
we have only the following forms:

- Used to inferiors.
- Used to superiors.

Note. It will be noticed that in this last
becomes part of the termination.

In the Future in
, we find but three forms:

- Used to inferiors
- Used to equals
- Used to superiors

The used above, is the that ends a statement, but
is only used to inferiors and in book language. From
this, we also get another form which is a decided
statement and is much used in books.

We find also the ending used in much the same
way with any one of the tense roots, but restricted to
the first person.

Like this also there is the form of assent or agree-
ment in which is joined to the root and has a
future-sense.

140.—The following illustrate the use of these termi-
nations.

The coolies are working well
to-day.
I am making this book to
study the language.
In order to make money, I am in business.
Because I desired office I studied hard.
As the price was high the house will be a good one.
I will die for my country.
I did a good deal of work yesterday.
That man too has learned to speak well.
The train left a little while ago.
I wrote the letter some time ago.
He died a month ago.
I give this book to you.
I will go to-morrow.

**INTERROGATIVE TERMINATIONS.**

141.—The Interrogative Terminations are almost more numerous than the Declarative. They are given below in the same order and with the same three verbs as the Declarative.
**INTERROGATIVE TERMINATIONS.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Do you)</th>
<th>(Do you eat?)</th>
<th>(Is it deep)</th>
<th>Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>익누나</td>
<td>먹누나</td>
<td>김호나</td>
<td>뉘나 or 오누나</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) 익누니</td>
<td>먹누니</td>
<td>김호니</td>
<td>뉘니 or 오니</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>익누뇨</td>
<td>먹누뇨</td>
<td>김호뇨</td>
<td>뉘뇨 or 오뇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 익니†</td>
<td>먹니</td>
<td>(Used only with active verbs)</td>
<td>나</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>익지</td>
<td>먹지</td>
<td>김지</td>
<td>지</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 익노†</td>
<td>먹노</td>
<td>(Used only with active verbs)</td>
<td>노</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>익오</td>
<td>먹소</td>
<td>김소</td>
<td>오 or 소</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) 익지오</td>
<td>먹지오</td>
<td>김지오</td>
<td>지오</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) 익니翁가</td>
<td>먹니翁가</td>
<td>김니翁가</td>
<td>년 니翁가</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) 익온翁가</td>
<td>먹온翁가</td>
<td>김온翁가</td>
<td>년 온翁가</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) 익온翁가</td>
<td>먹온翁가</td>
<td>김온翁가</td>
<td>년 온翁가</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Used to servants and inferiors, the latter is familiar.

These are called 반말 or half talk and are used among friends or where one does not desire to be polite.

Polite terms among equals. Slightly honorific.

Honofrices.

* Note.—These last are pronounced hannya, Moksinaka and kipsinnika.

† Note.—In Kyeng Sarg Do both these terms may be employed as terms of respect, and are used to both superiors and inferiors.
142.—These terminations are even more regular in their use with the other tenses than the Declarative, but to illustrate their use the following table is given.

**Past Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Did you do?)</th>
<th>(Did you eat?)</th>
<th>(Was it deep.)</th>
<th>Termination.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행엇느냐}</td>
<td>{먹엇느냐}</td>
<td>{김 хозяй느냐}</td>
<td>{었느냐}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행였느냐}</td>
<td>{먹였느냐}</td>
<td>{김 хозяй니}</td>
<td>{었니}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행엇노}</td>
<td>{먹엇노}</td>
<td>{김 хозяйств}</td>
<td>{었노}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>{먹었나}</td>
<td>{Used only with active verbs.}</td>
<td>{없이}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행였나}</td>
<td>{먹였나}</td>
<td>{Used only with active verbs.}</td>
<td>{없이}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행엇지}</td>
<td>{먹엇지}</td>
<td>{김 хозяйств}</td>
<td>{었지}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행였노}</td>
<td>{먹였노}</td>
<td>{Used only with active verbs.}</td>
<td>{없이}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행였소}</td>
<td>{먹였소}</td>
<td>{Used only with active verbs.}</td>
<td>{없이}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행였지소}</td>
<td>{먹였지소}</td>
<td>{Used only with active verbs.}</td>
<td>{없이}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행였니옷가}</td>
<td>{먹였니옷가}</td>
<td>{김 хозяй니옷가}</td>
<td>{였니옷가}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{행였소름니옷가}</td>
<td>{먹였소름니옷가}</td>
<td>{김 хозяй소름니옷가}</td>
<td>{였소름니옷가}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Used to servants inferiors etc., the latter is familiar.

These are called 반말 and are used among friends or where one does not desire to be polite.

Polite terms among equals.

Honorific.
143.—In the use of the Interrogative terminations, also, the Future in ㄹ, and the Compound tenses are defective.

(Was he doing.) (Was it deep.) Termination.
(1) 훔녀나........김녀나............나............To inferiors.
(2) 훔녀뇨........김녀뇨............뇨............"Half talk."
(3) 훔녀니엿가...김녀니엿가.....니엿가...
(4) 훔음녀니엿가김소음녀니엿가............}To superiors.

Note.—It will be noticed that in this last, tense root enters and becomes part of the termination.

For the future in ㄹ, we naturally have only the form to a superior.

 Shall I do it.

Note.—The interrogative particle 代替 which properly is an exclamation and can be affixed to any part of the verb, is used for the most part in soliloquies; but can also used in questions. When so used the termination proper is dropped, and it is affixed. It may also be affixed to any of the relative participles.

PROPOSITIVE TERMINATIONS.

144.—What we have termed propositive terminations, are used when the proposition is made, in the doing of which the speaker is to be a party. It can consequently be only of the first person and in the plural. They are joined to the verbal stem and no tense root is used.

They are as follows:—

(Let us be doing). (Let us seize). (Let us go). Termination.
(1) 훔자........잡자........가자............자{{To servants
boys, etc.
(2) 훔세........잡세........가세............세{{Among equals
(3) 훔지........잡지........가지............지{{ ("half talk").
THE VERB.

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(4) 

[(중음세다는잡음세다, 가음세다, 음세다)]

or or or 

(5) 

중음시다...잡음시다, 가음시다, 음시다]

Honorific.

(6) 

중시음세다잡시음...가시음세다... Benefits.

Note.—In regard to these terminations, there is a dispute among Koreans; some claiming that (4) and (5) should always end in 시다, the 시 being the same as in 시오 and purely honorific. Others, however, claim it an honorific form of (2) and that 시다 should always be used. This last seems the most reasonable, but 시다 is very largely employed.

IMPRESSIVE TERMINATIONS.

145.—The Impressive terminations are used when ordering or requesting a person or persons to do something, and are from their nature restricted to the second person and may be singular or plural, that is to say, may command one or more than one.

They are much more numerous than the forgoing and are as follows:—

(Do or do thou). (Seize or seize thou). Terminations.

중여라...잡아라...어라 or 아라... To inferiors.

중게... 잡게... 계...ETS...{ “Half talk to friends, etc.

중소... 잡소... 소...{ Polite among equals.

중오... 잡으오... 오 or 오오...

중시오... 잡으시오... 시오 or으시오{ More polite, about like “please do it.”

중음시오... 잡으음시오... 음시오... or 오음시오... Honorific;

중시음시오... 잡으시음시오, 시음시오... Used in ent-

중쇼서... 잡으쇼서... 쇼서... treaties.

중여지이다... 잡여지이다... 지이다... or or or

중여지이다... 잡여지이다... 지이다... Used in prayers.
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THE VERB.

MOODS.

146.—In the Basal Conjugation we have but two moods, with Participles, Supine and Bases.

The two moods are the Indicative and the Volitive.

147.—The Indicative Mood asserts the action or state expressed by the verb, simply as a fact, or asks whether it is a fact. It is used in dependent as well as independent sentences, but when in dependent clauses the termination is generally replaced by some other word, as a conjunction. It may at times then be rendered by either the indicative, subjunctive or potential mood of the English.

148.—What we have here called the Volitive Mood is that mood which expresses the wish of the speaker. It may be either in the form of a proposition to do something, in which act the speaker shall participate, which is then of the first person plural, or it may be in the form of a command, exhortation or entreaty, when it will be of the second person and may be used for either the singular or plural.

Note.—This mood has been called by some the imperative, and the two classes given have been called respectively plural and singular. The singular may, however, also be used for the plural, and aside from this fact the first person volitive can never in any sense be called a command. Better than this, it would be to call these two distinct moods; but this is hardly necessary, and it seems much better to us, to class both as belonging to the volitive mood, the one in the first person plural, and the other in the second person.

PARTICIPLES.

149.—Like the Greek, Korean presents us with what we have called two classes of participles, the first, which we call Verbal Participles, corresponding in use to
what, in Greek, is commonly known as the "Participle;" and the second, which we call Relative Participles, corresponding almost exactly to the Greek "Verbal Adjective." Most Korean adjectives, being derived from verbs, it has seemed best to us to hold to this division, which was made in the "Grammaire Coreénne," and thus avoid the chance of confusion.

Verbal Participles.

150.—What we here call Verbal Participle, we thus name, because it partakes more of the character of a verb than the Relative Participle as far as its use is concerned.

Without a direct affirmation, it expresses its meaning as an accompanying quality or condition of the subject or object of the principal verb. Of these verbal participles, we do not, like the Greek, have one for each tense, we have only two, a past and a future. That most commonly found is the past and is formed by adding $\alpha$ or $\phi$, or a euphonic modification of these to the verbal stem. The Future Verbal Participle is made by adding $\eta$ to the verbal stem.

151.—In connection with the Verbal Participle in $\alpha$ and $\phi$, there has been much discussion. The attempt has been made by many to prove that the form in $\phi$ is present and that in $\alpha$ past. It has arisen from the fact that with not a few verbs both forms are found, and that with these verbs the past indicative, generally forms itself in $\alpha$ and not in $\phi$.

There are, however, great difficulties with this theory. In the first place, in those verbs where there are two forms they are to-day used interchangeably by the Koreans, and only when hard pressed for a distinction by a
foreigner will they acknowledge a difference, and state that it is temporal. This, however, is not the main difficulty. If this distinction of present and past holds; we are then presented with the anomaly of a host of verbs, active, neuter and passive which, irrespective of their meaning, have no present verbal participle; and, on the other hand, a multitude with no past verbal participle. We see also that those verbs which (according to this theory) have no past verbal participle, form their past indicative in $\mathfrak{u}$.

152.—In looking at these verbs, however, we find those of a certain form or spelling taking all their verbal participles in $\mathfrak{u}$, and another class with a different form taking them in $\mathfrak{e}$ and between these not a few which may take either. We are left, then, to but one conclusion, that the forms in $\mathfrak{u}$ and $\mathfrak{e}$ do not represent different tenses, but rather the two forms which the same tense, may assume for the sake of Korean euphony.

The general rule is, that all verbs the ultima of whose stems have the sound of $\mathfrak{u}$ or $\mathfrak{e}$, form their past verbal participle in $\mathfrak{u}$ or $\mathfrak{u}$ and all others in $\mathfrak{e}$ or $\mathfrak{e}$.

To this rule there may be a few exceptions.

153.—The Past Verbal Participle is treated by the Koreans in much the same way as a noun, and to it may be affixed postpositions and conjunctions, some of which very much modify its meaning. The postpositions, most commonly, affixed are $\mathfrak{e}$ (a contraction of $\mathfrak{e}$ $\mathfrak{e}$), $\mathfrak{u}$ and $\mathfrak{e}$.

Note.—The $\mathfrak{e}$ here spoken of, is often written $\mathfrak{e}$ and is supposed to be the verbal part. from 쓰오 (to use). There is no need for this, especially as we find such a tendency among Koreans to contract the postposition 에서.

These postpositions may or may not be affixed, but if
definitness of expression is desired, they must be employed. When used, they slightly modify the meaning.

Having done,” or “doing.”

“After” or “by having done.”

“As for after having done” = If you do.

“As for doing,” or as for having done” (rarely used).

“Only having done” “only by doing.”

“Only after having done,” “only when you have done.”

The following sentences will illustrate the use of these postpositions.

He is a man that lives by farming.

What are you doing this for?

Having been a merchant, he has become rich.

I will go to Korea and engage in commerce.

If you do not eat this, you will die.

If you sell in that way, you will lose.

If you take that medicine, you will not get better.
You must finish your work, if I am to pay you to-day.

You must go to the bank to get the money.

I had to come to Japan to see it.

I had to go to Korea to make his acquaintance.

155.—Before we turn to the consideration of the Relative Participles a few words on the uses of these Verbal Participles must be given.

We find of course no agreement between it and its subject and it may be used with either the subject or object of the principal verb.

Its main uses are as follows:

Referring to the subject.

1st. Simply to connect an accompanying, with a main action. When so used the participle and verb may be rendered by two verbs with a conjunction, or sometimes by one English verb containing the two ideas.

Note.—For the difference between a participle so used with a verb, and two verbs united by a conjunction see Part II. Chapter X. Sec. I.

Go to Nam San and get some flowers.

(Lit. Nam San-to having gone, flower having got come.)
I went to Korea and learned the language.

I brought some Korean medicine.

(Lit. Korean medicine having taken, came).

156.—2nd. To combine this *accompanying* action, with the main action, as the cause, manner or means.

Note.—When so used, it is exactly equivalent to the Ablative Gerund of Latin, and it is rather strange that heretofore this fact should have been overlooked and the Korean Supine, which has none of the force of a gerund, should have been called a gerund.

**Cause:**

어제 비 와서 물이 만수.

무거워 못 쓰겟소.

무엇 했어 죽 엇소.
(Lit. What having done died?)

**Means:**

내가 약을 먹어서 낳소.

도적질 했어요 사호.
비리 먹어 사호.

**Manner:**

다라나서 피하였습니다.
담배 했어 호랑이 있는
더로 갓소.

157.—Referring to the object. This Participle is used also in connection with the object of the principal verb, or
with a person or thing, mentioned in the sentence. It then conveys some idea of time, cause condition; but the relation intended and as a consequence, the true rendering of the participle in English, can only be learned from the nature of the sentence or the connection in which it stands.

When this is done, the object of the principal verb, or the person or thing mentioned to which the participle has reference, is considered as the subject of the verb contained in the participle; and, if a postposition is used, it will be the sign of the nominative. It becomes, then, a dependent clause and in this way, we may at times have a number of nouns with the nominative sign, one after the other.

내가 친구가 병드러서 가 보았소. I went to see my friend, when (or because) he was sick.

꽃치 벗치 만ը여서 잘 피오. Flowers bloom well, when there is much sunshine.

높은이 눈이 어두어서 저 척을 잘못 보오. The old man can not read well, because his eyes are poor.

내가 높이 탕식이 엽서서 금는 거술 불상이 네이오. I pity those who are starving for lack of food.

N.B.—Note the three nominatives in this sentence.

158.—This Verbal Participle is also largely used in the making of compound verbs. When such compounds are made, their meaning can always be obtained by translating them as simple verbs.

As:—

가져오오, (“having taken, to come”) to bring.
가져가오, ("having taken, to go") to take away.
먹어보오, ("having eaten, to see") to taste.
무르보오, ("having asked, to see") to enquire.
여러년도, ("having opened, to put") to leave open.
*올나가오, ("having mounted, to go") to mount (in going).
†울너두오, ("having elevated, to put") to put up.

Note.—It will be seen throughout that in many places, the Korean verbal participle past can be rendered in English by the present. This however, does not affect its being a past tense and in all these places, it will be seen that with equal exactness, and generally with more, the past would give the sense, although the English idiom requires the present.

159.—The Future Verbal Participle is formed by adding 기 to the verbal stem and is not by any means as often met with as the past.

The most common of its uses are:

1st. With some particle such as 시리 (so as to), when it has the effect of giving us the form of the verb that will be rendered into English by the words "so that it will," "so that it can."

As:—

김서방이 오게 시리 는 Make it so that Mr. Kim can come.
이 교의를 잘 싸먹 싸먹 Make this chair so that it will rock well.

2nd. Used alone and preceding another verb it generally signifies that for which, the action of the principal verb is done, and may be rendered into English by that, so that in order that, to.

* From 올노, to mount, to climb.
† From 올니오, to elevate, to raise.
THE VERB.

3rd. The third and by far the the most common use which is derived from the preceding, is with the verb "요"; giving us, the force of a causative to be rendered into English by "to make to," "to cause to," etc., or it may be used with "요" much as a sort of imperative.

As:

그 요 가게 요요.
이 색치 보기 묻히니 사계 요요.
영어를 알면 혼하에 흔 너도 말을 흥흘거시니 잘 비호계 요요.

공부를 지금 아니 훈련 후회 날 거시니 혼싸 가게 요요.
시간이 느꼈스니 밥을 어서 먹고 가게요요.

Make that boy go.
As these flowers are so pretty, let him buy them.
Since, if you know English, it will be a means of communication even though you travel over the whole world, study hard.
Since, if you do not study now, you will regret it hereafter, you had better take pains to study well.
As it is already late hurry and give him his supper and let him go.
As there are a great many here make him come that way.

As I am hungry, buy some rice and make it so that I can eat.

As this is the Inchun station make him get off here.

As I must go back to Seoul get ready to start the day after to morrow.

**Relative Participles.**

160.—What we have have called the Relative Participle is rather a verbal adjective derived from the verb. As, however, almost all Korean adjectives are *verbal adjectives* derived from what may be termed "adjectival verbs" to avoid confusion we have held to this term as has been already stated.

In use the Relative Participle always stands as an adjective qualifying some noun and may generally be rendered into English by a relative clause.

As a consequence, it cannot be united to the various postpositions, unless it is first made a noun by the use of such words, as 사람 (man), 것 (thing) or one of the pronouns, or, as is often, done by the use of the postposition 이 signifying "the man."

161.—The four Relative Participles most commonly used, may be termed; Present, Past, Future, and Future Past.
The use of the terms *Present* and *Past* is, as will be seen, a little unfortunate and the terms *Active* and *Passive* have been suggested. The same difficulty existing with these latter as with the former, we prefer to retain the former.

162.—What we have termed the Present Participle is formed by adding \( \text{ـ} \) to the verbal stem.

It will be noticed that the Present Participle follows the lead of the present tense and where in the present tense the stem is slightly modified, this modified form is used in the present participle. This modification for the most part occurs in verbs whose stems end in \( \text{ـ} \) simple. When this is the case the \( \text{ـ} \) is dropped in forming the present, both indicative and participle. In verbs whose stems contain a latent \( \text{ـ} \), this is not done even though it end in \( \text{ـ} \). Then the stem is used, though of course the latent \( \text{ـ} \) cannot appear in \( \text{ـ} \).

Note.—It has been said, and with much reason, that this \( \text{ـ} \) should rather be called an "active particle" than a "present tense root" for it is only used with active verbs; and with neuter verbs is never found. However, it always has a present sense and can at times be used with almost a passive idea so we prefer to call it simply the present participle.

When used, this participle has the effect of designating the person or thing who is now acting, or (though rarely) being acted upon. It may, then, be rendered into English by the relative pronoun with is and a present participle, or with the simple present of the verb, or by a new dependent clause.

If I go to a foreign country, there will be few whom I know.
비호지 아니 훈련 아니 거시 엽겅소.
지금 희는 사람은 쉬이 godt 기.

If one does not study, one knows nothing.
The man who is working now will soon stop.

163.—What we have termed the Past Participle, is formed by adding 우, (which may undergo a variety of euphonic changes), to the verbal stem. There is little regularity about the special form that this participle shall take; any rules based on the form of the verb will have a number of exceptions.

The following will, however, help:

1st. All verbs whose stems, end in a vowel, form their Past Relative Participle by simply adding 려. Here we see the 우 contracts, and to uphold the character of the verb, its vowel or combination of vowels is retained.

Thus:

가오 (to go) .................. 객 (gone).
오오 (to come) .................. 온 (come).
보오 (to see) .................. 본 (seen).
主要集中 do) .................. 희 (done).

2nd. Verbs whose stem ends in 희, 오, or 려, form their Past Relative Participle by adding 우 to the verbal stem; in some cases at the same time doubling the final letter of the stem.

Thus:

죽소 (to die) ............... 죽은 (dead).
먹소 (to eat) ............... 먹은 (eaten).
낚소 (to fish) ............... 낚은 (fished).
主要集中 (to hide) ............... 숨은 (hidden).
감소 (to bathe)...........................감은 (bathed).
안소 (to carry in one's arms)................안은 (carried in arms).
신소 (to put on, of shoes)..................신은 (put on).

3rd. Verbs whose stem ends in a in joining 은 to form their Past Relative Participle follow the form of the past verbal participle, and where with this a consonant has been changed in the stem or added in the verbed participial ending they take the same added or changed consonant with 은. After 나, 나, or 음; according to the Korean rules of euphony, this 은 becomes 순, 준 or 루; but in all other cases the vowel 오 is retained.

Thus:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V.P.</th>
<th>R.P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>받소 (to receive)</td>
<td>V.P. 받아, R.P. 받은 (received).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>믿소 (to believe)</td>
<td>믿어, 믿은 (believed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>썩소 (to wash)</td>
<td>썩서, 썩순 (washed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>찾소 (to find)</td>
<td>찾자, 찾준 (found).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>벗소 (to take off clothes)</td>
<td>벗서, 벗순 (taken off).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>듣소 (to hear)</td>
<td>듣려, 듣은 (heard).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>묻소 (to ask)</td>
<td>묻라, 묻운 (asked).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>넣소 (to place)</td>
<td>넣하, 넣은 (placed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>맡소 (to receive in trust)</td>
<td>맡하, 맡은 (received in trust).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4th. Verbs containing a latent 오, form their Past Relative Participle in 였, irrespective of the final letter of the stem.

Thus:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V.P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>감소 (to pay)...........................감혼 (paid).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>덮소 (to cover) ................. 덮혼 (covered).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>일소 (to lose)...........................일혼 (lost).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>알소 (to be sick)..................알혼 (sick).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5th. Verbs whose stems end in .epam form their Past Relative Participle after the form of the verbal participle, those whose past verbal participle is in 원 or 요 form the past relative participle in 원 or 요: all the others in 원 interposing the changed or added consonant of the verbal participle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>(to be lacking)</th>
<th>(to carry on the back)</th>
<th>(to seize)</th>
<th>(to be beautiful)</th>
<th>(to be near)</th>
<th>(to be light)</th>
<th>(to be charming)</th>
<th>(to be nauseating)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>업소,</td>
<td>업서,</td>
<td>업손,</td>
<td>집소,</td>
<td>집아,</td>
<td>집손,</td>
<td>집춘,</td>
<td>가치손,</td>
<td>가치손,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(lacking)</td>
<td>(lacking)</td>
<td>(carried)</td>
<td>(seized)</td>
<td>(beautiful)</td>
<td>(near)</td>
<td>(light)</td>
<td>(charming)</td>
<td>(charming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>값감소,</td>
<td>값가워,</td>
<td>값가운 or 원,</td>
<td>가치암소,</td>
<td>가치암아,</td>
<td>가치암은,</td>
<td>가치암은 or 원,</td>
<td>가치암은,</td>
<td>가치암은,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to be near)</td>
<td>(near)</td>
<td>(light)</td>
<td>(to be light)</td>
<td>(light)</td>
<td>(light)</td>
<td>(light)</td>
<td>(light)</td>
<td>(light)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>아름답소,</td>
<td>아름다워,</td>
<td>아름다운,</td>
<td>아름답손,</td>
<td>아름답손,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to be charming)</td>
<td>(charming)</td>
<td>(charming)</td>
<td>아름답소,</td>
<td>아름답소,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(nauseating)</td>
<td>(nauseating)</td>
<td>(nauseating)</td>
<td>아름답소,</td>
<td>아름답소,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
<td>아름답은,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are several exceptions to each of these rules, and the only safe way for the student is, when he learns a new verb, to learn it with its principal parts.

164.—In use, the Past Relative Participle coincides with the present relative participle, except that the past tense is used in rendering it into English. At times, also, it may have a passive sense.

Note.—When this passive sense holds, it is really, because the Koreans do not like to use the passive voice, but in rendering it into English a passive should be used.

네가 밋은 편지 어디 두었느냐. Where have you put the letter you received?

이칼이 네가엇은 거시냐. Is this the knife that you got?

버순 옷 씻어 좀하오. Wash the clothes we have taken off.

셋손 그릇 가져 오너라. Bring the dishes that have been washed.
THE VERB.

Can not you think of the word you forgot?

Dry the wet clothes.

The followers of Confucious are many.

Pay him for what he has finished to-day.

What you heard yesterday is false.

Do you again ask the question you just asked?

Do not use money that you hold in trust for another.

Bring the book that was put in the box.

165.—The Past Relative Participle of a neuter verb, simply proclaims the existence of the state or condition, and may be rendered by the present or an adjective.

더울소 (to be hot) ....... 더운 (hot or being hot).

깊소 (to be deep) ... 깊은 (deep or being deep).

무겁소 (to be heavy) ... 무거운 (heavy or being heavy).

밝소 (to be bright) ... 밝은 (bright or being bright).

 весь (to be old) ....... 늦은 (old or being old).

166.—The Future Relative Participle may be formed from the past by changing 라 into 공.

It has the force of about to, and may generally rendered by a relative clause with a future verb. It may be used to express, permission, ability or simple futurity.

일 잘 할 모군을 불너라. Call coolies who will work well.
서울 갈 사람을 내가.
미국서 온 혼가 아직 아니 왓소.

병들면 음식 먹을 성각이 아조 업소.
도혼 적이면 볼 두음이 만소.
감시 대단이 비싸 살 두음 업다.
지금 갈 거시오.

I am waiting for some one who will go to Seoul.
The box that is coming from America has not yet come.

When any one is sick, they have no desire to eat.
If it is a good book, it will be very popular.
As the price is so high, I do not want to buy it.
You may go now.

167.—The Future Past Relative Participle is formed by adding 에 to the tense root of the indicative past.

It is not nearly as much in use as the three already mentioned; but with 것, 줄, 수 etc. will be rendered by a future or subjunctive perfect. These renderings may be seen and explained in the following:—

편지가 왓실 줄 알았더니 아니 왓소.
어제 늦게 쓰셨시니 걱정.
서지 아직 미치철실수 업셋겼다.
도적 농이 갓실 거시니 우리 자자.

I had thought the letter would have come, but it has not.
As he started late yesterday, he will not have been able to have reached there yet.
As the thieves must have gone, let us sleep.

168.—A quite common, and much used Relative Participle, is formed from the progressive tense by adding 있다 to the tense root.
It gives us then a true Imperfect Relative Participle that generally has a past sense.

여제 왓던 장소가 또 왓소. The merchant who came yesterday has come again.

아침에 먹던 실과 또 사 오너라. Buy some more of the fruit we were eating this morning.

여러히 보고 싶던 친구가 오늘 왓소. The friend whom I had been wanting to see for many years came this morning.

아차 왓던 사람이 누 구요. Who was that who came a little while ago?

169.—In addition to these, relative participles may be formed almost at will by adding ね to the simple, and の to the compound tenses of the indicative mood.

This form of the participle is at times found qualifying a noun; but is more often used with particles employed conjunctively or adverbially; such as—지 or 가 meaning "whether" or 가 and 고, used in soliloquies, signifying doubt etc.

그 사람이 갓눈지 알수 입소. I can not tell whether he has gone.

김서방이 왓눈가 가 보야라. Go and see whether Mr. Kim has come.

그 오희가 약을 먹엇 눈가 가 보고 오너라. Go and see whether that boy has taken his medicine, and let me know.

SUPINE.

170.—There is a form of the Basal Conjugation that in use is exactly equivalent to the Former Supine or Supine
in *um* of the Latin, and we have therefore called it the “Supine.”

It is generally formed by adding 러 or 닥 to the verbal stem. This form generally follows in the lead of the past verbal participle, taking its stem.

When the stem ends in a consonant, a vowel, either 오 or 츠, will be used as a connective.

Note.—Verbal stems ending in 러 generally take their supine in 나 or 너. As: 알나 from 알오 (to know). Where, however, there is a 츠 in the past verbal participle, which is either a changed or added consonant, and which does not appear where the stem precedes a consonant, this same 츠 appears in the supine; but the connecting consonant must be there, and the Supine is found in 드러. Thus: 읽소 (to hear) has 드러 for its past verbal participle, but its future is 드는데 and hence we find 드는데 (the 츠 following 츠 becomes 츠) for the supine.

The supine is used for the most part with verbs of motion, although we do at times find it with other verbs, to signify the purpose of the act.

- **Checked Subject:** The supine is used after a checked subject.
- **Unchecked Subject:** The supine is used after an unchecked subject.

Verbal Nouns.

171.—The Korean verb presents us with two verbal nouns, and by some these have been said to be interchangeable. Such is not the case, however, and the distinction made in ¶ 53, should always be observed.

The one is formed by adding □ to the stem. A very simple rule for the formation of this noun, is to replace the 러 of the past relative participle by □.
Thus:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB.</th>
<th>PAST REL. PART.</th>
<th>VERBAL NOUN.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>믿소, (to trust)</td>
<td>믿은, gives us</td>
<td>믿음, (faith).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>믿소, (to forget)</td>
<td>믿은, „ „</td>
<td>믿음, (forgetfulness)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>아름답소, (to be beautiful)</td>
<td>아름답은, „ „</td>
<td>아름다움, (beauty).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For sentences illustrating its use see ¶ 53.

172.—The other verbal noun is formed by the use of 7|. In use it it exactly equivalent to the "Latter Supine" or "Supine in u" of Latin.

The most common form in which it is met, is the stem with 7|.

Each simple tense may however have its own noun in 7|; which is then formed by simply replacing its termination by 7|.

Thus we may have:—

anism, 악습기, 악셋기, & 악염셋기.

173.—This verbal noun, is often used with the various postpositions to express varying ideas such as cause, manner, etc.

Most of these will in a moment be apparent from a literal translation, but a few words about the most frequent forms will be in place.

It is very largely used with 5, in phrases and sentences where in English we would simple change the tone. In these sentences, the verbal noun in 7| of the principal verb in the sentence will be used, and immediately precede the verb. It has the effect of showing lack of interest, doubt as to the result, etc. of the action expressed by the verbs. Its true sense can always be gained, by rendering the verbal noun by the English noun in ing, and preceding it by the words, as for.
That house is good but it is a little small.

This is dear; but it is pretty.

As far as the looks of that watch are concerned it is good, but it is high priced.

174. — We find it also used many times with the post-position 에 having then a causal effect.

That man's life was saved through his meeting the doctor.

I made a great noise because thieves came.

Because that servant has done his work well I have given him a bolt of satin.

In the taking of medicine I have spent a good deal of money.

I killed a good many deer because the gun was good.
I have decided to start for America to-morrow.
I spoke to the doctor about taking some medicine.
I have sent word to my brother to build the house.
I will be unable to attend to any thing else on account of letter writing.

Bases.

It remains now but to give the two bases on which verbs of intention, and negatives are formed, and we have the whole of the Basal Conjugation.

The first of these, is what we have termed the "Desiderative Base." It is formed by adding 려 or 람 to the verbal stem as it is seen in the past verbal participle; and where this stem ends in a consonant $ or ㄷ is interposed as a connective.

It is commonly united with ㄹ로 by ㄹ, as a connective; but this ㄹ may be dispensed with and then contractions will follow.

It gives us thus a verb signifying—desire or intention of carrying out the action expressed by the verb. When the verb is thus formed it may be carried through the whole Basal Conjugation.

가라고למד To intend to go.
주라고씀 To intend to give.
직회라고씀 To intend to guard.

It may at times be used alone in asking questions, having the sense of "Do you want to," “Do you desire...
to." This use, however, is not common, and is pre-eminentely colloquial.

Do you want to go along?

Do you want to read the book I brought yesterday?

As it is dark, do you desire to stop now?

I had intended doing it today but friends came and I could not.

I had intended going tomorrow but affairs have turned up and I may go the day after.

I had intended coming yesterday but it rained and I could not.

I came up to Seoul intending to enters school but business at home calls me back.

It intended to rain but the west wind blew the clouds away.

177.—A negative idea in Korean, may be expressed either by the use of a simple negative preceding the verb as in English, or a negative verb may be formed. When this is done, what has well been termed a Negative Base is used. This base is formed by affixing 자 to the verbal stem. Strange to say, in many verbs we may have two forms of this base, one formed from the stem as found in
the present indicative, and one from that of the future indicative.

This same form of the verb is always used when a negative verb is employed.

For its use and examples see ¶ 206 ff.

178.—It will be seen that four principal parts have been given, the Present Indicative, Past Verbal Participle, Future Verbal Participle, and Past Relative Participle. With a knowledge of these any other parts can be formed. In the verb ἔστι the stem is the same throughout, but in many verbs the stem as seen in the first three may differ.

In the forming of the other parts this difference holds and, outside of the supine, desiderative base, verbal noun in □, and perfect tenses, the general rule may hold that, when the part or parts added to the stem begin with a consonant other than ὅ, the stem as seen in the future verbal participle will be used; when with a vowel or ὅ, the stem as seen in the present indicative is followed.

Note.—When the stem ends in a vowel and is followed by a vowel a contraction may take place; when the stem ends in a consonant and is followed by a vowel, sometimes, euphony may require the main consonant to be doubled or another to be inserted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Following the Present Indicative</th>
<th>The Present Participle and those parts of the Volitive Mood whose terminations begin with a voved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Following the Past Verbal Particle</td>
<td>The Past, Fut-Past, Pluperfect and Prob-Fut-Past tenses of the Indicative. The Future Past Participle, the Supine and the Desiderative Base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following the Fut. Vebal Participle</td>
<td>The Future, Progressive and Continued Fut. of the Indicative, those parts of the Volitive Mood whose terminations begin with a consonant: the verbal noun in □; and the Negative Base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following the Past Relative Participle</td>
<td>The Future Relative Part, and the Verbal Noun in □.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
179.—We have, then, following:—

**THE BASAL CONJUGATION.**

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>하고</td>
<td>하여 or 하야</td>
<td>하게</td>
<td>할</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**SIMPLE TENSES.**

Present .................. 하고 ............. Do.
Past ..................... 하여소 ............. Did.
Perfect Past .......... 하여서소 ............. Has done.
Future ................... 하게소 ............. Will do.
Fut. Past ............... 하여서겟소 .......... Will have done.

**COMPOUND TENSES.**

Progressive ........... 하고더이다 ........... Am or was doing.
1st Pluperfect ...... 하여서더이다 ... Had done.
2nd Pluperfect....... 하여서서더이다 Had done already.
Continued Future. 하게더이다 ... Will be doing.
Probable Fut. Past. 하여서겟더이다 Must have done.

**VOLITIVE MOOD.**

**1ST PERSONS PLURAL.**

To inferiors,  하고...... 
,, equals,  하고세...... 
,, superiors,  하고옵세다

Let us do,  하고라
,, equals,  하고게......
,, superiors,  하고옵시오

**Do thou.**

**2ND PERSON.**

To inferiors,  하고여라...
,, equals,  하고게......
,, superiors,  하고옵시오

**PARTICIPLES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Relative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>하여</td>
<td>Present, 하고, Doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past, { 하여 } or 하야</td>
<td>Past, 하, Done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future, 하게</td>
<td>Future, 하, About to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imperfect, 하던, Were doing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE VERB.

Verbal Nouns .......... {음, The doing.
                      {Neg. ...... 입지, To do.
                      {Desid. ...... 도하다, Desire to do.
Supine ................. 도리, To do.

Note.—In accordance with the true Korean idea, we have given no person in the indicative mood, and we would remind the student, that any one of the parts there given, may be used with equal correctness for first, second or third persons, singular or plural. We would also call his attention to the fact, that termination 3 in the declarative table, and 6 in the interrogative coincide, both in form and in use. The forms given in the simple tenses may then be used either affirmatively or interrogatively.

180.—A knowledge of the principal parts of any verb will enable us to carry it through this conjugation. Some of the most common verbs that are a little irregular in forming their principal parts are given at the end of this chapter, and the student is advised to commit them.

By way of illustration the following verbs are conjugated; and as a matter of practise it would be well to take other verbs and in like manner construct paradigms.

The verb. 아. To know.

