

Kim, Bokyoung (2013) A study on Korean monolingual learner's dictionaries for foreign learners focusing on grammatical information. PhD Thesis. SOAS, University of London

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**A Study on Korean Monolingual Learner's Dictionaries
for Foreign Learners
Focusing on Grammatical Information**

Bokyoung Kim

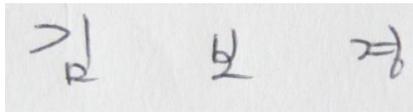
**Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)
in Japan and Korea Language Research**

2013

**Department of the Languages and Cultures of Japan and Korea
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A Study on Korean Monolingual Learner's Dictionaries for Foreign Learners - Focusing on Grammatical Information

This thesis explores how to improve grammatical information provided by the *Learner's Dictionary of Korean* which is the first Korean monolingual learner's dictionary for foreign learners in order to help advanced learners of Korean produce their language accurately. In it I analyse whether the information of the dictionary is appropriate and on what principles the information is presented focusing on five selected items, which advanced learners find most difficult to use in their production.

In order to look at the characteristics of target users, I gathered data using both a questionnaire and interviews as well as undertaking a dictionary compiling project. Furthermore, I built up user profiles for Korean monolingual dictionaries used for encoding activities. I then analysed advanced learners' production based on a learners' corpus which I designed for my research and selected five main items which learners had difficulty in using in their production.

The findings show that the *Learner's Dictionary of Korean* provides a considerable amount of grammatical information in various ways according to the characteristics of each item. However, there is still room for improvement in terms of the contents and presentation of the dictionary. Firstly, I recommend that when the dictionary describes a certain item, the dictionary should also deal with other items which it commonly occurs with as a pattern or phrase rather than separately. Secondly, it is necessary to compare the different function and usage of words using example sentences or syntactic codes which are often substituted incorrectly for each other in usage notes of the *Learner's Dictionary of Korean*. Thirdly, there needs to be greater consistency in choosing the list of headwords and describing grammatical information. I conclude by offering some suggestions about the macro- and micro structure of dictionaries on the basis of these findings.

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Acknowledgements

I would like to extend my thanks to all those who generously gave their time and helped me complete this project.

First of all, my most sincere thanks go to my supervisor Professor Yeon Jaehoon at SOAS, for his support, patience and encouragement during this project. I am also grateful to the two other members of my supervisory committee: Dr. Noriko Iwasaki and Dr. Koh Grace.

I owe special words of thanks to all those who assisted me and motivated my interest in Korean linguistics and applied linguistics. These include Professors Kim Chungsook and Seong Kwangsoo at Korea University, Professor Um Jungho at Donga University and Dr. Tony Lynch at The University of Edinburgh.

I am also grateful to Sochon foundation for the award of Sochon foundation scholarship in 2009 that enabled me to start my doctoral course.

Furthermore, I wish to record my appreciation to the *Korean Language and Cultural Centre* at *Korea University* who offered me assistance during my fieldwork in South Korea. I also need to say a big “thank you” to Dr. Lee Seungyeon and Dr. Kim Iilhwan, who gave me invaluable help with this dissertation.

In addition, there are other kinds of help that make this dissertation possible: I would like to thank my colleagues and friends for their support and advice including: Dr. Lee Youkyung, Chin Okhee, Jeong Seyjeong, Dr. Nancy Jiwon Cho, Cho Jaehee, Xi Chen, Simon George Barnes-Sadler, Dr. Elizabeth Evershed, Oliver Mayeux and Luke Saunders.

I am particularly grateful to my students who participated in the data collection for this dissertation. It goes without saying that my research would not have been possible without their understanding, help and input. I would also like to thank Nicholas Duvivier and Mai Tanaka for their kind encouragement and care over the period in which this dissertation was written.

Finally, I owe a very special thanks to my parents, my sister Kim Soyoung and my brother Kim Heynwoo, who have assisted me in innumerable ways, providing all sorts of both, tangible and intangible support.

Note on transcriptions

Romanisation of Korean in data and examples follows the conventions of the Yale system. The same system is also used for the title of books, papers etc. Other proper nouns, including personal names and institutions, are transcribed according to the given spelling, when available. When I refer to Korean scholars, I also write the given name for purposes of disambiguation between vast numbers of Korean scholars sharing the same family names. For matter of convenience, I write all Korean names in the original Korean order of surname-given name.

Abbreviations used in glosses

ACC	Accusative case
ACT	Active voice
ADV	Adverb deriving ending
AUX	Auxiliary verb
CAU	Causative voice
CON	Connective
COP	Copula
DAT	Dative case
DEC	Declarative ending
EXC	Exclamatory ending
FUT	Future tense
HON	Honorific prefinal ending
IMP	Imperative ending
INS	Instrumental case
INT	Interrogative ending
LOC	Locative case
MOE	Modifier
NEG	Negative marker
NOE	Nominal form
NOM	Nominative case
PAST	Past tense
PASS	Passive voice
PER	Past perfect tense

POSS	Possessive case
PRE	Present tense
PRO	Progressive aspect
RET	Retrospective aspect
TOP	Topic particle

1. Objectives

This study uses mixed methodologies to examine grammatical information in *The Learner's Dictionary of Korean* (henceforth *LDK*) and to discuss how to improve it in order to help advanced learners' encoding activities. The study builds a dictionary user profile for users of Korean monolingual dictionary advanced learners by drawing on the results of questionnaires, interviews and a dictionary compiling project. It identifies some problematic vocabulary items by analysing a learner corpus which was created by collecting writing samples of learners of Korean. Based on the results of these experiments, I review the grammatical descriptions regarding the selected vocabulary items in the *LDK*. I also suggest how lexicographers might develop grammatical information in ways that are better suited to a Korean learner's dictionary for encoding activities. My research showed that advanced learners of Korean still have trouble using vocabulary (lexical and functional words) which they have learned at beginner and intermediate level in their production and the vocabulary they use is restricted to only certain items. While the *LDK* offers substantial grammatical information about an entry for foreign learners of Korean, the dictionary still has left much to be desired in offering more reliable and user-friendly grammatical descriptions to maximise its strength as a monolingual dictionary for foreign learners.

In advanced language classes, Korean teachers often observe that students find it difficult to get a handle on vocabulary for encoding (e.g. speaking and writing,) rather than decoding (e.g. listening and reading) activities. In writing and speaking classes, it is often noticed that although the learners' level is advanced, the vocabulary and expression used tend to be restricted to certain items. The sentence structure produced is still simple (see chapter 7). This might be because most advanced learners tend to use words and structures which they are used to or feel confident in using correctly, rather than using a new vocabulary or structure with the risk of making a mistake. For instance, advanced learners of Korean have usually learned more than 10 endings (connective or final endings) with which they can express 'reason' and 'cause' during their beginner and intermediate levels. But the endings which they use in their production are certainly restricted to two or three basic endings which they dealt with at the beginner level (see chapter 7). This tendency shows that advanced learners have trouble transferring their receptive vocabulary to productive vocabulary. I assume that this might be mainly derived from a lack of confidence in handling the grammar rules related to vocabulary rather than a lack of other knowledge (e.g. semantics or pragmatics). Advanced learners know the general grammar rules for how to construct a word in a sentence. However, when they use a word applying the rules, they realise that they rule cannot be applied simply. They learn that

even words which belong to the same part of speech or semantic category can be formed differently depending on the context of use. They need to know when a rule applies and when it can be violated. Thus, learners know if they use various endings which they have learned, their expression is more detailed, but it would be a burden for them to try to use a wide variety of endings considering all the grammatical restrictions on their use (see chapter 6). In such circumstances, reference works are perhaps the most essential student resource for autonomous language searching (Bruton 2007, Lee Youkyung 2012). For searching for grammatical characteristics of individual items, I believe that a dictionary might be more useful than other resources. This is because a dictionary shows how general rules of the language can be applied across many different items and different systems within the language. Accordingly, I think that learners can access grammatical information of individual items more easily in a dictionary than in other reference works.

Knowing a word entails a great deal more than simply knowing its meaning. Specially, vocabulary use in production requires much more detailed knowledge (such as spelling, pronunciation, grammar, register) than for comprehension (see more details in chapter 3). Coady and Hukins (1997) point out that if productive use is needed, there must be productive learning. Receptive learning is not always appropriate as a basis for productive use. In other words, this implies that if reference works target productive activities, the content and presentation of reference works should be different from reference works for comprehension. Since grammatical information which shows how a word can be formed in a sentence is crucial knowledge for language production, this is important information in a dictionary for production. However, it is frequently noticed that learner's BDs, which are the main reference tools for Korean learners, do not offer enough information on usage or examples of an entry to support their users' Korean learning, especially for production (Kang Hyounhwa 2001, Bae Juchae 2009). The information given in their BDs, such as L1 equivalents, parts of speech, and sample sentences, is not enough to construct an accurate sentence or correct their syntactic errors (see chapter 5). For these reasons, Korean educators and Korean learners have become aware of the need for developing a reliable Korean monolingual learner's dictionary to tackle these kinds of problems (Lee Heeja 2003, Nam Kilim 2007).

In English Language Teaching (henceforth ELT), a monolingual learner's dictionary aimed at non-native speakers (henceforth MLD) is known to be one of the most important resources in helping advanced level learners. MLDs are considered to provide more detailed and sophisticated information (especially grammatical or pragmatic information) about the words looked up than bilingual dictionaries (henceforth BD) (Béjoint 1981, Tomaszczyk 1983, Svensén 1993, Rundell 1999, Fontenelle 2008). Although there are still some arguments about the effectiveness of MLDs in foreign language learning, many researchers (Svensén 1993, Atkins and Rundell 2008, Fontenelle 2008) agree that the detailed grammatical information

provided for encoding activities is one of the important advantages of MLDs (see chapter 2 for more details). Coded grammatical information in the advanced learner's dictionary explicitly states to learners how a user can use a word according to its sentence pattern. However, Harvey and Yuill (1997) point out that even though MLDs offer detailed linguistic descriptions using codes, most dictionary users find syntactic information from example sentences or extra columns rather than explicit syntactic codes. Willis (1990) suggests that this is because the inevitable inadequacy of language description in dictionaries leads learners to adopt learning strategies which do not rely on a grammatical description of the language. Accordingly, I believe that it is necessary to examine the strengths and weaknesses of the grammatical information in existing Korean monolingual learner's dictionaries in order to make suggestions for providing more reliable and user-friendly syntactic descriptions. The research questions for this dissertation are as follows:

- 1) How do advanced learners of Korean use their dictionaries for their encoding activities, especially their writing activities?
- 2) Which vocabulary items (e.g. verbs, endings) in the Korean language are the most problematic for advanced learners of Korean to use in their production? What kind of grammatical problems related to these items do advanced learners have?
- 3) How does the existing Korean monolingual learner's dictionary, the *LDK*, present the grammatical information related to the items which advanced learners of Korean find difficult to use accurately in their production?
- 4) How can lexicographers improve grammatical information regarding the selected items in Korean dictionaries in order to help advanced learners to produce native-like Korean?
What guideline can be followed to create a dictionary better suited to learners of Korean?

My research is limited to the consideration of Korean monolingual dictionaries for encoding activities. It focuses on the grammatical information given to assist the language development of advanced learners of Korean. In addition, the grammatical information in this study mainly focuses on the sentence level rather than the level of a clause or a phrase. McCarthy (2001:52) points out that observing sentences used by learners as a way of investigating acquisition enables us to examine better the language user's underlying competence in any language.

This study has three main elements. Firstly, I construct a Korean advanced learners profile for Korean monolingual learner's dictionaries and investigate what information these learners need for their encoding activities based on the questionnaire, interview and dictionary

compiling project. Secondly, I select five items (lexical or functional vocabulary) which foreign learners seem to find difficult to manage based on the learner corpus and look at how the *LDK* (Seo Sangkyu et. al, 2006) depicts them, then, I analyse the strengths and weaknesses of its grammatical descriptions for encoding activities. Thirdly, I provide suggestions for improving grammatical information in a Korean monolingual dictionary for encoding activities.

2. Previous approaches to Korean lexicography

In this section, I briefly review Korean lexicography for foreign learners (henceforth KL) to examine the development and the research trends of KL, focusing on a monolingual learner's dictionary for foreign learners. The studies of monolingual dictionaries for native speakers and specialised dictionaries for foreign learners such as a grammar dictionary or a collocation dictionary are excluded in this review even though they are also part of Korean lexicography, their purposes and target users are different from the dictionaries which this study aims to deal with.

The history of teaching the Korean language as a foreign language is relatively short compared to the history for the European languages, Japanese and Chinese in modern language teaching. The research on KL seems to have fallen by the wayside than research supporting the development of textbooks and other teaching materials (Kang Hyounhwa 2000a, Baek Bongja 2003) as well as lexicography for native speakers. One of the reasons might be that the compilation of the dictionary requires a vast body of data, a great amount of labour and a good deal of time compared to the development of other teaching materials, so it is difficult to accomplish such a work in a short time. As the number of learners of Korean has increased rapidly in the last decade, and the first Korean monolingual dictionary for foreign learners, the *LDK*, was published in 2006 by the *NIKL*, more and more people have become interested in KL nowadays.

In KL, it is noticeable that the tendency of research on MLDs for foreign learners is slightly different before and after the publication of the *LDK*. While most research before the *LDK* discusses the methodology of compiling a dictionary or the macrostructure of a dictionary, the studies after the dictionary mainly feature reviews of the *LDK*, comparing it to other dictionaries or dealing with the microstructure of learner's dictionaries.

Kang Hyounhwa (2000a), Lee Junghwa (2001), Seo Sangkyu et. al (2003) and Jeong Youngkuk (2009) highlight the needs of developing MLDs and suggest some general directions for compiling a learner's dictionary of Korean. They suggest what methodologies and principles a learner's dictionary of Korean could adopt, such as the use of corpuses and the use of controlled vocabulary to define a meaning of words by adopting the principles of English dictionaries for foreign learners. Kang Hyounhwa (2000b, 2003) and Kang Hyounhwa, Sin Jayoung and Won Mijin (2010) are concerned with the macrostructure of a learner's dictionary

of Korean such as size or selection of headwords. Kang Hyounhwa (2000b) discusses how the list of headwords of a dictionary for foreign learners should be differentiated from the list of headwords of a dictionary for native speakers. In addition, she suggests some criteria for deciding the list of headwords for a learner's dictionary. She has proposals about the number of headwords, the arrangement of headwords, the description of parts of speech and the presentation of sub-headwords. She claims that a learner's dictionary needs to include vocabulary which is contained in Korean textbooks such as noun phrases, abbreviations and idioms. Moreover, the words that are used frequently when analysing spoken and written language in the media such as newspapers or broadcasts should also be included in a dictionary. Even though these studies provide useful guidelines in developing a learner's dictionary of Korean, they also have weaknesses, telling us little about how the principles of English lexicography can be applied to KL. Concerning types of headwords, Jeong Sangkun (2001) argues that conjugative forms of predicates should be included as a headword in a learner's dictionary. He also proposes criteria to select the type of verbs, suggesting that their conjugation forms need to be included as a headword to guide dictionary users to find the entries of verbs effectively. Although more extensive experiments are required to support his findings, this research is worthy of attention in that it is one of few pieces of research which is conducted based on how learners of Korean look up irregular verbs in KL.

Bae Juchae (2009) reviews four different types of dictionaries (a monolingual dictionary for native speakers, a monolingual dictionary for foreign learners, a specialised monolingual dictionary for foreign learners and a bilingual dictionary for learners of Korean) and compares how their descriptions are different depending on the type of dictionary (see chapter 2.1 for more detail). You Hyenkyung and Nam Kilim (2009) provide a practical description of the problems which arose and decisions which were taken in the process of compiling *The Yonsei Korean Dictionary* and the *LDK*. They offer useful guidelines for understanding general Korean lexicography and explain the reasons for their decisions about the macro- and microstructure of dictionaries in the process of compilation of the dictionaries.

In the research on the micro-structure of a MLD, Park Sooyeon (2003) explores principles of guidewords in order to help foreign learners to identify homonyms when they use a dictionary. Kim Mihyeon (2005) discusses the collocation information for a MLD. She argues that a MLD needs to provide accurate and rich information about collocation in order to satisfy the demands made of a practical and pedagogical dictionary. According to her, the criteria for selecting select collocation should be different depending on the type of dictionary (MLD vs. BD or passive vs. active dictionaries). Koh Kyungtae (2010) examines real language use and the context of the Korean indirect quotational marker '-ko' by analysing a native speakers' corpus. He investigates whether the *LDK* describes sentence patterns reflecting natural language use well or not. He proposes useful suggestions for providing more detailed information to guide

foreign learners to use the target item in a native-like way. Han Younggyun and Koh Eunah (2011) deal with four adverbs which are most frequently used by native speakers of Korean. They identify the characteristics of the adverbs based on the frequency, distribution and co-occurrence of the adverbs using a native speakers' corpus. They discuss how the results of the analysis can be applied to the descriptions of adverbs in the *LDK*. Won Mijin (2011) discusses the functions of examples in a MLD and Won Mijin and Han Seungkyu (2011) explore definitions and the vocabulary used to define the meaning of words for developing a MLD. As we can see, the research published after the *LDK* tends to be more specific and practical in dealing with the contexts of KL than the previous studies. The use of corpora as a research tool to look at the evidence of real language use stands out as one of the recent trends in KL. The studies on microstructure mentioned here are noteworthy in that they examine the description of an individual item in a dictionary and offer reflections to help lexicographers in compiling or revising their dictionaries.

Some problems in KL are recognised in this review. Firstly, even since the publication of the first Korean monolingual dictionary for foreign learners, there is still a lack of understanding about the different characteristics of dictionaries for native speakers and foreign learners. Some researchers still think that a monolingual dictionary for native speakers can be used for foreign learners. The *Yonsei Dictionary* states that the dictionary can be used not only by native speakers but also foreign learners. It can be possible for a dictionary to aim at two different target users, but it seems to be very difficult to make these two distinct groups of users satisfied considering their different purposes in using the dictionary. There is considerable research on the microstructure of dictionaries, looking at such things as grammatical items, collocation, and pragmatic information, but the target of these studies is vague since they are not mentioned clearly. Secondly, most research on a learner's dictionary of Korean is less target-oriented. A certain level of Korean proficiency would be an essential prerequisite to using a MLD, but the macro-, microstructure, and amount or presentation of information would need to be different depending on the level of the dictionary's target users or language activities. However, the majority of research does not specify such targets although these factors can be crucial for lexicographers' decisions in compiling their dictionaries. Lastly, most studies deal with theoretical frameworks based on English lexicography rather than providing specific models for KL. This might be because the authors did not have the experience of compiling a dictionary for foreign learners and individual researchers are limited to accessing resources and data such as corpora or fundamental research which is mostly conducted by government organisations or universities in order to do active research related to KL. This might have led researchers to rely on the research on English lexicography. Reflecting these circumstances, many of the studies on microstructure have been done by researchers who compile a dictionary or do a project of fundamental research. However, it is a welcome development that studies

devoted to the microstructure of dictionaries based on real evidence of native speakers' language use have gradually increased recently.

Apart from discussion about macro- or microstructures of a learner's dictionary, there has been minimal research in KL regarding dictionary users' needs and difficulties. The dictionary user research is important because users' needs, preferences and reference skills affect every decision in the process of compiling a dictionary. Therefore, I believe that the extensive user research which this study conducts will be useful in helping us to understand the needs of user research and bring lexicographers and researchers' attention to active research on dictionary users.

3. Overview of methodology

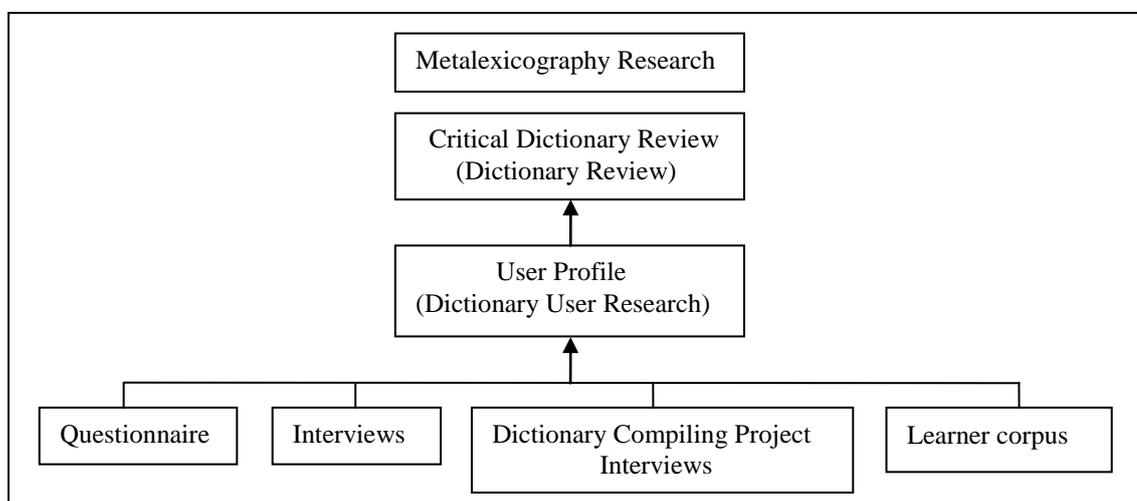
Here I briefly introduce the principles for selecting and analysing the methodologies used for this study. Lexicography is a subfield of applied linguistics which involves observing, collecting, selecting, and describing units from the stock of words and word combinations in one or more languages (Svensén 1993:1). According to Svensén (1993), "lexicography" basically indicates the act of 'compiling dictionaries', but this term is also used to cover not only development but also description of the theories which are to be the basis of this activity. The research on the development and description of the dictionary is often called "metalexigraphy", 'lexicography which deals with lexicography' (Hausmann 1985: 368 cited in Svensén 1993: 1). In connection with metalexigraphy, this study deals with two different research areas: namely, dictionary user research and dictionary reviews. I use mixed methodologies by adopting both quantitative and qualitative research for my study and Figure 1 shows an outline of the research methodologies which this study used.

In order to examine a dictionary, it is essential to establish a user profile which the study targets. Quantitative data was first collected by means of a questionnaire and qualitative data followed in interviews to complement the quantitative data. The questionnaire is one of the research methods which is most extensively used in dictionary user research (Hartmann 2001). The interviews are a further step on the way to exploring objective evidence on learner's dictionary use. I conducted the questionnaires giving them to intermediate and advanced level foreign learners at *Korea University*, and I interviewed foreign undergraduate and postgraduate students who took the writing courses which I taught for 16 weeks in the second semester in 2009 and the first semester in 2010 at *Korea University*.

The dictionary compiling project and interviews were used to identify foreign learners' preferences and strategies in using dictionaries. A mixed method is used to analyse the results of the dictionary compiling project. According to Dörnyei (2007), a mixed method can be explained as a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single project. The dictionary compiling project was designed to observe how learners of Korean describe

information which they need for their writing exams in their own dictionaries made by them. Even though the results are mainly presented as numeric data by analysing the students' dictionaries, this method can be seen as qualitative research as well as quantitative research so that the individual variations are also recognised when the experiment was designed, analysed and described (see also chapter 6). As a result of the project, I was able to observe what information the learners preferred to include in their dictionaries for their writing exams through numeric data (quantitative data) and gain ideas about the strategies learners adopted to present information from their dictionaries (qualitative data). In addition, I also interviewed some of the subjects who did the dictionary compiling project to offer more reliable data. Dörnyei (2007) argues that this mixed methods research would be particularly helpful for such multi-level analysis since it enables researchers to collect data about both the individual and the broader context.

<Figure 1: Summary of research methodologies>



I use the learner corpus which was created by collecting writing samples from level 3 to level 6 students as well as a research class of foreign learners of Korean at *Korea University* from autumn in 2009 to summer in 2010. A corpus is recognised as a reliable tool to observe natural language use of both individual and groups, and offers rich information about individual variety in language use (Biber and Reppen 1998: 145). The learner corpus can be used for either qualitative or quantitative research depending on how the researcher uses the data (Granger 1998: 3). In quantitative analysis, the frequency of a single item allows researchers have a precise picture of the frequency and rarity of particular phenomena (Granger 1993). On the other hand, the qualitative analysis of the learner corpus can also show individual variation in using the target language both in general and with a single item. The main drawback of qualitative approaches to corpus analysis is that the results cannot be generalised to wider populations with the same level of certainty that quantitative analyses can. This is because the results of the investigation are not examined to see if they are statistically meaningful or occur

by chance. As many studies point out, actual use of natural language is often quite different from linguists' perception so this study adopts two methods when analysing the learner corpus in order to look at evidence on both kinds of learners' language use, group and individual. I believe that the use of the learner corpus is an effective way to observe the real language use of the prospective users which this study aims to discuss and their difficulties in production.

Lastly, the qualitative data was provided through the dictionary review, which was conducted in order to answer the third research question. I reviewed the grammatical information of selected items in the *LDK*, based on the results of fundamental user research to find out better ways to present grammatical information in a learner's dictionary for foreign learners.

4. The structure of the dissertation

The structure of the dissertation can be summarised as follows. In chapter 2, I introduce the theoretical and practical principles of three types of dictionaries such as monolingual, bilingual and bilingualised dictionaries, and discuss why monolingual dictionaries would be useful for helping advanced learners' encoding activities. I also examine the macro- and micro structure of dictionaries to identify their functions in learners' foreign language learning. I look at the differences between receptive and productive vocabulary and the reasons why grammatical information is crucial for foreign learners to use a word in their production in chapter 3. In addition, I deal with the theoretical background of grammatical description in English lexicography and the issues related to grammatical description in KL. Chapter 4 will investigate how the analysis of learners' errors and a learners' corpus are useful for SLA research as well as lexicography. In chapter 5, I illustrate the results of the questionnaire and interviews about advanced learner's dictionary use and their difficulties with regard to using dictionaries for production. Chapter 6 describes the results of the dictionary compiling project which the advanced learners conducted in their writing course. In chapter 6, I explore learners' preference and strategies in describing linguistic information in a dictionary for their writing exams. In chapter 7, I show advanced learners' grammatical errors classifying them according to their linguistic category, and I review the usefulness of the grammatical information provided in the *LDK*, looking at how the *LDK* deals with the selected items for their target learners. Lastly, in chapter 8 I offer some useful suggestions to improve the grammatical information in a Korean monolingual dictionary based on the findings from all my experiments.

5. Terminology

To complete this chapter, I will pause briefly to sketch a few key points of terminology that are used repeatedly in this dissertation. In this study, "learner's dictionary" indicates a dictionary which is compiled for the pedagogical purpose of teaching foreign language. The term

“**lexicography**” is used to encapsulate practical lexicography related to compiling dictionaries, theoretical lexicography and metalexicography such as dictionary user research or dictionary review.

The target dictionary users of this study are “**advanced learners of Korean**”. This study is concerned with the learners’ level of Korean proficiency in *TOPIK (Test of Proficiency in Korean)*. The *TOPIK* divides Korean proficiency into six levels and many institutes of Korean language in South Korea also adopt this level system although the achievement of each level might be slightly different depending on the institutes and organisations. The proficiency of the advanced learners of Korean which this study means to examine is level 5 and 6 in *TOPIK*¹ or above.

The definition of grammar can be different depending on one’s viewpoint. The term “**grammar**” is generally used to cover two main parts in linguistics: morphology and syntax. In the initial stage of this study, this research aimed to focus on only syntax, namely the structure of a sentence. However, I found that it is difficult to define the ‘syntax’ without considering morphology and semantics and to analyse the data by compartmentalising it into morphology and syntax or syntax and semantics. This is because knowledge of morphology sometimes influences decisions when we decide the structure of sentences and the structure of a sentence can be different depending on what meaning we want to express or what semantic category of word we want to use in a sentence. Hence, the term ‘grammar’ in this study mainly deals with the ‘construction of a sentence or utterance’ but morphology and semantics are also considered in order to analyse or present the data.

Linguistic activities are sometimes divided into four main types: reading, writing, listening and speaking (Svensén 1993: 9). In this study, the term “**encoding (activities)**” is used to refer to writing and speaking, and “**decoding (activities)**” indicates reading and listening activities in the field of language teaching. I also use the terms “**production**” for encoding and “**comprehension**” for decoding as alternative terms.

¹ In European countries, the Common European Framework of Reference for Language is widely adopted to design language courses and assess the proficiency of a foreign language but it is not used in a Korean language teaching context. Even though there are no fundamental guidelines to assess the achievement of learners of Korean, the level system of *TOPIK* is often used to set up the level system of courses and assess learners’ proficiency in the context of Korean teaching.

Lexicography for teaching foreign languages

1. Introduction

The current chapter offers an overview of typological perspectives that make up the lexicography for teaching Korean as a foreign language. This dissertation adopts the viewpoint that MLDs could be important in assisting advanced learners in producing native-like language in Korean. It is first of all necessary to establish the role of Korean monolingual dictionary for advanced learners within the theory of lexicography for foreign learners in order to set down approach towards Korean learners' dictionary for productive purposes in this dissertation. In this chapter, I emphasise the dominant position of MLDs for foreign learners, especially for productive purposes examining the principles of different types of dictionaries for teaching foreign languages.

Atkins and Rundell (2008: 2) argue that a dictionary is a reference tool which describes the vocabulary used by members of a speech community based on the evidence of what members of the speech community do when they communicate with one another rather than invoking the rules about 'correct' usage of language. Fontenelle (2008: 2) also defines a dictionary is a cultural artifacts conveying a vision of a community's language. Taken together, a dictionary for teaching foreign language could be seen as something that acts as a bridge for learners to access a target language, culture and community. However, there are many different types of dictionaries for teaching foreign languages which vary depending on the dictionary's language, coverage, size, medium (paper, electronic or online), organisation (word to meaning vs. word to meaning to word), users' skill and the kinds of activities the dictionary used for (decoding vs. encoding) etc (Atkins and Rundell 2008: 25). Furthermore, it is recognised that lexicographers' decisions concerning ways to present, ways to select contents, and to describe and to structure information are influenced by the types of dictionary which they aim to produce. As seen in the previous chapter, although there are many factors which need to be taken into account in order to discuss learners' dictionaries of Korean, this study examines dictionaries focusing primarily on three aspects: the dictionary's language, the level of target users and the activity which the learners are using it for, that is, the target monolingual dictionary for advanced learners' production.

2. Dictionary typology for teaching foreign language

The current section reviews previous studies regarding dictionary typology in teaching foreign languages, classifying dictionaries in terms of the dictionary's language and the linguistic activities they are aimed for. I also identify the reasons why MLDs would be appropriate to help

advanced learners to expand their receptive vocabulary to productive vocabulary throughout this section.

In terms of the language used in a dictionary, three main types of dictionaries are mainly discussed in foreign language teaching (Laufer and Hadar 1997, Corrius and Pujol 2010): monolingual (learner's), bilingual, and bilingualised dictionaries. MLDs are written in L2 (the target language i.e. in Korean); BDs contain L2~L1 and/or L1~L2 translations (where L1 is the learner's native language and L2 is target language); and bilingualised dictionaries typically contain a L2 definition plus a L1 translation after the definition. It is generally acknowledged that different kinds of linguistic activity require different demands on the contents of a dictionary. Hence, dictionaries for learning foreign language are classified into two types according to different activities: as a passive dictionary for the understanding of texts in the target language and as an active dictionary for the production of text in the target language (Hartmann 2001, Kang Hyounhwa, 2001, Akins and Rundell 2008, Fontenelle 2008).

In this section, I explore the strengths and weaknesses of three different types of dictionaries based on their writing principles which have been discussed in lexicography for foreign learners in terms of two linguistic activities and the level of the target users.

2. 1 Monolingual dictionaries

It is difficult to discuss the position of a MLD in a teaching foreign language without looking at English lexicography for foreign learners since it has been developed based on ELT. In considering the important role of English lexicography in foreign language education, it may be useful to start out by exploring theories and research related to English lexicography for foreigners. With the great success of English monolingual learner's dictionaries such as the *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English* (**hereafter OALD**) and the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (**hereafter LDOCE**) in the global market, attention has been given to the MLDs for the last couple of decades. The rationale for developing MLD is based on the idea that BDs do not satisfy foreign language users' needs to improve 'competence and confidence' in their target language. Monolingual dictionaries for native speakers are not appropriate for the foreign learners because their needs are basically different from those of a native speaker's (Ilson 1987, Cho Miock 2001).

Atkins and Rundell (2008) compared three different dictionaries (the *Collins English Dictionary* for adult native speakers: **CED**, the *Collins School Dictionary* for school children: **CSD**, and the *Macmillan English Dictionary* for advanced foreign learners: **MED** henceforth). They examined the entry for the verb *disturb* and its relatives *disturbed* and *disturbing* in three different dictionaries, giving useful insight into how a learners' dictionary for non-native adults is different from a native speakers'.

Firstly, they confirm that adult foreign learners need more assistance than either the

adult or the young native speakers. This is because native speakers have their own linguistic instincts as to how they should use the “new” word in sentences without the need for precise explanations. Therefore, it seems reasonable that the learners’ dictionary offers rich informative examples to help learners know how they can place the word in a sentence. Secondly, the dictionaries for adults, whether native speakers or learners, give the *International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)* henceforth), and a domain label which indicates the general context in which the item is used, according to topic and register such as science, hockey, plumbing etc. However, the dictionary for non-native adults offers information on idioms and more examples than the dictionary for native adults. Thirdly, they found that only the dictionary for foreign learners referred to corpus frequency using asterisks to indicate how often the words *disturb*, *disturbed* and *disturbing* occur in real language use. It is usually assumed that the most frequently occurring words will be those most useful to learners, so information about frequency could be helpful to foreign learners. This is because if the word is a high-frequency word learners need to remember it. The adult native speakers’ dictionary also contains etymologies which could be burdensome for foreign learners while the *MED* does not. Lastly, the dictionary for adult native speakers tends to define a word using semi-synonyms which is generally avoided in the dictionary for adult foreign learners using a paraphrase instead. In dictionaries for foreign learners, if users do not know the meaning of synonyms the definitions are not comprehensive, and using a synonym sometimes causes confusion to users trying to differentiate the meaning and usage from other synonyms. There is an opposing argument that a good synonym is often better than a good definition, both descriptively and didactically (Kernerman 2001: 150). However, it is generally accepted that defining vocabulary using controlled list of vocabulary would be safe for foreign learners to access easily the meaning of entry in ELT.

In the field of KL, Bae Juchae (2009) reviewed the descriptions of entries for the nouns ‘*chencang (ceiling)*’ and ‘*meli (head)*’ and the verb ‘*tanghata (to suffer)*’ in five dictionaries (the *Korean Standard Dictionary* for native speakers, the *Cosmos Korean- Japanese Dictionary* and the *Shogakukan Korean-Japanese Dictionary* for Japanese learners of Korean, the *LDK* for foreign learners and the *Korean Collocation Dictionary for foreigners*). Although it is unclear that what criteria determined the selection of these dictionaries and the reasons why the nouns ‘*chencang (ceiling)*’ and ‘*meli (head)*’ were chosen for comparison in this study when they are not used frequently for foreign learners, it still shows some useful differences among four types of dictionaries (the monolingual dictionary for native speakers, the bilingual dictionary for foreign learners, the monolingual dictionary for foreign learners and the specialised dictionary for foreign learners).

Firstly, he found that what decisively marked off the dictionary for native speakers from the dictionaries for foreign learners is that foreign learners obviously need more precise information than native speakers for learning Korean, a conclusion similar to Atkins and

Rundell (2008). He found that both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries provide information about the degree of importance for each word, pronunciation information and collocation whereas the monolingual dictionary for native speakers does not. In addition, while monolingual learner's dictionary describes pronunciation using IPA and Korean, both bilingual Korean-Japanese dictionaries provide pronunciation not only using IPA but also using Kana of Japanese, which is different from a monolingual dictionary for native speakers which does not include any information about pronunciation. Secondly, even though bilingual dictionaries offer detailed information considering learners' difficulties such as offering equivalents of Korean words in the learner's mother tongue, collocation and different usage of synonyms, there are some limitations which bilingual dictionaries still have some inherent weaknesses such as a tendency to offering incorrect equivalent words to an entry, less precise word sense distinction, inauthentic examples and a relatively small number of examples for an entry. Thirdly, the collocation dictionary could be helpful for learners' production but the functions of the dictionary are limited to offering words that co-occur with an entry. Accordingly, although the collocation dictionary is known as a kind of active dictionary, it is difficult to expect the collocation dictionary to cover all the information which is required for advanced learners' encoding activities.

Laufer and Hadar (1997) claim that one of the big advantages of MLDs is that learners profit from L2 exposure. MLDs offer definitions of words and examples in the target language without translation into the users' mother tongue. While learners are reading definitions and examples they have to think in the target language to understand them and this process might prompt more rapid expansion of passive vocabulary. According to Underhill (1985), learners may gain insights into the precision of defining and describing meanings, and constructing sentences, as well as learning to cope with definitions which at first seem unclear. That is to say, the process of reading and understanding texts in the dictionary could act as a part of language learning (Baek Bongja 2003:116). Kernerman (2007) describes it in an interesting way: 'teachers would like their students to endeavour to think in the new language. The more they live and breathe it, and the more they speak and read it, the more they can be involved and internalise it'. Lee Heeja (2003) also points out that if learners have input in L2 it might reduce the interference of L1. Considering that one of the great weaknesses of BDs is incorrect equivalents from the point of view of text translation (Hornby 1990, Park Eunha 2008, Yi Hongshik 2008, Bae Juchae 2009), understanding the meaning of an entry in the target language could benefit learners either to access more reliable information or to obtain information concerning the meaning and usage of the entry in the context of target language. It is still controversial whether giving instruction in the target language would always be beneficial for foreign learners in language teaching. Activities designed to help users understand the contents of monolingual dictionary probably offer some pedagogical help for learners, and

especially advanced learners in learning target language.

Even though the effect of L2 exposure through a monolingual dictionary would be advantageous for learning language, the key to the success of MLD in ELT is that they offer more precise information to foreign learners in terms of syntactic, idiomatic and lexical information which BDs hardly ever offer. In order to provide detailed information, it needs a welter of data and accumulating experience in teaching the target language as well as native speakers' intuition. In this case, one of the greatest merits of MLDs would be that they are compiled by native lexicographers based on the large corpus of native speakers (Lemmens and Wekker 1991: 2).

The systematic use of corpus data brought about an innovation in English lexicography by enabling lexicographers to offer more authentic and practical information than BDs (Granger 1998, Rundell 1998 1999, Fontenelle 2008, Meunier and Granger 2008). The corpus has contributed significantly to lexicography in three ways; firstly, electronic corpora enable lexicographers to observe actual use of language and whether the word or expression occurs with a certain frequency. The frequency of words and expressions make it possible for lexicographers to select the list of headwords to suit their target learners' needs (level of language proficiency) and offer information about the frequency of occurrence of the entries, of their sense and their synonyms in a dictionary. Svensén (1993) argues that this representativeness of language based on word frequency would work differently depending on activities. For decoding, representativeness means how often learners encounter a word or expression for reading or listening in real communication regardless of how they might actually consider using it. On the other hand, for encoding, representativeness might mean what context or for what function the words or expression should be used in order to express native-like production in the target language. Secondly, lexicographers are able to give exhaustive information about the grammatical properties of lexical items observing complementation patterns, e.g. what complements a verb take in a sentence (see 2.2.4 or chapter 3). The systems of grammatical patterns the so-called phrasal verbs or grammatical collocations for encoding which Cowie used are influenced by Palmer and Hornby's pioneering work. They led modern learner's dictionaries to pay more attention to phraseology, collocations, and the systematic inclusion of lexical relations to an entry, such as synonymy, antonymy, and hyponymy (Fontenelle 2008: 9-10). Whereas information about construction in the target language is of less importance for decoding since it is already constructed in a sentence, this information would be crucial for encoding, helping learners produce a sentence properly (Svensén 1993: 13). Thirdly, one of the most visible changes which the use of a linguistic corpus has brought is that dictionaries can offer authentic examples based on the corpus (Fontenelle 2008: 4). It is still debatable which type of example would better help learners get useful information about an entry, lexicographer-made examples or exclusively corpus-based, unmodified data. While most

modern monolingual dictionaries take advantage of authentic data, decisions on the level of authenticity of examples, such as whether the sentence is modified by lexicographers or included without modification as an authentic example in itself is slightly different depending on how lexicographers see their users' need and viewpoint of lexicographers (Fontenelle 2008, see chapter 6)

MLDs also play a role as a culture mediator between the learner and the target culture. Hymes (1972) argues that learners should have target social and cultural knowledge in order to understand and use linguistic forms. In addition, in order to interpret a meaning correctly and to choose vocabulary appropriately, learners need to become aware of the target culture. In this case, MLDs could be a cultural guide as they offer information on linguistic register such as politeness, nuance and metaphors of the target community. Baxter (1980) also states that definitions and examples in MLDs help learners express themselves in an acceptable manner and enable them to take part more naturally in conversations, while the lexical item equivalent to the entry word in BDs often leads them to conversational frustration. Recently, pragmatic information compiled from authentic sources is available according to genre based on the corpus so lexicographers can offer more reliable pragmatic information. This information can be useful to for foreign learners. Yang (2007) found that the *LDOCE* provides rich pragmatic information from the lexical level to the discourse level: indicating ways of talking such as friendly, unfriendly, angrily or respectfully, forms of address, discourse markers, speech acts and context markers (i.e using eighteen labels: *formal, informal, old-fashioned, BrE, AmE, written, spoken* etc). According to You Hyenkyung and Nam Kilim (2009: 278), the *LDK* includes four types of pragmatic information in its usage note: information about the interaction between speakers and listener and their attitude (considering age, gender and the relationship between subordinates and superiors), the discourse context (concerning genre, time and region specialised field), the discourse function (speech act) and aspects of social and cultural use. Especially, the Korean language has highly developed honorific expressions and there are clear linguistic distinctions depending on mode (spoken vs. written, formal vs. informal usage). This pragmatic information would be desirable for foreign learners to use Korean appropriately. Thus, the pragmatic information in this MLD can be seen as one of its strong points and one which differentiated it from a BD.

In spite of the advantages of MLDs, a monolingual environment is not always beneficial: especially at low, pre- and pre intermediate levels (Corrius and Pujol 2010: 1). Firstly, even though MLDs use controlled vocabulary to define words, users still need certain vocabulary to understand the contents of MLDs. As Svensén (1993) points out, the definition in the target language is only effective so far as the user's knowledge of the language is sufficient for them to understand the definitions and other information given. If learners do not have a certain level of target language proficiency, a mother tongue equivalent in a BD may help them

to understand the defined lexical item. Al-Kasimi (1977) also claims that for decoding, students will probably save time by using BDs to get native equivalents immediately. Some items of vocabulary such as proper nouns or abstract nouns would be easier to understand when the definition is given in their mother tongue rather than in the target language. For instance, the word 'azalea' would be easy to understand if it is given its equivalent 'cintallay' in Korean rather than the definition "an azalea is a woody plant with shiny, dark-green leaves which produces many brightly-coloured flowers in the spring" in an English monolingual dictionary (Lee Heeja 2003: 36). This is because efficiency is also an important factor in learning language. BDs could be more effective for low and pre-intermediate level in terms of the speed and degree of difficulty of comprehension. Secondly, there are the potential problems of using controlled vocabulary to define words: Jain (1981) suggests that the preoccupation with simple and easy definition might lead to imprecise definition and a neglect of semantic adequacy which contributes to the learner's competence for successful expression. Whitcut (1978) mentions that it is very difficult for lexicographers to balance accuracy and comprehensibility when they make definitions only using 2000 words and to decide which factors they should prioritise. Lastly, another criticism about MLDs, is that they are non-user specific because they cater for users of any native language (Lemmens and Wekker 1991: 2). Even if foreign learners learn in the target language they still tend to understand target languages based on knowledge of their native language in terms of vocabulary, grammar and culture. Therefore it is difficult for learners to avoid the influence of their mother tongue. In terms of this view, one of the weaknesses of MLDs is their lack of contrastive linguistic information such as syntactic, semantic or pragmatic comparison of the two languages and examples of typical errors which are caused from not understanding the difference between the two languages.

2.2 Bilingual dictionaries

The great strength of BDs is that the learner can access to the unknown target language via the known mother tongue, and hence it can guarantee certain degree of security (Underhill 1985). Some research on dictionary use (Atkins 1985, Scholfield 1999) shows that learners prefer their L2-L1 BDs more than MLDs. According to research, many students buy a MLD in order to become more familiar with a foreign language, but they still keep using their BDs. Aust, Kelly and Roby (1993) argue that this preference might due to the users' need to gain immediate understanding of the material they are reading, rather than to learn about the words they look up for future benefits. Laufer and Levitzky-Aviad (2006) also explain the reason for the preference for BDs: learners might prefer immediate reference rather than inferring the meaning from a L2 definition. In addition, if the words used in a definition in MLDs are unclear, learners need to search for an explanation of these words as well so it might be troublesome. The L2-L1 BDs, on the other hand, link the meaning of an unknown foreign word to an L1 word and do not burden

the learner with additional unknown words. Kernerman (2001) argues that even though learners catch the meaning of a word using MLDs, they will inevitably search for a mother tongue equivalent to make sure they understand the meaning correctly. He also points out that many new words are actually misunderstood and a misunderstood meaning can remain with a person forever unless the translation is there to correct the misunderstanding.

Thompson (1987) also claims that L1-L2 BDs are preferable if learners only know a word in L1. However, Laufer and Levitzky-Aviad (2006) state that L1-L2 BDs rarely differentiate between the possible L2 translations of the L1 word, nor do they provide information regarding the use of each translation option. This could make users confused. Therefore, if L1-L2 BDs give more than one equivalent of an L1 word, users should search again to find out which one is appropriate for them. For example, if English learners of Korean search the verb 'watch' in an English-Korean dictionary, it will give many equivalents such as 'pota', 'cikhyepota', 'cwusihata' in Korean. English speakers will need to search again to learn which one is appropriate for their Korean encoding. Tomaszczyk (1983) examined English texts produced by Polish English learners using L1-L2 BD and he found that the texts were more Polish in form than English. In such cases, it is possible for native speakers to catch the main point that foreign learners want to express, but it means it is easy for foreign learners to fail to produce correct sentences after using the dictionary.

It is often pointed out that one of the weaknesses of a MLD is that it is less target-oriented compared to a BD, not offering contrastive linguistic information or a culture specific guide to using words. Kang Hyounhwa (2001) argues that BDs are mostly compiled based on contrastive analysis. Hence, they can assure a certain degree of user-friendliness and prevent learners' errors including information about linguistic differences between the user's mother tongue and the target language. In addition, BDs are able to provide more of a culture specific guide, comparing the target language's culture with learners' culture than MLDs.

Some researchers point out that learners' general preference for BDs does not mean that BDs are more effective for their language learning. Lindstrom (1980) and Svensén (1993) argue that BDs tend to make learners believe that there is a target language equivalent for every word in their native language. Actually, it is difficult to find exactly the same equivalent between two languages even for common, universal and non-culture specific words such as *eat* or *sleep*. However, this misleading belief makes foreign language learners frustrated when they cannot find the right equivalent word or when usage of a word is different from their native language. Inevitably, there are some words that exist in L1 but not in L2 and words that exist in L2 but not in L1. In the former case, learners might need a L1-L2 dictionary for their encoding, and in the latter case, they might need a L2-L1 BD or a MLD for both encoding and decoding. Hence, MLDs could be more helpful for encoding activities. As mentioned above, where the BD gives more than one meaning for a word learners need to know the difference. Since

connotations, or meaning associations are not given in most BDs, what appear to be closer translations may in fact have quite different associations in the two languages. Hartman (1983) states that learners look up functional words most frequently in their BDs, but BDs are mostly lack of information about functional words. In addition, it is more difficult to find out appropriate equivalent of functional word in target language than lexical words. As a result of discussion it may be that the BDs seem to be more suited to comprehension rather than production-type activities.

2.3 Bilingualised dictionaries

Bilingualised dictionaries are compiled as an alternative dictionary used to overcome the disadvantages of MLDs and BDs. Even though the structure of sentences which beginners require would be simpler than advanced learners, information for encoding such as grammar pattern or usage of synonyms is also important for beginner learners. However, it is more difficult for them to access reliable information since they cannot understand the descriptions in MLDs. Therefore, beginners tend to rely on their teachers or BDs heavily. For this case, a completely new type of dictionary, bilingualised dictionary, is usually suggested for the users (e.g. Kharma 1985).

In a bilingualised dictionary, all explanations are to be offered in the foreign language, while at the same time all words and expressions are to be translated into the native language of the user. Thus, users can take advantage of typical features of both MLDs and BDs. Bilingualised dictionaries are of various types: but they are usually designed to offer a L2 entry with a L1 equivalent and a L2 definition for decoding or a L1 entry, L2 translation options and L2 usage specifications for encoding. Laufer and Hadar (1997) have shown that the combination of monolingual and bilingual information in learner's dictionaries tends to produce the best results as far as language learning is concerned. Bilingualised dictionaries are arguably the best option to improve linguistic competencies in L2 learning. According to Laufer and Melamed (1994), a good bilingualised dictionary seems to be suitable for all types of users and for all tasks, whether for encoding and decoding. Kang Hyounhwa (2001) also claims that bilingualised dictionary could remedy shortcomings of both MLDs and BDs in KL since it takes a long time to be published reliable BDs regarding the short history of KLT.

Some researchers are concerned that if the translation is placed next to the L2 definition, there is a high risk that users skip the monolingual part and do not get all the benefits of L2 exposure. However, in my view, if learners can find the information they need correctly they do not need to read L2 definitions. The real advantage of bilingualised dictionaries is that they offer L1 equivalents of an L2 word from BDs and detailed information for encoding from MLDs. Thus, if reliable bilingualised dictionaries can be compiled, learners do not need to look at two different types of dictionary in order to look up the information they need. However, one

thing we should realise is that it is necessary to have reliable MLDs first in order to compile bilingualised dictionaries. Furthermore, even if they are available, it also needs time and lexicographers who have a good knowledge of both languages to translate material into the learners' mother tongue to meet their target users' needs.

I have examined the main characteristics of three different dictionaries in this section based on previous studies of dictionary typology both in ELT and KLT. The conclusion that may be drawn about these three kinds of dictionaries is: there is no perfect dictionary to satisfy all dictionary users because their level of knowledge and needs are very different from each other. However, I believe that a MLD which is compiled combining native speakers' intuition and linguistic evidence based on a large corpus could be suitable for describing precise information for encoding activities. It could be pedagogically advantageous to advanced learners in several respects.

3. Conclusion

In the era of corpus linguistics, plentiful linguistic data is available for lexicographers. Accordingly, they can offer more and more information about the meanings and typical uses of the words to explain them. On the other hand, this means that they face tricky decisions when choosing what information their target users need to be given in their dictionary and how the information should be described for learners to access it easily. As discussed in this section, the principles which have concerned recent lexicography for foreign learners seem to be condensed three factors: language evidence (namely authenticity and representativeness), pedagogical value and target users' needs. The final object of advanced learners in language learning would be to have the capability to produce target language that is native-like. In order to achieve this goal, they need information which reflects the authenticity and representativeness of the target language. In this case, a MLD which is compiled for a pedagogical purpose comprising vast amounts of native speakers' production and the linguistic intuition of native lexicographers can be the best solution.

Grammatical information in dictionaries

1. Introduction

This chapter explores the reasons why grammatical information is crucial for a dictionary for encoding activities by reviewing the debate about vocabulary learning. In addition, I examine the theoretical basis applied by English lexicographers when describing grammatical information for words in dictionaries for foreign learners. I believe that through looking at the theoretical backgrounds and rationale of grammatical descriptions in dictionaries, especially in ELT, it is possible to see what approach Korean monolingual learner's dictionaries can take in order to make grammatical information more useful. Furthermore, I also investigate what kinds of grammatical issues KL has dealt with and what principles have been applied to grammatical descriptions for their dictionaries. This review could provide some guidelines for me to do a critical review to examine grammatical descriptions in the *LDK*.

According to Atkins and Rundell (2008), "lexicographers benefit by learning from linguistic theory, and they have contributed to improve recent lexicography through intelligent application of theoretical ideas". Nowadays, the development of corpora enables linguists and lexicographers to access a large amount of real language use data and allows them to test existing theories which have been taken for granted for decades (Cheng 2001: 6). All linguistic findings based on corpora are definitely important, and they offer useful suggestions for language pedagogy. But lexicographers need a clear viewpoint when they analyse and present their data since different approaches to the study of language use and linguistics have different focuses (McCarthy 2001). In the field of KL, little connection has been made between the fields of Korean language teaching, Korean linguistics (including Korean applied linguistics) and Korean lexicography. I believe that MLDs should be the combined work of these fields. Thus, in this chapter, I look for directions in which KL should go further to improve the grammatical descriptions in a MLD through collaboration with other fields by examining current trends in KL.

2. Learning vocabulary in SLA

2.1 Receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge

There is much information to know about any particular word and there are many degrees of knowing in SLA (Richards 1976, Nation 1990, 2001). Most foreign language learners tend to misunderstand, believing that knowing a word is to learn the meaning of that word, however recognising a word does not mean they are able to use it accurately in their production. According to Nation (2001: 21), "foreign language learners should know a form in the sense of

word class, derivatives, all possible syntactic patterns, synonyms, typical usage, typical collocation, stylistic value and mother-tongue translation, in order to have acquired a word”.

In second language vocabulary acquisition, vocabulary is generally divided into two kinds: receptive and productive vocabulary. ‘Receptive’ indicates that learners receive language input from listening or reading and try to understand it; ‘productive’ indicates that learners produce language by speaking and writing to express themselves². As the functions of these activities are different in communication, learners need to require different kinds of knowledge to perform each of these activities successfully (Rundell 1999, Schofield 1999). For instance, if users look to a dictionary for their decoding activities, then it is important that they have a dictionary which contains a large number of vocabulary items and idioms, including information about the meaning and appropriateness of words. On the other hand, if a dictionary is used for encoding activities, learners need to know more information than just the meaning of words, such as syntactic behavior or typical collocation.

In SLA, it is generally regarded that productive knowledge of a word is more extensive than receptive knowledge. Nation (1999) argues that “productive knowledge requires not only knowing the way to pronounce the word properly but also how to write and spell it, as well as how to use it properly and grammatically with words it usually collocates with”. The ability to use synonyms to fit into the appropriate context is also essential for production, as are knowledge about syllabification, meaning, grammar, collocations, register appropriateness and frequency, and advice on common errors (Underhill 1985, Walz 1990, Atkins and Rundell 2008, Fromkin et al 2011). Accordingly, if a dictionary is to be used for productive purposes, then it needs to offer a great deal of information which a dictionary for native speakers does not have.

It is recognised that successful encoding is a more challenging task than understanding a word in a context (Atkins and Rundell 2008: 409). Therefore, linguistic components of a dictionary for encoding activities should be differentiated from the dictionary for decoding activities. In this study, I take the position that grammatical information is most important and also most problematic for advanced learners when attempting to produce their target language with native-like proficiency.

2.2 Grammar knowledge and vocabulary learning

In second language vocabulary acquisition, the communicative approach which emerged in the 1980s has brought changes in language instruction by placing the emphasis on communicative proficiency (fluency) rather than command of structure (accuracy) (Zimmerman 1997: 11). In addition, a natural approach in SLA emphasises comprehensible and meaningful input rather than grammatically accurate production, so language teachers have led their students to be

² Some researchers (Svensén 1993, Atkins and Rundell 2008, Fontenelle 2008) use the terms ‘passive’ (for listening and reading) and ‘active’ (for speaking and writing) as synonyms of ‘receptive’ and ‘productive’.

focused on the understanding of meaning rather than form in recent decades. However, after research on classroom immersion and naturalistic acquisition based on meaning only, Harely and Swain (1984), and Doughty and Williams (1998) found that learners do not achieve target levels of competence without acquiring grammatical features. These findings make us wonder if L2 learners can really achieve native-like proficiency without paying attention to grammar rules regarding how to construct a sentence when they use a target word in their encoding activities.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) claim that L2 speakers tend to use a low level of items with syntactic complexity, such as verbs and functional words, in their production compared to other linguistic elements. This might be because verbs and functional words require much more grammatical knowledge to use in a sentence than other items. Ellis (1986) also points out that L2 learners use this strategy when they realise that they cannot use the item which they have learned properly in their production. Hence, much of vocabulary remains as receptive knowledge, not transferring to productive knowledge. Here, we must ask: what information do learners of Korean need to learn to transfer their receptive vocabulary to productive vocabulary? I believe that we can find the answer to this question from learners' grammatical knowledge (Braidı 1999: 149). For decoding activities, foreign language learners may neglect structures that are not significant to comprehend text, but they need to know the grammatical rules of the target language in order to produce a sentence using a target word (McDonough 2006: 180). According to Gass (1999), deeper and more complete vocabulary knowledge entails knowledge of grammatical information and the syntactic structure that words have. This is because L2 learners need considerable grammatical knowledge in order to encode lexical items accurately and appropriately. She also argues that grammatical and lexical knowledge (in the sense of meaning) are not separate or isolated parts of vocabulary knowledge. She explains that L2 learners acquire grammatical information through the lexicon. At the initial stages when learners deal with a particular lexical item, they only have a general idea of meaning and the basic syntactic structures in which the word can occur, but they gradually extend and elaborate their semantic and syntactic knowledge about the target item as they encounter it in various contexts (Gass 1999: 327).

At this point, it seems to be necessary to address what grammar means and what language educators need to examine learners' ability to use grammar. Chomsky (1965) distinguished between an idealised native speaker's underlying competence (referring to one's implicit or explicit knowledge of the system of the language) and individual performance (or one's actual production and comprehension of language in specific instances of language use). He also claimed that it was necessary to study and describe language through idealised abstractions rather than through records of natural speech, which was so often flawed. Campbell and Wales (1970) accepted Chomsky's methodological distinction between competence and actual performance, but they pointed out that Chomsky's conceptualisation of these terms did

not consider the appropriateness of an utterance to a particular situation, context or its socio-cultural factors. Being able to use grammar structure does not only mean using the forms accurately; it means using them meaningfully (semantics) and appropriately (pragmatics) as well. What needs to be learnt about grammar can be characterised by three dimensions: form, meaning and use.

Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2002) argues that a vast amount of linguistic evidence from corpus now enables the direct study of both native speaker and learner output (Chomsky's 'performance') rather than relying on indirect evidence of what a person intuitively 'knows' (Chomsky's 'competence'). McCarthy (2001:48) also discusses that 'performance' constitutes the most important evidence for how language works and what it is: it is not simply a veil obscuring underlying 'competence'. Performance is best observed in real language phenomena such as written texts and conversation- the linguistic evidence is external. Linguistic intuition is no longer the primary evidence. In this study, the grammar will be discussed based on the learners' performance rather than competence, adopting the position of Savignon (1997, below) and McCarthy (2001).

Competence is what one knows. Performance is what one does. However, only performance is observable, and it is only through performance that competence can be developed, maintained, and evaluated.

(Savignon, 1997: 15)

According to Fromkin et al (2011: 580), "grammar is mental representation of a speaker's linguistic competence, what a speaker knows about a language including its phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and lexicon". Givon (1993) also states that grammars and sentence structures in language are closely related to the semantic and pragmatic functions that they perform. He defines grammars as a "set of strategies that one employs in order to produce coherent communication", so knowledge of grammar can be seen as an important basis, needed to construct a sentence appropriately according to the meanings and context which learners intend to produce. As Croteau (1995) claims, language educators need to recognise that learning grammar means more than learning how to form the structures, including what they mean and when and why to use them as well. Hence, grammar teaching does not mean simply teaching rules and it is certainly not confined to teaching explicit form-based rules.

From the perspective of seeing the grammar of a language as a resource for bringing about accurate and effective communication, grammar knowledge can lead learners to be more autonomous, developing the rich linguistic resources needed to express ideas effectively and to correct their errors themselves. Odlin (1994) argues that dictionaries and reference grammars have an important role to play in support of a learner's grammar knowledge. Hornby (1981) argues that, in ELT, each dictionary entry needs to state in detail in which clause patterns a verb

might be required, what complementation a verb may take and which components of a sentence are compulsory, optional or disposable – so that, even if learners encounter a target word for the first time, they can construct a sentence by referring to the syntactic information in the dictionary. Additionally, if a dictionary entry informs readers that a verb cannot undergo a specific rule of the grammar, learners could be able to apply the rule to each lexical or grammatical word and correct errors themselves by consulting the dictionary. Hornby suggests that while learners use explicit knowledge of syntactic structure, they can develop implicit knowledge which becomes a part of their productive vocabulary.

This raises the question: if knowledge about grammatical rules is important to transfer receptive vocabulary to productive vocabulary for foreign learners, in what way should a pedagogical dictionary describe grammatical information for its users? Like other linguistic components, the grammatical descriptions can also be different depending on lexicographers' viewpoints about the grammar and language learning. Thus, the next section looks at the theoretical background of pedagogical grammar in English lexicography and how this affects the grammatical descriptions in dictionaries in ELT.

3. Theoretical background of grammatical information in a dictionary

3.1 Phraseology in SLA

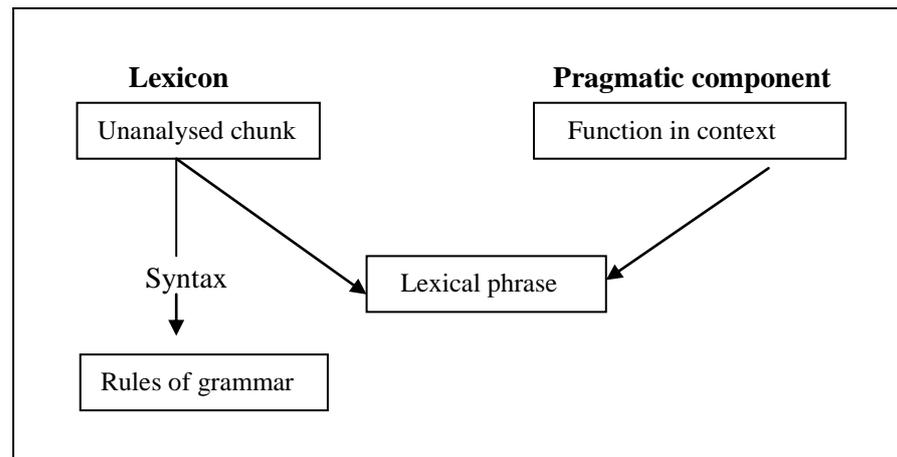
From the 1980s to the 1990s, 'collocations'³, which are variously called 'word combinations' (Zgusta 1971, Akhmanova 1974, Cowie 1994), 'fixed expressions' (Alexander 1987), 'phrasal lexemes' (Pawley 1985, Lipka 1990) and 'phraseological units' (Ginzburg et al 1979), attracted the attention of theoretical linguists and researchers in lexicography, discourse analysis, language acquisition and foreign language teaching.

It is considered that this interest brought attention to the predominance of ready-made constructions in written and spoken language, and it has been widely discussed in first and second language acquisition and adult language production (Pawley and Syder 1983, Peters 1983). Within the context of L1 acquisition, Ellis (2008) claims that children generally learn language in phrases and then gradually extend the use of the particular verbs within them to other structures. According to this view of L1 acquisition, the child first acquires chunks and then progressively analyses the underlying patterns and generalises them into regular syntactic rules (Ellis 2008: 5) as in Figure 1 below.

³ The definition of collocation is different depending on the researcher. While some researchers divide collocations into lexical collocation and grammatical collocation, some use the term 'collocation' (similar to lexical collocation) to refer to the lexical company a word or phrase occurs with and 'colligation' as the grammatical company that a word or phrase is associated with (Cheng 2012: 82). Here, I verify that the concept of collocation which this study is interested in is grammatical collocation (colligation) rather than lexical collocation.

<Figure 1: First-language acquisition>

(Granger 1998: 157)



Willis (1990) suggests adult foreign language learners also have a similar tendency in SLA, in that they replicate language based on the grammar knowledge which they acquired through exposure. On the other hand, Yurio (1989: 6) argues that L2 learners do not seem to use prefabricated language at early stages in SLA. When they do, they tend to reproduce it relying on memorisation rather than internalising grammar rules, differently from children. However, even if it might be difficult for adult L2 learners to develop their grammar knowledge in the process of learning prefabricated language, many researchers (Cowie 1998, Granger 1998, Meunier, Granger et al 2008) argue that knowledge of prefabricated language is important for L2 adult learners to achieve native-like proficiency, especially those who cannot be exposed to enough real language use. Fillmore et al (1988) discusses that native-like proficiency can be achieved by acquiring knowledge of a stock of prefabricated units, which include various syntactic complexity and internal cohesion. Cowie (1988: 125) claims that foreign learners at low levels often fail to convey their intended message due to a lack of knowledge of lexical and morphological details. It is often noticed that many grammatical sentences which learners make sound unnatural and foreign (Howarth 1998b, Pawley and Syder 1983) - this may result from insufficient knowledge about native-like collocation and idiomaticity. However, as learners' proficiency increases, non-native speakers can gradually produce language paying less attention to morphological and syntactic details. Learning the language in chunks makes it possible for learners to focus less on form than before - they can come to produce morphological and syntactic details quite naturally.

Reflecting these language development views, phraseology does not distinguish the lexis and grammar - it binds words, grammar, semantics and social usage (Ellis 2008: 1). Phraseology has emerged as the study of the structure, meaning, and use of word-combinations. It has developed the description of word-combinations in textbooks on lexical semantics (Cruse 1986), lexicology (Carter 1987, Lipka 1990) and vocabulary in language teaching (Carter and

MaCarthy 1988), and phraseological dictionaries (e. g. Cowie et al 1983, Sinclair and Moon 1989). Phraseological analysis shows that significant parts of communication consist of fixed expressions memorised as formulaic chunks, so fluent language users need to have a vast repertoire of memorised language sequences (Pawley and Syder 1983, Sinclair 1991, 2004, Wray 2002, Meunier and Granger 2008). Porto (1998) suggests that lexical phrases are “an ideal unit for teaching” which “prove highly motivating by developing fluency at very early stages and thus promote a sense of achievement”, and that lexical phrases are “highly memorable for learners and easy to pick up”.

According to Meunier (2002), corpus linguistics has extensively contributed to developing phraseology and improving grammatical descriptions of English in ELT. After Firth, corpus linguistic analyses have shown that natural language makes considerable use of recurrent patterns of words, and constructions and lexical context are crucial to knowledge of word meaning and grammatical roles. Analysis of large quantities of real texts means linguists have access to scientifically measurable evidence of frequency. Through frequency, linguists found that grammatical patterns deal with a range from simple lexico-grammatical combinations (e.g. verb complementation) to complex syntactic patterns (e.g. zero relative clauses).

After Cowie and Hornby, Sinclair has played a leading role in the fields of phraseological research and lexicography by developing a corpus (Zimmerman 1997, Fontenelle 2008, Cheng 2012). He conducted the first computer-based study of collocation (Sinclair et al 1970, 2004), and was well-known in relation to the *Collins Birmingham University International Language Database* (henceforth COBUILD) project and many publications such as dictionaries, grammars, and learning and teaching material. Sinclair points out that “the normal primary carrier of meaning is the phrase and not the word”. When Sinclair and other corpus linguists use the term ‘phraseology’, they use it in an inclusive sense to refer to recurrent patterns of associated words (Ellis 2008:6).

3.2 Phraseology and grammar descriptions

Lexicographical research based on corpus data has brought a new understanding of the need for more accurate language description and has led to “a major reorientation in language description” for language pedagogy (Zimmerman 1997:16). Research in corpus analysis and computational linguistics has also led to considerable interest in the importance of language chunks, variously known as lexical items, lexical phrases, and prefabricated units. Lewis (1993:89) claims that “language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar” and points out that “lexical items are central to language use and should be central to language teaching based on

corpus lexicography”. He emphasises that language consists of multiword chunks⁴, rejecting the concept of a grammar-vocabulary dichotomy, and suggests integration of the communicative approach with a focus on naturally occurring lexis. Ellis (2001; Ellis and Schmidt, 1997) discusses that many parts of language learning are made up of acquiring language chunks- in some cases, even without knowing underlying rules. The basis of this learning is affected by how frequently learners encounter instances of language use. Pawley and Syder (1983) argue that most words are stored many times, once as an individual word and numerous times in large stored chunks. Finding certain language patterns (in this case, meaning the same chunks) in language is related to the study of a concordance. Many examples of the target word in context are categorised and then, this is generalised as a pattern. These generalisations can involve information about the frequency and relative frequency of collocates and groups of collocates, the relationships between the meaning of the collocates, and the grammatical patterns involved (Coady and Huckin, 1997). Kennedy (1990) looked at the frequency of adverbs co-occurring with the word ‘*different*’. He found that the adverbs ‘*very*’ and ‘*so*’ occur with the word ‘*different*’ more often than ‘*fundamentally*’ or ‘*little*’ do. As a further step away from the original raw data, ‘*very*’ and ‘*so*’ can be offered in the entry of the adjective ‘*different*’ in example sentences or as a pattern in a dictionary. As an alternative, frequency information of frequency can be given in a table within the entry. Coady and Huckins (1997) suggest that lexicographers can make grammar rules in “right-sized” chunks of language. These chunks of language can help students learn in an orderly and systematic way about the grammar of the target language. In recent SLA research, this view that language occurs in ready-made chunks (especially in speech) emerges as ‘phraseology’ accommodating a theory of language with syntax.

This view of language brought a significant theoretical and pedagogical change. First, it led linguists and language educators to attribute a central role to accurate language description. Second, it challenged a traditional view of word boundaries, highlighting the language learner’s need to perceive and use patterns of lexis and collocation. However, most noteworthy for this discussion is that language production is retrieval of larger phrasal units from memory rather than a syntactic rule-governed process.