1. Principal Parts.
아, 알아, 알게, 안.

2. Moods, Tenses, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Verbal Parts, Relative Parts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres</td>
<td>아.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>알아소</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Past</td>
<td>알아셋소</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut</td>
<td>알아셋소</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### THE VERB.

| Future-Perfect | 알았겠소 | 알았슴
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>알더이다</td>
<td>알던</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Pluperfect</td>
<td>알았더이다</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Pluperfect</td>
<td>알았겠더이다</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous Future</td>
<td>알겠더이다</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probabilistic Future Perfect</td>
<td>알았겠더이다</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Inf.** **Equals.** **Sup.**

Volitive {1st Person Plural.} 알자, 알세, 아옵에서도.

**Mood.** {2nd Person.} 알아라, 알게, 아옵시도.

### VERBAL NOUNS. **Supine.** **Bases.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inf.</th>
<th>Equals.</th>
<th>Sup.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>담</td>
<td>나</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Verb. 막소 To hinder.

#### I.—ACTIVE VOICE.

1. Principal Parts.

막소, 막아, 막게, 막은.

2. Moods, Tenses, etc.

**Indicative** **Verbal Parts.** **Relative Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>막소</th>
<th>막아</th>
<th>막게</th>
<th>막은</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>막소</td>
<td>막아</td>
<td>막게</td>
<td>막은</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>막았소</td>
<td>막아</td>
<td>막은</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>막겠소</td>
<td>막게</td>
<td>막은</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>막았겠소</td>
<td>막겠리</td>
<td>막겠</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prong.</td>
<td>막더이다</td>
<td>막던</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Pluperfect</td>
<td>막았더이다</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Pluperfect</td>
<td>막았ことができ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous Fut</td>
<td>막겠더이다</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probabilistic F. P.</td>
<td>막았겠더이다</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Inf.** **Equals.** **Sup.**

Volitive {1st Person Plural.} 막자, 막세, 막옵세도.

Mood. {2nd Person.} 막아라, 막게, 막옵시도.
THE VERB.

II.—PASSIVE VOICE. 박히고.

1. Principal Parts.

박히고, 박히어, 박히게, 박하신.

2. Moods, Tenses, etc.


Pres ........ 박히소 ................. — ...... 박히는.
Past ........ 박히었소 .............. 박히어 ... 박하신.
Perfect Past 박히겠소 .............. — ...... —
Fut ........ 박히겠소 .............. 박히게 ... 박하실.
F. Perf ... 박히겠소 .............. — ...... 박히겠섯.
Prog ...... 박히더이다 .............. — ...... 박히드.</p>

Inf. Equals. Sup.

Volitive (1st Pers. Plur. 박히자, 박히세, 박히옵세다.
Mood. 2nd Pers. ......박히아라, 박히게, 박히옵시오.

Verbs with Conjunctions.

181.—While the matter of conjunctions should properly be left to the chapter on conjunctions; they vary so much in their uniting with the verb, that a few words about them and their use is needed here. In use we find that some unite with the verb in the indicative, some join
themselves to verbal participles, some to relative participles
and some directly to the stem.

182.—The following list of some of the conjunctions
that are most commonly used, divided into these classes
should be learned.

1st. Those uniting with the tenses of the Indicative
Mood:—

면, 거든 .................... If, when; conditional.
니 .......................... Whereas; causal and concessive.
닛가, 니사, 니가니, 
니간드로 etc. ...... \{In as much as, seeing that, since, 
as; marks the reason.
즉 즉속 \} preceded by \( \leq \) ...
전대 .......................... Because; marks the cause.

나 ...........................

막내와 .................................... \{Although, though; concessive and
들 preceded by \( \leq \) ...... in part disjunctive.
마는 ..........................

거나 or 거니 ............ Whether, as though, appears as.

거늘 ...........................

며 ............................ And.

고먼, 고만, 고면 ......... \{At the time that, while. Used in
surprise, astonishment, blaming.

Note.—With this last, \( \leq \) sometimes is used as a connective.

2nd. Uniting with verbal participles:—

도 ............................ Though, although; concessive.

3rd. Uniting with relative participles.

지 ............................ Whether.
Whether, used also in soliloquies expressive of doubt.

Even though, although, though; concessive.

When, while, whereas, though at the same time.

Used in soliloquies expressive of doubt, or surprise.

In case that, if it should be, under those circumstance.

4th. Unit ing with the stem.

And.

While. Signifies simultaneous action.

There are some adverbs, interjections etc. that, uniting with the indicative tenses in the same way as conjunctions should be mentioned here.

As:

Why! Interjection expressive of surprise.

Why! Interjection expressive of surprise.

Note.—This is used with the verbal termination.

While; indicates an interruption.

An exclamation of surprise or wonder used in soliloquies.

Note.—This particle is in much more common use in the Province of Kyeng Sang Do. It is there used to either superiors or inferiors in asking questions.

183.—As will be noticed, those uniting with the indicative are most numerous. When the conjunction is affixed, as has already been remarked, the termination is dropped. This being done the conjunction unites itself directly with the verb, but euphony may make
some changes. With the exception of conjunctions beginning with 르, 료 and 것, cannot unite themselves directly to stems or verbal forms ending in a consonant. A connective is needed and 오 or 오 is quite largely used for this purpose.

With the present indicative, there being no tense root, the conjunction unites directly with the verbal stem and the rule may hold that with all stems ending in a consonant other than 음, 애, or 니, 오 will be used. Of course when there is a latent 오, it will appear before the 오. With those ending in 애 or 니, often the final letter may be doubled or another consonant may enter in. The only rule that we can give in this matter is, that all verbs whose stems end in 애 and 니 take the form of the stem found in the Past Relative Participle and may be formed by dropping the final 르 of the Past Relative Participle and adding the conjunction.

Verbs whose stems end in 음 are joined to conjunctions beginning with 료 directly, without any connective; and when joined to those beginning with 르, the 음 is dropped.

As those ending in a vowel:—

오오 (to come), 오염 (if come), 오나 (although come).
자오 (to sleep), 자염 (if sleep), 자나 (although sleep).
주오 (to give), 주염 (if give), 주나 (although give).
쏘오 (to use), 쏘염 (if use), 쏘나 (although use).

Those ending in consonants other than 애, 니 or 음:—

먹소 (to eat), 먹으림 (if eat), 맛으나 (although eat).
죽소 (to die), 죽으림 (if die), 죽으나 (although die).
숨소 (to hide), 숨으림 (if hide), 숨으나 (although hide).
만소 (to be plentiful), 만호림 (if plentiful), 만호나 (although plentiful).
Those ending in 人 and 之:

받소 (to receive),  R.P. 받은 then 받으신 (If receive etc.)
맞소 (to suit)      "  맞준 "  맞으신 (If suit)  "
업소 (to be lacking) "  업준 " 업으신 (If lacking) "
맞소 (to ask)      "  든뿐 "  든으신 (If ask)  "
맞소 (to hear)     "  든뿐 "  든으신 (If hear)  

Those ending in 口:

아오 (to know)  Stem 알 ; 알면 (If know), 아나 (although know).
부오 (to blow)   "  불 ; 불면 (If blow), 부나 (although blow).
누오 (to fly)    "  날 ; 날면 (If fly), 낫나 (although fly).
기오 (to be long) "  길 ; 길면 (If long), 기나 (although long).

With tenses other than the present, ending in a consonant, the connective is always 且.

As:

주셨소,  주셨시면,  주셨시나, (he gave).
주셨시면,  주셨시면,  주셨시나, (if he gave).
맞맛소,  맞맛시면,  맞맛시나, (it suited).
맞맞시면,  맞맞시면,  맞맞시나, (although it suited).
가게소,  가게시면,  가게시나, (he will go).
가게시면,  가게시면,  가게시나, (if he will go).
各式各样, 各式各样, 各式各样, (he will get).
各式各样, 各式各样, 各式各样, (if he will get).

184.—All other conjunctions, etc. unite themselves directly with the form of the verb without the aid of any connective.

As:

가게든..............  If he go.
듯거든..............  If he hear.
가게거늘...........  Since he will go.
듯거나..............  Whether he hear.

185.—In this place it will be well to give a few words on the

* 업시면  is also largely used.
THE VERB.

MEANINGS AND USES.

of some of these conjunctions.

던, 거든, 진 덤, 진 둘.

던 and 거든. Both these conjunctions have a conditional force.

The first is simply conditional, and is rendered into English by *if*. It may be united with any one of the tenses simple or compound. When united to the simple tenses, we have simple supposition, but when, to the compound, it generally has the idea of supposition contrary to fact.

It is always used when the apodosis expresses a natural or consequential sequence.

It is in regard to the second of these that we find the greatest difficulty. While most rightly acknowledge that 거든 has largely a temporal sense and may be almost always translated as "when" or "as soon as," this is not found to meet all cases. It is generally found that 덤 can replace 거든 without objections but there are many places where 거든 can never take the place of 덤. It has been said that 거든 can be used where the apodosis expresses a conditional command (a statement found to be true) but in such places there are many who find a shade of distinction between 덤 and 거든. This rule has been widened to 거든 being used where the action in the apodosis is subject to the will of the actor and not a natural sequence of the conditions as expressed above, but it is soon discovered that this rule is not always true and that the exceptions are almost as numerous as the examples. A study of the following examples will it is believed help us to understand the uses of these conditional particles but the rule as given
above that cannot be used where the apodosis expresses a natural or consequential sequence always holds.

If you buy a horse, there is no need for a chair.

If Mr. Kim brings the money to-morrow; I will buy that house.

If I had known that he was sick I would have gone to see him.

If he had taken that medicine, he would not have died.

If I had known, I would have prevented his going.

If you were going now, I too would go.

I will go to-morrow if I should get better to-day.

If a letter should come take care of it.

Although Chang Yeun is said to be a good place (to live), I don’t like it when the cold weather comes.

He can write very well, but when he is dictated to, he can’t write at all.
When it is cold, we have to put on thicker clothes.

When one eats too much, he can not do much work on account of the full stomach.

When you go to Chemulpo, you will meet a good many foreigners.

I will accompany you as soon as the ship comes in.

If it clears up, I will take the letters to Chai Ryung.

If it rains shut the windows.

If your are tired of walking let us rest a while at the inn.

If the letter does not come, what am I to do?

If it is muddy, put on your wooden shoes.
비싸 [가든 사지 마시오] {When it is dear, don’t buy it.}

물이 약한 [물이 돈지 마시오] {If your horse is not strong, don’t ride her.}

진 디 or the same with the postposition [음, 진 디 is really a composite conjunction. It means, in case that, if it should be that and this thought is simply emphasized by the adding of the Appositive Postposition.

공부 희진디 부지런히 희여라. If you are going to study be diligent about it.
조선을 갈진迪 금강산을 구경하신여라. If you should go to Korea, visit the “Diamond Mountains.”

하인을 보낼진진 조세히 말을 달너보내라. If you should send the servant, give him careful instructions.
너 아니활진진 놀이나 줄게 두여라. If you do not do it yourself get somebody else to do it.

186.—니. This conjunction has been the source of much discussion because, at times, it was found giving a simple causal effect; and then, again, without any apparent reason, implying opposition to something that follows, something unexpected.

On examination we find that with the simple tenses the first sense always appears but with the compound the second sense may be found.

(a) 니 is then exactly equivalent to the English word whereas, which may have this dual idea and is used in
the same connections. With simple tenses, _variation is equivalent to, considering that, it being the case that, as, since: with the compound, however, "when in fact," "while—on the contrary;" introducing something unexpected or at times introducing a result and marking the cause.

(b) A combination of this  variation with  고 (reason) in connection with the relative participle gives us a very common idiomatic expression used to introduce the reason or cause as.

(a)

Come early to-morrow, as we will study.
Since he has been a successful merchant, he is now rich.
I was going to Seoul to-day but it rained and I did not.
I built a good house but it took fire.
Intending to go to Japan I went as far as Chemulpo, but, the boat had gone and I could not, so came back.
Because he studied hard he became a renowned scholar.
He was arrested by the police because he stole.

If you want to know why Mr. Yi has gone into business it is because he aims to be a rich man.

The reason why Mr. Kim intends to start next Monday, morning, is because he has some urgent business.

If you want to know why he is renowned, it is because he has served his country well many times.

The reason why he sent his servant so hurriedly, was because his friend was taken sick.

Note:—It is when the conjunction is used with the compound tenses that we begin to find our difficulties for when added to the tense roots of any of the compound tenses except the Progressive, it may be used of all three persons, while most grammars assert that with the Progressive tenses it can not be used in the first person.

This latter rule is not quit correct for where there is no causal or concessive sense involved and no definite time expressed, it may be used also of the first person. In other words, of habitual action, it may be used of the first person.

If on the other hand, time, cause, or concession is expressed, it can only be used for the second or third person.
Examples:

I used to be quite a walker, but now I am not.

I used to be a non-believer of Christ, but now I am a good Christian.

You failed in your examination because you had been idle last term.

He sawed wood yesterday but he is not doing anything today.

You worked hard among our people for the sake of Christianity and now the people appreciate your service.

It was very cloudy this morning and now it rains.

Because that servant works well he has been in this house many years.

As I eat heartily a little while ago, I cannot eat more now.
길이 멀매 로비가 만든야 — As the journey is a long one, the traveling expenses will be heavy.

점이 무거오매 험 잇는
상군을 붙너라. As the load is heavy, call a strong coolie.
감시 비싼즉 살수 업소. I can not buy it, because the price is high.
지금은 돈이 만혼 즉 빗
감혹야 쓰겟다. As I have plenty of money now, I must pay my debts.

전디 has a little more of a temporal sense, and may often almost be translated by a conditional clause.

다시 생각 혼전디 그
일이 아니 되겠소. Since I have thought over the matter again, that affair will not succeed.
이 비단을 그 비단에
비혼전디 이 비단은 대
단이 비싸소. After comparing this satin with that, this is very dear.
조선 말을 비화 보전디
대단이 어려움 드으오. Now that I have tried the study of Korean, I think it will be extremely difficult.

청전디 and 원전디 are used to introduce a petition or request or to express earnest desire.

청 전디 대 왕은 기리보
중 흉시옵소서. May your Majesty be long preserved.
청전디 이와 과치 흉시
옵소서. I pray you do it this way.
원 전디 폐하는 그말
을 드르시옵소서. My earnest desire is that your Majesty will listen to those words.
I earnestly hope that you will do it with me.

188.— النساء. This is a contraction of the ending of the verbal noun in 가, with the postposition 에 and a form derived from the verb 이호 (to be). It signifies because, and shows that the action expressed by the verb that it governs, was the real cause of the action contained in the principal verb of a sentence. It is stronger than any of the conjunctions given in ¶ 186, and 187, as it marks a result, following from a cause.

Because that fellow insulted me without reason, I had him locked up.

Because I am afraid of robbers I carry fire arms.

I put on my water proof, because it was raining a little while ago.

189.—나 is equivalent to though, or although, and has a concessive force. It is used with verbs of knowing, telling, etc., where we would use the English word whether. Repeated after co-ordinate clauses it is equivalent to either—or, See 269

He talks well enough, but he cannot work well.

Though the price is small, it looks well.

Sleep or not, suit yourself.

* Literally Because thieves are to be feared I carry fire arms.
You ought to do this whether you die or live.

Although I eat this fish, I do not know its name.

Though I fired off my gun, I did not get the deer.

Though there are plenty of cats, they do not catch the rats.

Though he is tall, his feet are small.

Even though a man does a host of useless things, of what account is it?

Even though you bring medicine, after a man is dead, is it any use?
by but, however, etc. In its union with the verb, the termination may be retained, or it may be replaced by AMPL.

Note.—In connection with this word, we should not forget that it is not much used by Koreans. They as a rule, prefer to use one of the concessive particles, and generally transpose the sentence and do so. At times they express the same idea by the use of the verbal noun in 헛, with the postposition 눈. See ¶ 173. It seems almost as though the Korean prefers to use any other phrase than this, and careful attention, will reveal the fact that 마는 is much more commonly used by foreigners, or Koreans with whom they are associated, than by Koreans generally.

A few illustrations of its use are given:—

 יצחק is much more commonly used by foreigners, or Koreans with whom they are associated, than by Koreans generally.

—거나, 거나. This conjunction is generally repeated and may be rendered into English by whether—or.

The 거나 form is used quite frequently alone with 형태 expressing appearance and may be translated by think.

Go or not, do as you wish.

Eat or starve, do as you think best.

Whether it is large or small, buy it.

It seemed as though he would study but he frittered away his time.

I thought he was coming.
193. — 겨늘 signifying when, after, since, as, has both a temporal and causal effect. It is found for the most part in books, but may at times, though very rarely be used in conversation.*

The verb 이오 gives us the form 이어늘.

When they say a friend is dying how can one but go?

When some one else says that you took the book; how can you say you did not?

194. — 며. This conjunction is simply connective and signifies and. Unlike its equivalent 과 which commonly unites directly with the stem, 며 generally unites with the tenses and then replaces the terminations.

While the distinction is not strictly adhered to 며 generally connects acts that are carried on simultaneously, 과 those that are successive.

Can I eat and study (at the same time)?

How can you both play and study?

When did you go and when did you come?

Tell exactly, what time you will go and at what time you ought to be coming back.

* Some say that 겨늘 and 과면 (195) are the same.
195.—고면, 고반, 고면. These are but three different forms which the same conjunction may assume. They may be rendered into English by—at the time that, when, while, though at the same time, when in fact, and are used in expressing surprise, astonishment, and in reproach.

As a rule, they unite directly with the verb, after its termination has been dropped, but 세 may be used as a connective.

지금 비가 오는 고면 아니 온다고 향나.
네 집에 불 난 고면 아니 가는나.
붓시 고면 연찬하고 향오.
김서방이 왔고면 엄다고 향영소.

Even now while the rain is coming down, do you say it does not rain?

When your house is on fire, are you not going?

Though the pencils are good, at the same time, he says they are bad.

Though Mr. Kim was in he said, he was out.

196.—도. This conjunction signifies, though, although, and has a concessive force, but is commonly only found united with the past verbal participle.

지금 가도 그 사람 불수는 엽소.
감산 비싸도 내가 사겠소.
교군군은 왜셔도 아마 못 가겟다.
그 집을 내가 사고 시버도 돈이 부족하겠소.

Even though you go now you can not see that man.

Though the price is high, I will buy.

Even though the chair coolies have come, perhaps he will not go.

Although I would like to buy that house, I can not afford it.
197.—지, 가 and 교. 지 and 가 are both used with relative participles and signify whether, whether—or, with verbs of knowing and not knowing, etc. In uniting with the participles, except the future participle in 교, they can unite directly and no connective is needed. With this, however, 교 is needed as a connective. We find these conjunctions largely in use with those relative participles that are derived from the various simple and compound tenses by affixing 도 and 르. Both these conjunctions are also largely used, (가 more frequently) in soliloquies, expressive of doubt and hesitation and at such times they are joined directly to the Future Relative Participle without the connective 교.

Sometimes joined direct to the stem 가 becomes 가.

With reference to the word 교, it may be said that it also has this latter sense, and is used in the same way.

오늘 오늘지 모르겠소. I do not know whether he will come to-day.

다 흉벗늘지 두려 보야라. Ascertain whether he has finished.

짐에 계신가 알고 오너라. Go and find out whether he is at home.

어제 왔는데 알수 엿소. I can not tell whether he came yesterday.

릭일 갈래지 모르겠소. I do not know whether I shall go to-morrow.

어여 khắc 흉면 도돌가. How had I better do it?

일본 가서 사면 어여돌고. How would it be to go to Japan and buy it?

198.—지라도. This conjunction is found only with the regular future, and future past relative participles. It has the sense of though, although, even though etc., and is
the strongest of the Korean concessives. With the future participle, it has a present and hence with the future past, a past sense.

**Even though you tell him to come again, he will not.**

**Even though you take the medicine, you will die.**

**Although I went yesterday, I did not meet him.**

**비가 오늘 더 가요.** Why are you going when it is raining?

**그 집을 잘 지었는데 더 혼나고 흡요.** Whereas they built that house well, why do they want to pull it down?

**티일은 손님이 반히 오겠다.** When there are a host of friends coming to-morrow, have you not bought a thing with which to entertain them?

**200.—고. Like 며, this conjunction is, as a rule, simply connective, and may be rendered into English by and—See p. 194.**

**To this the opposite postposition 과 is often added giving us the effect almost of a conditional.**

Note.—This same connective may be affixed to any one of the tenses in the forms ending in 아, and used with 하시요; it then gives us the regular form for indirect discourse.
Put out the light and go to sleep.

He went yesterday and again to-day.

As both the flowers are out, and the weather is fine, let us take a walk.

As the Minister and the President of the Foreign Office are both coming to-morrow; buy some good fruit.

If you do it that way it cannot but succeed.

Nobody can live and be as much in debt as you are.

You cannot rest while I am here.

If there were such patriots as that the country could not lose.

201.—고나 and 그리야 are both interjections expressive of surprise, and are used with the indicative tenses. With 고나 the termination is dropped; with 그리야, it is retained. It may be rendered into English by why! preceding the clause.

고나 is often contracted with 골 and we have the constantly used ending 골곤 often pronounced as though is were 골곤 and not uncommonly wrongly so written.

비가 어제도 오더니 오늘 도 오는 고나. Why! It was raining yesterday and it is raining again to-day.
Why! The boy who came yesterday, has come again to-day.

Why! It will rain again to-morrow, for the South wind has been blowing all day.

Why! It is wonderful that the flowers in winter are like those of spring.

Since the wind is blowing so hard, it will indeed, be a great conflagration.

202.—다가. Signifies while, at the time that when, and implies an interruption. It is a conjunctive adverb, and may unite with any of the simple tenses of the indicative. It may at times be rendered by but.

I met Mr. Kim when I was coming to Seoul.

I got this disease when I was going to Japan.

I intended to go to America, but did not.

I intended to see the Minister to-day, but did not.

203.—으면서. This conjunctive adverb also signifies while, but it has the sense of simultaneous action, and indicates that the actions expressed by the dependent, and
the principal verbs were carried on at the same time. The Koreans however recognize that the action of the dependent verb may occur at any point during the course of action expressed by the principle verb.

He smokes, while he reads his book.

Let us consult about it, while we are going.

I will read the letter, while eating.

The teacher committed the care of the scholars to me, when he was starting for home.

The owner of this house, committed the key to my keeping, when he went to Seoul.

It blows while it rains.

At the same time that my head aches, my stomach, aches.

면서 with adverbs of time such as (at once) etc., has also the sense of, as soon as. For illustrations of this see Part II. Chap. VII., § II. Sec. 23, 3.

The Desiderative Verb.

204.—The regular desiderative verb is formed by the use of the desiderative base and generally connected by the connective 𤈴. The 𤈴 may, however, be dispensed with, and then still further contractions may take place.
When such desideratives are formed, they can be carried through the whole basal conjugation. They are equivalent to the English words to desire to, to intend to, to want to.

As:

먹으려고 할오 ................. To intend to eat.
가려고 할오 ................ To intend to go.
자려고 할오 ................ To intend to sleep.

205.—Another from of the desiderative may be obtained by the use of 고저 or 고자 affixed to the verbal stem, with 할오.

In use these two are often interchangeable, and both signify, desire, intention.

The true distinction between these, is, that while the form in 러 or 러 signifies rather desire, wish, that in 저 or 자 has more the idea of purpose, intent.

지금 서울 입셔서 김사방을 보고저할오. As I am at Seoul now, I purpose seeing Mr. Kim.
미국 입실때 화문선을 사고저 할엇소. While I was in America, I intended buying a steamboat.
조선 궁소와 의론 할고저 할오. I intend consulting with the Korean Minister.

Further illustration of both these desiderative forms will be found in Part II. Chap. I, § III. Sec. 13.

Negatives.

206.—There are in Korean two negatives, 안 or 아니, and 못. Both are simple negatives and may be rendered into English by not. 안, however, always brings in the
idea of the will of the subject; on the other hand, generally conveys the idea of inability, and is used in negations that were brought about generally, without an act of the will of the subject of the verb. This distinction between and should not only always be recognized when listening to Koreans, but must always be observed in speaking. By a lack of discrimination in this matter, the most ludicrous mistakes often occur. These words may be used adverbially when they precede the verb they negate.

On account of the distinction mentioned above, may often be rendered by the English can not.

지금 안 자요. He is not sleeping now.
여제 안 갔소. He did not go yesterday.
저녁에는 안 먹겠소. I will not take any supper.
오늘 못 섰나요. I can not start to day.
어;charset 못 보얏소. I did see you before.
후에는 못 오겠소. I can not come afterwards.

These same words may be united with when they form negative verbs, and still maintain the distinction mentioned above.

When these negative verbs are used, they are preceded by the negative base of the verb they negate. Thus: they give us a negative form of the principal verb. From the verb , we have the negative base which joined to the negative verb , gives us . But the and the may contract into ; the and the into , and we have then as the negative of the verb (to be bright).

In like manner from any verb, a negative verb may be formed, which in turn, may be carried through the whole
basal conjugation. In forming a negative from the negative base, with ᄀᆞᆷ ᄄᆞᄋᆞ, from the nature of the case, contractions cannot occur.

**Negatives.**

도소, To be good, 도처 아니ᄂᆡᄋᆞ or 도챔소.
먹소, To eat, 먹지 아니ᄂᆡᄋᆞ ᄒᆞ, 먹잔소.
주오, To give, 주지 아니ᄂᆡᄋᆞ ᄒᆞ, 주잔소.
ᄂᆞᆫ니오, To walk, ᄂᆞᆫ니지 아니ᄂᆡᄋᆞ ᄒᆞ, ᄂᆞᆫ니잔소.
성가스 To be bother—{성가스럼지 아니} ᄂᆞᆫ오 ᄂᆞᆫ잔소.

208.—The negative verb 마오 (to avoid) is much more used in Korean than its corresponding word in English. For the most part, it is found in commands, entreaties; exhortations not to do something. Like the other negative verbs, it is preceded by the negative base of the verb expressing the action to be avoided.

술 먹지 마오. Do not take wine.
작난 죽지 마오. Do not play.
نم 의계 해로운 일을 마오. Avoid injury to others.

209.—Certain verbs have corresponding negative forms, such as, to want, and, to refuse; to know and to be ignorant of; and, where these exist, they are of course used in preference to the negative form that might be derived in the manner described above.

For example:

표화 ᄀᆞᄋᆞ. To like. | ᄀᆞᄉᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞ To dislike.
아오 ...... To know. | 모라오 ...... To be ignorant of.
크오 ...... To be big. | ᄀᆞᄉᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞ To be small.
밥소 ...... To be high. | ᄀᆞᄉᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞᄋᆞ To be low.
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THE VERB.

To exist. | To be lacking.
To eat. | To fast.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

210.—There are a number of verbs in Korean, which joining themselves to other verbs or parts of verbs, give not so much a double sense to the new verb thus formed, but a new sense, derived from the union of the two. These verbs have been termed *auxiliary* verbs, and while the term, thus used, does not signify the same as when used in most grammars, we see no reason to make a change.

Many of the verbs thus used as auxiliaries retain their original meaning throughout, and as a rule, a careful study of the auxiliary, and the form of the verb with which it is used will give an accurate understanding of the joint meaning of the two as used together.

In their use, we find that they are joined sometimes, to the verbal participles, sometimes, directly to one or other of the simple tenses, sometimes another particle is interposed, and sometimes they are joined to the relative participle. One and the same verb, may act as auxiliary in all these ways. The greater number, however, are joined to the verbal participles.

211.—The following is a list of the most common, divided into classes, according to their method of uniting with the verb:

1st. Those united to the verbal participle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In Korean</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>익소 ......</td>
<td>To be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오오 ......</td>
<td>To come.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>가오 ......</td>
<td>To go.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>보오 ......</td>
<td>To see.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>죽고 오 preceded by</td>
<td>To be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>되오 ......</td>
<td>To become.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>두오 ......</td>
<td>To leave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>지오 ......</td>
<td>To grow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>주오 ......</td>
<td>To give.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>할오 ......</td>
<td>To do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2nd. Joined to verbal tenses:—
보호, connected by 나. (to see).

3rd. Joined to relative participles:—
보호, connected by 가, (to see).
섭소, connected by 가, (to want).

4th. Joined to the stem:—
잊소, connected by 길, (to be).
섭소, connected by 길, (to want).
슈림소, (to be worthy of).
 neger소, (to regard as).

These are but a few of the auxiliaries in common use; and, as has already been said, an exact rendering of them, with the connecting particles and the verb they join, will always give the meaning to be conveyed. A few words, however, about some of them will illustrate this and aid the student.

212.—보호, 가호, and 지호. The first two verbs are affixed to verbal participles, and mark the movement, here or there, as the case may be. 가호 is also affixed to neuter verbs, signifying that the state expressed by the neuter verb is gradually and constantly increasing; and 지호 has this same sense. These verbs then, correspond to what in Latin are known as "Inceptives."

누리오 To lower, 누려오오 To come down, 누려가오 To go down.
오르 오 To raise, 음나오오 To come up, 음나가오 To go up.

봄소 To be bright. 봄아가오 To grow bright.
감소 To be black. 감어지오 To grow black.
씻소 To be old. 씻어가오 To grow old.

213.—보호 (to see) may be found used as an auxiliary, united either with a verbal participle, or with a relative participle, or with a simple tense.
1st. United with a verbal participle; no connective is needed, and the verb 보요 generally then has the sense of, to try. But, at times, it and the verb for which it acts as an auxiliary, may be rendered into English by one word.

먹어보요, “Eating try” to taste.
무려보요, “Asking see” to inquire.
비해보요, “Cutting try” to try to cut.

214.—2nd. United with the relative participles, or with a simple tense, with 가 and 나 respectively as connectives, it signifies probability, likelihood. This sense comes naturally from a literal translation, and 간가보요, lit. “Gone looks,” means “It looks as though he has gone,” or “He has probably gone” Again 비로켓나보요, lit. “Rain will come though it looks,” means “It looks as though rain will come,” or “It will probably rain.”

오늘은 쓰나는 가 보요. He probably starts to-day.
서울서 왔는 가 보요. He has probably come from Seoul.

한일은 먹겼는 가 보요. He will probably eat it to-morrow.

네롭에 비가 만히 오니 풍년 되겠나 보요. As there is a good deal of rain this summer, it will probably be a year of plenty.

석탄이 적으니 뿌이 써 지겠나 보요. As there is but a little coal the fire will probably go out.

안경 쓸면 그 적을 보겠나 보요. If you put on your glasses you can probably read that book.
215.—즉ᄒᆞᄒᆞ preceded by 口, is united with the verbal participle, past or future, and signifies, to be worthy of—.

This was the original and true meaning of the word, but we find it to-day, used also in the sense of possibility, and even probability.

Note.—The auxiliary, here used giving what we might call a future sense to the verb with which it is used, may be employed interchangeably with the future or past participle, though the past is the more frequent.

그 음식 문든 것은 미우 먹암즉 ᄇᆞᆷᆞ The food that has been prepared is tempting.
윤서방의 동산에 있는 꽃은 총 보암즉 ᄇᆞᆷกำไร The flowers in Mr. Yun's garden are worth seeing.

216.—스럽소. This auxiliary also has the meaning of "to be worthy of"; and is joined with the verbal noun, or any abstract noun. It may also be joined to the preceding auxiliary, replacing ᄇᆞᆷ. When so used the meaning is unchanged.

오서방이 소탕 스럽소. Mr. Oh is a lovable man.
그 병덩은 미우 소용 스럽소. That soldier is quite active.
열두시 동안이면 그만치 밤니 감촉 스럽소. He ought to go that far if he has twelve hours.
오늘은 비가 음즉 스럽소. It looks as though it will rain to day.
新西복 스럽소. He looks as though he could jump.
217.—십소 This word may be used either with the verbal stem, or with the relative participle.

1st. Used with the verbal stem, 故 is interposed as a connective, and 故십소 may then be rendered into English by "I want to" "I desire to."

가고 십소. To want to go.
자고 십소. To want to sleep.
먹고 십소. To want to eat.

2nd. Used with the Relative Participle, 가 or 뜻 or 도, must be interposed as a connective.

So used 십소 indicates strong probability, and shows that while the subject of the verb, does not know for a certainty, yet he has strong reason to believe, that the action or state contained in the verb to which 십소 acts as an auxiliary, is a fact.

음이 대단히 압하 못할 드 십소. I am in great pain and probably can not live.
로 형이 오지 못할 가 십소. You will most probably not come.
집이 잘 못 될 듯 십소. I do not think the house will be a good one.
리일은 결과 십소. I shall probably go tomorrow.

218.—주오 (to give) used as an auxiliary, gives the sense of doing for another, either as a favor, or in rendering aid. It may often be rendered into English by let, have, make, get.

공부 잘 쓰게 해 주오. Make it so that I can study well.
병을 고프게 해 주오. Cure the disease for me.
이 책을 망고아 주오. Change this book for me.
붓 니나 사 주오. Buy a pencil for me.
219.—되 오 (to become). This auxiliary is seldom used except with the future verbal participle. Used with active verbs it signifies that circumstances are in a position for the carrying out of the action contained in the verb with which it is used.

음식이 먹게 되오. The food is ready for eating.
병이 죽게 되오. The disease is unto death.
그 사람이 가게 되오. That man is so that he can go.

220.—Further modifications of the verb, expressing probability, possibility, pretension, duty, etc., are formed by the use of the relative participles qualifying nouns such as \( \text{\textit{reason}}, \text{\textit{thing}}, \text{\textit{work}}, \text{\textit{manner}} \), together with \( \text{\textit{possibility}}, \text{\textit{thing}}, \text{\textit{work}} \) or 이 오. These have come into so general a use, that they have been regarded almost as new verbs. They can, like any other verbs, be carried through the whole conjugation, after the basal form given above. A thorough understanding, however, of the use of each word is sufficient, though in all these we must not forget the distinctive meanings of \( \text{\textit{be}}, \text{\textit{possibility}}, \text{\textit{thing}} \) and 이 오.

These three verbs are more used than any others in the changing and modifying of other verbs and in the making of new verbs from nouns, etc.

\( \text{\textit{be}} \) has the sense of to do, to make and is joined to a number of nouns and adjectives which of course then become corresponding verbs. It may at times have the sense of the English to have. Its negative will be 아니 \( \text{\textit{be}} \), or \( \text{\textit{be}} \), or 못 \( \text{\textit{be}} \).

\( \text{\textit{possibility}} \) which has been commonly considered the equivalent of the English to be, has truly the idea of to exist;
and may often be rendered by the English to have, to dwell, to live, to be in, etc. It is, then, only equivalent to to the "to be" of English where it predicates the existence or presence of its subject. Its negative is 업소 to be lacking, to be not present, to be non-existent.

이호, on the other hand, predicates something other than "existence" or "presence" of its subject, and is not used independently. It always has another noun or pronoun with it as a predicate and may be rendered by some form of to be, though it can never stand as the equivalent of to have, to dwell, to live, or to be in. Its negative is 아니호. It is often contracted into 오 and 오.

Examples of the distinctive use of these two will be found in Part II. Chapter I. § l. 1 and 2.

These distinctions must never be lost sight of; it would not only be extremely inelegant to use one where the other ought to be employed, but in the eyes of the Korean, very ludicrous. In not a few cases also a wrong impression would be given.

221.—The following list of the nouns most commonly so used will explain this.

수 (means) with 업소 All signify ability.
만 (ability) , , 업소 Rendered into English by can, could, etc.
법 (law) , , 업소

수 (means) with 업소 Signify inability. Rendered into English by
만 (ability) , , 못히호 cannot, could not, etc.
법 (law) , , 업소

것 (thing) with 이호 Signify duty.
리 (place) 
일 (work) 

Rendered into English should ought etc.
222.—A few words on the most important of these, with illustrations of their uses are necessary.

수, 만, and 밥 are for the most part, used with the future rel. part. of the verb, to signify ability, or inability, and a past is generally rendered by the past tense of ኢAlbert, or ትን.

Note.—The 만 often has the effect of the English terminative, able after a verb or noun, meaning suitable for, fit, worthy of etc.

* Note.—These cannot then be rendered into English by ought not and should not, which can only be rendered by the negation of the verb which these auxiliaries accompany. For instance—갈것 아니오 does not mean "I should not go," but that "I am under no obligation to go." On the other hand, 아니 갈거 시오 "I ought not to go."
As I am short of money I can not buy a horse.

As I have no paper, I can not write a letter.

As those characters are large I can see them.

I can use this pen.

That is a readable book.

As he left yesterday I was not able to meet him.

That song of a little while ago, was worth hearing.

If one does not have a boat, he can not cross the sea.

If I had had some medicine I could have cured that disease.

223.-것, 류, and 일, when used to signify duty, are generally preceded by the future participle in ぼ and can be rendered by “ought to,” or should.” The past sense is, strange to say, generally expressed by the use of the past of 附。 These same auxiliary nouns, preceded by the future past participle, give us the English “ought to have,” of strong conviction.”

I ought to read that book.

I ought to go Song Do next month.

That servant ought to be honest.

You ought to write the letter.
비가 어제 제물포 왔심 거시오.
열두 시 지났시니 그 사람이 갓실 터히오.
어제 부조린이 흔들어면 다 되小时前 일이오.

The boat must have reached Chemulpo yesterday.
As it is past twelve that man must have gone.
If you had been energetic it would have been finished yesterday.

224.—번, This word with 울이 preceded by a future participle, signifies to be on the point of, to just miss, to almost accomplish the act of the principal verb.

도적 맞나 죽울번 흔덧소. I met with thieves and came near losing my life.
가다가 풍에서 너머 질번 흔덧소. As I was going I almost fell over a stone.

225.—모양 (appearance) may be used with any one of the relative participles and may be rendered into English by “it appears,” or “it seems as though,” with a present, past, or future verb, as the case may be.
This is sometimes shortened to simple 양 gives us such forms as 흔양으로, or 흔량으로; 흔양이면 or 흔량이면.
지금 글نظم 모양 이오. He seems to be reading now.
아세 간 모양 이오. He seems to have gone some little while ago.
터일 비가 또 올 모양 이요. It seems as though it will rain again to morrow.
그런 협혼 산을 가려홀 양이면 총을 가지고 가거라. If you should intend to go to such a wild mountain take a gun with you.
The Verb.

If you should travel in China it would be very well to get several letters of introduction.

I am going to get a passport as I intend to go to America.

He is quarrelling about getting money owed to him.

udad and 는 with 경오 may be used with any one of the relative participles, giving us the sense of probability. They may be rendered into English, by adverb probably, with a present, future, past, or future-past tense, as the case may be.

He is probably sleeping now.  
He will probably have gone already.  
He will probably come soon.

The relative participle is also used with certain other words which have an adverbial force, such as 셰, 적, (time); 소이, or 시 (space); etc., to signify When, while, and the like.

While I was writing a visitor came.

While I was living in Seoul I was quite friendly with that man.
미국 갈 때 흔가지로 가겠소.

When you go to America I will go with you.

직 붐 적에 싸드지 마오.

Do not make a noise while I am reading.

부산 갓실 적에 붙슴 사왓소.

When I went to Fusan I bought the pencils.

공부 할 적에 쓰 도희오.

It is paper to be used when studying.

밥 먹을 수이 첨방에 도 적이 드러왓소.

While we were eating, a thief came into the bedroom.

227.—스록 and 도록. These two particles as words are often wrongly interchanged. Their distinctive use should always be observed.

스록 is used with the Future Relative Participle and has the sense of the more—the more. It may sometimes be followed by 더욱 adding emphasis.

도록 on the other hand has simply the sense of up to the point of, up to the completion of, until, signifying the full attainment of the action of the principle verb. From the Korean standpoint there is but little of a temporal sense in 도록 though we commonly translate it by until. It often gives the sense of purpose.

바람이 불 수록 불이 나리 나오.

The more the wind blows the greater the fire.

도훈 노래는 드를 수록 듣고 싶소.

The more good songs I hear the more I want to hear.

한문은 비록 수록 어려워 가오.

The more you study the Chinese character the more difficult it is.
The more you work at a good profession the higher will be your reputation.

The doctor must stay here till that patient is better.

Explain it to me until I understand it.

Wait here till I come.

The villain by directing others to their own undoing caused them to be whipped.

Put coal on so that the fire may not go out.

The Verb in Indirect Discourse.

228.—The verb, to say, to speak, is formed from 말 (speech) and 完 오 (to make) but in telling what another has said, both of these words are not commonly used. The 말 is generally dropped, and 完 오 alone employed; but joined to the verb, signifying the word spoken, by the conjunction 고. This form however, is only used with tenses of the indicative, ending in 는 when the termination is still retained and 고 完 오, simply affixed. In the affirmative forms, the distinction between the inferior, and superior is almost lost sight of, this distinction being plainly shown by the termination of the 完 오 signifying to say. Quite often the 고 is elided and then contractions almost unlimited, may follow.
He says that he has contracted to build the house.

He said that after taking this medicine the effect was good.

He said he would come soon.

He said he would go but he did not.

By the use of this rule for indirect discourse, an imperative verb has been formed. The low form of the termination of the volitive mood, second person, has been contracted into 라 and 라고ᄒᆞ오 gives us the imperative verb "to command to," "to order to." Here also the 고 may be dropped giving us 라ᄒᆞ오 which may be contracted into 련ᄒᆞ.

Order him to give this fan to Mr. Kim.

He ordered his house to be well watched while he was gone to Pyeng Yang.

Tell him to put some coal in the stove.

As this table will not do tell him to make it over again.

Contracted and Elliptical forms.

Having seen from the very beginning, the Korean's desire to shorten every thing as much as possible and to use as few words as absence of ambiguity will allow; we are prepared to find that, with a verb that can
undergo such changes, and employ such auxiliaries (for in fact almost everything in the whole language can be made to serve the verb), there will be various and numerous contractions and ellipses that have lost almost all resemblance to that from which they have been contracted.

We are also prepared to find that there are idioms phrases and bon mots not to be comprehended at first sight. A careful study of all these should be made.

While no attempt can be made here to give all these contractions, etc. a few words concerning some of the most common will enable the student to see their method of formation, and hereafter to analyze them for himself.

231.—In the following list a few of these are described and their use explained.

The Koreans are very prone to the use of contrasts, and owing to this fact, we find a number of elliptical phrases and contractions arising from the use of the verb 마오 (to avoid) in connection with other verbs, active or neuter.

Various conjunctions are employed and decide the special meaning to be given. Other contractions, etc., are made from the use of other words and conjunctions; and, for the sake of reference to the examples and illustrations given below, we have marked them (a), (b), (c), etc.

(a) Forms arising from the use of the conjunction 지 (whether), and 마오 (to avoid).

Various forms with these two words are derived by the use of the present, past, or future relative participles. They all give us an idea of doubt as to result. With a present participle, it generally signifies that the action expressed by the principal verb, while continuing, and at the time progressing, is progressing, in such a way, that the
desired result will not be obtained, or will be obtained to so slight an extent as to be useless.

With a past participle, it conveys the idea, that while the action is completed, the result is such, that it might equally well, have been left undone. With a future participle, it implies, not so much a doubt as to the result, as to what it will be. With 제오, the forms will be:

제늘지 마늘지.
늘지 만지.
늘지 막지.

They may or may not be followed by 제오, with no change. That which is here left to be understood is some form or part of the verb 제오, to be the same.

232.—(b.) The conjunctions 니 or 고, used with 마오.

Either of these conjunctions affixed to the verbal stem, of the principal verb of the sentence, and immediately followed by the verbal stem of 마오 with the same conjunction, gives the idea of positive certainty, beyond the shadow of a doubt, as to the carrying out of the action, or the existence of the state, expressed by the principal verb. The idea seems to be that the state or act being certain, needs no comment and is beyond question.

We have then the forms:

* 제 니 마 니* "I will certainly do it."
제 고 말 고 "Of course I will do it;"

(There need be no question about it).

* Note.—The conjunction 니 beginning with 뉴 when affixed to the verbal stem 마오 which ends in 뉴, according to the rule already given causes the 뉴 to be dropped, and 니 become 마니.
THE VERB.

"It is undoubtedly high." (There is no question about its height).

233.—(c.) The interrogative particle 가 with 마오.
The particle 가, affixed to the principal verb, and immediately followed by the same form of 마오 with 가, is largely used in soliloquies, and, as will be seen at a glance, implies indecision on the part of the speaker, as to whether the action or state of the principal verb is worth while. It is joined to the Relative Participle and with the Present and Past asserts that the action being carried on or completed is useless; with the Future that the subject of the verb is undecided as to whether to carry it out or not. It may or may not precede a form of the verb 힘오. When it does not precede 힘오 it is almost entirely restricted to soliloquies.

힘 오 가 마 오 는 가
힘 오 가 만 가
힘 오 가 말 가

234.—(d.) The particle 동 used with 마오.
Various forms of the verb are derived from the use of this particle, with a present, past, or future relative participle. At times these forms are used interchangeably with those derived from the conjunction 지 (whether), given above ¶ 231. The distinction between the two is, that where 지 expresses doubt, 동 expresses an entire lack of concern or interest, in the result. It may or may not precede an accompanying verb, or a form of 힘오.

When 힘오 is used, some part of the verb 힘 오 (to be the same), is understood. With a past participle, it gives the idea of the entire failure of the object. With 힘 오, the forms are:—
THE VERB.

235.—(e.) Forms resulting from combinations of 나 with 마오.

This form with 마오 is, 월나 말나 마오, and 나 has been regarded by some, as a separate particle or conjunction, used with the future relative participle. It implies lack of interest or relish of the subject of the principal verb, in the action. He does a little and stops a little. It is rather a contraction of the desiderative forms of the principal verb, and 마오, with the adverbial conjunction 다가 which it will be remembered gives the idea of interruption. The full form with 마오 then is:—

 хозяй 한다가 말나 한다가, and gives the idea that, at first he did as though he intended to work, and then as though he intended not to work.

The contraction arises, first, by dropping the 품다, and 품하다가 becomes from euphony 월나.

Note.—The 나, following the 품, is but the Korean methods of doubling 품.

236.—(f.) The form in 고지고.

A much used form of the verb, is derived by affixing 고지고 to the verbal stem. It gives us then the idea of something much desired or longed for, and may be translated by, "would that—," "oh! that—."

237.—(g.) Exclamation in 나.

An exclamation expressive of fear or danger, and calling out to the one addressed to take care, is derived from the use of the future participle with 나. It may be or may
not be followed by some such verb as, to take care. The idea, however, of calling upon the party addressed to be careful is always present.

As:

너무질나, "You will fall!"

The same form may be used with the verb 보호. (to see) implying strong probability.

238.—(h). The desiderative form in 라, is we find often changed in the same manner as was seen above under (e.), and 라 may become 올나, and 라고 올나고. Such a form as this, must then be rendered in the same way as the simple desiderative. From this form with the verb 이호 (to be), is derived the phrase in 나고요, which for convenience we may then consider formed from the future participle. It may be translated, by, "Do you think that"—"Do you for a moment suppose that—," and signifies a positive negation.

239.—(i). The form in 나라.

The phrase derived from the use of the future participle with this, gives the equivalent of the English potential past perfect, with a disjunctive or concessive force. It may, be translated by "would have, but—" "should have, but—" etc.

The full phrase would be.

 Bolton 일 일 나라.

which is the future relative participle qualifying 일 (work), which is the subject of the irregular form of the progressive tense of the verb 이호 (to be), to which has been affixed the conjunction 나라.
240.—(j.) The last of these contractions of which we shall speak, are derived from the desiderative base. They are ᄍ_KHR, ᄍ_K_R_와나, and ᄍ_KHR_다고나. They are all used in commands where the person commanding is enraged at the neglect of a former order or well known duty. ᄍ_KHR is a contraction of the colloquial ᄍ_K_R_ (do you intend to) and ᄄ_으도 (what), with some such phrase as "are you doing?" etc., understood. It may be translated by "Do you intend to—" "Why don't you?" etc., ᄍ_K_R_와나 is a less complete contraction of the same form.

_다고나_ is contraction of.

_으리 무릇 훌다 고나._

_or "Do you intend to? Why what are you doing?"_

This last is much stronger than either of the other two, and extremely colloquial. It may be rendered into English by some such phrase as "Why on earth don't you?" "Why under the sun don't you?" All these three phrases are expressive of irritation, annoyance, anger.

241.—The following sentences will illustrate these forms, and while the above are not by any means all that might be given, it is hoped that they are sufficient to give the student an insight into them and enable him to make further investigations for himself.

(a)

_목슈가 돈이 적다고 일을 논지 머늘지 논고 가호._ The carpenter complains that the compensation is small, and is doing his work so that it will be useless.
As he told it to a man who had no brains he doubts whether he understood.

As we have studied so little to-day on account of so many callers, we might as well not have studied at all.

As little rain came, it is of no account.

As I have been a merchant, it is doubtful whether I can farm.

If there is plenty of profit, I will certainly do it.

As you have given twenty nyang for a ten nyang book, you certainly have not bought well.

As it was a boy who insulted a man he certainly did wrong; and nothing more need be said about it.

As I have been fasting for two days, it is certainly good to eat (again).

This river is too small we can have no pleasure boating here.
In the midst of such a noise a low voice is useless.

Why! such work as this is useless.

Why! What I said is useless.

As I am studying I am thinking whether to translate the book or not.

As there is plenty of work in Korea, and not much to do in America, I do not know whether to go or not.

Though this servant works well, as he does not attend to what is said, shall I discharge him or not?

I do not care whether I repair the house this year or not.

As it is raining hard I doubt whether Mr. Kim will come to-day.

As I have not made a penny by this transaction, I might just as well not have done it.

As I ate only a little this morning it is as though I had eaten noting.
I do not care whether I engage in business or not, as I have but a little money and cannot do so on a large scale.

As on account of the press of work I only slept for half an hour last night, I mights as well not have slept at all.

Lately on account of pain I work a little and stop a little. As the food does not suit I eat without relish.

Would that we could do that work quickly. As the disease is pressing, would that I could see the doctor soon.

You will not do it well; take care. A bone will stick in your throat! Be careful. The carpenter will probably work to-morrow.

Even though I have taken lots of medicine, as the disease is worse I will probably die.
I intended to do that later.

I bought this to give to you.

When he said he would not do it yesterday, do you think he will do it to-day.

Do you think I want to go into the water and drown?

I would have done this well, but there was not enough money and I could not.

I should have died had I not met a renowned doctor who healed me.

As you have played a good while now, do you not intend to study a little?

As I am going to Seoul, why have you not called coolies?

If it will not do that way, do it this way.

If you will not drink water, why do you not take tea?

If you have forgotten why on earth do you not try and think of it?

If you will not work why under the sun do you not go?
242.—The principal parts of some of the verbs most commonly used are given below.

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<th>Future Verbal Part</th>
<th>Past Rel. Part</th>
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<tr>
<td>To sit</td>
<td>안소...</td>
<td>안계...</td>
<td>안존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To put up</td>
<td>언소...</td>
<td>언계...</td>
<td>언존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be lacking</td>
<td>엽소...</td>
<td>엽계...</td>
<td>엽손</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be</td>
<td>엽서...</td>
<td>엽계...</td>
<td>엽손</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To fit</td>
<td>맮소...</td>
<td>맮계...</td>
<td>맮존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To complete</td>
<td>못소...</td>
<td>못계...</td>
<td>못존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To forget</td>
<td>니소...</td>
<td>니계...</td>
<td>니존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To take off</td>
<td>벗소...</td>
<td>벗계...</td>
<td>벗손</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To wash</td>
<td>씩소...</td>
<td>씩계...</td>
<td>씩손</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be frequent</td>
<td>착소...</td>
<td>착계...</td>
<td>착존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be wet</td>
<td>채소...</td>
<td>채계...</td>
<td>채존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To follow after</td>
<td>죽소...</td>
<td>죽계...</td>
<td>죽존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To drive</td>
<td>죽소...</td>
<td>죽계...</td>
<td>죽존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To look for</td>
<td>찐소...</td>
<td>찐계...</td>
<td>찐존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To find</td>
<td>찐소...</td>
<td>찐계...</td>
<td>찐존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be disgusting</td>
<td>아니씀소...</td>
<td>아니씀계...</td>
<td>아니씀존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be beautiful</td>
<td>아름답소...</td>
<td>아름답계...</td>
<td>아름답존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To itch</td>
<td>가립소...</td>
<td>가림계...</td>
<td>가림존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be light</td>
<td>가림압소...</td>
<td>가림압계...</td>
<td>가림압존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be droll</td>
<td>가쇠롭소...</td>
<td>가쇠롭계...</td>
<td>가쇠롭존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be minute</td>
<td>까다롭소...</td>
<td>까다롭계...</td>
<td>까다롭존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be ticklish</td>
<td>간지립소...</td>
<td>간지립계...</td>
<td>간지립존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be near</td>
<td>갓갑소...</td>
<td>갓갑계...</td>
<td>갓갑존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be vexatious</td>
<td>꼬름소...</td>
<td>꼬름계...</td>
<td>꼬름존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be heavy</td>
<td>무겁소...</td>
<td>무겁계...</td>
<td>무겁존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be dirty</td>
<td>멀림소...</td>
<td>멀림계...</td>
<td>멀림존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be repugnant</td>
<td>중그럽소...</td>
<td>중그럼계...</td>
<td>중그럼존</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Indicative</td>
<td>Past Verbal Part</td>
<td>Future Verbal Part</td>
<td>Past Rel. Part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
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<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To mend</strong> .....</td>
<td>김소 .....</td>
<td>김계 .....</td>
<td>기운</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To lie down</strong></td>
<td>늘소 .....</td>
<td>놀계 .....</td>
<td>누운</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To deplore</strong></td>
<td>쁨소 .....</td>
<td>쁨계 .....</td>
<td>셨운</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To be hot</strong></td>
<td>더울소 .....</td>
<td>더울계 .....</td>
<td>더운</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To be cold</strong></td>
<td>천소 .....</td>
<td>천계 .....</td>
<td>처운</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To know</strong></td>
<td>아오 .....</td>
<td>알계 .....</td>
<td>안</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To freeze</strong></td>
<td>이오 .....</td>
<td>얼계 .....</td>
<td>얼개</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To open</strong></td>
<td>여오 .....</td>
<td>열계 .....</td>
<td>연</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To draw</strong></td>
<td>잇그오 .....</td>
<td>잇그려 .....</td>
<td>잇글게</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To be lonely</strong></td>
<td>의견이오 .....</td>
<td>의견이려 .....</td>
<td>의견일게</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>To be dry</strong></td>
<td>감으오 .....</td>
<td>감으려 .....</td>
<td>감을게</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To hang</strong></td>
<td>거오 .....</td>
<td>거려 .....</td>
<td>거든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To promenade</strong></td>
<td>전이오 .....</td>
<td>전이려 .....</td>
<td>전일게</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To go afoot</strong></td>
<td>것소 .....</td>
<td>것려 .....</td>
<td>것론</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To be long</strong></td>
<td>기오 .....</td>
<td>기려 .....</td>
<td>기든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To raise</strong></td>
<td>길드오 .....</td>
<td>길드려 .....</td>
<td>길들게</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To avoid</strong></td>
<td>마오 .....</td>
<td>막게 .....</td>
<td>막든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To make</strong></td>
<td>문드오 .....</td>
<td>문들게 .....</td>
<td>문든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To be far</strong></td>
<td>머오 .....</td>
<td>머게 .....</td>
<td>면</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To stay</strong></td>
<td>머므오 .....</td>
<td>머므려 .....</td>
<td>머른</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To suck</strong></td>
<td>썰오 .....</td>
<td>쌓게 .....</td>
<td>쌓든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To pray</strong></td>
<td>비오 .....</td>
<td>빌게 .....</td>
<td>빔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To undo</strong></td>
<td>푸오 .....</td>
<td>푸려 .....</td>
<td>푸든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To load</strong></td>
<td>십소 .....</td>
<td>십려 .....</td>
<td>십론</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To make a noise</strong></td>
<td>섹드오 .....</td>
<td>섹들게 .....</td>
<td>섹든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To lift</strong></td>
<td>드오 .....</td>
<td>들게 .....</td>
<td>드든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To hear</strong></td>
<td>듣소 .....</td>
<td>듣게 .....</td>
<td>듣든</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To be round</strong></td>
<td>훛그오 .....</td>
<td>훛그려 .....</td>
<td>훛글게</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER VIII.

THE ADJECTIVE.

243.—Adjectives have been divided into two general classes, Limiting, and Qualifying. Limiting adjectives under the head of Numerals, and Pronominal Adjectives have already been treated. Qualifying adjectives then, alone remain to be considered here. As has already been said, there are very few Korean words that can be termed true adjectives. Those that exist to-day were originally nouns, and by far the greater part, have been derived from the Chinese. Such adjectives always precede the words they qualify, and of course the rule for the use of Sinico-Korean and pure Korean words holds here also. A Sinico-Korean Adjective must qualify a Sinico-Korean noun, and a pure Korean adjective its corresponding noun.

대, Great. 
소, Little. 
빛, White. 
황, Yellow. 
상, Low. 

대풍, A great wind. 
소인, A little man, 
빛마, A white horse. 
황금, Yellow Gold. 
상놈, A low fellow.

244.—By far the greater number of so called Korean adjectives are neuter verbs, and the past, or perfect relative participle is commonly used as the adjectival form.
Used predicatively the verbal from will be employed; used attributively the participial. These neuter verbs can be carried through the whole basal conjugation. When the participial form is used, it precedes the noun qualified; when the verbal, the noun qualified, of course, precedes the adjective. The following list of predicative and attributive forms will illustrate this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>높소......</td>
<td>높은.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>낮소......</td>
<td>낮은.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>첩소......</td>
<td>첩운.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>머물소.....</td>
<td>머문.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>울소......</td>
<td>울훈.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>그르오.....</td>
<td>그른.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>갖갑소.....</td>
<td>갖가운.....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>머오.....</td>
<td>머런.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>강물오.....</td>
<td>강훈.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>유물오.....</td>
<td>유훈.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>닝소.....</td>
<td>닝은.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>심호.....</td>
<td>심은.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>이듭소.....</td>
<td>이두은.....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>뚬소.....</td>
<td>뚬은.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>널소.....</td>
<td>널은.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>좁소.....</td>
<td>좁은.......</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To be high.  High.
To be low.  Low.
To be cold.  Cold.
To be hot.  Hot.
To be right.  Right.
To be wrong.  Wrong.
To be near.  Near.
To be far.  Far.
To be hard.  Hard.
To be soft.  Soft.
To be ripe.  Ripe.
To be unripe.  Unripe.
To be dark.  Dark.
To be light.  Light.
To be broad.  Broad.
To be narrow.  Narrow.

245.—The Korean adjective being thus really a verb, admits of a great variety of forms of expression and a number of distinctions unattainable in English. A thorough knowledge of the verb and its forms with their uses will enable any one at a glance to comprehend all these.
246.—In ¶ 211 ff., on auxiliary verbs, several forms which enter into the composition of adjectives of different significations were mentioned. Among those then mentioned were:

스럽소 joined to nouns, and signifying, to be worthy of, to have the nature of.

즉호, to be worthy of, to be well worth, etc., and joined to past verbal participles by the interposition of 모.

만호. To be able, which joined to the future participle in 에, of active verbs gives us the English adjectives in able.

지오, To grow, or 가오, to go, joined to past verbal participles, gives us inceptive adjectival verbs.

소람스럽소 To be amiable, from 소랑 Love.
원슈스럼소 To be hostile " 원슈 An enemy.
보람즉호 To be worth seeing " 보오 To see.
먹임즉호 To be worth eating " 먹소 To eat.
마람철만호 To be teachable " 마람치호 To teach.
음길만호 To be moveable " 음기오 To move.
다소릴란호 To be manageable " 다소리오 To rule.
적어가오 To grow small " 적소 To be small.
커지오 To grow large " 크오 To be large.

247.—A certain class of adjectival verbs are formed by adding 스럽 to the verbal stem, using a connective. This is almost restricted to colors and gives the idea of moderately, or somewhat, corresponding to the English termination ish.
THE ADJECTIVE. 197

볼소 To be red 볼으스럽스럽 To be reddish.
누른 오 To be yellow 누른스럽스럽 ,, yellowish.
푸른 오 To be blue 푸른스럽스럽 ,, blueish.
검은 오 To be black 검으스럽스럽 ,, blackish.
회오 To be white 회으스럽스럽 ,, whitish.

248.—A further modification of adjectival verbs of color, is made by a repetition of the stems with 속 오, giving us then, the sense of to be spotted with, or to be colored in spots.

볼으스름 솔 보오 To be spotted with red.
누른 솔 솔 오 ,, ,, ,, yellow.
푸른 솔 솔 오 ,, ,, ,, blue.
검은 솔 솔 오 ,, ,, ,, black.

249.—As in English so also in Korean, but to a much greater extent, nouns are used as adjectives. With many of these we may suppose the insertion of the postposition 의, but as there is no ambiguity if omitted, it is not used.

조선 사람. A “Korea man” or a Korean.
주방 소품. Kitchen utensils.
여름 옷. Summer clothes.
화로 불. Hibachi fire.
바다 물. Sea water.

Comparison of Adjectives.

250.—With reference to Korean comparison of adjectives it may be said, that as in all other things, so also here, unless ambiguity would arise without their
use, the particles expressing comparison are omitted. In comparing two things then, the Korean as a rule would not use the comparative but the simple positive.

251.—A comparative degree may be formed by the use of the adverb 더 (more) preceding the adjective.

오늘 산 귀가 더 도소. The box you bought to-day is better.
이 개가 더 사호납소. This dog is more savage.
이 사람이 더 훨었소. This man is older.
그 몸이 더 잘 가오. That horse goes better.

252.—In comparing two things, where both are mentioned 보다, sometimes written 보럼, signifying than, is affixed to the noun having the quality in the lesser degree, and the adjective is used positively. The use of 보다 together with 더 and the adjective, unless special emphasis is desired, is not common among Koreans, and should be carefully avoided by foreigners.

이 책 보다 그 책이 도소. That book is better than this.
화물선 보다 화물기가 급히 가오. The steam-car travels faster than the steam-boat.
돌 빗 보다 흙빛치 복소. Sunlight is brighter than moonlight.
더운 것 보다 차운 거시 도소. Cold is better than heat.

253.—The postposition 에서 (from) may also be used for 보다 in the sense of than, to express a comparative degree.

Note.—The use of 보록 and 보림 for 보다 is wrong, and should be avoided.
This ink is blacker than that.

This water is clearer than that.

This horse travels faster than that.

Last year we spent the summer at the summer house at Han Kang but Kumipo is cooler.

254.—The superlative degree is expressed by the use of the first (the first) preceding the adjective. However, as was remarked concerning the comparative, even when comparing several, the simple positive is used where the English would require a superlative. Here then we see with regard to both comparative, and superlative, that great care should be exercised by the student, if he desires to speak true Korean and not an Anglicized imitation of it, to as far as possible do away with their use and employ the simple positive.

This is the best of several pens.

This man is the tallest.

Your watch keeps the best time.

Korean paper is the best kind of paper.

Among the countries of the world Russia is the largest.
CHAPTER IX.

THE ADVERB.

255.—Korean adverbs may be classified as to their source, and as to their meaning.
Classified as to their source we have Primitive and Derived.
The Primitive Adverbs are few in number, such as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Adverb</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>지금 .......... Now.</td>
<td>아마 .......... Perhaps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>야까 .......... A little while ago.</td>
<td>아조 .......... Entirely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>쏘... } .......... Again.</td>
<td>더 .......... More.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>만... } .......... Only.</td>
<td>아직 .......... Yet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>셋... } .......... Only.</td>
<td>안 } .......... Not.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Adverb</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

256.—Derived adverbs may be divided into two classes, those derived from verbs, and those derived from nouns or pronouns.
The adverb regularly derived from the verb, may be formed by adding 이 or 하 to the verbal stem.
In adding רגיש to the stem, euphonic modifications naturally take place. Verbs in 는다 change the 는다 into 혀 or sometimes into ellig. Verbs whose stems terminate in 은 add 니. All other verbs take the form of the stem with its added or changed consonants as found in the past verbal participle, and add ellig.

놓소 ........ To be lofty.  놓히 ........ Lothily.
천혹오 ...... To be base.  천히 ........ Baseyly.
귀혹오 ...... To be rare.  귀히 ........ Rarely.
갓갑소 ...... To be near.  갓가이 ...... Near.
허오 ........ To be far.  허니 ...... Far.
널소 ........ To be wide.  널니 ...... Widely.
맞부오 ...... To be quick.  맞비 ...... Quickly.
적소 ........ To be little.  적이 ...... Little.
복소 ........ To be bright.  복이 ...... Brightly.
첩소 ........ To be easy.  첩이 ...... Easily.
김소 ........ To be deep.  김히 ...... Deeply.

257.—The future verbal participle in 쭍 or 까 is also largely used adverbially.

다른오 ... To be different.  다른게 ...... Differently.
도소 ...... To be good.  도케 ...... Well.
첩소 ...... To be cold.  첩게 ...... Coldly.

258.—These two classes of adverbs derived from verbs, have been claimed to be identical in signification, and interchangeable, some verbs preferring the from in 까 and some that in ellig. Such, however, is not the case, and the distinction made in the “Grammaire Coreëenne” always holds. The form in ellig or 까 is in a sense passive, and indicates the manner, not in the object, but in the subject.
of the verb. The form in \( \text{態} \) is active, and indicates the manner, not in the subject but in the object. These should in many cases be rendered more properly into English by an adjective. The following sentences will illustrate this difference.

I have made the new book somewhat different.
I have obtained a Japanese boat; I cannot do otherwise.

I will soon go to Seoul.

259.—The Korean past verbal participle, may also at times, be rendered into English by an adverb.

누려, Downward.       너머, Too much.
울너, Upward.          전너, Beyond.

260.—Adverbs derived from nouns and pronouns, consist for the most part of a noun or a pronoun with one or more postpositions, used adverbially.

Inside.                   In the morning.
When.                      Afterwards.
Naturally.                 At noon.
Willingly.                Before.
Particularly.

261.—Comparison in adverbs as with adjectives is not expressed unless the sense demands it. Ofttimes a simple adverb will be used, where we would use a comparative or a superlative. If needed the same particles will be used with the adverb as with the adjective, and in the same way.
THE ADVERB.

Build the house better.  
Sing better.  
My horse goes faster than yours.  
In Japan it rains more frequently than in Korea.

262.—To the primitive adverbs many of the postpositions may be affixed, giving as a result a signification combining the meanings of adverb and postposition, as:


263.—To the ordinal numerals, may be affixed the postposition 은 giving us a form equivalent to the English numeral adverb.

첫째로 (As for the first) = Firstly.  
둘째로 (As for the second) = Secondly.  
메일로 (As for the first) = Firstly.  
메이로 (As for the second) = Secondly.

264.—A long list of all the adverbs is hardly called for in grammatical notes such as these. From a study of the above rules, if they cannot be formed at will, they can be recognized at sight. Of course in their use, they always precede the word they qualify.

265.—Before we close this chapter, a word or two on Korean responsiveness seem in place.
to a superior, and 희나 to an inferior, correspond to the English Yes; while 아니 월시다 and 아닐다 (it is not) correspond to no.

These words, however, are not as much used as their English equivalents and as a rule, in answering, the verb of the question is repeated, or some such phrases, as "I don't know," "I know," "It is not," "It is so" etc., is used.

266.—With reference to answers to negative questions, the Korean idiom, like the Japanese, is the opposite of the English. In such questions, the English regards the facts as they are, and answers "Yes" or "No." The Korean on the other hand regards the statement implied in the question, and answers accordingly. The consequence is that we get our answer the very opposite of what we would expect. For instance, in the question "Has he not come?" the Korean regards the statement "He has not come" which is implied in the question, and if he has not come, answers "Yes," meaning that the statement implied in your question is correct, he has not come. But if he has come, he will reply "No," meaning that the statement implied in your question is wrong, that he has not, not come, but has come. This being so directly opposite to the English idiom should be made a subject of great care, for otherwise serious blunders may be committed.
267.—We divide Korean Conjunctions into two classes, Co-ordinate and Subordinate.

The Co-ordinate, are those which connect words or phrases that are co-ordinate.

The Subordinate, are those which connect dependent with principal clauses. Some of the most common co-ordinate conjunctions are—

와 or 과 ..................
및 .......................... \{Signifying and.
그 or 을고 ...............\}
며 ..........................
나 or 이나 ............... Signifying either, or, whether.
지\}
가\} Used with verbs ... Signify whether, or.
마는..........................\{Disjunctive and signifying but, etc.

268.—와, 과, 고 and 을고 are all copulatives and may generally be rendered by simple and, or with and are affixed, like all Korean conjunctions to their words or clauses. 과 affixed to a word ending in a consonant, becomes 과, and where a number of words are united is
repeated after all but the last, to which last only, will the postposition governing them all be affixed.

따 is less frequently used than any of the others, and is restricted almost entirely to books. It is generally prefixed to its word, and as a consequence we may at times find 와 and 따 used together.

고 and 며 are used to connect verbs. 고 may join itself directly to the stem, and where a series of verbs are connected, the last only will have tense root and termination: this tense root and termination then determines the time and termination of all the preceding verbs connected by 고.

며 is more largely found in books than in the spoken language, and in uniting itself to the verb, the tense root is not necessarily dropped. For illustrations of 고 and 며 with verbs see ¶ 194 and 200 of Part I.

269.—나 or (affixed to consonants) 마다, is equivalent to or, or either of the English. It marks alternatives, only one of which need be expressed, with the others or other understood. It may be joined to verbal tense roots with the same signification.

Joined to numerals and adverbs it signifies about, in the neighborhood of, almost.

지 and 러 are used only with verbs and are affixed to relative participles with the same sense. For illustrations of the use of these three conjunctions with verbs, see ¶ 189 and 197 of Part I.

270.—The most common subordinate conjunctions are

비록, Used independently......
나 .................
더 or 되 ............
거니와 ............
(preceded by 뉘)
도 ................

Are all concessive and may be rendered into English by though, although.
CONJUNCTION.

Used independently

Affixed to verbs

Are conditional and are rendered by if.

Whereas; both causal and concessive.

Mark the reason, and are equivalent to inasmuch as, since, seeing that, etc.

For illustrations of the use of these conjunctions and their method of uniting with verbs, see in the chapter on verbs. ¶ 181 ff.

Note.—Still further illustrations of Korean conjunctions and their rendering into English will be found in the Chapter on Conjunctions Part II.

There are also a number of phrases that may be rendered into English by conjunctions, however, from the very nature of the case, their true meaning is apparent. A few are as follows, and they can be formed at will.

Although that is so. Becomes notwithstanding, nevertheless.

For that reason... Becomes therefore.

Because that is so Becomes then, therefore.

If that is so...
271.—The use of special terms to inferiors and superiors, holds such an important place in Korean, that a special chapter on this subject is thought necessary. Attention has already from time to time been called to this fact, and in various places the terms used to superiors and inferiors have been marked. In the first few sections of Part II. all the sentences, (unless the sense does not allow, and restricts them to one or other class), have been given in three forms, to inferiors, the polite form to equals, and to superiors. Were these but the three grades with which we have to deal, the subject would be considerably simplified. But in each of these three grades, there are, what we may term sub-grades, and if we desire to be exact, we should have all the proper terminations for even these, at our finger's ends.

These sub-grades are for the most part, determined entirely by the terminations, and a careful study and practice of the lists and terminations given in the Chapter on the verb ¶ 137 ff. will accomplish this. Although the student may not desire to acquaint himself with all these forms, it is absolutely essential if he wishes to be respected by those around him, and to avoid giving
offence to his friends, that he make himself thorough master of the three forms, and their use, given in the first sections of Part II.

272.—But not only is the person spoken to, to be considered, but in many cases we must also consider the special rank of the person spoken of, or the subject of the verb. An honorific of the verb, must then be formed. This honorific is for the most part derived from the simple verb, and formed by the interposition of the particle 시. With verbs whose stems end in vowels, simple 시 is added, but with verbs whose stems end in consonants a or e will be interposed as a connective, and 시 will then unite with the form of the stem, as found in the past verbal participle.