⁴ Phraseology can be explained as theoretical or pedagogical views to see the language and language acquisition. As mentioned earlier, it does not distinguish the lexis and grammar. As Coday and Huckin (1997) defined, the term ‘chunking’ indicates a typical occurrence where the same items are often observed appearing together. A language chunk can be defined based on frequency. However, not all patterns are necessarily to be taught or shown to learners as chunks. Language educators and material developers choose what kinds of pattern needs to be taught or described as chunks for their learners. I believe that components of chunks can be different depending on the language. In Korean, they can consist of a verb and a case marker which the verb requires, or adverbs and connectives which often co-occur in a sentence.

The following examples about usage of the verb *'lead'*, given in Ellis (2008:2-3), show what kind of information linguists or lexicographers can identify based on the analysis of corpus in phraseology and how it can contribute to grammatical descriptions in a dictionary:

1. The subject of the verb *'lead'* is usually animate in conversation and fiction, but in academic written context, where *'lead'* occurs roughly three times more often, 99% of full noun subjects are inanimate and abstract, and this *'activity'* verb commonly has a causative or facilitative sense (Biber *et al* 1999).
2. The verb *'lead'* typically occurs in the pattern *'cause leads to effects'* both in academic or spoken context (Simpson *et al* 2002).
3. The pattern *'lead to'* is not used with human subject and does not appear in the passive.
4. Concerning its semantic prosody (Louw 1993), while the verb *'cause'* which is the synonym of the verb *'lead'* has a negative semantic prosody or association (Hoet 2005), *'lead to'* split between positive and negative objects for *'lead to'* are approximately 50/50 (Johns 2007).

These findings based on corpus analysis show that the transitivity information of the verb would not be enough for foreign learners to use the verb *'lead'* properly, and what kinds of information foreign learners need to know in order to use the verb *'lead'* accurately.

Kennedy (2008) also deals with how the verbs *'start'* and *'stop'* can be differentiated from their synonyms *'begin'* and *'end'*. He found that the verbs *'start'* and *'stop'* are syntactically followed by a word ending in *'-ing'* whereas the semantically related words *'begin'* and *'end'* are less used with words ending in *'-ing'*. This difference of usage between two pairs of synonyms shows that semantically related words can have quite different company in their structures. McCarthy and O'Dell (1999) examine the co-occurrence with animate and inanimate nouns of the adjectives *'terrible'* and *'horrible'* using corpus. They found that the adjective *'horrible'* occurs more frequently with animate nouns, although both adjectives may occur with such nouns. This information can be crucial when lexicographers make decisions about how they present information about the words.

Kennedy (2008: 38) argues that data-driven phraseological information can promote learners' autonomy and reduce the teacher's role to being a facilitator rather than an instructor. For instance, if a dictionary offers the different usages of synonyms, learners do not need to rely on their teachers, and it would also be helpful for non-native teachers who do not have a native speaker's language intuition. However, it is obviously impossible to make explicit the whole complex grammatical, lexical and pragmatic system of a language. It is necessary for lexicographers to decide what information they would include or not, and how to present it in a dictionary. Language descriptions which lexicographers use to model grammar and their attitudes to their data (whether they exclude or include them) could be influenced by the

relationship between their view of language and language learning (McCarthy 1997: 60). Therefore, the approach and principles of where grammatical models start from are an important factor in describing grammar effectively. Granger and Meunier (2008) point out that because something is frequent in the language does not mean it is necessarily worth teaching. The language description should be useful for learners and be both relevant to their areas of interest and reasonable for their level. They suggest that “lexicographers need to make an effort for harmonious combination of technology (corpora, statistical measures, etc.), common sense and teacher’s experience in selecting relevant units for teaching” and present grammatical information in a more accessible format to allow learners to find out answers to their linguistic questions through their dictionaries.

4. Grammatical issues in Korean lexicography

Even though there are numerous studies on Korean grammar in the field of KLT, most research tends to be weighed with teaching certain grammatical items in general rather than specifically dealing with the grammatical descriptions for a dictionary. It is generally agreed that KL adopts a descriptive approach in terms of grammatical descriptions - like other teaching material such as textbooks or grammar books - but grammatical descriptions in a dictionary are different from other teaching material concerning the nature of lexicography (e.g. format, content). The contents of a MLD are recognised as a metalanguage which is written for pedagogical purposes and is designed to offer various information about the entries systematically and according to dictionary policy. Hence, the contents and ways of presenting information in the dictionary are different from other teaching materials. In the field of Korean lexicography (for native speakers), there is considerable research on grammar (morphology and syntax), but most studies do not clearly mention what group of users they target. As pointed out earlier, the contents and presentation of a dictionary are heavily affected by their target users so it is difficult to apply them fully for grammatical descriptions for a MLD. To sum it up, despite numerous studies on grammatical descriptions for foreign learners, few have attempted to address the grammatical descriptions for a learner’s dictionary for foreign learners. Hence, it seems to be necessary for lexicographers to bridge the gap between Korean lexicography, Korean linguistics and pedagogic research in teaching Korean as a foreign language, in order to set up a basis for grammatical descriptions for a dictionary for foreign learners.

Here, I briefly look at some grammatical issues in Korean lexicography in general and discuss what kinds of issues have been considered for grammatical descriptions for compiling a dictionary. I believe that despite the different characteristics of native speakers and foreign learners as target users for a dictionary, I can gain some idea of what grammatical factors and principles I need to consider when I examine grammatical information in the *LDK*, and what approach would be most helpful in order for advanced learners of Korean to learn grammatical

information, from the work of lexicographers on dictionaries for native speakers.

In the field of Korean lexicography, discussions about grammatical information started with Hong Jaeseong from the late 1980s. Hong Jaeseong (1987, 1993) points out the absence of a dictionary for production in the field of Korean lexicography and emphasises the importance of grammatical description in a dictionary. He argues that Korean dictionaries do not provide syntactic information appropriately and the grammar descriptions tend to be inconsistent, insufficient and not explicit. He has dealt with various grammatical items such as verbs (1987, 1988) and predicate nouns (1987, 1993). Hong Jaeseong (1987a) claims that lexicographers should decide the part of speech of a word based on the observation of real linguistic use rather than adopting the traditional convention. For example, in the Korean language, Sino-Korean words such as ‘tahayng’ (lucky) are often classified as nouns, but their linguistic behavior is similar to a root in that they usually work only when combined with an ending such as ‘-ita’, ‘-hata’ or ‘-sulepta’, different from other nouns. Therefore, he suggests that these kinds of nouns need to be described as roots rather than nouns to show their real linguistic properties. His research has also contributed to the grammatical description of verbs. Hong Jaeseong (1987b, 1988) highlights that a dictionary needs to offer syntactic information using code rather than giving information about the transitivity of verbs. He adopts M. Gross and I. Melcuk’s lexico-grammar to describe the sentence pattern of verbs for a dictionary. He proposes that verbs and adjectives need to be classified more elaborately according to their syntactic behaviour, and other parts of speech - adverbs, nouns and endings - should be subdivided, showing their linguistic properties precisely. In addition, Hong Jaeseong (1993) discusses that if verbs are used as both transitive and intransitive verbs, a dictionary needs to show all possible sentence patterns in which the verb can appear, and this information should be presented explicitly and systematically in the dictionary. He strongly suggests that lexicographers need to reflect results from linguistic theory in lexicography in order to offer more reliable and practical information in more effective ways in their dictionaries. His work is highly regarded among linguists, lexicographers and language educators for its contributions to the development of grammatical descriptions in Korean lexicography.

Following on from Hong Jaeseong, many studies such as Han Songhwa (1997a, 1997b), You Hyenkyung (1997), Jeon Jieun and Choi Jaewoong (2008), have been conducted concerning grammar description for a dictionary, especially for predicates (verbs and adjectives). Han Songhwa (1997b) divides defective verbs into three types and discusses how to treat the defective verbs which can be used only in a restricted form. She suggests that a dictionary needs to describe defective verbs differently depending on the degree of their restrictions (see chapter 8). You Hyenkyung (1997) proposes that a dictionary should offer not only compulsory phrases which the verb takes, but also optional phrases such as adverb phrases, when describing syntactic information. She suggests that lexicographers should consider both theoretical issues

and users' convenience when they decide which case frames they will include in a dictionary. Jeon Jieun and Choi Jaewoong (2008) deal with Korean adjectives. They consider all case frames which an adjective can take as a case frame set and classify the adjectives which share the same case frame set as the same type of adjective. They find that most adjectives which share the same case frame set also share the same semantic category. They conclude that case frames are deeply connected to semantic properties so it is possible to classify adjectives according to both their syntactic and semantic characteristics.

Apart from verbs, relatively little attention has been paid to other items. Yang Meynghee (1998) and Kang Hyounhwa (1999) examine Korean adverbs. Kang Hyounhwa (1999) argues that when an adjective is described in a dictionary, its synonyms, derivatives, collocation and pragmatic information also need to be offered in its entry. She suggests that dictionaries should help learners to understand the usage of adverbs by showing the co-occurrence between an adverb and other items which it often occurs within a sentence. Jeong Heejeong (2001) explores how learner's dictionaries describe noun phrases which occur in the form of 'noun 1+ul/lul (object case maker) + noun 2+ulo/lo (adverb case marker)' and 'modifier + noun + case marker'. She argues that these patterns need to be included as a subheading in the entry of a noun. As already mentioned earlier in chapter 1, Koh Kyungtae (2012) studied the indirect quotational marker '-ko' by analysing the native corpus.

As we have seen before, the grammar is generally recognised as the structure of a sentence, so the majority of studies in Korean lexicography have dealt with verbs. Until the late 1980s, Korean verbs had been discussed mainly in terms of classification, such as how to categorise the verbs according to their transitivity, in the field of Korean lexicography. However, many researchers (Jeong Heejeong 1996, You Hyenkyung and Lee Seonhee 1996, Seong Kwangsoo 2001) argue that concerning the characteristics of the Korean verb system, it is difficult to classify verbs based on only transitivity since there are a considerable number of verbs which can be used as both transitive and intransitive verbs. According to You Hyenkyung and Nam Kilim (2009), recently, while lexicographers have started to describe syntactic information offering case frame information for each verb instead of giving information about the transitivity of verbs, (e.g. the *Yonsei Dictionary* and the *LDK*), the main discussion is to what extent lexicographers describe the case frame between compulsory and optional cases rather than discussing the transitivity of verbs. Even though many studies on grammar in the field of Korean lexicography do not state explicitly on which theoretical basis they analyse syntactic characteristics of verbs, it seems to be clear that lexicographers recognise the importance of syntactic information and the need to offer this information on a phrasal level, such as case frames or noun phrases.

In the Korean language system, sentence patterns are mostly classified into two types: case frames and grammatical phrases. In case frames, verbs play the central role in case

determination. The verb will be assumed to be central and the noun peripheral. The term 'grammatical phrase' is quite difficult to define. In English, this concept is designated as a phrasal verb, grammatical collocation (colligation), idiom, or phraseology. In a grammatical phrase, the bound nouns, particles and endings influence the syntactic choices in sentence construction. This special characteristic is derived from the process of grammaticalisation, whereby a lexical word or a word cluster loses some or all of its lexical meaning and starts to take on a more grammatical function (Hopper and Traugott 2003: 1). For example, nouns and verbs which work as lexical items develop over time into grammatical items such as auxiliaries, case markers, inflections and sentence connectives. While they are changing from lexical words into functional words, they can contain the syntactic properties of both lexical and functional words. Therefore, they come to have special restricted syntactic and semantic properties different from their original form. Some Korean educators have found that Korean learners have difficulty using items belonging to grammatical phrases especially because of their restricted syntactic choices. We can note that language educators and lexicographers have similar approaches to teaching grammar, but there have been only few attempts to adopt each other's research.

Some problems found in KL are as follows. Firstly, few studies have been carried out on how the discussion about grammar for foreign learners can be reflected in KL. As Cowie (1998) pointed out, lexicographers need language technology to gain access to linguistic data and linguistic theory, and to help them analyse the data effectively and draw useful conclusions from it. Even though it is universally agreed that a dictionary should describe its contents based on the large native speaker corpus, there is no comprehensive discussion of the theoretical basis on which the data should be analysed and described for grammatical information in a dictionary. As grammar description for native speakers is different from foreign learners, the treatments of grammar description for foreign learners should differ from those for native speakers, but there is no clear recognition of this in KL. Secondly, most research on grammar description tends to concentrate on the description of verbs. It is small wonder that, for lexicographers, verbs take priority over other items, but relatively few studies have been devoted to other items apart from verbs. Especially, the functional elements such as endings seem to be disregarded in KL despite their importance in the Korean language. Lastly, there is no examination about which theoretical approach to take in order to describe grammar in KL, such as how lexicographers view second language acquisition or learners' language development. Therefore, I believe that the attempts which this study makes to reflect foreign learners' needs and difficulties in grammatical descriptions for KL based on user research could be useful to connect KLT and KL, and it could lead lexicographers to recognise the need for communication with other fields.

5. Conclusion

This chapter has examined the reasons why grammatical information would be crucial for L2 learners' encoding activities and how linguists and lexicographers have worked for L2 learners' language development. Corpus-based research has brought advances in lexicography and created new types of dictionaries. Developing possibilities in corpus-based research have provided rich opportunities for researchers to undertake descriptions of language for pedagogical purposes. However, as Cowie (1998) argues, lexicographers need to understand the needs of their target audience if they aim to make language descriptions more accessible and relevant to the people who will use them. Furthermore, lexicographers also need to have a fundamental linguistic basis to analyse and present raw material to fit into the context of their works and make appropriate decisions what extent dictionary provide linguistic information according to proficiency or needs of target users. Therefore, it seems to be necessary for lexicographers in KL to communicate with other fields to identify not only characteristics of the Korean language but also their target users, and to attempt adopting or modifying viewpoints from other fields to compile a more reliable and user-friendly Korean monolingual dictionary for foreign learners.

Learner corpora and SLA

1. Introduction

In this chapter, I look at how learner corpora have contributed to SLA research, especially in the field of the development of teaching materials such as dictionaries and textbooks. In addition, I also discuss reasons why a learner corpus would be an effective tool for identifying the grammatical items which advanced learners of Korean find difficult to use in their production. In previous chapters, the important roles of corpora in language teaching have already been mentioned; this section focuses on the functions of learner corpora in SLA research. The discussion primarily acts to support the reasons for the use of a learner corpus to select grammatical items which this study aims to deal with.

A learner corpus enables us to observe both erroneous and correct use of language. However, it is mostly used to investigate learners' incorrect use of the target language rather than correct use. In order to understand the main principles and functions of learner corpora, therefore, it seems necessary to discuss the fundamental methodology of error analysis. In recent SLA research, the terms such as 'learner language research' or 'learner corpus research' have often been used as alternatives to 'error analysis' in order to avoid association with contrastive analysis, which has been fiercely criticised by many researchers. However, it seems unavoidable to refer to 'error analysis' when we address 'learner corpora' since the idea of a learner corpus is fundamentally based on observation of the learner language.

In this chapter, firstly, I briefly explore what learners' errors can tell researchers and language teachers. Secondly, I examine how views of error analysis have changed over the past decades and also how error analysis has influenced SLA research by looking at the history of error analysis. Thirdly, this chapter investigates the reasons why a learner corpus would be useful for finding out advanced learners' grammatical difficulties by examining the strengths and weaknesses of learner corpora. Moreover, I attempt to identify how learner corpus research differs from previous error analysis research by overcoming some of the limitations of error analysis. Lastly, this chapter reviews some research on learner corpora in the field of KLT in order to explore how this field (KLT) has been influenced by learner corpora. This chapter also seeks ways in which learner corpus research needs to go further to improve lexicography by identifying the gaps of learner corpus research in KLT, especially in KL.

2. Error analysis in SLA

In this section, I discuss two main areas: (1) the definitions and classification of errors; (2) the movements of EA research in SLA. I believe that through the review of these two parts, I can

explore why EA is still useful as a methodology despite its weaknesses, which have been extensively discussed in SLA. This discussion will also help us to better understand the basic principles of learner corpora.

2.1 The definitions and classification of errors

In the field of SLA, the term ‘error’ is used to indicate any incorrect usage which language learners make in their productions (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 138). According to Corder (1967), learners’ errors are crucial indicators to show the current stage of the learner’s knowledge and the ways in which the learner has learned a language. Therefore, by observing learners’ errors, researchers and teachers can gain some insight into what they need to provide for learners to instruct the target language more effectively. Based on this idea, the study of errors is conducted by means of EA.

Errors are categorised by diverse factors. First, linguistic category taxonomies which classify errors according to language components such as phonology, syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style) are commonly used as a tool to report the errors which they have collected. Although some researchers use this as the only this system, many use it to supplement the description of errors using other taxonomies. Second, error classification based on the source of errors is the most popular taxonomy in SLA, but is problematic. For several decades, many researchers have attempted to classify learners’ errors in terms of the source of the errors. The error classification by Richard ignited heated debate in the 1970s and 1980s. Richard (1971b) classified errors into three different kinds: (1) interlingual errors, (2) intralingual errors and (3) developmental errors. He defines that the term ‘interlingual errors’ indicates errors which are caused by differences between the linguistic systems of the learner’s mother tongue and those of the target language. Meanwhile, the term ‘intralingual errors’ signifies the type of errors which are made by learners without interference from the structure of the learner’s mother tongue (Richard 1984: 6). According to Ellis (1994: 58), intralingual errors can show learners difficulties learning new rules of a target system and applying them to their real production. ‘Developmental errors’ refer to the type of errors which occur due to the learner’s incorrect hypotheses about the target language system derived from limited learning experience or a textbook.

With this classification, linguists and teachers started to become interested in interlingual errors which are caused by the difference between the learner’s mother tongue and target language. It gave rise to the long-popular contrastive analysis theory. In the 1970s, EA was considered as a synonym of contrastive analysis (hereafter CA), which predicts learners’ difficulties through the linguistic differences between their mother tongue and the target language. The basic assumption of CA was that errors occurred primarily as a result of interference when the learner transferred native language ‘habits’ into L2. However, CA gave

way to interlanguage analysis (hereafter IA) as this assumption came to be challenged. Whereas CA looked at only the learner's mother tongue and the target language, IA provided a methodology for investigating learner language. Researchers have found that the learner's mother tongue has a far smaller effect on target language syntax than previously thought. For instance, only 5% of the grammatical errors children make and at most 20% of errors which adults make can be traced to crossover from the first language (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 5). Therefore, the mother tongue of learners is no longer considered to interfere with their attempts to acquire second language grammar. For this reason, IA constitutes an appropriate starting point for the study of learner language and L2 acquisition. CA has been in decline in SLA research. Since the decline of CA, many researchers started to pay attention to the intralingual and developmental errors. These two types of errors are seen to be derived from the structure of the target language itself, and the strategy adopted by learners to learn the target language.

The error classification by Richard (1971a, 1971b, 1974) has been widely adopted by many researchers in SLA research for several decades. However, the classification has fatal weaknesses as it is often not applied with sufficient rigour. Where one researcher might identify the source of an error as transfer, another researcher might identify the source of the same error as intralingual. Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) point out that a large number of learners' errors are unclear with regard to source and that 'researchers must be careful when they decide the cause of any given error type'. There have been many attempts to increase the rigour of error explanation but it is still difficult to synthesise the results of attempts to explain errors in learner language (Ellis 1994: 62). Because of this weakness, the reliability of EA as a research tool for investigating L2 acquisition is brought into doubt.

2.2 Error analysis movement

In spite of the considerable criticisms of EA, EA has been widely used to explore various issues related to SLA. Corder (1967: 25) claims that errors can be useful in three ways: (1) errors provide the teacher with an idea of what stage the learner's knowledge is at in the process of development and what learners should focus on; (2) they offer the researcher evidence of what strategies and procedures learners use to learn a target language (3) they can be a tool to test how learners make hypotheses concerning target language learning. Ellis (1994:48) explains that whereas (1) reflects the traditional role of EA, (2) provides a new role that is of primary interest to the L2 researcher because it could shed light on (3), the process of L2 acquisition. In the same vein, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) argue that EA can be useful for two main purposes: (1) it provides data from which implications about the nature of the language learning process can be made and (2) it suggests to course designers or textbook authors methods for developing curricula or textbooks reflecting which part of the target language learners have

most troubles producing correctly (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 138). The attempts to discover more about L2 acquisition through the EA certainly improve language pedagogy.

In the 1970s, the main stream of EA to identify errors where learners are affected by the linguistic differences between their mother tongue and the target language. From this point, EA started to become involved with the study of learner interlanguage and L2 acquisition. CA assumes that learning is to be considered a process of forming automatic behaviour. Errors should be affected by first language habits interfering with the learner's attempts to learn new linguistic behavior (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982:140). Thus, researchers who support CA believe that if they identify the differences between two languages, they can predict in advance the areas in the target language which cause difficulties to learners.

However, teachers and researchers observed that a greater part of students' errors could not possibly be explained with reference to their native languages. For example, Gumperz and Hernandez-Chaves (1971) found that although the rules of Spanish plurals are very similar to English, Spanish-speaking children still go through a plural-less stage when they learn English. In addition, other similar observations were found by many empirical studies. It is found that a considerable proportion of the grammatical errors second language learners produce are similar to those young children make as they learn a first language rather than influenced by the learner's mother tongue. These errors show the development process of how learners acquire their L2 rule system. The CA hypothesis has received little empirical confirmation, especially, in the area of L2 syntax and morphology (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 107), the CA hypothesis has been seriously challenged. According to McCarthy (2001:76), another reason why applied linguists are against CA includes the fact that CA assumes that the L1 causes difficulties and problems in learning L2 and sees learning process based on a passive view. It also believes that learners' performance can be explained and predicted through simplistic comparisons of different languages. However, transfer is a very complex notion and it is better understood cognitive terms of rather than based on CA or behaviorist theory (Kellerman 1995). This idea brought the field of applied linguistics into step with the current cognitive basis.

EA has made a significant contribution to the theoretical consciousness-raising of applied linguistics and language teachers through a cognitive approach (McCarthy 2001: 76). McCarthy (2001) claims that the interlanguage view moves the responsibility for performance features away from the leaden and mechanistic influence of L1, and places the focus more on the actual learners and their cognitive processes. This view has some attraction, since it can offer an explanation for features of performance which seems to be independent of the L1. It has brought the multiple origins or learners' errors to our attention and succeeded in elevating the status from complete undesirability to the relatively special status of research object, curriculum guide, and indicator of learning stage. Cognitive linguists argue that errors could play the role of

allowing the learner to develop and test their own hypotheses about the rules of the target language as an active participant, while simultaneously allowing them to receive hypotheses formed at earlier stages of their mother tongue educating. Based on this theoretical basis, EA has motivated major changes in teaching practices by providing insights into the L2 acquisition process. However, EA with a cognitive approach also faced some criticisms as it cannot offer a complete picture of learner language. It is often argued that EA is not very effective for observing how learners develop knowledge of an L2 over time instead focusing on a certain stage of development

3. Corpus linguistics in SLA research

Corpus linguistics is considered an empirical method of linguistic analysis and description, using real life examples of language data stored in corpora as the starting point (Jackson 2007, Cheng 2012). One of the main advantages of using a corpus is that it provides a much more reliable guide as to how language is used rather than relying on intuition (Hunston 2002: 20). Granger (1998b) highlights three areas which benefit from learner corpora-based research: curriculum design, material design and methodology adjustments. In this section, I will explore the main functions of learner corpora, one of the subfields of corpus linguistics, and discuss how they can be used to improve the contents of teaching material, especially dictionaries.

3.1 The roles of learner corpora in SLA

Learner corpora are electronic collections of authentic foreign language/second language textual data set up according to explicit design criteria for a particular SLA purpose (Granger 2002: 7). The notion of authentic data from non-native speakers is rarely as authentic as native speaker data since the foreign language/second language teaching context usually involves some degree of 'artificiality'. Therefore, free compositions which learners are free to write what they like rather than having to produce items are typically used for learner corpus (Nesselhauf 2004).

The history of using learner corpora in SLA is relatively short though the idea of collecting and analysing learner language is not new. In the late 1960s and 1970s when EA was en vogue, many collections of learner language were collected. However, these collections were usually used only as a repository for errors and not exploited as corpora, so that the text collection itself was usually discarded after the errors had been extracted. This is one of main differences of learner corpora. The collected learner texts in learner corpora are mostly stored in a computer system and are annotated according to what information researchers need to observe. The texts are generally annotated according diverse linguistic categories from morphological level to discourse level. In addition, they are often supplemented with new types of annotation, such as error tagging, which are specially designed to cater for the anomalous nature of learner language. Like error taxonomies, there are also many ways of classifying learner errors and

many possible error tagging systems. One major decision to make is whether to tag errors in terms of their linguistic category (grammatical, lexical etc.) or their source (interlingual, intralingual). The former is arguably preferable in that it involves less subjective interpretation and can be applied with greater consistency and reliability by different analysts.

Although the field of learner corpus research is still very young, it has potential for growth in ELT pedagogy, especially for curriculum design, material design, classroom methodology and language testing. Learner corpora are usually used based on two methodological approaches (Granger 1998, 11-12): contrastive interlanguage analysis and computer-aided error analysis. First, the contrastive analysis consists of possible quantitative and qualitative comparisons between native and non-native data or between different varieties of non-native data using learner corpus. The second method aims to observe errors in interlanguage and uses computer tools to tag, retrieve and analyse them (Granger 1998: 5).

In SLA research, EA is often viewed unfavourably as it harkens back to the era of CA which saw errors as a negative aspect of learner language. Hence, it seems to be necessary to discuss how current EA practice is different from that of the 1970s. Unlike previous EA, there is a new awareness and understanding that EA is not a negative enterprise in SLA research. Nowadays, EA using a learner corpus is a key aspect of the process which takes linguists and language teachers towards an understanding of interlanguage development and one which must be considered essential within a pedagogical framework. Granger (1998:13) argues that error-oriented approaches to learner corpora are differentiated from previous EA studies because they involve a higher degree of standardisation and the data can be reported in the full context of text alongside non-erroneous forms. While former EA was dealt with in a decontextualised context, with a disregard for learners' correct use of the language and non-standardised error typologies, today's EA investigates contextualised errors: both the context of use and the linguistic context is permanently available to the analyst. Since the CA hypothesis has been criticised by cognitive linguists, the appropriate way to find out what learners' difficulties are is to look at the language produced by a certain group of learners and compare it with the language produced by native speakers, rather than to compare the learners' mother tongue with the target language (Granger 2004: 7).

The greatest advantage of learner corpora is that the data is computerised. The computerised data makes for more comprehensive studies. It offers researchers a substantial source of tightly controlled computerised data which can be analysed at a range of levels using increasingly powerful linguistic software tools (Granger 2004: 5). The results are more easily comparable and also more easily verifiable than if each researcher uses a different set of data for their analyses. The usefulness of a learner corpus is directly proportional to the care that has been exerted in controlling and encoding the variables. Any aspect of learner language can then be investigated with respect to the learners' proficiency level, their L1, the medium, text type,

the learning environment in which the language was acquired, the age and gender of the learners, the years of acquisition, the influence of L3s and any other information that the corpus provides. As mentioned above, with a comparable L1 corpus, over- and underuse also can be studied in addition to mistakes and correct forms. With a comparable L1 corpus, the extent to which the learners' difficulties (and non-difficulties) are dependent on their L1 can be investigated.

Secondly, researchers are able to observe the frequency not only of certain items used by learners but also of errors which learners made using learner corpora. In the field of vocabulary teaching, teachers and researchers often have useful intuitions about what does or does not constitute an area of difficulty for learners, but this intuition needs to be borne out by empirical data from learner corpora. In this case, a learner corpus is effective tool to observe what kinds of difficulties learners have or how learners produce target language at what level based on the frequency of types of errors and learners' variables. Learner corpora enable teachers and materials designers to have more reliable information about what learners can be expected to have acquired by what stages and what input they need to provide for their learners by analysing learners' errors.

Thirdly, researchers can observe real production data through learner corpus, while so far many investigations into learner language have been based on more experimental data. According to Granger (2002), what a learner can produce spontaneously is difficult to judge on the basis of experimental data owing to the great gap between the abstract knowledge and the actual performance of language learners. However, Granger (2002: 5) points out that current SLA research tends to be weighted towards experimental and introspective data. It tends to disregard the importance of natural language use data. This might be because it is difficult to conduct experiments with a large number of informants. While experimental data allows investigation into only a few specific aspects of learner language at a time, with learner corpora many aspects can be investigated at once, and more general questions such as the relative frequency of different types of mistakes can be addressed. In addition, it is not necessary to approach corpus data with a hypothesis, so new aspects of learner language can be discovered. In spite of the limitations of learner corpora, the advantages of corpus linguistics outweigh the disadvantages. O'Keeffe and McCarthy (2010) state that corpus linguistic is 'a healthy, vibrant discipline' (O'Keeffe and McCarthy 2010: 12). The key to its success remains the same basic method: 'large quantities of "raw" text are processed directly in order to present the researcher with objective evidence' (Sinclair 1991: 1).

3.2 Pedagogical applications of learner corpora in lexicography

Starting from corpora of native-speaker English, the role of learner corpora in ELT dictionaries has grown gradually. ELT dictionaries could be the first dictionaries which benefit from grammatical analysis using corpus-based techniques. Nesselhauf (2004) found that ELT students

have specific needs, such as full information about grammar, reliable sociolinguistic information about register and information about spoken English through needs analyses. Learner corpora have made it possible for ELT dictionaries to offer explicit information in order to meet learners' demands describing full examples of correct usage which were designed based on common learners' errors. In the mid 1980s, many researchers emphasised the importance of analysing learners' errors in compiling ELT dictionaries (e.g. Maingay and Rundell 1987). In 1987, *Longman* started collecting samples of learners' writing to build a corpus of learners' English planning to use it in compiling ELT dictionaries and other ELT resources. The first dictionary incorporating results from learner corpus analysis was the *Longman Language Activator* (1993). It has been a great success in the dictionary market. For the *Longman Essential Activator*, for example, the *Longman Learner Corpus* was used to identify the most common learner errors, which were then listed in so-called 'help boxes' at the end of the corresponding entry (Gillard and Gadsby 1998:164).

The main task of lexicographers in compiling dictionaries for learners of English would be to predict learners' needs and difficulties and to offer information in a way that the learner can understand (Nesselhauf 2004). A dictionary is only useful if the student can find the information they need in it, and if he can understand the information when he does find it. Learner corpora can help with each of these stages. Nesselhauf (2004) argues that learner corpora would be most useful for improving pedagogic material in many ways.

Firstly, they can be useful for exploring what is particularly difficult for a certain group of learners and for emphasising these points in different material. Researchers can directly observe typical mistakes which learners make according to level, learners' mother tongue and items which are overused and underused by learners. Hence, one of the most important outcomes of learner corpus analysis should be that materials can be made more L1-sensitive. If lexicographers can find more detailed and more comprehensive results about learners' difficulties, these can then be reflected in pedagogic material in several different ways. They could be used to produce a book designed for a particular group of L1 speakers exploring all the mistakes commonly made by learners in that language area and attempting to satisfy their needs. According to the website of *Cambridge Learner Corpus* (henceforce CLC), this is the main basis of the success that *Cambridge University Press* materials in market; they cover exactly the areas of language that learners find difficult. Teachers can be confident that books will cover the specific areas that cause problems for their students. Moreover, a learner corpus is also very helpful for developing a reference book designed for a particular level, for example by providing appropriate help for upper-intermediate students by analysing all the texts produced by upper intermediate learners and very easily observing exactly what mistakes they make. Granger (1999) looked at advanced learners' tense use through a learner corpus and concludes that tense needs to be taught at discourse level instead of sentence level and that, at an advanced

level, tense should partly be looked at contrastively (Granger 1999: 200). A learner corpus could serve as a guide for researchers to decide what should be taught and how to teach certain features by identifying difficulties and useful items for learners.

Secondly, according to website of the *CLC*, learner corpora is reliable source to support researchers or textbook developers when they decide which feature should be particularly emphasised in teaching or even lead to the introduction of hitherto neglected elements. For instance, in the entry for the verb '*mention*', the dictionary can include a help box alerting learners to the fact that whereas both '*mention something about*' and '*mention something*' are acceptable, '*mention about something*' is not. So far, learner corpora using learner English have provided concrete evidence and useful statistics to back up and expand our existing knowledge of learner errors.

Thirdly, learner corpora could provide insights for SLA researchers about second language acquisition revealing the development sequences of learners. Results on developmental sequences can be good data for determining in what order language items should be given in the language classroom and textbooks. If teaching follows the developmental sequence, language acquisition would be better than if it introduces different sequences (Ellis 1994: 632).

Lastly, learners' corpora can be used as data-driving learners in real classroom situations showing other learners' typical errors to students and offering the opportunity to observe and correct them. The data-driven learning is sometimes criticised as it can lead learners to focus on negative evidence, it seems very likely that negative evidence is useful at least to a certain degree and under certain circumstances (cf. for example Ellis 1994: 639). Nevertheless, it can be reasonably speculated that especially in the case of advanced learners, and especially for forms that have become or are becoming fossilised, focused negative evidence can be a good way to aid language acquisition (Granger 1996b:5). And in those cases, where focused negative evidence is useful, data-driven learning has a number of advantages over merely alerting learners to their mistakes. One of these advantages is that asking learners to look for mistakes, or rather for differences in learner and native speaker language, can increase learner autonomy and train the learner's general ability to notice such differences. In addition, such a procedure might also lead to a more positive attitude towards mistakes, because mistakes are then no longer merely a feature that has to be corrected, but also a feature that can be discovered.

Systematic learner corpus research has been carried out and the results have been used to compile or improve dictionaries and teaching materials. A contribution to the selection of what is to be taught can be made not only by identifying difficulties – though this is the most important way – but also by identifying what is particularly useful for learners. Closely linked to curriculum design, the field of materials design also stands to gain from the findings of

learner corpus research. Indeed, in the field of ELT dictionaries, CALL programs and web-based teaching, learner corpus research is already bearing fruit. MLDs stand to benefit chiefly by using learner corpus data to enrich usage notes. The *Longman Essential Activator* is the first dictionary to have integrated such data. It contains help boxes which draw learners' attention to common mistakes extracted from the *Longman Learners' Corpus*. As for BDs, incorporating information from L1-specific error catalogues into the usage notes would represent a significant step forward in tailoring these dictionaries to the particular difficulties experienced by learners from different mother tongue backgrounds.

3.3 Learner corpus research in KLT

Learner corpus research has been given much attention with regard to EA by many researchers in KLT from early 1990s, but this attention alone did not bring about the development of a learner corpus to KLT. Native speaker corpora have been built up by governments and a few organisations in Korea, but the use of learner corpus is still at early stage in KLT. Only very few organisations such as the *NIKL* and *Yonsei University* are in the process of building up learner corpora of a larger size in order to compile dictionaries and teaching materials, the majority of studies related to learner corpora have been conducted based on the corpora developed by individual researchers. Accordingly, the size and type of texts tend to be limited to a certain level.

Under the influence from ELT learner corpora, there has been a considerable number of studies (Kim Cungsook and Kim Youjeong 2002, Seo Sangkyu, Yoo Hyeonkyung and Nam Yunjin. 2002, Kim Youjeong 2005, Lee Seungyeong 2006, Ahn Eunjeong and Han Songhwa 2011) related to methodologies to suggest ways to build and to classify errors in a learner corpus for KLT. Seo Sangkyu, You Hyenkyung and Nam Yunjin (2002) and Kim Yumi (2002) suggested the need to build up learner corpora for KLT and discussed fundamental issues in how to build it in order to fit into the Korean language system and KLT. They aroused researchers' interest in application of a learner corpus in KLT. Kim Cungsook and Kim Youjeong (2002) dealt with methodologies for annotating learners' individual information and error information in a learner corpus. Kim Youjeong (2005) pointed out the problems with tagging and classifying error systems in learner corpus research. She provided some useful suggestions which can be widely used to annotate errors by researchers when they build up individual learner corpora. Lee Seungyeong (2006) explored focusing on the process of setting up learner corpora and suggested the systematic steps which can be applied to analyse and annotate errors for learner corpora. Ahn Eunjeong and Han Songhwa (2011) introduced the process of constructing the *Yonsei University Korean Language Centre Learner Corpus 1* and suggested the methodologies for setting up a learner corpus according to purpose of use by showing how it can be exploited in many different ways in KLT research. This research is especially interesting for learning what

kind of decisions need to be made in the process of building a learner corpus and what criteria were selected based on what principles. As we can see above, significant studies have been conducted into the methodologies for building up a learner corpus. These studies have substantially contributed to bring about an interest in learner corpus research in KLT and to offer fundamental methodologies for applying the principles of learner corpus research in the context of KLT.

In terms of grammatical items, errors of particles and endings have been extensively investigated in KLT (Han Songhwa 2002, Kim Cunksook 2002, Koh Seokju 2002, Kim Jungnam 2006). Kim Cunksook (2002) analysed the use of particles focusing on English speakers, and Koh Seokju (2002) investigated particle errors according to learners' mother tongues such as Chinese, English, Japanese and Russian. Koh Seokju (2002) showed various types of particle errors which were produced by learners who have different mother tongue backgrounds. Han Songhwa (2002) explored nominal and modifier forms using a learner corpus and observed learners' errors in using two items in their production. In terms of learners' mother tongue backgrounds, she found that Chinese learners made nominal and modifier form errors most compared to other mother tongue backgrounds. Her research also argues that while beginner learners made mistakes in using nominal forms, intermediate and advanced learners tended to misuse modifier more in their production. She suggested that the modifier need to be dealt with repeatedly at all levels in order to enhance learners' knowledge. Kim Jungnam (2006) dealt with types of errors focusing on tense and connectives. She classified the error types according to the source (e.g. insufficient knowledge of parts of speech or lack of awareness of the place of tense as a prefinal ending) and suggested which grammatical points need to be emphasised when tense and connectives are taught in real classrooms. Choi Eunji (2011) investigated errors which are caused by learners' lack of knowledge of the characteristics of predicate nouns and suggested requirements for teaching the characteristics of predicate nouns in the language classroom. You Hyenkyung and Seo Sangkyu (2002) observed the use of Korean adverbs according to level of Korean proficiency and found that the use of adverbs among the levels is significantly different. They argued that conjunctive adverbs need to be taught in conjunction with conjunctive connectives. This is because conjunctive adverbs are usually replaced by conjunctive connectives of similar meaning when a learner makes two simple sentences into a complex sentence. For instance, when the conjunctive adverb 'kuliko (and)' is taught in the classroom, the conjunctive connective '-ko (and)' which has same function as the adverb 'kuliko' also needs to be offered.

Apart from methodology and grammatical items, learner corpora have been widely used to examine vocabulary learning (Yang Meynghee 2003, Hong Eunjin 2004), the developmental processes (Kim Miok 2002) and their strategies (Ahn Jooho 2012) in KLT. Although a greater amount of research has been done dealing with wide range of issues using

learner corpora in the field of KLT, it is difficult to see how the research has been reflected in teaching practice in real classroom situations or in improving the descriptions of teaching materials. One of the crucial weaknesses of learner corpus research in KLT is that it mostly only describes the learners' difficulties and classifies them without discussing how the results could be used in KLT. It is clear that learner corpus research investigating learner language using specific grammatical items certainly plays an important role in developing KLT. However, there still seems to be some gaps between learner corpus research and KLT not reflecting their results to real classroom.

Firstly, it is necessary to investigate the shortcomings of existing dictionaries by identifying discrepancies between their content and learner corpus data. These findings could be applied through revision of existing dictionaries or could be the basis for the compiling of a new dictionary. Secondly, more research which applies the results of learner corpus research to lexicography needs to be conducted by lexicographers who are involved in compiling a dictionary but also by researchers outside of the project. Therefore, the dictionaries can be examined and improved in order to reflect various views. This is because sometimes lexicographers do not recognise the real learning context in which their dictionaries are to be used and the problems dictionary users might encounter. Therefore, lexicographers' interpretations of findings from learner corpora can be different from those of educators. If the lexicographers respect the opinions of active educators, they can improve their dictionaries and make them more user-friendly. Thirdly, lexicographers in KL need to share their experience in compiling a dictionary with other researchers and educators. In KLT, information about dictionary compilation tends to be shared by the privileged few researchers who can access the large corpora, while other researchers are not able to access them. If lexicographers actively share their findings with others, they could arouse more interest in lexicography and lead 'healthy debates' in KLT. Furthermore, if researchers and educators had a better understanding of the features of learner corpus-based dictionaries (such as 'help boxes' or 'example sentences'), they could teach learners how to use a dictionary or could themselves use dictionaries more efficiently in a real teaching context.

4. Conclusion

Nowadays, the collection and study of interlanguage corpora are powerful and necessary prerequisites to the understanding of production (Nesselhauf 2004:125). By focusing on output we may be focusing on ways in which learners can play more active, responsible roles in their learning (Swain 1995:126). As to the question of the appropriateness and effectiveness of the use of learner corpora, this chapter suggests that a learner corpus is certainly an effective tool which can contribute to the rehabilitation of learner output and which can enable researchers to conduct more comprehensive research.

It is encouraging to note that gradually the attention of the SLA research communities is turning towards learner corpora and the types of descriptions and insights they have the potential to provide in the field of language teaching. However, the findings from analysis of learner corpus data in KLT and KL have yet to be applied to their full potential. Nevertheless, the number of learner corpus-based teaching materials such as textbooks and dictionaries will increase in the future. In the meantime, researchers and teachers should also be encouraged to make their own exercises or analyses available via learner corpora.

Dictionary user profiles

1. Introduction

This chapter employs mixed methodologies to investigate the characteristics of potential target users of a MLD of Korean for encoding activities, intermediate⁵ and advanced learners, who are the main target users for this study. There are two ways of finding out about the target dictionary user: user profiling and user research (Atkins and Rundell 2008: 28). This study uses both of them in order to identify the main features of target users of a MLD of Korean. While the specific goal of this chapter is to establish a dictionary user profile, I shall also analyse the user research, namely the dictionary compiling project to observe learners' needs for information and presentation in a dictionary, and, in the next chapter, their strategies they adopted to solve their learning difficulties. In order to build a user profile, I used the questionnaire to explore three main areas: (1) target learners' current dictionary use (2) their difficulties and needs for writing activities (3) their dictionary reference skills. However, the use of the questionnaire alone comes with certain restrictions. Because of this, interviews were also used to collect more detailed information which is difficult to gain through questionnaires.

In this chapter, I offer analysis of questionnaire data as well as interviews. By analysing the results, I am able to make some initial observations about how potential target users use their dictionary for their Korean learning and what kind of trouble they have in their production, especially writing. The initial assumption of my research was that even though a BD might be the main reference tool of my target users, their BDs have certain limitations when it comes to satisfying their needs for encoding activities, so it is necessary to develop a more reliable MLD. Therefore, a MLD which is compiled by native Korean lexicographers based on a large corpus could be one of the solutions to meet their needs. In addition, I also assumed that making appropriate sentences by applying grammar rules accurately would be the most problematic task for learners' encoding activities so sophisticated grammatical information would need to be given in a MLD for production. I believe that the results of this investigation confirm my position on the needs for developing a MLD of Korean for encoding activities and emphasising the importance of grammatical information in a dictionary in order to help learners' production.

⁵ Even though the main target users of the dictionary for this study are advanced learners of Korean, I believe that intermediate learners can also use a dictionary since they have an adequate level of Korean proficiency to use a learner's dictionary of Korean. Accordingly, I think intermediate learners can be included as potential users of a learner's dictionary. Hence, I conducted a questionnaire on both intermediate and advanced learners of Korean.

Dictionary use is a highly individual activity. Dictionary users have their own perceptions and strategies, learning from their own experience “how they use a dictionary” including “deciding which entry to look up, searching the entry for the information needed, and either selecting what one hopes is correct information, or moving on to another entry, perhaps in another dictionary” (Atkins and Varantola 2008: 337). According to Atkins and Rundell (2008: 30), ‘user research’ indicates “any method used for finding out what people do when they consult their dictionaries, what they like and dislike about them and what kind of problems they use the dictionary to solve”. It can explore this through a variety of forms, such as questionnaires, classroom observation or experiments in which users participate. Lexicographers need to study the way in which students use a dictionary, and apply the knowledge gained to make some proposals about the contents and format of dictionary entries and about skills required by dictionary users. Therefore, by understanding the characteristics of the main users of Korean MLDs, more tailored grammatical information can be provided for them. The results of the questionnaires and interviews also helped me to set up the criteria for assessing grammatical information in the existing Korean MLD. The questionnaires and interviews were designed to answer the following research questions:

- What type of users are my target users for a monolingual learner’s dictionary for encoding activities?
- How do potential target users currently use their dictionary for their encoding activities?
- What do they think about their dictionaries? How useful do they find their dictionaries?
- What kinds of difficulties do the target users have in their encoding activities, especially writing activities?
- What are their needs for a Korean monolingual learner’s dictionary for encoding activities?

While questionnaires concern the target users’ dictionary use, their general difficulties in writing activities and their existing reference skills, I conducted interviews focusing on their linguistic needs for writing and their opinions on the weaknesses or strengths of their resources for writing activities.

2. Methodology

In this section, I sketch the methods which I used to collect data. According to Ivankova and Creswell (2009), “mixed methods research enables researchers to provide a depth and breadth that a single approach may lack by itself, focusing on the meaningful integration of both quantitative and qualitative data”. Mixed research methods are generally used to find out specific details of phenomena that researchers aim to explore. The quantitative and qualitative data can be integrated or connected at one or several stages in the process of research such as

collecting, analysing or interpreting data to understand research questions more precisely. After conducting the pilot questionnaire, I found that it might be difficult to identify concrete information about what kind of problems learners have when they write and the reasons why they prefer certain dictionaries or information for their writing activities. Thus, I decided to hold follow-up qualitative interviews with some of the subjects who answered the questionnaires to analyse and discuss the results of questionnaires in more depth. I interviewed students who were taking my writing class only. I thought that when I had more information about them such as their ability to write in Korean or their performance in the classroom, I could interview them with a clear idea about what topics need to be covered and what questions need to be asked, so a degree of comparison is possible. In this chapter, the data collection from questionnaire and the analysis are described first, followed by the description of the interview data collection and analysis. The integrating of both results occurs at the interpretation and discussion stage of this chapter. During the discussion of the study's results, I will explain how the results of the interview elaborate or qualify the questionnaire results. This study gives equal weight to the quantitative and qualitative data.

2.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaire studies are extensively used to identify the characteristics of a population by examining a sample of that group. I believe that a questionnaire would be an effective way to look at general features of potential target users for a MLD of Korean and give me some idea of what further questions need to be explored. This questionnaire was designed with reference to Béjoint (1981), Hartmann (1983), Harvey and Yuill (1997) and Atkins and Rundell (2008). It aims to make a profile of intermediate and advanced learners of Korean whose main purpose in using the dictionary is using it for their encoding activities. In the questionnaires, there are two types of items: closed-response items and open-response items. Whereas closed-response questions are designed to look at numerical data to determine the differences and similarities among items using statistical analysis, open-response questions were prepared to explore issues that closed-response questions cannot find out. According to Brown (2009: 205), this type of question is useful when researchers want to know the reasons that respondents gave answers. Researchers can develop and deepen their understanding of the research issue, particularly from the respondents' own emic perspectives through their own words.

A survey was administered in 2010 and 2011, to 79 foreign students in Korean courses, all international exchange students⁶ from intermediate to advanced level at *Korea University*. I

⁶ *Korea University* has an exchange student programme with many universities in other countries around the world. Every year, more than 300 foreign exchange students study at *Korea University* where they have to take a Korean language course that is compulsory for one year. Therefore, most overseas exchange students in higher level writing courses are majoring in Korean language and literature at their universities.

assumed that foreign undergraduates and postgraduates who were taking the Korean composition course would be aware of their reference needs and difficulties for their production more than students in other courses so the survey was mainly conducted on them. As Bogards (1996) and Rundell (1999) argue, dictionaries are hardly used for speaking since it is mostly conducted in instantaneous situations. Therefore, this research concentrated on learners' dictionary use and difficulties in writing activities rather than speaking activities. I should also clearly emphasise that this survey does not aim to compare the dictionary needs of intermediate and advanced learners using a dictionary for writing activities. This is because both of them are considered as potential users of a MLD of Korean. More detailed background information about the respondents is given table 1 in appendix 2.

Almost half of the respondents are Chinese and a majority of them were from Asia. Although the number of foreign learners of Korean has increased rapidly in recent years, the increased popularity of Korean as a foreign language still tends to be limited to areas of Asia. Especially, a majority of students in the advanced level class have Asian backgrounds and quite a few have other backgrounds⁷. This tendency might be related to geographic proximities, cultural ties and how useful it is to be able to communicate using the Korean language in their countries. Almost half of the informants (51.9%) are international exchange students whose majors are related to Korean language and the other half of them are international students who were studying at *Korea University*. Although the composition courses ran for overseas exchange students, international students who have difficulties studying in Korean could take them. The international students are from various departments and just two of them were majoring in Korean language and literature at the University.

The maximum length of stay in Korea for overseas exchange students is one year, so at the point of the study all of them had stayed in Korea for under one year. Most of the exchange students had learned Korean as a foreign language in their own countries before coming to Korea. They wanted to improve their Korean proficiency during their stay in Korea. In contrast, the majority of international students learned Korean in language school in Korea before entering the university, and all of them have *TOPIK* certification at level 4 or above or an equivalent qualification⁸. But they were taking a writing course because they still had difficulties studying in Korean after entering university. The backgrounds of the two groups

⁷ Even though there was a considerable number of foreign learners who were from Europe, America and Africa at *Korea University*, most of them were beginner level. It was difficult for me to meet them in writing courses at intermediate and advanced level. The high percentage of target users from an Asian background could be one of the weaknesses of this research; however, I believe that it could be one of the main characteristics of my target users (intermediate and advanced learners of Korean). In spite of this limitation, I think that the results of questionnaire offer valuable information for understanding the characteristics of target users.

⁸ Korean University requires a certification *TOPIK* at level 4 or above of or an equivalent qualification for international students to enter the University.

were quite different, but their main goal in studying the language was the same: to use Korean for academic purposes.

2.2 Interviews

Interviews are a good way to augment the results of questionnaire since “they allow researchers to probe beneath the surface of things and try to see things from people’s experience, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations at a depth that is not possible with questionnaires” (Richards 2009: 183). This is why the interview is regarded as a core method in qualitative research, where the focus is on the nature of experience. Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2) argue that the “qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them”.

Here, I will explain the background of the composition courses which the interviewees were taking to help understand the results of interviews. In this course, I encouraged students to expand their active vocabulary and to improve their autonomous writing skills. In the first week, I briefly introduced different kinds of resources which they could use for their writing – such as a corpus or search engine – and explained how to use them. The students were supposed to correct their own mistakes in their writing themselves during the course. I believed that it was necessary to teach them what kinds of resources they could use to do their assignments. In addition, I also wanted to observe what resources students use for what reasons, and to know what advantages and disadvantages each resource has respectively for students’ writing. Hence, I gave them a list of twelve references which I thought would be useful for students. The list of references for students is given table 2 in appendix 2.

The students completed one piece of writing about given topics almost every week and handed in their writing to me. The mark they got for these assignments represented 20% of the total mark allowance. There were three stages necessary to complete one assignment in this course. In the first stage, I did not correct students’ errors after collecting students’ work, instead, I underlined their errors and gave a code to each error according to what error types they were. Eight codes were used to indicate these types of errors, as given in table 1 below:

< Table 1: Error codes >

1. ehwi: choice of vocabulary	2. munpep: grammar
3. sayoungyek: register	4. macchwumpep: orthography
5. ttuyessuki: word spacing	6. sakcey: deletion
7. nayingong: adding more content	8. tasissuki: revising a whole sentence

Also, I gave them a separate score in four areas (grammar accuracy, richness of vocabulary, contents and cohesion) for their writing (A+, A, B+, B, C+, C, D+, D, F⁹) and made general comments about their writing. This allowed students to check the strengths and weaknesses of their writing. In the second stage, the students obligatorily had to submit their assignment again after they had corrected all their errors themselves. In this step, I corrected all their errors and gave comments or explanations as to why they were not right. For the next stage, after students received their work again, they checked if their corrections were right or not, and how their errors were corrected by the teacher. Then they rewrote and submitted their work again. When students had completed the second stage, they were considered to have finished their assignment successfully. Even though the third stage was optional, most students were willing to hand in their rewriting. Students completed fifteen assignments during the course and these procedures were very strenuous for both the students and the teacher.

As Lewis (2002) pointed out, there are many students at advanced level who are relatively fluent, but highly inaccurate, so I thought that these procedures would enhance students' awareness of language accuracy and develop their problem-solving skills related to their Korean learning, especially writing. I also assumed that these procedures would enable my students to be more aware of their difficulties in writing and their need for resources which could assist their writing activities.

I aimed to investigate the following during interviews:

- What kinds of difficulties students encounter in their writing and in correcting their errors
- What students think about their ability to correct mistakes and solve their language problems
- What resources students use to write and to correct their mistakes and why
- How useful students' reference works are for their writing and for correcting their errors

These interviews were conducted with seventeen students in the advanced level 1 (level 5 of total 6 level) and level 2 Korean composition courses for international exchange students which I taught for sixteen weeks (include mid-term and final exam weeks) at *Korea University*. This is a two-credit course and lectures were given twice a week (each time for 90 minutes) during the semester. I interviewed these seventeen students in the fifth week after the mid-term exam.

Table 3 in appendix 2 shows the summary of the background information of the interviewees. I refer to the participants by the combination letters and numbers displayed in the first column. The first letter in the sequence displays gender (M= Male; F= Female) and the second denotes the student's position (O= Overseas student; E=Exchange student). As for the

⁹ 'F' indicates 'fail'.

third letter, this stands for which programme they are taking at the university (U=Undergraduate; P=Postgraduate) and the fourth letter indicates the major of the interviewee (K= Korean language O= Other). The individual students were then numbered (01, 02 etc.) to distinguish between them. A majority of students in my test-group were Chinese and one third of them were exchange students. Ten students were majoring in Korean language at their university. Most of them wanted to teach Korean in their country or to get a job in which they can use Korean in the future.

I started to interview the students after their mid-term exam. I believed that students would answer questions related to their writing more accurately while they were attending a course because they were still involved in the course. I did not inform the interviewees that it was an interview for my research because if they knew that it was part of the lecturer's research, they might try to look for answers to help me. Therefore, the students thought that it was a consultation about their writing and study skills after the mid-term exam. For the interviews, I had copied all their writing exercises and recorded the scores for their work. I showed them their writing and scores before starting the interview and gave interviewees some time to think about their writings. All the interviewees had an interview of their own will. Most of them appreciated having an opportunity to talk to a native Korean lecturer about the difficulties they encountered in their writing. All interviews were conducted in the Korean language because there was no medium language between me and the students apart from Korean. All their comments were written in my notebooks rather than recorded since some of them did not want me to record their interviews¹⁰. The interviews were held in the form of a semi-structured interview. The main questions for the interviews were prepared in advance and some were added depending on interviewees' individual circumstances such as their Korean proficiency or the kinds of difficulties they had.

3. Results and analysis

In this section, I present the results of questionnaire and interviews. The results of questionnaire are stated first and interview descriptions follow.

3.1 Questionnaire analysis

The results of the survey are presented question by question. They are given in both frequency

¹⁰ In pilot interviews, I found that students tended to feel uncomfortable when they realised that all their comments were being recorded by the teacher. In addition, when I explained the reason why I was recording them (as part of my research) students seemed to try giving answers which they thought I might expect from them. Some students did not want me to record their comments because they were ashamed of their Korean proficiency. Therefore, I decided to take a note of their comments rather than recording them in order to interview students in a more natural setting.

and percentage. The questionnaires were described dividing into three parts: (1) dictionary use, (2) writing activities and dictionary information and (3) dictionary reference skills. There are some open response items which ask respondents to answer in their own words in the questionnaire. I grouped similar answers together and presented them with the number of how many subjects gave similar comments. All subjects answered to open response questions in Korean: I have translated their responses into English.

3.1.1 Dictionary use

1. What kind of dictionaries do you use most often for Korean learning?

In terms of the dictionary's medium, only three students use paper dictionaries and a majority (65.9%) use electronic dictionaries most often. Also a few of the students (30.5%) answered that they most often use online dictionaries. Based on the results, convenience (having a portable dictionary) seems to be most important consideration when students choose their dictionaries.

< Table 2: Type of dictionary learners used most >

The kind of dictionaries		Percentage (%)
Paper dictionary	(Korean-Mother tongue)	3.8
Electronic dictionary	(Korean- Korean)	10.1
Electronic dictionary	(Mother tongue- Korean)	8.9
Electronic dictionary	(Korean-Mother tongue)	45.6
Electronic dictionary	(Korean-Other language)	1.3
Online dictionary	(Korean-Korean)	17.8
Online dictionary	(Korean-Mother tongue)	12.7
Total		100

From the viewpoint of the dictionary's language, the overall results are: 62.1% use a Korean-mother tongue dictionary, 27.9% use a Korean monolingual dictionary and 8.9% use a mother tongue-Korean dictionary most often. Only one informant reported that he used Korean-other language dictionary most often because there is no BD for Korean and his mother tongue. The users' strong preference of target language-mother tongue BD is similar to the findings of Baxter (1981). Also, it is notable that some of them prefer to use a monolingual dictionary for their Korean learning but there are no users of MLDs for foreigners. All of them use a monolingual dictionary for native speakers contained in their electronic dictionary or available online.

2. Why do you use the dictionary you chose in question 1 most often?

This was a completely open question. Among the remarks that were made, the most common were give in table 3.

< Table 3: Learners' comments on each type of dictionary I >

Type of dictionary	The reasons to use each type of dictionary most often	The number of respondents
Electronic dictionary	1. It is easy to carry.	20
	2. I can find information quickly.	7
	3. It contains various versions of dictionary so I can use them according to my needs.	6
	4. It is convenient to use.	4
	5. It has many extra functions.	2
Online dictionary	1. It is easy to carry	6
	2. It offers various versions of dictionary so I can use them according to my needs.	2

According to these results, students prefer an electronic dictionary because it is handy to carry and offers various kinds of dictionaries. Nowadays, most students can easily access various versions of dictionaries online or electronically and convert the format in at least three seconds according to their needs. They have wide range of choices available to them when they are searching for language information.

< Table 4: Learners' comments on each type of dictionary II >

Type of dictionary	The reasons to use each type of dictionary most often	The number of respondents
Korean-mother tongue dictionary	1. I use it when I check the meaning of unknown words.	6
	2. It offers detailed and accurate information	5
	3. It is useful for reading.	4
	4. It is easy to understand.	4
	5. I use it when I translate text from in Korean to in my mother tongue.	1
Mother tongue-Korean dictionary	1. I use it when I want to express something but I do not know it in Korean.	2
	2. It is useful for writing or speaking.	1
Korean monolingual dictionary	3. I use it for checking spelling	3
	1. It offers rich and detailed information.	3
	2. I sometimes cannot find a high level of vocabulary in my bilingual dictionaries but it contains more vocabulary than mine.	2
	3. The example sentences in the dictionary are useful.	1
	4. I believe that if I read the definition of a word in Korean I would learn more words and get used to the structure of Korean sentences.	

Concerning the use of language in dictionary (see table 4 above), like many studies (Al-Kasimi 1977, Baxter 1980), learners of Korean also seem to use Korean-mother tongue dictionaries for their decoding by checking the meaning of unknown word. Based on their comments, they use mother tongue-Korean dictionaries for their encoding activities. However, it is not very clear what kind of activities respondents use a Korean monolingual dictionary for. As three of the students mentioned, a monolingual dictionary for native speakers would offer more vocabulary

than their bilingual one. Thus, students could use it to look up low frequency words or technical terms. Also three students mentioned that it offered more detailed information, though they did not indicate what 'detailed information' meant concretely. Therefore, it is difficult to say what activities monolingual dictionaries would be useful to foreign learners of Korean only based on the results of these questions.

3. What information do you think is the most important in Korean dictionaries for your Korean learning? Please check five items in order of importance.

Fourteen attributes of Korean dictionaries were suggested in the questionnaire, and informants were asked to choose five items from this list in order of importance for their Korean learning. The ranking of responses in the multiple-choice questions were analysed using SPSS 19.0. For each respondent, a first place rank was assigned a maximum score of 500 with scores decreasing by 100 with each rank, (for instance, second place was assigned 400, the third place was assigned 300, etc) and with zero given to unranked items. A scoring system was used in order to take into account both the number of students selecting each attribute, whilst taking the importance attributed to each item into account. The higher ranking is a reflection of the fact that it was selected by more people than other items.

According to the results, the most important information in Korean dictionaries for students is obviously 'meaning of word'. 'grammatical information' came second, followed by 'example sentence'. 'Orthography' was ranked fourth followed by 'pronunciation'. The top three items had scores that were much higher in magnitude than the others, which suggests that these are, by far, the three most important items for students learning Korean. The scores also indicate that orthography has about the same importance as pronunciation.

The results indicate that foreign learners recognise that the main function of dictionary is the checking the meaning of words. This might be related to the preference of Korean-mother tongue dictionaries noted in earlier. 'Grammatical information' is the second important information to foreign learners. Grammar is mainly used for encoding but it is also used to interpret Korean texts as well. We can see the 'grammatical information' is crucial for learning Korean. Here, the importance of example sentences is not surprising because they are main clues to foreign learners in identifying the meaning of the word for decoding and the usage of vocabulary for encoding (Bogaard 1999 or see question 8 in writing activities and dictionary information). In short, these results show that the meaning of words and information about grammar are crucial tasks to figure out to advanced learners for their Korean learning.

< Table 5: Learners' most important items in their dictionaries >

P=points F= frequency N=79

Ranking Items	1st F	P 500	2nd F	P 400	3 rd F	P 300	4th F	P 200	5th F	P 100	Total	Importance Rank
1. Meaning of words	72	36,000	5	2,000	1	300		0	1	100	38,400	1
2. Pronunciation	1	500	6	2,400	6	1,800	8	1,600	7	700	7,000	5
3. Grammatical information	1	500	31	12,400	20	6,000	7	1,400	7	700	21,000	2
4. Collocation		0	4	1,600	6	1,800	5	1,000	10	1,000	5,400	7
5. Idioms		0	4	1,600	5	1,500	4	800	6	600	4,500	8
6. Example sentence	2	1,000	20	8,000	19	5,700	15	3,000	5	500	18,200	3
7. Synonym	1	500		0	2	600	1	200	7	700	2,000	10
8. Antonym		0		0	1	300	3	600	2	200	1,100	13
9. Korean culture		0		0	3	900	4	800	1	100	1,800	11
10. Word frequency		0	1	400		0	4	800	1	100	1,300	12
11. Etymology		0	1	400	1	300	1	200	2	200	1,100	13
12. Picture and photo		0		0	8	2,400	1	200		0	2,600	9
13. Register	1	500	2	800	7	2,100	11	2,200	11	1,100	6,700	6
14. Orthography	1	500	5	2,000		0	15	3,000	19	1,900	7,400	4
Total	79	39,500	79	31,600	79	23,700	79	15,800	79	7,900	118,500	

3.1.2 Writing activities and dictionary information

Whereas the previous section examined students' general dictionary use, this section will deal with learners' writing activities and dictionary information. The answers were arranged according to frequency, percentage and ranking.

1. What is the most difficult activity when writing? Please check three items in the box in order of difficulty.

The subjects were given seven items and asked to choose three items in order of difficulty. For writing, the structural cohesion between sentences or paragraphs, or content are also important factors. However, it is important to mention that this questionnaire only focuses on the sentence level rather than discourse or whole structure of writing. The response were scored and ranked in a similar way to the previous section using SPSS 19.0, the only difference being that participants were invited to select three options with the maximum score 300.

According to the results, ‘making a sentence grammatically correct’ was considered the most problematic issue in students’ writing, while ‘finding right Korean word’ came second and this was followed by ‘using various expressions’. ‘Making a long sentence’ is the fourth most important item here – the scores for 2-4 are very similar.

The results indicate that learners have difficulties in making a sentence grammatically correct in their production. Considering the process of writing, the result that ‘finding right word’ is ranked as second is reasonable since this might be the crucial decision which learners need to make in order to produce a sentence in Korean. The third ranked item ‘using various expressions’ indicates that learners are concerned about the size of their active vocabulary and richness of expression of their production. Aside from these three items, ‘making a long sentence’ is ranked as the fourth most difficult item in writing and ‘spelling word out’ is the fifth. On the other hand, the ‘register’ and ‘collocation’ remain relatively insignificant. It is quite surprising that the ‘spelling word out’ holds a higher rank than ‘register’ or ‘collocation’ for intermediate and advanced learners.

< Table 6: Three most difficult activities for learners writing in Korean >

P=points F= frequency N=79

Ranking Items	1 st F	P 300	2 nd F	P 200	3 rd F	P 100	Total	Difficulty
1 Spelling word out	11	3,300	4	800	5	500	4,600	5
2. Finding right Korean word	21	6,300	8	1,600	10	1,000	8,900	2
3. Using right expression according to register	8	2,400	1	200	7	700	3,300	6
4. Making a sentence grammatically correct	18	5,400	31	6,200	9	900	12,500	1
5. Using various expressions	11	3,300	18	3,600	17	1,700	8,600	3
6. Using collocation correctly	1	300	2	400	7	700	1,400	7
7. Making a long sentence	9	2,700	15	3,000	24	2,400	8,100	4
Total	79	23,700	79	15,800	79	7,900	47,400	

2. When you write in Korean, where do you get help? Please check all items which you use to get help.

The three main resources which students draw on to get help for their writing are ‘a dictionary’, ‘Korean text book’ and ‘teacher’ in decreasing order of frequency. The results show that a dictionary is obviously a major reference tool for writing. The students rely on their teachers to help them with their writing but they seem to try to solve their problems themselves before asking teachers for help. Interestingly, even though students answered that ‘making a sentence grammatically correct’ was chosen as the most difficult task for them, the number of students who refer to grammar books for writing purposes is relatively low. The reason is not clear, but learners are likely to prefer dictionaries and textbooks as reference tools rather than grammar books. The result could imply that even though there are many grammar books for learners, a dictionary for encoding needs to deal with grammatical information since it seems to be main resource for learners’ writing activities.

< Table 7: Learners’ main ways to get help when they write >

Kind of resource	Percentage (%)
Dictionary	25.6
Textbook	21.8
Teacher	19.9
Grammar book	13.7
Friend	10.9
Other	2.8
Total	100

3. What information is the most important when you write? Please choose three items in order of importance.

Whereas question 1 dealt with the writing activities at a sentence level, this question focused on the types of information in dictionaries used for writing purposes. The subjects were given eight items and asked to choose three items in order of importance. The items were ranked in the same scoring system as described in the previous section using SPSS 19.0. Table 8 shows that ‘grammatical (syntactic) information’ was ranked as most important for learners writing in Korean, ‘examples’ were the second, while ‘Korean equivalent of word in my mother tongue’ was the third. Again, these results indicate the importance of grammar for encoding activities.

Reasonably, learners’ writing difficulties are associated with the importance of information for writing. It is obvious that both ‘use of grammar’ and ‘identifying the Korean equivalent of a word in the learners’ mother tongue’ are problematic tasks for learners of Korean for their production based on the results of questions 1 and 2 in this section. Since ‘example’ can show various other types of information including ‘grammatical information’, ‘collocation’ or ‘register’, it is no wonder ‘example’ is in the second place. Apart from three items, ‘verb inflection’ information and ‘orthography’ ranked fourth and fifth respectively. Like

the results of other questions, ‘register’ and ‘collocation’ tended to be comparatively disregarded by learners for their writing and do not seem to be serious issues for intermediate and advanced learners’ writing activities.

< Table 8: Three most important kinds of information when learners write >

P=points F= frequency N=79

Ranking Items	1st F	P 300	2nd F	P 200	3 rd F	P 100	Total	Importance
1. Parts of speech	7	2,100	2	400	5	500	3,000	8
2. Verb inflection	4	1,200	16	3,200	8	800	5,200	4
3. Korean equivalent of word in my mother tongue	8	2,400	7	1,400	16	1,600	5,400	3
4. Grammatical information (Syntactic information)	30	9,000	20	4,000	13	1,300	14,300	1
5. Collocation	5	1,500	7	1,400	8	800	3,700	6
6. Register	4	1,200	6	1,200	10	1,000	3,400	7
7. Orthography	11	3,300	5	1,000	8	800	5,100	5
8. Example	10	3,000	16	3,200	11	1,100	7,300	2
Total	79	23,700	79	15,800	79	7,900	47,400	

4. Do you think your dictionary is helpful for your writing?

Interestingly, a majority of respondents (92.4%) think their dictionaries are helpful for their writing. The question thus leads us to ask what kind of information they think is helpful and, in view of what they feel is most important based on previous responses, whether they really get enough grammatical and sentence pattern information from their dictionaries. These questions will be discussed in the next question.

< Table 9: Learners’ opinion about their dictionary for writing >

Response	Percentage (%)
It is very helpful	59.5
It is quite helpful	32.9
It is not helpful	7.6
It is not helpful at all.	0
Total	100

5. What information do you find is the most helpfully described in your dictionary? Please choose three items in order of usefulness.

The students were asked to choose the three items which they find most helpfully described in their dictionary in order of usefulness. The method of analysis was the same as the previous multiple-choice questions. Students found that ‘example’ was the most well described information in their dictionaries and ‘Korean equivalent of word in my mother tongue’ was second and ‘orthography’ was the third place after that.