273.—The following list of verbs with their honorific forms, will illustrate this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordinary</th>
<th>Honorific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........To do ...............ሰንሮ</td>
<td>ከሮ시ሮ.........To do 시ሮ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........To sit ...............ሰንሮ</td>
<td>ከሮ시ሮ.........To sit 시ሮ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........Went ...............ጋርሮ</td>
<td>ከሮሮጋ.........Walked 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........To hear ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........To hear 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........To lie down ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........To lie down 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........Stood ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........Stood 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........Beaten ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........Beaten 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........To look for ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........To look for 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........To exchange ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........To exchange 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........Took off ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........Took off 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ከሮ.........Lost ...............ጋስጋ</td>
<td>ከሮጋ.........Lost 시ጋ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

274.—We find however in many cases, that there are a number of verbs that have corresponding honorific
verbs, and of course where this is the case, it may be used in the place of the honorific form of the simple verb.

The following list of the most common simple verbs, with their corresponding honorifics, should be learned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordinary</th>
<th>Honorific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>먹소.......</td>
<td>To eat........... 잡수오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>자오..........</td>
<td>To sleep ........... 좀으시오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>죽소..........</td>
<td>To die ............ 도라가시오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>잊소..........</td>
<td>To be............... 계시오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>아오...........</td>
<td>To know ........... 봉촉씀시오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>알소...........</td>
<td>To be sick ....... 병씀계시오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>평안씀오.....</td>
<td>To be well ...... 안녕씀시오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>말씀오........</td>
<td>To speak ........ 말씀씀시오.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>오오...........</td>
<td>To come ........... 림씀시오.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

275.—There are also certain Korean verbs used to render respect to the person or persons acted upon, or objects of the verb. These are, most of them, honorific verbs from their very nature. For instance you give to an inferior, but you simply offer to a superior. A few of these are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordinary</th>
<th>Honorific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>주오........</td>
<td>To give........ 드리오...... To offer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>出击........</td>
<td>To ask .......... 품씀오...... To request.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>보오..........</td>
<td>To show ........ 감씀오...... To show.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>다리오......</td>
<td>To take with  의미시오 ...... To accompany.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>닐으오......</td>
<td>To tell ........... 씨주오....... To inform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>도라오오...</td>
<td>To come back 황씀씀시오 To return.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

276.—Thus we find that the Korean in speaking considers the rank of the person spoken of, as well as the
person spoken to, and at times this double variation takes place in the same verb. When such is the case we may use an honorific verb with an honorific termination. While at first sight it may seem as though this would involve complications almost unlimited, a careful study separately, of the special terminations and of the honorific verbs, will clear away most difficulties.

277.—The matter of honorifics, however, does not end with the verbs. It extends to the nouns and even to some postpositions, and is very apparent in the terms used to represent English pronouns. There will be two, and at times even more, sets of words, to designate the same object. The one used in speaking to or of a superior, the other, the common every day word. As has been hinted before, it will be found that Sinico-Korean is the more polite, and hence we find a large number of Sinico-Korean words, acting as the polite terms for pure Korean nouns, pronouns, etc.

278.—The following list of some of these nouns should also be learned.

아마지...어루신녀,춘부장,춘장,로천,가천,부천. Father.
어마니...조당,철당,모천,대부인..................... Mother.
삼촌......완장,아조씨,자근아바지 큰아버지...... Uncle.
남편......가장,입조 ......................... Husband.
언형.....녀장,안약부인......................... Wife.
아들.....조배,영순,영남.......................... Son.
قيل........영리,영양............................ Daughter.
족하.....함씨,_Oscơ.......................... Nephew.
형...........ביר씨,줌씨 ......................Elder Brother.
아호.....게씨............................... Younger Brother.
나........년세,춘추............................ Age.
279.—It must not be forgotten that these honorific terms are not the same throughout the country, and terms used to inferiors in the capital, are in some provinces used to equals or even superiors. This difference, however, is not extensive and can soon be learned, but we mention it here, so that the student shall not only be prepared for some change, but when he is addressed in terms that he has been accustomed to consider degrading, he may first make inquiry as to the usage of the place before he considers himself insulted.

280.—Were it in order in Korea to always use inferior terms of one's self, and to address all others with honorifics the subject would be comparatively easy. We find, however, in Korea that it is important in addressing inferiors to speak of one's self in polite terms, and to address one's servants, children etc., in the terms for inferiors. Unless such a course is pursued one would be considered entirely ignorant of both the distinctions of the language and the rules of propriety.
CHAPTER XII.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE SENTENCE.

281.—While from time to time, in considering the different words we have attempted to show, not only their meaning, but their use and position in the sentence, a few closing words on the structure of the sentence as a whole are necessary.

In the first place, we may lay it down as a general rule, that the governing word or particle always follows that governed, under these circumstances we consider that the noun governs its adjective, although in Korean there is really no government in this matter.

Or looking at it from another standpoint, we may say, the qualifying word, always precedes the word qualified. Under these circumstances we consider that the action contained in the indefinite verb, at the end of the clause or sentence is qualified or limited by the subject and object which precedes it; that the noun is qualified or limited by the adjective or participle or other noun with postposition that precedes it; that the idea of direction, to, or from etc., contained in the postposition, which was originally a noun, is qualified or limited, by the word which precedes it.
282.—Taking either view of the matter, (the first of which is the clearer and better) we deduce the following.

Verbs are always preceded by their subject, object, and the adverb qualifying them, and followed by the conjunctions which connect them with other words or clauses.

The noun is preceded by the adjective or participle that qualifies it, and is followed by the postposition which governs, or the conjunction which joins it to another word.

The adjective, if in the adjectival form, precedes the noun it qualifies. If in the form of a substantive, it follows the noun with which it stands in apposition. If in the verbal form, it of course, holds the same position as a verb.

The adverb precedes the adjective or verb that it qualifies.

The postposition always follows the word whose relation it shows to another word in the sentence.

The conjunction (except in the case of those used independently, which might well be termed "intensive" and are only used in sentences where their corresponding dependent, or subordinate forms are used) always follows the word or clause that it connects with another.

283.—As a rule the subject comes first, then the object, then the verb.

In a simple sentence then, we have first, the subject, preceded by its attributes, second the indirect object preceded by its attributes, third the direct object preceded by its attributes, and finally the verb with its adverb or other attributes.

Emphasis, however, may change this, and the emphatic word will generally be found first in the sentence.

The position of the direct, and indirect object of a verb, is immaterial, either may precede the other.
By way of illustration of these rules a careful study of any of the sentences given in Part II. with regard specially to their structure is urged.

284.—When several verbs are to be connected, if they are co-ordinate, the conjunction 을 united to the stem will be used, and only the last verb inflected. If subordinate, however, the past verbal participle of the subordinate verb will be used without a conjunction. For illustrations of this see Part II, Chap. X. Sec. I. 2. (a) and (b).

285.—What has already been said upon the use of personal pronouns, and of passive constructions, leads us naturally, to notice the extreme indefiniteness as to subject, of a large number of Korean sentences. Not only will no subject be expressed, but none will even be thought of, and under such circumstances, when the context does not plainly show what the subject is, it must be rendered into English, either by an indefinite, such as some o. e, something, or the phrase must be changed, and a passive construction used.

Indefinite sentences of this kind may be found throughout the book in both parts, and in many cases where definiteness has been expressed by the use of personal pronouns etc., any other subject might have been used.

286.—As in English, so also in Korean, the use of two negatives gives us an affirmative, but this use of two negatives is much more common in Korean than in English.

The following will illustrate this.

미국은 엄청한 것 엿소.  In America they have everything.
여기서 엣잔 착소.
그러케 아니하던 못되겠소.
This is good.
I must do that.
THE STRUCTURES.

237.—As will be seen from ¶ 230 ff. the Koreans are quite prone to use elliptical forms, and we often hear orders and commands ending in conjunctions, postpositions, etc., but in all cases, some other word is of course, left to be understood. Such phrases would not as a rule be correct in writing, and while allowable in speaking, would not be classed as elegant Korean.

288.—In concluding this chapter on the structure of the sentence, we would again remind the student, that postpositions, conjunctions, and verbal modifications, are not to be used as in other languages.

What we understand as minute exactness of speech, is a thing not aimed at by the Korean, his desire is simply to express his idea, in as few words as possible, always remembering his surroundings and circumstances. As a consequence the same sentence taken out of its context might not only be ambiguous, but entirely meaningless, and yet, at the same time considered with its circumstances and surroundings it might be a complete sentence.

289.—In almost direct opposition to this, there seems to stand the Korean use of what we have termed conjunctions. The Koreans have no system of punctuation, and where we would use a comma, semicolon, or colon, etc., they would use a conjunction, expressing cause, manner, means, etc., as the case might be. Consequent upon this we find that the distinction between sentence and paragraph, does not exist in Korean, each sentence in an English paragraph becomes then, simply a dependent clause, connected by one or other of the conjunctions, and the whole paragraph but one sentence. This becomes much more apparent in the book language, and here is its main difficulty.
290.—In closing these "Grammatical Notes" we would say that we have tried but to introduce the student to the study of Korean spoken language. We would repeat that they should not be studied alone, but in connection with Part II. The accuracy of each rule given should be tested by the student, when thus tested they should be put in practice, for in order to gain any language quickly and thoroughly, practice must be combined with theory. Only by so doing can the student ever learn to use the Korean spoken language.
PART II.

ENGLISH INTO KOREAN

OR THE

KOREAN SPOKEN LANGUAGE

FROM THE

ENGLISH STANDPOINT.
PART II.

ENGLISH INTO KOREAN.

CHAPTER I.

THE VERB.

In the Grammatical Notes, the attempt was made, to approach Korean from the native standpoint; to take Korean idioms, phrases and methods of speech, explain their meanings and uses, and ascertain their equivalents in English. In doing this, we have however, done but little more than half the work that is before us in the study of Korean. We have approached from but one side, and now it remains for us to approach Korean from the English standpoint; to take English phrases, words, and forms of expression, and learn their equivalents in Korean. This has been attempted in the following pages, and while the Korean equivalents, are not by any means claimed to be the only renderings, they are the common and most frequent methods of expressing the ideas they are said to represent. In doing this, we have begun with the verb, because here we find the greatest variety of changes. To a great extent what has already been said in the Gram-
matical Notes, will answer equally well here. This is very
true of the verb as well as of the other parts of speech, and
there remains under the verb, simply the verbs, To be and
To have, Auxiliaries, The Infinitive, Passive Constructions,
and Conditional Sentences. These will be taken up one
by one, the rules for rendering them into Korean given,
and sentences to illustrate each rule will follow.

§ I.—THE VERB “TO BE.”

1 Employed independently, expressing simple existence,
to be is rendered by 업소; negatively by 업소.

2 Followed by a predicate noun or pronoun, to be is
rendered by 이호 sometimes contracted into 오 or 오;
negatively by 아니오.

3 Followed by a predicate adjective, the verb to be is
united with the adjective. See Chap. VI § 1.

4 When equivalent to become, the verb to be, is render-
ed by 되소 and negatively by 안되소.

5 For the use of the verb to be, as an auxiliary See
§ III, See. 1 & 2.

1.

There are some very high
mountains around Seoul. *(Lit) Seoul neighborhood in certain very
높은 산들 업다.—업소, high mountains is.
—업슨 노이다.†

About how many houses are
there in this city?  

이 성 안에 집 얼마
나 업눈냐.—업소.—업슨
about is?
노릿가?

* It will be noticed that for the first few exercises, the sentences are
all given in the three forms, for inferiors, equals and superiors, except
perhaps in instances where the sentence by its very nature restricts
the class to which it is addressed.

† Properly this should be written 업소울노이다 but pronounced issimaida.
Is there only one kind of oil in these bottles?

About how many soldiers are there in a regiment?

There is no telegraph office in Kang Wha.

There is no use in going before breakfast.

Is there not any one who can go instead?

Was there not any one who knew the way home?

Is that smoke or is it only a cloud?

Is that a fox or a dog?

Is not that a dog sleeping on the veranda?

---

* Properly this should be 읽습니다니㎟가 but pronounced issimnlka.
Was not that an earthquake?

Our work is very hard.

The street is very muddy.

These coolies are not lazy.

The road from here to Fusun is not good.

I do not believe it will be much of a fire.

You will never be rich if you are not more thrifty.

If this were only mended it would be as good as new.
§ II.—THE VERB "TO HAVE."

1 Expressing possession or ownership:

(a.) By animate beings, *to have* is rendered by the postposition **의게** with **있소**, or by **있소** alone. Negative, by **있소**.

(b.) By inanimate objects, it is rendered by the postposition **에** with **있소**.

2 Expressing acceptance. This idea does not appeal to the Korean as *accepting* and is therefore variously translated.

3 Expressing *To cause* or *To procure*—By **게** or by **식여** with the appropriate form of the verb.

4 Expressing necessity and followed by the infinitive; it is rendered by the future participle of the verb with **수많기��소**.

5 For *have*, as an auxiliary see § III. Sec. 4.

1 (a).

Korean noblemen have a great many servants.

Englishmen often have light hair and blue eyes.

Japanese cats have no tails.
The Verb.

1 (b).

Our house has only five rooms.

The box has no cover.

This flower has no perfume.

2.

Will you have five dollars or ten?

I will have a cup of tea.

Will you have a flower?

3.

I will have him take it away.

I will have it done right away.

We will have these sent up to Seoul.

He said he would have the boy bring them.
§ III.—AUXILIARY VERBS.

Sec. 1.—Am, is, are.

I will have to go to-night. 업다. — 업소, 업슴니다.

If you do not work you will have to starve.

I have to finish that early to-night.

§ III.—AUXILIARY VERBS.

Sec. 1.—Am, is, are.

1 Followed by the active participle:—

(a.) Expressing present continued action—either the present indicative or by the present participle with 것 followed by 업소 or 업소 according to the rules given § I, 1 and 2 of this chapter, or the verbal participle with 업소.

Negatively—either the present indicative preceded by 아니 or by the present participle with 것이 followed by 업소 or 아니요 (§ I, 1 & 2), or the verbal participial form of the negative verb with 업소.

See also Part I. ¶ 129 ff. on tenses.

(b) Expressing vivid future.—

As in English so in Korean there is a way of expressing vivid future by the present indicative, and either this or the future indicative may be used.

Negatively—present or future indicative with 아니.

* For further use of the negative, see chapter on negative in Part I.
2 followed by passive participle—See passive voice.

1. (a).

A crow is building its nest in the garden.

The rats are gnawing a hole somewhere in the ceiling.

That is the baby crying.

Is not the clock striking now?

It is not raining now.

The carpenters are not working now.

1. (b).

I am going home next year.

The German minister to America, is coming back next month.

We are not sending a courier to Chemulpo to-morrow.
SEC. 2.—WAS, WERE.

1 Followed by the Active Participle:—

(a.) Expressing continued action in the past.

The Koreans, prefer the simple past tense, but sometimes render this by the present participle with the past tense of 이요.

See also Part I. ¶ 132 ff.

(b.) Introducing an event happening during the action—다가 with verbal stem.

(c.) Expressing an action intended but not carried out—하나 or 하더니 preceded by verbal stem.

2 Followed by passive participle:—

(a.) Of Intransitive verbs—The past tense of verb.

(b.) Of transitive verbs—See Passive Voice.

1. (a).

We were working all day yesterday.

Were they laughing or crying?

어제 종일 일했습니다, 했소, —했었습니다.

웃는거실너나 우는 거실너나?

1. (b).

* I was going to Chemulpo yesterday, and met fourteen Chinamen.

어제 제물포 가다가 청인 열넷 맛났다, —낫소, —낫었습니다.

* The Koreans, unless ambiguity would exist, do not use the personal pronouns. The surroundings alone generally determine the subject of the verb. These sentences are taken out of all surroundings, but the student is expected to use them and then circumstances will decide these matters.
He was eating some fish, and a bone stuck in his throat.

Mr. Pak was going to America, but his father died.

We were coming to see you several times, but we were busy and could not.

He was gone when I got there.

I went home after nine years, but all my friends were dead.

SEC. 3.—Do, Did.

1 Do and did are expressed in Korean by the present and past of the verb.

2 Do not and did not* used interrogatively, are expressed either by the interrogative present or past of the verb preceded by 아니, or by the negative base in 지 followed by interrogative present or past of 아니 흥요.

3 Do not, used imperatively—by the negative base in

* Note.—Interrogative sentences expressed negatively are regarded by Koreans from an opposite standpoint to the English. The Korean, in his answer, considers not the facts of the case, or the thing expected, but the implied statement in the question and when we would answer “Yes” answers “No” and vice-versa.
1. Why do you leave the door open?

Why do you leave the door open, to avoid.

They do not make it that way any more.

Where did you put my umbrella?

* Did not the fans I sent you suit?

Do not the steamers sail twice a month now?

Why did you not give the coolie the things he came for?

Do you not like foreign food?

* For example the question, “Has not the teacher come yet?” expecting in English the answer “yes,” will call forth from the Korean the answer “no” if the teacher has come, and “yes” if he has not yet come. See Part I ¶ 266.
3.

Do not put on any more coal.

Do not take more than you think you will need.

Please do not tear that newspaper.

Do not light the lights yet.

§III. Sec. 4.

1. Have:—The auxiliary have, is generally expressed in Korean by the regular past tense of the verb.

2. Have been:—

(a.) Generally Koreans do not make the distinction between continued past action, and simple past action, but leave it to be decided from the context; hence have been in English is largely expressed by the Korean simple past.

(b.) The distinction can be made by the use of the present participle with 것 and the past tense of 되소.

(c.) In speaking of the duration of continued action, the participial noun in 지 with the past tense of the verb expressing the extent of time is used.

3. Had:—The Koreans as a rule do not use the pluperfect tense. Such a tense can be formed, and is acknowledged as correct by many, but the great majority prefer
to transpose the sentence and use the simple past tense. See Part I on compound tenses ¶ 135.

Had, is then expressed:

(a.) In affirmative sentences—either by a complete transposition of the sentence, or by the use of the adverb 相 with the past tense.

(b.) In negative sentences—by either a like complete transposition, or by the use of 不 with the past tense.

I.

Have the coolies brought the freight?
Have you heard the news?
Why haven’t you brought your dog?
The post man has not brought any letters today.

2. (a). Your room has not been swept and dusted yet.
This roof has not been repaired for a couple of years.

Haven’t you repaired your house lately?
Have you seen the paper?

Note.—Hereafter the three forms referring to inferiors, equals and superiors will not be given with each sentence but only one or the other as the case may demand.
2. (b).
Some body has been sweeping this room.

2. (c).
How long have you been living in Sŏul?
The Sŏul merchants have been selling foreign goods for a long time now.
We have been studying four hours.
The Japanese have been several years building their railroads.

3. (a).
I went to the foreign office but they had all left.
The coolies had all finished when I got home.
When you left Sŏul, had the Russian legation been begun?
I asked him to stop to dinner, but he had dined.

3. (b).
When I got to my hotel my letter had not come.
I had not heard it when the steamer left.

*이방 쓰는 이가 잊었소.
당신이 서울 잊신자가 얼마나 되소?
지금은 서울 장소들이 서양 물건을 오래제 풀어요.
공부 훈지가 네시가 되었소.
일런이 편로 몬드느지가 여러 희 되었소.
내가 의아문으로 갓것 마는 발서 다 갓소.
내가 집에 너므로 점에 일군들이 일 다ᄒᆞ엿소.
서울 씨나기 점에 야국 공소판 짜기ᄅᆞᆯ 시작 ᄆᆞ엿소?
저녁에 청ᄒᆞ엿것 마ᄂᆞᆫ 발셔 먹엿소.
주막에 니ᄅᆞᆯ 쓰에 내편지 아직 아니 왔소.
화물션이 씨나기, 전에 못ᄃᆡ럿소.

* As has been said before, while this is allowable it is not as the Korean would put it, and, unless absolutely necessary, such sentences as this should be avoided.
Had you not left Seoul before that?

**Sec. 5.**—**SHALL, WILL.**

1. **Affirmative:**—
   
   (a.) Opinion; also in seeking direction and in stating one’s purpose or inquiring another’s purpose from a third party:—the future of the verb in 리이다: or, interrogatively—in 리잇가.

   (b.) Simple future, **certainty, determination,** or enquiring another’s purpose directly—future in 갑소.

2. **Negative:**—

   (a.) Vividly;—negative present.

   (b.) Determination;—negative future.

1. (a).

If you do not put in more salt it will spoil.

Shall I send word again to Seoul?

Shall I call a jinrikisha on my way to Tchongno?

I will call again in three or four days.

If you need one I will lend you mine.

Will Mr. Kim go with us?

1. (b).

To day it will close at six o’clock.
If it rains "cats and dogs" I’ll go.
Mr. Pak will go for it.
About how long will you stay here?

2. (a).

Buddhist priests will not kill even a mosquito.
I shall not go to-morrow.

2. (b).

I will not give even one cash more.
Not one of these will do.

SEC. 6.— SHOUL D,— WOUL D.

1 In direct clauses—
   (a.) Expressing intention, determination,—future of the verb. Negatively—future with 안 or 아니
   (b.) Equivalent to ought,—see Sec. 11 of this division on Auxiliaries.
   (c.) Expressing* determination in a past action—the past tense of the verb; negatively—past tense with 안 or 아니.

2 In indirect clauses—
   (a.) Expressing opinion—future participle with 줄 아요.
   (b.) Expressing determination, certainty—form of the future or present used in indirect discourse.

* Note.—In a simple sentence, the idea of determination conveyed by the English "would," cannot be given in Korean except by a circumlocution, unless it is implied by the context. This idea is however in part conveyed by the use of 제가 with the past tense.
3 In conditional sentences—

(a.) In the conditional clause—by the form of the conditional with 면, 거든, etc.

(b.) In the conclusion—by the future of the verb.

The past tense "would have," is rendered by the future perfect.

See also § IV of this chapter, and Chap. X Sec. 8.

1. (a).

I would go but I have no passport.

He would pay but, he has not yet received it from Mr. Yi.

I would not give you even a cash to keep you from starving.

1. (c).

In spite of all I could do, he would go to the country.

He would not listen to reason.

He would squander all his money in spite of all my efforts to stop him.

2. (a).

I thought they would be here by this time.

Did you think it would be so dear?
2. (b).

Mr. Yi said he would send it next week.

Mrs. Kim said she would come with five other women to-morrow night.

If any one should come enquiring for me, say I have gone to the palace.

You would have time enough, if you would get up earlier.

If you had been a little more careful, this would never have happened.

It would not pay to sell it for less than five dollars.

If you had gone yesterday, you would have been in plenty of time.

SEC. 7.—CAN, COULD.

Can and could are commonly rendered in two ways.

1. Affirmatively:

(a.) By the simple future or past.

(b.) By 수 preceding the future relative participle, with the present or past of хотел.

2. Negatively:

(a.) By 못 with the future or past.

(b) By 수 preceding the future relative participle with the present or past of 했소.
1. (a).

If you only know how, you can say anything in Japanese.
If you open the door you can see.
He can only hear in one ear.
Can your dog sit up on his hind legs?
Can you send any message you please by telegraph?
When I was a boy I could swim two ri.

If you only know how, you can say anything in Japanese.
문 열면 보겠소.
혼 귀로만 듣겠소.
로형의 개가 뒤 두리로만 안겠습니다?
아모 말이라도 던신 으로 전하겠습니다?
내가 오치께에는 이리를 하염 했겠습니다.

1. (b).

When can we see the Kyung Pok Kung Palace?
Can we see the inside of the prison if we get a permit?
If you go to the best shops you can get good silk in Korea too.
If I am not sick I can walk more than a hundred ri in one day.

경복궁 대궐을 언제 구경 할 수 있겠소?
문 표지를 잃으면 옥 속을 볼수가 있소?
 큰 전에 가면 조선 사이 도호 명주 살수 있소.
병 업소면 홀로 빌리 여 것겠습니다.

2. (a).

When the fire bell rings I cannot sleep.
I went everywhere, but could not sell it.

불 낳다고 종 철 죽에 못 자겠소.
소방 갓셔도 못 꼬핫소.
If you have not government permission you can't sell it.

A great noise (of jabbering) arose and we could not hear.

I invited both, but neither of them could come.

It was dark and we could not see the road.

I cannot take the accounts to night.

I cannot go even though he offers me one hundred dollars.

He could not get a passport.

Sec 8.—May, Might.

1. Possibility equivalent to *perhaps*:

(a.) With present or future—아마 or 혹 with the future.

(b.) With past—아마 or 혹 with the past.

(c.) Might have—혹 or 아마 with the future past.

2. Ability.—Same as could; or future participle with

3. Permission, liberty—is rendered variously according to the sentence by a transposition.

May be there are some mosquitos in the net.

May be the steamer will be in to-morrow.
May be we had better order them from Séoul.  
You might get well if you went to Fusun.  
May be he will not start for a day or two.  

1. (b).  
May be he has not heard yet.  
May be he missed the steamer.  
May be he has been told already.  
May be they have not begun yet.  

1. (c).  
If you had risen early perhaps you might have caught the steamer.  
If Keuija had not lived, justice might not have been known.  
If you had only called the doctor sooner, he might not have died.  
If he had only been honest he might have been a rich man.  

2.  
If you had come yesterday, I might have gone to-day.
If you had only told me, I might have loaned you the money.

May I go and take a bath? You may put it in the drawer or the bookcase.
I told Sou Pongi he might go to see the Kerdong.
You may stay away from school to-day.
Did you not say I might borrow your dictionary?

SEC. 9.—LET, MAKE, HAVE, GET.

1 The Korean causative form of the verb, may stand for any or all of the above. The distinctive differences between them however, can, if necessary, be expressed by the use of other verbs. Let, when it means permission, may be expressed by the additional use of 주소 (to give); get, by the use of 업소 (to obtain), or 식이호 (to engage), etc.

2 "Let us," in a proposition—volitive mood, first person.

Soun Yongi has let the lamp smoke.
Shall I let the coolies take the freight?
You have eaten enough; now let me have a little.

Please don’t let the boys come into the rooms with their shoes on.
Make him wait a little.
If those children come in, be sure and make them keep quiet.
Make the washerman iron these clothes better.
I will have Soun Yongi mail your letters.

You had better have the carpenter make it.
Where did you get this table made?
You must have your grass cut.
Please let the cat go out.

Do not let the water run out of the bottle so fast.
I ought to get my watch repaired.

Let us go up Nam San to-morrow.
Let’s go by way of Chong-nikol to-morrow.

당신은 너무히 먹었시니 시방은 나 좀 먹게주여 주오.
학생들이 신 신고는 방에 못 드리 오게 흥여 주시오.
 좀 기다리게 흥여라.
우히 드러 오거든 부터 종용이 잇게 흥오.
마전장이 드러 옷술 좀 납게 다리게 흥여라.
순용이 식여서 당신 권지를 우태국 전히 흥게 흥겨소.
목슈 식여 문둘게, 흥만 도켓소.
이 상을 어디서 식여 문들립소?
이 풀을 섞게혀여야 쓰겟소.
고양이 나가게 흥여 주시오.
병에서 물을 이리께 급히 지로지 맏게 흥오.
누구 식여 내 시표를 꽁칠 흥히오.

2.

리일 남산에 올나 가옵시다.
리일 정녀를 노 가옵시다.
Let's rest and have a smoke.
Let's pull the cat's tail.

SEC. 10.—MUST.

1 Expressing necessity:—
(a.) Affirmative—past verbal participle with the postposition 야 and future of 응오, or 쓰오.
Sometimes also the same effect is produced by the use of an adverb expressing necessity with the future.
(b.) Negative—the negative base in 지 with 말아야 and future of 응오, or 쓰오.
Or, by either a conditional clause, or a relative participle qualifying 것, with 못 and the future of 응오, or 쓰오.

2 Expressing strong probability:—
(a.) Must—future, or future participle with 수박 리임소.
(b.) Must have—future perfect.

1. (a).
You must be more careful.
You must make him take it whether he likes it or not.
You must mind whatever your teacher says.
We must leave the house at twelve o'clock.
I must be in Chemulpo by five o'clock to-morrow.
I must pay a debt of one hundred dollars to-morrow.
1. (b).

You must not put so much coal on the fire.
You must not hold the baby so.
You must not leave your light burning when you go out.
I told Soun Yongi, he must not even touch the flowers.

2. (a).

It must be so.
Mr. Song must have more than these.
You must be dreadfully tired.
He must be wet through in such a rain as this.

2. (b).

You must have seen those books at Séoul.
It must have been extremely difficult.
The new place must have been finished before he left Séoul.

Sec. II.—Ought, should.

1 Obligation, Propriety.

(a.) Affirmative—future relative participle with 거시오.
(b.) Negative—future relative participle of the negative verb with 거시오.

2 Strong probability.

(a.) Affirmative—future relative participle with 되시오.

(b.) Negative—future relative participle of the negative verb with 되시오 ("Ought to have" takes future past participle).

3 Advice.

(a.) Asking advice,—either future in 릴가, or conditional present with 도켓소 or 올켓소 or present relative participle with 거시도켓소.

(b.) Giving advice, — either conditional present with 도켓소 or present relative participle with 거시도켓소.

4 Censure, Regret,—conditional past, with future past of 도소 or 도홀걸그리حوال슨.

I. (a).

The people ought to obey just laws.

Even an enemy should be forgiven.

Men ought certainly to speak the truth.

Every man ought certainly to be vaccinated.

Soun Yongi should certainly be more respectful.

You ought to apologize to the consul.
1. (b).
You ought not to sleep so late.
Mr. Pak, ought not to be out too late.
He ought not to ask so much.

2. (a).
He ought to be here directly.
It is already past twelve, the clock ought to have struck.
The dictionary ought to be good, it was written by a scholar.
Oranges ought to be very cheap now.

2. (b).
It ought not to have been very cold in Fusan.
They ought not to be asleep as early as this.
It was very carefully made, it ought not to be weak.

3. (a).
Which road should I take?
What color ought I to paint this?
How ought I to translate this?
I am going to Chemulpo, about how much ought I to pay the chair coolies?

3. (b).
You ought to take an umbrella.
You should go.
You had better not build a house.
You should consult with your father.
Should you not buy a couple?

Then, you ought to have said so.
You ought to have been more careful.
I ought not to have said a word about it.
I ought to have put on my mangen before.

Sec. 12.—Think, suppose.

1 Regard as a fact—future participle with 줄어시오.

2 Regard as probable :
(a.) Likely to happen—future relative participle with 드시오 or 드십시오.
(b.) Likely to have happened—future past participle with 둡보 or 둡싶소.

Note.—Where we would use the verb "to think," the Koreans, for the most part, use the verb "to know."

"To know" with the accusative postposition, conveys to the Korean the idea of absolute knowledge, but with the postposition by the idea of an opinion, merely.

송셔방을 아오 means I know Mr. Song but 송셔방으로 알았소 “I knew him (understood) for Mr. Song,” or “I thought it was Mr. Song.”

1.

I did not think you would come to-day.
Some people think that man is crazy.
I thought I could go in half an hour.
I thought Mr. Song would probably be late.
When I first saw you I thought you were an old friend.

오늘 공이 아니 올줄 알았소.
젓던 사람 생각은 그가 빗친줄 아요.
내 생각에는 반시먼 갈줄 알았소.
 내가 송셔방이 후 늑게 올줄 알았소.
roprih을 처음 볼 때에 구먼으로 알았소.

2. (a).

I do not think you will find any good fresh fish there.
I do not think you will like Korean food.
I suppose there are plenty of fleas in this mat.

내 생각에는 조너가 머지서 성혼 성션을 찾지못 홀듯히리.
공이 조선 음식을 도화 홀가 쉽지 안소.
내 생각에는 이 자리에 벼룩이 만出轨 못오.

2. (b).

I do not think the minister has arisen yet.

공수가 아직 아닌 나려나 섯실듯 싶소.
Do you suppose the steamer has arrived yet? (Addressing an old man).

I suppose the postman passed while I was out.

I suppose the eggs are all gone.

Sec. 13.—Intend.

1 Intend is rendered by the stem of the verb with 라흐오 or 고자흐오. These two are really almost interchangeable, but the latter is a little stronger and conveys more the idea of definite purpose, although this distinction cannot always be recognized.

2 Sometimes also the same idea is expressed by the use of the future relative participle with 것.

1.

I intend to go by the nine o'clock train.

I intended to let you know, but I had no time.

I had not intended to let Mr. Yi know, but he heard it without my knowledge.

I had not intended going, but as that person advised it, I went.

I intended building a house, but I could not afford it.
I intended to use them, but could not.
He intended eating it, but did not.
I intended to go, but something came up and I could not.

He says he intended to go, but did not.
I intended to finish the book yesterday, but I was sick and did not.

Sec. 14.—Want.

1. Followed by a noun.
   (a.) Need, Require—the verb 쓰다.
   (b.) Desire to have—원하다 or by the use of a verb with 쉽소 as in number 2.

2. Followed by a verb.
   (a.) Desire to do— 쉽소 joined to the verb by the particle 고.
   (b.) Wish it to be—מיד소 or a circumlocution.

3. Meaning "how about," how would it be."—verb in 라, 고 쉽소, or conditional present with 읽더 합소.

4. Used independently in questions signifying, for what purpose, etc.—a noun or pronoun to signify the thing purposed with the postposition 로.

   1. (a).

   Do you want this? 
   이것은 쓰라요?
I want a chair to go to Chong No.

Do you not want some small ones?

I do not think we shall need any crab apples to-day.

1. (b).

Sujini wants some grapes.

Do you want a small puppy?

I want a Chinese tailor.

He said he wanted some foreign cloth.

2. (a).

Mr. Pak wants to borrow a small knife.

I wanted to see Yi Champan, but he was out.

Although I did not want to write the letter, as he told me to, I did.

I have wanted to give you one for some time.

Do you not want this letter sent to the post office by Soung Yongi?

2. (b).

I want it well made.
I want it made exactly like this.
He wants it pressed well.

Do you want to change pens?
Do you not want to buy four?
Do you want to go to Nam this afternoon?

What does he want here?
What do you want with me?

Sec. 15.—Wish, Hope.

1 Desire to do—same as Sec. 14, 2. (a.) of this chapter.

2 Hope that a thing is, or will be:
   (a.) Simple desire—verbal noun in ㄱ with accusative postposition and 디라소; or conditional present with future of 도소.
   (b.) Coupled with doubt, fear or regret—conditional past with 도소.

It is also correct to use the conditional past alone as an exclamation, and this practice is much in vogue among Koreans. Sometimes also the past tense of 디라소 is used.

2. (a.)

I hope to-morrow will be 디일도 날 도키를 디라소 fine too.
I hope that that boy will be a scholar too.
I hope he will soon recover.
I hope it will be done by the day after tomorrow.
I wish you would tell him.
I wish it would not rain.

2. (b).
I wish I had a little change.
I wish you had told me sooner.
I wish that dog wouldn't bark.
I wish we wouldn't have any more snow.
I wish I could learn Korean.
I wish I were a little taller.
I wish he had come yesterday.
I hoped it would be pleasant to-day, but it is doubtful.
I hoped he would come by that steamer, but he didn't.

Sec. 16.—Need.

1. Followed by a noun—Same as Sec. 14, 1 (a.) of this chapter q.v.; or by the use of the past verbal participle with the postposition 얻.
2. Followed by a Verb:—
   (a.) Negative—By future relative participle with 것입소.
   (b.) Affirmative—Same as must see Sec. 10.

1. You need court robes to enter the palace.  
   (a.) You need a new hat.  
   (b.) You need money to build a large house.  
   (c.) You need flour, sugar and eggs to make this cake.

2. (a.) You need’nt wait any longer.  
   (b.) You need’nt serve tea before six.  
   (c.) You need’nt lock the door when you go out.  
   (d.) Tell Mr. Kim he need’nt go to Chong Ro to-day.
   (e.) As we have a long time yet, we need not go fast.

Sec. 17.—Seem, Look.

1 Appearance—the appropriate relative participle and—

or appropriate tense of verb with ........... 나보오.
2 Report—the verb, followed by 그리아 or form used in indirect discourse.

1.

The fire seems as though it will go out.
The fire seems to be going out.
The fire seems to have gone out.

When the man came for the shoes he looked a little angry.

Those pictures seem to me to be hung a trifle too high.

When you talk to him he seems to assent.

These mats seem to be dirty.

This gun seems to be out of order.

It seems wonderful that you can send a telegram to America in four or five hours; doesn’t it?

This pond seems deep.

This seems the best plan.

Mr. Yi looks strong.
That man seems to be very clever.
That child seems very tired.

It seems to be a fire.
He looks to me like a thief.
The man who came here this morning didn’t look like a Japanese.
It looks as though it will rain to-day.
He had intended to go to see the sights to-day, but it seems as though the rain will prevent it.
Last night it seemed as though it would clear.
It does not seem as if there will be much wind.
It does not look like peace.
It seems as if this leak isn’t going to stop.

It seems there was a fire in Chong Dong yesterday.
It seems there is a terrible famine in China.
There seems to be no steamer running to Chemulpo now:
It seems you’ve bought a watch.
§ IV.—THE INFINITIVE.

In Korean there is no true infinitive; that which the French grammarians denominated the infinitive, is so in no sense of the word. In neuter verbs it is the low form of the indicative present, and in active verbs has little or no use except as a mere designation of the verb, much as we say “the verb to be.” There being then no true infinitive and the English infinitive having various senses, it will be rendered therefore in various ways according to circumstances.

1 When it stands as an object or subject of another verb—by the verbal noun in ㄱ, or the relative participle with ㄱ. For this infinitive with auxiliaries, see § III.

2 Signifying the purpose, or object, with verbs of motion—by the supine in 르 or 라.

3 Signifying with the intention of,—the desiderative base with 고 or future participle with 나고.

4 Following the means, instrument or agent—the same as the preceding (3); or, more properly, by the verbal noun in ㄱ with the postposition 에. (see, Part I. 174).

5 Equivalent to the verbal noun—the verbal noun in ㄱ or the relative participle, with 것 or 더 etc.

6 Equivalent to “if” and accompanied by “it will” or “it would”—the appropriate tense of the verb with 편.

7 Following verbs of command, direction, or advice,—the imperative verb in 라고 or 라고ᄒᄒ sometimes contracted into 라ᄒ. (see Part I. ¶ 229).

8 Following verbs of promising, requesting, etc.—the form of indirect narration in 나고.

* Note—This last is but a corruption of the desiderative base see Part I. ¶ 238.
1. It is wrong to waste time.
   Are you afraid to have your teeth pulled?
   The government does not allow foreigners to live in the interior.
   I have decided not to buy a horse.
   Do you want to go to America?
   You will hardly be able to bring this load alone.

2. I went to get the vase that we saw the other day, but someone had already bought it.
   I went to find the children but they had all gone to school.
   I went to meet you but you didn’t come.
   I came to pay my debts.

3. I raised my hand to strike.
   Did you do it to make him angry?
Did you say it to make a fool of him?
He bought some arsenic to kill rats, but his child ate it and died.

4.
I want a wagon to send this freight to Chemulpo.
You had better buy a rat trap to catch the rats.
I must have some nails to mend the box.
He asks for some money to pay for his supper.
I should think it would cost fully a thousand dollars to build such a house.

How long does it take to send a man to Chemulpo?
Call a plasterer to repair the inside of the roof.
Who was appointed to examine the students?

5.
I do not know how much I ought to give, to go on horseback.
We went down to the beach but the waves were too high to bathe.
How much ought I to give to have my court sodded?
Did you not have to pay to cross the river?
How many chair coolies shall we need to go to Pouk Han?

It will be a great mistake to wait a month longer.
It will injure the country very much to pass such a law.
I don’t believe it would pay to publish the “O Ryun Haing Sil” in foreign type.
It would be very inconvenient for me to move to Chemulpo.
It will not be very pleasant to get into debt.
Tell Sou Pongi to serve breakfast.

Tell the servant not to forget about the coal.
He told the chair coolies to go to the river in time to meet the steamer.
Tell the gate-man to go out and get a pack horse.
Did you advise you to go to Gensan?

He promised to give me five dollars, but he has not.
He promised to meet us in Chemulpo.
I promised to go, but I don’t feel well.
Shall I go and tell the seamstress to come to get her pay?

§ V.—PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION.

Koreans like most orientals do not find much use for a passive construction. As has been said in the Grammatical Notes, a passive form can be derived from all transitive verbs. In many cases, however, the use of this passive, except in certain sections of the country, is considered inelegant. When, then, the foreigner desires to render a passive construction, there are several ways open to him.

1 In some cases, the use of a passive form with certain
verbs has become so general throughout the whole country that it is not considered inelegant.

2 There are in Korean a number of intransitive verbs, or intransitive forms of expression, that may and do commonly take the place of the English passive.

3 Where neither of the above methods are admissible, the English passive must be rendered into Korean by a change of the form of the sentence. This change of form will of course vary according to the circumstances:—

(a.) When the passive construction can be rendered by the active, with the indefinite "they" the sentence will be translated accordingly.

(b.) When the English sentence is simply explanatory it may be rendered by the past and sometimes the present participle, generally with 것.

(c.) When the passive clause is the object of another verb, its verb assumes the active form, and is generally, translated by the participle with 것을 or 일.

(d.) "To be" followed by the passive participle expressing past action still continuing, is rendered sometimes by the simple active construction, as in (a); sometimes by the participial form of the verb, with 것을, (or negative, with 하지); sometimes by the simple verbal participle with 것을; and sometimes when intransitive verbs are used, by the past form in 덥 expressing continued action.

1. Where were you bitten?  어디를 물리셨소 음더니 있가?
Soun Yongi has been stung in the finger by a bee.

He was arrested by the police, on the twelfth day of the sixth month.

One is open, the other is shut.

At Chemulpo, Fusan and Gensan, trading posts were first opened.

2.

Don’t let yourself be cheated.

Man Chini has been whipped several times, for doing that.

This child was vaccinated by a Korean doctor.

A fire arose in Chong Dong, and about half Séoul was burnt.

About when will the new Poug Han temple be finished?

It was finished long ago.

Not one has been shipwrecked.

Is much sugar brought to Korea from China every year?

순용이 손가락을 벌의개 쓰이었습니다.

육월 열릿은 날에 포교 의게 잡若您요.

훗나혼 열니고 훗나혼 닫첩습니다.

제물포와 부산과 원산에 장소 항구가 처음 열닙니다.

손지 마오.

만진이가 그러케 홍기에 여러 번 민 마젓소.

조선 의원 의게서 이 익히가 우두를 너젓소.

정동서 화제가 나서 서울이 거위 반이나 롯첩니다.

북한 새 절이 언제나 다시 되겠소?

발셔 다 된지 오래소.

훗나도 파션 무지 아니 훗었습니다.

히 마다 중국서 사랑이 조선에 만히 나오?
This receipt has not yet been signed.
I thought foreigners would be expelled immediately.
Has the carpenter been paid for the bookcase?
While I was in Seoul, I was taught by a man from Pyeng Yang.

3. (a).

Has this room been swept?
Tobacco is used almost everywhere.
I understand that in certain countries the criminals are beaten to death with clubs.
Diamonds have recently been found in Africa.
At what time is the rice harvested?
Where were those oranges put?

3. (b).

This (boat) ticket was bought for a friend, but he has not yet come.
This certainly was written with a lead pencil.
Was this letter brought by the Euiju courier?
Was this cut with a knife or with scissors?
What is kanjbang made of, and when is it used?

이 편지가 의주 비지로 가져온 거시요?
이 거시 칼노 비히 거시오 가워로 비히 거시오?
간장을 두어소로 문두는 거시며 또 언제 쓰는 거시요?

3. (c).

I should like to hear the komengao well played.
Before I went to America, I had never seen a cannon fired.
Did you ever see a man's head cut off?

거문고 잘 듣는 소리로 드는데 도켓소.
미국에 가지 전에는 대포 놓는 걸 못 보았소.
사람의 목 비히는 기술 훈번 보았소?

3. (d).

The roof of that house is tiled.
It is in the drawer, wrapped up in paper, and tied with a string.
None of those shoes are well sewed.
This fish is'nt well broiled.
It was hidden under the roots of a pine tree.
It must certainly be hidden somewhere in the garden.
Was the lamp lighted in the minister's room?

더 집 짐을 기와로 니엇소.
설합 속에 드릿 논티 조희로 싸고 노곤 으로 잡아 킨 거시요.
이 신 바느질 잘 흘것 흩나도 엽소.
이 성선 잘 군것 아니요.
소나모 셜희 밀혀 공초아 잇습디이다.
어디 덜지 명령이 화원에 공초인 거시요.
공소 방에 불을 헛더냐?
§ VI.—CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

We will but consider three classes of conditional sentences in this place.

1st. Simple conditional:—

These are rendered by the simple tenses, present, past, and future, with 원 in the conditional clause; and the future, or sometimes the present, in the conclusion.

2nd. Supposition contrary to fact:—

This class of sentences may be rendered by the compound tenses, or the forms of the verb in 원, with 원 in the conditional clause; and the future perfect in the conclusion. Quite often the conclusion will take the future participle with 원한.

3rd. Improbable supposition:—

When the supposition contains the idea of doubt, "if" may be rendered by 원, with the interposition of a particle expressing doubt or uncertainty as 후, or by 거든.

Note.—As was remarked in the Grammatical Notes, this particle 거든, has often the idea of time, and may generally be said to give the idea of condition, with the necessary notion of time. In common use to-day, however, it has nearly always, the idea of doubt.

If you let the fire out, we shall all take cold.
If the steamer leaves tomorrow we can’t go.
If he goes I’ll go too.
If he has gone we can’t help it.
If he has already sold the books, no matter.
2.

If he were going I would go.

If you had loaned me fifty dollars then, I could have paid my debt, made a little money myself, and paid you back with interest, in five days.

If you had told me she was sick, I would have gone there yesterday.

If it were not raining we would all get horses and go to the So Chang Myo.

If I were going to do it, I would have done it already.

3.

If it should not be raining at that time let's go.

If he should have gone, bring the letter back.

If you should be going to Seoul I wish you would take a letter for me;

If they should be spoiled he says he will change them.
CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

With reference to the rendering of English nouns in Korean there is little to be said here. For the most part, they are rendered by their exact equivalents in Korean, which can be found in a dictionary. In some instances, (and these from the nature of the case are not a few) where the idea is entirely new to the Korean mind, new words must be formed, either by the use of ideas known to the Korean, or by the bodily introduction of foreign words into the language. This latter course however, except where the use of Korean ideas would make the words altogether too cumbersome for use, is to be deprecated.

In not a few cases where the foreigner would use an abstract noun, the Korean would prefer to transpose the sentence and use a verb.

The heat in this room is very great.

Mr. Yi's kindness to me was very great.

It is not necessary here, to give further illustrations of the noun, as these are found in all the sentences.
CHAPTER III.

THE ARTICLE.

There are no words in Korean that exactly express the force of the English definite article. As has been stated before, the Koreans are not, for the most part, in the habit of affixing the appropriate postposition to its noun unless it is needed to avoid ambiguity.

The addition of the postposition giving definiteness, has often the effect of the article the.

The indefinite article is as a rule not rendered into Korean.

The absence of the proper Korean Postposition generally gives sufficient indefiniteness without any addition. It can however at times be expressed by the use of the Korean numeral 형 (one) placed before the noun.

Note.—The other form of the numeral, 덥나, is placed after the noun, emphasizing the fact of there being but one, and can never therefore take the place of the English indefinite article.

Sometimes, this indefiniteness is expressed simply by the absence of any postposition.

The books have come.

Books, (plur. nom.) have come.
The patient took the medicine, but he died.

A boy came and brought the books.

Bring me a pencil.

It is a letter from my friend who lives in America.

He is a famous gentleman among the Chinese.

Dealing in rice is a profitable business.

I heard the news from a Seoul man, when I was staying with him.

It is very strange how an owl can fly in the night better than in the day.
CHAPTER IV.

PRONOUNS.

§ I.—Personal Pronouns.

As has been said before, the use of the personal pronoun in Korean is very much restricted and on this account we would again urge upon the student the necessity of omitting the pronouns when speaking Korean. At times however, for emphasis, or to avoid ambiguity, and also, sometimes as a matter of politeness the pronouns or words to take their place, are used.

The regular pronouns can be found in the chapter on pronouns in Part I. Other words are often used to take their place, as 소년 (little man) and 내의 (my body) etc. for I; 오빠 (elder brother) 어르신 (aged father), etc. for you.

The English possessive pronouns are formed by affixing the postposition 의 (of).

Note.—In many places where we would use the pronoun of the first person singular, the Korean would use the plural, and often for first person plural, they will use the plural 우리 together with the sign of the plural 들. See Part I. ¶ 60 ff.
I brought the box, and the servant carried the bundle.

This is different from what I ordered.

The ladies rode in chairs, but we walked.

Some of us would like to study history.

Everything I say seems to offend you.

Did you leave the door open?

There was a man here an hour or two ago enquiring for you.

That fur hat of yours just fits you.

My father died three years ago.

Come out to my house in the country, and spend a month.

You’re a little particular.

He’s a man of ability, but he lacks energy.

Are not these yours?

He offered me a hundred dollars but I would not take it.

He brought the box, and the servant carried the bundle.

This is different from what I ordered.

The ladies rode in chairs, but we walked.

Some of us would like to study history.

Everything I say seems to offend you.

Did you leave the door open?

There was a man here an hour or two ago enquiring for you.

That fur hat of yours just fits you.

My father died three years ago.

Come out to my house in the country, and spend a month.

You’re a little particular.

He’s a man of ability, but he lacks energy.

Are not these yours?

He offered me a hundred dollars but I would not take it.

그 채는 내가 가져 오고 보통이는 하인이 들고 왔소.

내가 놓리는 것과 말소.

너련네들은 교군을 틀시 나 우리는 결엇소.

우리 중에 소기 비호라 돈이 더러 잇소.

내 말 마다 로형을 성나게 하는 모양이요.

더 문 제가 열어 노랫 누냐?

혼 두어 시 전에 사람이 여기 와서 공을 차잡소.

공의 헴모조가 썩 맛소.

우리 아바지 삼년 전에 도라 가셨소.

우리 식물 집으로 와 혼돌 머므 시오.

당신이 조곰 싸닥름소.

저조는 틀시나 브조런치는 못 혜오.

이것 공의 거시 아니요?

날 누려 은전 빅원 주마고 혜었것 마는 맛지 아니 혜었소.
SEC. 2.—COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

There is no one word in Korean, that gives exactly the force of the English word "*self.*". It must therefore be rendered according to the shade of meaning to be expressed.

1 When it is simply emphatic—simple personal pronoun with the emphatic postposition 도, or personal pronoun alone.

2 One's self as well as another,—personal pronoun with 도.

3 Signifying one's self as distinguished from others—by the use of 친히, or 자기, or by the repetition of the pronoun.

4 Signifying alone—by 혼자.

5 Of itself—by 혼자.

1. I'll lend it, just as soon as I finish reading it myself. 나도 그 문중방에서 두서너 번 이나 너며 질변 혼잣소.

When I wouldn't eat it myself, do you think I'd give it to you? 네가 줄 줄 아닌니?

2. I tripped on that sill two or three times myself. 우리도 못 잊는지 공은 불난티 그러게 갓가 오니 못 잔겨시 이상 혼잣 엽소.

We ourselves couldn't sleep last night, so no wonder you couldn't when you were so near the fire.
3. I'll go myself.
You ought to be able to answer that yourself.
He said that he himself would give five thousand dollars.
I cannot clear myself before God.

4. I doubt whether you can do it by yourself.
He is unable to teach so large a school by himself.

5. Do you believe the world came into existence by itself?

§ II—RELATIVE PRONOUNS:

Like the Japanese, Korean is without relative pronouns, and the relative clause is rendered by the use of the relative participle, which comes before what in English is the antecedent clause, and acts as an adjective governing it. For instance, the Koreans do not say “The man who came yesterday” but, “The yesterday came man,” 이제 온사람. It may be well to add that the tense of the relative participle will of cause follow the tense of the relative clause.

When the antecedent is “it” or “that,” either expressed or implied, it is rendered by 것, or of a person by 이.
Who was that you bowed to just now?
Who was that who bowed to you just now?
He is a fellow that used to be a servant of ours.
What is it that crow has in its mouth?
Let us see what you have in your hand.
What the rats don’t carry off, the ants eat.
Have you done what I told you?
What was the name of the king who used to kill flies when he was a boy?
The horse I gave so much for, is not worth his feed.
Did they take the carpenter who fell off the roof, and sprained his arm to the hospital?
Who was that woman you met a little while ago with a baby on her back?
In which drawer do you keep your lead pencils?

지금 인소 흔들 이가 누구요?
공석 인소 흔들이가 누구요?
전에 우리게 하인 으로 잇던 놈이요.
더 가마귀 입에 문 거시 무어시요?
손에 잇는 것 좀 보옵시다.
취가 아니 무리간 거슬 개아미가 먹소.
내가 낼은 것 호엇눈나?
여럿실 죽에 파리 죽이던님금의 일홈이 무어시요?
그리케 돈 만히 주고 산물이 저 먹는 죽 갑도 못 흥요.
집응서 탕상 흙야 팔부리진 복슈를 병원으로 드려 갓소?
아차 맞나던 오허 엉은계집이 누구요?
연필 흔 설합이 어느거시요?
Is'nt this the book in which you put the letter?
Where does the clay of which they make these bricks, come from?
I can't find the paper in which these books were wrapped.
Where is the book that you were going to give me?

§ III.—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

The English interrogatives are translated by their equivalents in Korean, which may be found in Part I. 66 ff.

For convenience and study, however, we will give a few sentences below arranged in the following order.

1. Who, is rendered by ᆝ or 누구, 누, with the appropriate postpositions.
   "Whose" used as a substantive is rendered by 누ulet, 누치.
   Sometimes also who may be rendered by the circumlocution, 어누사롬 (what man?).

2. Which :
   (a.) Used substantively,—어누것, or 옛던것.
   (b.) Used adjectively,—어누 or 옛던.

3. What :

* Note.—In many places where we would use “what” the Koreans employ some other word. The Koreans would not say “What does Mr. Yi think” but “how does Mr. Yi think.” They would not say “At what time” but “At which hour,” etc. In many places also where we would use what substantively, the Korean uses it adjectively and vice-versa.
(a.) Used substantively,— 무엇, 무엇을.
(b.) Used adjectively,— 무엇.


Who invented the telegraph?
Of whom have you learned hitherto?
With whom are you living?
Whose shoes are those?
Whose are those apples?
Which do you like best?
Which of these two books was printed last?
Which shall I do first?
Which road shall I take?
Which carpenter shall I call?
In which room did you put the new screen?

2 (a).

What are you doing?
What have you come for?

3 (α), (β); and 4.
What is that?
What is a “pogyo”?
What is Mr. Song’s opinion?
What does Mr. Yi think of it?
Please explain to me what is the meaning of this word?
What flowers do you intend to plant in your garden?
By what road did you come?
In what neighbourhood does Mr. Kim live?
At what time does the boat start?
What is the reason?
What is that man’s name?
What is the name of this fish?
What is the name of the place where they get that coal?
What do they call the river this side of Mapo?
In what box did you put it?
CHAPTER V.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives have been divided into two classes, qualifying, and limiting, the latter have again been divided into articles, pronominal adjectives, and numerals. The few words necessary on articles have already been given, numerals and qualifying adjectives have in part been treated in Part I., and a few additional hints will be given later. There remain therefore for our consideration in this place, pronominal adjectives, or adjectives that are sometimes used to take the place of nouns. Among these are—

All   Either   Neither   Such.
Any   Few     One       Same.
Both  Many    Several   That.
Each  Much    Some      This etc.

In the following selection of these words it will be noticed that some not commonly called pronominal adjectives are given. This is because at times they do act as such and take the place of nouns.

Sec. 1.—This, that, such.

1 This:—

(a.) Used substantively—καθάρισθη.
(b.) Used adjectively—καθάριστος.
2 That:—
(a.) Used substantively—그것, 너것.
(b.) Used adjectively—그, 너.

3 Such:—
(a.) "Like this"—이런.
(b.) "Like that"—그런, 너런.

더, 너것, 너런, etc. are used of things near or in sight.
그, 그것, 그런, etc. are used of things more or less remote or out of sight.

Followed by an adjective, and in certain other places where the adverbial form appeals to the Korean, as more proper than the adjective form, the adverbial forms of 이런, 그런, 너런 are used.

"Such" used substantively, will be rendered by the adjective form with 것, where it refers to a thing, and with 이 or 사름 when referring to a person.

Note—The remarks made about the use of the plural ending, 들 in the chapter on nouns in Part I. 46 ff. apply equally here, and to all pronouns. Unless then ambiguity would exist without this postposition, we will be safe in omitting it, and in translating "these," "those," etc., as though they were "this," "that." In fact it may be said, that not only are we safe in omitting them, but that we would not be speaking true Korean in using them. In the use of the adjectival forms, we would remind the student that in Korean, there is no agreement either in case or number between the adjective, and its noun. It will also be noticed, that in some places where we would use "this" with a noun, the Koreans would use a noun in which "this" is implied.

1. (a).

Is this a mosquito bite, or a flea bite?
This is neither colloquial nor book language.

이거시 모기사 문디요, 빗사사 문디요?
이거시 같은도 아니오, 단소도 아니오.
This is neither cast iron nor brass.
Have you any silk exactly like this?
These are much better than yours.
Do your trees yield as much fruit as these?

1. (b).
I have not even yet finished this book.
I want something to put this water in.
This house is too large for you.
This is the best day we have had in a long while.
This year we have had a bad rice harvest.
In these days Koreans are beginning to regard all the world as brothers.
These apples are all bad.

2. (a).
What's that (not seen)?
You wont need as much as that.
That is just right.
Put these in the box and
those in the drawer.

What machine is that?

2. (b).

Have you read that book?  그 책 읽어 보셨소?
You had better not eat too many of those cakes.
I have never met either of those two men.
Do you know how long that rope is?
That dog ought to be killed.
Is'nt that box nailed up yet?
That I don't understand (the rest I do).
That horse is lame.
That boy is the laziest fellow I ever set eyes on.

3. (a).

How much sugar does it take to make such cakes as these?
I use such a pen (as this) occasionally.
Flowers like these don't grow in Japan.
Such fine weather as this is common in Korea.

How did you make such a mistake?

Nobody but a fool would say such a thing.

Why do you always make such a disagreeable face when you are told to do any thing?

At such a time one doesn't know what is best to do.

Such talk as that, does more harm than good.

Why do old Japanese ships have such high sterns?

Sec. 2.—Either, neither, both.

There is no one word in Korean exactly equivalent to any one of these terms and they can only be rendered by the use of several words. Where it is either or neither of two, if this idea is to be expressed, 늘중에, (among two) with or without one of the demonstrative pronouns 이, 그, or 둘, must be used in addition to the word used to render either or neither, as the case may be. Where it is of several, 중에 with one or other of the demonstrative pronouns is necessary. For example the Korean would not say, “Will either of these do?” but “Of these two, will one do?” “For the rendering then of “either” neither” and “both” we obtain the following rules.
PEONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

1. Either:

(a.) Signifying, one;—들중에 하나, or 들중에
with 것 preceded by the relative participle with or
without 하나.

(b.) “One or the other,” or “both;—들중에 with
아모나 of persons, and with 아모것 of things, or
아모 with the name of the things repeated.

2. Neither, or Either, with the negative:—The same
as No. 1, a. and b. with the negative, or 아모도 with
negative may be used.

Note.—Where it is of several, of course, 올 will not be used.

3. Both:—들다, 랑인 or 랑, with the noun or its
equivalent repeated.

1. (a).

Is either of these pencils yours?

Will either of these suit you?

Is either of those men-of-
war an iron-clad?

Did either of your sons come here yesterday?

1. (b).

Either of those will do, hand me one please.

Either of those sticks would be strong enough.
Either way will do. 
You will find that character in either dictionary.

Neither of those pens is good for anything.
I think neither of those houses belongs to Mr. Kim now.
I hope neither of you is wounded.
Doesn't either of these colors suit you?
You must not touch either of these books.
You cannot trust either of them.
This character is not in either of the dictionaries.
Did not either of your friends come?

Both of my flower pots fell off the shelf and were broken.
Please lend me both, for a few moments.
You must certainly do both. 

These ornaments (for the person) are both beautiful.

My parents both died while I was a child.

Bring both the hammer and the screw driver.

Have you looked in both pockets?

These chair coolies are both drunk.

---

Sec. 3.—Each.

1. Signifying every one individually “each” may be rendered by 마다 or 각.

2. Signifying apiece—식 or 흔히식.

마다 and 식 follow the noun while 각 precedes it.

Note.—Frequently Koreans use “each” twice and sometimes oftener, in the same sentence, where we would use it but once. For example where we would say, “I will take three of each sort,” the Korean would be very apt to say, “Of each sort, I will take three each.” We would note also, that the distinction made above cannot be rigidly adhered to; and as in English “each” and “every” are at times interchangeable, so 흔히식, and 마다, may at times be used, the one for the other.

3. Each other:—서로.

Each student lives by him 성 도 마다 각각 가쳐

self.
Each soldier had on a different uniform.

Each man does as he likes.

Each came up in turn and received his share.

Each horse has its own groom.

Each child recited in turn.

Give one to each child.

Put a spoonful of tea in each of these cups.

Put a stamp on each of these letters, and mail them.

I’ll take three of each sort.

These lamps have two chimneys each.

Give each man three of each kind.

You must put three hinges on each door.

Those two men hate each other like cats and dogs.
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Men should help each other all they can.

Those two men love each other like brothers.

SEC. 4.—SOME.

As was remarked in Part. I. 66 ff the Korean interrogatives serve equally as well for indefinite pronouns, and hence we get the following rules for rendering "some."

1. Somebody—누가, 누구.

2. Something—무엇.

3. Some one of a particular group:

Here the "some" is omitted, and "one" only is translated by 하나.

4. When it represents indefinite designation and is equivalent to "a certain:"—엇던.

5. Signifying a part or portion—도 or 드러. "Some... some" becomes 도...도 or 드러...드러.

6. Signifying an indefinite quantity:

(a.) Used as a substantive—it can only be rendered by some such word as 좀 or 드리는데.

(b.) Used as an adjective—it is not rendered.

7. "Some more";

(a.) In addition—더.

(b.) Left—있히 아직도.

Somebody is knocking at the door.

I am positive somebody has told it.
Somebody must go to Sëoul to-day to get that money.

Somebody came to see you this afternoon, but refused to leave his card.

2.

You had better plant something here.

Something fell down and woke me up at about four this morning.

Have you not put something heavy in this drawer?

Have you not dropped something?

3.

Can you spare me some one of these?

Will not some one of the coolies from this neighborhood do?

4.

Some scholar has written a history in about fifty volumes.

Some general with but two or three hundred soldiers defeated the Chinese army last year.
5.

Some tables have three legs.
Some people sympathize with England, and some with Russia.
Some said "go," and some said "don't go."
Some among those soldiers were cavalry.
Some of the English kings were wise men.
Most blind men are ignorant, but some are celebrated scholars.
Some of the most celebrated men have been blind.
Make some white and some black.
Some of them are better than others.
I keep some of my letters, but most of them I burn up.

Soung Yongi put some in the bookcase and the rest are still in the box.
I gave Mr. Song some, ate some myself, and put the rest in the drawer.

Some得不到예도있소.
영국 편 드는 사람들
있고 아라사 편 드는 사람도 있소.
가라는 사람도 있고 가지
말나는 사람도 있겠소.
그 병디 중에 기병이
더러 있겠소.
영국 남금 중에 머리는
명철한 이가 있겠소.
눈 면 사람이 거위 다
무식한것마는 그중에
유명한 문장도 있소.
데일 유명한 사람 중에
혹 소경도 있겠소.
더러는 희게보고 더러는
김게 후여라.
그중에 나혼 것도 있소.

네 편지 중에 머리는 찰
두나 거위 다 티우소.
더러는 손용이가 척상
속에 너코 놓아지는 계
속에 그져 있소.
더러는 송서발 주고
더러는 내가 먹고 놓아
지는 설합에 너�ត소.
6. (a).

Sprinkle some there.  
Some probably dropped out on your way home.  
Take some, to try, and see how you like it.

6. (b).

I want to embroider some silk.  
Tell the cook to make some Chinese tea.  
I wish I had planted some monthly roses in this garden.

7. (a).

Tell Sujini I must have some more nails.  
Tell the servant to put some more coal on.  
Please give Mr. Pak some more paper.

7. (b).

There are some more in the right hand drawer.  
Did you say there was some more flour in the house?

SEC. 5.—ANY.

1. Persons:

(a.) Somebody—누가, 누구 or the relative clause with 이. Negatively—the same with the negative.
(b.) Anybody whatever, no matter who.
누구든지. Negatively—아무도, 누구든지 with the negative or the relative clause in 이 with 흥나도 엽소.

2. Things:

(a.) Something—무엇 or 무엇 with a noun, or the relative participle with 것. Negatively—the same with the negative.

(b.) Anything whatever, no matter what—아무 거시나, 아무거시라도, 무어시든지, or 무엇 followed by 던지. Negatively—by the same with the negative, except that 아무거시나 becomes 아무 것으로. This same negative form is very emphatically rendered by the use of the relative participle with 것흥나도 엽소.

3. One or more, any at all:

(a.) In affirmative sentences—not rendered.

(b.) In negative sentences, signifying none at all—조금도 or 흥나도 with the negative.

4. Any more:

(a.) In affirmative sentences—엇취 or 더.

(b.) In negative sentences 더 with the negative.

1. (a).

Is there anybody in the room?

Did anyone ever attempt it before?

Did not anyone say anything to you about it?

If anybody should call, say I can’t see them.
Cannot anyone translate 이거술 번역 할이 업소?

this?

Please call anyone of the soldiers.

That's a thing that any boy ought to know.

Anybody who knows Onmun can read that.

Is'n't there any one who can go?

There is'n't anybody who lives without sin.

Nobody came to see me while I was sick.

1. (b).

또도 훈나 불러주오 누구덕지. or

또도 훈나 누구덕지 불러주오.

아모 주도나 불러 주오.

그거슬 아모 은히나 알거시오

누구덕지 언문 아는 사름은 그거슬 능히 널으오.

아모도 커 사람 엽습너 업가?

죄 아니 범허고 사는 이가 훈나도 업소.

방 잃실 적에 아모도 와 보지 아니 훈엿소.

2. (a).

네 눈에 무어시 드럿소?

Did Mr. Kim send anything to me?

Have you any business to attend to?

Did Mr. Yi tell you any news?
I wish these boxes had nothing in them.
Did you give anything?
Did you say you had nothing to do?

2. (b).

One can accomplish almost anything if he is ambitious.
Any soft wood will do.
Any one of those colors will do.
Give me any one of these cups.
Not any one of these toys will please the children.

There was nothing there that I liked.

3. (a).

Are there any Chinese characters in that book?
Are there any men-of-war in Chemulpo now?
Are there any American merchants in Fusan?
Are there any schools where English is taught in Pyeng Yang?

3. (b).

Have'nt you any money?
Are there no sheep in Korea?
Don't you have any good fruit in Japan?
Didn't you see any ducks on the road from Chemulpo?

4. (a).

Is there any more flour?
Have you any more of the paper I bought the other day?
Have they any more Pyeng Yang coal at Chemulpo?

4. (b).

Isn't there any more sugar in the house?
Do not put in any more.
Do not put any more ice in the refrigerator until the leak is mended.

Sec. 6.—Every

1 Persons:—

(a.) Everybody, people generally—누구든지.
(b.) Everybody no matter who, anybody whatever, 누구라든 or 아무라도.
(c.) Every one of a particular group—모든, 다.

2 Things:
(a.) Everything, things generally—무엇서던지.
(b.) Everything no matter what, anything whatever,—무엇서라도, 아무잡서라도, 무엇서던지 and sometimes by a change in form of the sentence.
(c.) Everyone of a particular group—모든, 다.

"Without exception" is rendered by 이것도것없시.

Note.—아모 is more emphatic than 누구. There are also many other ways of expressing these same ideas by a change in the form of the sentence, but enough are given here for all practical purposes.

1. (a.)

Everybody expected war. 누구던지 싸움이 될줄 알았소.

In India everybody has to go to the mountains in summer. 인도국에는 누구던지 언론에 산에 갈수밖이 엿소.

One ought to be polite to everybody. 누케던지 공손히여야 할거시요.

1. (b.)

Everybody can go to see the President. 아무라도 대통령을 보러 갈수가 잇소.

Every Jew had to learn a trade. 유대 사람들은 아무라도 장식 일을 비로게 합엇소.

Every Korean must have a top knot. 조선 사람들은 아무라도 상투 입서야 쓰것소.
They send every one to the same prison.

Please make every one sit down.

When I opened the door, everybody said "You must not come in yet."

The weather was bad and every one in our house took cold.

Some people think that everything came into existence of itself.

Have you enough of everything, to last till you get to Pyeng Yang?

It seems to me you always find fault with everything.

You seem to think you know everything.

In a little while the Japanese will be able to make everything.

That baby wants everything he sees.
You mustn't give the baby everything he wants.

They can teach everything at the government college.

2. (c).

Leave everything as it is.

Every thing in the house was burnt up.

Have you done every thing as I told you?

Every one of these bottles is broken.

Every one without exception was broken in two.

SEC. 7.—NO, NONE, NOBODY.

1 Nobody—拿소 with either the relative clause with 이; or 누구도, or 아무도, or 누구든지.

2 Nothing—이모것도 with the negative, or the relative clause with 것 and the negative.

Note.—Sometimes with a relative clause, the repetition of the word will take the place of 것이.

3 No:

(a.) Not any—negative of verb.

* N. B. In this sentence it would not do to say simply 무어시든지 alone with the negative for this would mean you must not give him anything. If the idea is not to give all 다 with the negative must be used, and in such a sentence as the above, some qualifying clause must be inserted.
(b.) Emphatic—signifying none at all, not a single one.—조공도, 홀나도, 도모지, 아조, etc. with the negative.

4 No more—더 with the negative.

1. They looked at one another but nobody said a word.

Nobody can sit up till after twelve o'clock every-night and get up early every morning without breaking down.

Are none of you wet?

Nobody expected peace so soon.

2. The house caught fire, but nothing was burnt.

I took the cover off, and looked in, and there was nothing there.

None of those boats is very fast.

He showed me several, but none of them suited me.

3. (a).

I've had no fire all day.
Are there no snakes in this neighborhood?
I found no mistakes in the essay.

3. (b).

Do you say there is no kerosene in Korea?
Are you sure there are no mosquitoes in the net?
Are there no strawberries in the garden?
Is there no one in this room who will go?

4.

We have no more pears but we have some very nice persimmons.
We have no more red ones, but have some black ones.
I believe I have no more letters to write.

Sec. 8.—All.

1 Signifying everyone, the whole number, or quantity—모도, 다.
2 Signifying the whole duration or extent,—온, 운동, 일, 흘, or 다.
3 Signifying the *last of a thing*, 一世 or 만 may be used.

은, 일, 훈 precede their nouns, the rest follow.

1.

You had better throw these all away.

These letters are all for America.

The cherry blossoms must have fallen off by now.

Put all those needles in the box on the shelf.

Take out all those books, and arrange them well, in sets, on the bookshelves.

The hoop broke, and every bit of the water ran out.

I shall probably be in Sëoul all this winter.

All next month I must go every day to the palace.

From Nam San, they say almost all of Sëoul can be seen.

There was not a man in all the village that had ever seen a foreigner.
Mr. Song has travelled over nearly all the world.

Is this all the tea there is? 차가 이 셱 이나?
Is this all the flour there is? 밀가루가 이 셱이호?

Sec. 9.—Several.

1 Number:—
(a.) Quite a number,—여러 in its various forms.
(b.) An indefinite number,—몇.

2 Kind:—석석, 석석이로, 각.
The distinction made above between 여러 and 며, is not always adhered to by Koreans. The difficulty with 여러 for “several,” is that it may mean a large number of almost indefinite proportion, but this is generally expressed, by the strong stress or emphasis, laid upon the word. The English word “several” may also be rendered by the Korean words 두여너, (two, three, four) 서너여더 (three, four, five.)

1. (a).

There are several pencils in that case.

There were several who declined to go.

I enquired at several shops but there were none.

I’ve had several dogs since I came to Seoul.

A fly has several legs.
1. (b).

We met a coolie just now carrying several parcels.
He took several boxes to the river this morning.
We met several pack ponies laden with cash, on the road.
There seem to be several lame ones among these dogs.

You have several (kinds) beautiful flowers in your garden.
Birds build their nests in several ways.
At this hotel, they have several kinds of food.
Koreans wear garments of several colors.