< Table 10: The three most useful kinds of information for learners’ writing in dictionary >

P=points F= frequency N=79

Ranking item	1st F	P 300	2rd F	P 200	3rd F	P 100	Total	Importance
1. Parts of speech	6	1,800	8	1,600	13	1,300	4,700	6
2. Verb inflection	7	2,100	4	800	5	500	3,400	7
3. Korean equivalent of word in my mother tongue	20	6,000	12	2,400	6	600	9,000	2
4. Grammatical information	8	2,400	13	2,600	11	1,100	6,100	4
5. Collocation	5	1,500	13	2,600	8	800	4,900	5
6. Register	1	300	4	800	7	700	1,800	8
7. Orthography	18	5,400	7	1,400	10	1,000	7,800	3
8. Example	14	4,200	18	3,600	19	1,900	9,700	1
Total	79	23,700	79	15,800	79	7,900	47,400	

Based on the results, ‘example’ seems to be the most useful category of information. ‘Korean equivalent of a word in my mother tongue’ is also recognised as relatively more helpful than other items. The ‘orthography’ information ranked as the third useful information. Concerning the grammatical information, which subjects also chose as the most problematic and important, the results seem to suggest that students’ satisfaction about ‘grammatical information’ in their dictionaries is relatively low compared to their assessment of their importance for writing. These results imply that beside ‘example sentences’, the learners mostly used their dictionary to find out the ‘Korean equivalent of a word in my mother tongue’ and ‘the spelling of the words’. Even though many studies indicate that learners try to find out grammatical information from example sentences, the reasons why subjects reported it as the most useful information or what information they found out from ‘example’ is difficult to find out relying on only these results.

Since the majority of the students said that their dictionary is helpful for their writing and selected example sentences are the most useful, the results suggest that the example sentences help learners to find the information they need.

Here, a question arises: How do they get grammatical information from their dictionary? At the questionnaire design stage, I assumed that learners might get grammatical information from example sentences. I include this question in the questionnaire. This question will be answered in the next two questions and in interviews.

6. Do you think sample sentences in the dictionary are helpful for your writing?

A majority of students (72.9%) think that example sentences in their dictionaries are helpful for their writing, but some (27.9%) do not. Many of the students gave reasons for their opinion in question 7.

< Table 11: Learners' opinions about example sentences in dictionaries >

Response	Percentage (%)
It is very helpful	22.8
It is quite helpful	49.4
It is slightly helpful	26.6
It is not at all helpful	1.3
Total	100

7. Please write down the reason for answer to question 6.

This was a completely open question. I divided the responses into two categories: positive and negative comments (see table 4 in appendix 2). According to the results, students use example sentences as a crucial means of learning about the usage of words and grammar, sentence patterns, idioms and registers for their writing. In addition, foreign learners seem to be able to recognise not only usefulness but the drawbacks of example sentences well. Interestingly, some students made comments that the example sentences in their BDs are incorrect and are not used in Korean native speakers' real communication.

On the other hand, some students believe that example sentences in monolingual dictionaries are more accurate than BDs because they are written by native Koreans. The results show that foreign learners use their dictionary for encoding as much as for decoding and that they use sample sentences to find out how they can use vocabulary correctly. Moreover, although they answered that they are quite satisfied with sample sentences in their dictionary, many of them are still discontented with the reliability and usefulness of example sentences especially in their BD.

3.1.3 Dictionary Reference skills

In this section, I offered four questions related to learners' dictionary reference skills.

1. Did you read the guidance notes for using the dictionary carefully?

According to these results, 63.3% of the informants answered that they had read the guidance notes for using the dictionary. However, a few of the students (36.7%) did not read them at all. Although the dictionary is a major reference tool for students, they do not seem to be well acquainted with the usage of dictionaries.

< Table 12: Responses to questions about reading guidance notes >

Response	Percentage (%)
I read them carefully	17.7
I looked though them quickly	45.6
I did not read them at all	36.7
Total	100

2. The following codes are used in identifying information about sentence patterns.

Have you seen these codes in your dictionary? Do you often use this information?

N0 N1ul V

(S-O-V)

1i 2lul 3eykey cwuta

(S-O-Dative-V)

< Table 13: Responses to questions about syntactic codes >

Response	Percentage (%)
Yes→Yes	24.1
Yes→No	27.8
No	48.1
Total	100

Half of the respondents (51.9%) answered they have seen the sentence pattern codes and less than half of them (24.1) often use them. Also it appeared that the half of the students (48.1%) have never seen the sentence patterns codes. The reasons students are not familiar with them might be, firstly, that they did not read the contents of their dictionary carefully. Secondly, that their dictionaries do not offer coded syntactic information. I do not know which is the case from their responses. Overall, the figure shows that 75.9% do not use this information at all.

These results will be frustrating to lexicographers, considering their efforts to design such coding systems. However, there is some hope because, interestingly, the proportion of students who have seen these codes and use them often exactly corresponds to the percentage of respondents who think grammar and sentence pattern information are most helpful in their dictionaries.

3. The following codes show how you can use verb ‘cwuta (to give)’. Do you think following codes would be helpful for your writing?

- a. N₀ N₂eykey N1ul cwuta N₀= person, N₁= thing, N₂= person, animal, place
(S-Dative-O-V)
- b. li 2lul 3eykey cwuta 1= person, 2=thing, 3=person, animal, place
(S-O-Dative-V)

< Table 14: Response to questions about usefulness of syntactic codes >

Question 3	Question 4	Question 5	Percentage (%)
Yes	Yes	Yes	17.7
Yes	Yes	No	6.3
Yes	No	Yes	25.4
Yes	No	No	2.5
No		Yes	29.1
No		No	19
Total			100

The results indicate that the majority of students (72.2%) think the syntactic codes would be helpful for their writing. 27.8% of students answered that it would not be useful. Only 6.3% students who used syntactic codes often found that they were not helpful. 25.4% who do not use syntactic codes and 29.1% who have never seen syntactic codes think that syntactic codes would be helpful for writing. Overall, the students’ attitudes towards syntactic codes are more positive than I expected.

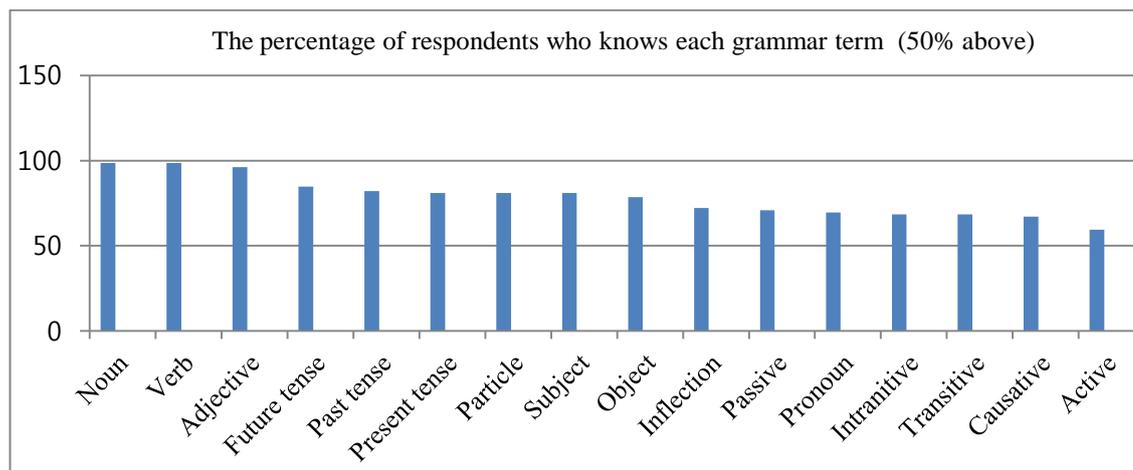
4. These are grammar terms which are necessary for you learn when using dictionary.

Please circle items which you already knew.

Over 50% of students know 16 (see figure 1 below) out of 27 grammar terms. Besides the grammar terms in figure 1, there were 11 more grammar terms were offered in the questionnaire: ending, modifier, numeral, bound noun, auxiliary verb, adverb, complement, prefix, suffix, predicate, retrospective. It is quite surprising that a majority of students frequently use the dictionary and read guidance notes but they do not seem to know much about these grammar terms. The term ‘modifier’ or ‘adverb’ is often used in intermediate or advanced classroom but students do not seem to recognise the terms.

According to results, learners know the basic grammar terms to learn Korean language such as ‘noun’, ‘verb’ or ‘adjective’. Language learners can learn the rules of grammar without knowing the specific grammar terms. However, it is still questionable if learners do not know the terms ‘subject’, ‘object’, ‘passive’, ‘active’, how they understand their function when they learn the Korean language. These results suggest that lexicographers should reconsider their use of grammar terms when presenting syntactic information in a dictionary.

< Figure 1: The percentage of respondents who knows each term >



3.2 Interview analysis

The answers are grouped under relevant topics and how these topics can be organised to produce a naturally developing line of exploration. I gave the reference number of the interviewee who made the comment in front of the comment and the reference numbers of those who made similar comments at the end of the comment.

I now comment on two problems I encountered during the interviews. Interviews were conducted and notes were taken in Korean. When translating their comments into English, it is difficult to avoid modifying interviewees' own words in the English translation. I tried to translate interviewees' comments as accurately as possible, but some comments are difficult to translate directly to English. I believe, however, that the strengths of this study are demonstrated by the extent and detail of the answers which may be derived from the database. The transcription of interviews is given in appendix 3.

3.2.1 Learners' difficulties in writing activities

(1) Writing activities

a. The use of functional words and grammar rules¹¹

In keeping with the results of the questionnaire, all interviewees answered that using functional words and getting the grammar right are the biggest challenges for their writing. The comments of interviewees are given (1)-(3) in appendix 3.

¹¹ The concepts of functional words and grammar rules are different. However, interviewees do not distinguish clearly between them. In the Korean language, functional words generally refer to endings, connectives, particles and phrasal verbs which are in the process of grammaticalisation. The grammar rules generally indicate concepts such as 'the rule for the passive form' or 'the rule for the negative form'. For learners, the term 'grammar' seems to include both concepts. I use the term 'grammar' as interviewees used in description here.

Most students reported that they learned a lot of functional words and grammatical rules at their university or in the language school, but they still do not know how to use most of them correctly. I found that many students did not take the importance of accurate language use seriously until intermediate level. At this level, while they were taking a writing course and correcting their errors themselves, they started to recognise that grammatical accuracy is one of the main criteria used to determine their language proficiency. In the case of international exchange students, most of them did not have writing courses at their university. They did not have many opportunities to write long essays and to have feedback about syntactic accuracy of their production. Some of students commented that most of their lectures at their universities are also given by non-native Korean speakers. It might be difficult for them to instruct advanced learners' writing courses. According to students, their lecturers at their universities recommended that they take a Korean writing course and learn writing skills during their exchange programme in Korea. In addition, even though some universities had native Korean lecturers, they did not run composition courses for advanced learners.

Many of the interviewees commented that they were very shocked when they found that their production was full of grammar mistakes. Interestingly, during the interviews, most students said that their Korean proficiency in grammar use is likely lower than their current level. Many students mentioned that whereas they do not have serious problems in understanding the functional words and grammatical rules which they have learned in listening and reading activities, they are not very confident in using the grammar appropriately in speaking and writing in accordance with syntactic rules and register. These comments indicate that the knowledge of decoding activities is certainly different from the knowledge of encoding activities.

There were six international students who had already finished the advanced level in language school but who took the Korean language course again because they had trouble studying at university using Korean. Most of them were under stress due to the language barrier they encountered when studying at university. My observations, based on their performance, suggested that their language problems were derived from the lack of basic syntactic knowledge rather than poor knowledge of academic Korean. When I asked them how they could complete the advanced level course in their language school, most of them answered that they could pass the exam by memorising the sentences and expressions which they needed to use on the exam for writing and speaking. However, they realised that this strategy is not effective in helping them in discuss work with their classmates, make a presentation or write essays in their real academic life.

MEUKI (see (4) in appendix 3) also gave an example related to his comments.

According to him, he knew that the functional word ‘-nun twung manun twung¹²’ is used to describe an unclear state of affairs or unsuccessful behavior. Hence, he did not have serious problems in understanding the meaning of this construction, nor the writer’s intention, in a sentence in which this phrasal verb is used. However, when he wanted to make a sentence using this, he realised that he did not know its syntactic rules and context of use at all. He told me that suddenly he felt that he did not know anything about this phrasal verb except its meaning. According to him, he looked it up in his BD to find out the information needed to use it correctly, and there were just two example sentences without any syntactic information. Hence, he gave up making a sentence using the ‘-nun twung manun twung’ construction, and he decided to make simpler sentence using a familiar structure like ‘kunun nay malul tucianhnunta’ (He does not listen to me) instead of ‘kunun nay malul tutnun twung manun twung hanta’ (He listens to me in an absent sort of way). He also commented that even though he could not describe his intended meaning precisely, he thought it would be better to make a simple but correct sentence using a familiar item rather than making an incorrect sentence by using an unfamiliar item.

As we can learn from the example given by *MEUKI*, it is difficult for teachers to encourage advanced learners to use unfamiliar grammar or vocabulary because they can express themselves anyway by making a sentence easier and simpler. As many researchers point out, when language learners feel that they do not have serious problems to communicating with native speakers, they tend to avoid taking a risk that might lead to make a mistake by using unfamiliar items (functional or lexical words). However, I believe that this avoidance strategy means that they do not have the ability to use certain kinds of grammar rules and vocabulary. Some students stated what kind of grammar rules are especially difficult to use in their Korean learning. The comments are described (5)-(7) in appendix 3.

According to the interview results, the functional words and grammatical items which students found difficult to use are the items which they dealt with in beginner level rather than advanced level. Despite the fact that the rules for using particle ‘-un/nun’ and modifiers are mostly dealt with at beginner level, advanced students still do not use them properly. The verbs ‘kata’ (to go)’ and ‘cwuta’ (to give) which FOUO14 (see (7) in appendix 3) gave as examples are also taught at beginner level by most textbooks and language schools, but they are still problematic items in learners’ production. These comments indicate that although learners learned the rules of certain grammar or vocabulary at beginner level, it takes some time and the

¹² ‘-(u)l/nun/(u)n twung’ (may or may not) is a phrasal verb which consists of future/present/ past modifier ‘-(u)l/nun/(u)n combined with the bound noun ‘-twung’. The pattern appears twice in the same sentence and second part is usually followed by the negative ‘mal-’ (desist). This item is considered in the process of grammaticalisation. According to Yeon Jaehoon and Lucien Brown (2011: 345), the phrasal verb is used to show ‘an alternation or vague choice between one of two or more contradictory but equally likely states of affairs’.

process of trial and error for learners to use them appropriately in their production. In addition, while learners try to use them in their production, they face lots of problems when applying rules to individual items or according to context of use. This might be because teachers and textbooks mostly explain the general rules of grammar or usage of items due to the limitations of dealing with all specific characteristics which individual items have. For example, when the verb ‘cwuta’ (to give) is taught by textbook, most textbooks in beginner level focus on the syntactic structure that it takes two objects (to give something to somebody) but do not deal with syntactic instances where it can also take the adverbial in a sentence. However, most textbooks include structures where the verb ‘cwuta’ takes the adverbial case in a sentence in their texts without any extra explanations. In this case, even though learners can understand and translate the meaning of the texts based on the meaning of word, they do not know when they can use the structure where ‘cwuta’ takes the ‘adverbial case’. The students’ comments on their difficulties imply that students need more specific guidance in order to extend their passive knowledge to active knowledge.

b. Finding the right word and expression

As we notice from the results of the questionnaire, it is a problematic task for students to choose the right word among the given words in their mother tongue-Korean BD. The interviewees’ comments are described (8)-(9) in appendix 3.

When students look in their dictionary to find the Korean equivalent of a word in their mother tongue, their dictionary usually gives more than one equivalent word. Therefore, students have to choose one among them to use for their writing; it is not always easy, however, for students to decide which word is appropriate for their expression. For example, when English learners of Korean look up the word ‘behaviour’ in their English-Korean dictionary, it gives them more than three Korean words such as ‘chesin’, ‘hayngtong’, ‘hayngwi’. Even though the general meanings of them are similar, the precise usage of each item is quite different. In this case, if the dictionary does not offer the usage of each word, it can certainly lead learners to misuse the word.

c. Vocabulary richness

As in the case of grammar rules and items, using varied vocabulary in writing can also be a problem for students. The richness of vocabulary in use is also an important factor in determining language proficiency in second language learning, so the ability to use a variety of expressions is necessary to reach an advanced level of proficiency. Some students commented that they tend to use only the vocabulary which they are familiar with or which is related to their interests (see (10) in appendix 3). According to them, they know they should attempt to use new vocabulary which they have never used in their production, but they often forget this when

writing.

d. Native-like expressions

I found another problem related to encoding during the interviews. This problem concerns how to use language in ways that sound more natural to native speakers of Korean. The comments about this issue are presented (11)-(12) in appendix 3.

What interviewees means by ‘typical Korean expressions’ seemed to be language ‘institutionalised expressions’ which are customarily used together in a fixed expression and which are longer than clause-length units such as idioms and institutionalised expressions¹³, but seem to indicate a broader concept than collocation. The higher the learner's level, the more the learner focuses on using these ‘typical expressions’. Like all foreign language learners, they also want to express themselves in a more native-like fashion. Interviewees tend to get depressed that they cannot speak and write like a native speaker, based on only learning grammar or vocabulary.

e. Structure of writing

Some interviewees answered that structuring their writing is very difficult. Surprisingly, many students in my course did not have prior experience in writing long essays, so they had lots of trouble in organising the structure of their writing. The (13)-(14) in appendix 3 are comments highlighting difficulties students have with structure.

Some students are concerned about the cohesion of their writing: the grammatical linking of one part of a text to another. To learn about appropriate organising structures and expressions, they want the teacher to offer them some examples of writing which is well-organised and shows typical characteristics of a specific genre of writing.

Concerning to the learners’ difficulties in their writing, they range from determining the correct form for a small unit of a sentence to more significant problems at macro-level. Each problem leaves Korean lexicographers many tasks to work on.

(2) Error correction

a. Orthography and word spacing

A majority of students answered that they are able to correct over 90% of spelling and word spacing errors. Although orthography was chosen by many students as one of the important kinds of information necessary for their writing, at the same time it is one of the easiest issues to

¹³ Lewis (2001) explained the term ‘institutionalised expressions’ as expressions which allow the language user to manage aspects of the interaction if they are pragmatic in character. Their use means that the listener or reader quickly identifies what the language user is doing (2001: 94).

correct themselves. In speaking mode, learners do not need to care about orthography and word spacing so they tend to ignore the importance of them. However, in writing mode, learners recognise that misspelling or misspacing could cause confusion or misunderstanding in communication. In short, orthography and word spacing pose significant problems for learners because students cannot remember all the rules governing them; the problems related to them, however, are easy for learners to solve using reference works.

b. Grammar errors

All students commented that they could not correct grammar errors at all. Although the teacher marked incorrect grammar, students did not know why it was wrong and how they could correct it if the teacher does not offer an explanation (see (15)-(17) in appendix 3). The main problem in correcting grammar errors is that, although the teacher marked the mistake and gave a code to indicate what kind of mistake they made, most of the students could not find the reason for the inaccuracy. In consequence, they could not correct their errors properly because they did not understand what was wrong with their grammar use in the sentences. These results indicate that the teachers' feedback of this kind does not seem to be insufficient, especially for grammar mistakes. Moreover, grammar books and dictionaries are not very useful to students trying to solve their problems. Most students try to correct their errors by relying on their intuition and incomplete knowledge of Korean. Their repeated failure to correct their mistakes makes them frustrated and makes them lose confidence. The results imply that they need more concrete guidance to find out the grammatical point which they misuse or do not know in order to correct their mistakes in the first place.

c. Vocabulary errors

Vocabulary mistakes can also be unsolvable problems for students (see (18) in appendix 3), in the same way as grammar mistakes. As we can see from the previous section, many students often fail to find an appropriate word from their dictionary for their writing. Students were stressed out by grammars and vocabulary mistakes because they knew that these two factors are the most fundamental and crucial for communication. As in the case of grammar mistakes, most students felt that correcting vocabulary mistakes was beyond their ability.

Grammar has certain rules, so at least students can understand why their grammar mistake is not correct if the teacher explains the reason. However, the reason for vocabulary mistakes and why students should choose a certain word instead of another can be quite difficult to explain. Teachers could explain the context of vocabulary use using examples from a corpus but this may be too technical for learners to use. I showed students how to use the SJ-RSK corpus in my course and sometimes used it to explain why a certain word was more suitable than others in a specific context, but none of my interviewees tried to use it themselves.

In contrast to the conclusions of Chaudron (1982), advanced learners in my course still have difficulties in recognising and in correcting their own errors. At the end of the interviews, twelve students answered that they appreciated having opportunities to correct their mistakes themselves. However, others think it is impossible to correct their mistakes themselves, especially grammar and vocabulary mistakes, and self-correction is a really stressful task for them.

When I interviewed students, I realised that whereas Korean language educators have focused on developing the textbooks and grammar books for learners of Korean, there had not been much analysis of their performance. I think it is important not only to develop learning materials but also to examine whether they meet their target users' needs. Many Korean teachers use the same self- or peer- error correction techniques which are popular in English teaching with their students, but they are not interested in whether learners of Korean have enough-reliable resources to find out their mistakes and to correct their errors themselves in the same way as learners of English.

3.2.2 Interviewees' comments on references for writing

As I mentioned earlier, I gave a list of reference works to students in the first week and there are many copies of paper dictionaries and grammar books in the library at *Korea University*. However, I found that some students did not even try to use paper dictionaries and grammar books at all during the six weeks of the term. Only a few students tried to use them for their writing. In contrast, many students commented that they now often use online Korean monolingual dictionaries and online search engines. They find that these are very useful for their writing. I think that the reason that students try to use online reference works more than paper reference is that these are easier to access than paper ones. The results were quite disappointing to me because I could not get enough feedback about paper dictionaries and grammar books. On the other hand it was encouraging that at least the students had had an opportunity to be exposed to Korean monolingual dictionaries.

a. Dictionaries

In the accordance with the result of the questionnaire, a majority of interviewees used their BDs most often for Korean learning. The main reasons for using a BD are to check the meaning of unknown words and sample sentences. The comments on BDs are presented below divided into two categories of dictionary: Korean-mother tongue BDs and mother tongue-Korean BDs. The (19)-(21) in appendix 3 are comments about the strengths and weakness of each type of dictionary made by interviewees.

• Bilingual dictionaries

Korean-mother tongue bilingual dictionary

The most attractive feature of Korean-mother tongue BD is to offer equivalent of Korean words in the learners' mother tongue. The majority of interviewees commented that even though their BDs offer inaccurate equivalents or unhelpful information, they prefer using them. This is because when they know the meaning or the equivalent of Korean words in their mother tongue, they feel more at ease and understand the meaning of words more clearly. The most serious problems of bilingual dictionaries pointed out by many students are that information such as words with equivalent meanings, translations and example sentences are not correct. They commented that most example sentences are not used in contemporary Korean anymore and that the translations of them are incomprehensible.

Concerning the grammatical information and sample, FIUO2 stated that she did not know that grammatical items are included as part of an entry in her dictionary. I asked her to look up '*killay (connectives to express reasons)*' using her Korean-Chinese dictionary so she looked up it. Her electronic dictionary offered an equivalent grammatical item of '*killay*' in Chinese, one Korean example sentence and its translation in Chinese. The Korean sample sentence for '*killay*' is '*salangi mwekillay (because what love is)*' which is the title of a famous Korean drama twenty years ago. The drama title which was popular twenty years ago without any contextual information seems to be useless as an example sentence for illustrating a word's grammatical use to learners of Korean. I asked the student again to look up more functional words, but the example sentences given by her dictionary do not seem to show typical usage of grammatical item or practical sentences which learners can use in real communication.

Mother tongue-Korean bilingual dictionary

The main function of a mother tongue-Korean BD is to find out the Korean equivalent of a word in the learner's mother tongue (see (22)-(23) in appendix 3). The crucial drawbacks of the dictionary are the small number of entries and lack of information about the usage of words. As mentioned several times earlier, learners have to choose the most appropriate word for what they want to express among many Korean equivalent words provided by the mother tongue-Korean BD. However, most dictionaries do not offer detailed information on the different usage of equivalents.

The results of the interviews indicate that even though lexicographers who are fluent in two languages participate in the process of making BDs, it is not easy to make reliable BDs. Many researchers argue that a BD is more suitable for comprehension rather than production because the required information for each activity is different. Knowing the equivalent word in their mother tongue might help learners to access the meaning of the Korean word for their

decoding easily and quickly. On the other hand, some inaccurate or misguided information in BDs such as inaccurate translations of example sentences and old-fashioned expressions might promote learners' errors in their writing. Based on these results, I conclude that it is really necessary for native-Korean lexicographers to make a more accurate standard Korean monolingual dictionary for production which can be translated into many languages and used by advanced learners.

• **Monolingual dictionaries**

Quite a lot of students in my course used an online Korean monolingual dictionary as a reference tool, but used it less than their BD. The primary reason for using a Korean monolingual dictionary is to check the example sentences and the context of use (see (24)-(27) in appendix 3). The interviewees mentioned that they could learn the correct usage of vocabulary with regard to sentence patterns, particles and register from the sample sentences in their monolingual dictionaries.

According to the interviews, students use example sentences for production rather than comprehension. Although the interviewees are advanced level students, it still seems to be a burden for them to understand a definition in Korean. Monolingual dictionaries were not popular for decoding activities. Even though some students complained that example sentences extracted from literature in Korean monolingual dictionaries are difficult to understand and impractical, students are more satisfied with them example sentences in them than in their BDs. This is because students believe that the information and example sentences in monolingual dictionaries written by Korean native lexicographers are more reliable, accurate and authentic than those in their BDs. Based on the result of the interviews, I assume that a monolingual dictionary is used more for production than comprehension for advanced learners of Korean and it is used in order to remedy the deficiencies of their BD for encoding.

b. Grammar books

Few students use the grammar books which they used in the course at university in their countries as a main reference work. However, most students stated that the grammar books do not seem to be as reliable as BDs. They found that the explanations given in their grammar books do not relate to real-life usage, and the example sentences are out of date. In addition, the translations in their grammar books sound awkward in their mother tongue (see (28)-(29) in appendix 3). They could not rely on them a lot.

The main reason why students do not prefer to use grammar books is that they find it difficult to understand the grammatical terms in an explanation even when they are in their mother tongue. In addition, students do not want to read about grammar rules which they have

already learned all over again in order to find out the information for making one sentence correctly. Also, as I mentioned earlier, grammar books focus more on describing general rules, so some students who are not very good at applying a general rule in context fail to learn what they need from a grammar book. Lemmens and Wekker (1991) argue that the most crucial characteristic of dictionaries is that they divide up language into individual words and phrases, which are individually described. Hence, I think that the role of a dictionary is different from that of the grammar books for language learning, though both of them deal with grammar.

c. Online search engines

According to the interviews, many of the students use online search engines as a reference tool for their writing more often than I expected. I think that the learners' preference for online search engines is strongly linked to the learners' demands for example sentences and typical Korean expressions. Many interviewees answered that they often use online search engine to look at the concordance sentences with the key word. The interview also found that students use online search engines using different strategies for various purposes. Their comments on online search engines are set out (30)-(32) in appendix 3.

Surprisingly, the satisfaction of students with online search engines is higher than with any other reference works. Through search engines, students could get information on not only what kind of vocabulary they can use related to the topics but also ready-made sentences which they can use by modifying them in their writing without much effort. The most attractive feature of information found through search engines is that the sentences are produced by native speakers and that they are related to their writing topics. If students modify or change some part of structure or vocabulary in a sentence, they can produce correct sentences native like manner. The high satisfaction with search engines is unexpected, but learners' positive comments on search engines can suggest what kind of information learners need for their production and what kind of resources are user-friendly.

4. Discussions

Dictionary users can be grouped according to various criteria, including their level of proficiency in the language or their needs. Here, I attempt to build a dictionary user profile for a Korean learner's dictionary for encoding activities which this study deals with based on the findings of the questionnaire and interviews. I believe that I can identify the main roles of MLD to assist Korean advanced learners' encoding activities through a dictionary user profile. I can also suggest what kind of factors lexicographers need to consider to satisfy the target dictionary users' needs and to help their difficulties.

4.1 Learners' general dictionary use and reference skills

In terms of the dictionary's medium, electronic dictionaries are particularly popular with students because they are not only handy but also convenient, having various functions and offering different kinds of dictionary in one dictionary. In addition, as learners can easily access wireless internet from their mobile phone nowadays, the number of people who use online dictionaries is on the increase. The results show that a majority of students use an electronic dictionary so that they can access different versions of dictionary easily. They indicate that convenience is an important factor when learners choose a dictionary.

In terms of language, learners at intermediate and advanced level rely heavily on Korean- mother tongue BDs. A few students use a Korean monolingual dictionary. Based on the respondents' comments, the main reason for using a Korean-mother tongue dictionary is to check the meaning of Korean words in their mother tongue. The dictionary is likely to be used for decoding activities rather than encoding activities. On the contrary, mother tongue-Korean BDs are used least among the three types of dictionary. This seems to be because the function of mother tongue-Korean BD is restricted to only finding out the Korean equivalent of word in their mother tongue for learners' encoding activities. The Korean monolingual dictionary which is used by learners is a Korean monolingual dictionary for native speakers. Surprisingly, many of them did not even know about the existence of MLDs for foreigners. I found that most electronic dictionaries offer a Korean monolingual dictionary as part of the software package but all of them are for native speakers. Students use the Korean monolingual dictionary for native speakers which is included in their electronic dictionary or online dictionary which they can access for free. A few students reported that they had seen the *LDK* in a bookshop, but they were not attracted to the product enough to purchase it as they already had a Korean monolingual dictionary for native speakers in their electronic dictionary. These results might be disappointing to lexicographers working on the *LDK*, however, they also imply the needs of foreign language learners in relation to MLDs. This is because learners might have used a Korean monolingual dictionary for native speakers as an alternative to a dictionary for foreigners even if they did not know of existence of a dictionary for foreigners. Thus, it seems to be reasonable to say that when learners use MLD, they seem to use it to make up for a lack of information in their BD which offers information in their mother tongue. Hence, it is important to know why learners prefer certain types of dictionary for what reason. We can then establish the characteristics of each kind of dictionary of Korean.

Concerning the information for target learners' Korean learning, the majority of learners think that the 'meaning of the word' is the most important information for their Korean learning. This result seems to be related to the learners' strong preference for Korean-mother tongue BDs. For language learners, understanding the meaning of word seems to be the most prioritised task in their language learning. 'Grammatical information' and 'example sentences'

are also selected as crucial information by students. Since example sentences can be used to check both the meaning and the usage of words, these results indicate that the meaning and grammatical usage are the most essential information for learners to learn vocabulary. It is interesting for me that 'orthography' was selected as fourth important item for intermediate and advanced learners. Harvey and Yuill (1997) found that the most common reason for looking up a word was to find the spelling (24.4%) for academic writing, it should therefore be conceded that 'orthography' is crucial to foreign learners for language learning. On the other hand, there was not much demand for information concerning the pronunciation, synonyms and collocation. Even though most electronic and online dictionaries provide audio files to help with pronunciation nowadays, this does not seem to be used much by users in general. The results of this research are not very different from other dictionary user research (Béjoint 1981, Hartmann, 1983) in ELT. Even though the language and learning context are different, learners' main reasons for look up words in their dictionary seem to be similar.

The results of research on learners' reference skills shows that most learners have not read the guidance notes of the dictionary which explains how to make the best use of such information. Hartmann (1983) observed the discouraging fact that introductory explanations are very seldom consulted by dictionary users. Béjoint (1981) reports that as many as 89 percent of those questioned in the survey had read the instructions either very cursorily or not at all. He pointed out that it is not clear that they are even aware of all the possibilities that are offered in their dictionaries. This tendency might be the one of reasons that dictionary users do not use information in their dictionary effectively. The result suggests that the learners need to be instructed or guided by teachers in order to use their learning resources intelligently.

For questions about syntactic codes, almost half of respondents have never seen the syntactic code in their dictionary. However, their attitudes towards the syntactic codes are very positive, in contrast to the conclusions of Béjoint (1981). Béjoint (1981) argues that students need syntactic information, but they are unable or unwilling to master the codes used in many dictionaries. This may be because students are left to tackle the codes unaided, in which case they are daunted by the effort needed to master them. Some researchers (Harvey and Yuill 1997, Bogaards 1999, Rundell, 1999) also point out that one of the problems with foreign learners' dictionary use, is that students are far more able to learn grammatical information by analogy based on sample sentences rather than explicit coding. It is not possible to say which is more effective and easy for target dictionary users between sample sentences or syntactic coding without further research. It would be ideal if we could find a way to make the presentation of information in the dictionary easier to understand, so students do not need to learn how to use the dictionary (Bogaards 1999). Concerning the learners' positive attitudes towards syntactic codes, if the syntactic codes are described in easy ways, they can be usefully used by dictionary users without much effort.

Lastly, the results show that learners do not have much knowledge about the grammatical terms in the Korean language. According to the results, learners' knowledge about grammar terms is limited to the most basic items. In the classroom, Korean teachers try to avoid using grammar terms if at all possible. The learners' lack of knowledge about grammar terms might result from the way they have been instructed in the classroom. It is true that language learners do not need to know grammar terms in order to learn a foreign language. However, it can cause some difficulties when they use reference books which are written using grammar terms for their autonomous learning. What kind of grammar terms Korean learners need to know, and the extent to which they need to know them in order to understand and use learning resources effectively is still questionable. This result suggests that when lexicographers use grammar terms in dictionary, even for advanced learners, they need to be cautious to choose the terms to indicate or explain the items in the dictionary.

4.2 Learners' needs and difficulties in writing activities

To understand the results of questionnaire about the learners' difficulties in writing activities, we have to think about the writing process. The first challenge in writing is 'making a sentence grammatically correct'. 'Finding the right word' to express what learners intend to express comes second and the third is 'using various expression'. Many researchers (Bogaard 1996, Rundell 1999) point out that the first step of writing is finding an appropriate word in the target language. Following this, learners will then think about how they to use it correctly. The results show that syntactic information and finding appropriate words are obviously the most difficult tasks when learners write. Furthermore, they show that even advanced learners still have trouble making sentences correctly. Even though advanced learners are considered to have mastered most of the Korean grammar rules, they are still in the process of internalising the rules themselves. Interestingly, during the interviews most students said that their Korean proficiency in grammar use is likely lower than their current level. Many students mentioned that whereas they do not have serious problems in understanding the functional words and grammar rules which they have learned in listening and reading activities, they are not very confident in using grammar appropriately according to syntactic rules and register in speaking and writing. These comments indicate that the knowledge for decoding activities is certainly different to the knowledge of encoding activities. The comments also imply that advanced learners need recursive grammar instruction to enhance their ability to manage grammar rules. If it is not possible in the classroom, reference works such as dictionary or grammar books need to assist them with their difficulties.

'Finding the right equivalent of a mother-tongue word in Korean' is certainly a challenge for advanced learners. As students mentioned in interviews, mother tongue-Korean dictionaries usually offer more than one equivalent for the mother-tongue word in Korean. Thus,

learners need more specific guidance when choosing the most appropriate Korean word to express themselves. Considering the main function of each dictionary, it is mother tongue-Korean bilingual dictionaries – rather than other types of dictionaries – which need to seek ways to satisfy learners' needs in this area. Monolingual dictionaries could offer information to help learners use unfamiliar words and expressions or to choose the most appropriate one amongst a set of possible words, but not to find new word (Bobaard 1999).

The richness of vocabulary is also one of concerns for advanced learners for their encoding activities. According to Nation (1990: 147), the lack of vocabulary may be the result of a large receptive vocabulary but a very limited productive vocabulary, or it may be the result of a limited productive and receptive vocabulary. In the former case, learners have difficulties in using certain part of their receptive vocabulary in their production. This means that they do not have sufficient knowledge to produce vocabulary in their writing. Therefore, problems of poor expression in their writing might be derived from a lack of grammatical knowledge since learning to use a word productively in writing involves considerable learning that is not needed in listening, reading, or speaking.

In the same vein, the learners chose 'grammatical information' as the most crucial information for their writing and 'example' as the second. 'Korean equivalent of word in my mother tongue' is selected as third. These results are inevitable with regard to the previous results. According to the results of two questions about learners' difficulties and importance of information for their writing, 'grammar use' is selected as the most problematic and important task for their writing activities. I believe that these results show learners' special need for a reliable reference tool which offers detailed grammatical information to help advanced learners' difficulties. When students learn vocabulary (lexical and functional word), they usually focus on the main meaning, general usage and some exceptional cases because the teacher or textbook could not introduce all the possible usages related to the word in the class. Based on my observation, teachers also tend to believe that students have enough information and practice to produce a sentence correctly using the target vocabulary. However, many learners found that they have to consider all the syntactic rules and exceptional cases of the target vocabulary to use it accurately outside of the classroom. It seems to be impossible for them to make a sentence themselves applying grammar rules of the target word correctly.

For instance, students learn the general rule for the short negative form using negative adverb 'an': the negative word 'an' is placed before an active or descriptive verb and some verbs do not allow the short negative form. However, even though students learned this rule and some exceptional verbs which do not allow the short negative form, it is really difficult for students to find out if the verb which they want to use allows the short negative form using the negative word 'an' or not. The syntactic rule of the negative word 'an' seems to be simple, but actually it is not as simple as students think. The grammar rule of vocabulary seems to be

general, but it tends to be applied differently case by case in actual production. The problem is that there are not reliable references which provide individual or specific cases to help learners use this word correctly. Practically, it is impossible to contain all the information for individual and exceptional cases related to each vocabulary item even in the era of corpus-based lexicography and the unlimited storage of online dictionaries. However, dictionaries for production could at least offer more tailored information such as typical errors or a list of exceptional cases. For instance, a dictionary could offer a list of verbs which do not allow the 'an' short negative form in the entry for the word 'an'. This is the main issue that this research deals with: How should learner's dictionaries offer syntactic information which could be applied to individual items to help learners overcome the syntactic problems affecting their production? This research attempts to seek answers to this question.

According to the results of questionnaire, example sentences are a crucial means of learning usage of vocabulary for production. The central question here is thus to what extent the sample sentences really enable learners to understand how the words are to be used. According to the results of the open-response questions and interviews, the main function of example sentences is to show the usage of target words. Here, the concept of usage seems to include not only grammatical usage but also pragmatic usage of the target word. Learners obviously prefer example sentences produced by native speakers. These are one of main reasons which they look up monolingual Korean dictionaries. Although the majority of learners answered that the most helpful information in their dictionary is the example sentences, they do not seem to be satisfied with the example sentences in their dictionary. In open response-questions, learners pointed out many problems of example sentences, ironically, they heavily depend on the example sentences in their dictionaries. This preference could indicate the ways in which learners learn the usage of word in the context. I feel that this tendency might be derived from the lack of explicit grammatical information in their dictionary so they do not have many choices for finding out grammatical information besides using example sentences.

Information about 'part of speech' or 'verb inflection' tends to be disregarded by advanced learners. I think that these results can be interpreted in two ways: firstly, learners do not have much trouble in identifying the part of speech of word and in dealing with verb inflection. Secondly, the information about part of speech does not give much information to foreign learners to learn about a word. In other words, learners do not have much knowledge about what information they can gain from knowing the part of speech, since they do not know the characteristic of each part of speech in the Korean language. Therefore, learners prefer to learn the actual usage of words explicitly from grammatical information or implicitly from example sentences rather than from information about part of speech. Although the knowledge of collocation and register are crucial in order to achieve an advanced level, their importance is relatively ignored by advanced learners. Based on the interviews, learners recognise the

importance of them in their Korean learning, but grammatical information for making sentences grammatically correct and finding out appropriate Korean equivalent words are higher priorities for advanced learners.

Since writing activities can be planned and corrected referring to resources in contrast to speaking activities, I assume that writing activities also need to include activities where learners correct their mistakes themselves. The results of research showed that learners have trouble not only in identifying their mistakes but also in correcting their mistakes themselves. The idea that they will self-correct their errors is likely to be teachers' wishful thinking; most students stated that it is almost impossible for them to correct their errors themselves except in the case of errors of orthography and word spacing. I think that the root reason which students could not identify their mistake seems to be the lack of syntactic and lexical knowledge. And the second reason is that students do not have reliable resources to compensate for their lack of language ability. Many students pointed out that there are no resources available to help with error correction at all. Therefore, it is necessary to develop reliable resources to help learners' syntactic problems for their production.

4.3 Learners' use of resources for writing activities

Considering the main reference tools available for learners' writing, the results show that students were using various resources such as dictionaries, grammar books and online search engines for their writing. It was quite surprising that online search engines are the most popular of these and the one with which students are most satisfied. Although search engines have the most favorable feedback from interviewees, dictionaries and especially Koorean-mother tongue BDs, are still main reference tools for their writing regardless of their inaccuracy or unreliability (see 3.2.2). Learners tend to feel more at ease when they check the meaning of a word and the translation of an example sentence in their mother tongue. However, while learners use their BD as their main reference tool for their writing, they do not seem to get enough information about grammar rules, which they consider most important for their writing. According to the results of the questionnaire, there is a certain gap between learners' needs and the information which learners found most helpful for their production. As Rundell (1999: 50) points out, BDs are deemed as easy to use, but are often unsuccessful in offering the range and subtlety of information required for effective encoding.

Even though the results indicate that students use a BD more often for their writing, quite a lot of students consult a Korean monolingual dictionary for their encoding as well. The primary reason for consulting a monolingual dictionary was checking the example sentences produced by Korean native speakers to learn the syntactic usage of a word (functional and lexical word). Learners look up example sentences not only to find out a sentence which is similar to their intended meaning, but also to find syntactic information. Students prefer to use

ready-made sentences or expressions rather than make up an expression themselves with the risk of making an incorrect sentence. This tendency might be relevant to the students' choice of 'example sentences' as the most important information provided in their dictionary. In addition, it seems to affect their preference for search engines as reference tools for their writing.

According to interviewees, the most attractive feature of a search engine is that that it offers ready-made sentences which they can use to sound native-like without worrying about making mistakes. Lewis (2001) argued that students prefer ready-made expressions which they could make into a larger piece of discourse by expanding on, or combining ready-made constructions due to the lack of confidence in grammar use. However, the problem of this strategy is that if they do not know on what syntactic basis a sample sentence is constructed, they could not change it as appropriate for their context of use. In my opinion, while using a search engine could offer an instant solution or complement the use of other reference works for their writing, it cannot be the main reference tool itself for language learning because the language use in online search engines tends to be unrefined and messy. However, I think it is necessary for lexicographers to consider how they can harness the strength of online search engines for dictionary making. Surprisingly, grammar books are not very popular for students as a reference tool even though they chose 'grammatical information' as most crucial information for their writing.

Seeing learners' comments on reference tools, the students recognise the advantages and disadvantages of their reference tools well (see 3.2.2), but they do not make much effort to find more varied and appropriate resources for their Korean studying. One of the surprising things from the results is that although learners cannot get the information they need from their dictionaries, they seem to be satisfied with their dictionaries. Galisson (1983) found some contrasts between learners' dictionary image and dictionary use after gathering data from questionnaires. He points out that users' expectations are high in the sense that dictionaries are perceived as prestigious and inexhaustible information sources even in those cases when the user does not obtain any look-up results. Therefore, it seems to be important not only to develop reliable resources in user-friendly way but also to teach dictionary users how to use them effectively.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the results highlight the following areas of relevance for lexicographers and teachers of Korean as a foreign language.

1. Korean-mother tongue BDs, which are learners' main reference tool for writing, do not seem to offer the information learners need for their writing activities. While grammatical information is required most by learners, Korean-mother tongue dictionaries do not provide

sufficient grammatical information. Most learners seem to get information from example sentences provided in their BD. However, the reliability and usefulness of these sentences are questioned by learners. Hence, the results suggest the need to develop reliable resources to assist with learners' difficulties in writing, especially grammatical difficulties.

2. The results show the learners' strong need for grammatical information in their encoding activities, including error corrections. The majority of learners selected that 'getting grammar correct' is the most problematic task for their writing activities. The lack of knowledge about grammar seems to be a big barrier for learners when attempting to extend their receptive vocabulary to productive vocabulary. This result leads me to conclude that it is necessary for lexicographers to examine the grammatical description of existing dictionaries and to seek ways to improve them in order to help advanced learners' encoding activities, especially writing.
3. Potential dictionary users do not have sufficient reference skills in terms of knowledge of grammar terms. In addition, most of them do not read guidance notes to learn how to use their resources. Therefore, lexicographers need to pay attention when choosing the terms to describe information in their dictionaries. The majority of learners show a positive attitude to syntactic codes which describe grammatical information. This indicates that if the syntactic code is given in an accessible way, they can be used productively by dictionary users.

The learner profile indicates that dictionaries for encoding should be different from dictionaries for decoding activities. Since the questionnaire and interviews focus on the general needs for encoding activities, further research is required to identify learners' specific areas of difficulty when learning Korean.

Dictionary compiling project

1. Introduction

This chapter investigates advanced learners' needs for information and strategies adopted to solve their problems for writing exams. Whereas the previous chapter broadly explores the potential target dictionary users' current dictionary use and difficulties for writing activities through a questionnaire and interviews (user profiling), this chapter examines more specifically what kinds of linguistic items learners need to know for their writings, what information users choose for what linguistic items and how they present the information they need for their writing exams in their real performance, in the dictionary compiling project¹⁴ (user research). In this chapter, I also shall discuss how students show their needs and difficulties for production in their dictionaries by analysing their decisions on macro- and micro structure for their dictionaries which they compiled for writing exams.

My initial assumption for this project was that students would produce their own dictionaries to cover all their needs and difficulties for writing activities and exams. Hence, the information included and the strategies which they adopted to include and to present linguistic information could show their needs and difficulties in writing activities as well as their preferences. Furthermore, the presentation of their information in Korean could suggest to lexicographers what kind of presentation would be more user-friendly for monolingual learner's dictionaries for foreign learners. In terms of dictionary typology, the analysis of this project could show what linguistic items can be included as an entry in a MLD for encoding activities and what kinds of information need to be described in a dictionary different from other types of dictionary. In addition, we can see how students' difficulties affect their decisions in compiling their dictionaries and what strategies they employ to solve their linguistic problems. I also believe that the results of this user research can contribute to bring the dictionary users and lexicographers into closer contact with each other, and help lexicographers to improve dictionary contents and structures when they edit their dictionaries.

This dictionary-compiling project was adopted from Cubillo (2002) and was modified to match my research context. The difference between her research and my research is that whereas Cubillo (2002) focused on the use of English dictionaries for chemistry students' decoding activities, my research dealt with the use of Korean learner's dictionaries for encoding activities, especially for writing. My research concentrated on the role of dictionaries for encoding activities in the context of real language learning processing, preparing for a writing

¹⁴ The dictionary which my students produced was Korean monolingual dictionary for their writing exams. They were prohibited to use their mother tongue in their dictionaries. I intend to look at how they organise and present information in Korean so I thought compiling monolingual dictionary would be suitable for my research contexts.

exam.

The aims of this project were: (a) to analyse learners' needs for information for writing exams (b) to understand the way in which this particular group of learners presents information in dictionaries, i.e. how they viewed the structure and content of a dictionary; (c) to identify the reasons for learners' decisions related to macro- and micro structure, contents and presentation of a dictionary; and (d) to gain some insight that would help build criteria for examining a current MLD in terms of encoding activities. The main research questions for this project were as follows:

- What kinds of information do students include most in their dictionaries for their writing exams?
- What information is given for what kinds of entry?
- From what resources do student obtain the information which they need? And why?
- How do students present information gathered for their writings? And why?

The weakness of this research is that the project might have certain limitations in not reflecting the target users' performances (choices and presentation of information) properly in a natural setting. Since my students designed their dictionaries for writing exams rather than for general writings, there are some possibilities that the students' choices of entries and information were influenced by the content and format of exams as well as the topics and contents which the composition course dealt with during the course. Hence, it might be difficult to generalise the results of this project to reflect general use of the dictionary for encoding activities. However, the results of this project can show some parts of target users' characteristics such as relevant needs and strategies for writing activities

2. Research methods

The composition course I conducted the dictionary compiling project for was advanced level 1 for which I also conducted interviews. I have already described the syllabus of this course in the previous chapter (see 5.2.1). Thirty students participated in this project during the advanced 1 Korean composition course for exchange students at *Korea University*. The group of students consisted of twenty Chinese students, two Taiwanese, five Japanese, two Mongolian, one Australian and one French. As mentioned earlier, students did self-error corrections for each of their assignments. After their correction, I corrected the errors which they could not correct themselves and gave explanations as to why the errors were not right. The course mostly focused on teaching writing skills and discussing writing topics, but sometimes I dealt with grammar and error correction during the course. I taught some grammatical items which I found that students still did not use correctly. Sometimes I presented students with some common

errors which a majority of students made in their writing and asked the students to correct them using their dictionaries or after discussing them with their peers. Then I explained to the students the reasons why they were incorrect in error correction classes.

In the first week, I introduced the dictionary compiling project and informed them that the result of the project would represent 10% of their mark overall. They would use their dictionary in the mid-term and the final exams. The students were asked to make dictionaries for their writing exams.

They could include the most relevant words and provide as much information as they thought necessary for each word such as example sentences, sentence patterns or pictures. They had to describe all the information in their dictionaries in Korean and it had to be handwritten. The writing topics which students wrote about in the course were supposed to be the same topics covered in the examinations. In the exam, the topics which students had already dealt with were supposed to be given after modifying the exercises slightly (see exam format appendix 4). Therefore, my students had to choose what information they had to include in their dictionaries themselves based on their writings for their exams. The students and I agreed upon between twenty five and thirty entries for each exam as a guide. I collected their dictionaries to check if they had used their mother tongue to describe information two days before the exams. I returned their dictionaries on the day of the examination. All the students successfully finished their projects and took the writing exams using their dictionaries. I photocopied their dictionaries and investigated what kinds of information they included in them and how they presented that information. After the course, I interviewed twelve students to ask about the usefulness of the dictionary compiling project for their writing skills and exams. I did not inform the interviewees that the interviews were part of my research. Hence, the students thought that the interviews were part of the consultation and the course evaluation at the end of term. Most questions were pre-prepared but some questions were added according to individual students' performances and issues. In addition, I also asked the reasons for (1) their choices of information, (2) ways to present it in their dictionary, and (3) the preference regarding resources for their writing activities in order to interpret their performance properly.

3. Data analysis and results

In the dictionary, there are generally two kinds of dictionary structure; 'macrostructure' and 'microstructure'. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989) define a microstructure as a way of showing how the various information categories are arranged within entries. According to Hartmann (2001), these decisions are mostly affected by user profiling and user research. Thus, I analysed sixty dictionaries (thirty for the mid-term and thirty for the final exams) to explore what choices the students made and what strategies they used to solve their language problems in both the macro and microstructure of their dictionaries. The students' dictionaries were analysed by

using two methods: quantitative and qualitative methods. First, I classified all the entries and information included in each entry into several categories and offered a percentage for each of them counting their numbers. Second, I examined how they presented information in their dictionaries and analysed what strategies they seem to employ for what reasons based on students' performance and the results of interviews. Whereas the numeric data through quantitative analysis provided an overall picture of needs for information for writing exams, the results through qualitative analysis of students' dictionaries and interviews enabled me to explore more deeply specific group of learners' learning strategies they employed to assist them in overcoming their writing difficulties. I shall cite some comments of dictionary compilers to support my interpretation in the descriptions of results or discussion stage. I also provide some examples which show what strategies students adopted for making the information more understandable in this section.

3.1 Macrostructure

3.1.1 Arrangements

The entries in Korean monolingual dictionaries are mostly arranged in order of consonants and vowels but the consonant sequence takes priority over vowels. The majority of students in the composition course knew how the entries in Korean dictionaries are organised. However, only one student arranged the entries in order of Korean consonants. She divided her dictionary into several segments and used the alphabetical labels. 60% of the students listed dictionary entries by writing subjects. 20% of students grouped their dictionary entries by the types of entry such as 'word', 'grammar' and 'expression'. A few students arranged dictionary entries in no particular order.

3.1.2 Types of entry

The entries in students' dictionaries came in a wide variety of types. The total number of entries is 1,540. It was not easy to set up categories for all the entries and classify them clearly. In the end, I classified all the entries into eight types as given in table 1 below:

< Table 1: Types of entry in students' dictionary >

1. Lexical words
2. Functional words
3. Sentence patterns (case frame)
4. Synonyms
5. Institutionalised expressions
6. Errors
7. Sentence connectors
8. Others

The lexical words include nouns (including bound nouns), adjectives, verbs (including defective verbs), adverbs and interjections. The functional words indicate the words which are used to perform a grammatical function in a sentence such as particles and endings in Korean. The concept of sentence patterns in this study includes case frame and phrasal verbs¹⁵ (see chapter 3). The entry ‘synonyms’ indicates headwords which were made to distinguish the usage of synonyms such as meaning, syntactic behavior, register and so on. They are divided into two categories: lexical synonyms and pairs of functional words which belong to the same category semantically. These entries usually consisted of two or three words like ‘-ase/kiey’ (because; functional words which fall into the same semantic category of ‘reason’ as in providing a reason) or ‘swununghata/swunconghata/pokconghata’ (lexical words: conform/obey/submit). I had considered including them in the category of ‘lexical words’ or ‘functional words’, but the function of them as an entry is clearly different from the single item. Accordingly, I decided to make a new category of entry for them.

The headword ‘sentence connectors’ refers to words which play a role in linking sentences or paragraphs together such as ‘ttohan’ (also), ‘kulayse’ (so) and ‘panmyenyey’ (on the other hand). I could have included them in a category of lexical words as an adverb but I was determined to classify them separately from these lexical words considering their special role in writing related to cohesion. Some students included expressions which they could import in chunk-form in their writing as an entry in their dictionaries. The types of language chunks which students included are vary. I classified them into ‘expressions’ including lexical collocations, idioms and institutionalised expressions¹⁶. Most Korean monolingual dictionaries include them as a sub-entry or as an example sentence, but quite a lot of students made an entry for these expressions in their dictionaries. Lastly, I found one interesting type of entry, which

¹⁵ The case frame refers to the sentence structure which each individual predicate may occur such as ‘N0 N1-ul/lul V (Subject Object-Verb)’, ‘N0 S1-kesul V (Subject+ Complement phrase+ Object case marker –Verb)’, ‘N0 Q1-ul V (Subject- Embedded interrogative sentence+ Object case marker - Verb)’ for the verb ‘pota’. The phrasal verb refers to language chunk which consists of lexical word and functional word such as –un/nun moyangita (the noun ‘moyang’ functions as functional word combining with the modifier ‘-un/nun’ and the copula ‘ita’; to be likely to, look like) and –ki malyenita (the noun ‘malyen’ also works as a functional word combining with the nominal form ‘-ki’ and the copula ‘ita’; be bound to). They function grammatically in a sentence as a result of change in the language. Korean monolingual dictionaries usually contain these patterns as a separate entry, but many students dealt with them as a headword in their dictionaries.

¹⁶ ‘Institutionalised expressions’ indicate language chunks which students could use without many changes. For example, students put the expression which is typically used to describe a person’s background in letters of self-introduction in Korea like sentence (1) below. They could use this expression just adjusting the part to express their position in their family in sentence to suit their real situation for production. They did not need much information to use it correctly.

(1) cenun Inam 2nyeuy chanyelo/oytongtallo/oytongatullo thayena hwamokhan pwunwikieyse sengcanghayssupnita.

I was born as a second daughter in one son and two daughters/as an only daughter/as an only son and was brought up in harmonious family

many students included for their errors as a main entry in their dictionaries. Dictionaries or grammar books usually deal with errors in the usage notes but my students included them as a main entry. I think that this is a unique type of entry which is hardly to be found in Korean learner's dictionaries and grammar books. Besides these seven types of entry, there were some items which were difficult to group together, so I categorised them as 'others'.

After classifying all entries into eight categories, I analysed all the dictionaries in order to find out what percentage of students preferred the use of one item of information to another. The results are given in the table 2: The most frequent entry was a lexical word; all students included lexical words in their dictionaries. The selection of words in students' dictionaries differed from one student to another¹⁷ but on the whole the words were related to their writing since the dictionary was designed for their writing exams. A functional word was the second most frequent entry in students' dictionaries. 93.3% of students included functional words and only two students did not include them at all in their dictionaries. Even though the percentage of lexical words accounted for in the total number of entries is much higher than the functional words, the proportion of functional words is still very high considering that the number of lexical words is much greater than functional words in Korean vocabulary.

< Table 2: Types of entry selected by students >

Types of entry	The number of headword	The percentage (%)
Lexical words	640	41.56
Functional words	293	19.03
Sentence patterns	136	8.83
Synonyms	117	7.60
Sentence connector	54	3.51
Expressions	59	3.83
Errors	156	10.13
Others	85	5.51
The total number of headwords	1540	100 (%)

Errors constituted the third most frequent type of entry in the students' dictionaries. 93.4% of students included errors as an entry in their dictionaries. This type of entry could be a special characteristic of dictionaries used for encoding, distinguishing them from the dictionaries used for decoding. The ratio of sentence patterns in the total entries is not very high, but 65% of students put sentence patterns in their dictionaries. As several researchers (Harvey and Yuill 1997, Atkins and Runedll 2008) point out, synonyms are also crucial items for students' production. 43.33% of students included pairs of synonyms in their dictionaries. The percentage of sentence connectors is low in the total number of entries, but quite a lot of students (50% of

¹⁷ The proportion of each type of entries is slightly different from each other. Most students' dictionaries included the linguistic items which they had dealt with in the course. Some students included items which they learned from other Korean courses or were personally interested in as well.

students) selected them as an entry. 40% of students selected expressions as an entry in their dictionary.

There were some entries which were difficult to classify. Even though these types of entry strayed from the general types of entry in the foreign language dictionaries, they could help lexicographers get a clearer picture of what information their target users require for encoding activities.

36.7% of students included some grammatical rules as an entry such as ‘the rule of the passive voice’, ‘making conditional sentences’ and ‘the grammar for comparison’. 30% of students put ‘the rule of word spacing’ as an entry and the same amount of students added writing skills as an entry such as ‘the way to write an argumentative essay’ and ‘how to summarise’. 15% of students made writing topics a headword such as ‘writing a curriculum vitae’ and ‘the main problems of modern civilisation’.

3.2 Microstructure

Here, I investigate what kind of entry contained what kind of information and what information is most important in each type of entry. I refer to individual students’ dictionaries by the letter and number. The first letter in the sequence displays dictionary (D) and the second denotes the exam (M= Mid-term exam; F= Final exam) which students compiled the dictionary for and the number indicates the individual student.

3.2.1 Number of different types of entry

(1) Lexical words

The results show that the definition is the most frequent kind of information given for lexical words, followed by example sentences and parts of speech information. 81.40% of entries contained the word’s definition and one third of them included more than one word sense.

< Table 3: Main information on lexical words >

Type of information	The number of headwords	The percentage (%)
Definition	521	81.40
-More than one word sense included	174	33.40
- Only one word sense included	347	66.60
Parts of speech	328	52.25
Example sentence	452	70.63
Grammatical information	282	44.06
Synonym	133	20.78

Considering that the main function of a lexical word is to convey the meaning, the high percentage of definitions is not very surprising. Some students (33.40%) described many word senses which the entry has, but a majority of students (66.60%) included only one word sense

which was related to their writings.

In terms of parts of speech, interestingly, I found that the number of nouns is much lower than verbs in the lexical entries. The analysis shows that the most frequent parts of speech in the lexical entries is a verb (317 entries) and the number of verbs is almost twice the number of nouns (166 entries) which is the second most frequent part of speech in students' dictionaries, followed by adverbs and adjectives. I also observed that in many cases, my students described more example sentences and grammatical information with verbs than nouns. In addition, the students included more syntactic information in bound nouns the function of which is closer to functional words than free nouns. This tendency might be connected with grammatical difficulties over use of parts of speech. Considering that "the characteristics of Korean nouns differ from English and other European languages, for instance, the absence of articles, the limited appearance of number and the lack of gender" (Yeon and Brown 2011: 42), nouns do not alter in grammatical forms as much as a verb in Korean. Also the Korean bound nouns cannot occur on their own always requiring an accompanying element (Yeon and Brown 2011: 45) and need more grammatical knowledge to be used properly. Assuming that my students included items which they found difficult to use correctly and important information which they needed for writing exams in their dictionaries, they seemed to have more difficulty in using verbs than nouns and bound nouns than free nouns in their production.

Half of the entries included parts of speech information in the entry. A word could have different meanings and morphological or syntactic behaviors depending on the parts of speech. So parts of speech information is crucial in many ways for both production and comprehension, but students did not add the parts of speech information as much as I expected. My students might have skipped the parts of speech information because they did not sufficiently recognise the importance of parts of speech in language learning. Alternatively, learners at advanced level could guess the parts of speech easily, only checking the meaning of the word or vocabulary form so they did not consider this information significant.

44. 06% of entries described the grammatical information in the entries. I found that grammatical information was mostly given for verbs, adjectives and bound nouns. A majority of students included sentence patterns and exceptional cases of grammar rule as grammatical information related to the headword.

Many entries (70.63%) contained example sentences and the average number of example sentences per entry is 2.29. Some students replaced definitions or grammatical information with example sentences. This tendency seems to indicate that students preferred deducing linguistic information in context rather than from explicit descriptions which were stated separately without context.

Apart from the information in table 2, few students included lexical collocations, errors, register or antonyms for lexical words. It was quite surprising that only two students

described the verb conjugation in verb entries. Even though students can see the verb conjugation form from example sentences, they need to know more various conjugation forms depending on the kinds of endings they combine with. However, this information was neglected by majority of students. The reason for this is not very clear, but advanced learners do not seem to experience many difficulties with verb conjugation because they have handled them from beginners level. In addition, it is possible to assume that students tend to think the mistakes of conjugation forms do not cause a breakdown of conversation rather than syntactic mistakes. In the case of defective verbs, students described the forms in which verbs are usually used in their entries, but a majority of students did not include conjugation information for other verbs in their dictionaries. Although some researchers (Pawley and Syder 1983, Bogaard 1996, Nation 2001) highlight the importance of collocation for production, very few students (only 10 entries by 3 students) included collocation information in their entries.

No one included pronunciation in their lexical entry. The dictionaries were compiled for the purpose of preparing for writing exams, so students did not need pronunciation for that purpose. I think that the students seem to make dictionaries focusing on the role of dictionaries for writing exams. Or as the results of the questionnaire indicated in the previous chapter (see 5.1.2), pronunciation is not a big problem for advanced learners of Korean compared to other items.

(2) Functional words

Endings and particles are main items in functional words. Students dealt with more endings than particles, and more connectives than final endings in their dictionaries. In the case of connectives, students have to pay attention to the syntactic behavior in both its preceding and following clause so they might be more problematic for students to handle than final endings. In the case of particles, although knowing their functions is essential to using them in a sentence, learners cannot use them accurately in a sentence based only on knowledge about their functions since predicates, such as verbs and adjectives, mainly decide what function of noun phrases they take in a sentence. For instance, even if students know the function of the locative particle ‘eyse (at/in)’, they cannot use it properly without knowledge of what kind of predicate takes a locative noun phrase.

< Table 4: Main information on grammatical words >

Type of information	The number of headwords	The percentage (%)
Definition	184	62.80
Word sense included	67	36.41
Word sense not included	117	63.59
Word class	96	32.76
Example sentence	273	93.17
Grammatical information	207	70.65
Error	49	16.72
Synonym	13	4.43

The importance of example sentences was mentioned several times earlier. It is still surprising that 93.17% of entries contained example sentences. The average number of example sentence per entry is 3.37. The percentage of example sentences in total functional word entries and the average number of example sentence per entry are much higher than for the lexical word entries.

The results also indicate that the number of entries which included example sentences is much higher than the number of entries which contained grammatical information or definitions. The main functions of example sentences in learner's dictionaries are usually recognised to illustrate the definition or grammatical information. These results indicate that, for advanced students, example sentences seem to take a central position as much as definition or grammatical information, especially for encoding activities. Learners at advanced level might have more knowledge and insight to extract various kinds of information by analysing example sentences themselves than learners at lower levels. They seem to prefer inferring information from the context, that is, from example sentences.

Obviously, the grammatical description is the main information included for functional words. Students mostly described parts of speech, person information which can occur in a noun phrase (such as the first person, the second person), ending and tense information in the entry. Moreover, they also describe information about grammatical restrictions using target functional words. Most grammatical information was accompanied with example sentences.

More than half of the entries gave the definition of the functional word in the entry. The meaning of the definition in here is close to the role of the functional word. For example, students defined the functional word '-nun tamyen (if)' with 'It is used to indicate the circumstance in which an event or situation might happen'. 36.41% of entries included word sense more than once and only 32.76% of entries referred to the parts of speech of functional words. Few entries (16.72%) contained information about errors in using the functional words. Most of the errors appeared to be taken from students' writings. Very few entries referred to synonyms (4.43%) or register (1.70%).

(3) Sentence patterns

Like the previous two entries, example sentences are the most frequent information offered in the sentence pattern entries, followed by the definitions. Students tended to include more grammatical explanations in phrasal verb entry than in case frame entry.

< Table 5: Main information on sentence patterns >

Type of information	The number of headwords	The percentage (%)
Definition	97	71.32
Word sense included	11	11.34
Word sense not included	86	88.66
Example sentence	107	76.68
Grammatical information	52	38.24
Alternative item	7	5.15

This might be because phrasal verbs require more syntactic information than the case frame which is already given in a chunk of sentence since the function of a phrasal verb is close to that of grammatical words. The case frame entry itself explicitly shows certain grammatical information like ‘noun+i/ka noun+ul/lul kunsimhata (Subject-Object-Verb; to worry), ‘noun+i/ka noun+ey tayhaye kunsimhata (Subject- Adverbial phrase- Verb; to worry about something)’. Students might have needed to add the meaning or the context of use rather than more grammatical information for production. After knowing the meaning and syntactic behaviour of a sentence pattern (include case frame and phrasal verb), the students might have wanted to illustrate how the sentence pattern is performed in a sentence through example sentences. Therefore, the percentage of example sentences in the total entries is very high as well. Apart from the three main types of information, 5. 15% of the entries included a pairs of phrasal verbs which belongs to the same category semantically, for example, DM1 described the phrasal verb ‘-kika sipsangita (the nominal form ‘-ki’ is followed by the noun ‘sipang’ and the copula ‘ita’; is easy to)’ as an alternative item of the phrasal verb ‘-kika swipta (the adjective ‘swipta’ combines with the noun phrase which takes the nominal form ‘-ki’; it is easy to)’ .

(4) Synonyms

The entries for ‘synonyms’ are divided into two kinds: lexical synonyms and pairs of functional words which belong to the same category semantically. The total number of lexical synonym entries is 103 but the total number of words which all the entries contained is 223. The average number of words in each entry is 2.17.

< Table 6: Main information on lexical synonyms >

Type of information	The number of words	The percentage (%)
Definition	162	72.64
Word sense included	64	39.51
Word sense not included	98	60.49
Example sentence	182	81.61
Grammatical information	126	56.50

The results indicate that the main information given for lexical synonyms is the definitions and example sentences. Like the lexical word entries, entries which deal with verbs tend to include more grammatical information in here as well. Whereas the noun synonyms focused on distinguishing the meaning or the context of use, the verb and adjective synonyms described the syntactic behaviour of each verb and adjective. Some students also added register information to differentiate the contexts of use between synonyms.

< Table 7: Main information on pairs of functional words >

Type of information	The number of words	The percentage (%)
Definitions	16	53.33
Word sense included	4	25
Word sense not included	12	75
Example sentences	26	86.67
Grammatical information	21	70

The number of entries which compare functional words which belong to the same category semantically is fourteen, but the total number of functional words is thirty. Comparing the lexical synonyms, the number of the pair of functional words which belong to the same category semantically is much lower. Like functional words, the percentage of entries which contained example sentences is higher than for lexical synonyms. 70% of entries dealt with grammatical information used to distinguish the usage of different grammatical words which have similar functions. Seeing that a high percentage of entries contained grammatical information, the main purpose of including this entry might be to compare the different grammatical characteristics of the two or three functional words. Some students compared the different meanings of functional words through definition or examples.

(5) Sentence connectors

The definitions and example sentences are the main information given to describe sentence connectors. The problem with using a sentence connector might be related to the context of its use rather than its grammatical use. Whereas most other entries included a single example sentence, the example sentences given in the entries for sentence connectors tended to consist of two or three sentences. I think that students clearly recognised that they have to learn the use of sentence connectors through contexts that clearly show the relationship of sentences. They often

decided to choose a small paragraph as an example. For sentence connectors, most students cited example sentences from their writings that they clearly knew the context of and would be useful for their exams. In addition, there are also possibilities that if paragraphs they can use are in their dictionaries (2-3 sentences), it would be easier for students to write exam answers. However, there is no guarantee that the sentences in their dictionaries would be the best answers for exam. In addition, considering that this strategy is specifically used for a sentence connector entry, I believe that students might have used paragraphs as an example in order to understand the function of the sentence rather than taking advantage of copying them in an exam.

< Table 8: Main information on sentence connectors >

Type of information	The number of headwords	The percentage (%)
Definition	39	72.22
Word sense included	13	33.33
Word sense not included	26	66.67
Word class	17	31.48
Example sentence	38	70.37

(6) Expressions

Although I mentioned that the category of ‘expressions’ included ‘lexical idioms’, only three entries were idioms and institutionalised expressions took the central part in entries of expressions. In the case of entries for ‘expressions’, most students made an entry without adding any information in their dictionaries. Hence many students were likely to decide not to include any information. Unlike other entries, only 30.52% of entries included example sentences to show the usage of expressions more precisely.

< Table 9: Main information on expressions >

Type of information	The number of headword	The percentage (%)
Definition	10	16.95
Example sentence	18	30.52

(7) Errors¹⁸

In the case of entries for ‘errors’, 100% of entries included the teachers’ correction. In interviews, students reported that they often repeated the same mistakes. They wanted to pay attention and not make the same mistakes again by organising their errors in the dictionary and remembering their mistakes. Some students also included the information on grammar or lexical words which they did not use correctly.

All these entries contained example sentences. Very few students cited the teacher’s explanation to explain the reason for their errors. As we can see in table 10 above, the number of

¹⁸ The majority of errors which were included as a headword was related to collocation, syntax or institutionalised expressions. Very few students included register and lexical word errors as an entry.

functional words in this category is twice the number of lexical words since errors related to functional words are much more frequent than lexical words.

< **Table 10: Main information on errors** >

Type of information	The number of headwords	The percentage (%)
Sentence corrected by the teacher	156	100
Misused functional word	64	41.03
Grammatical information included	27	42.19
Example sentence included	64	100
Misused lexical word	32	20.51
Example sentence included	32	100
Explanation	9	5.77

3.2.2 Description of information

(1) Definitions

The definition explains the meaning of the headword in one particular sense. Three types of definitions are found in students' dictionaries. The first type is the definitions which are cited from reference sources such as Korean monolingual dictionaries or grammar books. In the interviews, some students mentioned that the definitions in the monolingual dictionary are difficult to understand for them. But they did not have many choices for writing definitions in Korean since they could not create the definitions themselves. The second type is the definitions made by students themselves or cited from teacher's explanations. Some students took notes on the teacher's explanations about the meaning of vocabulary in the classroom and used them as definitions. Table 1 in appendix 5 shows example of the definitions made by students. The student (DM5) wanted to know the difference of meaning between two synonyms: 'hayngtong' (act/behavior) and 'hayngwi' (act/behavior). In the classroom, I showed the different usage of the two words using the *SJ-RIKS Corpus*. She remembered the main difference of meaning between the two words in the classroom and made definitions herself. She commented that her definitions sound slightly unprofessional but easy to understand. They were effective in reminding her of the teacher's explanation. The third type is definitions which were replaced by semi-synonyms of headwords. I was not sure that a semi-synonym could be seen as a definition. However, I decided to classify them as one type of definition because it is one way to explain a meaning in Korean. A few students replaced the definition with a synonym. For instance, one student used a semi-synonym 'keyuluta' (be lazy) for the headword 'nathayhata' (be indolent) and referred to 'ipmal' (pure-Korean, spoken language) for the headword 'kwue' (Sino-Korean, spoken language). I think that this might be an efficient way for students to express the meaning of a headword when they already know the semi-synonyms of headword or when they had difficulty defining the meaning of a word themselves.

(2) Grammatical information

Students presented grammatical information using various ways. Many students described grammatical information using simple codes. There was no one who cited lexicographical codes from reference sources. Most students made their own codes simplifying grammatical information. Tables 2 and 3 in appendix 5 show the coded information which students used to simplify the grammar rules themselves.

I think that the advantage of these descriptions in tables 2 and 3 is that they are not written out using metalanguage. Hence, students do not have to read long and complicated explanations to understand grammar rules. The codes which they made themselves seem to be clear and easy for them to understand. In tables 2 and 3, both students used the grammatical terms ‘kwanhyenghyeng’ (modifier form), ‘tongsa’ (verb), ‘hyengyongsa’ (adjective) and ‘pwulkyuchik’ (irregular). Some students used abbreviations such as ‘myeng’ (N), ‘tong’ (V), ‘hyeng’ (A) and so on. Based on the students’ descriptions, students did not seem to feel discomfort using some basic grammatical terms to explain the grammatical information.

Table 3 shows one example of grammatical information for the defective verb ‘tayhata’ (face, concern). The defective verb ‘tayhata’ is usually used in the adverbial form ‘tayhayse (concerning)’ or the modifier form ‘tayhan’ in a sentence, differing from the other verbs. The student (DF10) stated its restricted forms in a sentence and what sentence pattern it usually occurs within the entry. In addition, the student added illustrative example sentences which applied the grammatical rule in a particular circumstance. Therefore, the student could check not only the syntactic pattern of verb ‘tayhata’ but also its usage in examples in the entry. In this example, the example sentences in DF10 are likely to play a role in the student’s understanding of how abstract grammatical rules perform in real sentences.

Some students cited syntactic information from Korean monolingual dictionaries or grammar books. In this case, the students described the grammatical rules in phrases or sentences because most of their references stated syntactic information in sentences. As for the definitions, the students commented that they did not have many options to choose from regarding the type of syntactic information used to describe it in Korean. I think that those who cited grammatical information as it occurred in a reference work were not motivated to modify the syntactic information to fit their purpose, or did not have the ability or ideas as to how they could simplify the information. This is because some students mentioned that even though they quoted grammatical descriptions in sentences from references, they found it difficult to handle grammatical information in sentences rather than simple codes. It demands much more effort and knowledge of Korean to understand them. Although we need more evidence to say that most students prefer simple codes over sentence descriptions for grammatical information, it seems to be necessary for them to make the definitions and grammatical descriptions as effective as possible.

The descriptions in table 4 offer grammatical information of the functional word ‘-nulako’ (because) borrowed from the *Korean Standard Dictionary* and the *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2*. Students mostly cited their grammatical information from these two references. The *Korean Standard Dictionary* is aimed at Korean native speakers and the *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2* is written for foreign learners of Korean. My students took grammatical information more from the *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2* than the *Korean Standard Dictionary*. As we can see, the grammatical descriptions in the *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2* certainly offer richer information for encoding, and at the same time, the sentence structure of descriptions in the *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2* seems to be simpler and easier to understand than the *Korean Standard Dictionary*.

However, some of my students mentioned that they felt that these descriptions were long and difficult to understand. Therefore, like the descriptions in tables 2 and 3 in appendix 5, some students tried to modify the grammatical information themselves to suit their needs. I could see that many students used their own strategies to simplify grammatical information as much as possible. The two types of strategies are given in table 5 in appendix 5.

As we can see in table 5 in appendix 5, DM7 described the phrasal verbs which usually occurs with ‘machi (adverb; as if)’ and DF20 also stated the phrasal verbs and sentence ending information which the entry ‘-ey pihamyen/pihayse (as compared to)’ and the entry ‘-telamyen (conditional connective ‘if?’)’ are used with. The student who made DM7 mentioned that she borrowed it from teacher’s explanations which she took a note of in the classroom and summarised the main point of the grammatical description as in the example in table 5.

Table 6 in appendix 5 shows the grammatical descriptions that are implicitly presented using example sentences. The student seemed to attempt to include the different usage of grammatical words. This usage is quite confusing to non-native speakers. She did not write any explanations about usage but the example sentences clearly indicated possible sentence ending tenses which four different functional words are used with. It is difficult to say whether the descriptions in DF9 are enough to show the grammatical difference of four different functional words. If the main purpose of the description is to distinguish the sentence ending tenses which they are followed by, we could say that her descriptions might be able to satisfy her needs. I think that if students read the descriptions in table 6 in appendix 5, they could see what tenses usually follow the four functional words without long explanations. Considering that this task is conducted to present information they need to know for their exams, they naturally omit the information they are familiar with. Even though the grammatical information in DF9 is not precise, the way it attempts to describe the tense information using example sentences could provide lexicographers with food for thought regarding how to present grammatical information in a more user-friendly way.

(3) Example sentences

As many researchers (Cowie 1978, Bogaards 1996, Harvey and Yuill 1998, Xu 2008) point out, example sentences take a wide variety of roles for language learners to show the meaning, grammar, collocation and register of a word. The results of this research confirmed the crucial role of example sentences for encoding activities. Some of my students seem to replace many kinds of information such as the definition or grammatical description with example sentences. The examples took up a large proportion of the entries in my students' dictionaries.

Certainly, my students' dictionaries were different from the real dictionaries so the types of example sentences were varied. Three types of example sentences were found in students' dictionaries. First, like other information, students quoted the example sentences from references. Second, students used example sentences which their teacher offered them in Korean classes. Last, they took their own sentences from their writing and used them as example sentences in their dictionaries. In an example, there were two kinds of sentence forms; a complete sentence or a partial sentence. However, a majority of the examples were complete sentences that include the compulsory elements of a sentence.

The example sentence was used as a main tool to demonstrate the grammatical information, collocation and usage. Table 7 in appendix 5 indicates how the student used example sentences to indicate the information for a lexical synonym. Table 7 in appendix 5 shows the examples for which word between 'hayngtong' (act/behavior)' or 'hayngwi' (act/behavior) would be more appropriate than the other. It might be impossible to show all the examples of what word can be used in what context or with what word but example sentences could be a good way to show this kind of information.

The examples in table 8 in appendix 5 indicate that the valency patterns of 'nathanata' (appear, turn up) and 'nathanayta' (show) are different each other, and the student added different nuances with two example sentences. I often observed that even advanced students were confused about distinguishing the usage and the meaning of these two verbs because the forms of the two words are very similar and they share most meanings as well. However, 'nathanata' is an intransitive verb and 'nathanayta' is used as a transitive verb so they occur in different patterns. I am not sure if the compiler of DM12 knew the difference in syntactic behavior between transitive and intransitive verbs, but at least he seemed to notice that the two verbs occur in a different pattern. DM12 described two sentences which had similar meanings using the same words 'kuuy phyoceng' (his facial expression) and 'kuuy kipwun' (his feeling), and then demonstrated how these two sentences could have different nuances. The students also marked the particles which indicate the case of the sentence in bold so readers could easily notice the different use of particles between two sentences. Besides DM12, many students used example sentences to describe the syntactic behavior of words rather than writing it out in descriptions.

The example sentences in table 9 in appendix 5 indicate the different meaning of two functional words. The texts are used to illustrate how grammatical meanings are created in actual use. The students explained why one sentence is more appropriate than another through examples. I think that examples are better tools to explain such kinds of language features as difference of meaning or context of use than long explanations in sentences.

The sample sentences in table 9 in appendix 5 show how the meanings of two sentences in which two functional words ‘-nulako’ (because/since) and ‘-a/ese’ (and so) are used could be different. Therefore, students need to describe which word could be suitable in what situation and why.

(4) Synonyms

Students included many kinds of information to compare synonyms. DM6 in table 10 in appendix 5 stated what subject four adjectives can describe. Apart from the accuracy of information, it is impressive that the students recognised that some verbs and adjectives are mostly used to describe a certain semantic category of subject.

In table 11 in appendix 5, DM7 compared the three functional words which share syntactic behavior but nuance and context of use are different. The compiler of DM7 in table 11 focused on the nuance without adding grammatical information. I think that the student already knew that the syntactic behaviors of the three functional words are similar. Hence, she seems to decide to include only the information related to pragmatics which she needs to know in order to use vocabulary correctly according to context.

(5) Expressions

There are many kinds of expressions in my students’ dictionaries. Some students grouped the expressions by function such as ‘defining’ and ‘suggesting’, as in table 12-13 in appendix 5, or by writing topics such as ‘introducing the city’ or ‘curriculum vitae’ like in table 14 appendix 5.

Whereas table 12 in appendix 5 contains sentence patterns with example sentences to show the pattern of usage, the entry in table 13 of appendix 5 describes only the sentence patterns and what parts of speech they could be combined with. Even though table 12 in appendix 5 did not include grammatical information, advanced students might notice what parts of speech should belong to each case based on the particle ‘-ul/lul’ (object particle)’ in the expression and the example sentence.

On the other hand, DF22 in table 13 in appendix 5 only includes information about which parts of speech expressions could be used with without any example sentences, but it does not seem to cause serious difficulty or confusion for learners in constructing a sentence based on parts of speech information and sentence patterns.

In the case of table 14 in appendix 5, the students' dictionaries described only the sentence pattern without the parts of speech information usually attached to it. This might be because students have enough knowledge to predict what parts of speech it should be combined with.

In the case of table 15 in appendix 5, DF 25 specified what semantic category of nouns (era, time, society, life) should occur in the second noun in the sentence. Even though some students at advanced level could predict what semantic category of noun appeared in noun phrases (subject or object) in a sentence based on the meaning of a predicate, if dictionaries offer the semantic category of noun like in table 15 in appendix 5, it might help learners to understand its syntactic and semantic properties.

(6) Errors

The errors in students' dictionaries were mostly related to collocation, syntax or institutionalised expressions. These sentence errors were described in various ways. Some students included their errors as an entry and then added the teacher's correction, as in table 16 in appendix 5. This could prevent students' errors when they use similar words, grammar or expressions by referring to their errors and the reason why they were not right. For instance, DF11 and DF17 in table 16 showed an incorrect sentence with a line through a text as an entry first and then contained the teacher's corrections. If the student does not know why 'i mwunceylo inhan pwucengcekin kyelkwatul' (negative effects of this problem) is more appropriate than 'i mwunceyka nathanaynun nappun kyelkwa' (negative effect which this problem shows), this description would be useful just as a short-term remedy for the exam.

DM8 in table 17 in appendix 5 described the teacher's corrections as an entry and added tense restriction of the modifier part using examples. It might be difficult to expect students to explain why the future modifier form would be appropriate. DM8 in table 17 seems to simplify the rule about the aspect of the modifier form as much as possible, a rule which many learners of Korean have trouble using properly.

In table 18 in appendix 5, DF6 offered the teacher's correction as an entry and marked the incorrect part in bold. In addition, her entry suggested the sentence pattern of 'piyuhata' (to liken) and 'piyutoyta' (to be likened), which she misused and illustrative examples which show the exact sentence pattern of each word. I think that the descriptions of students' own errors are useful to the students in that they organised the information in their own way and extracted it from their writing, not just citing from reference works like lexical or functional words. Of course, while they checked their errors and the teacher's correction, they might have learned some language features as well. My students do not have enough ability to offer full descriptions of their mistakes, but they could endeavor to state that information using simple codes and example sentences.

3.3 Students' comments on dictionary compiling project

In the previous section, I described some comments about students' decisions in compiling dictionaries which I found through interviews. Here, I offer students' general comments on the dictionary compiling project rather than about their specific decisions in their dictionaries. Generally, most students gave positive comments on the project, but a few students answered that it was a very difficult task and took so much time and effort. The main difficulties were that they did not know what information they had to include for their writing and how they could find the information they wanted to know. According to students, there were different difficulties in each step. The students' first task was to choose items which would be helpful for their writing exam. Therefore, they had to observe their weaknesses in writing themselves and decide how to make up for their language deficiencies. Secondly, students had to find good reference sources to search for the information which they needed. Even though they had a list of references which I offered them, they had to undergo a process of trial and error to find the appropriate resources for their writing exams. Thirdly, after finding appropriate references, they had trouble in organising the information to make it more understandable and convenient. Most students stated that the dictionary which was made for the final exam was more helpful than the dictionary for the mid-term exam. This is because they had clearer ideas of what information they really needed and what kinds of description were more suitable for their writing exam after they took the mid-term exam using their dictionaries.

The main advantage of the dictionary compiling project for the students was that they had their own dictionaries which they could use in the future. Students mentioned that when they started compiling their dictionary, it was just one of the tasks for their exams but they realised that they had a good reference which they could look up information now and then for encoding activities. Some students commented that their dictionaries would be useful when they became Korean language teachers in the future. Most students mentioned that while they were compiling their own dictionaries, they had learned a lot. Firstly, students could recognise their language deficiencies as they looked into their writings to select items for making dictionaries. The number of entries was limited to twenty five so they had to carefully select what items they would choose in a limited number of entries. Hence they had to look at their language problems in their writing based on the teacher's feedback. The process of selecting items for their dictionaries led students to become aware of their problems in writing and to think of ways to improve their writing. Secondly, they began to appreciate what information their reference sources deals with and what references could be most ideal for their encoding activities. Some students stated that they had not realised how much information dictionaries and grammar books contained before they compiled their dictionaries themselves. Also, students mentioned that they could imagine how much effort lexicographers made and how carefully lexicographers prepared entries for compiling one dictionary because they had to decide lots of things while

they were compiling, such as entries and example sentences. On the other hand, some students realised the lack of information in their reference works for their encoding activities when they encountered many kinds of references. They pointed out that most Korean monolingual dictionaries tend to focus on helping students with reading rather than on writing activities. Thirdly, students could learn how to organise information properly in a convenient way after finding information. But, most students found their own way to organise and describe information for assisting them with their exams. Some interviewees commented that they picked up a habit of recording their own errors in notes and then searching for information related to their errors during the course and planned to keep doing dictionary-compiling projects in the future. Two students said that they are doing the dictionary-compiling projects for their other foreign language learning. Lastly, it encouraged students to be autonomous learners. Students mentioned that they could try to use more varied words and expressions by referring to their dictionary during the exams. When students searched for information to correct their writing errors, they found what information was required for which kind of language problems. This project led students to try to solve their language problems themselves so they became aware of their responsibility for their own language learning. A majority of interviewees answered that they would recommend this project to advanced learners of Korean because this project would offer good opportunities for advanced learners to become conscious of their shortcoming in production and to improve their reference skills for solving their language problems.

4. Discussion

On the whole, my students successfully managed the dictionary-compiling project. The results of this project provided some insight into advanced learners' personal needs and preferences in a way to include and present information that they need. Moreover, they also showed the strategies students adopted to overcome their learning difficulties for their writing exams. In this section, I discuss what my findings could imply for decisions on macro- and micro structures in a MLD for encoding activities and offer some suggestions as to what lexicographer need to consider when they design or improve the contents of a MLD for encoding activities based on the results of this analysis.

4.1 Macrostructure

4.1.1 Arrangements

In terms of arrangement of entries, students did not use typical lexicographical conventions of Korean monolingual dictionaries. The main reason for students' decisions related to arrangements of their entry is not very clear. As I mentioned earlier, students had to write one essay on different topics every week. These writing topics were supposed to come up on the exams. From the students' point of view, the most important reason why they arranged their

dictionaries by writing topics might be because they added information in their dictionary in order of the feedback they received about their writing from the teacher. Or this structure might be convenient for students to look up information during the exams. On the other hand, considering the fact that a majority of students use electronic dictionaries for their Korean learning nowadays (see chapter 5), they were less likely to pay attention to the dictionary macrostructure when they used dictionaries. So their structural decisions could be partly influenced by their lack of awareness of dictionary macrostructure and their dictionary user situation. However, since the students' dictionaries were mainly designed for their own writing exams and used by themselves in a specific context, it might be more reasonable to say that the arrangement of entries by writing subjects could be more convenient for students to look up and check information which they need. In the results of the analysis, although not many students adopted this strategy, a few students organised their dictionaries according to the types of entry such as 'grammar' or 'expressions'. As some students said in the interviews, if they want to use the dictionary not only in writing exams but also for their Korean learning in the future, this macrostructure could in fact be more efficient and practical than the previous case. I think this structure could be useful in the case that the MLD offers various types of entry apart from lexical or functional words such as rules of grammar or expressions in a certain genre of writing (such as CVs or academic writing). Therefore, lexicographers could consider this method of organising the entries of a dictionary when they are planning the macrostructure of a dictionary.

In students' decisions in arrangement of entries, typical and traditional macrostructures of Korean dictionaries are completely ignored. Practically speaking, it is questionable whether the knowledge about the arrangement of the dictionary in alphabetical order is important in the era of online and electronic dictionaries which dictionary users look up the target word by typing the spelling in most cases. However, in spite of mainstream electronic and online dictionaries, it is also true that many dictionaries (including the *LDK* and grammar dictionaries) are still published in the form of paper dictionaries without online versions in KLT. Based on the results, dictionary users do not seem to be well aware of how the macrostructure of Korean dictionaries is typically organised, so teachers need to instruct students in the typical arrangement of Korean dictionaries from learners' beginner level to advanced level in their classrooms. Moreover, there is also a need for a dictionary to offer guidelines for their users to use the dictionary effective ways.

4.1.2 Types of entry

Even though the characteristic of students' dictionaries for writing exams might be different from those of a general dictionary for encoding activities, their dictionaries certainly show some distinct features which differentiate them from the learner's dictionaries for general purposes. First, various forms of entries apart from lexical and functional words were found in students'

dictionaries such as sentence pattern, expression, error, orthography and so on. These results imply that any individual items which are required for language production, from morphology to discourse, could be an entry in learner's dictionaries for encoding activities. However, lexical words were still selected as the most frequent entry by students. Verbs took up the greater part of lexical word entries and they tended to be described with more grammatical information and example sentences accompanying them than other parts of speech. Regarding the characteristic of a verb which determines to a large extent which case should be used in its clause and requires different sentence patterns depending on the word senses, the use of verbs certainly needs more grammatical knowledge (morphology and syntax) than other parts of speech for learners to use appropriately. Apart from a verb, an adjective and a bound noun are also likely to be tricky items for students. Many students included information to distinguish different sentence patterns for verbs and adjectives, and some grammatical restrictions of bound nouns. Therefore, it would be necessary for lexicographers to investigate what parts of speech and what types of words are more problematic for advanced learners' production so the lexicographers could have clearer ideas as to what parts of speech learner's dictionaries mainly deal with i.e. more verbs than nouns, more bound nouns than free nouns. Therefore, I believe the identifying target learners' difficulty through learners' corpus would contribute to these issues. These issues will be dealt with more precisely in the next chapter.

As language learners should know grammar rules in order to use lexical words correctly, they also need grammatical knowledge about functional words in order to express themselves precisely. People could express what they want to say by arranging only lexical words but there would be certain limitations to convey their intended meaning. But if a functional word is used appropriately, it will make sentences clearer to understand and convey their intended meaning more accurately. In other words, even if foreign language learners have extensive knowledge of lexical words, their expressions would be impoverished and lack clarity if the grammatical structures of the sentences which they use are very simple or limited to only a small number of functional items. Reflecting their importance, functional words are the second most frequent entry in students' dictionaries. The reason that functional words are problematic for learners is that the rules of grammar are not always deterministic. For example, a particle always combines with a noun, and a verb or an adjective is performed combined with endings in Korean. However, unfortunately, many rules are probabilistic in other words, they describe what is most likely or least likely to apply in particular circumstances and grammar frequently involves ellipsis, which is the absence of words which could be inferred from the surrounding text or from the situation. Thus, a dictionary should give the learner information as to how particular forms function in which context or how particular structures are distinguished from other structures to remedy learners' deficiency of knowledge (Lemmens and Wekker 1991: 13).

Whereas knowledge of sentence patterns would be required to construct sentences with lexical words, when students use functional words, they need to consider several factors such as the parts of speech which they can combine with, tense, aspect and subject information before these words can be used correctly. In addition, functional words tend to have many restrictions on use so learners require much practice to acquire them. In order to help these processes of learning, the dictionary should offer detailed information for learners in an effective way to solve the problems they may encounter when trying to use functional words. As was mentioned earlier, students included the syntactic information that they needed to know more about the target word and used various strategies to show that information more effectively. They used syntactic codes, examples and errors to present information according to the kind of information they needed. Some researchers (Bejoint 1981, Harvey and Yuill 1997) in English lexicography examined which way of presenting information dictionary users preferred, but I think that each one has different functions and its own strengths and they complement each other to enhance learners' knowledge.

In connection with the importance of verbs in lexical word entries, sentence patterns were frequently included not only as entries but also as information. According to Rundell (1998), the main advantage of a monolingual learner's dictionary is to demand more sophisticated descriptions of grammatical categories and syntactic preferences than a native speakers' dictionary. In English teaching, this scheme for productive purpose was practiced by Hornby in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* elaborating and refining Palmer's sentence pattern theory, and it has been developed by many lexicographers up to the present (Rundell 1998, Fontenelle 2008). Even though it was later than for English teaching, Korean lexicographers and researchers have become aware of the importance of teaching sentence pattern in a chunk for teaching both vocabulary and grammar and have made an effort to include them in learner's dictionaries for foreigners in the last decade.

According to my results, my students recognised the importance of sentence pattern well. Different sentence patterns for transitive and intransitive verbs were treated with importance in students' dictionaries. This result indicates that the traditional description of verbs as 'transitive' or 'intransitive' in vocabulary learning does not seem to be sufficient to enable the learner to build acceptable clauses (Jackson 1985: 55). A majority of students described the forms of passive and causative verbs and their different sentence patterns compared to basic verbs in entries. Some students dealt with these two rules in separate entries. Furthermore, the restricted forms of defective verbs in sentences were also frequently described in students' dictionaries although my students did not use the term 'defective verb'. Language learners do not need to know grammar terms such as 'defective verb' or 'auxiliary verb' but advanced learners seem to need more information to use verbs correctly, such as what category of verbs have what kind of syntactic behavior or what group of verbs share what sentence patterns beyond the

traditional description of verbs as ‘transitive’ or ‘intransitive’.

Many researchers (Lemmens and Wekker 1991, Hunston & Francis 1998) discuss whether sentence pattern information would cover very important areas of learning difficulties such as word construction. Jackson (1985) argues that sentence pattern information could be useful to fill up the gap between lexicalisations and rules. Hunston and Francis (1998) suggested that a description of sentence pattern in the dictionary would be helpful for the progress of both accuracy and fluency in language production; firstly, it would increase accuracy by providing elaborative information about the behavior of individual lexical items and indicating the group of verbs that share a particular pattern. Secondly, it could develop fluency since the patterns could be used as ‘chunks’ in language production. Therefore, if the dictionary aims to cover encoding activities, it should show the various possible sentence patterns for users so that they can choose the right sentence pattern for their intended expression to make their language more native-like.

Learning how to avoid common errors would be a good learning strategy for learners to learn Korean. Even though most errors in students’ dictionaries are related to syntax, lexicographers could show various kinds of information using errors from spelling to discourse. Whether we could prevent learners from making errors by providing typical errors is still highly controversial. However, it seems to be reasonable to suggest that the students’ own errors could be a valuable resource for my students to see their language ability for themselves. In addition, it would help to remedy their language deficiency and reinforce their knowledge of Korean. Rundell (1999) argues that learner’s dictionaries could take more proactive steps to help learners negotiate known areas of difficulty by providing acceptable models of performance. He suggests that types of error could be selected based on the experienced language-teachers’ intuition or empirical data in the form of learner corpora. Moreover, learners’ corpora enable lexicographers to identify recurrent sources of difficulty, and to use this information to anticipate learners’ errors.

Korean monolingual dictionaries for native speakers only show examples of what is possible or acceptable, but I think that it is necessary for learner’s dictionaries to offer incorrect or unacceptable constructions and forms. Language learners often tend to overgeneralise when they apply language rules to individual items. I think that for these reasons, a MLD needs to contain the cases that language learners often misuse. Thus, “while learners examine their errors they could move from encountering logistic problems in L2 production to developing a solution based on information about those errors” (Lemmens and Wekker 1991: 4). In the interviews, many students also mentioned that their errors and the teacher’s corrections are of great benefit during the course and dictionary making project. They commented that this resource would be very helpful for their Korean learning and Korean teaching in the future. Thus, the errors extracted from a learners’ corpus based on the findings of experienced language teachers and

lexicographers in a dictionary could be useful not only in helping learners prevent errors but also in solving their linguistic problems themselves.

The choice of the right word is one of the most difficult activities for language learners especially when the dictionary provides many Korean synonyms of their mother tongue equivalent. Actually, true synonyms are extremely rare except for the names of concrete objects which the two cultures share. As learners encounter more and more vocabulary, they have to learn how different they are to each other in various aspects. “After learners have a clear idea of what semantic category they are looking for, they start to search for information to make intelligent choices among the various lexical units on offer” (Rundell 1999: 49). Therefore, learner’s dictionaries should offer the users opportunities to observe and learn about word choices in relation to particular contexts in which the language is used. In addition, knowledge of synonyms would be valuable to avoid using the same expressions repeatedly. This information would be important for both native speakers and foreign learners. Accordingly, the ability to use a word appropriately to suit communicative contexts by choosing between synonyms would be a crucial criterion in determining the language proficiency of foreign learners. My students drew on many kinds of information such as meaning, syntactic behavior, collocation and register to compare the different usage of synonyms. Therefore, the dictionary should also show the difference between synonyms in various aspects. The students’ knowledge of vocabulary would be enhanced by learning about the relationship of synonyms and other words. The dictionary should explicitly describe how each word among the synonyms could be used differently.

Lastly, the ‘institutionalised sentence’ was chosen as one of the preferred items in the students’ dictionaries. ‘Institutionalised’ expressions offer various advantages for teaching conventional and other type of discourse. For instance, they enable students to use expressions that learners may as yet be unable to construct creatively. Hence, “even for lower level learners, they could help ease frustration and promote motivation and a sense of fluency” (DeCarrico 2001: 296). Another advantage in teaching them is that they could first be learned as unsegmented wholes, together with their discourse functions, and in later encounters can be analysed and learned as individual words, thus providing additional vocabulary (see chapter 3). In English lexicography, the phrasally-oriented approach has been applied right across the board using a variety of strategies, and in many dictionary entries meanings explained through phrasal units often outnumber those dealt with by traditional ‘substitutable’ definitions. Hence, Korean lexicographers need to ponder how to develop ways of presenting information which more closely reflect this view of language.

Some Korean dictionaries for native speakers deal with the word spacing rules but it is not easy for foreign learners of Korean to understand the rules in sentences which are difficult even for native speakers. The *LDK* did not include the word spacing rules. In my observation,

advanced learners of Korean have some basic knowledge about word spacing so it would not be necessary to include all the rules of word spacing in the dictionary.

In this chapter, I have discussed each type of entry which my students included in their dictionaries. There are two implications here: firstly, the macrostructure of a dictionary for encoding could be different from that of the dictionary for decoding. Whereas the dictionary for general purposes mostly consists of lexical and functional words, the types of entry in the dictionary for production could vary. This dictionary could deal with several language features as headwords such as institutionalised expressions or errors, or divide the dictionary macrostructure into different subjects such as parts of speech (noun, verb, particle, ending), types of word (lexical and functional words), expressions, genres, registers, collocations and so on. Some English learner's dictionaries for productive purposes (the *Cambridge Grammar of English*, the *Longman Language Activator*) devoted a lot of care to describing the meanings and idioms of the productive words (Rundell 1998: 316) rather than dealing with large amount of headwords. Therefore, the Korean learner's dictionary for encoding could attempt new types of macrostructure in terms of number and type of headwords, breaking the traditional convention of Korean lexicography. Secondly, headwords in an advanced learner's dictionary for production should be selected based on productivity, frequency and syntactic complexity. Differentiating from the grammar books, the dictionary should deal with both lexical and functional words but it needs to focus on more productive vocabulary and parts of speech which learners of Korean would use frequently and find difficult to use.

4.2 Microstructure

4.2.1 Types of information

The results of the project indicate that the required information in a dictionary for encoding could also be different from that of a dictionary for decoding. The results show that the definition of a word is important for both lexical and functional words. Even though students included the words which they already knew and had dealt with, the majority of students described the definition of the target word in its entry. Some students skipped the definitions but the results indicate that most students tend to recognise the main function of a dictionary is to offer meaning. According to the analysis of the results, students preferred short and simple definitions rather than long and sophisticated ones. Rundell (1999) suggest that information would only be useful if it is understandable, and for learners of a language the first imperative is that a definition must be easy to understand. In the same vein, Chaudron (1982) found that more elaborate definitions tended to be confusing rather than helpful. In English lexicography, it has been traditional convention to limit the number of words used to define vocabulary and to try to use simple grammatical structures to help learners' understanding from West's dictionary (the *New Methods English Dictionary*, 1935) to the present day. Ilson (1987) suggests that

definitions could function to indicate the characteristics of the syntactic and semantic properties of lexical units. He points out that definitions could play various roles by presenting the semantic information in the form of a phrase which displays the main syntactic features. Regarding the importance of syntactic information in dictionaries for encoding activities, Korean lexicographers could take into account the defining techniques which illustrate syntactic behavior through the wording of the definition itself in English lexicography. Even if it might be difficult for Korean lexicographers to apply this technique to the context of the Korean language, they could consider developing various defining techniques to suit Korean lexicography. Some of my students used semi-synonyms to convey the meaning of a word. The semi-synonym would be one of the most economical ways to describe the meaning of the word, but in most cases this is an unsatisfactory way of defining it (Atkins and Rundell 2008: 421). The use of a semi-synonym as a definition could be useful for advanced learners who already have a certain knowledge of vocabulary in Korean rather than for beginner or intermediate level students. However, it could be useful when dictionary users already know the meaning of the semi-synonyms well. In addition, it might be the case that a semi-synonym shares only one sense of the target word so this technique has a danger of leading students to believe that those two words are perfectly the same in terms of meaning and usage. Therefore, I think that giving synonyms of words would be helpful as extra information to extend vocabulary knowledge rather than indicating the meaning of the word in learner's dictionaries.

Halliday (1966) emphasised that a MLD aims at fostering the active use of language and especially in helping foreign learners to construct sentences which are acceptable lexically as well as grammatically. Starting from a basic knowledge of the grammatical rules and regularities, the learner consults the dictionary in order to find clear and explicit instructions as to which syntactic and morphological treatments should apply in which particular way to each individual lexical unit. The high frequency of grammatical information in students' dictionaries in this study indicates that syntactic information is crucial for both lexical and functional words for production. Lemmens and Wekker (1991) argue that whereas grammar books focus on the general features of the target language, the dictionary should be a collection of individually described items that reflect or confirm the general rules. Even though in this case, there will be some overlap between the grammatical component of the dictionary and the contents of the students' grammar books, they will also be complementary. As Lemmens and Wekker (1991) suggest, grammatical information in the dictionary would help independent learners to construct correct and appropriate sentences themselves. Similarly, my students commented that they could take more risks using various functional words during the exam because they had their own dictionaries. Hence, the dictionary should provide information as to how words and phrases function in the target language and many more complex structures and phenomena should be included (Lemmens and Wekker 1991:3).

In contrast with high frequency of grammatical information, my students tended to neglect the importance of information about parts of speech in their dictionaries. The information about parts of speech for noun and connectives might not be very helpful for encoding activities. Even though the conjugation forms and sentence patterns are heavily influenced by the parts of speech of words (e.g. whether it is an adjective or verbs) many students did not include this information in their entries for words. The reasons why learners ignored this information in their dictionaries is not very clear. Based on my observation, there could be three possible reasons. Firstly, information about parts of speech might not be very useful for students to use the target words in their writing. Secondly, it is also possible that students do not have serious trouble finding out the part of speech of a word based on the meaning of words. Lastly, they mostly described words they already knew so they did not need to include information they are familiar with.

Considering the main function of part of speech is to convey the morphological or syntactic information about a target word, if learners can get this information through sentence pattern or example sentences, they do not tend to pay attention to information about the parts of speech. Contrary to some lexicographers' expectations, it is possible that the information about parts of speech is not offering useful information to learners. Hence, the sentence pattern, explicit syntactic information, or example sentences might be more helpful or user-friendly ways to present grammatical information rather than part of speech. In addition, seeing the low frequency of verb conjugation information in the students' dictionary, it can be also seen that verb conjugation is not recognised as a problematic area for advanced learners of Korean though they still make mistakes.

In lexicography for foreign learners in both ELT and KLT, it is generally recognised that the information learners of L2 broadly need is a collocation; which are the words normally accompanying a given meaning. However, collocation is also rarely included as information in students' dictionaries. A few students used collocation information to distinguish the use of synonyms in example sentences but not in separate sections or explicitly. And a few students also included grammatical collocations such as what endings the adverb 'machi (as if)' often occurs with as syntactic information in table 15. Based on the results of analysis, collocation information does not seem to be considered important by learners. However, seeing learners' preference for institutionalised expressions and their need for acquiring native-like expression (see chapter 4), collocation is not an item which they can disregard in their production.

According to DeCarrico (2001), vocabulary knowledge involves both knowing the meaning of a given word and the words that co-occur with it. Lewis (2002) claims that an increased knowledge of collocation not only allows learners to improve levels of accuracy, but it also aids fluency and the development of pragmatic skills. Collocation is now recognised as playing a fundamental role in the progress of a learner's inter-language, and many researchers

(DeCarrico 2001, Lewis 2002) have paid attention to it in terms of theoretical and pedagogical levels. Even though my students did not seem to recognise the importance of collocation, from a pedagogical standpoint, the provision of collocates for synonymous words may actually increase understanding of these words (Lewis 2002) as “the collocational field is instrumental in forming a definition” (Webb and Kakimoto 2011: 263). The information for both lexical and grammatical collocations is crucial for advanced learners’ encoding activities. Furthermore, vocabulary is better acquired in context, with words that are naturally associated in a text than those in isolation. Hence, I believe that collocation should be included as part of the entries in dictionaries used for production. However, concerning the neglect of collocation information in students’ dictionaries, there seems to be a need for teachers to increase learners’ awareness of the importance of collocation in KLT.

In all entries, my students relied heavily on their example sentences to present language features. Sometimes they replaced other information such as definitions or syntactic information with sample sentences. Bogaard (1996) points out that in a productive mode, examples can be taken to be the fleshing out of the more or less abstract information that is provided by the definition and/or the grammatical codes. Concerning the high frequency of example sentences in the students’ dictionaries, my students were more likely to recognise the importance of language use in context rather than explicit descriptions. Based on these results, it can be said that they seem to prefer learning the usage of a word through sample sentences by observing how the word performs in a sentence in various ways (e.g. morphologically, syntactically or semantically) rather than abstract information such as parts of speech. The results of the dictionary-compiling project again emphasise the importance and saliency of examples, and suggest that lexicographers need to consider carefully the appropriateness of their examples, and perhaps to give the reader the source of the examples where they are typical of a given genre of writing.

Xu (2008) argues that productive vocabulary (high frequency) needs to be presented with more examples than receptive vocabulary (low frequency). Learner’s dictionaries in English should offer more examples for high-frequency words such as prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions and adjectives than for lower frequency one. He proposes that “exemplification in learner’s dictionaries should vary according to the word’s frequency of use, the word’s collocational and syntactic complexities, and the user’s needs and look-up preference” (Xu 2008: 395).

In their dictionaries, my students also tend to exemplify verbs rather than nouns, and functional words rather than lexical words. Exemplification of grammatical structures is an important step because dictionary users can make their own deductions from the real language items given in an entry. As Rundell (1998) points out, “there have been many disputes between the desirability of showing authentic instances of language in use and offering illustrative

examples which are made for fulfilling several functions simultaneously”. If the dictionary is to be made an adequate reference tool, it should try to come as close to a natural language situation as possible (Lemmens and Wekker 1991: 2). Recently, lexicographers have found natural and typical examples which clearly demonstrate language features using a corpus, and there is no reason for not using authentic examples (Reundell 1998: 335). However, unlike illustrative examples, authentic examples may be less focused on conveying the target information. They may include additional, unnecessary information that could distract learners from understanding the target information. Authentic example sentences can show in a practical way how the structural skeletons come to life. However, as they do not always present the typical structure of the target word in a clear way, they cannot easily be taken as models for learners’ own production. In addition, in written language, sometimes using an unusual expression is the mark of a skilled and confident writer (Kirkpatrick 1985: 11), and these kinds of examples would be impractical for users since they might not reflect real language use.

As some students pointed out in the interviews discussed in the previous section, example sentences extracted from Korean literature in Korean dictionaries for native speakers are interesting, but these samples are very difficult to understand and not useful for Korean language learning, especially for encoding activities. These examples are literary, refined, authentic and creative in some way, but they might be helpful for comprehension not for production. Actually, even native speakers do not use these sentences in daily life, so lexicographers need to select example sentences which could be used in real communication.

In the interviews after this project, my students especially preferred the examples which teachers offered in their Korean classroom. Many students commented that these examples are likely to be carefully made by teachers considering the meaning, syntactic information and usefulness in real communication. They regarded this type of example as fulfilling their needs because it is grammatically well-formed, natural and applicable to their real communication.

The third type of example indicates an example sentence which is created by students. Interestingly, students preferred the teachers’ example sentences than their own sentences. Although the third type of example is useful for their writing exams, students thought that their sentences are not natural because they knew that I corrected only their main mistakes and did not edit their sentences to reflect the language level of native speakers who are well-educated. Therefore, although they referred to their sentences for the exam, they did not want to rely on them too much.

According to the results, my students preferred illustrative examples to authentic ones. Carefully chosen examples can illustrate what is typical of the lexical and grammatical usage of a lexical item. Both types of examples certainly have their own advantages and disadvantages. The example policy of the dictionary could be determined depending on what kind of approach

to language teaching lexicographers take. However, I think that the example policy should be different according to the purpose of the dictionary and the needs of its target users. As pointed out earlier, even if there is some distracting information in the examples, it would not hinder users' understanding of meaning much in decoding activities. On the contrary, it could enhance advanced learners' ability to grasp the main point of the text in various contexts and offer learners the opportunity to encounter refined or creative expressions in the target language. However, the examples in a dictionary for encoding should play a role not only in offering information to help users to use a word in a way that is grammatically correct but also to be an authentic model for how they could use that word in real communication. Thus, it would be impossible to modify an actually-occurring sentence focusing on specific linguistic points without baffling the users even if lexicographers decide to use authentic examples in dictionaries. Based on this user research, there is no doubt about the crucial role of example sentences in a dictionary for encoding activities. It would be very important for a critical dictionary review to examine how the example sentences show the linguistic characteristics of target words typically and appropriately in a dictionary. This issue will be discussed in chapter 8.

4.2.2 Presentation of information

Many researchers (Béjoint 1981, Harvey and Yuill 1997, Cubillo 2002) claim that syntactic codes in the dictionary are largely neglected by learners, but my students created their own codes to simplify the descriptions of syntactic information. These results imply that if the syntactic codes are understandable without much effort, they could be a good tool for presenting complicated syntactic descriptions. Moreover if syntactic codes are complemented by illustrative examples that show typical syntactic characteristics, users could get to know the real performance of the target word in a sentence better. Hence, "the dictionary user who is not used to working with grammatical codes or who is not interested in them, and consequently not prepared to spend time on interpreting them, should also be catered for" (Lemmens and Wekker 1991: 3).

Although some students quoted grammatical descriptions which are given in metalanguage from their references, many students reported that they felt it was difficult to understand the descriptions of grammatical terms in Korean. The shortcomings of this form of presentation are that users could lose interest or get distracted when searching through long descriptions including grammatical terms. Lemmens and Wekker (1991) argue that the success of the grammar components in the dictionary would depend on how well they are explained in descriptive language, and lexicographers should keep in mind that language learners are more interested in language and its intricacy than grammatical metalanguage. Hence, if lexicographers are aiming for users to use the grammar on their own after using a dictionary, the description should be simple and readable to attract users' attention. Rundell (1998) also claims

that lexicographers in English teaching make an effort to design coding systems that users can easily comprehend without requiring much grammatical knowledge. He identifies two clear trends in learner's dictionaries in English: firstly, they aim at more transparent coding, and, secondly, they devote more systematic effort to information supplied in codes, as is reflected in the examples and definitions. While the students' descriptions look unprofessional and crude in some ways, they could be valuable resources for Korean lexicographers enabling them to understand what kind of descriptions would be user-friendly.

5. Conclusion

Atkins (1986:23) argues that "a good dictionary should provide users not only with what they know they want, but with what they do not know they want as well". Dictionaries can be an extremely important tool in the autonomous learning process, especially in the time when the teacher cannot be with learners.

The dictionary-compiling project was successful in two respects: firstly, the results show what information users need the most or what they find most helpful for their writing exams. Regarding dictionary typology, the results could give insight into how a monolingual learner's dictionary for encoding activities could differ from other dictionaries based on learners' requirements. Secondly, this experience was helpful in developing my students' reference skills, helping them to be autonomous learners. My students could identify their linguistic weaknesses in their writing and seek solutions to solve their learning problems. The task was a good way to become aware of learners' needs and performance in production. A further task might be to try to identify the specific items which learners of Korean find difficult to use and look for methods to improve information for those items.

Analysis of learner corpus

1. Introduction

In the previous two chapters, the kinds of problems advanced learners (including intermediate learners) of Korean have in their production were examined. The results showed that the use of grammar rules (morphology and syntax) and functional words is one of their main difficulties for encoding activities, especially when writing. The present chapter explores what kind of syntactic difficulties advanced learners of Korean have in their production based on errors recorded in the learner corpus which I designed for my research. The specific goals of this chapter are twofold. First, I aim to identify the linguistic items (e.g. particles, endings), which advanced learners have most difficulty in producing correctly by analysing their errors from the learner corpus. Second, I look at the syntactic characteristics of Korean which cause errors for advanced learners when they use selected items.

Every language teacher has their own personal lists of language points which are difficult for their learners to learn based on their experience. Their intuition as a language teacher is based on accumulation of experience is a valuable asset in language teaching. Undoubtedly, most educators involved in developing teaching material might have their own insight about learners' difficulties. However, Tongnini-Bonelli (2001: 21) points out that it is often found that many textbooks which were written based on the authors' intuitions offer unattested contents. These drawbacks lead a considerable amount teaching material to fail to meet their learners' needs. Therefore, if teaching materials such as textbooks, dictionary or grammar books can be written based on concrete evidence of real language use (both native and non-native speakers), they can produce more reliable and user-friendly resources for their target learners.

Corpus linguistics is based on an 'empirical approach by focusing on description of language on data from naturally occurring contexts of use' (Tongnini-Bonelli 2001: 2). One of the main strengths of using a corpus is that it offers reliable evidence about real language use rather than relying on intuition (Hunston 2002: 20). According to Sinclair (2005: 101), the primary goal of corpus linguistics is to increase reliability of the descriptive statement by improving the procedures and criteria. Thus, I assume that a learner corpus is the most effective way to observe my target learners' language use and identify their grammatical difficulties in their Korean learning. Moreover, I believe that the results which I found based on the learner corpus enable me to establish the criteria for examining the grammatical descriptions of existing learner's dictionaries. I think that I can also find out the linguistic points which lexicographers need to take into account in order to improve the descriptions for target learners. The main

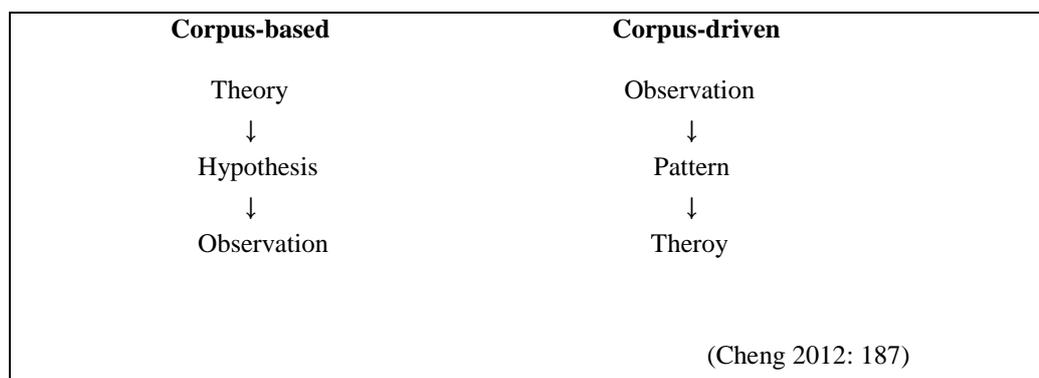
research questions for this research were as follows:

- What linguistic items do intermediate and advanced learners find most difficult to use in their writing?
- What kind of errors do advanced learners make related to the selected linguistic items?
- What grammatical characteristics of the Korean language caused the learners' errors?

2. Research methods

The main research methodology used here is the learner corpus. The learner corpus is a main tool to observe learner language and to extract learners' errors according to linguistic category. The approach adopted in this study is a corpus-driven approach. Corpus research can be conducted based on two approaches: the corpus-based approach and the corpus-driven approach. Whereas the corpus-based approach is 'deductive', the corpus-driven approach is 'inductive'. In a corpus-based study, a corpus is used as a resource to prove an existing theory by observing examples in the corpus to support it (Tognini-Bonelli 2001: 11). The researcher attempts to examine specific hypotheses or verify pre-existing theories that can be tested using a corpus. Contrary to corpus-based study, the corpus-driven approach makes inductive reasoning possible from specific observation to broader generalisations and theories. When certain patterns are identified in the corpus, the researcher sets up some tentative hypotheses generalising the data and can be drawn into certain conclusions or theories (Tognini-Bonelli 2001: 114-18).

< **Figure 1: Corpus-based and corpus-driven approaches to corpus linguistics** >



Based on a corpus-driven approach, first, this study attempts to select five linguistic items which learners do not use correctly by observing the frequency of learners' errors in the learner corpus. Second, I try to identify pedagogical implications by analysing learner language in the learner corpus. This section briefly introduces the procedures used to build up the learner corpus which was designed for my research and the rationale for analysing errors to identify advanced learners' syntactic difficulties. First, I present the background of the learner corpus and the

process of setting up it in section 2.1. Next, in section 2.2, I describe the classification of errors. All error sentence samples are described in appendix 7.

2.1 The corpus of Korean learners

The learner corpus was built up to investigate advanced learners' syntactic difficulties using writing samples which were collected while I was teaching Korean to foreign learners at *Korea University* from September 2010 to August 2011. The writing samples were collected from level 4 to level 6, and research class¹⁹ students attending regular Korean language courses at the *Korean Language and Culture Centre* and the Korean language programme for overseas exchange students at *Korea University*. 80% of the writing samples were collected from classes which I taught. The subjects which they dealt with and what meaning learners intended to express in their writings could be recognised by the researcher. This corpus contains argumentative and expository essay writing²⁰ written in informal, (semi-) formal, and semi-academic style by 184 higher intermediate to advanced learners of Korean with diverse backgrounds²¹.

This research intends to observe learners' syntactic choices and behaviours through their production rather than evaluating their syntactic accuracy. Therefore, only writing samples which were written in a context where students could use reference books such as their dictionaries or textbooks for their writing without time limitation were selected for the learner corpus. The size of the learner corpus is 75,681 million *ecel*²². More detailed information about the learner corpus is given table 1 and 2 in appendix 6.

The texts were separated into *ecel* and morphologically tagged using the *Cinunghyeng Morphological Analyser* which was developed as part of the *21st Century Sejong Project* by the *NIKL*. The texts were tagged according to the classification of part of speech (henceforth POS) in a modified version of the *Sejong Tagset*²³. Table 3 in appendix 6 briefly shows the part of the

¹⁹ The research class is the course which language learners who have finished level 6 at *Korea University* take to study Korean for academic purposes.

²⁰ All writing samples were collected from foreign students at *Korea University*. Accordingly, the contents of writing, the grammatical and lexical items in the corpus might be influenced by the curriculum and textbooks of *Korea University*.

²¹ The texts in the learners corpus are collected from learners from 14 countries; China, Japan, Taiwan, Mongolia, Thailand, Singapore, France, German, Russia, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, Australia, the UK and the USA.

²² *Ecel* is a linguistic unit in Korean which is larger than a word, as one *'ecel'* includes a word and any particle(s) or inflectional ending(s) attached to it. An *ecel* can be identified in terms of spacing.

²³ The *Sejong Tag Set* classifies the predicate into four types: verb, adjective, auxiliary verb and copula. But this study uses the term 'processive verb' for a verb and 'descriptive verb' for an adjective following Yeon and Brown (2011). Hence, predicates are categorised into four different types in this study: processive verb, descriptive verb, auxiliary verb and copula.

modified *Sejong Tag Set*.

The *ecel* can be identified by spacing. Incorrect word spacing could cause problems for tagging POS. Incorrect word spacing and POS tags were corrected by hand. By tagging POS, I was able to see which POS or words produce the most errors in higher intermediate and advanced learners' production of Korean. In addition, this meant that I could search for particular errors and find plenty of examples. Table 4 in appendix 6 shows a sample of the grammatically tagged corpus. After the *ecel* were tagged according to POS, the errors in the corpus were also tagged by hand. This research is interested in learners' syntactic difficulties, therefore only syntactic errors were tagged, excluding orthographic, morphological²⁴ or semantic errors. The rationale of the error analysis will be stated in the next section more precisely.

2.2 Error analysis

Many researchers discriminate between “mistakes” and “errors” resulting from lack of knowledge of the rules of the language (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 139). Corder (1967) argues that error analysis should focus on identifying errors, eliminating mistakes from the analysis. However, it is difficult to decide if a learner's idiosyncratic utterance is caused by mistake or by a failure to perform at the level of their competence. Ellis (1994) pointed out that learners' competence is variable rather than homogeneous. Hence, learners could sometimes use target items properly and sometimes improperly depending on the linguistic context. Moreover, if learners only have partial knowledge of the target items, it might be difficult to say whether learners understand them or not. It is also uncertain whether cases where learners use target items correctly by chance should be considered as examples of learners knowing the target items well. Even though the difference between mistakes and errors is important, distinguishing errors from mistakes is not easy to do in real error analysis. Therefore, this study uses the term “error” to indicate to any deviation from the norms of the target language (here, the Korean language), not concerning what the source or causes of the deviation might be. This study employs the following definition of error from Lennon (1991: 182):

A linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by speakers' native speaker counterpart.

Richard (1994) divided errors into three types in terms of the source or causes of

²⁴ The number of morphological errors is not given statistically here because this study mainly focuses on syntactic errors. However, morphology is deeply related to syntax. The morphological errors will be dealt with partially in this chapter.

errors: interference errors, intralingual errors and developmental errors (see chapter 4). This research does not cover interference errors such as how learners' L1 causes difficulties in their Korean learning or what kind of errors are frequently produced by what L1 speakers. It might be true that some parts of learners' language behaviours in the learner corpora are affected by their L1²⁵, but there are also plenty of studies which found that a great number of student errors could not possibly be attributed to their native languages in error analysis. Also, recent research shows that L1 influence is a subtle and evolving aspect of L2 development. Spada and Lightbrown (2002) argue that learners do not simply transfer all patterns from the L1 to the L2, and there are changes over time. My target learners are intermediate and advanced learners, and as learners come to know more about the Korean grammatical system, I believe that they are less likely to attempt to transfer the grammatical system from their L1 to the L2 (Korean). In addition, Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) pointed out the difference between intralingual and developmental errors is also ambiguous (see chapter 4), the term 'intralingual errors' is therefore used as an amalgam of two types of errors in this study. The Korean monolingual dictionary which this research deals with does not target a group of learners with certain L1. This study focuses on intralingual errors based on how learners learn rules and develop their hypotheses about the structure of Korean. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) argue that classifying errors based on surface strategies enables researchers to focus on finding cognitive processes that underlie the learners' reconstruction of the new language. Like Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), I focus on the some observable surface features of the error itself, not considering its underlying cause or sources.

The classification of errors often differs depending on how the researchers see second language acquisition. This study adopted the classification system of Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) and modified it for my own research context. The procedures of error analysis are introduced below. What parts of the sentence have problems and what type of error was occurring in the learner's sentence was decided by comparing the reconstructed sentence with the original learner's idiosyncratic sentence. Therefore, if I could not infer what a well-formed reconstruction of learner's incorrect sentence would be, it was impossible to determine what kinds of linguistic problems the learner's sentence might have. If I could not understand the meaning of the sentence at all, it was eliminated from the corpus.

In the next step, errors were classified according to linguistic categories such as orthography (spelling and word spacing), morphology, syntax, semantics (meaning and vocabulary), pragmatics and discourse. Then, syntactic errors were divided into 9 items in this

²⁵ For instance, learners' difficulties in using particles might be different between Japanese learners, whose L1 has a similar grammatical rule to the Korean language, and other learners whose L1 does not. It might be possible that the rate or type of errors made with each linguistic item in the learner corpus can be slightly different depending on the learner's L1.

research as a result of error analysis: 1. verbs 2. copula 3. particles 4. connectives 5. prefinal endings 6. final endings 7. nominal forms 8. modifiers 9. adverbs. After the errors were tagged according to grammatical category, errors were also subcategorised in terms of type of error. The errors were categorised into four types: omission, substitution, addition and misordering. Most errors were tagged at *ecel* level but misordering errors were tagged at the sentence level because these errors occur over several *ecel* or the whole sentence. All texts were analysed more than twice to produce a more reliable outcome. This study does not deny the possibility that some errors could be classified in more than one category. All possible linguistic explanations for errors will be considered but only syntactic errors are tagged in the learner corpus. Lastly, after tagging the text according to linguistic category and type of error, all tagged errors were counted using a text editor. Next, I present some examples of how to classify and analyse learners' errors.

• Morphological errors

In the Korean language, when a verb combines with a present plain style final ending of statement, the verb takes a different ending shape depending on whether the verb is a descriptive or processive verb. In the case of processive verbs, if the verb stem's final syllable ends in a consonant, the ending shape '-nun-ta' attaches to the verb stem, and if it ends in a vowel, the ending shape '-ta' is added to the verb stem. The shape '-ta' is attached to the stem of descriptive verbs. In (1), the verb stem of the processive verb 'pota (lit. to see, to watch or to look at)' ends in a vowel so the final ending shape '-ta' should be attached to the verb stem instead of shape '-nun-ta'. The error in (1) demonstrates learner's problem with the structure of word rather than sentence. This error was classified as morphological errors in the learner corpus. The errors which are connected to the use of allomorphs, inflection or word formation were classified as morphological errors in this study.

(1)	wuli nala	salamtul-un	chwukkwu	kyengki-lul	taypwupwun	cip-eyse	po- nun -ta.
	my country	people-TOP	football	game-ACC	mostly	home-LOC	watch-PRE-DEC

People in my country mostly watch the football game at home.

Morphological error: substitution of '-nun-ta' shape for '-ta'

• Semantic errors

The meaning of 'celchanhata' in the dictionary is 'to praise' or 'to extol' so learners might have used this word to express 'to boast about their town'. However, this word is rarely used not only in speaking, but also writing in real communication: this word is mostly used in a noun form 'celchanli (highest acclaim)' rather than a verb form. The verb 'chingchanhata (to complement)' or 'calanghata (to praise)' would be more appropriate in order to express the learner's intended

meaning in this context. The learner's wrong choice of verb is related to meaning or collocation rather than the structure of the sentence, so in this case, this error was treated as a semantic error. Errors such as the one in (2), which are related to meaning or collocation were categorised as semantic errors in the learner corpus. Thus, auxiliary particles and verbs, which play the role of appending additional meaning and conjunctive adverbs, which are relevant to meaning and discourse, are excluded from error analysis.

(2)	ilehkey	caki	kohyang-ul	<u>celchanha-nun</u>	kes-to	osakha	salam-uy
	this way	their own	hometown-ACC	praising-PRE-MOE	thing too	Osaka	people-POSS
	tukcing-uy		hana-ta				
	characteristics-POSS		one-PRE-COP-DEC				
	Boasting about like this about their town is one of the characteristics of Osaka people.						
	Semantic error: Substitution of a verb 'celchanhata' for 'chingchanhata' or 'calanghata'						

• Syntactic errors

① Omission

Omission indicates the absence of an item that must occur in a well-formed sentence. In Korean, some constituents of sentences, for example particles can be left out, especially in spoken language. In error analysis, if there is no problem in understanding the sentence with the context of the writing sample without the constituent or particles, this kind of omission was not counted as an error. Sentence (3), was tagged as an omission of a sentence constituent because the meaning of subordinate clause is not clear due to the omission of the subject.

(3)	(?)	manhi	nolyekhay-se	3pencgay	sal-ki	coh-un
		lots of	put effort-PRE-because-CON	3 rd	livable-PRE-NOE	good-PRE-MOE
	tosi-ka		toy-ess-ta.			
	city-NOM		become-PAST-DEC			
	(The city) became to the 3 rd most livable city (in the world) because (___ ? ___) put in lots of effort					
	Omission of subject of subordinate clause					

In (4), even though the subject of the sentence does not appear, it does not prevent us from understanding the sentence, so it was not marked as an omission error. However, the noun phrase 2.1 was marked as an error because of the omission of the locative particle '-eyse' causes sentence (4) to sound unclear.

(4) twupencay	2.1(?)	wencalyek	palcenso-uy	cangcem-ey	tayh-ay
Second,	2.1	a nuclear power	plant-POSS	advantage-LOC	about-CON
kiswulha-l kes-ita.					
describe will- FUT-DEC					
Second, [I/this study] will describe the advantages of a nuclear power plant (?) 2.1.					
Omission of the locative particle ‘-eyse (in)’					

② Substitution

Substitution refers to a kind of error in which a linguistic unit or units are replaced by the wrong items. Considering the context of sentence (5), we do not know the agent of the action ‘nanwuta’ (to divide; active verb) so the passive verb ‘nanwita’ (to be divided; passive verb) would be more suitable than the active verb ‘nanwuta’ in this sentence.

(5) pel-un	yewangpel,	swupel,	ilpel	3kaci-lo	<u>nanwu-ess-nuntey</u>
bee-TOP	queen	male bee	working bee	three kind-INS	divide-ACT-PAST-and-CON
yewangpel-un congco- <u>ul</u> pensiksikhi-nun yekhal- <u>ul</u> ha- <u>nta</u> .					
queen bee-TOP	species-ACC	reproducing-CAU-PRE-MOE	role-ACC	does-PRE-DEC	
Bees are divided into three kinds queen bees, worker bees and male bees, the queen bee plays the reproducing role.					
Substitution of active verb ‘nanwuta (to divide)’ for passive verb ‘nanwita (to be divided)’					

In (6), the descriptive verb ‘elyepta’ (be difficult) is usually used in the form ‘noun+nominative particle ‘-i/ka’+ verb (elyepta)’ or ‘verb+ nominal form ‘-ki’+ nominative particle ‘-ka’ + verb (elyepta)’. Thus, the accusative particle ‘-lul’ should be replaced with the nominative particle ‘-ka’ for the noun phrase ‘chack-i’ (finding out).

(6) haciman	mwunhwa-na	yeksa-eyse	wenin- <u>ul</u>	chac-ki- <u>lul</u>
however	culture-or	history -LOC	reason-ACC	finding out-PRE-NOE-ACC
elyewu-n siksaynghwal-to iss-ta.				
difficult-PRE-MOE	food life- too	exist-PRE-DEC		
However, there is food culture the cause of which is difficult to find out from culture or history.				
Substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for the nominative particle ‘-ka’				

③ Addition

Addition error indicates an incorrect use by adding an item which should not appear in a well-formed sentence. When the verb ‘wihata’ is used to indicate the meaning ‘in order to’, it requires one object or a noun phrase which is formed ‘verb + nominal form –ki’ without being attached to any particle in a sentence. However, the locative particle ‘-ey’ is added to the noun

phrase which the verb ‘wihata’ modifies in (7). The use of the locative particle ‘-ey’ in (7) is an addition of an unnecessary item so it was marked as an addition error in the learner corpus.

(7)	simintul-un	tosi-uy	hwankyeng-ul	pohoha-ki- ey	wiha-y	pesu
	citizen-TOP	city-POSS	environment-ACC	protect-PRE-NOE-LOC	in order to-CON	bus
	taysin-ey	cencha-lul	iyoungha-ko	iss-ta.		
	instead of-LOC	tram-ACC	use-PRO-DEC			
	Citizens are using trams in stead of buses in order to protect the environment of the city.					
	Addition of locative particle ‘-ey’					

④ Misordering

Misordering errors are characterised by the incorrect placement of a constituent or group of constituents in a sentence. In (8), the adverbial phrase ‘cheumulo’ (firstly) is placed between the relative clause and the noun phrase which the relative clause modifies. The adverbial phrase ‘cheumulo’ (firstly) in (8) should occur at the front of the sentence or between the noun phrase ‘sayngkaki’ (subject) and ‘tulessta’ (predicate). These kinds of errors are classified as misordering errors in the learner corpus.

(8)	*nay	pwucwuuyha-n	hayngtong-i	thain-eykey	phihay-lul	cwu-l
	my	careless-PRE-MOE	act-NOM	other people-DAT	harm-ACC	give
	swu issta-nun	cheumulo	sayngkak-i	tul-ess-ta.		
	can-PRE-MOE	firstly	think-NOM	come out- PAST-DEC		
	I (firstly) thought that my careless action could harm other people.					

3. Results

According to the results, the total number of sentences is 6,792 and the average length of a sentence is 11.14 *ecel*. It should be noted that the length of sentences produced by advanced learners is quite long. The total number of *ecel* which were marked as syntactic errors in all nine grammatical categories is 6,860, accounting for 9.47% of the total number of *ecel*. The number of misordered sentences is 124, making up 1.83% of the total. The results of the error analysis are presented in table 5 in appendix 6.

First, the distribution of each grammatical item in the learner corpus was investigated in order to calculate the incidence of error for each item. This is because it is necessary to identify the error rate for each grammatical item in order to examine their level of difficulty. For example, even though the number of particle errors is much higher than number of nominal form errors (2.60%), the most problematic item for advanced learners is nominal forms not particles. This is because the percentage of error occurrence in using nominal form (18.90%) is

the highest among the 9 grammatical items (see table 5 in appendix 6).

It is impossible to deal with all grammatical items in this study. This study selected five items with which learners seem to have difficulties based on their percentage of error occurrence in the learner corpus: 1. particle 2. verb 3. connective 4. nominal form 5. adverb. Although the prefinal ending is the second most error prone in the results, it was not selected in the five selected items. In the Korean language, the prefinal ending plays the role of indicating a tense or honorific meaning by combining with the verb stem. The choice of prefinal ending is influenced more by meaning, aspect and discourse than syntactic environment. Some errors can be explained in terms of syntax, for example when deciding whether a tense can or cannot occur with certain connectives or final endings, or cases when a verb cannot be used in a certain tense. These problems should be discussed along with other items such as connectives or verbs. Some errors of prefinal endings will be examined in the connective, verb or adverb errors sections. It has been decided that the prefinal ending should be excluded to avoid overlapping discussion.

(1) Particles

In the Korean language, the function of a particle is to indicate the grammatical role of the noun or noun phrase in a sentence. Even if the order of noun phrases in a sentence is changed, we can still understand the grammatical role of each noun phrase and their relation to one another in a sentence. Therefore, use of particles in a sentence can show not only learners' knowledge of the functions particles, but also their ability structure a sentence according to the syntactic characteristics of the predicate. In the error analysis, substitution errors occur the most frequently of the three types of errors, accounting for 94.88 % of total particle errors. The percentages of omission and addition errors are significantly lower than substitution errors. Some studies (Kho Seokju 2002, Kim Miok 2002) indicate that beginner learners tend to omit particles because they are not familiar with the grammatical item 'particle' in Korean. However, the particle errors of advanced learners seem to be derived from a lack of knowledge about the role of a noun phrase in a sentence rather than lack of recognition of particles.

As we can see in table 6 in appendix 6, the most frequently misused particle is the subject particle: this means that students misused the subject particle instead of other case particles. The error rate of the comitative particle is the lowest and three other particles have a similar rate of error. More detailed information of particle errors is given in table 6 in appendix 6. Most particle errors seem to be related to learners' assumptions about the predicates modifying the noun phrases in a sentence. For example, whether or not the use of the object particle '-lul' in (9) is correct cannot be determined unless we check what predicate modifies the noun phrase 'hyengthaylul' (shape) in the sentence.

(9) cwungkwuk-kwa China-COM	hankwuk-un ²⁶ Korea-TOP	ta all	ceskalak-ul the chopsticks-ACC	sayongha-ciman use-PRE-but-CON
ceskalak-uy chopstick-POSS	hyengthay- lul shape-ACC		taluta. different- PRE-DEC	
China and Korea both use chopsticks but the shape of the chopsticks is different. The substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for nominative particle ‘-ka’				

After checking the predicate ‘taluta’ (be different), we can identify the object particle ‘-lul’ is inappropriate in (9) because ‘taluta’ requires a nominative and comitative case not an accusative case. Therefore, particle errors need to be analysed based on predicates, especially verbs, which determine the numbers and roles of noun phrases in a sentence, rather than the particles themselves. Particle errors are classified based on the verbs which decide the roles of the noun phrases to which particles are attached in a sentence. All sample sentences are described in appendix 7.

① Misuse of case particles with descriptive verbs

Learners tend to think that the structures of descriptive verbs are not complicated because descriptive verbs are intransitive verbs. However, given the errors in the learner corpus, correct use of descriptive verbs does not seem to be easy for even advanced learners. Descriptive verbs are known to require only one subject in the Korean language. However, there are some descriptive verbs which take one compulsory adverbial case besides the subject. The descriptive verbs ‘ttwienata’ (be excellent) and ‘manhta’ (many, a lot) can occur with one subject as in ‘kiswul-i ttwienata’ (Subject+Verb: The skill is excellent) or ‘swupak-i manhta’ (Subject+Verb: there are many water melons). There is a case, however, in which these two verbs need to take one more adverbial case apart from the subject to indicate a different meaning.

Sentence (1) in appendix 7 which the verb ‘ttwienata’ (be excellent) is used, the noun phrase which expresses the ‘study’ or ‘art’ of which the subject has an excellent command should have occurred as an adverbial case taking the locative particle ‘-ey’, not as an object. Sentence (1), the learner attached the object particle ‘-ul’ to the adverbial case. Like the verb ‘ttwienata’ (be excellent) in sentence (1), the descriptive verb ‘manhta’ (many, a lot) in sentence (2) requires the adverbial noun phrase to be marked with the locative particle ‘-ey’ or one more subject to express what difference it is. Sentence (2) in appendix 7, the noun phrase ‘ene’

²⁶ The particle ‘un/nun’ functions to topicalise the word or phrase to which is attached. Any noun phrase or postpositional phrase can be topicalised by attaching of the topic particle (Yeon Janehoon and Lucien Brown 2011: 123). The use of ‘un/nun’ is decided relying on the semantic or pragmatic context (Kim Wonkyung 2009: 124). The topic particle ‘un/nun’ often replaces the subject of a sentence. In this study, even if learners attached the topic particle ‘un/nun’ to the noun phrase such as subject or object, the noun phrase is identified based on its syntactic function not as topic phrase. I think it would be clearer to discuss the syntactic structure of the sentence.