SEC. 10.—FEW.

1 Few (not many)— 적소, 만치안소, which in Korean are verbs, and in rendering few can only be used as predicates.

Note.—To be with a few is rendered in the same way.

2 A few (a small number)—몇 or by some indefinite number as 두어서, or 서너너덧.

The particle 수 (number) prefixed to Sinico-Korean words also conveys this idea.
Few foreigners speak Korean well.

There were only a few there last night, but we had a good time.

There were only a few soldiers at the American legation, but they were all brave, and we were not afraid.

Go to the garden and bring me a few small stones.

Go and buy me a few cigars.

I went to Pouk Han yesterday with a few friends.

A few years ago I was in America.

I will go in a few days.

Sec. 11.—One, ones.

One is rendered in Korean by 거짓다usterity.

Note.—It will have already been noticed, that the Korean use of the equivalent for “one” or “ones” is much more frequent than the English, and hence it is found in many places where we least expect it.

Either red ones or black ones will do.

Neither red ones nor black ones will do.
PBOKOMINAL ADJECTIVES. Chap. V. Sec. 12.

Have not you any (ones) a little better?
The best ones are all in the godown.
Although even that is good, the one with the cover is better.
Is this to-day’s (one)?
Have you any different (ones) from this?

Sec. 12.—Other, another.

1. The rest of—이외.
2. Not the same, separate—다른, or by the adverb 달나.
4. One more in addition—더, 하나다.
5. The other one of two—한나, 또한나, 다룬것, or by a change in the form of the sentence.
“The one...the other”—한나혼...한나혼.
6. People generally as contrasted with one’s self—놓.
7. Again—또, 다시.

1.

See whether the other children don’t want some too.
Please tell the others to come in too.
Are the other boxes the same size as this?
The other ones will be done in a month.
I’ll take another newspaper.
You had better take these coolies, you may not be able to get the others.

I came by another road.
That’s another matter.
Another color would probably be better.
As I am a Korean I cannot sit down in any other way.
He really had another reason for going.

I have not another cash.
Isn’t there another pencil in that drawer?
If you intend to study Chinese you must get another teacher, (besides the present one).

This bookcase is a little small, I’ll have to get another.
It will be all right even though you don’t put on another stamp.
Please order me another copy, of the O Ryun Haing Sil.

Bring me another pencil.
Bring me another cake of ink.

Where is the other hammer?
This is too soft you had better take the other one.
I gave one to Soun Pogi and one to Eung Whani.
I like this house best, but prefer the other location.

Don't give too much credit to what others say.
I don't know what others think, and I don't care.

The news has just arrived, of another victory.
Did Mr. Pak say that if he went to Fusan he would send another telegram to Séoul?
Sec. 13.—Same.

1. Not different—By the different parts of the verb 時 or 時時 (to be alike).
2. Not two :—歴,일.

1.

Put the same quantity in all the bottles.

Those two boys are the same height.

Is "Oltarago" the same as "Olsorago?"

The meaning is the same, but the letters are a little different.

Though you make them of the same material, make them of different colors.

Are Buddhist temples all built on the same general plan?

I told them both the same thing.

It is the same as last year's disease.

2.

Were all these prepared by the same man?

Can't you two read out of the same book?
Let us both stop at the same hotel.
Are you all from the same town?

**Sec. 14—Much.**

1 In affirmative sentences—the different parts of the verb 만소.
2 In negative sentences—파히 with the negative.
3 Too much—너무, 과히, with and without 만소.
4 So much—그리께 either alone, or with the verb 만소.
5 How much—얼마. About how much—얼마나.

Sometimes also another word such as 대개 will be added. If it is desired to call especial attention to the price the word 갑 will be used. The Koreans use this word 얼마 in places where in English we would use simply how.

1. Is there much money in that box?
   더 귀에 돈 만히 드럿소?
   전년에 갑을 적에 곡식이 만히 득소?
   석유가 조선에 만히 드리오요?
   조선에 실과 만소?

2. I don’t have much headache.
   머리 과히 암호지 안소.
You have'n't taken much pains with your writing.
I do not like Korean food very much.
To tell the truth I do not feel much like going.

Do not drink too much.
There is too much sugar in this tea.
You can not sleep if you drink too much tea.
This is a little too much.
You must not spend too much money or you will soon be poor.

If you eat so much candy you will be sick.
I trust him so much that I would lend him whatever he should ask.
You need not take so much pains with that letter.
Do not drink so much wine.
Do not put on so much coal.
How much for the lot?  
How much did you give for those pears?  
About how much salt is there in this water?  
How much vinegar did you say was left?  
About how long is that box?  
How much silk shall I get?  
How much is the annual income of the government?

도합이 갑시 얼마나요?  
이 비를 얼마 주고 싶소?  
이 물에 소금 얼마나 드릿소?  
조가 얼마 남았다고 혼 얻소?  
그 롱 걸기가 대개 얼마나 되소?  
평주 얼마 사리 Ngô가?  
정부에 일년 수입 대개 얼마나 되소?

Sec. 15.—Many.

The Koreans do not make the distinction between many and much, that we do. Sometimes it can be done by the interposition of the word 수 (number) and 수가 만소, "the number is much" means "there are many." As a general rule however, the simple use of the verb 만소 will answer all purposes and the context will tell whether it is quantity or number that is referred to. There is a difference between how much and how many.

We find then the following rules.

1 In affirmative sentences—the different parts of the verb 만소; and in negative sentences—the same with the negative.

2 A good many—The word "good" is not rendered, 만소 alone is used.
3 A great many—미루 or 대단히 etc. with 만소.
The English phrase "a great deal" is also rendered in the same way.

4 Too many—너무, 과히, etc. with 만소. As was said with regard to "too much," 만소 may be omitted.

5 How many—몇. About how many 며치나.

1. Confucius has many disciples.
   Many of the Americans have blue eyes.
   Formerly there were not many ironclads in the American navy.
   Many Korean flowers have a very sweet odor.
   There are not many sheep in Korea.
   I didn't buy many, because they were dear.

2. A good many Japanese seem to wear glasses.
   It seems a good many farmers made money this year.

3. A great many fishing smacks pass here every morning.
The fire last night destroyed a great many houses.
We’ve used a great deal of coal this year.

4.
There are too many books in that bookcase.
There are too many people on that boat, I’m afraid it will sink in such a sea as this.
There are too many chairs in this room, there is no place for the table.
There are too many windows in this room, there is no place for a wardrobe.

5.
How many pears shall I buy?
About how many bottles are left?
How many days are there in a month?
How many chickens did you order?
How many servants do you keep?
How many sons has Mr. Kim?

SEC. 16.—MORE.

More is rendered into Korean by 더. Quite often 좀 (a little) will be used with it.

When are you going to put on more men?

If you don’t put on more coal, the fire will go out.

I wish I had bought more of this tea.

You can get a good article if you will pay more.

Which costs the more?

I have not a bit more.

Go and get some more ice.

SEC. 17.—MOST.

1. Nearly all—거워다.

2. The greatest of several quantities:—

The Koreans, commonly do not make the distinction between "more" and "most." The common way of expressing "most" would be by 더 with or without 만.

Sometimes however, when they wish to be accurate they will use 에일 instead of 더.

For the superlative degree, see Part II. Chapter VI. § II. Sec. 2., and Part I. ¶ 254.

1. Most foreigners dislike a native chair.
Most of you have heard this, I suppose. Although some of them have not yet been told, most of them probably know it.

I gave most of them five hundred cash each, but some of them left early and did not receive it.

2.

Which box holds the most? Then I will have the most.

Sec. 18.—Enough.

In rendering the pronominal adjective, Enough, the various parts of the verbs 넉넉한, 충분한, 자랑스러운, etc., verbs meaning, “to be sufficient” should properly be used. The Koreans, often, however, use other words or phrases to express the same idea. As, they will say “That much will do,” “That is much” etc. When we use the word enough in English, we do not always have the idea of “sufficient for a purpose,” we often mean “plenty,” “a good deal,” and the Koreans in
this respect are almost more exact than we. Remembering these facts, we obtain the following rules.

1. Signifying a sufficiency, and without the verb "to be," either as simple adjective qualifying a noun, substantively, or as an adverb we may render "enough," by 네сколько, 충분히, 만히.

2. To be enough—너무히, 충분히, 자라오, etc. or we can use 그만, (that only), or 그만큼 (that much) with the future of such a verb 쓰오. Negatively—the same with the negative, or a negative verb, as 부족히 오 may be used.

3. To do a thing enough.

(a.) In affirmative sentences—the adverbial form of the verbs.

(b.) In negative sentences—the same with the negative, or 널 without the negative.

4. Enough to,—future participle of verb, or fut. past. with 만큼, or 것; negatively, the same with the negative. 자라오 may be used.

1.

Thanks, I've had enough 곧랍소 마는 만히 먹엇소.

already.

How many nails shall I 꽃 몇칠 가지 오리 сочета? bring? Bring enough. 네сколько 가지 오너라.

Be sure and put enough 일덩 사탕 네сколько 너라.
sugar in.

2.

Is there enough sugar? 사랑이 네сколько 호요?

There is not quite enough 이 과지에 사랑이 조금 부족 호요.
sugar in this cake.
Is this enough?
Six inches will be wide enough.
That's enough.
This won't be enough.
Was there enough coal?

3. (a).
We've walked enough now, let's go back.
You've read enough now, that will do.
As the coolies have rested long enough, let us hurry on.

3. (b).
Haven't you had enough to eat yet?
These potatoes are not boiled enough yet.
You have'nt taken enough medicine yet.

4.
Have you enough stamps to put on that letter?
Have we coal enough to last till next spring?
Have you studied into the subject enough to really understand it?
We had enough plums to send some to all our friends.

We went to see them and instead of finding them starving, we found they had enough rice, stored away in bags to last them a whole month.

우리가 보러 간즉 금지 아니 하고 오히려 혼들 솟 칠이 섬에 널것 있는 거슬 차졌소.

우리 주도는 각 친구 의게 보낼 만큼 있 셋소.

우리에 적는 각 친구에 보낼 만큼 있 셋소.
CHAPTER VI.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ I.

The previous chapter having treated of pronominal adjectives, there remains for us here, simply qualifying, or descriptive adjectives. As will be seen in Part I, Korean has but few true descriptive adjectives, and as a consequence, in translating English into Korean, adjectives must be variously rendered.

1 Used attributively—either a simple adjective will be used, or a past relative participle, which will then, as in English precede the noun it qualifies.

2 Used predicatively—the verbal form in the appropriate tense will be used.

Note.—When two or more adjectives qualify the same word, they will be rendered by the stems of the adjectival verb with  ,$ and the last only will be inflected. It must also be remembered that often where we use the attributive, the Korean uses the predicative form, and vice versa.

1.

This is a rainy day. 오늘 비오는 날 이요.

Those are very pretty flowers. 그 것 미우 묘한 꽃 치요

My sister has dark eyes. 우리 누님은 눈알이 검소.
That is a large house.
Koreans wear black hats and white coats.
You will need a thick overcoat.
Koreans like bright colors.
That is a good fire.
There is a large white dog in the garden.
He wears a heavy gold chain.
My mother sent me a silver cup.

Japanese are very small.
American women are tall.
The road was very muddy.
Good coal is plentiful in Korea.
Those chairs are very strong, but they are very heavy.
That dress is very pretty.
That overcoat is thick.
Most Korean colors are bright.
That fire is good.

그 거시 큰 집이요.
조선 사람들은 검은 것 쓰고 흰 옷 입고.
뜻거운 두루마이 틈 서야 쓰겠습니다.
조선 사람 화훈 빛 도화 놓오.
그 것 도훈 불이요.
화원에 흔 크고 흰 개 입소.
무거운 금 수슬을 착소.
우리 어머니가 흔 은 진을 보내웠소.

일본 사람 미우 적소.
미국 여인이 흔 크요.
길은 대단이 젖었소.
도훈 석탄 조선에 만소.
그 교의는 미우 된 돈 축것마는 부검소.
그 옷시 미우 묘하신.
그 두루마이 드림소.
조선 물색은 거위 다 광치가 입소.
그 불이 묘소.
That gold chain is heavy.

He was a tall, strong, handsome man.

I had a large, gentle, and fleet Chinese pony.

§ II.—COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

Sec. 1.—The Comparative Degree.

As was seen in Part I. in the chapter on adjectives, the idea of comparison is expressed largely by Koreans by the use of the simple positive. If there are a number, and it is desired to know which is the best, the Korean picking out simply one, and saying "This is good," will mean that it is the best. Similarly where there are only two "Of these two this is good" means, This is the better. There are however, cases where the expression of the comparative or superlative degree is necessary to the sense.

The comparative degree may be expressed by such words as 더 (more) 낫소 (to be better), 보다 (than)에서 (from). In connection with the use of these words, we must always remember, that in Korean the governing word always follows the word it governs, and the 보다 or에서, will refer then to the word which precedes it and not to the word that follows. 더 being an adverb, precedes the adjective or verb it qualifies, and we should remember that as a rule Koreans do not use 더 with 보다 or에서, either one alone, being sufficient. For the rendering of the English comparative degree we obtain then the following rules:

1. Signifying in a greater degree—더 preceding the adjective or neuter verb.
2 When two different objects are compared:—

(a) When *than* is expressed—보다 or 에서 affixed to the noun having the quality in the lesser degree; and the adjective in the positive.

(b) When *than* is not expressed—the postposition 를 may be affixed to one or both of the nouns, or 중에 (*among*) may be used with the positive: or 더 may be affixed to the adjective.

3 *The more*—*the more*, marking the introduction of two correlative clauses, may be rendered into Korean, by 순록.

1. Would it not be well to tie that bundle tighter?
   그 보통이를 더 묶으리 미는 거시 묶지 안겠소?

   You must be more energetic.
   더 부조리 줄여야 좋겠소.

   I wish you had waked me a little earlier.
   좀 더 일찍 시 ואח거나 도착 지요.

   They are pretty well made, but I wish they were a little smaller.
   죽 잘 묶은 못 하나 좀 더 적었더면 도착 지요.

2. (a).

   Fusun is hotter than Séoul.
   부산이 서울 보다 더워.

   The days are a good deal longer in summer than in winter.
   녀름 에는 훨가 겨울 보다 미우 기요.

   He is a good deal taller than his wife.
   안히 보다 커 미우 크요.

   Chairs are easier than jinrikshas.
   교군이 연덕가 보다 편 흙오.

   I am about three years older than my brother.
   내가 동생 보다 삼년 우히오.
2. (b.)

This is the prettier but the other is the cheaper.

Of these two houses, the one nearer here is the higher.

Mine is the stronger horse.

This is the better pen.

Mine was the greater fault.

My sister is the prettier.

The quicker the better.

The more the better.

The more one gets, the more he wants.

The more I study, the less I seem to myself to know.

Sec. 2.—The superlative degree.

As was noticed above, unless the sense requires it, Koreans do not employ the superlative, the positive answering all the purposes. If it is necessary, it may be rendered by the ordinal 셉일 (the first), prefixed to the adjective.

Which is the best hotel in Séoul?

The first plan seems to me the best.
He is the richest man in America.

He was the bravest soldier in the regiment.

Of all these books which is the best.

Is not the lion the most fearful of all animals?

Of all clothes foreign clothes are the easiest to wear.

미국에 데일 부자요.

진 중에 데일 당대 한 사람도 없소.

이 모든 책중에 어느거시 도소.

증성 중에는 샤즈가 무섭지요?

모든 외복 중에 남기 경련한 거슨 양복 이요.
CHAPTER VII.

THE ADVERB.

English adverbs may be rendered into Korean in various ways. Methods for forming adverbs from adjectives, with their various distinctions, may be found in the chapter on Adverbs, in the "Grammatical Notes." We have not here then to deal with these, but will simply consider how a few of the English adverbs of place, time, manner, etc., are rendered into Korean.

§ I.—ADVERBS OF PLACE.

To Korean primitive adverbs, the various postpositions can be affixed.

Sec. 1.—Here.

1. Signifying this place—여기, 이리, 이곳 etc.
2. Signifying this neighborhood—이근처.

1. Here it is.

여기 있소.

Here is where I lost my watch.

여기가 내 시계 일어 남리던 빌요.

Here is where Son Doli fell into the river.

여기가 손들이 강에 빼지던 빌요.
Is the book you bought yesterday here?
Sou Dongi and Sou Jini were here just now.
Do they make pottery here?
Do they generally drill the soldiers here?
Hasn’t some one been writing here?
Bring it here!
Come here with the baby!
Tell Nomi to come here.
Then we must certainly ride in chairs from here.
How far is it from here to the next hotel?

2.
Are there any deer about here nowadays?
Do they not have a flower show here to-night?

Sec. 2.—There.

There—더지, 더리, 거리, 그리. The difference between 더 and 그 noticed in Part I. ¶ 72 extends to these adverbs.
There’s a man with a dog and a gun.

There have been fires there, very many times this year.

I hope Mr. Chyeng will wait there till we come.

Do they make much kanchang there?

What kind of a ship is that they are building there?

That’s all right. Put it down there.

I think most of the silk thread comes from there.

**SEC. 3.—WHERE.**

1. Interrogative—어디, 어디에?
2. Relative—이[with relative participle.
4. Everywhere, wherever,—by 덤지 with the relative participle; by two negatives; or by such words as 소방(four sides), 곳곳,쳐쳐 etc.
5. Anywhere—아무리나, 아무리든지, 어디든지.

1.

Where does the washer-woman live?
Where was it that you met Mr. Kim this morning?

Where is this flower pot cracked?

Where is Mr. Yi?

Where is the spoon I left on the table?

Where is the shirt I sent to the wash?

Where did you buy this fish?

Do you know where these grapes were grown?

Where's my dictionary gone?

Where were you going when I met you yesterday?

Where does the best rice come from?

Is this where we take the boat?

Here's where we have to show our passports.

Sit where you can hear.

Is there a bridge somewhere on the river?
Are there not fireworks somewhere to-night?

It seems to me I saw a second hand one at some book store on the main street.

He has gone somewhere.

He put the book somewhere, and has forgotten where it is.

Are there not fireworks somewhere to-night?

It seems to me I saw a second hand one at some book store on the main street.

He has gone somewhere.

He put the book somewhere, and has forgotten where it is.

4.

He smokes tobacco wherever he goes.

He makes friends wherever he goes.

Mosquitoes are everywhere in Japan.

Steamboats go everywhere now.

There are plenty of merchants everywhere.

The cat has looked everywhere for her kittens.

I am lonely wherever I go.

4.

He smokes tobacco wherever he goes.

He makes friends wherever he goes.

Mosquitoes are everywhere in Japan.

Steamboats go everywhere now.

There are plenty of merchants everywhere.

The cat has looked everywhere for her kittens.

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Steamboats go everywhere now.

There are plenty of merchants everywhere.

The cat has looked everywhere for her kittens.

I am lonely wherever I go.

5.

I can’t find my handkerchief anywhere.

Of course water runs down hill anywhere.
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You can travel anywhere in Japan without a passport.

6.
He is nowhere in the house.
There were no fish anywhere this morning.
Foreigners could live nowhere except in the open ports.

§ II.—ADVERBS OF TIME.

Sec. 1.—ALWAYS.

1 Invariably—언제든지.
2 Continually—늘, 느무.
3 From the beginning—본리 with or without 지금 저지.
4 At all times—항상, 일상.
5 Signifying all—다.

1.
Is June always rainy?  록월은 언제든지 장마야?
Does the king always have a guard?  님금 셀는 언제든지 호위병이 되시고 있소?
I suppose the waves are not always as high as this.  내 생각에는 종항이 언제든지 이 못치 높지 아니 돼 했노.
Do you always put out your light before you get in bed?  언제든지 침상에 들기 전에 불 쓰소?
2.

Are you always in pain?
Is the earth always in motion?
Before you had the smallpox were you always well?
Is a bird always on her nest when she is hatching her young?
Is a sentinel always walking when he is on guard?

3.

Have you always lived in Séoul?
The English have always been good sailors.
Have there always been eight provinces in Korea?

4.

God is always the same.
It is always best to do right.
I am always glad to see that man.
He is always telling lies.
That baby is always crying.
Although the Koreans are always eating rice, they never refuse it.

5.
Are crows always black?
Do mapoos always wear felt hats?

SEC. 2.—WHENEVER,

1. At whatever time—언제든지 or 어느 때든지.
2. Every time—때마다 with the relative participle. The above may also be used, but this is the better.

1.
I'll start whenever it is convenient to you. 어는 때든지 당신석 탁탁한 때에 쓰나ګ소.
Can I borrow your dictionary whenever I send for it?

We must go on board whenever the ship comes in.

Be ready whenever Mr. Yi comes.

2.
Whenever I go to Chemulpo it rains. 제물포 가는 때마다 비가 오요.
He gets angry whenever he argues.
Every time I read it, it seems harder.

조선 사람 일상밥먹으러 혼반도 슬치 안소.

I have a headache whenever I smoke.

**Sec. 3.—**Generally, usually.

Generally, usually—혼히, 대개, 대머, 협용.

What kind of a pen do you generally use?

Cholera generally comes in the summer.

We generally have tiffin at one.

We generally take a walk in the afternoon.

It generally rains a good deal in July.

We do not usually have much snow in Southern Korea.

**Sec. 4.—**Often, frequently.

Often, frequently—자주, 자고.

I often have headache.

Come and see me often, when you come to Seoul.

We often read together.

**Sec. 5.—**Sometimes.

1 Occasionally, now and then, once in a while—윗다급, 갓급, 뒤로.

2 On certain occasions, at particular times—윗던 وخاصة.

3 Indefinite,—껴 with relative participle.
Even the wisest plans sometimes fail.
Do you still go to the palace sometimes?
Why do you not let me hear from you sometimes?
I meet him sometimes, but not very often.
You may go occasionally.
Once in a while I take a nap in the day time.

Sometimes one does not know what to do.
Sometimes she sings even better than she did tonight.
Sometimes I half suspect we have made a mistake.
When we were in Japan last year, it sometimes rained for four or five days in succession.

I eat rice sometimes.
He comes sometimes in the mornings.
Sometimes I cannot sleep all night.

Sometimes not one of the boys knows his lesson.

Sec. 6.—Seldom.

Seldom—별노 followed by the negative.

I seldom have a cold. 나는 감기가 별노 아니도요.
I seldom smoke in the house. 나는 집에서 담배 별노 아니 먹소.
I have seldom seen him of late. 이소이는 그 사람을 별노 못나지 못 숨였소.

Sec. 7.—Never, ever.

1 Temporal:

(a.) On no occasion, not once—제 or 셀 with the relative participle. If emphatic, 혼 번도 may be used.
(b.) Invariably not—언제든지, followed by the negative.
(c.) At no future time—아모 셀 이라도 with the negative.
(d.) Never before—그전 아는 with the negative.

2 Emphatic:

(a.) Not at all—아조, 도모저, with the negative.
(b.) Positively not—일명코, 작명코, with the negative.
(c.) Under no circumstances whatever:—세상 엽서도, 잠만 숨여 도 and the like with the negative.
I never had toothache till I was twenty.
I have never ridden in a chair.
This grass has never been cut.

Does small-pox ever prevail in Korea?
Have you ever been robbed?
Have you ever been to Séoul before you met me?

Some people never get up till seven or eight o'clock.

Do you never take sugar in your tea?
I never take wine.

Will murderers who have escaped by bribery never be punished?
I will never see him again.
The soul can never die.
1. (d).

I never saw such flowers before.
Did you never understand it before?

2. (a).

Are diamonds never found in Korea?
I never see him now.
Korean ladies never go out.

2. (b).

I shall never love any one so much again.
I will never give him another cash.
Never do a thing like that again.
I can never consent to such a thing as that.

2. (c).

He can never study Japanese.
He can never live unless he takes medicine.
I believe I'll never be able to learn Korean.
You’ll never find it without a light.
Can you never forgive him?

SEC. 8.—AGAIN.

1 Another time—또 or 다시.
2 Once more—또한번.
3 To do over again—새로 or 곧처.

1.
I’ll call again.
Be sure and call again.
Do not do that again.
It just stopped raining, and it is raining again.

2.
Sing that song again.
If you don’t understand I will explain it again.

3.
You will have to do it over again.
You will have to iron these clothes again.
The legs of this table are not alike, you must make it over again.

SEC. 9.—WHEN.

1 Interrogative:—
(a.) At what time—언제, 어 느 때.
(b.) Until what time—언제까지, 어 느 때까지.
How long— 얼마나.
(c.) About when— 언제나, 어 느 때즈음.
(d.) At what hour— 어 느 시.

2 Relative:

(a.) At the time— 때 or 적 with relative participle.
(b.) By the time— 때빛치서 with relative participle.
(c.) After the time— 후 with relative participle; sometimes 거든 will be used with one of the simple tenses.

1. (a).

When did you write this letter? 이편지를 언제 써셨소?
When do you intend going to Chemulpo? 계물포에 어느طبع 가라고 희소?
When would you like it to be done? 언제 끝면 공의 모음에 맞겠소?
When was that? 그 것 언제 일 이소?
When did foreigners come to Korea? 언제 브러 외국 사람으로 조선에 왔소?
When did Kenija live? 기조가 어 느때 사름 이소? ...

1. (b).

Till when can you wait? 어 느때 까지 기두리겠소?
How much longer can you wait? 어느때 까지나 더 기두리겠소?
About how much longer do you intend to be in Seoul? 서울 얼마나 더 계실 경이소?

1. (c).

About when will it be done? 언제나 되겠소?
About when does the rainy season begin?

1. (a).

When shall I wake you Sir?
When do you retire?
When do you tiffin?

2. (a).

Which of the boys was it that answered when you called?
I will send word when I write to Chemulpo?
When the Japanese ambassador comes will he go to see the King?
He broke it just when it was about done.
What did he say when he was arrested?

2. (b).

It will certainly be done when you come.
The letters must all be written by the time the postman comes.

당마가 어느새 즐음 시작 했어요?

1. (a).

어느시에 씨여 드리오리 엿가?
어느시에 피침 후시느니 엿가?
어느시에 덤섬 잡수시 느니 엿가?

2. (a).

부름적에 터담당 후던 음 혜가 누구요?
제물로 편지 훏써에 기별 흥께서요?
일본 대신이 드리 옷써 대군주를 비오리 가 견소?
막 다 될향한 씨에 석트 텅소.
잡껏실 씨에 무어시라고 흥음을니herits?

2. (b).

오실 씨 빛쳐서 덤녕 다 되 견소.
해전부 옷써 빛쳐서 편지줄 다 씨 두어야 쓰겠소.
2. (c).

When you have swept and dusted the room shut the door.

When Sou Dongi comes back, tell him to put these jars in the box.

When this sugar is gone I will buy more.

Sec. 10.—While.

While the chair coolies were eating we climbed the mountain.

While I was in the country I studied hard.

Please do not talk just now while I am writing a letter.

While I was standing in front of the monastery, a priest came out.

A while ago, while we were coming it was very cold.

While you are studying do not play.

Sec. 11.—As.

1 When—, 적이, 제, 때이.

2 Indicating simultaneous action—먼저 affixed to verbal stem.
3 Taking advantage of the opportunity—길에 with relative participle.

4 On the way—다가 with verbal stem. 길에 may also be used here. 다가 indicates an interruption and often something unexpected.

1.

Do the men-of-war always fire a salute as they leave port?

We got home just as it began to rain.

The postman came just as I was finishing my letter.

2.

I will read as I ride.

As you read, notice carefully the writing of the characters.

According to Korean custom they do not talk as they eat.

3.

As you are going to Chong No, call chair coolies.

As you are mending it, you had better put in a new lock.

As you are going home, please call there.
4.

As we sailed up the river we stopped at Samkai.
He told me that story as we went to Song Do.
As I was going to the palace I met Mr. Yi at Chong No.
As I was coming up to Seoul I stopped at Oricole.

Sec. 12.—Then.

1. At that time,—그제, 그제에, 그제는.
2. Till that time,—그제까지.
3. By that time,—그제에, (indefinite) 그제즈음.
4. After that time,—그후 or 그제부터.
5. At that point,—그다음.

1. Will you be here then?
Then there were Buddhist Monasteries in all the provinces.
The people paid their taxes in rice then.

2. Leave it here till then.
I will be at home till then.
We had better give it up till then.
3.
Then the boys will be old enough to work for themselves.
Then there will be railroads.
Will you be ready then?

Then the wind blew so hard, we could not go and came back.
Then we got in a boat and went to see the fire works.
Then I will go to the palace.
Then I studied.
From then on I stayed here.

What did you say then?
Then I asked him another question.

Sec. 13.—Now.

1. At the present time: *
   (a.) Definite, 시방, 지금.
(b.) Indefinite, 근일, 근일, 이소이, 요소이.
2. Now as opposed to formerly—the same with 는.
3. By this time already,—인제.
4. Next,—이드음에.
5. Than before,—전보다 or 아까보다.

1. (a).

Is not Mr. Song in Korea now?
He is out at present, Sir.
We are just out of it now.
Kerosene is very high now.

1. (b).

There are a good many mad dogs about now.
Nobody seems to make much money now.
It is very dear now.

2.

Nowadays Koreans don’t wear the large hat.
The Japanese government tolerates Christianity nowadays.

3.

Most of them will have been sold by this time.
Your house must be about done now.
It's too late now.
It would be useless to send for the doctor now.
You had better apologize now.
They will probably be here directly now.
It is boiled enough now.
Tea will be ready directly now.

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4.

Sou Pongi will recite now.
We will read Chinese now.

5.

The tide is running out more rapidly now.
I am in much better health now.
We are having less rain now.

SEC. 14.—ALREADY.

1. At the time spoken of,—임의, 발세.
2. Prior to the time spoken of,—이왕.
3. Equivalent to so soon expressive of surprise,—

어 느 날 이.

Note.—With this last 발세 also may be used.
1. The wind has already begun to blow.
   I have already applied for a passport.
   He says he has been waiting for about an hour already.
   I was going to give the shoemaker a blowing up, but they were already done.
   I have had plenty already.

2. As I have already explained several times.
   He has already declined two or three times.

3. Have you finished already?
   Have they come already?
   Are the cherry trees in blossom already?

Sec. 15.—Formerly, used to.

Formerly, used to—근본, 전에, 디거번에.
Formerly all ships were made of wood.
There used to be no jinrikshas in Korea.
It used to be thought that the sun went round the earth.

There used to be a temple here.

Formerly foreigners could not live in Sŏul.

SEC. 16.—HITHERTO.

Hitherto—이제까지, 지금까지.

Where have you lived hitherto?

What have you studied hitherto?

As I have lived without eating meat hitherto, I will not eat it now.

SEC. 17.—RECENTLY, OF LATE.

Recently, of late,—이소이, 근기, 절최.

Have you read any new books lately?

The government has recently built a new custom house.

Did I not see you lately in Japan?

The king has not come out lately.

SEC. 18.—AGO.

I. Ago—전, 전에.

2. Long ago,—오래전. The Koreans generally, however, render this by the relative participle of the verb,
with 지 or 제 followed by the verb 오라오, to be long (temporal).

3. Several days ago, 일전에.
4. A little while ago, 아사.
5. Just a minute ago, 언제, 지금, 시방.

1.
He died three years ago.
I wish I had written a month ago.  
How many years ago was Seoul built?

2.
I saw him a long while ago.
It was made long ago.
He promised to lend it long ago.
I knew it long ago.

3.
There was a dealer here the other day with some very pretty fans.

4.
I sent him to the office a while ago to mail the letters.
Mr. Kim was here an hour or two ago with his nephew.

5.
As I told you a minute ago.
I saw him ride by here a few minutes ago.

Sec. 19.—Just now.

Just now—저번, 저번방, 시방, 금방 etc.

I have just been seeing some dancing girls perform.

The clock has just struck.

When I've just given him one nyang will he ask more?

Sec. 20.—Till, Yet.

Still, yet—그저, 아직, 아직도.

Are you still sick? 

This pail isn't full yet.

Is'nt dinner ready yet?

Sec. 21.—Till, Until.

1 Time:—

(a.) Up to—서지.

(b.) Before—전에는.

2 Degree—도록 with the verbal stem.

1. (a).

Wait till he comes.

I read till dark.

I must wait till twenty five minutes of five.

오기 서지 기두리오.

어둡기 서지 끝었소.

내시 삼십오분 서지 기두리여야 쓰겠소.
I can’t go until ten minutes past five.
I can’t leave home until the middle of next month.

I read till I was tired,
Don’t bend it till it breaks.
He pulled the cat’s tail till she bit him.

Sec. 22.—By and By.

By and by— outage with future tense for future, and past tense for past time.
By and by bring me some hot water.
By and by go to the post-office for me.
By and by let’s study.
By and by we met a chair.
There were no chair coolies in Chemulpo, and as it was hard to walk up, by and by having met a jinriksha on the way, I rode up.

Sec. 23.—Soon.

1. 쉬 or 쉬어 or some such phrase as 일간, 오라지 아니 희여, 얼마 아니 희여 etc.
2. As soon as:—The verbal stem with 먼저, followed by such a word as 곧, 즉시, etc. Whether past, present
or future, the verbal stem is used, and the time marked by the tense of the principal verb. The same effect will be produced by the use of the copulative conjunctions, in the same way. This idea may also be expressed by use of the relative participle with 

1.

They say there will soon be a railroad to Sŏul.
The steamer will be in soon.

We must start soon.
It will stop raining very soon.
The rain came down in torrents and soon the roof began to leak.

Supper will soon be ready.
I will soon go to America to study.

I take a bath as soon as I get up.
As soon as they get on board they begin to smoke.
He died as soon as he heard it.
As soon as he took the medicine he got better.
I'll go as soon as I have dined.  
I'll have a bath as soon as it's ready.

Sec. 24.—Directly, At once.

Presently—지금, 시방, etc., may be used: immediately—즉시, 곧, 곧지금 etc., will be needed.
I'll come directly.  
The bell will ring directly.  
Let me know what he says immediately.  
Serve breakfast at once.  
Send that man away at once.

Sec. 25.—Before.

 прежде. The same word is used with nouns or verbs, but the English verb limited by before, takes the form of the verbal noun in ㄱ.

1.

We must start before ten.  
Let us have tiffin before we go.  
I can't start for the country before the mail comes in.  
I want to speak to him before he goes to market.

Sec 26.—After, since.

1 With a verb or noun—후에. The verb limited by after, takes the form of the past relative participle and
precedes 후에. Quite often this same idea is expressed by the simple verbal stem, with the conjunction が.

2 Afterwards may be expressed by 후에는, 그후에 etc.
3 Signifying past—by a from of the verb 지나오 (to pass).

1. It began to rain after we passed Oricole.
After the war was over, most of the troops returned to China.
After you’ve seen to all the doors, put out the light.
Four or five days after I came to Seoul I was taken sick:
The road dried an hour after the rain stopped.
Everything looks beautiful after the rain.
I can not go after the last of the month.
I will come after I have written the letter.
I will come after dinner.

2. Afterwards we moved to Pyeng Yang.
He was better for a while, but afterwards he became worse.
3.

It is already after twelve.  发 Forget 십이 시가 지났소.
I can not go till after four.  네시 지나 기 전에는 못 가겠소.
He started a little after three.  세 시 좀 지나서 석았소.

SEC. 27.—LONG TIME, LONG.

1. Long time, long,—호래, or a form of the verb 오라호 (to be long).

2. A long time before:—
   (a.) A long time requisite,—오라지안코서는 followed by the negative.
   (b.) Where the idea of necessity is absent.—The clause qualified by before, is put negatively in
      the substantive form followed by the verb 오라호 to be long. Sometimes the sentence is transposed
      and the equivalent of the English relative, when, used.

1.

The hot weather seems to last a long while this year.
I cannot wait long.
I will not wait long.
I have'nt seen your father for a long time.
He has been sick for a long time.
I have been studying Korean for a long time.
금년에는 여위가 비우 오란 모양이요.
오래 못 기두리겠소.
오래 아니 기두리겠소.
여루신댁에 오래 벗지 못 흙었소.
오래 병이 드릿소.
조선 말 비혹지가 오렇소.
I didn't understand that for a long while.

2. (a).

It will be a long time before you can talk like a Korean.

It will be a long time before a railroad will be laid to Ham Heung.