(languages) should occur in the locative case or subject case to indicate ‘among languages’. However, the learner has used the possessive particle ‘-uy’ where either the locative case or subject particle should occur. There are some errors in the learner corpus in which learners used the wrong particles instead of the correct adverbial cases: these errors, such as those in sentences (1) and (2), seem to be derived from a lack of awareness of structures where descriptive verbs take adverbial cases.

There are also some descriptive verbs which require a compulsory comitative case accompaniment with the subject in a sentence. I tried to observe how learners use this category of verbs. Descriptive verbs such as ‘taluta’ (be different) and ‘kaththa’ (be the same) take two obligatory cases in a sentence: the nominative and the comitative cases. Interestingly, learners seemed to recognise the rule for these two descriptive verbs which take one subject and comitative cases well. In the learner corpus, there are only a few errors in which learners omitted or misused particles where a descriptive verb requires a compulsory comitative case (see sentence (3) in appendix 7). Based on the learner corpus, learners do not seem to have many problems using this structure.

Besides two compulsory cases, there is an instance where the two verbs ‘taluta’ and ‘katha’ require three cases (two nominative cases and a comitative case) in a sentence. For example, in ‘My hobby is the same as my friend’s’, ‘my’ and ‘friend’ can occur in the nominative case in the Korean sentence: ‘nay-ka chwimi-ka chinkwu-wa kaththa (I-NOM hobby-NOM friend-COM the same-V)’. Learners often made mistakes with this structure. In the learner corpus, the learners tended to attach the wrong particle to one of the nominative cases in a sentence where the descriptive verb should take two nominative cases. Sentence (4) in appendix 7, in order to express the difference between ‘hankwuke’ (Korean) and ‘yenge’ (English), the noun phrase ‘mwunpep’ (grammar) should occur in the nominative, not the accusative. However, the learner used the object particle with this noun phrase instead of the nominative case. Similarly, in (5), the learner used the two compulsory cases (nominative ‘chinkwu-nun’ and comitative ‘na-wa’) correctly. However, he made a false assumption about the function of the noun phrase ‘chwimi’ (hobby).

Errors related to double nominative structures are not limited to only these two descriptive verbs. In the Korean language, there are many descriptive verbs which occur with two nominative cases in a sentence. The errors in (6)-(7) (in appendix 7) have one thing in common, namely that the object particle is used in place of the subject particle with a descriptive verb. The errors of (6)-(7) can be seen to have been caused by the learner’s insufficient ability to distinguish between the descriptive and transitive processive verbs. It is also noticeable that learners tended to use the object particle for one of the nominative cases in the sentences in which descriptive verbs require two subjects. For instance, the descriptive verb ‘manhta’ (many, a lot) in (6) can occur with one nominative case as in (10a) below. It also

requires two subjects like in (10b) in many cases. Besides the verb ‘manhta’ (many, lots of), the verb ‘nulita’ (be easygoing, be slow) takes two nominative cases obligatorily in a sentence. When learners made sentences using the descriptive verbs in (6)-(7), learners might have noticed that the verbs require two cases in a sentence. However, they did not seem to know that two nominative cases can occur in a sentence in the Korean language. Therefore, they might have attached the object particle to the one of nominative cases to avoid making two subjects in the sentences.

(10) a.	suthuleysu- ka	manh-ta.		
	stress-NOM	a lot- PRE-DEC		(I) have lots of stress.
b.	nay- ka	suthuleysu- ka	manh-ta.	
	i-NOM	stress-NOM	a lot-PRE-DEC	I have lots of stress.

In a real classroom, teachers tend to emphasise the rule that descriptive verbs do not take objects. However, they put less importance on teaching structures in which descriptive verbs take two nominatives in a sentence. Therefore, learners could be confused when they use descriptive verbs which require two nominative cases. They may use the object particle for a nominative noun phrase instead of the subject particle. This tendency could be derived from the dichotomous way of teaching verbs according to their transitivity. Even advanced learners do not realise which verbs take two nominative cases or another adverbial case obligatorily.

There is also a group of descriptive verbs which takes two obligatory nominative cases in a sentence. The emotional descriptive verbs occur with one subject, but they can also take two subjects depending on the context (see sentences (8), (9), (10) in appendix 7).

The emotional descriptive verbs ‘silhta’ (to hate, to dislike) in (8), ‘mwusepta’ (be scared) in (9) and ‘cohta’ (to like, be good) in (10) (in appendix 7) should take two nominatives in a sentence in this context. But all the learners attached the object particle to the second nominative case in (8)-(10). When emotional verbs combine with the auxiliary verb ‘-a/e hata’, they are converted into transitive processive verbs. Many learners could be confused by the difference in structure between emotional descriptive verbs and transitive processive verbs. On the other hand, it can be also interpreted that learners did not recognise the rule that emotional descriptive verbs can have two subjects in a sentence. Their insufficient knowledge about these descriptive verbs seems to lead learners to attach the object particle to the second nominative noun phrase to avoid making double subjects.

② Misuse of case particles with processive verbs

In the learner corpus, there are some errors where learners used the object particle where they should have used other cases in sentences with intransitive verbs. Like descriptive verbs, some

intransitive processive verbs require two nominative cases or compulsory adverbial cases in a sentence (see sentences (11)-(18) in appendix7).

The verb 'toyta' (to become) usually requires two nominative cases in a sentence. In (11), the one subject 'Sydney' in the second clause is omitted because it occurs in the first clause. The noun phrase 'kumyung tosi' (financial capital) should occur as a nominative case not an accusative case in (11). In (12), the verb 'pyenhata' (to change)' needs to take one subject and adverbial case with the instrumental particle '-(u)lo'. The learner used the object particle '-ul' instead of the locative particle '-ulo'.

In general, the wrong choice of particle in (11) and (12) can be seen to have been caused by the incorrect assumptions about the transitivity of verbs. But the main reason might be that learners are not aware of individual variations in verb structure. As pointed out earlier, most learners are taught verb structures with an emphasis on distinguishing the transitivity of the verb. When learners find a noun phrase additional to the subject in a sentence, they tend to assume that the additional case might be the object rather than a second subject or adverbial case. We can generalise that learners tend to assume that the case secondary to the subject is the object.

The errors in (13) and (14) show examples which illustrate that teaching verbs while emphasising transitivity could lead learners to ignore the individual syntactic characteristics of verbs. Verbs of motion are usually taught as intransitive verbs which take compulsory adverbial case complements taking the particle '-ey' or '-(u)lo' in beginner level. However, these two verbs can be used as either transitively or intransitively depending on its meaning.

In the contexts of sentences (13) and (14), the noun phrases 'kil' (street) in (13) and 'kennelmok' (crossroad) in (14) should occur as objects instead of in the adverbial case. However, both learners attached the locative particle '-ey' to the noun phrase which should occur as the object. The verb 'thata' (to take, to ride) also takes a different structure depending on its meaning. Where it indicates the form of transport taken or ridden, it occurs as a transitive verb with an object particle; it takes a locative particle where only a part (e.g. a seat, the right-hand side) of that transport is being ridden (Nam Kisim 2010:106).

Learners of Korean mostly recognise the verb 'thata' (to take, to ride) as a transitive verb. There are not many errors in which learners replaced the accusative case with other cases. Some errors in the learner corpus, though, occur where learners have attached the object particle to the noun phrase which should occur as an adverbial case with locative case particle '-ey' as in (15) and (16). In (15) and (16), the verb 'thata' (to take, to ride) is used to indicate the behavior that taking place in some part (e.g. right-hand side) of a transport. The noun phrases 'twiscwasek' (back seat) in (15) and 'olunccok' (right-hand side) in (16) should occur as adverbial case taking the locative particle '-ey' in this case. However, the learners are usually taught that the verb 'thata' is a transitive verb. Learners tend to assume that the verb must take

only the object particle in a sentence overgeneralising the rule. It is necessary to teach that the verb needs to take a different structure depending on whether the noun phrase indicates the form of transport or some parts or spots (e.g. right-hand side) of the transport.

There are some verbs which take different structures depending on whether the noun phrase indicates a whole place or only a part of a location. The verb ‘kakkwuta (to grow)’ in (17) takes the object and adverbial case obligatorily in a sentence. The sentence structure is different depending on the semantic role of the noun phrase. When the subject grows something in the whole place, the place should occur as an object and the trees and flowers which are planted there should occur as adverbial cases in the sentence. On the contrary, if the subject intends to plant trees and flowers in only a proportion of a location, the place occurs as an adverbial case taking the particle ‘-ey’. The plants should occur as an object. The latter one would be more appropriate based on the context of the piece of writing, but the reconstructed sentence could be different depending on the writer’s intention in (17).

Like double nominative verbs, there are also double accusative verbs which take two objects depending on the context. The verb ‘ttaylita’ (to hit, to slap) in (18) usually occurs as ‘Nominative-Accusative- Oblique (marked with the instrumental particle ‘-(u)lo’) but sometimes it requires two objects in a sentence.

There are two possible reconstructed sentences for sentence (18). If sentence (18) is reconstructed based on the ‘Nominative-Accusative-‘-(u)lo’ instrumental adverbial case’ structure of the verb ‘ttaylita’, the noun phrase ‘wuli’ (we) should occur in the possessive case taking the particle ‘-uy’. This is because ‘wuli’ (we) is the possessor of the ‘elkwul’ (faces). The ‘elkwul’ (faces) should occur as the object in the sentence. On the other hand, if the sentence is corrected according to double object structure, the ‘elkwul’ (faces) should occur as the second object case in the sentence. The sentence sounds more natural if it is reconstructed based on the typical basic structure of the verb ‘ttaylita’ (to hit) but the verb can also occur as a double accusative structure in this case.

③ Misuse of case particles with predicate noun+ supportive verb pattern verb

In the Korean verb system, there is a group of verbs which is formed by combining predicate nouns with supportive verbs such as ‘hata’, ‘toyta’ and ‘sikhita’. Predicate nouns can be used as a noun attached to particles. They can be modified by other predicates in a sentence. However, they are differentiated from other categories of nouns by their ability to affect the structure of the sentence like predicates. In other words, the structures of sentences which verbs formed

using ‘the predicate noun+ supportive verb²⁷ pattern verb’ pattern modify are decided based on the characteristics of predicate nouns rather than supportive verbs.

One of the problematic verbs which causes particle errors is a type of verb which is formed by combining a predicate noun with the supportive verb ‘-hata’ (to do) (**hereafter ‘-hata’ pattern**). There is a respectable number of processive and descriptive verbs (**hereafter ‘-hata’ verbs**) that are made by this ‘-hata’ pattern in Korean. They can be all three types of verbs, descriptive, transitive and intransitive processive verbs depending on the meanings of the predicate nouns. The structure of a sentence is decided by the characteristics of the predicate noun which the supportive verb combines with. It is not easy for learners to identify what cases the verbs require based on the meaning of the predicate noun. In the group of ‘-hata’ verbs, the proportion of processive verbs is much higher than descriptive verbs. Learners are mostly exposed to ‘hata’ processive verbs first such as ‘kongpwuhata’ (to study) or ‘chengsohata’ (to clean up), and then descriptive verbs. So they tend to retain a strong assumption that ‘-hata’ verbs are transitive processive verbs even after they have learned ‘-hata’ descriptive verbs such as ‘cwungyohata’ (be important) or ‘philyohata’ (to need, be necessary). The descriptive verb ‘philyohata (need, necessary)’ which consists of the predicate noun ‘philyo’ (need) and the supportive verb ‘hata’, is one of the most problematic descriptive verbs that learners often mistake for a transitive verb like (19) and (20) in appendix 7.

Considering that the final ending shape for a processive verb is attached to ‘philyohata’ (need, be necessary) in (19), it is obvious that the learner took the descriptive verb ‘philyohata’ for a processive transitive verb in (19). The verb ‘cwungyohata’ (be important) in (20) is also a descriptive verb and takes an adverbial case as well as a subject in a sentence. The learner attached the object particle ‘-ul’ to the noun phrase which should take the dative particle ‘-eykey’ in (20). Seeing that advanced learners tend to repeat the same mistakes which they have used from beginner level, the errors where learners used object particle to the noun phrase where ‘-hata’ descriptive verbs modify. The structure seems to be a fossilised error for many advanced learners.

Like general descriptive and processive verbs, ‘-hata’ verbs can occur in various structures. Sentences (21)-(25) show how the structures of sentences could be different

²⁷ The terms which describe the verbs such as ‘-hata’, ‘-toyta’ and ‘-sikhita’ with which predicate nouns combine are different depending on the linguists. Hong Jaeseong and Park Mankyu (1999) use the term ‘supportive verb’ to denote them because even though they can be categorised as verbs, their meanings are empty or weakened compared to other verbs. They do not choose the arguments of the sentence. They only play the role of making it possible for the predicate nouns to take on aspect and voice by combining with endings in a sentence. According to them, supportive verbs are used as only morphological and syntactic tools, so that predicate nouns can work as verbs in sentences. Kim Changsep (2002) describes them as ‘light verbs’ in English. Choi Eunji (2011) uses the term ‘suffix’ to indicate them because they make it possible to derive verbs based on predicate nouns. This study uses the term ‘supportive verb’ following the opinions of Hong Jaeseong and Park Mankyu (1999).

depending on the characteristics of predicate nouns.

Intransitive ‘hata’ verbs can also require the adverbial or comitative case obligatorily in a sentence like other intransitive verbs. The noun ‘chwungtol’ (crash) in (21) is an intransitive predicate noun. It requires one subject and the comitative case when it combines with verb ‘hata’. Hence, the comitative particle ‘-wa’ (and) should be attached to the noun phrase ‘kicha’ (train) instead of the object particle ‘-lul’. The learners seemed to assume that the verb ‘chwungtolhata’ (to crash) is a transitive verb in (21). The predicate noun ‘kamtong’ (be touched) in (22) takes the locative adverbial case as well as a subject. The subject ‘I’ is omitted in (22). The noun phrase ‘salang’ (love) should occur in the ‘-ey’ locative adverbial case in sentence (22). As we can see from sentences (21) and (22), learners tend to overuse the object particle with descriptive ‘-hata’ verbs which should take the adverbial case in a sentence.

Also, there are some transitive predicate nouns which take adverbial cases in addition to a subject and an object. The predicate noun ‘haykyel’ (solution) in (23) works as a transitive verb combining with the verb ‘hata’. It requires one subject and one object in a sentence. Thus the object particle ‘-lul’ should be attached to the noun phrase ‘muncey’ (problem) instead of the subject particle ‘-i’, as in sentence (23). On the other hand, the predicate noun ‘ohay’ (misunderstanding) in (24) demands a ‘Nominative + Accusative+ Instrumental adverbial case’ structure so the topic particle ‘-nun’ of noun ‘pinilpongci’ should be replaced by the object particle ‘-lul’. The object particle ‘-lul’ which is attached to the noun ‘hayphali’ (jellyfish) should be changed to the instrumental particle ‘-lo’. Next, the predicate noun ‘piyu’ (metaphor) in (25) takes one subject, one object and the locative adverbial case for the construction. Hence, the particle ‘-kwa’ should be replaced by ‘-ey’.

As we can see (21)-(25) in appendix 7, the syntactic characteristics of predicate nouns are different depending on context. In order to use ‘-hata’ verbs, learners need precise syntactic information more than just information about whether a verb is descriptive or processive or whether it is transitive or intransitive. Accordingly, learners need to recognise how many and what kinds of cases are required by a given predicate noun. If the verb needs a compulsory adverbial phrase, learners need to know what kind of adverbial particle is taken in order to make well-formed sentences for ‘predicate noun+ supportive verb’ forms of verbs.

Although predicate nouns mainly influence the choice of structure, sometimes supportive verbs also have a part in the construction of the sentence. What verbs can be classified as supportive verbs in the field of Korean syntax is still a debatable issue. Predicate nouns often work as a verb combining with the verb ‘-toyta’ (**hereafter ‘-toyta’ pattern**), for example ‘haykyeltoyta’ (be solved) or ‘piyutoyta’ (be likened). When a predicate noun is combined with the verb ‘-toyta’, it has passive characteristics. Discussion of surrounding whether or not making active ‘-hata’ verbs passive by replacing ‘-hata’ with the verb ‘-toyta’ can be considered part of the passivisation system is still ongoing. Some grammar books describe it

as one of the passive formations and some do not. Even though the construction ‘predicate noun +toyta verb’ is categorised differently depending on each individual linguist’s opinion, it is agreed that the meaning and structure of ‘-toyta’ pattern verbs can be seen as a passive structure. The syntactic structure of ‘-toyta’ will be dealt with in the passive verb section again, but, one example of the type of error which was caused by the characteristics of different supportive verbs is given in appendix 7.

When the predicate noun ‘cenhwan’ (change, switch) in (26) is combined with the verb ‘-hata’, the verb ‘cenhwanhata’ (to change) requires a subject and an object as well as the instrument adverbial case. However, if it is combined with the supportive verb ‘-toyta’, it takes a subject and the instrument adverbial case in the sentence. It is obvious that the predicate noun ‘cenhwan’ occurs with the ‘-(u)lo’ adverbial case. But its transitivity is changed depending on which supportive verb it combines with. In (26), the noun phrase ‘isanhwathanso’ (carbon dioxide) should occur as a subject since the predicate noun ‘cenhwan’ combines with verb ‘toyta’.

In summary, learners of Korean should consider not only syntactic characteristics of predicate nouns but also supportive verbs when they use ‘predicate noun + supportive verb’ pattern verbs. A high proportion of particle errors in the learner corpus were likely to have been caused by a lack of knowledge about the characteristics of predicate nouns. Therefore, it seems to be necessary to examine how the dictionary should describe these items.

④ Misuse of case particles with causative verbs

Sentences (27)-(30) in appendix 7 show examples of particle errors derived from incomplete knowledge about the structures of causative verbs. When verbs convert into causative verbs, the number of cases increases.

The causative verb ‘nophita’ (to make something high, to increase) which derived from the descriptive verb ‘nophta’ (be high) takes one subject and one object in a sentence. The learner attached to the subject particle to the noun phrase ‘kwucey kyengcaynglyek (ability to compete internationally)’ which should occur as the object in (27). When the verb ‘wulita’ (to ring) is used as causative verb, it has transitivity different from when it is used as an intransitive verb. So the object particle ‘-ul’ should be attached to the noun phrase ‘cong (bell)’ instead of subject particle ‘-i’ in (28).

When transitive verbs transform into causative verbs, the structure is more complicated than when descriptive or intransitive processive verbs are changed into causative verbs. Sentence (29) shows incorrect use of the adverbial particle ‘-eykey’ (to) in a causative verb construction. The causative verb ‘cwukita’ (to kill) requires only one object which is marked by the object particle ‘-ul/lul’. The noun phrase ‘meystowayci’ (wild boar), which should play the role of an accusative case, is marked as with the dative case in sentence (29).

Therefore, the causee ‘wild boar’ should be marked with the accusative case by attaching the object particle ‘-lul’ to express the intended meaning.

The causative verb ‘iphita’ (hurt) which is derived from transitive verb ‘ipta’ (to get hurt) in (30) usually requires three cases: nominative, accusative and adverbial cases. The subject is omitted in (30). The noun ‘sangche’ (wound) should be an accusative case. The person’s feelings should be an adverbial case. In Korean, if the causee is animate, it takes the particle ‘-eykey’ (to), and if it is inanimate, it requires the locative particle ‘-ey’ (to). Therefore, the particle ‘-ey’ should be attached to the noun phrase ‘maum’ (feelings, heart) in (30).

Like derived causative verbs, verbs acquire greater transitivity when the ‘-key hata’ pattern is used. However, when converting descriptive verbs into causative verbs, learners tended to think that the verbs were still intransitive as shown sentences (31) and (32) in appendix 7. When the descriptive verbs ‘kilta’ (be long) in (31) and ‘ssata’ (be cheap) in (32) combine with the ‘-key hata’ construction, they acquire transitivity. In both sentences, the noun phrases ‘meli’ (hair) and ‘kyothongpi’ (transportation cost) should occur as objects marked with an object particle. Seeing errors in the learner corpus, some advanced learners were not very well aware of how the syntactic characteristics of descriptive verbs are changed by the ‘-key hata’ construction.

The verb ‘kamtongsikhita’ (make somebody impressed) in (33) (in appendix 7) was formed by combining the predicate noun ‘kamtong’ (be touched) with the supportive verb ‘-sikhita’. When the supportive verb ‘-hata’ of ‘kamtonghata’ (to impress, to touch) is replaced by the verb ‘-sikhita’ (to make or cause something to do), it has causative characteristics in terms of syntax and semantics (**hereafter ‘-sikhita’ pattern**). When the noun ‘kamtong’ is used with the verb ‘hata’, it requires one subject and an ‘-eykey(dative)/ey(locative)’ adverbial case. When it is used with the verb ‘-sikhita’, it takes one subject and object. Therefore, the noun phrase ‘na’ (I) should occur as an object attaching the object particle ‘-ul’ instead of ‘-eykey’.

When the noun ‘anlaksa’ (euthanasia) combines with the verb ‘-sikhita’, it requires one subject and object like the verb ‘kamtongsikhita’ in (33) so the particle ‘-eykey’ should be replaced by the object particle ‘-ul’ in (34).

In causative verb constructions, three main types of particle errors are found in learner corpus: first, when learners make a sentence using causative verbs which derived from descriptive verbs, they tended to forget that causative verbs should take objects in sentences. Second, causative verbs often require adverbial case complements besides the subject and object. Learners tended to have trouble in identifying the syntactic roles of noun phrases in the sentence, namely which phrase is an accusative or adverbial case in a causative sentence. It was frequently observed that the dative particle ‘-eykey’ (to) was misused instead of the object particle ‘-ul/lul’, especially when the noun (cause) is animate. Third, when the causative verb requires the adverbial case in a sentence, the adverbial noun phrase takes a different particle

depending on whether the noun (causee) is animate or inanimate. The learners did not make many mistakes related to the third type of error. Only a few such errors are found in the corpus. Particle errors which are connected to causative verbs made up a high proportion of particle errors. The syntactic characteristics of causative verbs which caused learners' errors are mainly classified into these three main types. Therefore, it is necessary to determine whether the information about causative verbs which Korean dictionaries offer properly helps learners work out these three types of particle errors.

⑤ Misuse of case particles with passive verbs

Contrary to causativisation, when active verbs transform into passive forms, they become more intransitive losing transitivity. Even though it seems to be obvious that passive verbs are intransitive verbs, advanced learners seem to still be confused distinguishing between the structure of active and passive sentences. When active verbs change into passive verbs, they lose transitivity so an object cannot occur in most passive sentences. In (35) in appendix 7, the 'wusum soli' (laughter) which would be an object in a construction with the active verb 'tutta' (listen) should occur as a subject in a sentence in which the passive verb 'tullita' (be heard) is used. Thus, the subject particle '-ka' should be attached to the noun phrase 'wusum soli' (laughter) instead of the object particle '-lul' in (35).

In addition, if the active verb takes the adverbial case in a sentence, their passive counterpart also requires the adverbial case. The adverbial case can occur in a passive sentence as it does in an active sentence. Hence, the adverbial case noun phrase 'osina mwulken' (clothes or stuff) of the sentence in which active verb 'ssuta' (to use) is used can occur without modification in the sentence in which the passive verb 'ssuita' (to be used) is used, taking locative particle '-ey'. Therefore, the topic particle '-un' which is attached to noun phrases 'osina mwulken' (clothes or stuff) in (36) should be replaced by the locative particle '-ey'. In addition, the object particle '-ul' should be changed to the subject particle '-i' since the passive verb 'ssuita' cannot take the accusative case.

The same types of errors in the learner corpus are found in both '-a/ecita' and 'toyta' patterns like (37) and (38) in appendix 7. The verbs 'cwuecita' (to be given) in (37) is a passive verb which is formed when the active verb 'cwuta' (to give) combines with the auxiliary verb '-a/ecita'. The predicate noun 'pangyeng' (broadcast) takes on passive characteristics by combining with the supportive verb '-toyta' in (38). Therefore, the noun phrase 'cayu' (freedom) in (37) and the noun phrase 'yenghwa 2012' (movie 2012) in (38) should occur as subjects in their sentence. The object particles should be replaced by subject particles in both sentences.

Apart from losing transitivity, there is one more problem related to the structure of passive verbs. When an active sentence converts into a passive sentence, the agent of the action should appear in the adverbial case. The particles which they should take are different depending on whether it

is animate or inanimate. If the agent (subject of the active sentence) is a person or animal (animate entities), it takes dative particle ‘-eykey’ (to) or ‘-hanthey’ (to) as an adverbial phrase. In addition, if an adverbial noun is inanimate, locative particle ‘-ey’ or instrumental particle ‘-(u)lo’ should be attached to the noun phrase. The noun phrase ‘menci’ (dust) is the agent of action and inanimate in (39) so it should occur as an adverbial case taking the particle ‘-ey’ or ‘-(u)lo’ in the sentence. On the other hand, the ‘wang’ (the king) which is the agent of action in the active sentence should occur as an adverbial case with the particle ‘-eykey’ or ‘-hanthey’ instead of the object particle ‘-ul’ because it is animate in (40).

However, there are some cases where the particles ‘-eykey’ or ‘-hantey’ cannot be used with noun phrases in passive sentences, even if the agent of action is animate: Firstly, when active verbs which take the ‘-eykey’ dative adverbial case compulsorily transform into passive verbs, the agent of action cannot take the dative particle ‘-eykey’ in a passive sentence. In this case, the agent of action should occur as an adverbial case taking the adverbial phrase ‘-ey uhay’ (by) in order to avoid duplicating the ‘-eykey’ dative adverbial case in a sentence. When learners encounter this case, most learners omitted one of the adverbial cases. A few errors are found where learners attached the particle ‘-eykey’ to noun phrases which should take the complex particle ‘-ey uhay’, such as in sentences (41) and (42).

The active verb ‘phalta’ (to sell) in (41) and (42) usually takes an ‘-eykey’ or ‘-ey’ adverbial case in a sentence. The dative case of the active verb ‘phalta’ (to sell), ‘namphyen’ (husband) to whom Nujood was sold by her parents is not described in (41). Even though the noun ‘husband’ can be omitted in (41) since we can notice to whom she was sold, we should assume that the noun should compulsorily transform into passive verbs. Hence, the agent of action the ‘pwumo’ (parents), which the passive verb ‘phallita’ modifies should occur as an adverbial noun phrase with ‘-ey uhay’ in this case. The agent of action verb ‘phalta’, ‘salamtul’ (people) in (42) also should occur as an adverbial cases taking ‘-ey uhay’ not ‘-eykey’ in sentence that the passive verb ‘phallita’ modifies. However, the learners made two ‘-eykey’ noun phrases in (41) and (42).

Secondly, when the action of the subject in the passive sentence does not influence the adverbial phrase directly, it occurs with the phrase ‘-ey uhay’ (by) rather than ‘-eykey’ or ‘-hantey’. Even though the noun phrase ‘seycong taywang (Sejong the Great)’ in (43) should be adverbial and is animate, ‘-ey uhay’ (by) would be appropriate in this context.

The particle error in (44) had the same underlying cause as the particle error in (43). In (44), the complex particle ‘-lopwute’ (from), which combines the instrumental particle ‘-lo’ (to) with the auxiliary particle ‘-pwuthe’ (from), was attached to the noun phrase ‘kokol’ (Gogol). ‘Gogol’ is the subject of the active sentence in which the active verb ‘ssuta’ (write) is used. It should be in the adverbial case in the passive sentence and attached to ‘-ey uhay’ (by). The choice of the wrong particle in (44) seems to be based on the wrong assumption that ‘Gogol’

plays the semantic role of ‘source’ in (44)

Passive verbs mostly do not take an object in a sentence. But the object can occur in specific cases like sentence (45). Actually, only two errors related to cases in which passive verbs require objects are found in the learner corpus. This is because there are many optional structures which can be used to avoid this structure in the Korean language. When the participant which is directly affected by the action of the agent is a part or inalienable possession of the patient, the patient should occur as subject. The part or inalienable possession of the patient should appear as an object in the passive sentence. In (45) which passive verb ‘caphita’ is used, the noun phrase ‘Kelho’ should occur as subject. The ‘pal’ (ankle), where he was caught by the agent ‘Youngha’ should occur as an object in the passive sentence because the ‘pal’ (ankle) is the inalienable possession of the patient of ‘Kelho’. Hence, the object particle ‘-ul’ should be attached to the noun phrase ‘pal’ in (45).

Passive verbs are intransitive verbs so their syntactic pattern seems to be simpler than that of transitive verbs. However, the structure of the passive sentence does not seem to be easy for advanced learners of Korean. Learners especially tended to have trouble identifying in which case the agent of an action and adverbial case complements of active verbs should occur when used in a passive sentence. Therefore, dictionaries need to offer some guidance on these syntactic characteristics in order for learners to learn to use them properly.

⑥ Misuse of case particles with defective verbs

In Korean, like all language, there are defective verbs which cannot be conjugated in certain tenses or aspects. Defective verbs are in the process of grammaticalisation so their syntactic characteristics are more restricted than those of regular verbs. Some of them have lost their verbal characteristics and work only as an adverbial or adnominal phrase (modifier) in a sentence. Defective verbs can occur with certain adverbial particles and connectives. They are usually taught as a pattern phrase given in the fixed form. Sentences (46)-(51) in appendix 7 present particle errors which are connected with defective verbs.

The verbs ‘inhata (be caused by)’ in (46) and ‘tayhata (to be about)’ in (47) mostly occur as adverbial or adnominal phrases (modifiers) in the sentence. The verb ‘inhata’ requires only the instrumental particle ‘-(u)lo’ and the verb ‘tayhata’ takes only the locative particle ‘-ey’ for their noun phrases, respectively. Accordingly, the uses of particles ‘-ey’ in (46) and ‘-uy’ in (47) are inappropriate for their noun phrases.

The verb ‘uyhata’ (according to) in (48) is mostly used as an adverbial phrase in combination with the connectives ‘-myen (if)’ or ‘-a/ese (because)’. It requires the locative particle ‘-ey’ for an adverbial noun phrase in a sentence so the particle ‘-lul’ in (48) should be changed to the ‘-ey’ and the particle ‘-ul’. The connectives and particles which the verb

‘pwulkwuhata’ (in spite of)’ in (49) can be combined with are also restricted to only the connective ‘-ko’ (and) and the particle ‘-eyto’ (although). Accordingly, the particle ‘-ul’ in (49) should be replaced by ‘-eyto’.

Defective verbs function like pattern phrases in sentences in most cases, so it is difficult for learners to guess what case they require based on the meaning. Hence, when learners encounter these verbs for the first time or do not pay attention to their forms, it would be difficult to construct correct sentences according to their syntactic characteristics. Thus, when learners of Korean learn defective verbs such as those in sentences (46)-(49), they have to learn the meanings and usages of defective verbs accompanied by the particles and connectives which they can be combined with in a chunk.

For instance, the verb ‘ttaluta’ (follow) in (50) can be used as regular verb when it means ‘to follow something/someone’. When it performs as regular verb, it requires one subject and one object in a sentence; whereas when it is used as a defective verb, it occurs with an adverbial case taking the particle ‘-ey’. However, the learner seemed to confuse the usages of the regular and defective verbs.

Like the verb ‘ttaluta’, the verb ‘tayhata’ can be inflected like a regular verb when it designates the meaning ‘to treat someone’. Whereas the verb is a transitive verb, when it is used as regular verb, the verb requires an objective case taking the particle ‘-lul/ul’. The verb is used to indicate the meaning ‘to treat someone’ in (51), so it should take the accusative case in the sentence. However, the learner attached the locative particle ‘-ey’ to the noun phrase instead of object particle ‘-ul’ in the sentence.

The syntactic behaviors of defective verbs are different depending on the extent of their grammaticalisation: in order for learners to use them correctly they should therefore be treated differently to show their individual syntactic characteristics.

(2) Verbs

In the previous section, the syntactic characteristics of verbs were explored according to the type of verb. The error rate of processive verbs is higher than descriptive verbs and replacement errors are in the majority. Verb errors related to semantics (meaning) were not counted. Most verb errors are caused by insufficient knowledge about the type of verbs and its syntactic attributes (see table 7 in appendix 6).

Korean is characterised as a Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) language, so a predicate usually comes at the end of sentence. Hence, while the constituents of a sentence are organised after deciding the subject and verb in a sentence in English, in Korean the verb tends to be selected last, after all other constituents are organised. Learners of Korean need to consider what verb they should use for their intended meaning before they organise the other sentence constituents. Most learners, however, seem to organise the sentence constituents first. Then,

they choose the type of verb which suits the structure of the sentence. Most errors are replacement errors. The frequency of omission and addition errors is much lower than that for replacement errors. Hence, verb errors were investigated with reference to this error. For example, I analyse which verbs were used erroneously in the place of other verbs and discuss which verbs should be used in their place.

① Choice of verb between descriptive and processive verbs

Sentences (52)-(54) show errors in which processive verbs were replaced by descriptive verbs. The descriptive verbs which are misused in (52)-(54) are verbs which express people's feelings (called emotional descriptive verbs). Emotional descriptive verbs are used when speakers express their feelings. These verbs are usually not used to represent other people's feelings. If we want to describe other people's feelings, we should use the processive verb form which is formed by combining an emotional descriptive verb with the auxiliary verb '-a/e hata'. While emotional descriptive verbs can be used only for first person subjects, emotional processive verbs can occur with all persons. When emotional descriptive verbs convert into processive verbs, they are given transitivity so they take one object. The subjects ('movie', 'people' and 'you') of all descriptive verbs in all three sentences (52)-(54) are not first person, so they should be changed to processive verbs by attaching the auxiliary verb '-a/e hata'. In addition, most descriptive verbs do not combine with the long negative form '-ci malta' (do not). The descriptive verb 'mwusepta' (be scared) in (54) cannot be attached to the '-ci malta' (do not) negation.

② Choice of verbs between active and causative verbs

Most errors related to the transitivity of verbs are connected to the voice of verbs: active, causative or passive. Sentences (55)-(56) show errors in which learners used active verbs where causative verbs should be used.

The verb 'mwulta' (to pay a fine) requires three arguments: subject, object and '-eykey' or '-ey' adverbial case. The noun phrase 'ssuleykilul pelinun salam' (people who dump trash) should be the causee whom the subject (causer) forces to pay the fine, not the beneficiary to whom the subject (agent) pays the fine as in sentence (55). Therefore, the verb 'mwulta' (to pay (a fine)) should be replaced by the causative verb 'mwullita' (to impose (a fine)) in this case.

The predicate noun 'palcen' (development) takes only a subject, whereas not only a subject but also an object appears in (56). Moreover, the meaning of the sentence would make sense if the subject (he) tried to make Kyrgyzstan developed. The voice of the verb should be causative instead of active in (56).

Next, in the learner corpus there are also errors in which a causative verb is used in a structure where the active verb should be the modifier. In (57), if the learner intended to construct a causative construction, the noun phrase ‘kaultonghwa’ (‘Autumn Fairy Tale’) should have been formed as an object attached to the object particle ‘-lul’. However, considering the context of sentence (57), the meaning of the sentence would be natural if the essay reminds me the drama ‘kaultonghwa’ (‘Autumn Fairy Tale’) rather than I consciously try to remind it. Hence, the active verb ‘tteoluta’ (to come to one’s mind) would be more appropriate here than the causative verb ‘tteollita’ (to remind).

The causative verb ‘cwukita’ (to kill) requires two cases, subject and object, obligatorily in a sentence. But there is no object in (58). It is clear that the subject of the sentence is ‘manhun hancok salamtul’ (many Han people) based on the context of the sentence. In the sentence, there is no agent of action by whom the ‘manhun hancok salamtul’ (many Han people) were killed. So the active verb ‘cwukta’ (to die) is more appropriate in (58). Considering the structure where only a subject occurs and the meaning of the sentence, the passive form ‘cwukimul tanghata’ (be killed) could be also used.

In the causative system, there are some differences between derived causative and syntactic causative verbs in terms of meaning. The causative verbs which are formed by ‘-key hata’ pattern (syntactic causative) usually influence the action of the causee indirectly. For example, in (59), the causative verb ‘kamkey hata (to make somebody wash hair)’ means that the subject ‘barber’ makes customers wash their hair themselves using menthol shampoo. But based on the context of the writing sample, the learner seemed to intend to express an event where the barber washes the customers’ hair. Hence, the derived causative verb ‘kamkita’ (to wash one’ hair) should be used in order to express what the learner means in this case.

Sentence (60) also shows an inappropriate selection of causative verb when the learner has to choose between derived and syntactic causative verbs. When negation ‘mos’ (can) is used in front of ‘-key hata’, the negation modifies the action of the causee not the causer. Hence, sentence (60) means that the German soldiers did not allow people on Curie Island to die. Considering the context, the learner might have intended to express that the German soldiers could not kill people after seeing the beauty of the island. However, the negation ‘mos’ modifies the derived causative verb ‘cwukita’ (to kill) and, influences the action of causer ‘soldiers’. Given the context of sentence (60), the derived causative verb should be used to express the learner’s intended meaning instead of the syntactic causative verb.

There are some errors in the learner corpus in which learners attempted to make causative verbs by attaching the verb ‘sikhita’ to nouns which cannot become causative verbs by means of lexical causative pattern. Predicate nouns which become descriptive verbs by means of ‘hata’ pattern cannot become causative verb by ‘sikhita’ pattern. Some learners tried to make causative verbs by attaching the verb ‘sikhita’ to predicate nouns. In (61), the learner attached

the verb 'sikhita' to the predicate noun 'cencik' (honesty) which cannot become a causative verb by means of lexical causative pattern.

Many textbooks and grammar books tend to present the situation as if all 'predicate noun + hata supportive verb' pattern verbs can take on causative characteristics by replacing 'hata' with 'sikita'. They do not offer any exceptional cases. This overgeneralisation seems to cause learners to make mistakes.

③ Choice of verb between active and passive verbs

Sentences (62)-(64) in appendix 7 show the wrong choice of active verb in passive constructions. As we know, only transitive verbs can be converted into passive verbs by attaching passive suffixes or using the supportive verb 'toyta' or the auxiliary verb '-a/e cita'.

All three active verbs, 'kkopta' (to select) in (62), 'pelita' (to dump/ to throw away) in (63) 'chehyenghata' (to execute) in (64) are transitive verbs so they should occur with objects. But objects do not appear in all three sentences. Considering the learners' intended meanings in these sentences, there is only a small chance that the objects of the sentence were omitted by mistake. Hence, all of the active verbs in (62)-(64) in appendix 7 should be changed to passive verbs.

Cases of errors where learners used passive verbs instead of active verbs are fewer than the reverse in the learner corpus. In (65), the subject of the sentence should be 'kyenghem' (experience) in order to make the sentence correct using the passive verb 'ssahita' (to be accumulated). The subject is 'ce' (I) and 'kyenghem' (experience) clearly occurs as an object in the sentence. Considering the structure, the active verb 'ssahta' (to accumulate) should be used instead of the passive verb 'ssahita' (to be accumulated).

In (66), the passive verb 'poita' is an intransitive verb so the noun phrase 'nakse' (scribble) should be a subject. Based on context, the learner seemed to intend to express that '(we) could see scribbles here and there on the wall in toilet'. The 'nakse' (scribble) occurs as an object in (66) so the active verb 'pota' (to see, to look at) is more appropriate for sentence (66) rather than passive verb 'poita' (be shown).

Only transitive verbs can convert into passive verbs by means of syntactic passivisation. There are a few errors in the corpus in which learners attempted to make intransitive verbs passive verbs by '-a/ecita'. When the auxiliary verb '-a/ecita' attaches to intransitive verbs, it indicates an action which is completed or happened without a conscious cause rather than a passive meaning. Furthermore, the intransitive verbs 'kkulhta' (to boil) and 'elta' (to freeze) in (67) are not usually used combined with the verb '-a/ecita' in real communication.

In lexical passivisation, some predicate nouns require supportive verbs apart from 'toyta' in order for them to acquire a passive meaning. For example the predicate noun

'pwusang' (injury) in (68) should take the verbs 'tanghata' (to undergo) or 'ipta' (to receive) to acquire passive characteristics. It cannot combine with 'toyta'. It is difficult to offer clear explanations about which predicate noun requires which supportive verb in order to express passive meaning. This is because the occurrence of predicate nouns with supportive verbs is a matter of collocation rather than syntactic rules (derivation). Therefore, reference books need to offer some guides for learners to find out this collocational information.

Like causativisation, there is a subtle difference in meaning between derived and syntactic passive verbs. Syntactic passive verbs are mostly used to designate actions that the agent plans or intends. Thus, they are not appropriate for expressing the action 'to release stress' in (69), the explicit agent of which is difficult to find out. In this case, the use of the derived passive verb 'phwlita' (to be released) makes the sentence sound more natural.

In real classroom situation, teachers usually do not explain the difference of meaning between them because they are concerned that the rule will confuse learners about the use of the passive verb. However, some explanations need to be offered to advanced learners in order for them to choose the appropriate passive form.

④ Choice of verb between causative and passive verbs

A few errors in which learners used causative verbs instead of passive verbs, or the reverse, were found in the learner corpus (see (70)-(71) in appendix 7.

In the second clause of sentence (70), as the auxiliary particle 'to' (also) is attached to the noun phrase 'hyolyek' (varidity), it is not clear what case this noun phrase takes in the sentence. The causative verb 'epsayta' (to get rid of, remove) was used in (70). In fact, there are two possible reconstructions of sentence (70): Firstly, if we consider the noun phrase 'hyolyek' (validity) as the object, we can consider the error here to be a subject omission error in which the agent of action of the causative verb 'epsayta' (to get rid of, to remove) is missing. The sentence needs a subject to indicate the person who is breaking, and to rendering null and void, the country's law. Secondly, if we see 'hyolyek' (validity) as the subject, we can consider the error as being the substitution of the causative verb for a passive verb. In (71), the structure is well- formed and the meaning of the sentence is clear as a causative sentence. But a passive verb is used for a causative construction here. Therefore, the passive form 'olmkyecita (be adopted)' should be replaced by the causative verb 'olmkita'.

Comparing the error rate of particles with verbs, learners have more trouble making well formed structures in line with the syntactic characteristics of verbs. They have fewer problems when selecting the correct type of verb for the structure. However, errors of particle use and errors of verb choice both seem to be derived from a lack of knowledge of the syntactic characteristics of verbs. If learners had enough knowledge about the syntactic behaviour of verbs, they could not only choose the appropriate type of verb but also make well-formed

structures using them. Therefore, it is necessary to examine whether the information for verbs in dictionaries is well presented in order to aid learners with their syntactic difficulties.

(3) Connectives

Connectives which occurred more than 100 times in the learner corpus are given in table 8 in appendix 6. Surprisingly, only 11 connectives were used more than 100 times by learners. Two connectives ‘-ko’ and ‘-a/e/hayse’ made up more than 50% of the total occurrences of connectives. Considering that there are dozens of connectives in the Korean language, connectives used by advanced learners tend to be limited to few items²⁸ (see table 8 in appendix 6).

Considering that the five most frequent connectives used are taught at the early beginner level, advanced learners appear not use various connectives which they have learned in higher levels for their production. Learners seem to avoid using various connectives because they do not want to take the risk of making a mistake or they do not have enough knowledge to use them. This contention could be supported by the fact that error rates for less frequent connectives tend to be higher than those of high frequency connectives, except ‘-ko’ and ‘-a/e/hayse’. Interestingly, the error rates of ‘-ko (and)’ and ‘a/e/hayse (because)’ which learners of Korean learn at very early beginner level are also considerable. Therefore, it could be reasonable to say advanced learners have trouble using connectives for production. They also have difficulty in extending their receptive grammatical vocabulary (connectives) into productive vocabulary.

Connectives should be examined with reference to other grammatical items such as verbs, prefinal endings, findal endings, adverbs or subjects of sentences because the syntactic environments in which they can be used are restricted by other grammatical items used in the sentence. In other words, the lack of syntactic knowledge about connectives can generate not only a wrong choice of connective but also the incorrect usage of other grammatical items. For instance, the *ecel* ‘seywesse’ (to set (record)) in (72) in appendix 7 was tagged as an addition of

²⁸ Even though the topics of writings were given to learners by teachers, learners could choose all grammatical items and vocabulary themselves. In exam settings, learners at *Korea University* are usually given target grammatical items which they have to use. Only the writings which were written in free context were included in the learner corpus, however. Hence, while it has the advantage of showing us learners’ real production (for example, what grammatical items they most often use) it has the disadvantage of allowing learners a free choice of which constructions to use. Since they did not use certain items, we do not have any ways to examine what kind of errors learners make when they use items which they find difficult to use.

past prefinal ending ‘-ess-’²⁹ in the learner corpus. However, the error might be caused by lack of syntactic knowledge of ‘-a/ese’ which does not combine with the past tense prefinal ending ‘-ess-’. The tense of the clause preceding the connective ‘-a/ese’ is interpreted based on the tense of the predicate clause following it: Korean speakers understand that the action ‘setting the best record’ is a past event based on the past prefinal ending of ‘haysssupnita’ in the second clause. Therefore, the errors of connectives are presented classified into five types along with other grammatical categories.

① Substitution of wrong connective

The majority of connective errors are substitutions of the wrong connectives for items which should appear. Both connectives ‘-ko’ and ‘-a/ese’ are used to link actions in preceding and following clauses sequentially in time. However, while the connective ‘-ko’ usually denotes only the chronological order of the incidents, ‘-a/ese’ is used when the action in the preceding clause is required in order for the action in the following clause to be carried out. In (73), the action ‘select appropriate word’ happens in the situation which demands the action ‘pay attention’ in first clause. The connective ‘-a/ese’ would therefore be appropriate for this context.

The connective ‘-myen’ (if) in (74) is used to indicate uncertain events or situations which may or may not happen or refer to a condition which must happen so that something else can happen. However, it was used to describe the action ‘was destroyed’ which was already done and is a one-off action in (74). Hence, the connective ‘-ca’ (when, as) or ‘-nikka’ (after,) which denotes finding or discovering something in second clause as the result of action in first clause, would be more suitable than ‘-myen’.

The connective ‘-taka’ (while) in (75) is usually used to describe when the action or state in first clause changes to new action or state in second clause. However, this connective is not suitable to express the intended meaning: ‘Korean food is not only very spicy but also the more you eat the spicier it gets’. Hence the connective ‘-(u)l swulok (the more, more..),’ which is used to say that things in second clause change if we keep doing something in first clause should be used instead of the ‘-taka’.

The connective ‘-ta poni’ (keep doing something) denotes a situation where the speaker discovers something or gets a result in the second clause while he/she keeps doing something in the preceding clause. If we interpret the sentence (76) without any correction, it means ‘It is said that (Korean people) do everything quickly. I found that it is true while I am

²⁹ The error in (82) was tagged in the learner corpus as an addition of a prefinal ending, not a connective error. If the purpose of building up the learner corpus were to examine only connective errors, it would be better to classify the error in (82) as a connective error, but the learner corpus was set up in order to find out what grammatical items learners frequently misuse. Accordingly, the error in (82) was tagged as addition of a prefinal ending in an inappropriate place. But it is explained as it is derived from insufficient knowledge about the connective here.

coming to Korea'. That he found it to be true that Korean people do everything quickly before he arrived in Korea makes the sentence sound unnatural. He could have found that Korean people do everything quickly after he came to Korea rather than as he is coming to Korea. Accordingly the connective '-a/e poni' (after having something) which indicates the result after something is tried should be used here instead.

② Tense and connectives

Connectives also combine with prefinal endings to indicate the tense, but some connectives have restrictions on occurring with certain tenses. There are two types of errors related to prefinal tense endings. The first error is that the learners attached the prefinal tense ending to a connective which does not combine with that prefinal tense ending, like the connective '-a/ese' in (77). They omitted the prefinal tense ending in the place where it should be attached. The second type of error is related to the tense used in clauses following connectives. Some connectives have restrictions on which tense may follow in the second clause.

Sentences (77) and (78) present examples of the first type of errors. In (77), the connective '-ciman' (but) can combine with tense freely except retrospective tense '-te-'. So the prefinal tense ending should be attached to the connective if the first clause indicates a certain time. The learner intended to mention a past event in which she stayed in Korea for few days, so the past tense prefinal ending '-ess-' should be attached to the connective '-ciman (but)'.

The connective '-teni' in (78) can be attached to only the past tense prefinal ending '-ess-' but the past-past (double past) prefinal ending '-a/essess-' is used with the '-teni'. One past prefinal ending should be deleted from connective '-teni (since, seeing as)' in (78).

Sentence (79) shows an example in which the connective is followed by the wrong tense in the second clause. To talk about a past situation that did not happen, the past prefinal ending '-ass/ess-' and the retrospective prefinal ending '-te' are attached to the connective '-tamyen/laymen' in (79). The past perfect tense '-ass/essul kes' usually follows in the other part of the sentence. However, the connective '-a/esstelamyen' is followed by a simple past tense in (79), so it should be changed to the past perfect tense.

③ Subject agreement and connectives

There are some connectives which require the subject of the preceding clause to be the same as the subject of the following clause, and some which require it to be different. Other connectives still allow free alternation of the subjects between clauses. In the case of the connective '-killay' in (80), the subject of the preceding clause and the following clause should be different.

A sentence which contains the connective '-killay' (so, because) sounds natural when the subject of the clause preceding is second or third person and the subject of the following

clause first person. However, the subject of the first clause is third person, and the subject of the first and second clauses are the same in (80). In this case, the connective ‘-killay’ should be replaced by other connectives which also indicate the reason (such as ‘-e/ese’) and the subject of the preceding and following clauses should be the same.

The connective ‘-nulako’ has the restriction that the subject of the preceding and following clause should be the same. The different subjects (women and men) are used in (81). For sentence (81), the connective ‘-nikka’ (because), for which the subjects of the two clauses can be different, would be more appropriate than ‘-nulako’.

The connective ‘-a/essteni (seeing as, since)’ in (82) is one of the forms which sounds more natural when the subjects in first and second clauses of sentence are different. Therefore, if the connective ‘-a/essteni’ is used for the first clause, the subject of the second clause should be changed to ‘Cardinal’. The structure of the second clause should also be reorganised, as in (83). Alternatively, if the connective were changed to ‘-a/ese’, the sentence would be grammatical, though the meaning of sentence would not be as precise as before.

④ Connectives and sentence endings

The last type of error is related to sentence endings in the clause following connectives. Some connectives cannot be followed by certain sentence endings. For example the connective ‘-a/ese’ (so, because) in (84) in appendix 7 cannot be followed by an imperative sentence ending. It should be replaced by the connective ‘-nikka’ (because) which allows an imperative sentence ending.

The connective ‘-lyemyen’ (in order to) in (85) is usually followed by the sentence ending ‘-a/eya hata’ (have to), ‘-nun key cohkeyssta’ (would better) or an imperative sentence ending. The use of a declarative sentence ending sounds unnatural. Thus, the sentence would be better if the auxiliary verb ‘-a/eya ha/toyta’ was added to the sentence ending or if the connective ‘-lyemyen’ (if you intend to) was replaced by the phrase ‘-ki wihay’ (in order to).

⑤ Connectives and verbs

There are some connectives which can only combine with certain type of verbs; while some can unite with all types of verbs, descriptive, processive and copula, some can only be used with one or two types of verbs. Conversely, as mentioned earlier in the particles section, there are also some verbs which only accompany certain connectives. A few errors related to these verbs are found in the learner corpus. The connective ‘-nulako’ in (86) combines with only processive verbs so the use of the descriptive verb ‘papputa’ (busy) is incorrect.

The defective verb ‘thonghata’ (through) in (87) usually occurs in the form of ‘thonghay’ (through) combining with the connective ‘-a/ese’ or ‘thonghan’ (through) with the

modifier form ‘-n’ as an adverbial phrase in the sentence. Therefore, the use of the connective ‘-ko’ (and) is incorrect. It should be replaced by the connective ‘-a/ese’ (so, because).

(4) Nominal forms

In Korean grammar, there are two types of nominalisation. First, a predicate or sentence can convert into a noun by combining with nominal forms such as ‘-ki’ or ‘-(u)m’. These nominal forms are used themselves as sentences for purposes such for writing a memo, or as nominal clauses or noun phrases embedded in a sentence. Second, the construction of ‘predicate stem + present modifier ‘-nun’ + bound noun ‘-kes’ such as ‘kongpwuha-nun kes’ (study- present modifier ‘-nun’ - bound noun ‘kes’) or ‘ilk-nun kes’ (read-present modifier ‘-nun’ -bound noun ‘kes’) is also one of the nominalisation strategies found in the Korean language.

Koh Kyoungtae (2008) found that the second nominalisation form ‘-nun kes’ is more frequently used by native Koreans in the *Sejong Corpus*. The nominal form ‘-ki’ is the second, followed by ‘-(u)m’. There are some problems in analysing nominalisation errors. The *Cinunghyeng Morphological Analyser* tags ‘-um’ and ‘-ki’ as nominal forms and the ending ‘-nun’ of ‘-nun kes’ as a modifier. Therefore, cases where the ‘-nun kes’ construction is used instead of ‘-um’ or ‘-ki’ are difficult to count. Only the frequency of nominal form errors is given in table 9 (see appendix 6). Even though the frequency of errors in which ‘-nun kes’ or connectives are used instead of ‘-um’ or ‘-ki’ are not presented here, example sentences will be given to discuss what kinds of errors related to nominalisation were made by the learners.

The results indicate that, out of the 9 grammatical items, learners are most likely to make errors when using nominal forms. Almost half of the attempts to use the ‘-(u)m’ ending by learners were errors and the error rate of ‘-ki’ is also significant. Various substitution errors are found related to nominalisation.

There are some errors where the nominal forms were replaced by other grammatical items but reverse cases are slightly higher in the learner corpus. The noun ‘malyen’ in (88) is an independent noun which means ‘preparation’ or ‘arrangement’ (Yeon Jaehoon and Lucien Brown 2011: 58). The noun ‘malyen’ is considered as one item which is undergoing the process of grammaticalisation, combining with the nominal form ‘-ki’. It functions as phrase to indicate ‘bound to’, ‘doomed to’, ‘expected to’ or ‘normal to’. The noun is not usually modified by modifier form. Sentence (88), the modifier form needs to be replaced by the nominal form ‘-ki’ or the adverbial derived ending ‘-key’.

Nominal forms ‘-(u)m’ in (89) and ‘-ki’ in (90) are replaced by other grammatical items such as a connectives or modifier forms. Some cases in which nominal forms were overused, like sentence (91), can be found in the learner corpus. Sentence (91) would sound more natural without the two forms of ‘verb+nominal form (sikhi-ki and cocelha-ki). These are considered an addition of unnecessary items to the sentence.

There are also errors which were caused by the wrong choice of nominalisation. The ending ‘-nun+kes’ form and the nominal form ‘-um’ were misused in the place of the nominal form ‘-ki’ in (92) and (93).

The nominal form ‘-(u)m’ was replaced by the incorrect nominal form ‘-ki’ in (94). The verb ‘ttaluta’ can take two different nominal forms depending on the meaning. The verb can be used as a phrase ‘-ey ttala’ combining with the particle ‘-ey’ and connective ‘-a/e’ to indicate a different meaning from when it is used as verb. Whereas when ‘-ey ttala’ means ‘depending on’, it requires the nominal form ‘-ki’, when it is used to indicate ‘as’, it requires the nominal form ‘-(u)m’. Based on the meaning of sentence (94), it would be more appropriate for the nominal form ‘-(u)m’ to combine with the phrase ‘-ey ttala’ than with ‘-ki’.

The choice of nominalisation strategy is mostly decided according to the verb which follows. If learners know which nominalisation strategy the verb requires, they can produce grammatical sentences. The verb ‘kwenhata’ (to recommend) in (92) and ‘kkelita’ (to avoid) in (93) require a noun phrase which is formed with the ‘-ki’ ending. The verb ‘ttaluta’ (follow) in (94) takes different nominal forms depending on the meaning which it indicates. However, based on the language use in the learner corpus, learners seem to use them without reference to the verbs. Observing the error patterns in the learner corpus, learners tended to choose nominalisation strategies and nominal forms without any particular strategy. Therefore, it seems to be necessary to teach rules for nominalisation accompanied by information about in what context and with what verbs each nominal form can be used.

(5) Adverbs

Numerous adverbs are used in the learner corpus. Therefore, it is difficult to quantify the individual occurrences of all adverbs. The majority of errors are substitution errors. The proportion of addition errors is higher than for other grammatical items. This is because an adverb is not a compulsory component in most cases. If there is no alternative adverb for an erroneous adverb, it was classified as adding an unnecessary item to a sentence. Table 10 in appendix 6 shows the lists of adverbs which occurred more than 50 times in the learner corpus.

As we can see in table 10, the error rate does not seem to be related to the frequency of the adverb, the error rates of less frequent adverbs tend to be higher than adverbs which were frequently used. As mentioned earlier, this might be because learners tend to use items which they can use correctly rather than unfamiliar items. Learners may be more likely to make mistakes when using unfamiliar items. The pattern of error distribution for adverbs is similar to that of connectives.

The types of adverbs errors are complicated: the first issue is related to what kind of predicate an adverb can modify. This is because certain kinds of adverbs can occur with only descriptive verbs and some can be used only with processive verbs. Second, some kinds of

adverbs have restrictions on with which tenses they can co-occur. For example, the adverb ‘imi’ (already) usually does not appear with the future tense. Third, while some adverbs can occur with all negations (three types: an, mos, -ci malta) in Korean, some cannot modify negative sentences. In addition, some adverbs can appear with only negative sentences. For instance, ‘yekan’ (rare) and ‘kwahi’ (not very) can occur with negation but do not modify affirmative sentences in most cases. Fourth, some adverbs only appear in complex sentences occur accompanying certain connectives. For example, the adverb ‘amwuli’ (however much) cannot occur in an affirmative sentence and needs to occur with the connective ‘-a/eto’ (although), ‘-lato’ (although) or ‘-(u)l mangceng (even if)’. The adverb errors will be discussed according to these four types of errors which are mentioned above.

① Restriction of predicates

The adverb ‘ceyil’ (most, first) in (95) modifies emotional processive verbs such as ‘coahata’ (like) or ‘mwusewehata’ (get scared) but it does not occur with processive verbs in most cases. Even though the adverb ‘cal’ (well) in (96) may modify processive verbs, the use of ‘cal’ with the verb ‘concayhata’ which has meaning ‘exist’ does not seem to be appropriate. Therefore, it is necessary to examine what kind of processive verbs ‘cal’ cannot occur with.

② Restriction of tense

The adverb ‘yocum’ in (97) means ‘recently’ in English so it usually occurs with the present tense or present progressive, not the past tense. The synonym noun ‘choikun’ (recently), which can appear with past tense, would be more suitable for this context. The adverb ‘pangkum’ (just before) in (98) is one of the items which learners often confuse with ‘kumpang’ (shortly, soon). These two adverbs share the same Chinese characters. The meanings are similar. However, ‘pangkum’ usually occurs with the past tense rather than the other tenses. Actually, the reason why different tenses are used for these two adverbs is clear if learners recognise the difference in meaning between ‘pankum’ (just before) and ‘kumpang’ (shortly, soon). In my experience, many learners from beginners to advanced-level learners tend to frequently make mistakes when using these adverbs.

Sentences (97)-(98) show cases where adverbs could be considered near synonyms but have different syntactic characteristics. If learners have trouble using them properly because they do not distinguish their subtle differences in meaning, conversely, their different syntactic characteristics can be used to help learners to understand their different meanings.

③ Restriction of negation

The adverb ‘kkok’ in (99) in appendix 7 does not appear in ‘an’ (not) or ‘mos’ (cannot) negative

sentences. The adverb ‘celtay’ (never) in (100) is usually used with negation and does not appear in affirmative sentences in most cases. Therefore, ‘kkok’ (certainly) in sentence (99) should be replaced by ‘celtay’ (never); in (100), the adverb ‘hangsang’ (always) or ‘enceyna’ (always) would be appropriate for the adverb ‘celtay’.

④ Restriction of connectives

Among Korean adverbs, there is a group of adverbs which is usually placed at the front of the sentence. These are classified as sentential adverbs. They tend to modify whole sentences rather than only the predicate, and usually occur in complex sentences. Moreover, they usually appear with only certain connectives. Their use is restricted. The adverbs ‘eccina’ in (101) and ‘elmana’ in (102) mostly occur with the connective ‘-(nu)nci’. These two adverbs are usually not used with other connectives. The uses of them in (101) and (102) make the sentences sound unnatural. Hence, they should be deleted or replaced by other items. The adverb ‘amwuli’ (however much) which is mostly accompanied by the connective ‘-a/eto’ (but, though, even if) could be used instead of ‘elmana’ in (102).

The adverb ‘sellyeng’ (even if) in (103) often appears with the connective ‘-ta hatelato’ (although, however) and is used in negative sentences. Accordingly, the use of ‘sellyeng’ is inappropriate with the connective ‘-(u) myen’ (if) and should be deleted or replaced by the noun ‘manyak’ (if), which usually appears with the connective ‘-(u) myen’.

4. Conclusion

In this section, I attempt to identify five items which advanced learners do not manage properly in their production. The learner corpus enables me to select items which advanced learners find it difficult to use correctly and to observe types of errors related to these items. I also can see the grammatical and lexical items which advanced learner used are limited to certain items. The research here leaves much to be desired because it is difficult to provide a large enough sample size of each type of error due to the small size of the learner corpus. However, I believe the results of error analysis based on the learner corpus provide some guidelines to teachers and teaching material developers in making decisions as to which linguistic characteristics they need to pay attention to when examining a particular lexical item or grammatical structure. In addition, this study can give some idea of what further research needs to be done in order to explain certain grammatical rules or items more clearly. I also believe that these results would be a reliable basis on which to examine the grammatical description of existing learner’s dictionaries of Korean and to discuss how to improve them to assist advanced learners with their difficulties.

Critical dictionary review

1. Introduction

This chapter investigates how the ‘*LDK*’³⁰ (**hereafter *LDK***) deals with grammatical description for the five items. I also seek ways to improve the information in the dictionary in order to assist learners with syntactic difficulties by pointing out the problems of the grammatical descriptions in the *LDK*. According to McCarthy (2001), grammar can be described differently depending on the target audience. The grammatical descriptions in learner’s dictionaries for foreign learners would be ‘pedagogical grammar’ designed for teaching Korean as a foreign language. This chapter discusses how grammatical information needs to be given in a way suited for pedagogical purposes for Korean language teaching, especially dictionary context.

I believe that the user research contained in this study enable me to set up concrete criteria to examine of the grammatical descriptions in the existing dictionary and to have some insight into the pedagogical implications of lexicographical choice related to these grammatical descriptions. In the previous chapter, I attempted to identify the grammatical problems which advanced learners have and observe their problems, categorising their errors according to linguistic items. Here I review grammatical information given in the *LDK* based on findings from analysis of the learner corpus. I also endeavor to suggest possible solutions to improve grammatical descriptions. This review focuses on actual purposes of pedagogical dictionaries, which abound in features facilitating production rather than receptive purposes. This section attempt to answer the following research questions:

- How does *LDK* describe the five items of grammatical information previously analysed?
- What problems do the grammatical descriptions in the *LDK* have when attempting to assist learners with their difficulties using these five items?
- How can we improve grammatical descriptions in the dictionary in order to enable learners to solve their language problems using dictionaries?

³⁰ Many kinds of Korean dictionaries for foreign learners have been published to satisfy the various needs of foreign learners, however, their contents have been biased towards either exclusively grammatical items or lexical items. While some dictionaries deal with only grammatical items, others include only lexical items. Hence, it is quite difficult to identify the purpose behind their compilation. I assume that it is not suitable to examine dictionaries for which the main purposes or target users are not clear. In contrast to other dictionaries, the *LDK* was published based on concrete purposes and target users. The *LDK* was published supported by the *NIKL* and the *International Korean Language Foundation* in 2004. The *LDK* ranges over both items and it is designed to support foreign learners’ receptive and productive activities. The dictionary indicates that it is compiled for foreign learners of Korean above intermediate levels. The most important feature of the dictionary is that it is the first dictionary for foreign learners which is written based on the native speaker corpus. Therefore, I believe that this dictionary is suitable for examining the grammatical descriptions for encoding activities for this study.

2. Critical review of grammatical descriptions in the *LDK*

This section reviews the *LDK* in terms of the grammatical information it includes, focusing on the five grammatical items which were dealt with in the previous section. It also discusses whether the information given in the dictionary would be appropriate for solving learners' grammatical difficulties. In the previous section, it was found that errors using certain grammatical items were caused by a lack of knowledge not only about the target item itself but also about other grammatical items with which it co-occurs. For instance, particle errors seem to be mostly caused by insufficient knowledge about syntactic characteristics of verbs rather than ignorance of the roles of particles. Therefore, when one item is described, its syntactic relationships with other grammatical items which it accompanies should also be dealt with in the entry. Here, I also suggest some examples how certain item can be described more user-friendly³¹ for learners to access information effectively and accurately.

2.1 Verbs

Here, the components and contents of verb entries will be discussed according to the types of verbs. The descriptions of verbs will be examined focusing on the two issues: (1) how the *LDK* presents information to help advanced learners understand the syntactic structure of an individual verb; (2) if the *LDK* provides enough information for target users to choose an appropriate type of verb or right structure of verb in order to express the idea that he or she wants; (3) how the information showing the syntactic relationship between verbs and other grammatical items is presented.

(1) Descriptive verbs

Descriptive verbs are mostly considered intransitive verb. It is often assumed that descriptive verbs only require one subject in a sentence. However, there are some verbs in Korean which take a compulsory adverbial case complement such as 'kathta' (be the same), 'taluta' (be different)' and 'issta' (to stay, to have, there is) etc. When learners construct a sentence, they consider how many and what sort of complements the verb requires in a sentence. However, it might be difficult for them to be sure of what case noun phrases occur with target verb. In addition, some descriptive verbs take a noun phrase which is formed by nominal form. For this case, information about part of speech would not be enough to comprehensively describe the structure of descriptive verbs. Therefore, if a descriptive verb takes the adverbial case obligatorily or a noun phrase which is formed by nominal form, it is necessary for dictionaries to offer a more precise syntactic description rather than only indicating the part of speech. The

³¹ In this study, the concept of 'user-friendliness' includes the reliability of information- whether learners can get information which they need to construct an appropriate sentence using a target item. It also includes accessibility- whether the information in a dictionary is described so that learners can understand without much effort.

LDK offers case frame information which includes the adverbial case when descriptive verbs require a compulsory adverbial case complement besides the subject. It puts the adverbial case in brackets if it can be left out as shown in table 1 in appendix 8.

In the *LDK*, the entry of the descriptive verb ‘kathta’ (be the same) which takes a compulsory comitative case describes the case frame as ‘①i ②wa kathta’ (Nominative-Comitative-Verb) (see table 2 in appendix 8). Case frame information which shows the possible structures of verbs could be more useful than part of speech information in that learners can make a well-formed sentence instantly by applying it. However, there is discordance between the case frame and the example sentences in the entry. Example sentences should show the instantiation of the case frame in order for learners to learn how it can apply to real sentence production. They should not only be typical but also practical, showing the real usage of verbs. In the first and second sense of the entries ‘kathta’ (be the same), the case frames are given as ‘①i ②wa kathta (Nominative-Comitative-Verb)’. But the structures of the example sentences (1) are different from the case frames given in the entry.

(1) a. hyeng-kwa na-nun khi-ka katha-yo.
 older brother-COM I-TOP height-NOM same-PRE-DEC
 I am the same height as my brother.

b. swumi ssi-nun maum-i chensa-wa kath-ayo.
 Sumi –TOP heart-NOM angel-COM like-PRE-DEC
 Sumi’s heart is like an angel’s.

Only one subject is given in the case frames of the two word senses, but example sentences in which two subjects (TOP and NOM in 1(a) and (b)) occur are presented without any explanation. The verb ‘kathta’ is not a verb which requires two compulsory subjects. Hence, lexicographers might have intended for users to notice the optional structure of ‘kathta’, in which two subjects can be used, from the example sentence even though they did not offer this information using the case frame. However, if one of subjects in (1a) and (1b) is omitted, the sentence (1a) sounds unnatural and the meaning of the sentence (1b) is unclear³². The structure in which two subjects occur could be unusual for foreign learners. Therefore, offering example sentences without extra

³² hyeng-kwa khi-ka katha-yo.

(If the subject ‘na-nun’ is omitted, information about whose height is the same as the brother’s height is missing)
 hyeng-kwa na-nun katha-yo.

(If the subject ‘khi-ka’ is omitted, information about what the brother and I are the same at is missing)
 swumi ssi-nun chensa-wa kath-ayo.

(When the subject ‘maum-i’ is omitted, the meaning is ‘Sumi is like an angel’. ‘Heart’ is missing)
 maum-i chensa-wa kath-ayo.

(When the subject ‘Sumissi-nun is omitted, information about whose heart is like an angel’s heart is missing)

information would not be enough for learners to understand the syntactic characteristics of the verb ‘kathta’. This discordance between case frame and example sentence could cause confusion when learners make a sentence referring to the case frame. Moreover, learners might not be able to learn this double nominative construction properly because the case frame in which two subjects occur is not given in the entry.

The relationship between the two subjects is usually explained as follows: the second subject is a possession of the first subject or a part of the first subject (Nam Kisim 2001: 227). This syntactic behaviour is important for learners to understand when they are producing sentences in which ‘kathta’ (be the same) takes two subjects. In addition, one subject which indicates the ‘possessor’ or ‘whole’ can be replaced by the possessive particle ‘-uy’ like sentences (2). This structure could also be provided in the entry or a in a separate section like table 3 in appendix 8. Accordingly, dictionary users could have more opportunities to learn various structures and have more options in choosing appropriate structures to express what they want.