2. (b).

It was a long while before we went home.

It was a long while before we became friends.

Was it a long while before foreigners could travel anywhere in the interior of Japan?

It was long before the country recovered from the effects of the war.

It was a long while before I recovered completely.

Was it a long while before you could talk with Koreans?

He died long before you were born.

Sec. 28.—Some time.

The Korean interrogatives being at the same time
indefinites, *some time* will be rendered by ** 얼마나**، and the context alone shows whether it is interrogative or indefinite.

Will you be in Söoul for **some time**? **-duration**.

I shall probably not see you for **some time** now. **duration**.

It will take **some time** to finish it. **duration**.

I waited **some time**, but nobody came. **duration**.

**Sec. 29.—A little while.**

A little while—**短暂**, **조금**, **조금동안에**, etc. **duration**.

You needn't go for a little **조금** while yet. **duration**.

Wait a minute. **duration**.

Tell him to wait a little. **duration**.

**Sec. 29.—Finally, at last.**

Finally, at last—**마지막으로**, **마지막에**, **필경**. **duration** means simply *in the end*, while **필경** refers to *delay*, and something happening after much waiting.

At last the chair men came. **duration**.

Finally we got to the top. **duration**.

At last, little by little I came to understand. **duration**.

Finally he consented. **duration**.

At last the Italians were victorious. **duration**.

We walked everywhere and finally went to Chong No. **duration**.
At last he got angry.

§ III.—ADVERBS OF CAUSE, MANNER AND DEGREE.

Adverbs of manner derived from adjectives etc. are not treated of here.

Sec. 1.—Why.

Why—왜, why, or by some circumlocution.

Why are the Japanese leaving Séoul?
Why does wood float and iron sink?
Then why do not you tell him to do it again?
Why did you pick those roses?
Why do Korean women when they go out cover their faces with the green coat?
Why do not you build your house of wood?
Why did he say he wouldn’t go?

Sec. 2.—Accordingly, Consequently, Therefore.

These are rendered by—그럼으로, 그리므로, 그려서, 그려서, 이리저기에, etc.

Accordingly I did so.
Accordingly he went to the Kyeng Ou Kung.
Consequently they changed the law.
It rained for three days without stopping, and consequently all the bridges were swept away.
Breakfast was fifteen minutes earlier than usual today, and consequently we couldn't eat together.

Sec. 3.—How.

1. Interrogative,—있더GetCurrentState or some form of the verb currently
2. The way in which,—participle with 것.

Note.—How, with verbs of knowing, etc., may often be rendered into Korean by the future participle with 줄어.

1 & 2.

How is the road from here to Eui Ju?

How do they make Kanchang?

Do you know how they print photographs?

Did you hear how your friend was killed?

Before he came to Seoul he did not even know how to hold a pen.

Does that carpenter know 목수가 쓸먹쓰먹 줄 setDescription?
how to make rocking chairs?
He knows how to construct a sentence, but he does not know the pronunciation.
It is very strange how a snake crawls.
Please teach me how to hold my pen.

Sec. 4.—So.

1 Manner:
(a.) In this manner—이러ᄒᆞ요.
(b.) In that manner— 그러ᄒᆞ요.

2 Degree:
(a.) In this degree—이러가.
(b.) In that degree— 그러가.

Note.—For the distinctive difference, between 미 and 고, see Part I 71 ff.

3 So that, so—as,—도록, and the forms of the verb 具소 with 哪.

1.

Be sure and not do it so, do it so.
If that's your opinion, why do not you say so?
That's so.
I thought so.
2.
Tell that man not to make the shelves so high.
It would have been well if you had not been quite so hasty.

3.
It is so bright that it hurts my eyes.
It was so hot that the grass withered.
He is so tall that he looks awkward.
That is not as good as this.
I don't go to Chemulpo as often as I used to.

Sec. 5.—Like, as.

1 Manner:—
(a.) In a similar way,—처럼 or 흙치.
(b.) In the way,—대로.
(c.) To be like; and like used as an adjective will be rendered by 흙소 in its various forms.
 тоже prefixed to 처럼 has the force of exactly, and 둘 also has this effect.
Like this is 이렇, like that 그런 or 먹린.

2 Degree—처럼 or 와렇치.

1. (a).
If I could do as you do, I would be glad.
I should hate to work like a coolie.
He lives like a king.
He dresses like a Chinaman but he talks like a Japanese.

1. (b.)
As I have already said.
Try and repeat the conversation just as you heard it.
Why didn't you put out your light last night as you were told?
Make it round like this. Just like this.

1. (c.)
Are the Japanese iron-clads exactly like the English?
Have you any silk like this?
Have you any silk exactly like this?
Pens like this are useless.

2.
When one is thirsty there is nothing like water.
Is Nam San as high as Sam Kak San?
Go as quick as you can to the house and tell Sou Dongi to go for the doctor.

SEC. 6.—**VERY.**

1 In affirmative sentences,—미우, 대단이, 과히, 급직이, 심히, etc.

2 In negative sentences except when interrogative,—그리.

1.

This pen is very bad.
I will be very busy in the morning.
He was very sick but he is better now.
It is very cold.
It is very dear.

2.

The sky is not very clear to-day.
It is not very good.
They do not like each other very much.
That fan was not very dear.
It is not very cold in Seoul in winter,

SEC. 7.—**ONLY.**

1 Only—만, 쏘. 오직, 단. 다만.
2 Preceded by if,—만 with the conditional.
3 Not later than, yet,—아직; 많기 with negative.
4 Not until,—계우.
1.

It's only a dog barking.
As I only came as company for you, why do you want to quarrel with me?
I go to Chemulpo only once or twice a month.
He not only wears a sword but he knows how to use it.
How is it this jinriksha has only one wheel?
Only half the number I ordered have come.
Mr. Kim has only one brother.
I expected only twenty, but about forty came.

2.

If we only had a good cat, we could catch these rats.
If you only use moderation, there will probably be no difficulty.

3.

To-day is only the fifth.

Why it's only three o'clock.
He's only a child.
Your letter reached me only yesterday.
4.

Sec. 8.—Too.

1 Too— 너무, 과히, etc., with the adjective.
2 Too... to— 너무 with the past verbal participle followed by the negative.

1. This pencil is too soft. 
   이 연필 과히 (너무) 연 후오.
This bottle is too small.
   이 병 과히 (너무) 작소. 
Are not your ceilings a little too high?
   현장이 과히 높지 안소.
This is a little too much.
   이 거시 좀 과훈오.

2.

These clothes are too dirty to wear.
   이 옷이 너무 머리워서 달을 수 업소.
Pine is too brittle to make a cane.
   소나무는 너무 연후여서 
   필요가 혼 수 업소.
His talk is too low to hear.
   말 소리가 너무 많으러서 
   드름 수 업소.

Sec. 9.—Even.

1 Even—도, or more strongly 이라도 affixed to its word.
2 Signifying, even including,—사지.

1.

Even a child can do that.
   어린 아내라도 그 거순 
   능오.
Even Soun Yongi can read Chinese pretty well.
   순용이 라도 제법 전서를 
   봤 줄오.
Even to-morrow will do.
   릭일 이라도 쓰겟소.
He hasn't even eaten rice to-day.
Soun Yongi didn't even sweep the room this morning.
If I walk even one ri I get very tired.

They killed even the children.

SECTION 10.—ALMOST.

1. Nearly—거위.

2. Nearly all, the most of—거위 다 거반이다, 거밈다.

1. It's almost twelve o'clock.
   It's almost a year since I went to Pyeng Yang.
   My horse stumbled, and I almost fell off.

2. The rain water is almost gone.
   Almost every one in the house has a cold.
   Almost all the apples were rotten.
   Nearly all our sugar was stolen.
   I am home almost every afternoon.
Sec. 11.—About

Approximately— próxima preceding the quantity or number, or 즈음 sometimes contracted into 즈, or 나 following it. At times both these may be used, the one preceding and the other following the quantity referred to.

About how much will it cost?

You had better put in about ten pounds and boil it about half an hour.

I waited about half an hour, and then called a chair and went home.

He is about five feet high and weighs about a hundred pounds.

It's about twice as large as ours.

You had better put in about ten pounds and boil it about half an hour.

He is about five feet high and weighs about a hundred pounds.

It's about twice as large as ours.
With reference to numerals little need here be said. In treating of them from the Korean, they have virtually at the same time, been considered from the foreign standpoint. We then saw that Korean numerals might be either adjectives or substantives. When used substantively they stand in apposition to the noun they limit, and consequently hold a position much more emphatic, than when used adjectively. Hence, if, when using English numerals, the *number* is the special thing to which attention is to be called, it must be rendered into Korean by the use of the substantive form. If on the other hand, the number is simply secondary, and only mentioned incidentally, and its noun is the principal thought, the adjective form will be used, and it will precede its noun.

In rendering English into Korean, we should also remember, the Korean constant use of "Specific Classifiers." Many of these cannot be rendered into English and consequently when we render English into Korean, if we would speak idiomatic Korean, the proper classifier must be introduced. A careful study of these classifiers must then be made.

It has been noticed, that there are two classes of numerals, pure Korean, and Sinico-Korean, and while they may be used interchangeably, it must not be forgotten, that where a Sinico-Korean numeral is used a corresponding Sinico-Korean noun must also accompany it.
While the importance of this rule may not at first sight appear to the student, its neglect is altogether wrong, grates upon Korean ears, and will cause the offender to be regarded as ignorant of one of the fundamental rules of Korean etymology. With reference to ordinals and fractions, enough has already been said in Part I.

Right in this place, we should speak of the method of addressing a letter. In this matter, the Korean is more logical than the foreigner; his plan is the reverse of ours, for instance, he would begin with the country then the province, city, ward, street, and end with the name of the party addressed.

As sentences illustrating the use of the numerals, occur everywhere throughout the book, none need be given here.
CHAPTER IX.

THE PREPOSITION.

The English prepositions may be rendered into Korean generally by Korean postpositions, simple or composite; verbal participles; phrases; or, where the sense is clear without, they need not be rendered. From this it will be seen that the Korean equivalent of an English preposition, will always follow the word it governs.

SEC. 1.—At.

1 Signifying place:—
   (a.) With a verb of situation—에.
   (b.) With a verb of action—에서 or simply 서.

2 Referring to time—에.

1. (a).

There used to be temples 서울에 근본 절이 있었소 at Seoul.
Are there no tombs of the 왕씨 땅이 송도에 엽소? Whang dynasty at Song
Do?
I wish there were no mosquitoes at Pouk Han. 복한에 모기가 엽섯 더럽 드켓소.

1. (b).

We buy our vegetables at 더 전 에서 채소는 사오 that shop.
We stopped at Pyeng Yang three days.
We rested at Oricole.

I got up at half past four this morning.
Wake me at sunrise tomorrow.

Sec. 2.—In.

1 With verbs of situation,—에 which is often used with 드오.
2 With verbs of action,—에서 which may contract into 서 or 예.
3 Inside of, within, during,—속에, 안에, 예 or 동안.

Is there a good hotel in Seoul?
There are two or three fine water-falls in Korea.
Is there anything in the house?
Don’t sit in a draught.
What is in that box?
Is there a hole in this teapot?

2.

He probably died at Tokio.
I must have dropped it at Chong No.
How much wine do you suppose is drunk in Seoul in a year?
You can’t get good chairs in the country.
Which is the longest street in Seoul?
Which is the largest island in the world?
It’s in the leather trunk, wrapped in paper.
I saw a fox in the woods.
You can go to Chong No in twenty minutes.
You probably put it in your pocket.

일년에 서울에서 술이 얼마나 먹히는지

식물 서는 도훈 교군을 얻을수가 없소.
서울 서는 어느 길이 그 중 기호?
현하에 잇던 섬이 그중 크요?
가족 상조 속에 도희로 싸 너herits.
수fol 안지 여호를 보았소,
이십 분 동안에 종로에 가요.
주먼이에 너짓 실 못 득요.

SEC. 3.—On.

1 On에.
2 On the top of, on the surface of, 우회.
Please write “Mr. Kim” on this envelope.
There’s a stain on my handkerchief.
There’s a fly on the ceiling.
You went home on the first.

2.
Is not that a dog sleeping on the floor?
My hat is on the table.
I dropped a stone on my foot.

더 마루 우회 자는 거시가 아니요?
내 갓 상 우회 있소.
발 우회 돌을 써러_ETH

더 마루 우회 자는 거시
개가 아니요?
내 갓 상 우회 있소.
발 우회 돌을 써러 ETH
Sec. 4.—To.

1. With animate objects—의게, 안혜, or 식, which last is honorific.

2. With inanimate objects—에 or 르; oftentimes also the simple accusative postposition 을 will be used.

3. As far as—까지. (See Part I. 107).

Note—With the indirect object, the postposition is frequently omitted.

1.

Give something to the dog. 개 무엇 좀 주오.
Don’t lend it to anyone. 그거를 뭐게 던지 빌니지 마오.
What did you say to Mr. Song? 송셔방서 무슨 말했소?
Give ten nyang to Mr. Pak. 열양 박셔방안해 주오.

2.

He has gone to Song Do. 송도로 갓소.
In order to see the sights, we are going by boats to Kang Wha to-morrow.
Would you like to take a walk to Nam San?

3.

How much is it to An Dong and back?
I went to Pak Dong but I didn’t meet him.
Sec. 5.—From, out of, off.

1 Preceding a noun,—브러, 에서.

2 Preceding a verbal noun,—the negative with future verbal participle and 흰소.

3 With verbs of receiving accepting, etc., equivalent to at the hand of or 안례 will be used.

4 Off, in the sense of detached from, is generally expressed by some form of the verb.

5 Off shore—앞회 or 앞회서 dependent upon whether there the accompanying verb is one of situation or action.

1.

About how far is it from here to that tree?

Hang it from the fourth nail on the right.

I rode steadily from six in the morning, till six in the evening.

Can you borrow one from next door?

Take a pound of sugar out of that box.

Empty it out of this bottle and pour it into that.

Take the books off this table.

I fell off my horse and sprained my foot.

여기서 더 나도 서지 얼마나 나 되요?

을혼 립 넷째 움셋서 거호.

아축 룡시 브러 저녁 룡시 서지 몸을 늘 흰소.

나웃 집에서 빌수 있소?

2.

Is there any way of keeping things from moulding?

本领 아니라 나개 홀 수가 있소?
Be careful and keep the children from taking cold.

3.
I received fifteen dollars from Mr. Pak.
I got a passport from the minister.
I obtained permission to go to the eastern palace from the president of the foreign office.

4.
The leg is off the table.
The tiles are off the roof.
He took off his clothes.

5.
Two large whales were killed off Fusan.
Two Chinese men-of-war have been off Chemulpo for over a month.

Sec. 6.—By, through.

1 Of the agent—의게, 안래, 에. (see Part I. ¶ 101 ff.)

2 Of the instrument, by means of—로 or 으로; or 써 문에 which, if the English preposition it represents governs a verbal noun, is preceded by the participle, or verbal noun in 기 of the appropriate verb.
3 Beside—염회.
4 Of time—에, or more exactly 넘지안코.
5 From end to end of—중하하, 통과하하.

1.

I had it made by a blacksmith.
This book was written by a Korean.
I was struck by a stone.
I was cut by a knife.

2.

He went to Tokio by rail.
Let me know by telegraph immediately.
Were you not awakened by the earthquake last night?
I couldn’t sleep all night through his crying.
I lost fifty dollars through Mr. Kim.
He lost his whole fortune through the burning of his house.
He avoided such a mishap by riding on a horse.

3.

Did you ever stand by a water-fall?

---
Let's see, you live in the house by the bridge?
This brook runs by our house.

4. It will be ready by noon. It may possibly stop raining by evening.
The chair must be here by four o'clock.
I must start for home by the last of the month.

5. I ran through the house. I rode through a crowd in a jinrikisha.

Sec. 7.—With

1 Of the instrument,—로 or 으로.
2 Together with, in company with,—하고; 흥가자로; 헤치; 흥색, 더브리.
3 Belonging to, connected with,—에 or often not rendered.

1. You'd better tie that parcel with a string.
Wipe it with a cloth.
That man writes with his left hand.
I argued with that man for about an hour.  
Send the pears along, with the grapes.
I put it in the corner with the umbrella.
Then I’ll go with you.

That which is called “Ojunhoiem” is the king meeting with all the officials to consider affairs of state.
That old man passes the time each day with his many grandchildren.
I came with a Chinaman.
Do you expect to get breakfast and study with me.
When I went with Mr. Yi, to engage in trade I saw such sights.
Don’t you want to go to Tokyo with me.

Is there no key with this watch?
Is there not is a wick with this new lamp?
Was there not a letter with this box?
Sec. 8.—Without.

1 Preceding a noun:—
   (a.) Not having—업시 affixed to the noun.
   (b.) Unless one has—업소면.

2 Preceding a verbal noun.—the verbal stem preceded by a negative, connected with the accompanying verb by 고; or, the negative base with 안코, and the accompanying verb. Emphasis is added by the use of 는 after 고 or 코.

1. (a).

This letter came without a stamp.
Why did you make it without handles?
These sulphur matches burn without any smell.
Don’t go without permission.

1 (b).

You can’t open it without a key.
Mr. Kim can’t read anything without glasses.

2.

I suppose it wouldn’t do for us to go in without taking off our shoes.
You must not go without letting me know.

이 편지가 우표 업시 왓소.
웨 손 잡이 업시 큰드 렷소?
이 석류황이 내암새 업시 늝호.
허락 업시 가지 마라.

열쇠 업소면 열수 업소
안경 업소면 김서방이 아모 글즈 도 못 보IDGET소.

아마 신 아니 벗고 집에 드러 가면 도치 안치오.
나를 알게 눌지 아니 힙고는 가지 마라.
Don't buy sugar without weighing it.
He went without (taking) an umbrella.
Bring me the lamp without (putting on) the chimney.
I'll go without (eating) supper.
Will you go without (taking) a guide?

Sec. 9.—Of.

1 Possession,—의 if expressed, but more generally not expressed.
2 Apposition,—not rendered.
3 Partitive :
(a.) Some of a group as contrasted with the remainder, or emphasized, (hence frequently accompanied by a pronominal adjective)—그 중에, 에.
(b.) When no contrast or special emphasis is expressed the of, is not rendered.
4 Made of,—로.

1.
The nails were rotten and the bottom of the box fell out.
Don't you like the smell of a good cigar?
Don't handle the property of others.
In the province of Chyella there are some fine houses.

In the city of Song Do they raise a great deal of Ginseng.

3. (a).

Some of us would like to study history.

Many of the Japanese dress in foreign clothes.

Many of them don't know how to read or write.

Many of the Japanese speak English.

Few of the chair bearers live to be fifty.

3. (b).

Please hand me one of those pens.

One of Mr. Kim's daughters was married yesterday.

4.

Make it of pine.

It's made of flour, eggs, and sugar.
Do you intend to build the house of brick?

Sec. 10.—For.

1 For the sake of, 위용야.
2 Instead of, 덧신.
3 To serve as, to be used for, 로 or 으로.
4 Considering that, 로눈, 으로눈.
5 To be delivered to, 의견 with a participle of some such verb as 전후 or 주요.
6 To be used with, on, by—예술.
7 Addressed to, 의견 or 셰.
8 To fetch, to get, 가질너, 차지려.
9 To call, 부르리.
10 Price, 오리, or 예.
11 Courtesy, usually of a favor for a third party, the verbal participle with 주요.

1.

He died for his country.  나라 위용야 상소 나셨소.
The doctor to-day recom-
mended me to go to the country for my health. 오늘 의원이 날 회춘 햇기 위용야 쇼콜노 가라고 건후엇소.

2.

Do not use scissors for a knife.  깔 덧신 으로 가위를 쓸지 마오.

3.

What are those boards for? 더 널판지 무어 소로 쓸갯소.
That won't do for a pillow. 더 거시 목침 으로 못 쓸갯소.
He will do well for a teacher.
I bought it for a thing to put pens in.

4.
He speaks very well for a foreigner.
He runs very well for a child.
It was very badly done for him.
Isn't this hot weather for Seoul?

5.
Mr. Kim has a letter for you.
Yesterday I gave him a letter for Mr. Song.
Mr. Choi received some money for you.

6.
I want a key for this box.
Have you a cork for this bottle?
Get another chimney for this lamp.

7.
Did any freight come for me a little while ago?
A letter has come for you.
8.

Soun Yongi has gone for my watch.
Send Soun Yongi for it.
Have you written to Japan for that money?

9.

I went for the doctor, but he was out.
Some time or other to-day, you must go for the carpenter.
You had better go for four more chair coolies.

10.

I don't think you can buy one for ten yen.
I bought it for five dollars and sold it for six.
He sold it for five thousand dollars and got the money.
I'll go for two nyang.

11.

Please sharpen both ends of this pencil for me.
Buy some toys for the children.
Wont you buy a horse for me?
I want you to write two letters for me.

Sec. 11.—Across, over, beyond.

1 On the other side—건너 or 넘어. When it is simply across, it is 건너; when it has gone over, it is 넘어.
2 Further on than:—지나.

1.
Who is that over there?
What's that house across the canal?
The kite went over the house.
There is another temple beyond Sam Kak San.

2.
It's a little beyond the Kwang Chung bridge.
He lives just beyond the American legation.

Sec. 12.—Among.

Among—중에.
I think you’ll find it among the tools.
Who among us will obtain office first?
Is there an Ok Pyen among them?

Among 중에. I think you’ll find it among the tools. Who among us will obtain office first? Is there an Ok Pyen among them?
SEC. 13.—Among.

1 On all sides 에워.
2 About and round 도라, 두루.

There was a crowd of policemen standing around the house.

Let's put some flowers around the fruit.

He walked three times around the city.

The rats ran all round the kitchen every night.

SEC. 14.—Before.

In front of—앞회, 앞회서.

He stood before the king.

He planted a tree before the house.

SEC. 15.—Behind.

Behind—뒤회.

There's a well behind the house.

The key has fallen down behind the clock.

Please hand me that book behind you.

The troops marched behind the king.

You go first and I'll come after.
Sec. 15.—Between.

Between— сериал.
There's a well between the doctor's house and mine.
It has fallen down between the bookcase and the wall.

Sec. 16.—During.

During 쓰이, 동안 with or without the postposition 에.
He died during the night.
How were you during the night?
He worked very hard during the whole year.
The children played during the teacher's absence.
If any one should come during dinner tell him I can't see him.

Sec. 17.—Except, besides, but.

1 Excepting, besides—받기.
2 Only—만, 셋, etc., or 받기 with the negative.

I have nothing except a foreign dollar.
Didn't you go anywhere but to the house?
Everything except this is perfectly plain.
Haven't you any pens besides this?
Chap. IX. Sec. 18-19. THE PREPOSITION.

He has taken two himself, and has n’t given me but one.

He didn’t send but half a pound.

I wont give but a little more.

He did n’t wait but a little while.

Sec. 19.—INSTEAD OF.

1 Before a noun,—디신.
2 Before a verbal noun,—the verbal stem with 안코 or the verbal stem preceded by a negative with 꼼.

1.

Did n’t you put in salt instead of sugar?
They arrested the father instead of the son.
Bring Korean money instead of dollars.
If you go instead of him it will be well.

2.

Instead of going to Chemulpo he went to Fusan.
He sleeps all day instead of doing his work.
I think I’Il build instead of buying.
Sec. 19.—Over, Above.

Over, above...우회, 우호로.

There’s a sign over that door.

It’s hanging over the shelf.

There are a lot of buzzards flying about over that mountain.

Sec. 20.—Under, Below.

Under, below—윗회.

The books are under the shelf.

Go and put it under the table.

There is a dog under the verandah gnawing a bone.

Sec. 21.—According to, in accordance with.

1 Dependent on, regulated by—대로, 서라.

2 Of opinions, teachings, etc.—으로논.

3 Of statements etc.,—말대로, 말노 or 대로.

4 In harmony with,—의합합니다.

1.

The rate differs according to the number of characters.

The postage differs according to the weight of the letter.

I change my clothes according to the weather.
They’re arranged according to color.
I may go or not according to circumstances.

According to the opinion of some, this is a mistake.
According to my opinion this book is not worth much.

According to the doctor, he has the small-pox.
According to the doctor’s orders the patient was taken to the country.

Is that in accordance with Japanese custom?
Your view is not in accordance with the treaty.
That’s not in accordance with your agreement.
CHAPTER X.

THE CONJUNCTION.

English conjunctions are variously rendered into the Korean by particles, verbal moods, and the participial forms of adjectives and verbs.

Sec. 1.—And.

1 Connecting nouns—by 양공 (repeated after the last noun), or 와 becoming 와 after a vowel.

2 Connecting verbs and adjectives. When the sentences and clauses connected are :

(a.) Co-ordinate—by the verbal root with 수 or 먹 the final verb only being inflected.

For distinction difference between 수 and 먹 see Part I. 194, 200.

(b.) Subordinate—by the participial form of the verb of the subordinate clause.

3 Equivalent to, "but" "yet" "because" "when" "if" etc.—it is translated accordingly.

4 "And-so-forth" is translated by—와...와...다.

1.

Please buy some pens, paper and books for the children.
For breakfast we will have rice, tea, and bread.

2. (a).

The chairmen put down the chair and went into the saloon.
I dreamed the house was on fire and woke up with a start.
I met Mr. Kim before breakfast and proposed that we study together.

2. (b).

I intended to cross the river and go to a hôtel.
The ball went over the fence and we cannot find it.
It rained and we could not start.

I told Mr. Yi what you told me some time ago, and he said it was not so.
This roof was newly thatched barely a month ago, and it has begun to leak again.

Sou Dongi did not put on much coal and the fire went out.
Put them in the sun and they will dry directly.
Everybody else gets them, and why can not you.

He has pens, paper, ink, etc.
Sec. 2.—Both...and.

1 Usually the verb is repeated with 도...도.
2 With adjectives, simple 도 following the roof of the first adjective is often used.

1.
There seem to be plenty of both roses and camellias in your garden.
It both rained and snowed to-day.

2.
There are many things that are both useful and ornamental.

Sec. 3.—Too, Also.
Too, also—도.
Bring a spoon too.
They have a custom like that in Korea, too.
Does your right eye pain you also?
Did you forget to speak about that too?

Sec. 4.—But.
1 A disjunctive is much less frequently used by Koreans than by English, the former preferring a transposition, and the use of the concessive.
2 It may however be rendered by its Korean equivalent 만, or 만서도, which may be joined directly to any one of the indicative tenses without the elision of its termination; or connected by 것 to any indicative form, when 것
replaces its termination: or to any participle, and then the participle qualifies it.

1. It is good enough but the price is high.
The screen is old, but it is well painted.
That ring is good but it is a little small.

2. It will probably rain but I must go.
If you want to go, go, but come back early.
I tried to get him to write for me but he would n't.
I tried to sleep, but it thundered so I could n't.

My brother likes Korean food, but I cannot eat it.

Sec. 5.—Though, although, still.

1 Although may be rendered into Korean by any one of the concessive conjunctions, —나, 도, 거니와, etc., and a stronger, form (even though) may be rendered by 지라도 with a relative participle.

2 Even so, and yet,—그러럼 마는, 그러혼여도, etc., may be used.

1. Although he is still very sick he will probably get well.
I suppose we’ll have to take it, although it doesn’t suit.
Though he’s a rice man he will not give a cent.
He won’t give up smoking, though it’s injuring him.
He’s getting pretty old, but he is strong yet.

Still, you had better apologize.
Still, it will cost a thousand nyang.
Still, it would be better not to stop.
Still, he can’t possibly be here for some time yet.

Sec. 6.—Either, or, whether.

1 One or the other.
(a.) In simple sentences—나.
(b.) In direct questions connected by or, Koreans ask two questions without or.
(c.) In indirect questions containing whether, followed by or—the verb is repeated with 지 or 가, sometimes by 나.

2 Either one or the other, no matter which—던지...

3 Either with a negative, and equivalent to any more, or any bether,—도.
Chap. X. Sec. 6. THE CONJUNCTION. 397

1. (a).

To-day must be about the third or fourth of the month. 
Let me know by letter or by messenger.

1. (b).

Is this black or red ?
Is to-day the fifth or the sixth ?
Will you need a jinrikisha or not ?
Were you speaking to him, or about him ?

1. (c).

I don’t know whether that is silk or cotton.
Please ask whether the bath is ready.
I don’t know whether it will rain or not.
Do you know whether the steamer goes to-day or to-morrow ?

2.

Either take a chair or walk.
Tell him to come either to-day or to-morrow.
I told the carpenter he might make it round or square.
I don’t care whether it rains or not.
It is no matter to me whether he stays or not.
It does n’t make any difference whether it’s bamboo or not.

That won’t do either.
There now, see that! You can’t do it either.
You mustn’t leave your light burning at night either.
You can’t go either.
He did n’t say a word about that either.
They don’t say that either.

Sec. 7 Neither-Nor.

Neither...nor—도...도 with the negative.
It is neither a flea nor a mosquito.
There is neither a table nor a chair.
It neither rained nor snowed for a month.
Hereafter I will neither borrow nor lend.
He can neither read nor write.

Sec. 8.—If, unless.

1 If—면.

(a.) In simple supposition—면 with one or other of the simple tenses.

(b.) Supposition contrary to fact—면 with one or other of the compound tenses.

2 When "if" introduces a future effect or consequence (sometimes expressed in English by ‘and’) it is frequently rendered by the verbal stem and 고노.

3 Mere supposition, equivalent to “in case,” “supposing that” if that was the case,” etc., it may be rendered by 너경이면, 진대, 거든.

4 Even if.—relative participle with 지라도 or verbal participle with 도.

Unless, is rendered the same as, if not.

1. (a).

If it is on the main road we can find it directly.
Do not go out if it is raining.
He will probably go if he is not otherwise engaged.
Unless he is in a hurry he will probably stop at Oricon.
If it does n’t suit you, you need n’t pay for it.
You’d better not buy them unless they are cheap and good.
You must keep quiet if you come in here.
If you will lend me your penknife I will make you a kite.
If he hasn’t got up yet shall I call him?
If you haven’t put it in the room, where have you put it?
If the bridges haven’t been carried away they probably got along without difficulty.
If he is out what shall I do?
If it is past twelve, we must start immediately.
What shall I do if the passport has not come?

What should we have done if the bridges had all been carried away?
If I had not had a horse, how could I have come?
How could I have studied unless I had a teacher?

1. (b).

1. (b).
If I had studied at once, it would have been well.  
If he had come yesterday I would have seen him.  
If I had gone yesterday I would have come back.  
If you let him have it, he'll spoil it.  

2.  
If you are going to-morrow, you must get coolies.  
If you go to Chemulpo to-morrow you can't come here.  
If you don't take care, you will break it,  
You'll get wet if you don't take an umbrella.  
You can't stay here if you cry.  
You'll be late if you don't hurry.  

3.  
If he won't sell it for a thousand cash, give him two thousand.  
If you've rested sufficiently, begin to study.  
Well, if your head aches, go and lie down.
If you don't want to never mind. 슬커든 그만 두오.
If it suits you, take it. 무음에 맞겨든 가지오.
Take this letter, and in case 그 사람 씌난 이면 the man has gone, bring 도로 가지고 오오. it back.
If he is busy never mind. 받불진된 그만 두오.

4.

Even if he had known how 해엄을 혼줄 알았실 지 to swim, he probably 라도 살지 못 했엇실 돈 would not have been 헤요.
saved.

Even if I explain it he probably will not understand it. 널너 주어도 알지 못 헤요 헤요.

He probably wont come, 은다고 했엇 서도 오지 even if he said he would. 아니 헤요 헤요.

Sec. 9.—Because.

Because, may be rendered by any one of the Korean conjunctions having a causal effect. It is quite often, however, expressed, by the use of the verbal noun in 기 with the postposition 았; or by the use of a noun such as 사 tome or 고, expressing reason or cause, with a postposition 았 or 로.

I perfer Kumipo because it's 구미포가 서늘 흥기에 cool. 도화 헤요.
I waited because I thought 날이 시일줄 안 서돔에 it would clear. 기دت겠소.
He went because he had 불가불 갈 럼한 고로 to. 갓소.
It's colder to-day because it has snowed.

Sec. 10.—Then.

In that case—그럼에, 그린즉, 그러려든.
Then I don't think you will will find one in Séoul.
Then he may get well.
Then you must give up smoking.
Then don't go.

Sec. 11.—That.

1 Introducing a statement—고 했소.
See Part I. 228. ff.
2 So that, in order that,—future verbal participle.

1.
I told Mr. Kim that it would be all right for him to read it. 

Did not the doctor say that he would have to try the hot springs, to get well?
I heard from Mr. Pak that some foreigner wrote that letter.

2.
Open the door so that I can see out.

Please open the door so that the air can come in.
Roll up your sleeves so that they won't get wet.
Please arrange the net well so that the mosquitoes won't get in.
Take care that you don't slip.

Sec. 12.—Than.
1 With the Comparative Degree,—보다, 에서. See also Part I. ¶ 250 ff. & Part II. Chap. VI § II.
2 Rather than,—출하다 or the verb 냥소 may be used.
3 More than, (of quantity or number).—
   (a.) In affirmative sentences— noticeable.
   (b.) In negative sentences— 낫기.

1. A mule is stronger than a horse.
Korea is more healthy than Japan.
It rains more frequently in Japan than in Korea.

2. I had rather walk than ride.
I had rather write to him than tell him to his face.
I had rather smoke cigars than cigarettes.
I had rather die than go to see the doctor.

The conjunction.
Chap. X. Sec. 12.
That fellow had rather starve than work.

I had rather live in Korea than Japan.

3. (a.)

It will cost more than fifty nyang.

I have waited more than an hour for you.

We have more than an hour yet.

You must put in more than a handful.

There were more than a hundred there.

That book has more than a hundred pages.

It is more than eighty ri to Chemulpo.

I want more than ten pounds.

3. (b.)

I shall not want more than ten pounds.

It will probably not cost more than two or three nyang.

You must not put in more than a handful.
There are not more than ten ships in the harbor at present.
I can’t stop more than two or three days.
There are not more than four.
Here are no more sentences than are necessary to a thorough knowledge of Korean.
APPENDIX A.

PHONETICS.

I KOREAN PHONETICS.

INTRODUCTION. DEFINITIONS AND NOTES.

1. Phonetics. Phonetics is the science of position, movement, tension and action in speech sounds, and the art of making these sounds.

2. The ground tone. The ground tone is made by the vocal cords—the overtone by the cavities above, viz. pharynx, mouth, and nasal passages.

3. A consonant is a speech sound made by a complete or partial closure of the oral passage at one or more points.

4. A vowel is a voiced sound made through a fixed oral passage.

5. Syllables. A syllable is the least measure of speech, and is produced by a single impulse. A close syllable is one that ends in a consonant, and an open syllable is one ending in a vowel. It is a matter of some difficulty to know where one syllable begins and another ends, especially in English. English often makes a syllable with consonants l, m, and n, and these are consequently called "syllabic" consonants, but there do not seem to be any syllables in Korean words without vowels. It is worthy of note that the syllabification of the Korean spelling does not always seem to coincide with that of pronunciation.

6. Recoil. This, the recoil of the organs from close contact, as in English, pop, tip, (use your mirror) is a very
important element in the pronunciation of English final stop consonants, but is not heard in Korean single words as 발, 집, etc. However when these words occur in sentences they usually end in a vowel, so that the recoil must of necessity take place. The glottal catch, which is the very opposite of a recoil is frequently heard in the midst of Korean sentences.

The glottis is the "mouth" between the vocal cords; we close it in straining, and in coughing. If one will lay the fingers of one hand on the side of the throat about the larynx and snap against the finger nails with those of the other hand as he breathes, it will be noted that the sound is rather dead. Now inhale and "catch" the breath, and then snap. At once there is a change in the sound. The pent-up air, held by the shut glottis, has made the difference. One must learn to control this at will, and in combination with the stops p, t, and k. It occurs also with l, n, ng and between vowels, as 너리났다 안졌소 (I rose and sat down).

7. Glide. If you pronounce the English vowels o, oo, as you look in the mirror, you will see the lips move slightly to a closer position at the end. This is called the w glide. At the end of the English "long" a and e, there is the y glide. Perhaps this is why we spell day and they and bow, and wrongly explain the y and w as "silent." It is difficult for English speaking people to pronounce a vowel without a glide.