(2) a. hyeng-kwa na-uy khi-ka kath-ayo.
 Older brother-COM I-POSS height-NOM same-PRE-DEC
 My height is same as my older brother’s.

 b. swumi ssi-uy maum-i chensa-wa kath-ayo.
 Sumi-POSS heart-NOM angel-COM like-PRE-DEC
 Sumi’s heart is like an angel’s.

Apart from the verb ‘kathta’, there are some cases in the Korean language in which two subjects appear to occur, like sentence (3). There are some different views in Korean linguistics on how to see these constructions. Many grammarians, Choi Hyenbae (1937), Heo Woong (1999) claim that the sentences ‘phwumcil-i cohta’ (Subject-Verb: The quality is good) in (3) or ‘ttalki-ka cohta’ (Subject-Verb: The strawberry is good) in (4) are predicative clauses. The *Standard School Grammar* also explains it as an embedded clause in the sentence. On the other hand, some linguists (Nam Kisim 2001, Song Changseon 2010) suggest that only one of them is a subject and the other subject is a complement which takes the subject particle ‘-i/ka’. The explanation for the double nominative structure is an important issue in Korean syntax. However, I believe that information about what verbs take two nominatives and how two nominatives should be used in a sentence properly is more practical for learners than a linguistic explanation.

(3) theyllepícen-i phwumcil-i coh-ta.
 television-NOM quality-NOM good-PRE-DEC
 The television is good quality

(4) nay-ka ttalki-ka coh-ta
 I- NOM strawberry-NOM good-PRE-DEC
 I like strawberries.

Like the verb ‘kathta’, when the verb ‘cohta’ (be good) means ‘good’ the first subject can be replaced by the possessive, as in (5). If it indicates emotion like in (4), the first subject cannot be substituted by the possessive. Even though it is less typical than the structure of sentence (4), one of subjects which indicates the person in sentence (4) can be replaced by the dative case, as in sentence (6).

(5) theyllepícen-uy phwumcil-i coh-ta
 television-POSS quality-NOM good-PRE-DEC
 The quality of the television is good.

(6) na-eykey ttalki-ka coh-ta
 I- DAT strawberry-NOM good-PRE-DEC
 I like strawberries.

However, the only pattern in which one subject occurs is given for the meaning ‘good’ in the first sense as shown in table 4 (see appendix 8). Furthermore, a case frame demonstrating a construction in which the ‘-eykey’ adverbial case occurs is also not provided in the third word sense in the entry of ‘cohta’. Even if the structures of sentences (5) and (6) are not offered because they are less typical and not compulsory compared to the double nominative case frame, it is difficult to understand why the entry does not put the double nominative case frame for the first word sense meaning but instead for the third meaning. For both the first and the third word sense, the double nominative structure is typical and sounds natural. The case frame for the first word sense could therefore be given as: (Subject 1-Subject 2-Verb). And the first subject can be put in brackets to show that it could be omitted when the subject is obvious in context.

In Korean, there are some groups of verbs which mostly require double nominative constructions like the verb ‘cohta’ (be good/like), especially emotional descriptive verbs. These verbs mostly take two subjects in a sentence. However, the occurrence of the two nominatives can be either compulsory or optional depending on the context. One of the problems of the *LDK* is that verbs which belong to the same syntactic category are described differently, as shown in table 5 in appendix 8. Some inconsistent cases are found in the dictionary. Like the verb

'mwusepta' (be scared), the verb 'elyepta' (be difficult) also takes two subjects. However, the case frame is given as if it requires only one subject. In addition, the dictionary describes the structure of the verbs 'sulphuta' (be sad) and 'kipputa' (be pleased) as taking two subjects. It puts one subject in brackets to indicate that the occurrence of one subject is optional. The *LDK* shows the individual syntactic characteristics of these four verbs properly. However, it is still questionable why their double nominative structures are treated differently, apparently on a case by case basis.

As mentioned in the previous section, emotional descriptive verbs are one of the most problematic types of verbs for learners in terms of structure. Apart from the double nominative structure, there is one more issue related to emotional descriptive verbs. Emotional verbs usually require the first person (I, we) for a subject in a declarative sentence. They take the second person for a subject in interrogative sentence. If speakers intend to express the feelings of a second or third person in a declarative sentence, they need to attach the auxiliary verb '-a/e hata' (become) to the stem of the emotional descriptive verbs. However, in the entry of the emotional descriptive verb 'cohta' (be good/like), the case frame only is provided without extra information about which persons should be the subject of the verb. Even though the example sentences show the use of a first person subject, it is possible that learners might not notice the lexicographers' intentions. Hence, if the explanation is stated explicitly, it would be easier for learners to become aware of the restriction on which persons can be the subject of these verbs.

On the other hand, emotional processive verbs which are formed by attaching the auxiliary verb '-a/e hata' (become) can be used with all persons, differentiating them from emotional descriptive verbs. These syntactic differences between emotional descriptive and processive verbs need to be mentioned in their entries. In short, the dictionary should explain which descriptive verbs only take a first person subject. This is because, even if learners know this rule, they could be confused about what verbs can be categorised as descriptive verbs which require two subjects. Second, the syntactic rules about which emotional descriptive verbs are converted to processive verbs by combining with the auxiliary verb '-a/e hata' (become) and how their syntactic characteristics are changed should be described in a dictionary for aiding learners with production as in table 6 (see appendix 8).

In the learner corpus, it was found that learners often made mistakes when choosing between emotional descriptive and processive forms according to which fit the structure and subject of sentence. If possible, it would be helpful to offer a cross-reference guide like table 6 in appendix 8. Thus, learners could not only find out easily the processive verb form but also pay attention to the different usages of the two verbs.

There are also some inconsistencies in including forms in which descriptive verbs combine with '-a/e hata' as headwords in the *LDK*. Even though all four descriptive verbs in table 5 can have processive verbs derived from them by combining with the '-a/e hata', the

dictionary only includes the processive verb forms of two descriptive verbs (sulphuta and kipputa) as independent entries. It is not clear what criteria the lexicographers used when they decided on the lists of emotional processive verbs to include in the dictionary. This different treatment of emotional verbs could lead learners to the misunderstanding that some emotional descriptive verbs cannot be made into processive verbs.

(2) Transitive and intransitive verbs

Verbs in the Korean language cannot be simply classified according to transitivity because there are many verbs which can behave as both transitive and intransitive verbs. In addition, some transitive verbs can occur with only the adverbial case without an object in certain contexts. The *LDK* does not subdivide processive verbs into transitive and intransitive verbs. Instead, it tries to provide case frames which each individual verb can take in a sentence according to its word sense in each entry. It is difficult to say whether or not this policy is effective for foreign learners. If case frames are given precisely, learners could encounter individual syntactically diverse verbs and use verbs correctly according to the syntactic rules referred to in the case frame information.

As for intransitive verbs, there are some verbs which require other compulsory complements apart from the subject. For instance, the verb ‘pyenhata’ (to change) in (7) requires the adverbial case, taking the instrumental particle ‘-(u)lo’ obligatorily. The *LDK* offers tailored case frames which describe each meaning of the word using codes, as shown in table 7 (see appendix 8). Hence, learners can have more practical and explicit information from case frames in the dictionary.

(7) nwun-i	pi-lo	pyenhay-ss-ta
snow-NOM	rain-INS	change-PAST-DEC
The rain changed into rain.		

As mentioned above, there are some dual use verbs which can be transitive or intransitive. When learners learn the verb ‘kata’ (to go) for the first time, they are usually taught that it is an intransitive verb. However, the verb ‘kata’ (to go) is considered one of typical verbs which can be used as a transitive and intransitive verb depending on the context of use. As we can see in (8), the verb can be used as an intransitive verb taking the adverbial (locative) case, as in (8a). It can also be used as a transitive verb, in which case the adverbial case is replaced by the accusative case, as in (8b). However, the problem is that these rules do not apply in all contexts.

- (8) a. na-nun mayil hakkyo-ey ka-nta.
I-TOP every day school-LOC go-PRE-DEC
I go to school every day.
- b. ne-nun mayil hakkyo-lul ka-nta.
I-TOP every day school-ACC go-PRE-DEC
I go to school every day.
- (9) a. pingphan kil/talimith-ul ka-taka nemecy-ess-ta.
icy road/under the bridge-ACC go-PRE-while-CON fall down- PAST-DEC
While I was walking on the icy road/under the bridge, I fell down.
- b. *pingphan kil/talimith-ey ka-taka nemecy-ess-ta
icy road/under the bridge-LOC go-PRE-while-CON fall down-PAST-DEC
While I was walking on the icy road/under the bridge, I fell down.
- (10) a. cwumal-ey pwumonim-eykey ka-ss-ta.
at weekend-LOC parents-DAT go-PAST-DEC
I went to my parents at the weekends.
- b. *cwumal-ey pwumonim-ul ka-ss-ta.
at weekend-LOC parents-ACC go-PAST-DEC
I went to my parents at the weekends.

The locative particle ‘-ey’ which usually indicates movement or location in (9b) cannot be used with the noun phrases ‘icy road’ or ‘under the bridge’ as in (9b); the verb ‘kata’ can take only an object in this context. Han Songhwa (2000: 76) claims that when a subject of a motion verb is an agent in a sentence, the locative noun phrase can occur as an accusative. In this case, the action of movement seems to take place ‘in the whole place’ rather than at ‘certain point’. In the context of sentence (9), the subject ‘I’ was walking ‘whole place on the icy road’ and ‘on the road under the bridge’ so the use of the accusative seems to sound more natural than the use of the locative case. In addition, if the destination to which the subject goes is a person like in (10a), the person occurs in the adverbial case with the dative particle ‘-eykey (to)’ rather than in the accusative case like in (10b).

In the first word sense of the entry in table 8 (see appendix 8), ‘kata’, two case frames and the semantic category of the nouns that can occur in the noun position are given. The case frames taken by the verb ‘kata’ are different depending on context, but there is no further information explaining the possible contexts of use in the entry. It would be difficult to show examples of all possible contexts in which ‘kata’ takes the accusative, adverbial case or both cases. However, some additional explanations or example sentences do need to be offered to show learners the context in which they should use each case frame.

One word can have more than one sense and the structure of a word can be different depending on its meaning. There are also some dual transitive and intransitive verbs. In (11a), it seems that the verb ‘thata’ (to take/to ride) can take both adverbial and accusative cases to

indicate ‘to take a form of transport’. When the noun phrase indicates the form of transport as a whole, it occurs in the accusative case like in (11b). On the other hand, when the noun phrase designates a specific part of the form of transport (e.g. a seat or the back of a horse), the verb takes the locative adverbial case like in (11b).

- (11) a. na-nun pesu-ey/lul tha-ss-ta.
 I-TOP bus-LOC/ACC take-PAST-DEC
 I took a bus.
- b. na-nun mayil pesu*ey/lul tha-ko hakkyo-ey ka-nta.
 I-TOP everyday bus-*LOC/ACC take-PRE-and-CON school-LOC go-PRE-DEC
 I go to school by bus every day.
- c. na-nun pesu 3pen cwasek-ey/*ul tha-ss-ta.
 I-TOP bus number 3 seat-LOC/*ACC take-PAST-DEC
 I sat in seat number 3 on the bus.

The *LDK* treats the cases when the verb modifies ‘part (specific place of transport)’ and ‘whole (transport)’ as different word meanings. It offers different case frames according to the meaning in the entry of ‘thata’ (to take/ride) as shown in table 9 (see appendix 8). The *LDK* seems to take into consideration learners’ difficulties in distinguishing different usages of ‘thata’ as it includes these two different case frames in the same sense, in contrast to *The Korean Standard Dictionary (for native speakers)*. If the dictionary decides to treat them as different senses, it needs to show their differences more explicitly in order to help learners who know that the verb ‘thata’ can occur with adverbial case and accusative case but who do not know the differences between them exactly.

If only given sentence (11a), it is difficult for even native speakers to distinguish the different meanings of ‘thata’. However, if we make questions for which the answers take the adverbial case and accusative case, we can see that different interrogative pronouns are used as in (12a) and (12b). If these questions are given with their answers, learners could better notice their differences.

- (12) a. ne mwues-ul tha-ss-ni?
 you what-ACC take-PAST-INT
 What did you take?
- b. ne edi-ey tha-ss-ni?
 you where-LOC take-PAST-INT
 Where did you sit?

There are more cases in which different a case frame is required depending on whether the verb modifies a ‘part’ or a ‘whole’, as shown in (13)-(14). In sentences (13) and (14), the adverbial case which takes the locative particle ‘-ey’ can be replaced by the accusative case. The original

object can be substituted for the adverbial case which takes the instrumental particle ‘-(u)lo’. The difference in the structures of sentences (13) and (14) can be explained by their subtly different meanings. Yeon Jaehoon (2011:49) argues that when an object influences a whole event, it takes the accusative case, whereas when it covers part of an event, it occurs as a non-accusative case. (13a) can be interpreted that ‘mother’ planted ‘flowers’ in part of the garden, while (13b) implies that mother planted flowers in the whole garden. Like sentences in (13), (14a) indicates that Youngmi painted part of the wall red; (14b) implies that Youngmi painted the whole wall red.

- (13) a. emeni-nun cengwen-**ey** kkoch-**ul** kakkwu-ess-ta
 Mother-TOP garden-LOC flowers-ACC grow-PAST-DEC
 Mother grew flowers in the garden
- b. emeni-nun cengwen-**ul** kkoch-**ulo** kakkwu-ess-ta
 Mother-TOP garden-ACC flowers-INS grow-PAST-DEC
 Mother grew flowers in the garden
- (14) a. Yengmi-ka pyek-**ey** ppalkansayk-**ul** chilhay-ss-ta
 Youngmi-NOM wall-LOC red-ACC paint-PAST-DEC
 Youngmi painted the wall red.
- b. Yengmi-ka pyek-**ul** ppalkansayk-**ulo** chilhay-ss-ta.
 Youngmi-NOM wall-ACC red-INS paint-PAST-DEC
 Youngmi painted the wall red.

In the *LDK*, while the entry for ‘chilhata’ (to paint) offers two case frames for the structures in both (14a) and (14b), only the structure in (13a) is given in the entry of ‘kakkwuta’ (to grow). Although the entry ‘chilhata’ provides two case frames, the dictionary does not explain the difference in meaning between the two structures in the entry (see table 10 in appendix 8). It is possible that learners might not notice the difference of meaning between the two case frames. The case frame is different depending on whether the locative noun phrase indicates ‘part’ or ‘whole’, so this could cause confusion for learners. Some teachers claim that foreign learners do not need to distinguish these subtle differences if they can convey their intended meaning using one of the structures grammatically. However, as Yeon Jaehoon (2011) points out, these alternative structures and semantic relationships are general cross-linguistic phenomena. Learners could easily understand them if case frames and extra explanation are given properly in the dictionary.

Like double nominative constructions, there are verbs which can take two objects like in sentences (15)-(17).

- (15) a. Yengmi-nun chinkwu-lul ppyam-ul ttaylye-ss-ta
 Youngmi-TOP friend-ACC cheek-ACC hit-PAST-DEC
 Yongmi hit her friend on the cheek.
- b. Yengmi-nun chinkwu-uy ppyam-ul ttaylye-ss-ta
 Youngmi-TOP friend-POSS cheek-ACC hit-PAST-DEC
 Yongmi hit her friend on the cheek.
- (16) a. chinkwu-nun senmwul-ul nemwu pissa-n kes-ul sa-ss-ta
 my friend-TOP present-ACC too expensive-PRE-MOE thing-ACC buy-PAST-DEC
 My friend bought too expensive a present.
- b. chinkwu-nun senmwul-ul nemwu pissa-n kes-ulo sa-ss-ta
 my friend-TOP present-ACC too expensive-PRE-MOE thing-INS buy-PAST-DEC
 My friend bought too expensive a present.
- (17) a. Yengmi-nun koyangi-lul twu mali-lul khiwu-nta
 Youngmi-TOP cats-ACC two-ACC raise-PRE-DEC
 Youngmi has two cats.
- b. Yengmi-nun koyangi twu mali-lul khiwu-nta
 Youngmi-TOP cats two-ACC raise-PRE-DEC
 Youngmi has two cats.

It is usually explained that the relationship between first and second objects in (15a) indicates ‘whole’ and ‘part’ respectively, while the two objects in (16a) are related by ‘theme’ and ‘attribute’. The second object is a numeral of the first object in (17a). The first object in (15a) can be replaced by the possessive case as (15b). The second object in (16a) can be replaced by the adverbial case with the instrumental particle ‘-(u)lo’ as in (16b). The structure in which two objects occur is not compulsory, though the meaning of the sentence will be less precise without it. Hence, the dictionary does not include the structures of sentences (15)-(17) as case frames in their entries, as we can see in table 11 (see appendix 8). In the learner corpus, it was observed that learners tended to overuse the possessive case to avoid using two-object structures. If the dictionary were to provide this syntactic information, learners would have more chance of encountering a wider variety of structures.

(3) ‘Predicate noun + supportive verb’ pattern verbs (‘hata’ pattern verbs)

As pointed out earlier, some of errors where learners attached the wrong final ending shape were found in the learner corpus. There are some morphological errors related to ‘hata’ pattern verbs. Table 12 in appendix 8 shows errors in which the final ending shape for processive verbs is attached to descriptive ‘hata’ verbs.

The verb ‘hata’ itself is a processive verb. When emotional descriptive verbs combine with the auxiliary verb ‘-a/e hata’, they convert into transitive verbs, as mentioned earlier. Therefore, learners tend to assume that verbs composed of a predicate noun and the verb ‘hata’

are processive verbs, especially transitive verbs. Actually, these errors can be easily solved if learners check the part-of-speech of the ‘hata’ pattern verbs using their reference books. If a dictionary offers morphological information in its entry, it will go far to show solving learners’ problems. In addition, learners had trouble in choosing the right verb among the verbs ‘hata’, ‘sikhita’ and ‘toyta’. These difficulties might be caused by insufficient knowledge about the voice of verbs and their structures rather than their collocational relationship.

Besides these errors, there are some errors where learners attached ‘hata’ to nouns which cannot combine with it, as shown in table 13 (see appendix 8). Learners of Korean know there are some nouns, especially Sino-Korean nouns, which can be verbs when combined with supportive verbs. However, they seem not to be given enough information about which nouns can work as verbs with which supportive verbs. Korean native speakers know intuitively the possible productive combinations of noun and supportive verb. It might sometimes be difficult for foreign learners to find out this information without reference. Therefore, it is necessary to devise some strategies to help learners attach the right supportive verb to the appropriate noun. In the entries of predicate nouns, verb forms and cross-reference information are given to show which supportive verbs can occur with a predicate noun, as shown in table 14 (see appendix 8). However, the problem is that predicate nouns and their ‘hata’ and ‘toyta’ forms ‘toyta’ are dealt with differently in the dictionary.

For instance, all four nouns in table 1 below can be used as verbs combining with the verbs ‘hata’ and ‘toyta’. But the dictionary excludes the noun forms or ‘toyta’ forms of some predicate nouns as shown below.

< Table 1: Information about the headwords of four predicate nouns >

	senthayk (selection, choice)	seltuk (persuasion)	sellip (establishment)	selchi (installation)
noun form	O	X	X	O
‘hata’ verb form	O	O	O	O
‘toyta’ verb form	X	X	X	O

The treatments of predicate nouns in the *LDK* can be divided into four types:

1. Only including the predicate noun and treating the verb forms as related words in the entry
2. Only including the ‘hata’ verb form as an entry and excluding other forms
3. Including the noun form and the ‘hata’ verb form but excluding the ‘toyta’ form
4. Including all three forms as entry: predicate noun form, ‘hata’ verb form and ‘toyta’ verb form

The *LDK* seems to include the ‘predicate noun+hata’ pattern first when deciding the list of headwords related to predicate nouns and their verb forms. This policy is understandable because the syntactic characteristics when predicate nouns combine with the ‘hata’ verb are more complicated. If users know the characteristics of ‘predicate noun +hata’ pattern verbs, they will be able to notice that the predicate noun can be used as a noun when the ‘hata’ part is deleted. However, the inconsistencies in the treatment of predicate nouns could cause confusion and inconvenience for users learning predicate nouns and their verb forms.

In the learner corpus, there were many cases where learners attached the object particle to a noun phrase modified by ‘predicate+hata’ pattern verbs. This might be caused by learners’ wrong assumption that the verb ‘hata’ always takes an object in a sentence. However, three types of verbs –descriptive, intransitive and transitive processive verbs - can be formed by the ‘hata’ formation. The predicate nouns require their own arguments and specific noun phrases in a sentence when they are used without or with supportive verbs, as shown in the sentences in (18).

- (18) a. na-nun 9wel-ey hakkyo-ey **iphak**, hankwuke-lul **kongpwu**-ha-nta.
 I-TOP September-LOC school-LOC entrance, Korean-ACC study-PRE-DEC
 I will enter a school on September and study Korean.
- b. k-nun hankwuke sosel-ul yenge-lo **penyek**-hay-ss-ta.
 He-TOP Korean novel-ACC English-INS translate-PAST-DEC
 He translated Korean novel into English

In (18a), even though the noun ‘iphak’ (school entrance) does not combine with the supportive verb ‘hata’, it can function as if it is a verb. It does require the noun phrases ‘na-nun’ (I, subject), ‘9wel-ey’ (in September, adverbial case) and ‘hakkyo-ey’ (school, adverbial case) in the sentence. Moreover, the noun phrase ‘hankwuke-lul’ (Korean, object) in (18a) is required by the predicate noun ‘kongpwu’. All cases in (18b) also agree with the noun ‘penyek’ (translation), not ‘hata’. Hence, when learners make a sentence using ‘hata’ pattern verbs, they have to consider the meanings of the predicate nouns to find out what case the verb requires. Like general verbs, descriptive and intransitive processive ‘hata’ pattern verbs also can require one more subject, adverbial case or specific complementiser apart from the subject, as shown in table 15 (see appendix 8). Hence, verbal structures need to be described to show their individual syntactic behaviours rather than just offering a mark showing transitivity.

It is known that only transitive ‘hata’ pattern verbs can become passive forms by replacing the ‘hata’ supportive verb with the verb ‘toyta’ to the predicate noun. But there are some intransitive ‘hata’ pattern verbs which can be attached to the ‘toyta’ auxiliary verbs. Cho Yongjun (1996) subcategorised intransitive predicate nouns into unergative and unaccusative predicate nouns as shown in (A) (see appendix 9). He found that while unergative verbs cannot

become passive forms by combining with ‘toyta’, the unaccusative verbs can, except for some nouns such as ‘samang’ (death) and ‘conca’y’ (existence). However, it is questionable whether or not verbs which are formed by combining unaccusative predicate nouns with the ‘toyta’ supportive verb can be considered passive verbs. This is because their cases frame does not change at all, even if unaccusative nouns combine with the ‘toyta’ verb as in the sentences in (19).

- (19) a. ku tosi-nun kongep-i paltalhay-ss-ta
 The city-TOP industry-NOM develop-PAST-DEC
 The city developed industries
- b. ku tosi-nun kongep-i paltaltoy-ess-ta.
 The city-TOP industry-NOM be developed-PASS-PAST-DEC
 Indutries in the city were developed.

In addition, it is not easy to find out the agent of an action in a sentence in which unaccusative predicate nouns are used as passive verbs attached to ‘toyta’. The adverbial case ‘-ey uyhay’ which can indicate the ‘agent’ of an action in a passive sentence can also occur in both active and passive sentences, like (20). Moreover, the meanings of the two sentences do not seem to be different.

- (20) a. cek-ey uyhay/*eykey pay-ka chimmolhay-ss-ta.
 enemy-by/*DAT ship-NOM sank-ACT-PAST-DEC
 The ship sank because of the enemy.
- b. cek-ey uyhay/*eykey pay-ka chimmoltoy-ess-ta
 enemy-by/*DAT ship-NOM was sunken-CAU-PAST-DEC
 The ship was sunk by the enemy.

The *LDK* offers information about the ‘hata’ and ‘toyta’ verb forms of predicate nouns and a cross-reference guide to show how to find out their verb forms in their entries, as shown in table 16 (see appendix 8). Leaving the double nominative construction of the verbs ‘paltalhata’ (to develop) and ‘paltaltoyta’ (be developed) aside³³, learners could be confused when they find that intransitive ‘hata’ pattern verbs can be passive verbs and the case frames of active and passive verbs are exactly the same. Seeing that the definitions of two entries in the *LDK* are exactly the same, the dictionary seems to treat them as if they are completely interchangeable. It is still not clear whether the syntactic or semantic characteristics of the two verbs are exactly the same when the unaccusative predicate nouns are combined with ‘hata’ and ‘toyta’. Research into

³³ The double nominative construction of descriptive verbs and intransitive processive verbs has already been discussed in the previous section. Here, even though there is an issue about the double nominative construction in the entry of ‘paltalhata’ and ‘paltaltoyta’, it is not dealt with again.

examining their characteristics more deeply and on how to explain them to foreign learners must be carried out.

The verbs in (B) (see appendix 9) take one specific adverbial case apart from the subject. Learners tended to make this the object case instead of adverbial case, according to errors observed in the learner corpus. When advanced learners encounter verbs which belong to the same category as the verbs in (B) of appendix 9, they notice that the verb may require two cases based on the meaning. Many learners tend to think that if only one case apart from the nominative is required in a sentence, it would be an accusative rather than an adverbial case. This might be because learners do not seem to recognise well that the adverbial case can be compulsory in a sentence. Therefore, dictionaries need to offer more detailed information about the structure of verbs rather than just their transitivity. The *LDK* seems to provide information about syntactic structure precisely using codes. However, if there are more pedagogic devices such as lists of predicate nouns or ‘hata’ pattern verbs which take certain adverbial cases in an appendix, or a list of verbs such as that in (B), learners could see what kind of verbs take which adverbial case.

Cho Youngjun (1996) also subdivided transitive predicate nouns into two kinds: the first type of nouns is predicate nouns which can combine with only the supportive verb ‘hata’ and require two arguments (see (C) in appendix 9). The second type of nouns is predicate nouns which have only one argument when they are attached to the supportive verb ‘toyta’, whereas they take two arguments when they are combined with the supportive verb ‘hata’. The verbs in (Ca) belong to the first type of verbs and the verbs in (Cb) are classified as the second type of verbs. Table 17 in appendix 8 shows way that the *LDK* treats the predicate noun ‘wanseng’ (completion), which belongs to the second type. The *LDK* includes three forms related to the predicate noun ‘wanseng’: predicate noun, ‘hata’ verb form and ‘toyta’ verb form. There are also guides to indicate the verb forms of ‘wanseng’ so learners can find out which supportive verbs the predicate noun can combine with. In addition, they can decide which verb form they have to use referring to information in two entries: ‘wansengtoyta’ and ‘wansenghata’.

Three-argument predicate nouns indicate the nouns which require one adverbial case as well as the subject and object in a sentence. Nam Kyungwan and You Hyewon (2005) suggest that when the three-argument predicate nouns combine with the verb ‘toyta’, they require two arguments in a sentence (see (D) in appendix 9). In this case, the case frames are different depending on the supportive verbs, so the dictionary needs to offer information about it. However, their treatment in the *LDK* is inconsistent. For instance, the dictionary offers the noun form ‘ceychwul’ (submission) and the ‘hata’ verb form ‘ceychwulhata’ (submit). It does not include the ‘ceychwultoyta’ (be submitted) verb form as a headword. It would be best if the case frames of all verb forms in which predicate nouns combine with ‘hata’ and ‘toyta’ verbs could be provided in individual entries. Difficulties might be encountered because of space. In this

case, the lists of predicate nouns which share the same structure could be given as a group in (A)-(D) in appendix 9 or a separate part of the dictionary.

(4) Causative verbs

There are three ways to form causative verbs in Korean: (1) the derived (morphological) causative is formed by attaching the verbal suffixes ‘-i-/-ki-/-hi-/-li-/-wu-/-kwu-/-chwu-’; (2) the syntactic causative is formed by attaching the auxiliary verb ‘-key hata’ which consists of the adverb deriving ending ‘-key’ and the verb ‘hata’ to the verb (**hereafter ‘-key hata’ pattern**); (3) the lexical causative is formed by attaching the verb ‘-sikhita’ to predicate nouns. Which type of causative formation out of these three should be seen as a causative system is still a controversial issue in Korean syntax. Some grammarians consider only type (2) as a causative and some claim that (1) and (2) can be seen as the causative system of the Korean language.

The rules about how to make active verbs into causative verbs are quite complicated. Not all verbs can be turned into causative verbs by adding causative suffixes. Learners of Korean should know not only which verbs can become derived causative verbs by combining with causative suffixes but also which verbs cannot. Interestingly, there are more morphological errors related to rules (2) and (3) than rule (1) in the learner corpus. It can be interpreted in two ways: firstly, learners recognised the rules of derived causative verbs well or their reference books offer enough information for learners to choose the right suffix to make active verbs into their causative forms. Secondly, perhaps learners avoided using derived causative verbs. They made fewer morphological mistakes compared to other constructions. In other words, learners only used causative verbs which they know already, not attempting to attach suffixes to verbs themselves so they could avoid making morphological errors. On the other hand, learners might have thought that the causative formations (2) and (3) are more productive and less restricted. They might have applied these rules to verbs by overgeneralising.

Table 18 in appendix 8 shows the entry of the active verb ‘mekta’ (to eat) and the causative verb ‘mekita’ (make somebody eat something). As we can see, the entry ‘mekta’ offers the derived causative verb of ‘mekita’ and the active verb ‘mekta’ is also given in the entry of causative verb ‘mekita’. So users can find active and causative forms of verbs using the *LDK*. It would be very useful to describe active and causative forms of verbs in individual entries. However, this policy seems to be applied inconsistently in the *LDK*. Entries for items such as ‘ilkta’ (to read), ‘salmta’ (to boil/steam), ‘epsta’ (carry (sth/sb) on one’s back) and ‘kamta’ (wash hair) do not provide their causative forms and these causative forms are not included as headwords in the dictionary. Furthermore, the dictionary includes causative forms of the verbs ‘nophta’ (be high) and ‘epsta’ (there is no, do not have), although the entries of the corresponding active verbs do not offer information about causative forms. One inconvenient thing related to causative formation is that there is no guide which indicates cases where verbs

cannot convert into causative forms by using a causative suffix.

Lee Iksep and Chay Wan (1999) provide a list of verbs which do not have derived causative forms, such as that in (E) (see appendix 9). There is still no clear explanation about how we can distinguish what verbs can be combined with the causative suffixes and what verbs cannot. Therefore, if the dictionary offered some lists of verbs which can become causative verbs by suffix, learners would be able to decide easily how to turn active verbs into causative form.

The second way to form a causative verb is to add the auxiliary verb ‘-key hata’ which consists of the adverbial connective ending ‘-key’ (also used for forming adverbs) combined with ‘hata’ and a verb stem. This pattern does not have restrictions in applying to any verbs, including those to which causative suffixes can be attached. However, while the verb ‘epsta’ (there is no, do not have) can form a causative verb ‘epsayta’ (to remove, to take something away) by adding the suffix ‘-ay-’, the verb ‘issta’ (stay, there is, have), which is the antonym of ‘epsta’, cannot become a causative form by adding a causative suffix. The verb ‘issta’ can convert into a causative verb using the ‘-key hata’ formation but ‘epsta’ cannot, as shown in (21). But there is no information helping learners to learn this morphological rule in the entries of ‘ita’, ‘epsta’ or ‘issta’ in the *LDK*.

- (21) emeni-nun tongsayng-ul cip-ey iss-key/*eps-key hay-ss-ta
Mother-TOP brother-ACC home-LOC make stay-CAU-PAST-DEC
Mother made my brother stay at home.

Causative verbs which are formed by causative suffixes can undergo causativisation again by means of the ‘-key hata’ formation, like in (22), but the reverse case is not possible. The causative verb ‘iphita’ (to dress/to put on) is formed by attaching the suffix ‘-hi-’. It is causativised again by ‘-key hata’ formation. It might be difficult to explain this rule in all entries of causative verbs. It can be dealt with in a separate section in the ‘-key hata’ entry.

- (22) nay-ka Yongmi-eykey aki-eykey os-ul iphi-key ha-yss-ta.
I-NOM Youngmi-DAT baby-DAT grass-ACC make dress-CAU-PAST-DEC
I made/asked Youngmi to dress the baby.

The last type of causative verbs are verbs which are formed by the so-called ‘sikhita’ (to make someone to do) formation. When the verb ‘sikhita’ is used as a main verb, it means ‘to order’ (food, etc). When it is used as a supportive verb, it takes on the meaning of ‘cause’ or ‘make’. Only verbs which are formed by the ‘-hata’ formation can become causative verbs through the ‘sikhita’ formation. Some learners tried to make general verbs causative using ‘sikhita’ formation, as in sentences (23)-(24). Some linguists consider the verb ‘sikhita’ to be a transitive verb which requires two objects and has a causative meaning. They do not see it as a one of the

possible methods of causative formation. However, it might be better to deal with this grammatical item together with causatives. This is because if this lexical formation is not introduced with other causative formations learners may not develop a complete understanding of how ‘sikhita’ formation verbs relate to the causative system of Korean. They may reach their own incorrect conclusions.

As mentioned earlier, there were some morphological errors in which learners overused the ‘sikhita’ formation like those in (23) and (24). The noun ‘sosokkam’ (sense of belonging) in (23) cannot be made a verb by means of ‘hata’ formation and this noun cannot be a causative form followed by the verb ‘sikhita’. The verbs ‘olmkita’ (to move) and ‘tatta’ (to close) in (24) which are not formed by the ‘hata’ formation cannot become causative verbs through the ‘sikhita’ formation.

(23) twu tayhak-uy wuntong kyengki-nun tanchey-uy sosokkam-ul
 Two universities-POSS sports games-TOP group-POSS sense of belonging-ACC

*sikhi-ko...
 make-PRE-and-CON

(24) kongcangtul-i talun tosi-lo *olmk-ye sikhi-kena *mwun-ul tat-a siky-ess-ta.
 Factories-NOM other cities-LOC move make-or door-ACC close make-PAST-DEC

In the entry of the verb ‘sikhita’ (see table 20 in ppendix 8), there is no information about the ‘sikhita’ formation and it just describes the verb without reference to its causative syntactic characteristics. This might be because lexicographers do not seem to consider the ‘sikhita’ pattern as causative formation. The dictionary treats the verb ‘sikhita’ as a general verb which has causative meanings. Some descriptive verbs, such as ‘tokttokhata’ (be smart), ‘cengcikhata’ (be honest), or processive verbs such as ‘silswuhata’ (to make a mistake) or ‘conkyenghata’ (to respect) cannot become causative verbs by use of the ‘sikhita’ pattern. Therefore, there are some restrictions on turning the ‘hata’ verb into causative forms with ‘sikhita’. I think that it might be necessary to make a guide which shows what predicate nouns cannot be combined with it.

When active verbs convert into causative verbs, they acquire greater transitivity and the number of cases they take also increases. It is observed that learners have difficulties in applying the syntactic rules when they construct structures using causative verbs in the learner corpus. The *LDK* provides the case frames of causative verbs precisely as shown in table 21. So if learners refer to the information in the case frames, they should be able to make sentences correctly according to the syntactic and semantic characteristics of causative verbs.

When transitive verbs become causative verbs, they require three cases, as shown in (26) and (27). However, the case frames could be different depending on the types of causative verbs: for example, the derived causative verb ‘mekita’ (to feed) has three arguments. The subject of an active verb in a sentence can occur as the ‘-eykey’ adverbial or the accusative case.

However, in the case of ‘mekkey hata’ which is formed by ‘-key hata’ pattern, the subject of the active sentence can occur in one of three cases: the ‘-eykey’ adverbial, the accusative or the nominative like in sentence (27).

(25) ai-ka yak-ul mek-nun-ta
 child-NOM medicine-ACC eat-PRE-DEC
 The child takes medicine.

(26) emeni-ka ai-eykey/ul yak-ul mek-i-n-ta
 mother-NOM child-DAT/ACC medicine-ACC eat-CAU-PRE-DEC
 Mother makes the child take medicine.

(27) emeni-ka ai-eykey/ul/ka yak-ul mek-key ha-nta.
 mother-NOM child-DAT/ACC/NOM medicine-ACC eat-CAU-PRE-DEC
 Mother makes the child take medicine.

Therefore, the verb ‘mekita’ can occur in a double accusative structure; ‘mekkey hata’ can take two subjects or two objects in a sentence depending on the speaker’s intention. However, the entry ‘mekita’ only offers the basic case frame in which the adverbial and accusative cases occur in a sentence. In real communication, learners could often encounter double-accusative structures. If the dictionary does not offer this structure, learners would not be able to check this rule in their reference book and would not have the opportunity to learn this structure. Another problem is that the case frames of sentence (27) are not given in the subentry ‘-key hata’ as shown table 19 in appendix 8. Hence, there is no way to find out the case frames of ‘-key hata’ causative verbs in the dictionary.

The action which adverbs modify can vary depending on the type of causative used. While the adverb ‘ppalli’ (quickly) modifies the mother’s action in (28), it modifies the child’s behaviour in (29). In other words, when adverbs occur in sentences with a derived causative verb, they modify the action of the subject. When they are used with ‘-key hata’ formation verbs, they modify the actions of the dative case.

(28) emeni-ka ai-eykey os-ul **ppalli** iph-yess-ta: mother’s action
 mother-NOM child-DAT clothes-ACC quickly dress-CAU-PAST-DEC
 Mother quickly dressed child in clothes.

(29) emeni-ka ai-eykey os-ul **ppalli** ip-key hay-ss-ta: child’s action
 mother-NOM child-DAT clothes-ACC quickly made dressed-CAU-PAST-DEC
 Mother made the child dress quickly.

The meanings of the two sentences are very different, so learners need to learn how the syntactic difference causes the semantic difference between them. It would be difficult to decide where this information should be included in the dictionary. For ease of reference, it could be described in a separate section in an appendix about the usage of adverbs in causative sentences

and offer cross reference marks in the entries of causative verbs for learners to find.

When the negative adverb ‘mos’ (cannot) modifies derived causative verbs or when the long negative form ‘-ci anhta’ (not) or ‘-ci moshata’ (cannot) combine with derived causative verbs, they can only affect the actions of the causer as in sentences (30)-(32). In derived causative verb constructions, the actions of the causer and causee cannot be separated. Only the action of the causer is influenced by negation.

(30) na-nun youngmi-eykey ku chayk-ul **mos** ilk-hy-ess-ta : my action
 I-TOP youngmi-DAT that book-ACC can not- make read-CAU-PAST-DEC
 I could not make Youngmi read that book

(31) na-nun youngmi-eykey ku chayk-ul ilk-hi-**ci** **anh-ass-ta**
 I-TOP youngmi-DAT that book-ACC read-CAU-PRE did not-NEG-PAST-DEC
 I did not make Youngmi read that book.

(32) na-nun youngmi-eykey ku chayk-ul ilkhi-ci **mos** **hay-ss-ta**
 I-TOP youngmi-DAT that book-ACC read-CAU-PRE could not-NEG PAST-DEC
 I could not make Youngmi read that book

Contrastively, the actions of the causer and causee can be distinguished by type of negation in sentences which feature ‘-key hata’ causative verbs. In ‘-key hata’ causative constructions, when the adverb ‘mos (cannot)’ modifies causative verbs, it affects the action of the causee like in (33). On the other hand, when the causative verb combines with the long negative form ‘-ci anhta (not)’ or ‘-ci moshata (cannot)’, they influence the action of the causer like in sentences (34) and (35).

(33) na-nun youngmi-eykey ku chayk-ul **mos** ilk-key hay-ss-ta : Youngmi’s action
 I-TOP youngmi-DAT that book-ACC cannot-NEG make read-CAU-PAST-DEC
 I made Youngmi not be able to read that book.

(34) na-nun Youngmi-eykey ku chayk-ul ilk-key **haci anh-ass-ta**: my action
 I-TOP youngmi-DAT that book-ACC make read-CAU do not- NEG-PAST-DEC
 I did not make Youngmi read that book.

(35) na-nun Youngmi-eykey ku chayk-ul ilk-key **haci mos-hay-ss-ta**: my action
 I-TOP youngmi-DAT that book-ACC make read-CAU could not-NEG-PAST-DEC
 I could not make Youngmi read that book.

In the learner corpus, there are a few errors in which learners used incorrect negation in causative sentences, causing difference in meaning from what they intended to express to arise. I think that learners need some guidance about how to use negation in causative sentences. In addition, while there can be a temporal difference between the action of the causer and the action of the causee in ‘-key hata’ causative sentences, like (37); there cannot be any time difference in derived causative sentences, like (36). Sentence (36) cannot express that ‘I asked

Youngmi to read a book tomorrow’, but it is possible using the ‘-key hata’ causative construction.

(36) na-nun Youngmi-eykey nayil chayk-ul *ilk-hye-ss-ta/*ilk-hi-nta/ilk-hi-l kesi-ta
 I-TOP Youngmi-DAT tomorrow book-ACC make read-CAU*PAST/*PRE/FUT
 I *made/*make/will make Youngmi read that book tomorrow.

(37) na-nun Youngmi-eykey nayil chayk-ul il-key hay-ss-ta
 I-TOP Youngmi-DAT tomorrow book-ACC made read-CAU-PAST-DEC
 I made Youngmi read that book tomorrow.

The adverbial case which indicates the instrument can also be interpreted differently depending on the type of causative.

(38) emeni-ka ai-eykey swutkalak-ulo pap-ul mek-ye-ss-ta.
 mother-NOM child-DAT spoon-INS meal-ACC feed-CAU-PAST-DEC
 Mother fed the child using a spoon. (The mother used the spoon)

(39) emeni-ka ai-eykey swutkalak-ulo pap-ul mek-key ha-yss-ta.
 mother-NOM child- DAT spoon-INS meal-ACC make to have -CAU-PAST-DEC
 Mother made the child at using a spoon. (The child used the spoon)

The ‘spoon’ is the tool with which the mother spoon-feeds her child in (38), whereas it is a tool which the child uses to have a meal in (39). In the causative system, the short form causative verbs convey the speaker's direct involvement in the stated action, while the long form conveys the speaker's indirect involvement.

When the negative adverb ‘an’ or ‘mos’ modifies verbs which are formed by ‘sikhita’ pattern, they cannot be placed immediately preceding the verbs. The patterns ‘predicate noun+sikhita’ verb must be separated into an ‘Accusative + Verb’ pattern like (42), the negative adverb ‘an’ or ‘mos’ should be placed between the noun and the supportive verb ‘sikhita’ like in sentence (42).

(40) emeni-ka ttal-eykey/ul chengso-sikhy-ess-ta.
 mother-NOM daughter-DAT/ACC make clean up- CAU-PAST-DEC

(41) emeni-ka ttal-eykey/ul *an/*mos chengsosikhy-ess-ta.
 mother-NOM daughter-DAT/ACC *not/*cannot-NEG make clean up-PAST-DEC

(42) emenika ttal-eykey/ul chengso-lul an/mos sikhy-ess-ta.
 mother-NOM daughter-DAT/ACC cleaning up-ACC not/cannot-NEG make-PAST-DEC
 Mother did/could not make her daughter clean up.

In the causative system, syntactic behaviour and meanings of sentences can vary depending on the type of causative verb used. However, the dictionary does not offer enough information for

learners to use different types of causative verbs appropriately according to their syntactic and semantic rules. If it is difficult to deal with these syntactic and semantic differences in usage notes or reference sections in individual entries, they could be described in a separate section which explains the rules of causative verbs.

(5) Passive verbs

As with the causative system, there are various ways to form passive verbs: (1) the derived passive is formed by attaching the suffixes ‘-i-/-ki-/-hi-/-li-’ to verb stems; (2) the syntactic passive is formed by combining ‘verb+ the auxiliary verb -a/ecita’ pattern (**hereafter ‘-a/ecita pattern’**); (3) the lexical passive is formed by attaching the ‘toyta’ supportive verb to predicate nouns. The syntactic passive form is more productive than the derived passive form and has less morphological restriction. It can apply to most transitive verbs. Concerning the third formation, some ‘hata’ verbs can have passive counterparts replacing the ‘hata’ supportive verb with another verb such as ‘toyta’, ‘tanghata’, ‘ipta’ or ‘patta’. All these verbs such as ‘toyta’ (to become), ‘tanghata’ (to suffer, to undergo), ‘ipta’ (to wear, to receive) or ‘patta’ (to receive) can be used independently in a sentence with their own meaning. They also require their own cases in a sentence when they do not support predicate nouns. Even though their meanings have passive characteristics, there is no morphological or syntactic device to express the passive voice when they combine with a predicate noun. Because of this, many grammarians do not treat them as part of the passive system. It might be unreasonable for linguists to introduce them as part of the passive system to learners in textbooks. However, it might be easier or less confusing for non-linguist foreign learners who are studying Korean to learn them with other passive formations.

Only transitive verbs can be transformed into passive forms but not all transitive verbs can become passive forms by attaching a suffix. Similar to derived causative verbs, there is no certain rule about which suffixes should be attached to which verbs and what kind of verbs can become passive verbs by attaching suffixes. The *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 1* suggests which suffix generally combines with what kind of verbs as (F) in appendix 9.

The *LDK* provides derived passive verbs in the entries of verbs which can become passive by means of attaching a suffix. Verbs such as ‘palpta’ (to step), ‘kamta’ (to close (eyes)), ‘anta’ (to hold/hug/embrace) have derived passive forms but the dictionary does not describe their passive form. This inconsistency of descriptions in the dictionary could cause inconvenience or misunderstanding for learners. It is necessary to offer derived passive forms in individual entries. It would also be useful if the dictionary provided lists of derived passive or causative forms in an appendix to the dictionary. Hence, learners could see lists of derived causative or passive forms at a glance.

Like the derived passive formation, only transitive verbs can be transformed by attaching the auxiliary verb ‘-a/ecita’. Generally, the auxiliary verb ‘-a/ecita’ can be combined with three types of verbs (descriptive, intransitive and transitive processive verbs) and it assigns them a new semantic property. However, when ‘-a/ecita’ is combined with descriptive verbs or intransitive processive verbs, it does not create a passive meaning. In the learner corpus, there are more morphological errors related to ‘-a/ecita’ rather than the derived passive formation. Learners seem to be more careful when they use derived passive forms but tended to overgeneralise the ‘-a/ecita’ formation. As mentioned earlier, the syntactic and semantic roles of the auxiliary verb ‘-a/ecita’ are different depending on what type of verbs it combines with, so it might be confusing for learners to use the auxiliary verb ‘-a/ecita’ appropriately.

As explained table 23 in appendix 8, transitive verbs can be converted into passive forms by means of ‘-a/ecita’, but ‘hata’ transitive verbs cannot be combined with ‘-a/ecita’. Instead, ‘hata’ transitive verbs replace the verb ‘hata’ with ‘toyta’ in order to acquire a passive meaning. However, descriptive ‘hata’ verbs can be combined with the ‘-a/ecita’ to indicate a ‘change of state or situation’. Because of this rule, learners tend to overgeneralise that ‘hata’ transitive verbs can also become passive verbs by attaching ‘-a/ecita’. Some errors in which learners tried to make ‘hata’ transitive verbs into passive forms by attaching ‘-a/ecita’ are found in the learner corpus.

The entry for ‘cita’ only mentions that transitive verbs can become intransitive verbs by attaching ‘-a/ecita’ without any additional explanation about passive formation. However, it seems that some explanations are needed about how ‘-a/ecita’ is involved in passivisation for learners who have already learned about the syntactic passive formation, but seek to confirm what they have learned in the dictionary. In addition, the entry needs to introduce exceptional cases where ‘hata’ transitive verbs cannot combine with ‘-a/ecita’.

According to grammatical rules, ‘predicate noun+hata’ transitive verbs are supposed to take on passive properties if ‘hata’ is replaced by ‘toyta’. However, there are some predicate nouns which do not combine with ‘toyta’ to acquire passive characteristics, as mentioned earlier. The predicate nouns in (43) take different verbs to express passive meaning. For example, the predicate noun ‘paysin’ (to betray) should take the verb ‘tanghata’ (to suffer, to undergo) and the other predicate nouns in (43) should take the verb ‘patta’ (to receive, to have) to express passive meaning.

(43) paysin (to betray), conkyeng (respect), chingchan (compliment), sinloy (trust), kopyak (confess),
ohay (misunderstanding)

However, learners tend to overgeneralise the rule of lexical passive formation so they make many errors in attaching the wrong verb to predicate nouns. In the entries for ‘ohay’ (misunderstanding) and ‘chingchan’ (compliment), the verbs which they can combine with to

express passive meaning are given as a collocation, as shown in table 24 (see appendix 8). Learners can thus find out which verb should be combined with which predicate noun. However, it is possible that learners do not know that predicate nouns can acquire passive meaning when they combine with the verbs ‘tutta’ (listen) and ‘patta’ (receive) in table 24. It might help learners to learn this function if the dictionary marks them to show that they have passive meaning.

After learners have succeeded in finding the right passive form, they often have trouble in using passive verbs according to their sentence pattern. When transitive verbs transform into passive verbs, they lose transitivity. The subject of the active sentence occurs in an adverbial case taking the particle ‘-eykey’ (to) or ‘-hanthey’ (to). The object of the active sentence occurs as the subject of the passive sentence, as shown in (44b). The rule concerning how the subject of active sentence changes into an adverbial case in a passive sentence is quite complicated. When the subject of an active sentence is a person or an animal, it occurs as an adverbial case taking the particle ‘-eykey’ or ‘-hanthey’ in a passive sentence. On the other hand, when the subject of an active sentence is inanimate, it occurs as an adverbial case with the particle ‘-ey’ or ‘-(u)lo’, like in (45b)

(44) a. kyengchal-**i** totwuk-**ul** cap-ass-ta
 police officer-NOM theft-ACC catch-PAST-DEC
 The police officer caught the thief.

 b. totwuk-**i** kyengchal-**eykey** caphy-ess-ta
 theft-NOM police office-DAT catch-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The thief was caught by the porlice officer.

(45) a. nun-**i** cipwung-**ul** teph-ess-ta
 Snow-NOM roof-ACC cover-ACT-PAST-DEC
 Snow covered the roof.

 b. cipwung-**i** nun-**ulo/ey** tephhye-ss-ta.
 roof-NOM snow-INS/LOC be covered-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The roof was covered by snow.

However, there are certain contexts in which the adverbial phrase ‘-ey uyhay’ (by) should be used instead of ‘-eykey’ (to) or ‘-hanthey’ (to) even if the subject of the active sentence is animate. Firstly, if there is an adverbial case which requires the particle ‘-eykey’ (to) in the active sentence already, like (46a), the subject of the active sentence cannot take the particle ‘-eykey (to)’ in the passive sentence (*Korean Grammar for Foreigners 1* 2007: 277). In this case, the subject of the active sentence occurs as an adverbial case taking ‘-ey uyhay’ (by) rather than ‘-eykey’ (to). However, when the subject of the active sentence occurs in an adverbial case taking ‘-ey uyhay’ (by), the sentence sounds unnatural. It is better to express the idea in the active voice in this case.

- (46) a. yengmi-**ka** na-**eykey** cha-**lul** pal-ass-ta
 Youngmi-NOM me-DAT car-ACC sell-ACT-PAST-DEC
 Youngmi sold a car to me.
- b. cha-**ka** Yengmi-**ey uyhay** na-eykey phaly-ess-ta.
 car-NOM Youngmi-by me-DAT be sold-PASS-PAST-DEC
 A car was sold to me by Youngmi.
- c. *cha-ka Yengmi-**eykey** na-**eykey** phalli-ess-ta.
 *car-NOM Youngmi-DAT me-DAT be sold-PASS-PAST-DEC

Native speakers intuitively know that using the active voice would be better than making passive sentences like (46b) and (46c). Unless corrected by a native speaker, it might be difficult for foreign learners not only to learn this syntactic characteristic but also to apply this rule in real communication even after they learn it. Therefore, how to explain these characteristics to foreign learners could be an issue.

Secondly, if the subject of a passive sentence is not affected directly by the action of the agent, the adverbial case usually takes ‘-ey uyhay’ (by), like the sentences in (47). Nam Kisim (2001) explains that when the subject of a passive sentence has physical contact with the participant marked with the adverbial case, the adverbial case takes the particle ‘-eykey’ (to), like (48b). If it does not have physical contact with the adverbial case, it mostly takes ‘-ey uyhay’, like (48b). According to this view, the subject ‘mother’ of (47a) has physical contact with object ‘child’, so it occurs as an adverbial case, taking the particle ‘-eykey (to)’ in the passive sentence. The subject ‘athlete’ of (48a) does not have physical contact with the object ‘arrow’, so it takes ‘-ey uyhay’ (by) in the passive sentence, like (48b).

- (47) a. emeni-**ka** ai-**lul** an-ass-ta
 mother-NOM child-ACC held-PAST-DEC
 Mother held a child.
- b. ai-**ka** emeni-**eykey** anky-ess-ta
 child-NOM mother-DAT held-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The child was held in the mother’s arms
- (48) a. senswu-**ka** (kwanyek-**ey**) hwasal-**ul** kkoc-ass-ta
 athlete-NOM target-LOC arrow-ACC shoot-ACT-PAST-DEC
 The athlete shot the arrow into the target.
- b. hwasal-**i** senswu-**ey uyhay** (kwanyek-**ey**) kkoch-yess-ta
 arrow-NOM athlete-by target-LOC shoot-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The arrow was shot into the target by the athlete.
- c. *hwasal-**i** senswu-**eykey** (kwanyek-**ey**) kkech-yess-ta
 arrow-NOM athlete-DAT target-LOC shoot-PASS-PAST-DEC

The *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 1* suggests that the subject of the active sentence occurs as an adverbial case taking the particles ‘-eykey’ (to), ‘-hanthey’ (to) or ‘-ey’ (to) in passive sentences where verbs such as ‘ankita’ (to be hugged), ‘caphita’ (to be caught), ‘nulita’ (to be expanded), ‘poita’ (to be seen) or ‘ccockita’ (to be pursued) are used. Passive verbs which were derived from the active verbs ‘kkakhta’ (to cut), ‘kkekhta’ (to break), ‘kelta’ (to hang), ‘tatta’ (to close), ‘phwulta’ (to untie, to unwind), ‘caluta’ (to cut), ‘ccicta’ (to tear), ‘pakta’ (to drive, to ram), ‘ttwulhta’ (to dig, to drill) should take an adverbial case with only ‘-ey uyhay’ (by), not the particle ‘-eykey’ (to).

Compared to the complexity of this rule, the case frames in the *LDK* (such as those in table 25 of appendix 8) are very simple, without any extra explanations. The passive verb forms of the verbs ‘kelta’ (to hang), ‘tatta’ (to close), ‘phwulta’ (to untie, to unwind), ‘caluta’ (to cut), ‘pakta’ (to dig, to drill) are included as headwords, but the dictionary does not reflect their syntactic characteristics in case frames.

Passive verbs are mostly considered intransitive verbs, but there are some exceptional cases in which an object occurs in passive sentences. In the previous section, it was discussed that the possessive case in (49a) can occur as an object as in sentence (49b). For foreign learners, converting these structures into passive structures can be problematic. The possessive case ‘totwuk-uy’ (thief’s) can occur as the same case in a passive sentence, like in sentence (50a). But a sentence like this would rarely be used in real communication, as it sounds unnatural. In this case, it sounds more natural when the possessive of the active sentence, ‘totwuk’ (thief) occurs in the passive sentence as the subject, and the object ‘phal’ (arm) occurs as the second subject (as in (50b)) or object (as in (50c)). In other words, the structures of active sentences (49a) and (49b) can occur as three different passive structures, as in (50a)-(50c).

(49) a. kyengchal-i totwuk-**uy** phal-ul cap-ass-ta
 police officer-NOM thief-POSS arm-ACC catch-ACT-PAST-DEC
 The police officer caught the thief’s arm.

b. kyengchal-i totwuk-**ul** phal-ul cap-ass-ta
 police officer-NOM thief-ACC arm-ACC catch-ACT-PAST-DEC
 The police officer caught the thief’s arm.

(50) a. totwuk-**uy** phal-i kyengchal-eykey caphy-ess-ta
 thief-POSS arm-NOM police officer-DAT be caught-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The thief’s arm was caught by the police officer.

b. totwuk-**i** kyengchal-**eykey** phal-**i** caphy-ess-ta
 thief-NOM police officer-DAT arm-NOM be caught-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The thief’s arm was caught by the police officer.

c. totwuk-**i** kyengchal-**eykey** phal-**ul** caphy-ess-ta
 thief-NOM police officer-DAT arm-ACC catch-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The thief’s arm was caught by the police officer.

In many grammar books, the rule is explained thus: when the object of an active sentence is an inalienable possession or part of whole like ‘phal’ (arm) in (49a) and (49b), it usually occurs in the object case in passive sentences. In the entry for ‘caphita’ (to be caught) in the *LDK*, only the compulsory case frame ‘Nominative-Adverbial case (Dative)-Verb’ is given for the meaning of ‘be caught’. The policy of the dictionary is understandable because the structures of sentences (49a) or (49b) are not compulsory. On the other hand, the entry offers case frames in which the object does occur, as in the fifth sense of the entry shown in table 26 (see appendix 8). When the verb ‘caphita’ (to be caught) is used to indicate the meaning ‘the weak point of someone is revealed’, it takes an object obligatorily like the example sentence in the fifth sentence of the entry.

There seems to be some disagreement between the case frames in the fifth sense of the entry for ‘capta’ (active verb) and ‘caphita’ (passive verb). As we can see in table 26 and 27 (see appendix 8), there is one more case frame in the entry for the passive verb ‘caphita’ than the transitive verb ‘capta’. If learners compare the case frames of the two entries to see how an active sentence using ‘capta’ converts into a passive sentence, they might be very confused because of the disparity in the information provided. Firstly, most learners might have learned that passive verbs are intransitive but the entry offers a case frame in which an object occurs in the fifth word sense of the entry for ‘caphita’ without any explanation. Secondly, in the entry of ‘caphita’, learners could be confused about which case in the active sentence should be converted into which case in the passive sentence. In addition, the case frame is given as ‘Nominative-Adverbial case (Dative)-Accusative-Verb’ and the noun category indicates that ‘weakness’ or ‘weak point’ often occurs as the accusative in the entry ‘caphita’. However, ‘weakness’ occurs as the nominative in the second example sentence.

As for the example sentence in table 27, the dictionary attempts to show here that the possessive case changes to the subject in passive sentences. The problem is that it might be difficult for learners to notice the lexicographers’ intentions without additional explanation. Therefore, it is necessary to mark information clearly in order for learners to understand these complicated syntactic characteristics. Considering the meaning of the passive verb ‘caphita’, even though the case frames of sentence (50b) and (50c) are not compulsory, these case frames would be frequently used when learners use the verb. This should therefore be given as additional information.

In the ‘-a/ecita’ construction, the subject of the active verb becomes an adverbial case by means of attachment of the phrase ‘-ey uyhaye’ (by) rather than ‘-eykey’ (to) like sentence (51).

(51) ku kyohoy-nun mikwuk seonkyosa-ey uyhay seywe-cy-ess-ta
 That church-TOP American missionary-by build-PASS-PAST-DEC
 That church was built by American missionary.

However, there is no guide showing the use of ‘-ey uyhay’ (by) in the dictionary, as we see in the entry for ‘cita’ in table (23) (see appendix 8). In this case, learners do not have the opportunity to learn in what syntactic and semantic contexts they could use this phrase.

For transitive verbs which are formed by ‘hata’ formation, a passive can be formed by replacing the verb ‘hata’ with verb the ‘toyta’ (to become), ‘ipta’ (to be harmed, to be damaged), ‘patta’ (to receive) or ‘tanghata’ (to suffer, to undergo) like in sentences (52) and (53)

(52) a. cengpwu-eyse tali-lul kenselhay-ss-ta
 government-LOC bridge-ACC build-PAST-DEC
 Government built the bridge.

 b. cengpwu-ey uyhay tali-ka kensel-toy-ess-ta.
 government- by bridge-NOM build-PASS-PAST-DEC
 The bridge was built by government.

(53) a. Chelswu-ka Yengmi-lul paysin hay-ss-ta
 Chulsoo-NOM Youngmi-ACC betray-PAST-DEC
 Chulsoo betrayed Youngmi.

 b. Yengmi-ka Chelswu-eykey paysin-tanghay-ss-ta
 Youngmi-NOM Culsoo-DAT betray-PASS-PAST-DEC
 Youngmi was betrayed by Chulsoo.

In order to find out what verbs the predicate noun ‘paysin’ (betray) combines with, learners may look up the predicate noun first, but there is no entry for ‘paysin’ in the dictionary. Therefore, if the dictionary does not include certain predicate nouns, there is no way of checking what verbs predicate nouns combine with in order to acquire a passive meaning. In the entry of ‘tanghata’ (to suffer /to undergo) (see table 28 in appendix 8), the entry offers information about what predicate nouns can occur as object of the verb. However, the predicate nouns ‘hyeppak’ (threat), ‘moyok’ (insult), ‘paysin’ (betray) and ‘hay’ (damage), which are given in the entry for ‘tanghata’, are not included as headwords in the dictionary. It might therefore be difficult for learners to find out what supportive verb should be used to express passive meaning through looking up predicate nouns in the dictionary.

(6) Defective verbs

Defective verbs indicate verbs which occur in only restricted forms and cannot inflect for all the forms typical of other regular verbs. Interestingly, learners tended to make fewer errors when using particles and sentence endings with defective verbs than with general verbs in the learner corpus. Of course, use of general verbs is relatively more frequent than defective verbs. The rate of errors is still lower, taking into account the distinct characteristics of defective verbs. In teaching Korean as a foreign language, in most textbooks and grammar books, defective verbs are usually given as set phrases or idioms in the forms in which they combine with specific

particles and endings. Learners seem to recognise them as set phrases rather than as individual verbs. Generally, advanced learners are recognised well the specific characteristics of defective verbs. Some still used wrong particles with noun phrases which defective verbs modify or attached inappropriate endings to the verbs. However, these errors can be corrected by the learners themselves if dictionaries offer the possible forms of defective verbs more precisely.

Hong Jaeseong (1987) claims that the characteristics of defective verbs should be explained in the definition. Endings and particles which defective verbs can combine with should be described in detail in dictionaries. The defective verbs which learners frequently used can be classified into three main types. Firstly, those which can be used as regular verbs but have defective characteristics only when they indicate a certain meaning. Secondly, those which are fixed and perform as set phrases in a sentence and are in the process of losing their verbal characteristics. Lastly, those which have lost their function as verbs completely and can only be used as a form of a different word class such as adverb.

The verbs ‘tayhata’ (to treat somebody), ‘taluta’ (to follow), ‘piloshata’ (to derive from) and ‘pihata’ (to compare) can be conjugated like regular verbs. When they designate different meanings, their syntactic characteristics are changed. For example, the verb ‘tayhata’ can work as a regular verb when it indicates the meaning ‘to treat somebody (to deal with)’ or ‘to face each other’. It has to be used in the form of ‘ey tayhan’ (locative particle ‘ey’- Verb+ the present modifier ‘-n’), ‘-ey tayhay’ (locative particle ‘ey’-Verb+the connective ending ‘-a/e(se)’), ‘tayhayse’ (locative particle ‘ey’-Verb+the connective ending ‘-a/e(se)’), ‘-ey tayhaye’ particle (the locative particle ‘ey’-Verb+the connective ending ‘-a/e(se)’’) when it designates the meaning ‘concerning’. The *LDK* deals with these two cases in separate entries as homographs.

On the other hand, the fixed forms of ‘pihata’ (to compare) are included as subheadwords. The use of the general form is treated as the main entry as shown in table 29 (see appendix 8). The fixed forms of ‘pihata’ (to compare) are described as a set phrase in the entry. This might be because the meanings of ‘tayhata’ are completely different when it is used as a regular verb and a defective verb. The forms of the verb ‘pihata’ are also restricted to certain patterns even when the verb is used as a predicate in a sentence. When it works as predicate in a sentence, it can only occur with only certain negation as shown table 29 (see appendix 8). The verb should occur with negation if it is used in declarative sentence like the sample sentences in table 29. It can only occur as an affirmative form in interrogative or exclamatory sentences like sentence (54).

(54) emeni-uy salang-ul eti-ey piha-keyss-supnikka?/ pihalya!
 mother-POSS love-ACC where-LOC compare-FUT-INT/EXC
 How can we compare mothers’ love to anything?

Even though the *LDK* does offer syntactic information and example sentences showing that the verb ‘pihata’ usually occurs with verbs of negation such as ‘epsta’ (there is no, do not have) and ‘anita’ (be not), this point needs to be explained more clearly. Example sentences which show how the verb is used in affirmative sentences and information about its syntactic restriction should also be given in the entry.

Furthermore, the entry provides the verbs ‘pikyohata’ (to compare) and ‘pikita’ (to compare) as synonyms of ‘pihata’ (to compare). However, they have many differences in terms of syntactic and semantic characteristics. The *LDK* needs to offer more information on how to use these verbs appropriately. In terms of case frame, in the example sentence where ‘pihata’ is used as regular verb, the verb is used with the comitative case. The entry, however, only gives the case frame ‘Nominative-Accusative-Adverbial case (Locative)-Verb’. The description also needs to be modified or have some extra information added.

The verbs ‘kwanhata’ (about) and ‘inhata’ (to result from, to be due to) can be classified into the second type of defective verbs. The verb ‘kwanhata’ only requires a noun phrase which takes the locative particle ‘-ey’ and occurs as an adverbial form. The ‘kwanhata’ defective verb itself has a restricted inflectional paradigm consisting of only the connective ending ‘-a/e(se)’ and the present modifier ‘-n’. As shown in table 30 (see appendix 8), the *LDK* offers two types of entry as headwords for ‘kwanhata’ and ‘inhata’: the basic verb form and the form in which the verbs combine with the connective ending ‘-a/e(se)’ for ‘kwanhata’ and ‘inhata’. Some learners do not know the basic form of defective verbs because they are usually taught as set phrases. Cross-referencing with the basic forms of defective verbs could help learners.

The verb ‘tepuwlta’ (with, to accompany with) can only be used in the form ‘tepwule’ which is attached to the connective ending ‘-a/e(se)’ as an adverbial form. Hong Jaeseong (1987) suggests that the verb ‘tepwulta’ is used only as an adverbial form so it does not need to be treated as a verb in dictionaries. As he suggests, the *LDK* includes only the adverbial form ‘tepwule’ of ‘tepwulta’ as a headword without mentioning anything about its verb form.³⁴ (see table 31 in appendix 8)

Although the form of ‘tepwulta’ (with, accompany with) is fixed as an adverbial form, like other verbs, it requires the comitative with the particle ‘-wa/kwa’ or the adverbial case with the particle ‘-(u)lo’. The entry introduces only the case frame where it takes the comitative and an example sentence in which the verb takes the comitative. This might be because even though ‘tepwulta’ can occur with the adverbial case taking instrumental particle ‘-(u)lo’, this structure is not often used nowadays. The information could lead learners to make mistakes rather than

³⁴ This policy might have been the result of influence from Hong Jaeseong (1987), since he supervised the process of compiling the *LDK*.

offering them the chance to use a variety of expressions. The *Korean Standard Dictionary* offers both cases in its entry for ‘tepwulta’. This different policy could be seen as one of the characteristic differences between dictionaries for native speakers and foreigners. Native speakers could determine intuitively which case frame would sound natural so they do not need a guide showing which case frame is more productive or which case is more appropriate for what context. Instead, dictionaries need to provide various cases in order for native speakers to learn the full range of uses of the target item. On the other hand, rare cases which even native speakers do not use could be excluded from dictionaries for foreign learners, especially dictionaries intended to aid production.

In the learner corpus, some errors, like the example in (55), are found where learners misused forms of defective verbs. In (55), the learner should have used the form ‘-ey tayhan’, where the verb ‘tayhata’ combines with the present modifier ‘-n’, because the noun phrase ‘kwanneym’ (concept) modifies the noun phrase ‘cosa’ (research). But the learner used a form which is attached to a connective. There is a considerable number of errors in which learners misused the forms of defective verbs by incorrectly combining them with inappropriate modifier or connective.

- (55) hakpwumotul-uy kwannyem-ey tavyhav cosa-lul thongha-y
 parents-POSS concept concerning research-ACC through-PRE-CON
 coki yenge kyoyuk-uy mwunceycem-ul salpnye po-keyss-ta
 early-childhood English education-POSS problems-ACC investigate-FUT-DEC

I will investigate about the problems of early-childhood English education through research on the concept of parents.

Learners know that defective verbs are used in the form of adverbial form or adnominal phrases because the forms are taught to learners as chunks. However, learners do not know how to use the two forms correctly in a sentence. These kinds of errors might be caused by lack of knowledge about different usage of modifiers and connectives rather than about defective verbs. However, if learners of Korean are confused about the usage of two endings, the *LDK* can deal with these syntactic characteristics in the usage notes in the entries for defective verbs.

2.2 Connectives

The structure of entries is not very different for verbs and connectives. The dictionary contains a separate section called ‘usage’ to explain syntactic rules such as the use of prefinal endings or subject restrictions. One of the differences between these two types of entry is that the ‘usage’ section is added to explain syntactic rules of connective entries. This might be because explanation of more grammatical components is needed in order to use connectives correctly. For example, the connective ‘-nulako’ (because) is one of the grammatical items which learners

have trouble in using properly because its usage is quite complicated. The *LDK* offers detailed information about the syntactic restrictions of connective endings, as shown in table 32 (see appendix 8). In the ‘usage’ section, syntactic rules such as subject agreement, tense restriction, prefinal ending restriction and restriction on the following sentence ending are described using full sentences. Next, information in connective entries will be examined focusing on how the syntactic rules of connectives are stated to help learners.

(1) Tense and connectives

In many cases, entries in the *LDK* do not offer information about the tense restriction of connectives. While the entry for ‘-nulako’ provides the information that it cannot be attached to tense prefinal endings such as ‘-ess-’ (past prefinal ending) or ‘-keyss-’ (future prefinal ending) in a separate section, tense restriction information for ‘-myense’ (while) which cannot combine with ‘-a/ess-’ and ‘-keyss-’ is not given in the entry as shown in table 3. Table 3 shows whether a tense restriction rule is given in connective entries which cannot combine with certain tense prefinal endings.

< Table 3 Tense restriction information in connective ending entries >

	-nulako (because)	-ca (as soon as)	-a/ese (because)	-myense (while)	-lyeko (in order to)	-mye (while)
-ess-	X	X	X	X	X	X
-keyss-	X	X	X	X	X	X
Information included	O	O	X	X	X	X

As shown in table 3 above, all six connectives have tense restrictions which limit the prefinal endings with which they can occur, but only two entries offer information about them. Considering that tense restriction is given in two entries, the lexicographers seemed to recognise the importance of this rule. However, it is questionable why the treatment of each individual connective is different.

Besides the tense prefinal ending which precedes connectives, there is a syntactic tendency which dictates what tense should follow in the second clause, as mentioned in the previous section. Some connectives can be used with all tenses in the following sentence, but some tend to require a certain tense. For example, the connective ‘-(u)l cilato’ (although) is often followed by a sentence ending ‘-(u)l kesita’ (future tense), ‘-keyssta’ (will/would) or ‘-a/eya hata’ (have to). This information cannot be given for all connectives. If strong co-occurrences are found between certain connectives and sentence endings in a corpus, it can be given as pattern, as in table 33 (see appendix 8). Like verbs, when the connective combines with the past tense prefinal ending, the meaning also changes. For instance, when ‘-taka’ (while) is

attached to a verb stem without a tense prefinal ending, it indicates that the action in the first sentence changes while the subject is doing the action, as in sentence (56). If it combines with the past prefinal ending ‘-a/ess-’, it means that the action changes after the action in the previous sentence has been completed, as in sentence (57).

- (56) na-nun tosekwan-ey ka-**taka** mwul-ul sa-le kakey-ey
 I-TOP library-LOC go-PRE-while-CON water-ACC buy-PRE- in order to-CON store-LOC
 ka-ss-ta
 go-PAST-DEC

I went to the store to buy a bottle of water while I was going to the library.

- (57) na-nun tosekwan-ey ka-ss-**taka** mwul-ul sa-le kakey-ey
 I-TOP library-LOC go-PAS-while-CON water-ACC buy-PRE-in order to-CON store-LOC
 ka-ss-ta
 go-PAST-DEC

I went to library and then went to the store to buy a bottle of water.

However, as shown in table 34 (see appendix 8), the entry for ‘-taka’ (while) does not explain the rules for when it is used with the past tense, nor does it offer any example sentences in which the past tense is used. This could lead learners make the wrong assumption that ‘-taka’ can be used only with the present tense.

It seems to be reasonable to assert that the meaning of a sentence in which a verb and connective combine with the past prefinal ending indicates an event which has been completed. The difference in meaning between sentences (56) and (57) could be confusing for foreign learners who are using the connective ending ‘-taka’ for the first time. So whether or not these different meanings, which depend on if the connective is used with present tense and past tense, are dealt with in entry is an issue which needs careful consideration.

There are some connectives the functions of which are different depending on whether or not a prefinal ending is attached. For example, when the connective ‘-teni’ (seeing as, since, when) is used in the present tense without a prefinal ending, it indicates a new state, which is different from the state or situation in the first sentence, as shown in (58). If it is attached to the past tense prefinal ending ‘-ess-’, it is used to express the idea that the speaker found an unexpected state as a result of what he/she did in the first sentence, as in (59).

(58) Yengmi-nun ecey-nun tosekwan-ey ka-**teni** onul-un cip-ey
 Youngmi-TOP yesterday-TOP library-LOC go-PRE-when-CON today-TOP home-LOC
 iss-ta
 stay-PRE-DEC

Yesterday (I saw) Youngmi went to the library, she stayed at home today.

(59) nay-ka tosekwan-ey ka-ss-**teni** mwun-i tathy-ess-te-la.
 I-NOM library-LOC go-PAST-since-CON door-NOM be closed-PASS-PAST-RET-DEC

I went to the library and I found that it closed.

When ‘-teni’ functions like it does in (58), the subject should not be first person. When it is used as in (59), the subject of the first sentence should be first person. The subject of the following sentence has to be different from the first sentence. That is, the syntactic and semantic characteristics of the connective are different depending on whether it combines with the past tense prefinal ending or not. Hence, different descriptions are needed in order for learners to distinguish their usages. However, the descriptions in the entry for ‘-teni’ do not seem to show these syntactic differences (see table 35 in appendix 8).

The dictionary deals with ‘-teni’ and ‘-a/essteni’ as different word senses in the same entry. As we can see in table 35, the case where ‘-teni’ is used with the past tense prefinal ending ‘-e/ass’ is described in the first word sense. The explanation that it is usually used with the past tense is given in the reference next to the example sentences. The usage of ‘-teni’ in (58) is described in the third word sense of the entry. Even though ‘-teni’ cannot occur with the past tense to indicate contrast between two sentences, there is no additional explanation in the entry. The *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2* includes ‘-teni’ and ‘-a/essteni’ as different grammatical items in separate sections. Even if it seems unreasonable to treat them as completely different items, explanations need to be more explicit for learners to distinguish their different syntactic characteristics and semantic functions. If their different meanings and usages were explained in separate sections using codes or example sentences which show their differences explicitly, learners would be able to recognise their differences correctly.

(2) Subject agreement and connective ending

The dictionary provides rules for subject restriction as table 32 in appendix 8 (-nulako), but it needs to describe such restrictions more precisely. When ‘-killay’ (function; reason or cause) is used, the subjects of preceding and following sentences should be different, as mentioned in the previous section. In the case of ‘-taka’ (while), the subjects should be the same in most cases because it indicates that the subject changes the action while he/she is doing the action in the first sentence. However, the subject can be different when a different person does the same action in the second sentence, like (60). In sentence (60), only the teacher of class changes and

the action ‘teaching’ is the same. The subject can be different in this case.

(60) isensayngnim-i swuep-ul kaluchi-si-taka cikum-un kimsensayngnim-i
teacher Lee-NOM class-ACC teach-HON-PRE-while-CON now-TOP **teacher Kim**-NOM

kaluchi-si-nta

teach-HON-PRE-DEC

Teacher Lee taught the class before but now teacher Kim is teaching it.

In the entry for ‘-taka’, all example sentences show cases in which only the same subjects in the preceding and following sentences are used, without any explanations about syntactic rules (see table 34 below). In addition, the subjects do not appear explicitly in all example sentences. It is possible that learners might not notice the subject restriction. Whether the same subjects can be used in two sentences or not is different depending on the context. This rule might be difficult for learners to apply correctly in their production. It is necessary to mention this in the dictionary entries (see table 36 in appendix 8).

Table 4 below indicates whether or not information about subject restriction of connectives is offered in the dictionary. All six connectives in table 4 have subject restrictions. The rules for the subject restrictions for ‘-ca’ are different depending on the word sense of the connective. As shown in table 4, only two entries provide rules of subject agreement among the six entries for connectives.

< Table 4: Information in entries of connective endings >

	-nulako (because)	-ca	-ko (and)	-myense (while)	-lyeko (in order to)	-taka (while)
same subject		↓ (as soon as)	↓	↓	↓	↓ (when action changes)
different subject	↓	↓ (at same time)				↓ (when action is the same)
Information included	O	X	X	O	X	X

The *LDK* needs to be consistent when dealing with subject agreement in connective entries which have subject restrictions. In addition, if the subjects of two sentences could be different depending on context or function of the connective, like in the case of ‘-taka’ (while) or ‘-ca’ (after, at same time) for example, a careful description which uses example sentences and codes in their entries is necessary.

(3) Sentence endings and connective ending

In the error analysis section, there are some connectives which are followed only by certain types of sentence endings, as shown in table 5. The connectives in table 5 have in common that

they are not followed by imperative sentences. The first clause of constructions in which they are used cannot feature either the negation ‘an’ (not) or ‘mos’ (cannot). The dictionary offers sentence restriction information in all entries except ‘-(u)ni’ (rather). However, no entries deal with the type of negation which can occur in the preceding sentence. The dictionary shows consistency in including information about sentence ending restrictions. It seems short on information about negation.

< Table 5: Information in connective ending entries >

	-ca- (as soon as)	-a/ese (because)	-nulako- (because)	-myense- (while)	-(u)ni (rather)
Sentence restriction information included	O	O	O	O	X
Negation restriction information included	X	X	X	X	X

(4) Verbs and connective

If a connective ending has a restriction in combining with certain verbs, the entry offers proper information about it. However, disagreement between description and actual usage is found in some entries. For instance, the connective ending ‘-ca’ (after, at same time) is presented in the *LDK* as only being used with verbs. When it is used to indicate ‘one thing has two different characteristics’, it can be combined with the copula, as in the example sentence in table 37 (see appendix 8). Therefore, it should be mentioned separately under the first word sense of the entry to prevent users from applying it for another function.

(5) Different word senses of connective endings

If a connective has more than one function, just as for words which have more than one sense, it would be helpful to compare their different functions in separate sections or using example sentences in the dictionary.

The connective ‘-a/ese’ (because, after) has different functions with different syntactic characteristics, as shown in table 6 below. However, their shape is the same so it is possible that learners might confuse their different syntactic rules.

< Table 6 Syntactic characteristic of ‘-a/ese’ >

	-a/ese (sequence)	-a/ese- (reason or cause)
descriptive verb	X	O
processive verb	O	O
Copula	X	O

The entry states the verb restrictions for ‘-a/ese’ when it is used to depict ‘sequence’. However, it does not mention the rule that it can be combined with all types of verbs when it used to indicate ‘reason or cause’.

In the learner corpus, there are pairs of connectives which learners frequently misused by replacing one with the other such as the pairs ‘-ko’ (and) and ‘-a/ese’ (so, because, after), and ‘-nikka’ (so, because) and ‘-a/ese’. Even though the difference between the two connectives is obvious for native speakers, learners of Korean could be confused about their usage. Therefore, if it is found that learners are confused by the usages of two particular items, it is necessary to offer information about the differences between them.

2.3 Nominal forms

In the Korean language, predicates or sentences can convert into a noun phrases by combining with the nominal forms ‘-(u)m’, ‘-ki’ or ‘-(u)n/nun/(u)l kes’, the last of which consists of a modifier form and the bound noun ‘kes’. Nominal forms can occur as subject, object or complement in a sentence.

Many studies (Han Songhwa 2002, Koh Kyungtae 2008, Choi Eunji 2011) found that learners tend to overuse ‘-(u)n/nun/(u)l kes’ when making predicates or sentences into noun phrases. Even though all of these nominal forms make predicates or sentences into noun phrase, they cannot be used interchangeably with each other. While ‘-(u)m’ can be substituted by ‘-(u)n/nun/(u)l kes’ in most cases, ‘-ki’ usually cannot be replaced by it. As with case frames, it is recognised that using verbs involves choosing which nominal forms they can take. However, it is not easy to explain which types of verbs require which nominal forms. Therefore, choosing the appropriate nominal forms for predicates can be problematic for learners.

The forms ‘-(u)m’ and ‘-ki’ can be preceded by the honorific prefinal ending ‘-si-’. However, while ‘-(u)m’ can be combined with tense prefinal endings ‘-ess-’ (past prefinal ending) and ‘-keyss-’ (future prefinal ending) in most cases, ‘-ki’ has some restrictions in attaching to them. According to the *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 1*, the nominal form ‘-(u)m’ is mostly used to indicate an event which is completed and ‘-ki’ is usually used for an action or state which is not completed or is not realised yet, as shown sentences (61) and (62). Therefore, ‘-ki’ can combine with the past prefinal ending ‘-ess-’ in restricted contexts and the future prefinal ending ‘-keyss-’ is rarely used with ‘-ki’. This is because the function of ‘-keyss-’ duplicates the function of ‘-ki’ which indicates an event which has not happened yet.

- (61) kunye-nun wusan-ul cip-ey twu-ko o-m/wa-ss-um-ul
 she-TOP umbrella-ACC home-LOC leave-PRE-and-CON PRE-NOE/PAST-NOE-ACC
- kkaytal-ass-ta
 realise-PAST-DEC

She realised that she had left the umbrella at home.

- (62) kunye-nun SOAS-eysey kongpwuha-ki/*ha-yss-ki/*ha-keyss-ki-lul kkwumkkwu-ess-ta.
 She-TOP SOAS-LOC studying-PRE-NOE/*PAS-NOE/*FUT-NOE-ACC dream-PAST-DEC

She dreamed of studying at SOAS.

In the context of sentence (63), the past prefinal ending ‘-ess-’ can be used to indicate that the speaker hoped that the action had already been done, but the sentence sounds unnatural in this case.

- (63) na-nun pi-ka o-ki /w-ass-ki /*o-keyss-ki-lul pala-ss-ta
 I-TOP rain-NOM come-PRE-NOE /PAST-NOE /*FUT-NOE-ACC hope/wish-PAST-DEC

I hoped that it rains/rained/*will rain.

According to Hong Jaeseong (1983) and Koh Kyungtae (2008), ‘-(u)m’ can be replaced by ‘-(u)n/nun/(u)l kes’ freely because it can be used with all tense prefinal endings without restriction. However, the *LDK* states that the two nominal forms ‘-ki’ and ‘-(u)m’ can be combined with all tense prefinal endings (see table 38 and 39 in appendix 8). It is not clear why the information about which prefinal ending may be combined freely with nominal forms is explicitly given in entry for ‘-ki’ but not in the entry for ‘-um’. In the ‘usage’ section, examples are given showing all the possible combinations of prefinal and nominal forms; only the entry for ‘-ki’ describes the rules about the restrictions on this explicitly, however. The cases in which ‘-ki’ can be attached to the future prefinal ending ‘-keyss-’ are rare in real communication. But the dictionary describes the situation as if it can combine with ‘-keyss-’ without restriction (see table 39). This description is in danger of leading learners to make the wrong assumption that ‘-keyss-’ can combine freely with ‘-ki’.

As mentioned earlier, verbs take nominal forms which they modify so there have been many attempts to classify verbs according to the nominal forms they require. Nam Kishim (2001) provides the lists of verbs with each nominal form it can occur with, as shown in (G) (see appendix 9). Some verbs such as ‘yaksokhata’ (to promise), ‘swipta’ (be easy), ‘elyepta’ (be difficult), ‘kanunghata’ (be possible), ‘phyenhata’ (be convenient) can be used with all three nominal forms. The verbs ‘kwenhata’ (to recommend), ‘pwuthakhata’ (to ask a favour), ‘yochenghata’ (to request), ‘kangcohata’ (to emphasise) often take the ‘-nun kes’ and ‘-ki’ endings. Koh Kyungtae (2008) argues that, like case frames, these syntactic characteristics can

be given as a lexical chunk. This is because it is not easy to explain the difference between them based on the meanings of ‘-(u)m’ or ‘-ki’ or to assign any communicative function to their morphological shape. Han Songhwa (2002) points out that misuses of nominal forms are derived from lack of collocational knowledge. This means that she considers these co-occurrences to be part of collocation.

When verbs require certain nominal forms, the *LDK* offers patterns explaining which nominal forms can occur with verbs in their entries, as shown in table 40 (see appendix 8). Koh Kyungtae (2008) found some special patterns in which nominal forms are combined with verbs in the *Sejong Corpus*. For example, there are some cases in which the verb ‘epsta’ (not, there is no) occurs with ‘-(u) m’ like the patterns in (64)

(64) pwucokha-m-i epsta (lack for nothing)	pyenha-m-i epsta (get no better/there is no change)
Lack-PRE-NOE-NOM not	change-PRE-NOE-NOM not
thulli-m-i epsta (be sure/surely, no mistake)	talu-m-i epsta (nothing more than nothing less than)
mistake-PRE-NOE-NOM not	difference-PRE-NOE-NOM not

Especially, he observed that when the descriptive verb ‘tumwulta’ (be rare) occurs with ‘-ki’, the verb ‘pota’ (to see, to look at) always precedes it. The phrase ‘poki tumwulta’ (it is rare to see) is fixed; not productive. This expression is often used in real communication so it can be offered as a collocation. The lexicographers of the *LDK* did not include these cases in the dictionary (see table 41 in appendix 8). However, it might be helpful for learners to expand their production if the dictionary offered the construction suggested by Koh Kyungtae (2008) along with example sentences.

Some verbs take both nominal forms ‘-(u)m’ and ‘-ki’. The meaning of these verbs is different depending on which nominal form the verb combines with. For instance, the meaning and the usage of the verb ‘ttaluta’ (to follow) is different depending on which nominal form it combines with. The construction ‘-(u)mey ttala’ (as) in which the verb ‘ttaluta’ takes the ending ‘-(u)m’ is connected with time and means as a certain action or state continues, like in the expressions in (65). When the verb combines with ‘-ki’, on the other hand, it indicates ‘something is depending on’, like the expressions in (66).

(65) a. hankwuke	haksupca-uy	swucwun-i	nophaci-m-ey	ttal-a,
Korean	learners-POSS	level-NOM	increase-NOE-LOC	as-PRE-as-CON
As the level of learners of Korean increases,				
b. sikan-i	hulu-m-ey	ttal-a..		
time-NOM	go-NOE-LOC	as-PRE-as-CON		
As time goes by..				

(66) a. yensupha-ki-ey ttal-a kyelkwa-ka talaci-nta.
 practice-NOM-LOC depending on-PRE-CON results-NOM different-become-PRE-DEC
 The results differ depending on the [amount of] practice

b. nolyekha-ki-ey ttal-a..
 making effort-NOE-LOC depending on-PRE-CON
 It depends on how much effort you make...

In the entry for ‘ttaluta’, the pattern ‘-ey ttala’ (depending on) is given as a sub-headword and it deals with only the case when the verb is attached to ‘-(u)m’ (see table 42 in appendix 8). It is difficult for learners to predict the meaning of ‘-kiey ttala’ (depending on) based on the meaning of the verb or the nominal form. This is because it is a fixed expression. Therefore, the dictionary also needs to include the form in which the verb ‘ttaluta’ takes ‘-ki’ as a sub-headword.

Like the two fixed expressions above, there are some idiomatic phrases in which certain verbs are used as fixed expressions attached to the nominal form ‘-ki’ such as: ‘-ki malyenita’ (bound to), ‘-ki ilsswuita’ (be apt to), ‘-ki wihaye’ (for/in order to), ‘-ki ceney’ (before). These fixed phrases are considered to be in the process of grammaticalisation. Many textbooks and grammar books deal with them as phrase patterns. These phrases are productive and make sentences richer by adding new meanings. If learners can use them properly, they can express themselves more precisely. Accordingly, usage of these phrase patterns needs to be stated more precisely in dictionaries which aim to aid learners’ production.

2.4 Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs or other adverbs, and some modify whole clauses or sentences. They mostly function as adjuncts in a sentence. Their importance tends to be disregarded. There is less information about the syntactic characteristics of adverbs compared to other grammatical items in both dictionaries and grammar books. In writing classes, it is difficult for teachers to explain why certain adverbs are not appropriate in certain contexts and why adverbs which belong to the same semantic category occur in different syntactic environments. Even native speakers’ intuitions about which adverbs can occur with which predicates can sometimes be inaccurate. Accordingly, foreign learners need more information about the syntactic environment of adverbs in order to use adverbs properly. In the learner corpus, it can be seen that advanced learners attempted to use various adverbs in their writing but they had trouble using them correctly.

The structure of entries for adverbs is simpler than those for verbs or connectives. The *LDK* offers various kinds of information which shows how to use adverbs. As we can see table 43 in appendix 8, firstly, the entry uses the synonyms of ‘acwu’ (very) as a definition, a technique different from those used in describing other items, and offers many synonyms of the

adverb. Secondly, it describes what part of speech the adverb ‘acwu’ modifies and whether it can be used with negation or not. Thirdly, it also provides the difference between ‘acwu’ (very) and ‘mopsi’ (very).

(1) Restriction of predicates

It is generally known that adverbs of manner modify processive verbs and that gradable adverbs modify descriptive verbs. There are some cases in which adverbs modify nouns which are gradable like the nouns in the sentences below.

(67) Yengmi-ka acwu pwuca-ta
 Youngmi-NOM very rich-COP-PRE-DEC
 Youngmi is very rich.

(68) Yengmi-ka maywu chencay-ta
 Youngmi-NOM very genius-COP-DEC
 Youngmi is really a genius.

The nouns ‘rich person’ and ‘genius’ are gradable. Gradable adverbs can modify them. In the entry for ‘acwu’ (very), there is an explanation explaining that it can modify nouns which express degree but this explanation does not offer any example sentences. Even though the information was given in the sentences, it is possible that learners do not know what nouns have degradable properties. Moreover, the entry for ‘maywu’ (very) does not even offer this information. It is good to explain what part of speech adverbs modify, but it seems that offering only information is not enough. Therefore, the entries of adverbs need to offer not only syntactic information but also example sentences.

The *LDK* provides information about what kinds of verbs adverbs usually modify. However, the description is not consistent and does not seem to be enough. Table 7 below indicates the collocational restrictions of five adverbs and whether the information is given in their entries or not. As we can see in table 7, information about what the adverb can modify is one of the pieces of essential information needed in order to use the adverb correctly. The dictionary, though, does not offer this properly.

< Table 7: Information in entries for five adverbs >

	maywu	acwu	kakkum	ceyil	cal
Descriptive verb	√	√	√	√	
Processive Verb			√		√
Noun	√	√		√	
Information Included	△*	O	X	X	X

* The symbol △ indicates that the information is offered partially.

As mentioned earlier, there are also adverbs which modify other adverbs. The adverb ‘ceyil’ (most) usually modifies descriptive verbs. It can be used with processive verbs accompanied by the adverb ‘cal’ (well), like in sentence (69). In sentence (70), ‘ceyil’ (most) modifies the adverb ‘cal’ (well). It cannot occur with processive verbs without ‘cal’. However, learners often made the wrong assumption that ‘ceyil’ can always modify processive verbs.

(69) ku-ka theynisu-lul *ceyil ha-nta
 He-NOM tennis-ACC best do-PRE-DEC

(70) ku-ka theynisu-lul ceyil cal ha-nta
 he-NOM tennis-ACC most well do-PRE-DEC

He is the best tennis player.

In the entry for ‘ceyil’, one of the example sentences shows that the adverb is used with ‘cal’ without any explanation. Lexicographers seem to show the correct usage of ‘ceyil’ but some learners who do not have a sound knowledge of the characteristics of adverbs might not notice their intentions. The entry shows the syntactic rule through example sentences. If it is described explicitly, it would be easier for learners to understand.

(71) i siktang-un mwusun umsik-ul ceyil cal ha-pnikka?
 This restaurant-TOP what food-ACC most well do-PRE-INT
 What is this restaurant famous for?

(2) Restriction of tense

There are adverbs which mostly occur with certain tenses and they indicate time themselves in many cases. For example, the adverb ‘imi’ (already) indicates an event which has been completed. It usually modifies verbs in the past or past perfect tense. The entry of ‘imi’ offers two example sentences without any additional explanation about the tense. As shown table 44 in appendix 8, the example sentences show that the adverb ‘imi’ is used with only the past tense but it is uncertain that this would be enough to make learners notice the syntactic restrictions of

the adverb.

Son Namik (1995) suggests lists of adverbs which have implicit temporal meanings as (H) in appendix 9. The verbs in (H) not only indicate time but also occur with the tenses which they relate to. If it is difficult to offer tense explanations in individual entries, it could be offered in a separate section alongside a list like that in (H). Apart from the adverbs in (H), the adverb ‘akka’ (a while ago) usually modifies the past tense and ‘ittaka’ (later) occurs with the future tense. Their syntactic information is not given in the dictionary. Advanced learners could guess what tense would be used with what adverb based on the meaning of the adverb. There are some adverbs which are synonymous but which occur in different syntactic environments. Thus, I think which tense an adverb often occurs with needs to be clearly shown as this would be helpful for preventing errors.

(3) Restriction of negation

Some adverbs have to occur accompanying certain types of negation but some cannot occur in negative sentences. The types of negation which adverbs can accompany are slightly different as shown in table 8 below.

< Table 8: Information in entries for five adverbs >

	pyello	celtay	keuy	kyelkho	comchelem
Kind of negation	anhta epsta moshata	anhta moshata malta anita	moshata, anhta, epsta	anita, epsta anhta	anhta, moshata
Information	O	O	O	O	O

The dictionary faithfully provides information about the negation restriction of adverbs but it does not cover information about which adverbs occur only in affirmative sentences. The adverb ‘ppelsse (already)’ cannot modify negative sentences but this information was not offered in its entry.

(4) Restriction of sentence endings

Some adverbs cannot occur with certain types of sentence endings. For example, the adverbs ‘maywu’ (very) and ‘acwu’ (very) cannot modify imperative sentences and the adverb ‘ceypal’ (please) does not occur with declarative or interrogative sentences (Kang Hyenhwa 1999). The *LDK* describes the restriction of sentence endings precisely as shown in table 9 below. Besides the verbs in table 9, there are adverbs which usually use the sentence endings which indicate ‘guess’ such as ‘-keyss’ (future prefinal ending: must), ‘-a/essul kesita’ (might have) such as ‘eccemyen’ (might/perhaps). If the dictionary dealt with a variety of adverbs and offered their syntactic information, it would help advanced learners use new adverbs which they have not

For adverbs, example sentences seem to be really important, especially when they compare synonyms. It is likely to be good idea to offer incorrect sentences to show incorrect usages of adverbs. The incorrect sentences would also be effective tools to show the different uses of items. I believe that this could work better in some ways than explanation in full sentences. In the case of adverbs, some can be placed anywhere in a sentence, while the positions of some adverbs are fixed. In the learner corpus, many errors of word order are related to adverbs. Time adverbs and place adverbs can move freely in a sentence but the places of adverbs of manner, degradable adverbs or negative adverbs is fixed. This should be described explicitly or implicitly in the dictionary.

3. Grammatical information in KFL dictionaries

In the learner corpus, it is found that advanced learners often have trouble using the correct form or structure in the right place. The endings and particles of Korean are the most problematic items for learners to use correctly. This study has agreed that when the dictionary describes a certain item, the dictionary should also deal with other items with which the item commonly occurs. Therefore, particles should be explained with verbs, which decide the structure of the sentence and consequently determine which case particles are to be taken by noun phrases. Connectives also need to be described considering other items such as which verbs and prefinal endings should accompany them in a sentence. The findings here show that the *LDK* provides a considerable amount of syntactic information in various ways according to the characteristics of each item. However, there is still room for improvement in terms of the contents and presentation of the dictionary.

(1) Verbs

① Part of speech

Hong Jaeseong (1987) argues that part-of-speech information is an important criterion in identifying homonyms. This information would be a useful tool for informing users about the general linguistic characteristics (morphology, syntax and semantics) of words. While learners are acquiring a target language, they are building up their own background knowledge about the linguistic characteristics of that target language. Even though their background knowledge about the target language is not completely perfect, learners can make their own assumptions about how to use a target word appropriately based on the information they have about its part of speech. For example, the part of speech ‘noun’ in the entries in Korean dictionaries could be interpreted by learners in the following ways:

- The word can be followed by particles.
- It can work as a predicate combining with copula 'ita'.
- It can be modified by the determiners 'i (this)', 'ku (that)' or 'ce (that)', by possessive noun phrases or by relative clauses.

(Hong Jaeseong 1988: 37)

Accordingly, part-of-speech information is an essential metalanguage for informing users about the general syntactic characteristics of a word. It should be classified clearly to show the linguistic properties of the target language. In the field of Korean language education, the classification of part of speech in dictionaries and textbooks are slightly different depending on the linguists and organisations involved in their production. Especially contentious is the classification of descriptive verbs and the copula 'ita'. For example, while the *LDK* and the *Korean Standard Dictionary* classify 'descriptive verbs' as 'adjectives' and copula 'ita' as a 'predicate particle', The *Korean Grammar Dictionary* which was published by Back Bongja uses the terms 'state verb' for descriptive verbs and 'ita' verb for copula 'ita'. The *Korean Grammar for Foreigners* does not use a specific grammatical term to indicate the copula 'ita'. The part-of-speech classification is crucial for showing anitem linguistic characteristics, so it is understandable that linguists use grammatical terms to reflect their views. However, the uses of different terms to indicate the same types of words could lead learners to become confused when they use reference books for studying Korean. Therefore, it is necessary to come to an agreement about what grammatical terms should be used and how to explain them to foreign learners.

The *LDK* does not subdivide the entries of verbs by part of speech based on transitivity. Instead, it presents case frame information for individual verbs explaining which cases they can take in a sentence using codes. Hence, learners are able to construct a sentence referring to case frame information in the *LDK*. The information about the transitivity of verbs could be important for learners to decide the structure of the sentence and distinguish the meaning of verbs. As examined in the previous section, the meanings of dual use verbs which may be transitive or intransitive, such as 'kata' (to go) or 'thata' (to take) are closely related to their structure. So transitivity could be one of the criteria by which learners identify the word sense of verbs. Apart from being important for structure and meaning, knowing the transitivity of verbs is also important when learners attach an auxiliary verb to another verb. For example, only transitive verbs can be converted into passive verbs by syntactic formation. Learners have to know whether the verb is transitive or not in order to make passive verbs. If dictionaries do not offer information about the transitivity of verbs, users have to check the case frames and all the example sentences to find out whether or not the verb can take an object. Moreover, if learners encounter dual use verbs, they could be confused about whether these can be transformed into a passive form by means of syntactic passive formation. Therefore, it is

necessary to mark the transitivity of verbs in their entries. And if verbs can be used as transitive and intransitive verbs, the dictionary should describe them as dual use verbs. The dictionary needs to offer clear explanations as to why some intransitive verbs are used as transitive verbs or the reverse, rather than only dividing verbs into transitive and intransitive verbs.

② Morphological information

In the learner corpus, most morphological errors seem to stem from confusion which arises when learners are unable to distinguish between descriptive and processive verbs rather than from irregular conjugations. Considering the morphological errors in the learner corpus, part-of-speech information alone does not seem to be enough for learners to decide on the correct conjugated form or shape of endings. The *LDK* offers morphological information in two ways: firstly, four inflected forms in which verbs combine with four different endings are presented in the pronunciation section in each entry. Secondly, irregular verbs are dealt with once more in an appendix of the dictionary in the *LDK*. Learners can easily find out morphological information about verbs using the *LDK*. More research must be carried out to determine whether or not these descriptions are sufficient for satisfying learners' needs. It seems to be obvious that morphological information should be given precisely in dictionaries, even for advanced learners. In addition, it would be useful for learners if the dictionary could offer incorrect morphological examples in the entries of descriptive verbs, especially 'hata' descriptive verbs, which learners often attach endings for processive verbs to. This would prevent learners from making the same mistake.

The *LDK* states the derived causative and passive forms in the entry if the verb can become a causative or passive verb by morphological derivation. An active verb form is also given in the entries of derived causative and passive verbs. Learners can easily find out about different forms of verbs according to voice. However, if the dictionary offers information about whether a verb is active, passive or causative, it could inform learners about the verb's syntactic and semantic properties. They can also identify the voice of verbs in cases where causative and passive verb forms are the same. For example, the causative and passive forms of the verb 'mwulta' (to bite) are the same shape as 'mwullita' (to be bitten/to cause to bite). Learners could be confused about identifying the right form for the right voice. In this case, if dictionaries provide information about voice for verbs, learners would easily be able to notice which entry deals with which voice of verb. Learners could make correct assumptions about what structure the verb might require, referring to their knowledge about the voice of verbs.

③ Case frame information

The use of particles is one of the most important characteristics of the Korean language. They play the crucial role of indicating the syntactic and semantic functions of noun phrases to which they are attached. In KLT, particle errors have usually been examined based on the function of the particle rather than taken as an indicator of the structure of verb. Learners have to know the function of particles in order to use them. However, it might be difficult to use them correctly in a sentence even while knowing their function. This is because the choice of particles in a sentence is mostly influenced by the verb and the characteristics of noun phrases to which they are attached. Moreover, as Koh Kyungtae (2007) claims, verbs also cannot perform fully as verbs without the support of particles in the sentence or discourse. Even though the verb has its own meaning as a lexical word, the meaning of the sentence could only be complete with the inclusion of the noun phrase(s) required by the verb.

There are many grammar dictionaries published for foreign learners, most of them describe particles separately from verbs. For example, the *Korean Word Endings and Particles Dictionary for Korean Learning* states the usages of particles emphasising their function rather than their relationship with verbs. Contrary to that approach, this study analysed the particle errors based on the type of verbs and found that many particle errors are caused by incomplete knowledge about the structure of verbs. The *LDK* provides case frame information for individual verbs using codes (see table 46 in appendix 8). This is a much more direct way of describing the use of the verbs, rather than just indicating the transitivity of verbs. Learners are therefore able to enjoy richer and more precise syntactic descriptions given by the dictionary. I think that this permits a better understanding of the structural possibilities of the verb in comparison to simply offering information about a verb's part of speech and transitivity.

The most important characteristic of dictionaries is that they offer information focusing on the individual characteristics of the entry. Hence, dictionary users can see how general morphological and syntactic rules are applied to the entry and how they work differently depending on the characteristics of the item in question. Tailored case frame information showing the structure of individual verbs could help learners use not only particles but also verbs properly in their production. However, one of the problematic issues related to case frames is the question of whether or not dictionaries should describe optional cases as they do compulsory ones in case frames. In the learner corpus, it was observed that learners could not manage the structure of verbs which require compulsory adverbial case complements or dual use verbs well. In addition, a considerable number of particle errors in the corpus are related to double nominative, accusative and locative alternative structures which could be considered optional structures. You Hyenkyung (1997) pointed out that case frames in dictionaries should consider not only theoretical aspects but also the convenience of users – pedagogical dictionaries, therefore, should include compulsory adverbial phrases as they do other

compulsory cases. In addition, information about optional cases should be given in the dictionary. This can be put in brackets to inform the learner that it can be left out depending on their intentions. As foreign learners become more fluent, they attempt to make their sentences longer and to add more optional noun phrases. They try to make the sentences more precisely express their intended meaning. Native speakers could make sentences using a variety of structures without a guide about optional case frames, but foreign learners might need more detailed instructions to inform them about the possible structures of verbs. Accordingly, the dictionary should offer information about both the compulsory and optional structures of verbs as precisely as possible for learners to be able to make sentences like native speakers. If case frame information is given based on native speakers' usage in real communication, it has the advantage of being both natural and practical. Thus, a large proportion of particle errors could be limited through the provision of better case frame information in learner's dictionaries.

(2) Connectives

In the Korean language, there are various connectives which have similar functions. For example, there are several possible connectives which indicate 'cause' and 'reason' such as '-a/ese', '-nulako', '-nikka', '-killay', '-(u)mulo', '-kiey', '-nuntey', '-a/e kaciko', '-a/ese inci'. If pattern phrases undergoing grammaticalisation which indicate 'cause' and 'reason' such as '-nun palamey', '-nun thongey', '-(ki) ttaymwuney', '-nun tekpwuney', '-nun tasey' are considered connectives, there are more than ten connectives which can express 'cause' and 'reason' in Korean. Even though they could be placed in the same category, their contexts of use and syntactic characteristics are slightly different. Therefore, it might be a challenge for learners to acquire all the syntactic rules of individual connectives and use them correctly considering all syntactic restrictions. In the learner corpus, it was found that the kinds of connectives which advanced learners use are limited to certain connective endings which are usually taught at beginner level. The more serious problem is that advanced learners still have trouble in using these connectives correctly in their production. This tendency suggests that even though learners learned these grammatical items, they could not transfer their receptive knowledge to productive knowledge. In real classroom situations, teachers can revise grammatical items which learners still do not use properly. It might be difficult to explain them several times whenever learners have problems, however. In this case, the dictionary could play a large role in supporting learners and enabling them to complete their productive knowledge about target items until they could internalize the rule as productive knowledge. When learners experience the process of looking up the same item in a dictionary, using it and correcting their mistakes several times in their production, their productive knowledge about the target item could be modified and enhanced and they could master the usage of the target item.

As the *LDK* was compiled to support learners' productive activities, it provides detailed syntactic rules to explain how to use connectives accurately in a separate section. However, the descriptions still need to improve to certain extent, namely in terms of syntactic information and consistency of description. The *LDK* states syntactic rules of connectives in the 'usage' section. This study suggests that as structures of verbs are given using code in patterns, the syntactic characteristics of connectives could also be provided in chunks or patterns using codes. In the previous chapter, it was observed that many students described grammatical items as a pattern using their own codes; these strategies of description could be applied to dictionaries as well. In real classroom situations, teachers also sometimes provide verbs or functional words as patterns along with other grammatical items with which the target item co-occurs in a sentence, using codes summarising their syntactic rules on the board. For example, the connective '-nulako' (because) mostly combines with processive verbs and past or future prefinal ending cannot precede it. In addition, it has the syntactic restriction that the subjects of the preceding and following clauses should be the same and imperative sentences cannot follow it. These syntactic rules could be coded as table 47 in appendix 8. How the syntactic rules of connective endings are coded for learners to understand them easily could be a crucial issue. If learners could use them properly, they could apply the pattern instantly in their production without concerning themselves with syntactic rules. Moreover, if a coded pattern for a connective ending can be provided with typical example sentences in which the usage of that connective is reflected, it might double the impact for learners. Hence, I shall argue that treating the connective ending with other grammatical items as a pattern allows for a more systematic and helpful approach to the description of grammar.

Secondly, syntactic description should be consistent and more precise. As pointed out in the previous section, the *LDK* states tense, subject, and sentence ending restriction in certain entries of connectives, whereas it does not offer these restrictions for some entries. These inconsistent descriptions could lead learners to make mistakes in using items and make learners distrust information in the dictionary.

Thirdly, it is necessary to compare different functions and usages using example sentences in cases where a connective has more than one sense or there are connective endings which are often substituted incorrectly for each other. For example, when the connectives '-a/e' (and) and '-ko' (and) are used to indicate 'sequence of action', intransitive verbs such as 'ancta' (to sit down), 'nwupta' (to lie down) and 'seta' (to stand up) usually occur with the connective ending '-a/e' rather than '-ko' in order to express 'order of action'. This is because, just as the auxiliary verb '-a/e issta' adds the meaning 'the state of an action is continuous', the connective '-a/e' is mostly used if the state of an action is ongoing. The syntactic and semantic differences between these two connective endings could be presented using columns or error sentences like in sentences (a) and (b) in tables 48 and 49 in appendix 8.

(3) Nominal forms

Nominal forms are usually taught at the beginner level. They tend not to be dealt with repeatedly at intermediate or advanced levels. In Korean textbooks, the nominal forms ‘-(u)m’ and ‘-ki’ are described in the context of writing a memo or summary, emphasising their function as a nominaliser rather than as a complementiser of verbs. However, in real communication, cases in which learners use nominal forms as sentence endings when writing a memo or summary would be less frequent than those in which they use them as complementisers of verbs. It is known that verbs take specific nominal forms, just as they take specific cases in a sentence. It is difficult to regularise what kind of verbs require which nominal forms. Nominal forms should be taught as a lexical chunk with verbs (Koh Kyengtae 2008: 2). The *LDK* offers syntactic information when verbs require a certain nominalised noun phrase as a complement. For example, case frames in the entries of verbs. This information would be useful not only for learning to use nominal forms properly but also for learning various structures. When one verb takes two nominal forms, its meanings are different depending on whether the verb combines with ‘-(u)m’ or ‘-ki’. The dictionary should describe the different meanings and usages clearly in the entry of such a verb. There are also some fixed expressions in which nominal form combine with verbs. They could be given as idioms or pattern verbs. So learners could use them without concerning themselves with syntactic restrictions.

(4) Adverbs

Adverbs play the role of modifying the predicate, clause or whole sentence, offering information about manner, place, time or frequency in a sentence. Usage of adverbs could be presented in example sentences in the entries of connective endings or verbs which they often co-occur with. However, the syntactic environment in which the adverb can occur still needs to be described explicitly in a separate entry. Adverbs are not compulsory elements of sentences. Even if learners do not use them in a sentence, it does not cause serious problems or inhibit learners’ ability to express their intended meaning. Consequently, their importance is often disregarded in real classroom situations. Learners do not have many opportunities to learn adverbs explicitly. Therefore, I believe that reference books should offer detailed information showing their usage.

Firstly, adverbs which often co-occur with certain connectives and verbs could be given in their entry in an example sentence. In addition, the entry should offer cross-reference information for users to find out more information about adverbs. Many learners do not know what adverbs often occur in what circumstances. If adverbs are provided in the entries for connectives or verbs, learners could use them appropriately in context (see table 50 in appendix 8). The use of adverbs could make richer sentences in which learners can express themselves more precisely.

Secondly, the dictionary should give detailed syntactic information about the position in which an adverb may occur in a sentence. In addition, it needs to offer information about the tenses and sentence endings with which the adverb can occur in order for learners to understand clearly the usage of adverbs. Thirdly, adverbs have many synonyms compared to other part of speech. Their various usages are not always the same, however. Hence, learners need extra information to identify the different meanings and usages of adverbs. If the dictionary deals with this information in a separate section offering enough example sentences, learners would be able to choose the right adverb which is appropriate for their context.

4. Conclusion

According to Hartmann (2001), dictionary criticism is part of applied linguistics, which investigates the context in which critical evaluations take place. Lexicographers do not usually communicate directly with their target users, but via the language teachers and researchers in the field of language teaching. This chapter reviews how the *LDK* provides grammatical information to support learners with their difficulties in relation to five selected items of Korean grammar. The *LDK* shows the remarkable development of KFL and attempts to satisfy learners' needs for production. However, there are still certain gaps between the grammatical descriptions and learners' needs.

By means of conclusion, I summarise the three suggestions to improve grammatical descriptions in the dictionary. Firstly, the grammatical information needs to be described practically, showing the real usage of target items rather than the linguistic theory and in a way which is based on learners' difficulties. The results of the review underlined the important fact that grammatical items need to describe the items which they often occur with. The different syntactic characteristic of certain items depending on different word senses also needs to be offered accurately since semantic considerations are intricately associated with grammatical choices. In English lexicography, some grammarians have begun to recognise the importance of 'pattern grammars' (e.g. Francis et al. 1996, Sinclair 1996) and reflect this in their approach to lexicography. The approach has brought about significant progress in moving towards identifying the relationships between structure and meaning in the field of English lexicography. The dictionary can also offer optional structures of target items in order to help learners use these target items more productively and accurately. In addition, the information about syntactic restrictions should be given more precisely by example sentences or syntactic codes. Secondly, the *LDK* needs greater consistency in deciding the list of headwords and providing grammatical information for words in the dictionary. Some inconsistency related to the list of headwords and grammatical descriptions could lead learners to make wrong assumptions towards the target item. Lastly, I suggest that if there are typical errors related to particular target items, the dictionary needs to offer information about incorrect usage in its usage notes in order to prevent

learners making similar mistakes. The *LDK* could be good model for lexicographers starting to design a learners' dictionary of Korean but it still needs to remedy its shortcomings in terms of content and presentation of information.

Discussion and conclusion

1. Overview

One major aim of this study is to show the importance of user profiles and user research when drawing up criteria for making appropriate decisions at each stage in the process of compiling a Korean learner's dictionary. This research uses various methods such as a questionnaire, interviews and a dictionary compiling project in order to identify the characteristics of the potential target users. In addition, it also attempts to show that the learner corpus can play an important role in understanding and evaluating learners' learning difficulties in their language development. I argue that in order for a dictionary to meet target users' needs, various user research is required prior to compiling the dictionary. Furthermore, critical dictionary reviews need to be conducted based on dictionary users and language educators. In this chapter, I summarise the main findings of this study to answer the research questions originally formulated in the introduction. Finally, I provide some suggestions on how to reflect the results of this study in Korean lexicography.

2. Dictionary user profiles

2.1 Target users

Potential users of MLDs could be learners of Korean whose level is above intermediate level, or non-native Korean teachers who are teaching Korean as a foreign language. Many grammar books and dictionaries have been published in Korean for the purpose of teaching Korean as a foreign language, aiming to help foreign learners study the Korean language; however, most of them do not mention clearly what level of learners and what activities they aim to support. Only the *LDK* is clearly stated to have been compiled with the aim of helping learners from beginner to intermediate levels with their encoding and decoding activities. It mainly deals with vocabulary which learners are supposed to learn from beginner to intermediate levels. However, the contents might be difficult for learners at beginner level to understand due to Korean being used as the metalanguage. On the other hand, does not include higher level vocabulary so advanced learners could fail to find the words which they encounter at their level.

The potential target users of a MLD which this study aims to examine are learners whose level is higher than intermediate level and who do not have many problems reading short sentences in Korean. The majority of learners who took part in the questionnaire and interviews were studying Korean for academic purposes because all of the participants were foreign exchange students or international students. However, a Korean learner's dictionary should consider as target users learners who study Korean all around the world for various other

purposes such as business or immigration. Recently, the number of non-native Korean teachers has been increasing, so the dictionary could be used by non-native Korean teachers who are not very confident about encoding activities in Korean.

2.2 Current dictionary usage situation

According to the questionnaire and interviews, a dictionary is the main reference tool for learners not only in their encoding but also decoding activities. In terms of medium, electronic dictionaries are most used by learners; their easy usability and accessibility are the main reason for learners using them most often. In terms of language, a Korean-mother tongue BD is the most popular, equivalent and translation into their mother tongue are important factors in learners' preference for BDs over monolingual dictionaries. Some learners use a Korean monolingual dictionary most often for their production, but all of them used a Korean dictionary for native speakers. The existence of the *LDK* is not recognised by even advanced learners. This could be related to its form as a paper dictionary and resultant low portability. Most learners use dictionaries to look up the meaning of words for decoding activities and do not appreciate that their dictionaries provide functional words as headwords. This is because when learners look up target items using electronic or online dictionaries, they only need to type the spelling of the words they are looking for. Users do not have the chance to observe the macrostructure of dictionaries. Ignorance about lists of headwords and the content of dictionaries might be one reason why learners could not solve their linguistic problems themselves because it means they do not have the opportunity to read information about functional words in their dictionaries.

2.3 Satisfaction with dictionaries

Apart from example sentences, learners did not expect their dictionary to offer syntactic information. The results indicate that learners were quite satisfied with their dictionaries. But the high degree of satisfaction seems to be derived from their low expectations about dictionaries rather than the good quality of dictionaries. Many learners commented that they did not know dictionaries could offer syntactic information. They usually use their dictionaries only for checking the meaning of unknown words or for example sentences. However, even though they answered that they were satisfied with information such as definitions and example sentences in their dictionaries, these did not seem to contribute to their performance in terms of accuracy, given their sentences in the learner corpus. Through interviews and the dictionary compiling project, it was found that learners tended to underestimate the functions of dictionaries. However, they recognised quite well that their BDs are not very helpful for solving the linguistic problems they encounter in their study of Korean.

According to interviews, the most serious problem of their Korean-mother tongue dictionaries is inaccuracy of information such as incorrect equivalents or impractical, inaccurate and out-of-date example sentences. While learners were studying Korean in their home countries, they did not have many opportunities to write long essays, so did not know whether the information in the dictionary was reliable or not. However, learners found that the example sentences in their dictionaries did not work in real communication in Korea and that they are too old-fashioned to use with their Korean friends.

For production, some learners used a mother tongue-Korean dictionary in order to find out the Korean equivalent of a word in their mother tongue; but this also has some problems. Firstly, mother tongue-Korean dictionaries do not offer any information about how to choose the right word among the given synonyms. Secondly, there is no syntactic or semantic information in the dictionary to help learners use the word correctly. Lastly, the list of headwords is much smaller than other types of dictionaries so learners could not look up words which are frequently used at advanced level.

A considerable number of learners use monolingual dictionaries, but they only use Korean monolingual dictionaries for native speakers. Therefore, the content and example sentences, which were designed for native speakers, are often a burden for them to use. While difficult content is the main reason for avoiding the use of a monolingual dictionary, rich and accurate example sentences are a good reason for using it frequently. As mentioned earlier, learners have electronic dictionaries and can access online dictionaries for free. Hence, they did not want to buy a paper dictionary, no matter how helpful it might be. This suggests that convenience and easy access could be important factors for learners when choosing dictionaries.

2.4 Users' pre-existing reference skills

Learners who participated in the experiments had studied Korean for more than one year, but their reference skills do not seem to be sufficient to help them learn Korean. Most of them did not read the introductions or guides which explain how to use their dictionaries and what content their dictionaries include. In addition, many learners were majoring in Korean at their university, but did not seem to have much knowledge about technical linguistic terms (see chapter 5). Therefore, lexicographers need to consider clear ways of presenting syntactic and semantic information without using technical terms. In order to choose technical terms, it would be good idea find out what terms Korean textbooks use to explain morphological, syntactic and semantic information. Lexicographers could reflect these in their choice of terms to describe linguistic characteristics.

2.5 Learners' general needs and difficulties for production

Learners need many kinds of knowledge about a word in order to use it correctly in production

and have to make lots of decisions in the process of producing one sentence. Grammar (including dealing with grammar rules and using functional words) is one of the crucial obstacles for learners to overcome if they hope to reach an advanced level of proficiency. In production, advanced learners have two main problems: finding the right words to express their intended meaning and finding syntactic information which tells them how to use words correctly in a sentence. In order to solve the first problem, contrastive research between learners' mother tongues and Korean is needed in order to identify which Korean words are most appropriate for expressing words in learners' various mother tongues. It is difficult to find Korean words which are exactly the same as their equivalents in learners' mother tongues. But the lexicographers of bilingual dictionaries should look at words or expressions which are closest to what learners intend to express. On the other hand, monolingual dictionaries could help learners identify how usages of words which are categorised as synonyms are different from each other. As for syntactic information, a MLD which is compiled reflecting the authentic data from large corpora and native lexicographers' intuitions could be the solution.

3. Dictionary user research

3.1 Learners' preference for linguistic items

Chapter 7 investigates learners' preferences for linguistic information observing the entries in dictionaries which learners in the writing course compiled for their writing exams. In terms of linguistic items, like in traditional dictionaries, both lexical and functional words found as main entries in the learners' dictionaries. However, there are some differences in terms of proportion of entries. Learners included processive verbs more than descriptive verbs, and more bound nouns than independent nouns as entries in their dictionaries. In the list of functional words, endings were dealt with more than particles. Connective endings were included more than final endings in learners' dictionaries. Phrasal verbs undergoing grammaticalisation were also popular items used as headwords. One of the unique headwords was institutionalised sentences which can be used for a specific genre of writing such as for a CV or for an argumentative essay. In interviews, learners commented that institutionalised expressions are important in order for them to be able to express themselves in a native-like fashion. Learners' decisions on the list of headwords can suggest what linguistic items learners require in a dictionary for encoding activities. In addition, it shows that the linguistic items in a dictionary for production (encoding activities) need to be different from those in a dictionary for comprehension (decoding activities).

3.2 Learners' strategies for solving their language problems

In chapter 7, I explore what strategies advanced learners adopted by analysing the content and ways of describing linguistic information in dictionaries compiled by learners. Learners used

various strategies to attempt to solve their language problems for writing exams. Firstly, they included large portions of example sentences. Example sentences seem to be important tools for showing various kinds of information. There are many cases where learners used example sentences instead of a definition or grammatical information for the target item. The entries for functional words included more example sentences than lexical words. The entries for phrasal verbs offered more example sentences than case frames. These results suggest that the entries for linguistic items, which require grammatical information, need to provide more examples to show how target items can be used correctly in different contexts. The preference for examples also implies that learners prefer implicit descriptions, which show the information in context rather than isolated. The learners' decision to include their errors as headwords or information in their dictionary can be seen as one of crucial strategies for learners to cope with the gaps in their knowledge about target items. Error information could function to prevent fossilisation, which could be a reason for the persistence of errors in learners' production. Although there is some controversy surrounding the presentation of learners' errors as teaching tool, I believe that typical errors related to a target item could be one of effective ways of learning the usage of that target item. These two main strategies need to be taken into account by lexicographers when editing or compiling a dictionary for production.

4. Learner corpus research

4.1 Error analysis

In chapter 7, five grammatical items are selected based on the analysis of the learner corpus: 1. particles; 2. verbs; 3. connectives; 4. nominal forms; 5. adverbs. The results indicate that nominal forms and particles are the most problematic items in learners' production. Particle errors dominated learners' errors in terms of total number. However, nominal forms are the item with which advanced learners made mistakes most often in terms of rate of error occurrence. I presented the type of errors for each item, classifying them according to the surface of errors. For example, particle errors were classified and presented according to the verbs which decide the roles of the noun phrases to which particles are attached in a sentence.

In the learner corpus, I observed that learners' productive vocabulary is limited to items which are taught at the early beginner level. In addition, they still have trouble using vocabulary (lexical and grammatical items) which they have dealt with in beginner level. The results from the analysis of learner language suggest that learners need a great amount of knowledge in order to use vocabulary properly in their production. It implies that a MLD for encoding activities should provide learners with the information they need in order to use vocabulary correctly and appropriately in their real communication. In order to find out what information they need for production, user research through various experiments and analysis of learner corpora is essential.

4.2 Pedagogical implications of analysis of learner corpus in lexicography

The results of analysis of a learner corpus can be coordinated with actual dictionary making. Firstly, the list of linguistic items which advanced learners cannot manage properly enable lexicographers to decide what kind of linguistic item they need to deal with in a dictionary for production. In addition, lexicographers can have information about which items are underused and overused by learners. They are able to see which linguistic items learners have trouble transferring from receptive to productive vocabulary through the learner corpus. Secondly, the results of analysing learner corpus can be used when lexicographers make decisions about what kinds of extra grammatical information need to be described for certain individual entries. In this study, the results show that the dictionary needs to offer case frame information not only for compulsory but also for optional structures. Thirdly, lexicographers can also find some typical errors which learners frequently made so they can present them as an incorrect example in the usage notes in a dictionary to prevent learners' errors.

In terms of grammatical items, this study concludes that the incorrect use of endings and particles might be derived from a lack of learners' knowledge about the items which the target items accompany. Accordingly, a target item should be described in relation to the items with which it frequently occurs. With the development of large corpora, this information (e.g. pattern grammar, case frame) can be given through observation of native speakers' real language use. This study also claims that particle and nominal form information needs to be provided in the form of pattern in the entries for all verbs. Connectives and adverbs should be described with reference to the grammatical items they can accompany in a sentence. In the entry for an adverb, information about what connectives, negation, tense or final endings can co-occur with the adverb needs to be provided. I was also able to observe that learners have difficulties in finding out the appropriate form of verbs when it comes to passive or causative formation. The entry for verbs should include cross-referencing to indicate the passive and causative form of the verb. In addition, it is necessary for entries for predicate nouns to offer information about what supportive verb they can be combined with. A dictionary also needs to provide information about how the syntactic characteristics of a predicate noun can differ depending on the supportive verbs with which it combines. Hence, learners can use verbs formed by the 'predicate noun+ supportive verb' formation intelligently in their production.

Rappen and Simpson (2002) argue that evidence from corpus can make the language-learning environment much richer. The patterns of language use that can be found through corpus linguistics will continue to help language educators to think about what language is. Detailed descriptions and rich examples of use can benefit dictionary users. In addition, corpus linguistics can offer dictionary users more opportunities to explore for themselves the way that various aspects of language are used, helping them to achieve their language goals. Besides these five selected items, it seems to be necessary to find out which items need to be described

with reference to which co-occurring items through further research.

5. Critical review of the *LDK*

5.1 Dictionary reviews

In chapter 8, I try to make a clear assessment of existing dictionaries based on the criteria which are developed through user research (questionnaire, interview, dictionary compiling project and analysis of learner corpus). I was impressed by the remarkable developments in the field of Korean lexicography, and the impact of native corpus research; I also could see the great lengths lexicographers had gone to offer information to assist Korean learners' production and comprehension. However, there is still some room to improve grammatical descriptions in order to satisfy learners' needs. One of main tasks of advanced L2 learners is to accumulate more and more lexical knowledge. Since the *LDK* is compiled to aim for either the production or comprehension of texts in Korean, it might have been difficult to satisfy the needs for two different activities. Lexicographers, however, need to clearly set out their target learners and target activities when compiling a dictionary. Thus, they can make appropriate lexicographical decision at each stage of compilation.

In this section, I would like to make two general suggestions based on the review of the *LDK*. Firstly, although it offers various kinds of grammatical information, it still needs to identify what kind of information is really needed for learners to produce target items. Secondly, the dictionary needs to apply a consistent lexicographical policy to items when they decide the list of headwords or describe grammatical information. There is some discordance between grammatical descriptions (e.g. case frames) and example sentences in the dictionary. Since example sentences are the most important tool for learners when learning the usage of a target word, they need to be modified to coincide with the grammatical information given in the dictionary.

5.2 Suggestions for improvement of the *LDK*

(1) Macrostructure

① Headwords

What exactly constitutes a headword can vary depending on the purpose for which a given dictionary is compiled. As shown in the titles of the dictionaries, the *Korean Grammar Dictionary for Foreign Learners* deals with verbs, endings, particles and grammatical phrases (which are in the process of grammaticalisation), and the lists of headwords in the *Ending and Particle Dictionary* mostly consist of endings, particles and set phrases. Given that most grammar dictionaries aim to help production rather than comprehension, lists of headwords in Korean dictionaries for production show the crucial role of endings and particles in the production of the Korean language. On the other hand, the *LDK*, which is designed for

comprehension and production, deals with both lexical and functional words. This shows us that the list of headwords is influenced by the activity with which the dictionary aims to help.

In the dictionary compiling project, students included as headwords in their dictionaries various items besides just lexical and functional words: grammatical phrases, institutionalised sentences and errors. These results suggest that the form of entries could be different from those in dictionaries intended to aid comprehension. The roles of particles and endings are crucial for making constructions in Korean, but learners could not use them properly without knowledge about the syntactic and semantic rules of verbs. Therefore, verbs should be dealt with as main headwords in a dictionary for encoding activities, and particles and endings should be also included. In terms of nouns, predicate nouns, which influence the structure of sentences, need to be included. Bound nouns could be also described as part of the pattern with which they occur, for example ‘-(u)l lika epsta’ (there is no reason), ‘-(u)l ppwun’ (only) and ‘-(u)n ci’ (since). In Korean grammar books, grammatical phrases which are in the process of grammaticalisation are dealt with as separate headwords because their meanings are different from when they are used as independent words. Accordingly, grammatical phrases which are derived from nouns are also carefully described in a dictionary for encoding activities. Lastly, the dictionary needs to offer sections explaining some grammatical rules such as emotional, double-nominative, double-accusative, causative or passive verbs. Individual characteristics of words could be stated precisely in their entry but sometimes learners need to know the general characteristic of certain groups of words. This information helps them compare how the general grammar rule is applied to individual words. If this information is difficult to include in each individual entry, it can be placed in the appendix or at the end of the dictionary for dictionary users to refer to.

② Arrangement

In ELT, the *Longman Language Activator*, one of the representative dictionaries for encoding activities, has an innovative system of arrangements. The dictionary groups words together according to individual word-meanings or phrase-meanings that generally belong to the same semantic category. For example, it classifies all words and phrases into groups, based on common words (called keywords), that express basic ideas. For example, all the words which could be categorised as a synonym of the word ‘happy’ such as ‘glad’, ‘pleased’ and ‘delighted’, are given in the entry ‘happy’. This way of arranging headwords could be unfamiliar to dictionary users who are accustomed to using dictionaries in which all words are listed in alphabetical order. It might be cumbersome for users because they have to look in the index to find the target word. However, this macrostructure could be convenient for learners who want to distinguish between the different usages of synonyms and could be helpful for expanding productive knowledge by making the learner encounter a range of different words in the same

meaning area. Bogaards (1996) points out that dictionary users are sometimes inconvenienced when they want to compare the usages of words because the elements they need will seldom be presented together due to the alphabetical ordering of the words. The new type of arrangement in the *Longman Language Activator* could be the solution to this.

The *LDK* arranges the words according to the traditional alphabetical order of Korean dictionaries, however, a new type of arrangement could be attempted according to the characteristics of the dictionary. For example, the dictionary could group active, causative and passive forms of verbs together or words which share the same syntactic or semantic characteristic in one entry.

(2) Microstructure

① Definition

It was found that the definition is the most frequent kind of information given for lexical words, however, it is debatable whether learners are really interested in the definitions of words in Korean monolingual dictionaries. According to the questionnaire and interviews, learners preferred BDs to Korean monolingual dictionaries when they were looking up the meaning of words. Hence, the function of a definition in a dictionary for encoding activities could be different from the definition in dictionaries for decoding activities.

According to the introduction of the *LDK*, it tried to use easy vocabulary as much as they possible when defining words. If a difficult word is used in a definition, it provides the definition of the difficult word which is used in the entry. This method, which makes an effort to help learners to understand definitions in the *LDK*, is impressive. However, it is still questionable whether learners would try to understand the meaning of an entry when having to suffer the inconvenience of reading the definition of a word which is given in the definition of the original entry. In terms of format, definitions in the *LDK* are presented in various formats such as word (synonym), phrase or sentence. The *LDK* seems to attempt to make definitions simple and understandable, although further research is required to examine whether or not dictionary users are satisfied with the definitions.

From the 1970s onwards, ELT dictionaries started to control the number of defining vocabulary items to basic words which learners learn between beginner and intermediate level. The number of defining vocabulary items varies slightly but most dictionaries do not exceed more than 3500 words. The *LDOCE*, which includes a complete list of the more than 2000 words, suggests criteria for selecting words which could be helpful for Korean lexicographers. Defining vocabulary items should:

- Be easy for learners to understand
- Avoid old- fashioned words
- Avoid words which are often confused with other words in English
- Avoid words which are often confused with foreign words
- Contain words useful for explaining other words
- Use common words of high frequency
- Use words which have the same meaning in British and American English

(Bogaards 1996: 290)

Apart from the number of headwords and lists of defining vocabulary, the format of definitions also varies depending on the dictionary. In ELT, the *LDOCE* and the *OALD* both use the traditional format of definition as phrase, whereas *COBUILD* always gives definitions in complete sentences which contain lots of information about how the word is normally used. As mentioned in chapter 6, *LDOCE* carefully chose definitions which would help dictionary users to learn about the usage of words.

Korean lexicographers could attempt to form definitions like this by applying the technique to Korean monolingual dictionaries. Sentences could be modified to make definitions easier: if the definition shows not only the meaning but also the possible structure of the entry, it can kill two birds with one stone by offering both syntactic and semantic information. Bogaard (1996) claims that this could be a negative feature for a user since it may have little to do with the text he is reading. The information the reader is looking for this has to be extracted from a setting that is often more or less redundant and that is not always relevant to learner. However, it is difficult to determine what type of definition is most profitable for L2 learners. Various attempts should therefore be made to find out learners' preference in Korean lexicography.

② Syntactic information

One of the reasons learners have trouble using unfamiliar words is that they have to consider both the function of the target item and its relationship with other items with which it occurs in a sentence. Therefore, the dictionary should describe the relationship between the target item and other items which it accompanies as precisely as possible. When learners are at the beginner level, they are taught items focusing on their individual function. However, the knowledge of how these items are associated with each other and in what context is more important for making accurate, fluent sentences. In the previous section, how to describe the syntactic information of five selected items was discussed. Therefore, here, it will be dealt with very generally.

More empirical data about which type of description dictionary users prefer – syntactic description in sentences or codes- must be gathered. In the case of full-sentence descriptions, learners have to read and understand the meaning of the sentence and it is difficult

to see the usage of words at a glance. If the entry has lots of syntactic restrictions, as in the case of the connective ending ‘-nulako’ (because), learners have to read the syntactic information in sentences and apply them in real sentences. However, if syntactic information is coded or presented as a chunk, dictionary users can see it and be able to produce their own correct sentences almost at once. In this case, how to design codes or patterns to be simple and understandable enough for learners to comprehend them without much effort could be an important issue.

The dictionary needs to give more opportunities for learners to learn a variety of structures and expand their productive knowledge to reach native speaker proficiency, providing not only compulsory but also optional structures. Lexicographers could observe the words which learners found difficult and the type of errors they made with these words. This information could be reflected when describing syntactic information. It could contribute in some ways to preventing learners from making errors and could guide them to correct their own errors themselves.

This study mostly discusses grammatical information based on written language, but the findings can also contribute in some ways for spoken language. Even though most items discussed in this study are extracted from writing by learners, certain vocabulary items, for example, the connective ending ‘-nikka (because)’ is considered to be used more frequently in speaking than in writing. If grammatical information is given with the context of use in an entry, it might enable learners to use items not only grammatically correctly but also in the appropriate contexts. McCarthy (2001) points out that a lot of spoken language is formed incompletely, such as single-word or short, phrasal utterances, false starts, wandering structures and, strings of clauses. Even though the grammatical information is discussed based on the sentence level here, possible grammatical forms which the item can take could be shown by using example of spoken language to show that some grammatical items (e.g. particle) can be omitted or shortened or the word order can be changed.

③ Example sentences

As revealed in previous sections, example sentences are the most important tool for learners to find out many kinds of information, such as morphological and discourse information. According to the results of interviews, the main reason for which learners use monolingual dictionaries is to check example sentences – inaccurate and impractical example sentences in BDs turn learners to monolingual dictionaries. One of advantages to learners of using a MLD must be that they can encounter example sentences made by native speakers. According to Bogaards (1996), some users even prefer to read examples before they go to the definition, so they must be the most attractive device from which foreign language learners can learn the target language. The importance of example sentences could also be explained based on learners’

preferences for online search engines amongst a variety of other references (see chapter 6).

The *LDK* does not clearly describe the policy of example sentences but it explains that it tries to offer simple and general sentences. Considering the structure and content of these sentences, they seem to be made by lexicographers and carefully illustrated to show the usage of target items. Some example sentences are given in the form of dialogue, so learners can encounter spoken usage through example sentences. It has already been pointed out that there is some discordance between syntactic information and example sentences; they should be amended based on more careful scrutiny of the characteristics of the headword in order to ensure the internal consistency of an entry.

According to the results of the questionnaire and interviews, learners have antithetical opinions about the use of example sentences. Some learners commented that examples in dictionaries are too short or too general to learn any extra information about the content of an item. Some thought that examples are too long or confusing to understand. This tells us how difficult it is to make example sentences that satisfy learners' needs. In English lexicography, there has been much discussion about example sentences in monolingual dictionaries but there are still contradicting opinions in terms of many things such as authenticity, utility and so on. As discussed in chapter 7, learners most preferred example sentences which were made by teachers. Even though learners strive to acquire native-like expression through dictionaries, they seem to feel that reading authentic examples is a burden. Therefore, illustrative example sentences which lexicographers make for target items would be ideal, since lexicographer-made examples could contain fewer unfamiliar words.

Based on the results of user research (questionnaire, interviews and dictionary compiling project), example sentences should be typical, practical and clear. The typical example sentences should show not only compulsory case frames and typical usage of functional words but also typical utterances of native speakers. In a productive context, example sentences show how definition and syntactic information is applied to real sentences. Secondly, learners could use example sentences as they are or modify them in real communication. Lexicographers need to combine authenticity and usefulness. Some dictionaries use example sentences extracted from literature, but as one student commented in interviews, native speakers rarely speak or write like literature. When learners realised that the example sentences do not work in their real communication and that native speakers do not use example sentences in real communication, they get depressed and come to distrust the authority of the dictionary. Some example sentences do not clearly present the structure that was to be illustrated and they cannot easily be taken as models for the learners' own production. Thirdly, the dictionary should include examples which are not only understandable but also accurate in terms of complexity. Actually, it is not possible to determine what makes an example clear to someone who does not know the meaning and usage of a word.

Gillard and Gadsby (1998) argue that learners need more specific information for ‘encoding’ activities than they would need for ‘decoding’ purposes. They provide learner errors in the *Longman Essential Activator* though there has been resistance to the idea of showing ‘wrong’ usage because of the danger of reinforcing the error by showing the incorrect form. Bernardini (2004) claims that if learners are presented with concordance showing the typical errors they (statistically) appear to make, and with similar textual environments where the same structure is used appropriately, they may find it easier to become aware of more or less fossilised characteristics of their interlanguage. Thus, they can potentially initiate a process of knowledge restructuring. In the dictionary compiling project, more than 90% of students include error sentences in their dictionary. They claim that providing errors would be helpful for learners to be able to compare directly a correct structure and an incorrect one. It helps them see what the errors look like and it lets them compare their own sentence with the two examples to check if their own sentence is right or wrong. Carroll and Swain (1993) find that learners who received negative feedback (either explicit or implicit) performed better on a dative alternation test than learners who received no feedback.

If given correct sentences, learners could have the opportunity to compare their differences of usage explicitly. In interviews, the most difficult thing about correcting errors reported by learners is that they do not know how to find out the reason why their sentences are incorrect. It is impossible for the dictionary to show all possible incorrect cases for each item but it is true that there are certain common errors that learners often make. They do not need to be given for all entries but if they are provided in the entries of items which have complicated syntactic rules, it could be instructive. Sometimes this could work better than the explanation in sentences.