8. Personal and National Difficulties.—Occasionally a person comes to the foreign field who is tongue-tied. Such an impediment must seriously interfere with ease and excellence of articulation. Inability to run one's tongue well down on to the lower lip may lead one to suspect this
defect. If so, a surgeon can easily remedy it. There are some who are accustomed to slur over their "r's", and consequently inclined to import this same pronunciation into Korean but perhaps the greatest difficulty comes from assuming that the Korean letters are the same as the corresponding sounds in English. Almost no Korean letter has the identical sound of the corresponding English letter. Special attention should be given to the point of contact for forming l, and to the shape of the rest of the tongue, during its formation. This will remove the difficulty that many Koreans have in understanding foreigners when they use words ending in l. Our American l has a glide in it that is very confusing to Koreans.

9. Analysis of Sounds.—It is very important that these suggestions as to the manner in which sounds are formed be reviewed again and again, and the sounds thoroughly analysed. To go from the analysis of the known English sounds to the unknown Korean sounds is the only practical way to accomplish this. Whispering Korean sounds will often lay bare the secret of their formation. Or it may be better to sing them with a (ah) before and after the consonant. A half-inch stick between the jaw teeth of the teacher will often facilitate the investigation. Sometimes the best way to discover the difference between the Korean sounds and our own is to make up a sentence in which the sound under investigation is prominent, and then get a Korean who knows no English to repeat these words. His departure from the normal English pronunciation will reveal to you the degree in which you ought to conform your pronunciation to his that you may speak Korean acceptably.
10. Intonation—Intonation is the peculiar melody which forms an integral part of a language, and may differ in different localities, even where the language is the same. Korean intonation in some sentences seems very much like English, and again it is absolutely different. It might be called the language “tune,” and the mastery of it is more important than the correct pronunciation of an individual sound. It is never learned by those who follow the book, or the word method. It exists only in sentences in nature, and should be watched for at such times as you have opportunity to listen to the Koreans as they talk among themselves. Failure to give the proper intonation makes the foreigner always remain a foreigner in speech, and his best efforts may cause the soul-saddening remark, “We do not understand English.” It is because our fellow countrymen retain our own melody that we are able to understand their Korean so much easier than that of the native; and for the like reason when the native speaks English to us, we often mistake, and think he is speaking his own tongue.

11. Articulation.—Articulation is the uniting of consonants and vowels, so as to give to each its proper value. Many students of Korean will need to cultivate a better articulation in Korean than they have in their mother tongue. A valuable exercise to this end is the reading in a whisper, in either language, to some one at a distance of twenty-five or thirty feet, with such distinctness that they can understand what is read. To do this well and easily, one must know the exact position to be taken for each sound and then assume such positions clearly and as soon as the sound is made, release the position just as clearly and decidedly.
PHONETIC ANALYSIS.

The various positions of the lips, tongue- and other parts of the vocal organs, may be represented by the above diagram. No. 1, represents the lip in contact, No. 2, the teeth; Nos. 3, 4, and 5, the roof of the mouth; No. 6, represents the posterior portion of the mouth closed; and No. 7, the floor of the mouth. If the sound is a surd, i.e., unaccompanied by a vibration of the vocal cords, this line (No. 7) is a light line, if a sonant, i.e. accompanied with a vibration of the vocal cords, the line is heavy, thus ——.

The position of the tongue is indicated by a line to any point where the tongue may be in contact. If the tongue lies in the floor of the mouth it is not indicated in the diagram. A mirror should be used for determining the various positions.

Let us first indicate

THE ENGLISH CONSONANTS.

Which must always precede an intelligent study of the corresponding Korean sounds.

The labial position is a cardinal position in English and is represented in the following ways.

The letter p being a stop sound, the lips are (1) in contact, the posterior portion of the mouth (2) is closed and there is no vibration of the vocal cords.

B differs from p only in that it is a sonant or in other words there is a vibration of the vocal cords and is therefore represented by the heavy line.

P' aspirated is represented the same as the unaspirated with the addition of the dotted line to show the explosive factor in producing the sound.
# A.—PHONETIC TABLE ENGLISH.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>STOP.</th>
<th>ASPIRATE.</th>
<th>COMBINATION OF STOP AND CONTINUANT NASAL.</th>
<th>CONTINUANT.</th>
<th>CENTRAL.</th>
<th>LATERAL.</th>
<th>FLAP OR TRILL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labial</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>m° m</td>
<td>wh w</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental Labial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Palatal</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blade-Palatal</td>
<td>ch</td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Velar</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glottal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
M° voiceless is uncommon but is found in the final m of word *rheumatism*.

M is a nasal sound being a combination of a stop and continuant. The lips are closed but the posterior part of the mouth is open enough to allow the current of air to go through the nasal passages. With this there is a vibration of the vocal cords which is represented by a heavy base line.

The common expression that a person talks through his nose when he has a cold is not the true statement of fact, for it is just the opposite. The air in such a case does not go through the nasal passages and the m becomes a b. For example we say "good bordik" for "good morning." m becomes b, n becomes d and ng becomes k.

The wh and w are made by a continuous current of air coming through the rounded lips and back of the mouth, wh being voiceless while w is a vibrating sound.

The dental position is uncommon in English being represented only in th and dh and by some persons in the letter r.

In "th" the tongue is against the teeth the current of air coming out at the sides of the tongue. A vibration of the vocal cords in the same position produces dh.

The r is formed by a flap or trill with the tongue against the teeth and the sides rounded out. There is occasionally a voiceless r as prey, but usually it has the accompanying vibration of the vocal cords.

f and v are the only consonants in the dental labial position. They are made by placing the lower lip in contact with the edge of the upper teeth and allow the current of air to escape at
either side. The $f$ has no vibration of the vocal cords while the $v$ has such vibration.

The prepalatal position is a cardinal position.

T is made with open lips. The tip of the tongue in the prepalatal region i.e. there is a break in the middle of the tongue, and the throat closed. It is a voiceless sound.

D is made in the same way with the addition of a vibration of the vocal cords.

T′ The aspirated $t$ is indicated by the curved dotted line.

N is a nasal sound being a combination of a stop and a continuant. The lips are open the tongue having its tip in the prepalatal region forms the anterior stop. The posterior position is partially open so that the current of air goes through the nose as indicated by the arrow. There is at the same time a vibration of the vocal cords.

S is a central continuant made by having both the lips and posterior position of the mouth open, as the current of air comes out it is forced through centrally because the edges of the tongue are in contact with the roof of the mouth at the prepalatal region.

Z is produced in the same manner with the addition of a vibration of the vocal cords.

The voiceless $l^c$ is uncommon—as in ply.

The usual $l$ is produced with the tongue in the prepalatal region but with its tip in contact and the current of air coming out at either side—represented by an arrow. It is accompanied with a vibration of the vocal cords.
The voiceless and voiced 'r' are made as above indicated except in this position the tongue is further back, i.e. in the prepalatal position.

In the blade palatal position we have first the stop *ch*. This is produced with the lips open, the posterior position of the mouth closed and the tongue arched so that it is in contact with the palate. It may be noticed here that while in the letter *t* there is a break in the middle of the tongue in *ch* there is no break. This is a voiceless sound.

*J* is produced in the same way with the addition of vibration of the vocal cords.

*Ch* aspirated is indicated by a dotted curved line.

*N*. This sound may be represented by *ny*. It is the *n* in *cañon* or *oñion*. The position is the same as *ch* except that the posterior position is open enough to permit the air to pass through the nose.

*Sh* is a voiceless sound made by a continuous current of air. The sides of the arched tongue being in contact with the palate the air comes out centrally.

*Zh* is produced in the same way with the addition of the vibration of the vocal cords.

*r* in this position is made as the *r* in the prepalatal and dental except the tongue is further back.

The velar position is represented by,

*K* is a voiceless sound. The lips are open and the tongue is pressed against the posterior position of the mouth.
G is produced in the same way with the addition of vibration of the vocal cords.

K Aspirated is represented the same as the voiceless k except for the addition of dotted curved line to show the explosive quality of the sound.

Ng is the nasal correspondent of the velar stop. It is produced as indicated in diagram by leaving a position of the posterior part of the mouth open so as to allow the air to pass through the nose.

H is a glottal voiceless sound produced by a continuous current of air passing out through the rounded portion of the posterior part of the mouth.

Let us next consider

The Korean Consonants.

The labial position is a cardinal position in Korean as well as in English.

ฬ is a voiceless sound i.e. there is no vibration of the vocal cords. The lips and the posterior position of the mouth are closed. It is the same as the unaspirated English p and many make the mistake of giving it the same sound as the English aspirated p.* There is no recoil to the lips when it is the final letter. To demonstrate this, watch the lips in a mirror and pronounce the English word “pop” and the Korean word ㅂ.

ㅅ is produced with the same position of the lips as ฬ except there is more tension of the lips which we may represent by a heavy line. It is

* The same criticism applies to all the stop sounds which beginners are liable to give as aspirated.
### B. PHONETIC TABLE KOREAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Flap or Trill</th>
<th>Lateral</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Continuant</th>
<th>Nasal</th>
<th>Stop</th>
<th>Aspirate</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Dental Labial</th>
<th>Pre-Palatal</th>
<th>Blade-Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
not made with a vibration of the vocal cords as is the English b.*

\( \alpha \) differs from the unaspirated \( \beta \) in that there is more tension of lips and it is immediately followed by a sound originating in the glottis and is made much like a roughened \( h \) sound in English. This we represent by the curving forward of the posterior line).

\( \omega \) is formed in the same way as the English \( m \) except there is less vibration of the vocal cords. It has much the sound of the final \( m \) of the word *rheumatism.* \( \omega \) final has no recoil to the lips before a vowel.

\( \delta \) before the vowel \( \partial \) is like the English \( w h \) except for a slight roughening of the sound. Korean has no equivalent of \( w \) because he does not vibrate the vocal cords.

\( \varsigma \) final \( \chi \). The lips are open and the tongue slightly raised posteriorly with its tip against the teeth and the posterior of the mouth closed. \( \chi \) final has no recoil.

\( \zeta \) is formed in the same way as \( \varsigma \) except there is more pressure of the tongue against the teeth and more tension of the tongue, which we may represent by the dark marking. No vibration of vocal cords.

\( \varepsilon \) is made in the same position as \( \varsigma \) with more tension to the tongue with the addition of the roughened \( h \) sound explained above.

Initial \( \zeta \) is formed the same as the English \( n \) except the tip of the tongue is against the teeth and there is no vibration of the vocal cords, being a

* There is no exact equivalent of the English \( b \) in Korean.
voiceless sound it is sometimes not pronounced at all or may have the consonantal \( y \), sound as in \( ? \).

Final \( \varepsilon \) is formed by having the lips and the posterior position of the mouth open and the tip of the tongue against or just behind the upper teeth—the current of air coming out on either side. It differs from the English final \( l \) as follows:

1. With the English \( l \), the tip of the tongue is in the prepalatal region, whereas in Korean the tip of the tongue is as above indicated against or just above the upper teeth.
2. The English final \( l \) has a recoil whilst the Korean has not.
3. The English final \( l \) is usually accompanied with vibration of the vocal cords while the Korean final has little if any vibration.

\( \varepsilon \) medial is produced by placing the tip of the tongue against or just above the upper teeth and with the sides of the tongue not as full out as the English \( r \) in this same position and making a flap, i.e., bringing the tongue down to the floor of the mouth. Occasionally there is a slight trill instead of a flap. The sound is not accompanied by a distinct vibration of the vocal cords as is usual in English.

It may be noted by the above table that the Korean has no consonant sounds in the dental labial or prepalatal positions. The change of the prepalatal position in English to the dental position in Korean is one of the most striking changes.

The consonant \( \tilde{n} \) (except when final see above) occupies a position midway between the prepalatal and blade palatal positions.
It is made by a continuous current of air coming centrally through a space left by the edges of the tongue coming in contact with the roof of the mouth at the midway point above mentioned.

This point may be ascertained with considerable exactness by pronouncing in English the following, *sin*, *syin* and *shin*. In other words in the Korean the tongue is midway between the English *s* and *sh* and has somewhat the *sy* sound.

Furthermore, it should be noted that the Korean is more subdued than the usual English *s*.

\[ \text{The position of the organs are the same as in } \text{ but there is more tension. There is not however the vibration of the vocal cords which would give the English } z \text{ sound.} \]

\[ \text{is in the blade palatal position, It is a voiceless sound made by the arched portion of the tongue coming in contact with the roof of the mouth at the point indicated in the diagram. The lips are open and the posterior portion closed.} \]

\[ \text{is produced in the same manner except there is more tension of the tongue. It has not the distinct vibration of the vocal cords as the English } j. \]

\[ \text{is produced in the same way as } \text{ with addition of roughened } h. \text{ It is nearly like the English } ch. \]

There is in Korean an *ny* sound which is the same position as \( \text{ except that there is an opening posteriorly allowing the air to go through the nose. This sound is not accompanied by the distinct vibration of the vocal cords, in other words} \]
the \( \mathbf{v} \) is almost voiceless. This probably accounts for the differences in pronunciation in some parts of the country the \( \mathbf{v} \) being distinct, and in other parts it is left out entirely. e.g. \( \text{ㅂ인} \).

\( \mathbf{v} \) occupies the velar position. The lips are opened the posterior part of the mouth is closed off by an arching back of the tongue as indicated. It is a voiceless sound. There is no recoil to the final \( \mathbf{v} \).

\( \mathbf{w} \) is produced in the same way as \( \mathbf{v} \) with the exception of more tension of the tongue. It is not accompanied by as distinct a vibration of the vocal cords as is the English \( g \).

\( \mathbf{w} \) differs from \( \mathbf{v} \) only in more tension of the tongue and the roughened \( h \) sound following.

\( \mathbf{s} \) is produced with the same position as \( \mathbf{v} \) except there is an opening posteriorly indicated by arrow allowing the current of air to go through the nose. There is also a less distinct vibration of the vocal cords than is found in English \( ng \).

There is no recoil to this consonant in Korean.

The \( \mathbf{s} \) sound in Korean is unlike the \( h \) in English in that it is more of an aspirate made with tongue raised at the back and a roughened sound of glottis, while the English \( h \) is a continuant sound and voiceless.

**PHONETIC CHANGES.**

The above table of Korean consonants is of value not only as an aid to producing the sounds but also as an aid in understanding the so-called euphonic changes.

For example it is stated in books that \( \mathbf{v} \) before \( \mathbf{r}, \text{ㄹ}, \) and \( \text{ㅁ} \) becomes \( \mathbf{s} \), but no reason or explanation is given.
By referring to the Table it will be noted that 7 is a velar, stop, voiceless sound and to change from this consonant to ʟ would require two movements, viz. opening the posterior portion to allow the air to go through the nose and placing the tip of the tongue against the teeth. ɢ is in the velar position, but is a nasal sound and requires but one change, namely the changing of the tongue to become ʟ. Therefore to facilitate the ease of speaking 7 becomes ɢ because one change is easier to make than two, i.e. euphony is ease of utterance.

As nasal sounds are stronger than stops so the laterals as ʟ (medial) are stronger than nasals.

The change of ʟ to ɹ between two vowels is because the position of the Korean tongue makes it easier to say ɹ than ʟ. Phonetic changes are not infrequently a good clue to the organic positions.

NORMAl POSE.

As a preliminary to the discussion of the vowels it will be well to note what is meant by the term, normal pose, or, as it is sometimes called, “organic basis,” or “basis of articulation.” These all refer to that characteristic attitude of the vocal organs, as produced by their positions and tensions, which prevails among any given race, while they are in the act of speaking their language. It might be termed the musical “key” of the language. The points to be observed in determining this are, whether the lips are forward, back, or neutral, whether the throat is open or rather shut, the tongue high or low, front or back, and whether the organs are tense or lax.

The imitation of the involuntary grunt, “uh,” which occurs between the words of an unready speaker, is the
best key to his normal pose. So too, if one will make a
Korean open his mouth and give with open jaw the
vowels ə, ə, ə, and compare the position of the tongue
in saying the English "a" (ah), it will be a great help to
securing the correct normal pose. The high back tongue
and shut throat which is, with high tension, so character-
istic of Korean speech, makes one wonder that any one can
speak Korean without getting a "preacher's sore throat."

VOWEL MODIFICATIONS.

These arise from the changes in the oral cavity, made
by the varying shapes and tensions of the softer organs,
as when the lips are spread or passive or rounded; when
the tongue is highest at back, mid, front, or tip; or when
the velum, the soft palate, is open, neutrally shut, or
rounded. Further, all these organs may be lax or tense,
which are also termed "wide" or "narrow."

Rounding. Rounding is the making of the oral passage
round at one or more points. It is distinguished as outer,
between the lips; inner, between the back of tongue and
the velum; and medial, between the front of the tongue
and the hard palate. English has only inner and outer
rounding, while Korean, with French and German, has
all three.

Vowels Triangles. Korean has two complete
triangles, though one or two of the vowels are not
found everywhere in the peninsula. It has but one
or two diphthongs.

Triangle "A" is formed, where the lips are
either spread or neutral, and "B" is composed of
rounded vowels. If you take any of the Arabic
numbered vowels, and round it, you get the corres-
ponding Roman number, unless it be for I. If to these ten vowels we add the one unclassified vowel short a ㅔ, not written in the diagram, you get eleven, the number of vowel signs in King Se-jong's alphabet. It raises the question as to whether the symbols, constant in number, may not have changed in signification, as have the vowel symbols of English. Vowel III ㅐ is pronounced in some places as 3 ㅔ, and in some as a consonant and vowel, wi. The symbol ㅏ, ㅓ, is often pronounced as 3, ㅔ. It offers a field for investigation especially if any old rhymed poetry might be available to help to determine what the older sounds really were.

As we take up the A vowels and say ㅐ a ㅔ e ㅣ i we note: how the tongue comes to the front of the mouth and raises higher and higher toward the back. The tongue positions of the B triangle cannot be observed by the mirror, owing to the closed position of the lips.

While both a's ㅗ and ㅏ are now sounded alike, yet it may be they had this same difference of rounding, as in our English a, in father, and a, in all. If so the triangles would be complete at the apex; and if the pronunciation of the German ü, as now heard in Southern Korea, is the original sound of the symbol ㅐ, then the whole triangle agree, part for part.

The vowels frequently have two pronunciations, one a long, which occurs in syllables that have the stress; and the short, which occurs in both stressed and unstressed syllables. This short sound may differ in quality from the long, but it often differs only in quantity, that is, sometimes you may hear a short i, as in the word ㅈ, house, where the vowel is not the same as our English
short i, but a short e sound. So it may be with short a, e, o and u. Short a is often like the final a in "America."

The chief difference between the sounds e and i, as distinguished from English ey (long a, so called) and i (long-e) is in the final glide that is characteristic of all our English long vowels. Take a mirror and say a, e, i, o, u, (ah, ey, ee, o, oo) and note the movement of the organs, as the sound comes to its finish. That is the "glide." Have a Korean give the similar sounds and you will see how immobile his lips are, and how his glide, if he does make one, is in his throat. In speech he really makes none though in giving the syllabary he frequently does.

The easiest way to learn the sounds o and u is by unrounding Korean o and u. They are also a trifle more lax than the rounded sounds. It is for this reason partly that I have concluded that the Roman symbols short o and u had best be used to designate them. Another reason, however, is that the symbols ö and ü in German have these same values, and as many study German before they come out it would seem better to retain these symbols with their former signification. The differences in sound of the two are all made by rounding the vowels of the corresponding position in triangle I, save the bottom vowel, a. A rounded throat, and the lip give an o, \textit{=} from an ö, and a rounded throat and lip give an u, \textit{T} from an ü,—while rounded throat, lip and tongue give ö ü from e and i.

Any difficulty in mastering the sound ö will arise from failure to hold the front of the tongue in rounded shape against the hard palate. Difficulty in mastering the sound
u, misnamed French eu, arises in failure to unround the organs as they are in position to say u. The fact that the symbol u, œ, has different sounds in words now written with this vowel, only shows phonetic decay, and means Korean like English should have a reform in spelling. Careful copying of the teacher's organic attitude and action in the pronunciation of these vowels will enable one to reproduce the sounds. Like begets like.

To unround œ or ŋ, œ or u, prolong the sound and at the same time insert the little fingers in the mouth and pull the lips toward the corners.

The study of phonetics is now recognized as an integral part of the study of any language and we had hoped to have been able possibly to add a Part III to this book that would have dealt very thoroughly with this subject. This however, being impossible we are very glad that the above digest of what Prof. Cummings prepared for the student of Korean is able to be presented at this time. It is due to Dr. A. I. Ludlow, to say that he kindly consented to undertake its preparation and we sincerely hope and trust that either he or others interested in the subject will elaborate the same so that a student of Korean may be enabled the more speedily to attain a good working knowledge of this language.

There have also been those who have desired that something on the use of English phonetics for the use of Korean students of English should be prepared and Mr. Sangkyu Pack, Ph. B. of Brown University, U. S. A. has kindly prepared Part II for such purposes.
II ENGLISH-KOREAN PHONETICS.

鮮英音對照

母音

A

(1) 

에어

에이

äte=에이트

(2) 

어

sën'ätë=sënë트

此是上節音的揚音有糧因音

(3) 

어

'호'及'어'的間音

äll=오~(을)

(4) 

아=лё

'어'及'아'的間音

was 우어|해

(5) 

아

아

ärm=아~口(普)

(6) 

아

'가마'及'이'的間音

ask=아|해크

(7) 

에

에~

câre=케~

(8) 

에

에

ät=에트

(9) 

어

(不分明)此是아及아가有音的

揚音此是下境遇生

about=어짜우로

än'tëmal=에네멀

E

이

下的七音有

(1) 

에

에

Hë=히~

(2) 

에

此是下節音的揚音有

Rëmëin'=리엔
APPENDIX A. 429

(3) e=a  에이  Eight=에이트
(4) ê=â  에~  where  회~
(5) ê=i=û  어~  Her=허~
(6)  ë  에 (短)  Men=맨
(7) e  어  (不分明) 此는上節音에揚音이有

I

아이  四種의音이有는니

(1) i=î  아이  ice=아이치스
(2) î=î  이  in=인
(3) î=ê  이ı  Police=폴리치스
(4) î=ê=û  어~  Bird=써드

O

오우  八種의音이有는니

(1) ò  오우  old=오ولد
(2) ò  오  上節音에揚音이有음으로因하야  ᵇ
와如히長音이되지못하는니
He/ro=히로
(3) õ  오어  För=פג호
(4) ë=a  「어」의「오」의間音이라
nöt=낫으로
(5) o  어  (不分明) 下節音에揚音이有

(6) o=û  어  come=검 (俗稱감)
(7) o=u=ûû  우~  do=두
(8) o=u=ûû  우  good=우드
U

七種の音を有する

(1) う う う
うسا=うサ
(2) う う
-duration= 두래 1 순
(3) う=お お
うස=어스
(4) う
「あ」와「어」の間音はう 上節音に有
発揚音を因する発音を表하
라 だ/毘um=세 1 점
(5) う=い=え お
うん=오선
(6) お=お お
우=Blueprint 1 드리
(7) お=お お
우=주

W

씨블뉴

此字は音が oo=무= 무 니恒常
他母音字に子音字が合せて
發音がされる나니라

Y

와이 二種の音を有する

(1) ỏ=이
오 째=첫 티
(2)  PhoneNumber= 몬 현
オ이 Boy=샌 이
オウ Out= 아우

子音

B

我諺文に「비」와「비」의間音を有する
例

Boy=샌 이
Combination=겹

withstanding
<APPENDIX A>

C

씨 1

此字는二音이有따니
(1) 我謨文에「니」와「니」의間音이는境遇니即「니」字와同같니라
Cǎn=京
mǔ/sèc=무 1 시크
(2) 「서」와「의」의間音이니
Center=센۴리
Ace=에이스

Ch

「C」와「H」의二字가結合하여三種
의音을成す는니
(1) 上에論畱 C=K 와同境遇
Chémistry=케미스트리
Christ=크라이스
(2) 「는」音이有境遇
Chës=체스
Child=차일드
(3) 「Sh」字音과同境遇니此字의音
은我謨文으로表示기難가기로
「서」로表音
Chërōot'=써우〜드
Mächën'=매히인

D

씨 1

此音도되고「도」音도의 느끼니例に
면
Død=두 1

F

에쯔

此字의音과彷彿호거슨我謨文에
는업느지라此音을發포겨هو진
위상歯를下唇內에接付고
G

지 1

此字是 ['च']와 ['च']의間音이니
Göd=가 1 데
或時는 ['स्म']와['स्म']의間音도되니
Gērmāny=שֶַה{ג}인데

Gh

F 字의音과同音
Enough=이너هة

H

에이취

此字是英音的所謂 '氣音' 이라稱す
는音이니 我的 'ŋ' 와相當す니
라
He=히 

['H'] 字是 ['C'] ['G'] ['P'] ['S'] ['T'] ['W']
字等과連合す야各種의音을成
す는니 論す以 'Ch' 及 'Gh'는
論す바여니와 ['Ph'] ['Sh'] ['Th']
['Wh']는 ['P'] ['S'] ['T'] ['W']字下
에見す라

J

셔

此音是上에論혼바 ['G'] 字第二音
과同音야 ['स']와['स']의間音이니
例혼전지

Jew=)){\route<br /}'주}}
Jāck='){\route<br /}'주}}
미리보기 없이 전체 내용을 읽어보겠습니다.

**APPENDIX A.**

### K

(1) 「.phone」와同음야「ヲ」와「ヲ」의同

음이有데境遇

Koré=a=고리라

King=킹

(2) 或時는「ヲ」와相當然의

Handkerchief=행거취

「K」가「N」上에在境遇에는「K」

是發音되지 아니한은原則이라

### L

(1) 빛침「ヲ」와同境遇

All=올

(2) 「L」의音을發音저発音舌端을口

蓋(上頷)에附하여同時에「氣

音」이有境音「ヲ」音을發音

나리라此音의表는「ヲ」로定행

Lace=레스

### M

「ヲ」와同音

Män=뮌

Häm=합(빛침의「ヲ」)

### N

(1) 「レ」와同音

Name=네임

Man=뮌(빛침의「レ」)

(2) 「O」와同境遇有

Länger=_Length~
Ng

(N) 라 「G」의 二字가 有지야 맘첩
「O」이 되난니
Sing=씽
Singer=씽어～

P

此字는 両音이 有지니 字頭이 有在
時는 恆常 氣音이 有 함께 「교」
音이 有고 他이 有在 景遇에는
「มา」가 되너 例를 舉해 진니
Pie=파이
Map=밀

「P」가 字頭이 有이며 「n」 「s」 「t」字
前에 有는 景遇에는 「P」는 恒
常 音이 되는 ဗ니라

Ph

Q

此字는 无音 有고 恒常 「u」字와 结
合 有二音을 成하는 ဗ니

(1) 「K」字와 同音
Liquor=리커～
Piquant=피칸트

(2) 「Kw」音即是 「파」 「파」 「귀」 「귀」の
音이 有する 例을 舉해 진니

Quail=귀일

R

此種의 音이 有する

(1) 「으」 相當
Mary=메리

(2) 字頭이 有준자 字末이 有上iana
「애」의 音이 有은 例『으』音을
발아야得住니라
Right=～라잇드

S
애스
(1) 「丛」와同音境遇
Sun=선
(2) 氣音이有発「人」音인니(此는「人」
로表함)
Is=이흐
(3) 「차」「취」의音과同音境遇니「Sh」
와同す니라
Sū=슈～
Leisure=레임슈～
Sh
「Ch」即「차」「취」와同音境遇
Shē=쇠
Shīne=쇠인

T
리
此字은三種의音이有す니
(1) 氣音이有発境遇即「の」와同音境
遇가是라
It=잇든
to=투
(2) 「U」字와「R」字의前에在야는
「T」은「大」音이有発하스니라
Nature=네일투～
(3) 「I」字前에在야氣音이有発「人」
即「音」音이有す스니라
Nation=네일룬

Th
此音合是兩字中에一字의音도업
고他音이有す니
(1) 舌端을上下齒間에置고氣音이
有発「の」音을發する이것스니
The = تهم

Thine = ห่าน

(2) 舌端を上下齒間에나우고 气音이有ᄒᆞᆫ「مثال」音을發す는듯ᄒᆞᄂᆞᆫ니

The = تهم

Thine = ห่าน

V

에 1 此音을發ᄒᆞᆫ즉면上齒를下唇內에附ᄒᆞ고齒間으로「مثال」을發す

먼其音을得ᄂᆞᆫ니라

Vase = 以习近平

Wh

此付合의音은「مثال」而「화」「취」

의音과相當ᄒᆞᆫ니

Whet = 씨 トレ

What = 씨 トレ

X

此字의音은「G」와「Z」의結合ᄒᆞᆫ

것即「مثال」와「시」의間音과氣

音이有ᄒᆞᆫ「사」ᄒᆞ고「라」라相當

ᄒᆞᆫ니라

Axle = 익술

Ex ample = 例解書

(2) 「K」字와「S」字結合即「مثال」와「사」

의音으로도發音되ᄂᆞᆫ니

Fox = 씨 例

Z

져 1

上論ᄒᆞᆫ氣音을帶ᄒᆞᆫ「S」即「사」相

當이니

Zon e = 씨 例
APPENDIX B.

PECULIAR FORMS.

While we have given in the book itself rules from which we believe almost every form of the spoken language can be derived there are certain forms that have come over at times from the book language and also other forms derived from the now obsolete verbs and also certain other forms that are almost restricted to Korean poetry.

While it is impossible to enter into a discussion of all these forms at this point a few words may possibly aid the student in the study of the same. We will therefore consider briefly a few of these under three heads:—

I. Peculiar forms.

II. Poetic usage.

III. Book forms.

I. Peculiar forms.

There were originally in Korean a number of honorific forms of the verb in which in a peculiar way the subject of the verb was honored by the use of the same. These verbs in most of their forms are now obsolete so that the dictionary will hardly record them and consequently there may be, naturally, difficulty in finding certain forms still remaining over from the now obsolete verb. Notably among these we would mention 듣으십시오 (already referred to in the body of the book) 듣으십시오 for 듣다 to hear. 받으십시오 for 받아 to receive.


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which are all declarative; ᄆᆞ사이다, imperative; ᄄᆞ診자와‘ a verbal participle, and ᄂᆞ딥지, a negative base.

This might be carried out almost indefinitely but the above will show how such forms are derived.

II. Poetic forms.

In Korean poetry which has at times both rhyme and rhythm and which to no small extent inclines to what might almost be termed Oriental Antiphonies; many of the regular forms will be found with slight divergencies from common usages. In the desire for rhythm the form in 음 marked No. 2, in both the declarative and propositive terminations is very largely used and when so-used the fact that it is not a polite form is lost sight of entirely. Thus in poetry ᄆᆞ녜 (declarative) ᄆᆞ개 (imperative) ᄆᆞ세 (propositive) will be freely used and implies no inferiority at all, in the person addressed or spoken of.

In their antiphonies the verbal noun in 음 with 이여 in the first part and 이로다 in the second part will be very common. Verse after verse of their poetry will continue down with 음이여 for the end of the first half of the verse, and 음이로다 for the second half.

Questions and soliloquies are poetically put with forms of ᄆᆞ논고, ᄆᆞ고 and the ending in 가. Exclamations are not unfrequently given with the forms 인더 and 진더.

It is a pity that in most of our hymnology next to no-attention has been paid to proper poetical forms, but this of course, will come in time. It should also be borne in mind that Korean poetry does not commonly follow the foreign plans of four lines following each other but as a rule has two lines each, two lines above, and two lines below. Whether this should be introduced in our hymnology time alone will show but it is to be hoped
that some of the students of Korean will make a special study of the poetic forms.

III. Book forms.

It may possibly be in the book forms that the student will find his greatest difficulty especially as he will have considerable to do with these in his reading and preparation of Korean books. One of the greatest difficulties in the reading of Korean is the lack of punctuation points, capitalization or any thing whatever, to mark the breaks in speech and consequently, as we pick up Korean novels or other books that record conversations and describe scenes we are constantly met with what seems to us an absolutely unnecessary repetition of "he said" and "said he," etc, etc through the whole book. It seems almost necessary for the Korean.

Attempts are being made to introduce into Korean certain forms of punctuation, capitalization, etc, etc; to enable us to have a more intelligent idea of the page of printed matter almost at a glance than can be obtained now. While there are those that claim that there is no punctuation in Korean it should be noticed that the verbal endings of the paragraphs may be said to be the equivalents of punctuation.

The endings 니, 거눌 are said by some to be the equivalent of commas; 흉느지라 and 흉지라 may be said to be the equivalents of a colon or semi-colon, while 흉느니라 and 흉너라 mark a complete ending.

When there is a series of quotations marking answers back and forth in a conversation 흉니 and 흉거눌 are very commonly used alternately making the statement and the reply.

The honorific verb in 시 gives us quite often in book
form the verbal participle in 사 which naturally is the honorific form of a participle in 응여.

The following list of book forms should therefore be carefully studied with the teacher: — 혗더라 혗니라 혗덕시다 혗노라 이로라 이리라 all of which are declarative, and may mark the ending of a complete sentence. In addition to these we should also make a careful study of such forms as these; 혗거늘, 혗니 일가보냐, 인며, 혗누니, 혗샤, 이닛고, 이니이다, 혗니이다, etc.

IV. Letter writing.

In the matter of Korean letter writing all students should endeavor to attain efficiency and the following forms have been prepared and a careful study of the same will we believe be of considerable benefit to the student.
한국어 라틴 문자
다. 톨로 소이 격품 신상이 평길동 고 학교 시험에 떨린 급이나 되었으며 날마다 상황을
모가 아들 공부만이
네가 집을 세난지 루일에 부소히 가서 부양히 잇는지 소식 전시 못 드러 굴공 갑갑

손임의게
외국 류학 생년타
요약문 대비부록

우에 오 보자 모두 부족 조약 보상과 자금 방면 방해 분부 하여 서로 폐해 대소
이 보자 주재 보고 모두 보상과 자금 방면 방해 분부 상호 보상과 자금 방면 폐해 대소
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상서

부모님께

년 월 일 

(아모)

비

기독리오 이와치 파도히 청예를 받으오니 불그样습노이다

제서지 천계혼성을 사름마다 미우가색히 아는 바여 dudes를 얻지 다만 제의 구구혼포양을

비육이 얻지 영행홍에 못치고 쓰이는 바

되지 아니하리오

형의 남력홍신포부로이

답

년 월 일

(하문)

비

지난수 오필가 종초가서 비오리니와 위선두어노로 차사홍경의 기초를 세음이 만행이의 다

물미중인을 얻지 다 감사란호 오필가 그리나 형의 남력대로 가히

산파로치 돌고 바다오치 김혼지라 얻지 다 감사란호 오필가 그리나 형의 남력대로가히

치용별 혜자의 늘을 바는 아니어들 형이 도비아지 아니하시고 파도히 천망홍신은

은혜
요일 구 Barbie

아이노 왜 이럴까, 포스로 오르그래프시켜서 아줌마가 바라보는 그대로 포스로 초대요. 아줌마에 의해 아리랑, 아리랑이 아리랑.

아이노 왜 이럴까, 포스로 오르그래프시켜서 아줌마가 바라보는 그대로 포스로 초대요. 아줌마에 의해 아리랑, 아리랑이 아리랑.
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APPENDIX C.
APPENDIX C.

काँटकी देखिएँ रामायण साहित्य

पूर्ण रूपमा मान सका

हम आपको आपकी स्वीकृति की जानकारी देने के लिए आपके सामने आया है। यह समय अनुरक्षण की जानकारी है।

हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

हम आपकी उपयोगीता के लिए आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

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हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।

हम आपकी प्रशंसा के लिए आम तौर पर उपयोगी हैं।
아래 봉투 배부되었으나, 이로 인해 예상치 못한 문제가 발생하였습니다. 부드러운 파악하기 위해 봉투의 주름을 구분하기 위해 두터운 용지로 작성하였습니다. 이로 인해 부분은 가져나가지 못했습니다.

부수의 부족이나, 부족한 부분을 제거하여 사용할 수 있도록 합니다.

조심해 주세요.
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