④ Usage Notes

The ‘usage note’ could be one of the distinctive features of a MLD for encoding activities. The title and function of the section are slightly different depending on the dictionary, but it is usually used to give extra information related to the usage of an entry. These notes seem to be extremely welcome because, even when they treat words which belong to the defining vocabulary and which may therefore be assumed to be known, they can resolve many problems even for advanced learners who want to use such words productively. Learners often look for information which allows them to compare alternatives and to choose the word which best expresses their intention.

There are two different kinds of usage note in the *LDK*. The first is used to describe the syntactic information of an entry. It is usually a feature of the entries of endings and particles rather than lexical words. At the end of the entry, the dictionary describes morphological and syntactic rules, so this section is essential for showing the usage of functional words. Secondly,

the *LDK* uses usage notes to offer information to show the different meanings or usages of synonyms which learners could be confused about. However, it is questionable whether it would be profitable for all synonyms or near-synonyms to be further explained by means of a usage note. For instance, the comparison between particles ‘-un/nun’ and ‘-i/ka’ or synonyms ‘machimnay’ (finally) and ‘tutie’ (finally) would be useful for users to distinguish their different meanings and usages. But it seems to be doubtful that learners really need to know the difference between ‘pwuekh’ (kitchen) and ‘cwupang’ (kitchen) or among ‘ttwukkeng’ (cap, top, lid), ‘tephkay’ (cover) and ‘makay’ (stopper). In a dictionary for production, the usage note would be one of the most important sections for a learner who is trying to find an explicit explanation about the usage of words. The difference between ‘mwulkoki’ (live fish and ‘sayngsen’ (fish which is sold in store as food) could be interesting. However, there are more problematic words than these which learners frequently misuse such as ‘-ko’ (and) or ‘-a/ese’ (after).

As learners have encountered many synonyms, they may wonder whether the meaning of words presented as synonyms are really close enough. Benefitting from corpus-based research, lexicographers could find out what lexical and functional items learners frequently replace with something which is not possible. They also could observe how the syntactic and semantic characteristics differ between learner corpus and native speakers. Also, they could select more practical and useful items for learners to solve their productive problems. Hence, the dictionary should offer more choices, amongst other things, by giving usage notes and pictures illustrating the exact meaning of words.

6. Conclusion

As demand for learning Korean as a foreign language rises, many linguists and organisations have published various kinds of reference books. However, although many advanced learners of Korean suffer from a lack of reliable reference books for their Korean learning, especially for production, they do not seem to use grammar books and Korean monolingual dictionaries as much as expected. There might be many reasons for learners’ ignorance about reference books which were written in Korean by Korean native speakers. The main problem of KLT is that it has been focused on the practical side (dictionary making), insulated from the theoretical or pedagogical side (dictionary research). Therefore, Korean lexicographers tend to pay less attention to learners’ difficulties and needs.

In the field of KL, the user research for reference works is still in its early stages compared to English lexicography. I believe that the user research and analysis of learner corpora have potential to radically improve knowledge about learner language and language learning. For user research and learner corpora to realise their enormous potential, cooperative involvement on the part of KLT researchers would seem to be essential. In the field of KL, there

are still many issues which need further research such as lists of headwords, definitions, word sense demarcation, thesaurus taxonomies and parts of speech. I hope these issues can be solved through cooperation between the practical and theoretical branches of lexicography.

1. The respondent information

1. Gender

Male

Female

2. Nationality

Overseas Korean _____

3. Mother tongues

_____, _____

4. Foreign language ability

Level of ability Beginner Intermediate Advanced

Level of ability Beginner Intermediate Advanced

5. Educational background

- (1) Graduate high school
- (2) Undergraduate
- (3) Graduate
- (4) Postgraduate (MA, MSc..)
- (5) Postgraduate (Research)
- (6) Ph.D.

6. How long have you been learning Korean?

- (1) Under 6 month
- (2) Over 6 month
- (3) Over 1 year
- (4) Over 1 year and half
- (5) Over 2 years
- (6) Etc _____ year

7. The current level of Korean

- (1) Beginner 1 (level 1)
- (2) Beginner 2 (level 2)
- (3) Intermediate 1 (level 3)
- (4) Intermediate 2 (level 4)
- (5) Advanced 1 (level 5)
- (6) Advanced 2 (level 6)
- (7) Other _____

8. The name of the organisation/institute where you are studying/studied Korean

And how long for _____

8. The main purpose of Korean learning

- (1) For academic purpose
- (2) For job/business
- (3) Marriage, partner
- (4) For immigration to Korea
- (5) For hobby, for personal interest
- (6) Other _____

Dictionary use

1. What kind of dictionaries do you use most often for Korean learning?

Paper dictionary

- (1) Korean monolingual dictionary
- (2) Mother tongue-Korean dictionary
- (3) Korean-Mother tongue dictionary
- (4) Grammar dictionary
- (5) Etc _____

Electronic dictionary

- (1) Korean monolingual dictionary
- (2) Mother tongue-Korean dictionary
- (3) Korean-Mother tongue dictionary
- (4) Grammar dictionary
- (5) Etc _____

2. Why do you use the dictionary you chose in Question 1 most often?

3. What information do you think is the most important in Korean dictionaries for your Korean learning? Please check five items in order of importance.

- 1. ()
- 2. ()
- 3. ()
- 4. ()
- 5. ()

a. Meaning of word	b. Pronunciation	c. Grammatical information
d. Collocation	e. Idioms	f. Example sentences
g. Synonyms	h. Antonyms	i. Korean culture
j. Word frequency	k. Etymology	l. Pictures or Photos
m. Register (honorific expression, informal: formal, written:spoken)		
n. Orthography (the rules of spelling)		

Writing activities and dictionary information

1. What is the most difficult activity when writing? Please check three items in the box in order of difficulty.

1. ()
2. ()
3. ()

- a. Spelling word out
- b. Finding right Korean word
- c. Using right expression according to register
- d. Making a sentence grammatically correct
- e. Using various expressions
- f. Using collocation correctly
- g. Making a long sentence

2. When you write Korean, where do you get help from? Please check the appropriate box.

- a. Dictionary
- b. Textbook
- c. Teacher
- d. Grammar book
- e. Friend
- f. Other

3. What information is the most important when you write? Please choose three items in order of importance.

- a. Parts of speech
- b. Verb inflection
- c. Korean equivalent of word in my mother tongue
- d. Grammatical information
- e. Collocation
- f. Register
- g. Orthography
- h. Example sentence

4. Do you think your dictionary is helpful for your writing?

- a. It is really helpful.
- b. It is quite helpful.
- c. It is not helpful.
- d. It is not helpful at all.

5. What information do you find is the most helpfully described in your dictionary? Please choose three items in order of usefulness.

- a. Parts of speech
- b. Verb inflection
- c. Korean equivalent of word in my mother tongue
- d. Grammatical information
- e. Collocation
- f. Register
- g. Orthography
- h. Example sentence

6. Do you think sample sentences in the dictionary are helpful for your writing?

- a. It is very helpful.
- b. It is quite helpful.
- c. It is slightly helpful.
- d. It is not at all helpful.

7. Please write down the reason for answer to Question 6.

Dictionary users reference skills.

1. Did you read the guidance notes for using the dictionary carefully?

- (1) I read them carefully.
- (2) I looked though them quickly.
- (3) I did not read them at all.

2. The following codes are used in identifying information of sentence patterns. Have you seen these codes in your dictionary? Please circle yes or no.

N0 N1을 V 1이 2를 3에게 주다

Yes

No

3. Do you often use this information? Please circle yes or no.

Yes

No

4. Which one looks easier to understand? Please circle yes or no.

a. N0 N2에게 N1을 주다 N0=person, N1=thing, N2= place, person, animal

b. 1이 2를 3에게 주다 1= 사람 2=물건 3=사람, 동물, 장소

5. These are grammar terms which are necessary for you learn when using dictionary. Please circle items which you already knew.

Noun		Bound noun		Pronoun		Numeral	
Verb		Auxiliary verb		Intransitive		Transitive	
Adjective		Adverb		Particle		Modifier	
Prefix		Suffix		Inflection		Ending	
Object		Complement		Subject		Predicate	
Past tense		Present tense		Future tense		Retrospect	
Active		Passive		Causative			

Dictionary user profiles

< Table 1: Background information of respondents >

Gender	Female 58 (73.4%), Male 21 (26.6%)	79 (100%)
Nationality	Chinese 40 (50.6%), Japanese 11 (13.9%), Taiwanese 6 (7.6%), Mongolian 5 (6.3%), Laotian 2 (2.5%), Cambodian 2 (2.5%), Ukrainian 2 (2.5%), Pakistani 1 (1.3%), Russian 1 (1.3%), American 1 (1.3%), Australian 1 (1.3%), Sri Lankan 1 (1.3%), French 1 (1.3%), Kazakh 1 (1.3%), Korean heritage (2 from USA, 1 from China, 1 from Japan) (5.1%,)	79 (100%)
Educational background	Undergraduate: Exchange student 38 (48.1%), International student 36 (45.6%) Postgraduate : Exchange student 2 (2.5%) International student 3 (3.8%)	79 (100%)
The length of their stay in Korea	Under 6 months 34 (43%) Over 6 months 13 (16.5%) Over 1 year 5 (6.3%) Over 1 year and half 8 (10.1%) Over 2 years 15 (19%) Etc 4 (5.1%)	79 (100%)
Level of Korean Proficiency*	Intermediate 1: 9 (11.4%), Intermediate 2:11 (13.9%), Advanced 1: 38 (48.1%), Advanced 2 21 (26.6%)	79 (100%)
The main purpose of studying	For an academic purpose 54 (68.4%) For a job/business 13 (16.5%) For a hobby, or for personal interest 9 (11.4%) Other 3 (3.8%)	79 (100%)

* The Korean language programmes for exchange students at Korea University consist of six levels (Beginners 1-2, Intermediate 1-2 and Advanced 1-2). The learners' levels which I conducted the survey at are from writing courses at Intermediate level 1-2 and Advanced level 1-2.

< Table 2: Lists of references for students' writing activities >

<p>Paper Dictionaries and Grammar books</p> <p>Hong, Jaeseong. 1997. <i>Hyentay hankwuke tongsa kwumwun sacen. (Contemporary Korean Verb Sentence Patterns Dictionary)</i>. Dwusantonga.</p> <p>Lee, Heeja and Lee, Jonghee. 2001. <i>Hankwuke haksupyong emi cosa saceon (Korean Word Endings and Particles Dictionary for Korean Learning)</i>. Seoul: Hankwuk mwunhwasa (Korean culture publishing).</p> <p>National Institute of the Korean Language. 1999. <i>Phyocun kwuke taysacen (Korean Standard Dictionary)</i>. Dwusantonga.</p> <p>National Institute of the Korean Language. 2005. <i>Oykwukin ul wihan hankwuke munpep 2 (Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2)</i>. Communication Books.</p> <p>Seo Sanggyuet. al, 2007 <i>Oykwukin ul wihan hankwuke hakswp sacen (Learner's Dictionary of Korean)</i>. Siwon prime.</p> <p>Yonsei University Institute of Language and Informatics. 1998. <i>Yensey hankwuke sacen (Yonsei Korean Dictionary)</i>. Dwusantonga.</p> <p>Online dictionaries</p> <p>Daum http://alldic.daum.net/dic</p> <p>Naver Dictionary http://dic.naver.com/ *1</p> <p>National Institute of Korean Language http://stdweb2.korean.go.kr/main.j *2</p> <p>Online corpus</p> <p>Research Institute of Korean Studies at Korea University, SJ-RSK corpus http://db.koreanstudies.re.kr/sjriks/corpusFrame.jsp :</p> <p>Search engines</p> <p>Naver www.naver.com</p> <p>Google www.google.co.kr</p>

*1 The Naver online dictionary is the internet format of *phyocunkwukedaysacen (Korean Standard Dictionary)*. In addition, the Naver online dictionary offers an online thesaurus, proverbs and idioms originating from ancient events in China, idioms, romanisation, coinage, loan words, dialect, ancient Korean, North Korean words, the rules of Korean orthography, the regulation of standard Korean, standard Korean orthography, loan-word orthography, buzz word service, etc.

*2 The online dictionary which the National Institute of Korean Language offers is also the internet format of *pyocunkwukedaysacen (Korean Standard Dictionary)*. Although both the Naver and the National Institute of Korean Language offer the same dictionary format, I found that the Naver provides more example sentences than the National Institute of Korean language.

< Table 3: Summary of background information of interviewees >

M= male; F= female
 O= overseas student; E=exchange student
 K=Korean language O=other

Interviewee Ref	Occupation	Nationality	Major	Grade
FIUO1	International student	China	Media	2 nd year undergraduate
FIUO2	International student	China	Management	1st year undergraduate
FIUO3	International students	China	Public Administration	1st year undergraduate
FIUO4	International student	China	Food and Resource Economics	1st year undergraduate
FEUK5	Exchange student	China	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUK6	Exchange student	China	Korean language and literature	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUK7	Exchange student	China	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
MEUK1	Exchange student	China	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
MEUK2	Exchange student	Taiwan	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUK8	Exchange student	China	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUK9	Exchange student	China	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUK10	Exchange student	China	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUK11	Exchange student	China	Korean language	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUO12	Exchange student	Japan	Asia Business	3 rd year undergraduate
FEUO13	Exchange student	Japan	Political Science and International Relations	3 rd year undergraduate
FOUO14	International student	Mongolia	Management	1st year undergraduate
FOPK15	International student	China	Teaching Korean as a Foreign Language	1st year postgraduate

< Table 4: Learners' comments on example sentences in dictionaries >

Positive comments	Negative comments
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I can find the expression I want to use in Korean in the example sentences. (3) 2. I think they are correct because native Korean users made them. (3) 3. I can learn how I can use a word through example sentences. (7) 4. I can learn when and where to use a word through example sentences.(2) 5. Example sentences are useful for learning idioms. 6. I cannot learn how to use a word by only looking up its meaning. So I always check the example sentences to learn about the usage of a word. 7.I can get a lot of information about words and grammar such as usage and sentence pattern information from example sentences. 8. I can learn how native speakers use the words. 9. I can make similar sentences to example sentences using them. 10. I can use example sentences in real communication. 11. There are many interesting expressions. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Example sentences in dictionaries are not what native Korean people really use in their communication. (12) 2. Example sentences are not useful. 3. Example sentences are not used in real life in Korea. (3) 4. Most example sentences are not what I want to express (5) 5. Most example sentences are too long. 6. Most example sentences are too difficult to understand (4) 7. The number of examples in each entry is very few. (8) 8. Most of the example sentences are written language. 9. Example sentences do not show how I can use the words. (6) 10. All the example sentences in my dictionary seem to be wrong. Korean people do not use them at all.(2) 11. Translations of example sentences in my Korean-Chinese dictionary seem to be incorrect. I sometimes cannot understand them. 12. Example sentences are incorrect. (3) 13. Example sentences in my Korean dictionary show how I can use the words and grammar but the example sentences in my bilingual dictionary do not. 14. Example sentences are too short. (2) 15. Example sentences do not show typical usage of the word and grammar. (2)

Interview transcription

Learners' difficulties in writing activities

(1) Writing activities

a. The use of functional words and grammar rules

(1) **FEUK8** *Whenever I find out from the teacher's feedback that I have made a grammar mistake, I am really embarrassed and stressed out. I am always afraid of making a grammar mistake so I tend to avoid using unfamiliar grammatical items. I think that I am able to understand most of the grammatical items which I have learned but I cannot use even half of them accurately. (FIU04, FEUK5, FEUK10)*

(2) **FIU02**: *I have learned lots of grammar but I do not know when and how to use it. I think that I tend to write using only the grammar which I learned in beginner level (level 1-2). I still find it difficult to use the grammar which I learned in intermediate levels. (FIU03)*

(3) **FIU01**: *One professor returned my essay twice. He told me that he could not understand my sentences at all. He recommended that I take the Korean language class again to learn how to make at least one sentence correctly. (FIU04)*

(4) **MEUK1**: *I have to consider lots of rules in order to use functional words correctly such as tense, subject, sentence endings, style restrictions, particle rules and register etc. I cannot memorize all the rules of each functional word. So I usually use easy and familiar ones in my writing. Sometimes I look up my dictionary to learn how to use unfamiliar functional words, but, it does not show the rules which I need to use grammar correctly.*

(5) **FEUK9**: *It is really difficult to learn rules for using particles. Especially, I find it hard to decide when I should use the particle '-un/nun' and the particle '-i/ka'. I think that I would not be able to explain when Korean people use the particle '-un/nun' to my students even if I become a Korean teacher one day. (FIPK15)*

(6) **MEUK2** *It is really difficult to distinguish between transitive and intransitive verbs and to use them correctly according to grammar rules. Also I find it hard to understand the rules for modifiers. I can find the rules on determining the tense of modifiers in grammar books but these rules have lots of exceptions. When I asked my teachers why a certain tense is used differently from the rules, they answered that it is an exception and I would learn it if I read Korean texts a lot. But I do not think I can remember all the exceptional cases and it seems to be impossible in the future as well. Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the word class, especially verbs and adjectives, and it is still not easy to understand how the usage of verbs and adjectives is different. (FOPK15)*

(7) **FOUO14** I learned that the verb 'kata' (to go) was an intransitive verb when I was at beginner level. However, I found that it can be used as a transitive verb as well like 'hankwukul kayo' (I go to Korea)³⁵ or 'chwulcangul kayo' (I go on a business trip)³⁶. I thought that verb 'cwuta' (to give) was a transitive verb, but, it also can be used like 'ikesul cwuseyyo' (please give me this)³⁷ and 'ikesulo cwuseyyo'³⁸! I do not know when I should use 'ikesulo cweseyyo' instead of 'ikesul cwuseyyo'.

b. Finding the right word and expression

(8) **FEUK10** When I was writing about the topics which we dealt with in our course, I have lots of things in my mind to express, but I did not know how to express them in Korean. Sometimes I have to look in the dictionary to find out all the vocabulary I want to use from the beginning to the end of a sentence, just to make one sentence. In spite of my hard efforts to choose the right word for writing, half of my word choices were wrong. It is a really frustrating task to find the right word for me to express myself appropriately in Korean. (**FEUO13**)

(9) **FEUO13** When I look up a word in my Japanese -Korean dictionary, it usually gives me at least two or three words. For example, if I search 'それで' (solethe:so) in Japanese using the dictionary, it shows me Korean words 'kulemulo', kulayse' 'ttalase' etc. But the problem is that I do not know which word is appropriate for my writing context. The dictionary does not show how their usage is different. Sometimes, I look up each word using a Korean-Japanese dictionary or Korean monolingual dictionary, but they are not helpful either. I just choose one word and wait for your feedback. I do not want to waste my time looking up all the words which I do not know. (**FEUK5**)

c. Vocabulary richness

(10) **FEUO12** Korean teachers have told me that I should try to use a variety of words and expressions in speaking and writing. They commented that the expressions which I use for speaking and writing are simple and uninteresting. However, when I write, I do not remember the words which I have learned. (**FIUO1, FEUK7, FEUK11**)

³⁵ hankwuk-ul ka-yo (Korea-object case marker go-informal polite ending/declarative)

³⁶ chwulcang-ul ka-yo (business trip-object case marker go-informal polite ending/declarative)

³⁷ ikes-ul cwu-seyyo (this-object marker give-informal polite ending/imperative)

³⁸ ikes-ulo cwu-seyyo (thins-adverbial marker give- informal polite ending/imperative)

d. Native-like expressions

(11) **FEUK8** *Before I make a sentence in Korean, first, I think of the expression in my mother tongue in my mind and translate it into Korean. But the way of expressing it in Chinese is different from in Korean. I cannot find out typical Korean expressions from a dictionary or grammar book. I think that I should read newspapers more often. (MEUK1, FEUK7, FEUK11, FIPK15)*

(12) **FIUO2** *I found expressions between Korean and Chinese different. Some sentences are grammatically correct but native Koreans do not use these expressions. How can I learn the way to express what I want to properly in Korean?*

e. Structure of writing

(13) **FEUK5:** *Even though I am majoring in Korean language, there was no writing course at my university. So I do not know how to organise the essay and what content I should write in the introduction, body and conclusion. (FIUO2, FEUK6, FEUK9, FEUK10)*

(14) **FEUO12:** *It is really difficult to use conjunctions appropriately to join together sentences and paragraphs. The dictionary shows only the meaning of conjunctions and does not provide information about how to use them appropriately. (MEUK2, FEUK5)*

(2) Error Correction

b. Grammar errors

(15) **FEUK11** *I usually ask my Korean friends why a marked sentence is inaccurate and how I should correct it. There is no way for me to know why the use of grammar you underlined is incorrect. To be honest, I do not think I can correct my mistakes by only referring to grammar books and the dictionary. They are not helpful at all.(FIUO1, FIUO3, FEUK6, FEUK8, FEUK9, FEUO13, FEUO14)*

(16) **MEUK1** *You may think error correction practice would be helpful for us. I think it is a waste of your time and energy. The third step is more useful than the second step for me. When I check your corrections and comments, I learn a lot. I can learn why a mistake is incorrect and how it should be corrected. At this stage, grammar books are useful, but the dictionary is still not helpful. Whenever I find my corrections are incorrect, I want to give up studying Korean. It is really frustrating. (FEUK10)*

(17) **FEUK7** *When I found that you marked the grammar use in my sentence wrong, I try to find out what is wrong. I asked questions myself: should I change the tense, particle or sentence ending form? But I could not find out what is wrong in my sentence most of time. Could you give me some advice about how I can find out why the grammar is wrong?*

c. Vocabulary errors

(18) **FIUO1** *When you marked that the word “sikak konghay (lit. visual pollution)’ is not correct, I asked my Korean friends why it is incorrect. But they could not answer and give me an alternative word to replace it.*

Interviewees’ comments on references for writing

Bilingual dictionaries

Korean-mother tongue bilingual dictionary

(19) **FEUK7** *The Korean-Chinese (mother tongue) dictionary is easy to comprehend. I know that some information is not accurate. However, I feel relaxed anyway when I know the meaning of a Korean word in Chinese. So I prefer using the Korean-Chinese dictionary.*

(20) **FEUK11** *The dictionary offers only the meaning of the word. It does not provide information about the usage of words and grammar. The number of example sentences in each entry is very few. (FIUO4)*

(21) **MEUKI** *My Korean-Chinese bilingual dictionary is written by a Korean-Chinese lexicographer. I think that he does not seem to know modern Korean. The example sentences are old-fashioned and inaccurate. Korean people do not use them in real life.*

Mother tongue-Korean bilingual dictionary

(22) **FEUK10** *I use a Chinese-Korean dictionary to find a word for my expression in Korean. It is not very reliable. But it is better than nothing.*

(23) **FEUK12** *I look up words in a Japanese-Korean dictionary to find the Korean equivalent of a Japanese word. But the number of headwords in my Japanese-Korean dictionary is very small so I cannot find the less frequent words.*

Monolingual Dictionaries

(24) **FIUO1** *The bilingual dictionaries do not offer any information on how to use the word correctly. So I sometimes use a Korean monolingual dictionary. The example sentences are a very good way to learn about the usage of vocabulary.*

(25) **MEUK2** *I found that the Korean monolingual dictionary is useful for my writing. It took some time to get used to monolingual dictionaries, but I feel I can use them effectively now. The online dictionary in Naver offers lots of example sentences and some syntactic information such as which pattern and particles I should use with which verbs and adjectives. Also it shows the synonyms of each word so it is helpful for extending my vocabulary. I will keep using them after going back to my country.*

(26) **MEUK1** *The definition in Korean monolingual dictionaries is difficult to understand. I do not want to use a Korean monolingual dictionary for reading because it would take so much time to understand the whole of the definition for unknown words if I use it. Although the equivalent provided in my bilingual dictionary is not very accurate, I prefer to use it rather than a Korean monolingual dictionary.*

(27) **FEUK6** *I heard that the example sentences in monolingual dictionaries were extracted from works of literature. I am majoring in Korean language and literature so they are very interesting. However, they are not practical. When can I use them?*

Grammar Books

(28) **FIUO2** *I sometimes use the grammar book which I used in the Korean course at my university in China. It offers grammar explanations in Chinese. It is easy to understand but some explanations such as example sentences and translations seem to be incorrect.*

(29) **FEUO13** *I have to know some grammatical terms in order to understand the grammar book. My major is not linguistics. I do not know and do not feel the need to learn grammatical terms. So I do not use grammar books at all for my writing. It is really difficult to understand even in Japanese.*

(30) **FOUK14** *First, I research the writing topic using an online search engine and check what kind of words and expressions are used for this topic. Then, I try to paraphrase them. I think that this way is more accurate and helpful for writing than looking the information up in a dictionary or grammar book.*

(31) **FEUK11** *When I do not know the grammar to use in a particular situation, I usually use an online search engine such as a 'Naver'. As you showed us in the first week, if I type my sentence in the search engine, it shows a list of context/sentences which is similar to my sentence. If I can find many sentences which are similar to mine, I am convinced that my sentence is correct.*

(32) **FOUK13** *The sample sentences in a Korean monolingual dictionary are not very practical. It is said that they are extracted from Korean literature. Who talks like a novel or poem? I think that the online search engines provide more example sentences and they are more practical than the ones in the monolingual dictionary.*

Exam samples (Mid-term exam)

1. Please write the introduction to an essay on the topic of ‘the problems caused by modern civilization’. (30%)

- Write down more than 6 sentences
- Please write clearly about ‘problem posing’, ‘the purpose of writing’ and ‘the organization of your essay’

2. Please write an explanatory essay choosing one of topics below.

© Please choose one

1. Food in Korea and my country (comparing and contrasting)
2. The Korean language and my mother tongue (comparing and contrasting)
3. The Korean education system and education in my country (comparing and contrasting)

- Write down more than 15 sentences
- Organise your essay according to the structure of ‘introduction-body-conclusion’

Dictionary compiling project

< Table 1: Examples of definitions >

hayngtong vs hayngwi (act, behavior)			
hayngtong: myeng (Noun),			
mom-ulo	ha-nun	cis (Act using body)	
body-INS	do-PRE-MOE	act	
hayngwi: myeng (Noun),			
ilpwule	ha-nun	cis (Act on purpose)	
on purpose	do-PRE-MOE	act	
			DM5
nakchencekin: enceyna	coh-un	ccok-ulo	sayngkakha-nun
always	good-PRE-MOE	side-INS	think-PRE-MOE
(optimistic	: always think positively/see bright side)		DM29
uyconhata: mwues	epsi-nun mos	sal-ta.	
something	without-PRE-MOE	live	
(rely on: cannot live without something)			DF9

< Table 2: Examples of grammatical information >

making modifiers	
• tongsa + nun +myengsa	
(Verb+Modifier ‘nun’+Noun)	
‘l’ irregular: pwulta→ pwun un	mantulta→mantu- nun
(to blow)→ blow-PRE-MOE	(to make)→make-PRE-MOE
• hyengyongsa +(u)n+ myengsa	
(Adjective+Modifier ‘(u)n’+Noun)	
‘p’irregular: chwupta→ chu un	
(be cold)→ cold-PRE-MOE	
	DF9

< Table 3: Examples of grammatical information >

<p>tayhata : concern myeng + ey tayhayse + tong (Noun+ LOC concern CON- + Verb)</p> <p>myeng + ey tayhan (kwanhyenghyeng)+ myeng (Noun + LOC concern PRE-MOE+Noun)</p> <p>Example) na-nun oykuk salam-ulo onul kaykoki-uy I-NOM foreigner-LOC today dog meat-POSS</p> <p> happephwaey <u>tayhay</u> tholon-ul hay po-koca ha-nta. Legalization-LOC concern-CON discuss-ACC be going to -DEC (I am going to discuss <u>about</u> the legalisation of dog meat as a foreigner today.)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF10</p>

< Table 4: Examples of syntactic information >

<p>• -nulako (because, since) [sentence ending] [Attach to a stem of a verb] A sentence ending which indicates that the state of affairs in the first clause is the purpose or the causation of the second clause.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">< Korean Standard Dictionary ></p> <p>• -nulako</p> <p>① The subject in both the preceding and following clauses of ‘- nulako’ should be the same.</p> <p>② It cannot be followed by a command or propositive sentence</p> <p>③ It can be attached only to verb stems.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">It cannot be combined with adjective stems.</p> <p>④ It cannot be attached to the ending ‘-ess (past tense)-’ or ‘-keyss (future tense)-’.</p> <p>⑤ It cannot be preceded by a negative form.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DM12, DM18, DM22 < Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2 ></p>

< Table 5: Example of grammatical information >

<p>machi (adverb: as if) machi ① -nun/(u)n/(i)n keschelem + Verb (like) ② -nun/(u)n/(i)n kes kathi + Adjective (It seems that) ③ -nun/(u)n/(i)n tusi (as if/ like) ④ -nun/(u)n/(i)n yang (as if)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DM7</p> <p>• Noun + ey pihamyen /pihayse (as compared to something) + ① amwu kesto anita (it is nothing) ② nun/(u)n kesi anita (am/are/is not something)</p> <p>• -telamyen (conditional connective 'if') Verb/Adjective+ ass/esstelamyen + ① -(u)l keyeyyo (future tense ending) ② -(u)l teynteeyyo (observed/perceived past tense)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF20</p>

< Table 6: Examples of grammatical information >

<p>Difference</p> <p>① -taka pomyen (if.. and then) Ex) mek-<i>taka</i> <i>po-meyn</i> ikswukhayci-<i>lkeyeyyo</i>. eat-PRE-CON if-PRE-CON get used to-FUT-DEC If you keep eating it, you will get used to it. (future tense)</p> <p>② -ko poni (do and then realise) Ex) mek-<i>ko poni</i> posinthang-i-<i>ess-eyo</i>.(past tense) eat-PRE-CON dog soup-COP-PAS-DEC After I ate it, I realised that it was dog soup.</p> <p>③ - ta poni (after trying doing) Ex) mek-<i>ta poni</i> ta mek-<i>ess-eyo</i>.(past tense) eat-PRE-CON all eat-PAS-DEC I realised that I ate all while I was eating it.</p> <p>④ -a/e poni (try doing) Ex) mek-<i>e poni</i> mas-i kwaynchanh-<i>ayo/ass-eyo</i>. (present/past tense) eat-PRE-CON taste-NOM fine-PRE-DEC/PAS-DEC I tried it, I found that the taste of this is/was good.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF9</p>

< Table 7: Example sentences for lexical synonyms >

<p>• hayngtong:hayngwi (act/behavior)</p> <p>inkan <i>hayngtong</i> yangsik (appropriate) > inkan <i>hangwi</i> yangsik (human behavior pattern)</p> <p>yeswul <i>hayngtong</i> < yeswul <i>hayngwi</i> (appropriate) (art form)</p> <p>elun apheysenun yeyuy palukey <i>hayngtong</i>hayya hanta. (appropriate) > elun apheysenun yeyuy palukey <i>hayngwi</i>hayya hanta. (You have to behave well in front of seniors)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DM8</p>

< Table 8: Example sentences for lexical synonyms >

<p>• nathanata/nathanayta (appear, show, represent)</p> <p>ku-uy phyoceng-ey ku-uy kipwun-i nathana-ta he-POSS facial expression-LOC he-POSS feeling-NOM is shown-PRE His feeling is shown on his facial expression. (unconsciously and naturally)</p> <p>ku-uy phyoceng-i ku-uy kipwun-ul nathanay-ta. He-POSS facial expression-NOM he-POSS feeling-ACC show-PRE His facial expression shows his feeling. (It can be included the subject's intention)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DM12</p>

< Table 9: Example sentences for synonymous functional words >

<p>The difference between ‘-nulako (because/since)’ and ‘-a/ese (and so)’</p>				
ecey	theyllepichen-ul	po-nulako	kongpwu-lul	mos-hay-ss-ta.
yesterday	television-ACC	watch-PRE-CON	studying-ACC	cannot-NEG-PAST-DEC
<p>: I could not study yesterday to watch television (I watched television yesterday instead of studying.)</p>				
ecey	theyllepichen-ul	pw-ase	kongpwu-lul	mos-hay-ss-ta.
yesterday	television-ACC	watch-PRE-CON	studying-ACC	cannot-NEG-PAST-DEC
<p>: I could not study yesterday because I watched television (As a result of watching television, I could not study yesterday.)</p>				
<p>‘-nulako’ is more natural because the time that the teacher was giving explanation and the time that I took a note are simultaneous.</p>				
philki-lul	hanu-lako	selmyeng-ul	tut-ci	moshay-ss-eyo.
taking a note-ACC	do-PRE-CON	explanation-ACC	listen-PRE-NEG-PAS-DEC	
<p>(I could not listen to the teacher’s explanation to take a note.)</p>				
philki-lul	hay-se	selmyeng-ul	tut-ci	moshay-ss-eyo.
taking a note-ACC	do-PRE-CON	explanation-ACC	listen-PRE-NEG-PAST-DEC	
<p>(I could not listen to the teacher’s explanation because I took a note)</p>				
<p>‘-nulako’ is more natural because the time that the teacher was giving explanation and the time that I took a note are simultaneous.</p>				
DM11				

< Table 10: Example of descriptions for lexical synonyms >

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cemcanhta (gentle): yamcenhata (modest): chapwunhata (placid): chimchakhata (calm, poised) <p>(Difference: ‘cemcanhta’ can be used to describe only men and ‘yamcenhata’ can be used to describe women. ‘capwunhata’ and ‘chimchakhata’ can be used to describe both men and women.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DM6</p>

< Table 11: Example of descriptions for semantically related verbal connectives >

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cwuk-eto /cwuk-telato/cwuk-ulcilato (contrastive connectives ‘even though’) cwuketo: (even if/though someone die) cwuktelato: It is more hypothetical than ‘chwuketo’ cwukulcilato: It is used to put more stress on the meaning of ‘chwuketo’ • haykyelha-key/haykyelha-tolok/haykeylha-keykkum (causative connective ‘so that’) haykyelhakey (to solve) haykyelhatolok: It is formal than ‘haykyelhakey’ haykeylhakeykkum: It is used to put more stress on the meaning of ‘haykyelhakey’ <p style="text-align: right;">DM7</p>

< Table 12: Example of descriptions for expressions >

<p>• Defining</p> <p>-(i)lan –ul/lul malha-nta/uymiha-nta/nathanay-nta ACC indicate mean signify (Something indicate/mean/signify something)</p> <p>Example) kihwa-lan aykchey-ka kichey-lo pyenha-nun evaporation liquid-NOM vapour-INS turn-PRE-MOE</p> <p>hyensang-ul malha-nta/uymiha-nta/ nathanay-nta. Phenomena-ACC indicate mean signify-PRE-DEC (Evaporation indicates/means/signifies the phenomena that liquid turns to vapour.)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF10</p>			
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< Table 13: Example of descriptions for expressions >

<p>• Expressions for suggestions/wish</p> <p>Verb+ -a/e cwuessumeyn hanun palamita (I wish-) Verb+ -a/e tallanun palamita (I wish-) Verb+ -a/e tallako pwuthakhako siphta (I would like someone to do something)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF22</p>			
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< Table 14: Example of descriptions for expression >

<p>• Expressions for city introduction</p> <p>-ey wichiha-ko issta (be located to) LOC be located-PRO</p> <p>-ulo tayphyotoy-ta (be represented by) INS be represented-PRE</p> <p>-ten centhong-un hyencay-kkaci ieci-ta (-tradition continue to this day) RET tradition-TOP present-until continue-PRE yeylopwute –(u)lo yumyenghata/ilumnata (be famous for something from the past)</p> <p>-uy cwu sayngsanci-yess-ten i cieyk-un – tung-uy thuksanmul-i -POSS main producer-PAST-RET this region-TOP - etc-POSS speciality-NOM</p> <p>manhi na-nta. a lot produce-PRE-DEC (This region is a leading producer of something, so something is a speciality of this region.)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF7/DF10</p>			
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< Table 15: Example of descriptions for expressions >

<p>• Noun 1+un/nun Noun 2 (era, time, society, life)+uy hulung-ul TOP POSS stream-ACC panyengha-ko issta. reflect-PRO-DEC</p> <p>(Noun + reflects the stream of times/society/life)</p> <p>Example) ku yenghwa-nun sitay-uy hulung-ul panyengha-ko issta. the movie-TOP time-POSS stream-ACC reflect-PRO-DEC (The movie reflects the stream of the times)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF25</p>

< Table 16: Example of descriptions for errors >

<p>taum-ey inthenes-eyse kayin cengpo-lul akyoungha-nun next-LOC internet-LOC personal information-ACC abuse-PRE-MOE</p> <p>yeytul, i mwuncey ka nathanay nun nappun kyelkwa, examples this problem-NOM show-PRE-MOE bad-PRE-MOE result</p> <p>kuliko ku haykyelchayktu-lul salphyepo-caha-nta. and that solustion-ACC investidate- intend to -PRE-DEC</p> <p>→taum-ulo, intheneyse-eyse kayin cengpo-lul akyoungha-nun next-LOC internet-LOC personal information-ACC abuse-PRE-MOE</p> <p>yeytul-kwa i mwuncey-lo inha-n pwucengcekin kyelkwatul, examples-COM this problems-INS derive from negative results</p> <p>kuliko ku haykyelchayk-ey tayhay salphyepo-kocaha-nta. and that solutions-LOC concern-CON investidate- intend to -PRE-DEC</p> <p>(Next, I will investigate cases in which people abused the personal information online, the negative effects and the solutions of this problem.)</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DF11</p>

< Table 17: Examples of descriptions for sentence errors >

<p>• ecey nemwu papa-se pap mekun sikan-to yesterday too busy-PRE-CON meal eat-PAST-MOE time-also</p> <p>eps-ess-ta. not have-PAST-DEC (I was too busy even to have time to have a meal)</p> <p>pap mek-ul sikan (O) meal eat-FUT-MOE time pap mek-un sikan (X) meal eat-PAS-MOE time pap mek-nun sikan (X) meal eat-PRE-MOE time</p> <p style="text-align: right;">DM8</p>

< Table 18: Example of descriptions for an expression >

• cakka-nun **tahi** hangsang kyeth-ey issecwu-ko kathi elyewum-ul
 writer-TOP moon-NOM always side-LOC stay-PRE-CON together difficulty-ACC

kukpokha-nun chinkwu-~~lo~~ **piyuha-nta-**
 overcome-PRE-MOE friend-INS liken-PRE-DEC

cakka-nun tal-**ul** hangsang kyeth-ey isse cwu-ko kathi elyewum-ul
 writer-TOP moon-ACC always side-LOC stay-PRE-CON together difficulty-ACC

kukpokha-y naka-nun chinkwu-**ey** **piyuha-ko issta.**
 overcome-PRE-CON PRE-MOE friend-LOC liken-PRO-DEC

(The writer likens the moon to the friend who is always with me and overcomes difficulties together.)

• **-lul –ey(lo) piyuhata (Object-Loc(Ins) + Verb)**

(likens something/somebody to something/somebody)

Example) insayng-ul yenkuk-**ey** **piyuhata.**

Life-ACC drama-LOC liken (Life is often likened to drama.)

Senseyngnim-un wulitul-ul talamcwi-**lo** **piyuha-kon hasy-ess-ta.**

Teacher-TOP us-ACC squirrel-INS liken-PRE-CON-PAST-DEC

(Our teacher often likens us to squirrel.)

= **-ka –ey(lo) piyutoyta (Subject- Loc(Ins) + Verb)**

(something/somebody is likened to something/somebody)

Example) chakha-ko swunha-n salam-un hunhi yang-**ey** **piyutoy-nta.**

(The person who is nice and docile is often liked to lamb.)

masi-nun mwul-kwa umsik-to ku-eykey-nun motwu
 drink-PRE-MOE water-COM food-also him-DAT-TOP all

kum-**ulo** **piyutoy-ess-ta.**

Gold-INS be likened-PAST-DEC

(The water and food were likened to gold by him.)

DF6

Analysis of learner corpus

< Table 1: The number of *ecel* in each level in the learner corpus >

Language Level	The number of <i>ecel</i>	Percentage (%)
Level 4	10,405	13.75
Level 5	35,704	47.18
Level 6	20,810	27.49
Level 7	8,762	11.58
Total	75,681	100

< Table 2: The number of *ecel* produced according to learners' L1 in the learner corpus >

Learner's L1	The number of <i>ecel</i>	Percentage (%)
Chinese	24,218	32
Japanese	19,679	26
Mongolian	9,084	12
English	7,936	10.5
Others	14,765	19.5
Total	75,681	100

< Table 3: Part of the modified Sejong tagset >

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Substantive word (N) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> A. Noun (NN) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. General noun (NNG) ii. Proper noun (NNP) iii. Dependent noun (NNB) B. Pronoun (NP) C. Numeral (NR) 2. Declinable word (V) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> A. Processive Verb (VV) B. Descriptive Verb (VA) C. Auxiliary (VX) D. Copula (VC) 3. Relative word - Particle(J) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> A. Particle for particle (JK) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Particle for subjective case(JKS) ii. Particle for complementary case (JKC) iii. Particle for possessive case (JKG) iv. Particle for objective case (JKO) v. Particle for adverb case (JKB) vi. Particle for vocative case (JKV) vii. Particle for quotative case (JKQ) B. Auxiliary particle (JX) C. Conjunctive (comitative) particle (JC) |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

< Table 4: Samples of the grammatically tagged corpus >

152	machi	machi/MAG
152	hanphyenuy	hanphyenuy/NNG+uy/JKG
152	myecikhelul	myecikhelul/NNG+ul/JKO
152	pon	po/VV+n/ETM
152	tushan	tus/NNB+ha/XSA+n/ETM
152	chakkakul	chakkak/NNG+ul/JKO
152	pwulleilukhinta	pwulleilukhi/VV+nta/EF+./SF

< Table 5: The frequency of errors for each grammatical item >

Grammatical item	Substitution	Omission	Addition	Number of errors	Total number of occurrences of an item	Percentage of error occurrence
Verbs	1321	15	18	1,352	15,737	8.59%
Copula	79	8	0	87	3,549	2.45%
Particles*	2745	71	77	2,893	21,918	13.20%
Connectives	962	18	28	1,007	10,070	10.00%
Prefinal endings	310	77	7	394	2,550	15.45%
Final endings	225	15	24	264	6,788	3.89%
Nominal forms	159	2	18	189	1,059	18.90%
Modifier	303	0	2	305	7,546	4.04%
Adverbs	310	7	62	379	4,456	8.51%
Total	6,414	212	234	6,860	73,672	

* As was mentioned earlier, auxiliary particles were excluded from particle errors.

< Table 6: Particle errors >

Items	Substitution	Omission	Addition	Number of errors	Total number of occurrences	Proportion of total particle errors	Percentage of error occurrences
Subject particle	904	24	6	934	4788	32.28%	19.51%
Possessive particle	314	12	13	339	2918	11.72%	11.62%
Object particle	722	11	14	747	6406	25.82%	11.66%
Adverbial particle	792	18	40	849	7381	29.35%	11.50%
Comitative particle	13	7	4	24	425	0.83%	5.65%
Total	2745	71	77	2893	21,918	100%	

< Table 7: Information on verb errors >

Items	Substitutios	Omissions	Additions	Number of errors	Total occurrence of items in the corpus	Proportion of total verb errors	Percentage of error occurrence
Processive verbs	1,021	11	13	1,045	10,214	77.29%	10.23%
Descriptive verbs	300	4	3	307	5,523	22.71%	5.56%
Total	1,321	15	18	1,352	15,737	100%	

< Table 8: Information on connective errors >

Items	Number of errors	Total number of occurrences	Proportion of errors in total connectives	Percentage of error occurrence
-ko (and)	311	3511	39.52	8.86%
-a/ese (so, because)	91	1065	11.56	8.54%
-key (adverb deriving ending)	48	1018	6.10	4.72%
-myen (if)	52	930	6.61	5.59%
-a/e (and then)	46	648	7.10	7.10%
-nuntey (so)	22	362	2.80	6.08%
-a/eye (and/because)	4	326	0.51	1.23%
-ciman (but)	15	301	1.91	4.98%
-mye (and/while)	45	218	5.94	11.11%
-(u)myense (while)	24	220	3.05	10.91%
-a/eto (although)	20	182	2.54	11.63%

< Table 9: Information on nominal form errors >

Nominal forms	Number of errors	Total number of occurrences	Proportion of total nominal form errors	Percentage of error occurrence
-um	46	101	25.7%	45.54%
-ki	133	958	74.3%	13.88%
Total	189	1,059	100%	

< Table 10: The information on adverb errors >

Adverbs	Number of errors	Total number of occurrences	Proportion of total adverbs	Percentage of error occurrence
te (more)	14	256	5.75%	5.47%
manhi (many/ a lot)	8	240	5.39%	3.33%
cal (well)	27	198	4.44%	13.64%
kacang (most)	7	156	3.50%	4.89%
ta (all)	18	132	2.96%	12.88%
kathi (like/with)	11	112	2.51%	9.82%
an (not)	12	108	2.44%	11.11%
mos (cannot)	13	97	2.18%	13.40%
acwu (very)	0	95	2.13%	0%
tasi (again)	6	75	1.68%	8%
selo (each)	11	72	1.62%	15.28%
nemwu (too)	7	68	1.53%	10.29%
hangsang (always)	19	60	1.35%	31.67%
way (why)	5	58	1.30%	8.62%
cengmal (really)	3	53	1.19%	5.66%
kkok (must)	18	51	1.14%	31.37%

Error sentence samples

(1) Particles

① Misuse of case particles with descriptive verbs

(1)	ce-nun	swuhak- <u>ul</u>		<u>ttwiena</u> -se		ikwa-lul		ka-l	ke-lako
	I-TOP	mathematics-ACC		great-PRE-because-CON		natural science track-ACC		go-FUT-that	
	motu	sayngkakhay-ss-ciman..							
	all	think-PAST-but-CON							
	Everyone thought that I would take the natural science track, but..								
	The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for locative particle ‘-ey’								

(2)	mwunhwa-ka		talunikka		ene- <u>uy</u>		chaicem- <u>i</u>		<u>manh</u> -ta.
	culture-NOM		different-PRE-because-CON		language-POSS		difference-NOM		many-PRE-DEC
	There are many differences among languages because cultures are different.								
	The substitution of possessive particle ‘-uy’ for locative particle ‘-ey’ or subject particle ‘-ka’								

(3)	seyang	ene-pota		hankwuke- wa		cwungkwuke-nun		‘kay’, ‘cang’, ‘mali’	tung (?)
	western language than			Korean-COM		Chinese-TOP		‘unit’, ‘piece’, ‘several?’	etc (?)
	<u>kath</u> -un		yangsa-ka			manh-ta			
	like-PRE-MOE		quantifier-NOM			many-PRE-DEC			
	There are many more quantifiers such as ‘unit’, ‘piece’, ‘several’ in Korean and Chinese than in Western languages.								
	Omission of comitative particle ‘-kwa’								

(4)	hankwuke-nun		yenge-wa		mwunpep- <u>ul</u>		manhi <u>talun</u>		pheyn-iki		ttaymwun-ey
	Korean-TOP		English-COM		grammar-ACC		very different side-COP-NOE		because-LOC		
	mikwuk	salam-i		paywu-nun		tey-ey		elyewu-n			ene-ita.
	American-NOM	learn-PRE-MOE		place-LOC		difficult-PRE-MOE		language-PRE-COP-DEC			
	Korean is a difficult language for Americans to learn because Korean grammar is very different from English.										
	The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for nominative particle ‘-i’										

(5)	chinkwu-nun		na-wa		chwimi- <u>lul</u>		<u>katha</u> -se		kumpang		chinkwu-ka
	friend-TOP		I-COM		hobby-ACC		same-PRE-because-CON		quickly		friend-NOM
	toy-l	swu	iss-ess-ta.								
	become	can-PAST-DEC									
	(We) could become friends quickly because our hobbies were the same.										
	The substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for nominative particle ‘-ka’										

(6) minkamha-ko cosimsulewu-n seongkyek-un suthuleysu-lul manh-ta
sensitive-PRE-and-CON careful-PRE-MOE characters-TOP stress-ACC a lot-PRE-DEC

Sensitive and careful characters have lots of stress.
The substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for subject particle ‘-ka’

(7) nay-ka sengkyek-ul nulin-n phyen-ilase il-ul
I-NOM personality-ACC easygoing-PRE-MOE rather-PRE-because-CON work-ACC

ceyttay kkuthnay-ci mos-ha-l ttay-ka manh-ta
on time finish-PRE cannot-NEG-FUT-MOE when-NOM many-PRE-DEC

I often cannot finish work on time because I am rather easygoing.
The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for subject particle ‘-i’

(8) wenlay na-nun koki-lul silh-un salam-i-lase
originally I- TOP meat-ACC hate-PRE-MOE person-PRE-COP-because-CON

chaysikwuuyca-ka ani-ciman chaysik-ul cwulo han-ta.
vegetarian-NOM not-PRE-but-CON vegetable-ACC usually do-PRE-DEC

Originally I am a person who does not like meat so I usually eat vegetables though I am not vegetarian.
The substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for subject particle ‘-ka’

(9) hankwuk-eyse pesu wuncensa-ka wuncen-ul nemwu ppali ha-nikka
Korea-LOC bus driver-NOM driving-ACC too fast do-PRE-because-CON

na-nun pesu tha-nun kes-ul mwusewu-ntey..
I-TOP bus take-PRE-MOE thing -ACC be scared- PRE-CON

I am scared of taking a bus because bus drivers drive too fast in Korea..
The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for subject particle ‘-i’

(10) ce-nun hankwuke paywu-nun kes-ul coh-ki ttaymwu-ey
I- TOP Korean learning-PRE-MOE thing-ACC good-PRE-NOE because-LOC

hankwuke kongpwu-ey sikan-kwa nolyek-ul manhi thwucaha-yess-supnita.
Korean studying-LOC time-COM effort-ACC a lot invest-PAST-DEC

I spent lots of time and effort studying Korean because I like learning Korean.
The substitution of object particle ‘ul’ for subject particle ‘-i’

② Misuse of case particles with processive verbs

(11) situni-nun 200nyen-tongan nolyekhay-se cikum-un kumyungtos-i-lul
 Sydney-TOP 200years- for make effort-PRE-so-CON now-TOP financial capital-ACC

toy-ess-ta
 become-PAST-DEC

Sydney made an effort for 200years, then, became the financial capital now.
 The substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for subject particle ‘-ka’

(12) akhihipala-nun kacen ceyphwum cenmwun sangka-ka mwunhwa kwankwang ciyek-ul
 Akihibala-TOP home appliance complex-NOM cultural tourist area-ACC

peynha-n keyngwulo inki-ka iss-nun kwankwangci-ita.
 chang-PAST-MO case popularity-NOM has-PRE-MOE tourist area-PRE-COP-DEC

Akikhbara is the case where a home appliance complex changed into a cultural tourist spot, it is a popular tourist area.
 The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for instrumental particle ‘-ulo’

(13) hankwuk-eyse sinho-lul mwusiha-ko kil-ey ka-nun
 Korean-LOC sign-ACC ignore-PRE-and-CON street-LOC go-PRE-MOE

salam-ul keyu po-ci moshay-ss-ko...
 people-ACC hardly see-PRE cannot- NEG-PAST-and-CON

I hardly saw people crossing the street ignoring traffic signs in Korea.
 The substitution of locative particle ‘-ey’ for object particle ‘-ul’

(14) sungyoungcha-ka mwulihakey kennelmok-ey cinaka-ss-ki ttaymwun-ey..
 car-NOM by force crossroad-LOC pass-PAST-NOE because-LOC

Because the car passed the cross road by force...
 The substitution of locative particle ‘-ey’ for object particle ‘-ul’

(15) i sako ttaymwun-ey twiscwasek-ul tha-ko iss-te-n ai-ka
 this accident because-LOC back seat-ACC take-PRO-RET-MOE child-NOM

swumci-ko, wuncenca-nun pyengwen-eyse chilyo-lul pat-ko iss-ta.
 die-PRE-and-CON driver-TOP hospital-LOC treatment-ACC have-PRO-DEC

Because of this accident, the child who sat on the back seat died and the driver is receiving hospital treatment.
 Substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for locative particle ‘-ey’

(16) hankwuk-eyse salamtul-un eysukhelleyithe-lul tha-l ttay nul
 Korea-LOC people-TOP escalator-ACC take-FUT-MOE when always

olunccek-ul tha-nta.
 right side-ACC take-PRE-DEC

People always stand on the right-hand side when they take the escalator in Korea.
 The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for locative particle ‘-ey’

(17) tosi-uy kongwen-ey namwu-wa kkoch-ulo kakkwu-e
 city-POSS park-LOC tree -COM flower-INS grew up-PRE-after-CON

(The city) grew trees and flowers in city parks...

The substitution of locative particle ‘-ey’ for object particle ‘-ul’ **or**
 The substitution of instrumental particle ‘-ulo’ for object particle ‘-ul’

(18) sensayngnim-un wuli-ka calmosha-myen wuli-lul elkwul-ey
 teacher-TOP we-NOM do something wrong-PRE-if-CON we-ACC face-LOC

ttayley-ss-ta
 slap-PAST-DEC

When we did something wrong, teacher slapped our faces.

The substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for possessive particle ‘-uy’ and
 The substitution of locative particle ‘-ey’ for object particle ‘-ul’

Or

The substitution of for locative particle ‘-ey’ object particle ‘-ul’

③ Misuse of case particles with predicate noun+ supportive verb pattern verb

(19) kwukcey hwankyeng mwuncey-nun sencinkwuk-i chaykim-ul
 international environment problem-TOP developed countries-NOM responsibility-ACC

math-nun kes-ul philyoha-nta.
 taking-PRE-MOE thing-ACC need-PRE-DEC

It is necessary for developed countries to take responsibility for international environmental problems.

The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for subject particle ‘-i’

(20) tasi malhay-se, mek-nun kes-un salamtul-ul cwungyoha-n
 again tell-PRE-CON eating-PRE-MOE thing-TOP people-ACC important-PRE-MOE

pwupwun-ita.
 part-PRE-COP

In other words, eating is important part for people.

The substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for dative ‘-eykey’

(21) kennelmok-eyse sungyongcha-ka kicha-**lul** chwungtolha-yess-ki ttaymwun-ey..
level crossing-LOC car-NOM train-ACC crash-PAST-NOE because-LOC

Because the car crashed into train in...

Substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for comitative particle ‘-wa’

(22) tulama-lul po-n hwu, han salam-man palapo-nun salang-**ul**
drama-ACC watch-PAST-MOE after one person-only see-PRE-MOE love-ACC

kamtonghay-ss-ta.

be touched –PAST-DEC

After watching the drama, (I) was touched by the love which sees only one person.

Substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for locative particle ‘-ey’

(23) hankwuk tayhaksayngtul-uy kwaum-ulo inha-n
Korean undergraduate-POSS heavy drinking-INS derived from-PAST-MOE

mwunceytul-**i** haykyelha-yya ha-nta
problems-NOM resolve should-AUX-PRE-DEC

We should resolve the problems derived from the heavy drinking of Korean undergraduates.

Substitution of subject particle ‘-i’ for object particle ‘-ul’

(24) kutul-un pinilpongci-nun hayphali-**lul** ohayha-ki ttaymwun-ey nemwu
They-TOP plastic bag-TOP jellyfish-ACC mistake-PRE-NOE because-LOC very

noll-a pata-eyse nawa-ss-ta
surprised- PRE-CON sea-LOC come out-PAST-DEC

They mistook a plastic bag for a jellyfish and came out of the sea because they were very surprised.

Substitution of topic particle ‘-nun’ for object particle ‘-lul’

Substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for instrumental particle ‘-lo’

(25) saho-y-lul kang-**kwa** piyuha-myen cengpwu-eyse ilha-nun
society-ACC river-COM liken-PRE-if-CON government-LOC work-PRE-MOE

salamtul-i palo wismwul-ita
people-NOM upper stream of river-PRE-COP-DEC

If we liken society to a river, people who work for the government are the water of the upper stream of the river.

Substitution of comitative particle ‘kwa’ for locative particle ‘-ey’

(26) sikmwul-i hohupcakyong ttaymwun-ey isanhwathanso-**lul** sanso-lo
 plant-NOM respiration because-LOC carbon dioxide-ACC oxygen-INS

cenhwantoy-e pyengsil kongki-lul malk-key ha-nta.
 be changed-PRE-and-CON patient room air-ACC clean make-CAU-PRE-DEC

It makes air in the patient's room cleaner by changing carbon dioxide to oxygen due to the respiration of the plant.

Substitution of object particle '-lul' for subject particle '-ka'

④ Misuse of case particles with causative verbs

(27) kwahak kiswul-ul keysok thwucahwy-ya hankwuk-uy kwukcey
 science technology-ACC continuously invest-PRE-and-CON Korea-POSS international

kyengcainglyek-**i** **nophi**-l swu issta-ko
 competitiveness power-NOM enhance-CAU can-PRE-that-CON

sayngkakha-nta.
 think-PRE-DEC

(I) think that when (the government) invests in science technology, this can enhance Korea's ability to complete internationally.

Substitution of subject particle '-i' for object particle '-ul'

(28) ku ttay-nun mikwu-eyse-nun maul-uy kongtong sosik-ul
 That time-TOP USA-LOC-TOP town-POSS public new-ACC

alli-ki wiha-y cong-**i** **wullye**-ss-ta.
 inform-CAU-PRE-NOE in order to-PRE-CON bell-NOM ring-CAU-PAST-DEC

At that time in the USA (people) used to ring a bell to inform the public about the town news.

Substitution of subject particle '-i' for object particle '-ul'

(29) kyengchal-un chong-ulo san-eyse chwulmolh-an ku
 police officer-TOP gun-INS mountain-LOC appear-PAST-MOE that

meystwayci-**eykey** **cwuky**-ess-ta.
 wild boar-DAT be killed-CAU-PAST-DEC

The police officer killed the wild boar which appeared from the mountain using gun.

Substitution of dative particle '-eykey' for object particle '-lul'

(30) incong chapyelha-myen salam-uy maum-**i** sangche-lul
do racial discrimination-PRE-if-CON person-POSS feeling-NOM wound-ACC

iphi-nun kyengwu-to iss-ul kes kath-ta.
hurt-CAU-PRE-MOE case-too exist seem-AUX-PRE-DEC

If someone does racial discrimination, it could hurt a person's feelings.
Substitution of subject particle '-i' for locative particle '-ey'

(31) kwuseytay namcatul-un sinseytay namcatul-i meli-**ka**
older generation men-TOP new generation men-NOM hair-NOM

kil-key ha-nun kes-ey kepwukam-i iss-ko....
long make-CAU-PRE-MOE thing-LOC repulsion-NOM is-PRE-and-CON

The men of the older generation are hostile towards men of the younger generation who grow their hair long....
Substitution of nominative particle '-ka' for object particle '-ul'

(32) kyothongpi-**ka** ssa-key hay-se salamtul-i
transportation cost-NOM cheap-CAU-PRE-because-CON people-NOM

taycwung kyothong-ul iyoungha-key ha-yya ha-nta.
public transportation-ACC use make- CAU have to -AUX-PRE-DEC

(The government) should reduce transport costs and make people use public transportation.
Substitution of subject particle '-ka' for object particle '-ul'

(33) hankwuk salamtul-i yelsimhi ilha-nun mosup-un naey**key**
Korean people-NOM hard work-PRE-MOE appearance-TOP me-DAT

kamtongsikhy-ess-ta.
make impressed-CAU-PAST-DEC

Korean people's hard work impressed me.
Substitution of dative particle '-eykey' for object particle '-lul'

(38) yenghwa 2012-lul pangyengtoy-ki sicakha-n twilo manh-un
 movie 2012-ACC be aired-PASS-PRE-NOE start-PRE-MOE after many-PRE-MOE

sichengcatul-i hawnkeyng-ey kwansim-ul kaci-key
 viewers-NOM environment-LOC intrest-ACC get

After the movie '2012' was aired, viewers started to get interested in the environment.
 Substitution of object particle '-lul' for subject particle '-ka'

(39) tosi-nun ppaykppaykha-n kochung kenmwul-kwa menci-lul teph-i-n
 city-TOP dense-PRE-MOE skyscrapers-COM dust-ACC cover-PASS-PAST-MOE

cwyspich hanul-ul yensangha-nta.
 gray colour sky-ACC remind-PRE-DEC

Cities remind me of dense skyscrapers and gray sky covered with dust.
 Substitution of object particle '-lul' for instrumental particle '-lo' or locative particle '-ey'
 Substitution of active verb 'yensanghata' for causative verb 'yensangsikhihata'

(40) kkuman-un mwuncey-lul mos phwul-meyn wang-ul cwukim-ul
 kkuman-TOP problem-ACC cannot solve-PRE-if-CON the king-ACC be killed

tangha-lkka pwa swuph-ey tuleka-se namwu twi-ey swum-ess-ta
 CAU-FUT-CON forest-LOC gointo-PRE-and-CON tree behind-LOC hide-PAST-DEC

Kkuman was afraid of being killed by the king if he could not solve the problems so he went to the forest and hid behind a tree.
 Substitution of object particle '-lul' for dative particle '-eykey'

(41) nu cwut-nun kachwuk myech mali-ey yelsal ttay pwumo-eykey
 Nujood-TOP livestock-LOC 10 years when parent-DAT

phally-e kangceylo kyelhonha-key toyn-ta.
 sell-PASS-PRE-and-CON in force become married-AUX-PRE-DEC

Nujood was sold by her parents for several heads of livestock and was forced into marriage.
 Substitution of dative particle '-eykey' for '-ey uyhay(by)'

(42) mwul-ul mili kwuipha-n salamtul-eykey mwul-i pissa-n
 water-ACC in advance buy-PAST-MOE people-DAT water-NOM expensive-PRE-MOE

kakyek-ulo simintul-eykey phalli-ko issta.
 price-INS citizen-DAT sell-PASS-PRO-DEC

The bottles of water being sold by people who bought bottles of water in advance.
 Substitution of dative particle '-eykey' for '-ey uyhay (by)'

(43)	hankul-un	cosensitay	seycong	taywang- eykey
	Hangul-TOP	the Joseon Dynasty	Sejong the Great-DAT	
	<u>changeey</u> -toy-ess-ko	tayhanminkwuk-uy	kulca-ka	toy-ess-ta.
	was invented-PASS-PAST-and-CON	Korea-POSS	letter-NOM	become-PAST-DEC
	Hangul was invented by Sejong the Great in the Joseon Dynasty and became of national letters of the Republic of Korea.			
	Substitution of dative particle ‘-eykey’ for ‘-ey uyhay(by)’			

(44)	sosel	‘cwukun nekstul’-un	lesia-uy	yumyengh-an	soselka	kokol- lopwute
	novel	‘Dead Souls’-TOP	Russia-POSS	famous-PRE-MOE	novelist	Gogol- from
	<u>ssuy-ecy</u> -ess-ta.					
	be written-PASS-PAST-DEC					
	The novel ‘Dead Souls’ was written by famous Russian novelist Gogol.					
	Substitution of auxiliary particle ‘-lo pwuthe’ for ‘-ey uyhay’					

(45)	Kelho-ka	Yongha-eykey	pal- ey	<u>caphi</u> -ko	Sencwun-un
	Keolho-NOM	Yongha-DAT	ankle-LOC	catch-PASS-PRE-and-CON	Seonjun-TOP
	changko-ey	tulekan-ta			
	warehouse-LOC	go into-PRE-DEC			
	Keolho was caught by his ankle by Youngha and fell down and Seonjun went into the warehouse				
	Substitution of locative particle ‘-ul’ for object particle ‘-ul’				

⑥ Misuse of case particles with defective verbs

(46)	intheneys	cwungtok- ey	<u>inha</u> -n	mwuncey-nun
	internet	addiction-LOC	derived from-PAST-MOE	problems-TOP
	sangsangha-l swu-to eps-nun	mankhum	manh-ciman	
	unimaginable-cannot-PRE-MOE	amount	many-PRE-but-CON	
	There is an unimaginable number of problems derived from internet addiction...			
	Substitution of locative particle ‘-ey’ for instrumental particle ‘-ulo’			

(47)	hankwuk-eyse	kongpwu-lul	ha-myense	hankwuk	sahoy-wa	hankwuk
	Korea-LOC	studying-ACC	do-PRE-while-CON	Korean	society-COM	Korean
	kyoyuk-uy	kwankyey- uy	<u>tayhay</u>	kwansim-i..		
	education-POSS	relationship- POSS	concerning	interest-NOM		
	While I have studying in Korea, I got interested in the relationship between Korean society and Korean education..					
	Substitution of possessive particle ‘-uy’ for locative particle ‘-ey’					

(48) cosa-**lul** uyha-myen, kimchi-nun pithamin-i phwungpwuha-ko
 research-ACC according to-PRE-if-CON Kimchi-TOP Vitamin-NOM rich-PRE-and-CON

hangam nunglyek-to kaci-ko iss-ta
 anticancer effect-also have-PRO-DEC

According to research, kimchi has lots of vitamins and anticancer effects.
 Substitution of object particle ‘-lul’ for locative particle ‘-ey’

(49) Liayn-un chinkwudul-uy piwusum-**ul** pwulkwuha-ko maikhul-ul kacok-ulo
 Leeane-TOP friends-POSS ridicule-ACC despite-PRE-and-CON Michael-ACC family-INS

Leeane made Michael a member of her family in spite of friends’ ridicule.
 Substitution of object particle ‘-ul’ for the particle ‘-eyto’

(50) apeci-uy hayngyiwi-ka palu-myen atul-to apeci-**ey**
 father-POSS behavior-NOM right-PRE-if-CON son-also father-LOC

ttala-se palukey hayngwih-al kes-ita.
 follow-PRE-because-CON well behave will-FUT-DEC

If a father behaves well, the son also behaves well, in accordance with following his father
 Substitution of locative particle ‘-ey’ for object particle ‘-lul’

(51) hankwukintul-i cokum te chincelhakey oykwukin yuhaksayng-**ey** tayha-y
 Korean people-NOM little more kindly foreign students-LOC treat-PRE-AUX

cwu-ess-umyen ceh-keyss-ta.
 hope PAST-CON-DEC

I hope that Korean people treat foreign students more kindly.
 Substitution of locative particle ‘-ey’ for object particle ‘-lul’

(2) Verbs

① Choice of verb between descriptive and processive verbs

(52) cencayng-ulo inha-n aphum-kwa pikuk-ul
 war-INS derive from-PAST-MOE pain-COM tragedy-ACC

alli-ko siph-un yenghwa-lako sayngkakha-nta.
 inform-CAU-PRE-CON want-PRE-CON movie-PRE-that- CON think-PRE-DEC

I think that this movie wants to let people know about the pain and tragedy that results from the war.
 Substitution of descriptive verb ‘alliko siphta’ for processive verb ‘alliko siphehata’

(53)	salamtul-i	komawu-n	mosup-ul	po-myen	pongsaha-nun
	people-NOM	appreciate-PRE-MOE	appearance-ACC	see-PRE-if-CON	serve-PRE-MOE
	polam-i	sayngki-nta.			
	fee-NOM	worth-PRE-DEC			
<p>When I see people appreciate me, I feel the worth of doing volunteer work. Substitution of the descriptive verb 'komapta' for processive verb 'komawehata'</p>					

(54)	"silswu	hay-to	kwaynchanhu-nikka	mwusep-ci	ma"-lako
	mistake	make-PRE-CON	alright-PRE-because-CON	be afraid-NEG-that-CON	
	apeci-ka	malhay-ss-ta.			
	father-NOM	told-PAST-DEC			
<p>My father told me "Don't be scared. It will be fine even if you make mistake" Substitution of the the descriptive verb 'mwusepta' for processive verb 'mwusewhata'</p>					

② Choice of verbs between active and causative verbs

(55)	ssuleyki-lul	pe-li-nun	salam- eykey	pelkum- ul	mwul -meyn
	trash-ACC	dump-PRE-MOE	person-DAT	fine-ACC	pay-PRE-if-CON
	hyokwaceki-n		pangpep-ipnita		
	effective-PRE-COP-MOE		method-PRE-COP-DEC		
<p>It would be effective (method) if (the government) imposes fines on people who dump trash. Substitution of active verb 'mwulta' for casuative verb 'mwulita' or 'mwulkey hata'</p>					

(56)	ku-nun	cwuk-ul	ttay-kkaci	cak-un	khilukhicusuthan- ul	palcenhaki
	he-TOP	die-FUT-MOE	when-until	small-PRE-MOE	Kyrgyzstan-ACC	develop -PRE-NOE
	wiha-y		manh-un	il-ul	hay-ss-supnita.	
	in order to-PRE-CON		a lot of-PRE-MOE	work-ACC	do-PAST-DEC	
<p>Right up until he passed away, he did lots of work in order to develop the small country of Kyrgyzstan until he passed away. Substitution of active verb 'palcenhata' for causative verb 'palcen sikhita'</p>						

(57)	swuphil	'namwu'-lul	ilk-un	hwu,	yeycen-ey	pwa-ss-ten
	essay	'Tree'-ACC	read-PAST-MOE	after	before-LOC	watch-PAST-RET-MOE
	tulama	'kaul tonghwa'- ka		tteolli-nta.		
	drama	fairy tale of autumn'-NOM		remind-CAU-PRE-DEC		
<p>After I read the essay 'Tree', the drama 'Autumn Fairy Tale', which I had watched before, came to my mind. Substitution of causative verb 'tteollita' for active verb 'tteoluta'</p>						

(58) manh-un hancok salamtul-**i** iyu-to kkaytat-ci mos-ha-ko
 many-PRE-MOE Han (Chinese) people-NOM reasons-also knowing-NEG-PRE-and-CON

kil-ina chaan-eyse **cwuky-ess-ta**
 street-or in car-LOC die-PASS-PAST-DEC

Many Han people **died/were killed** on the street or in their cars without knowing the reasons.
 Substitution of active 'cwukta' for passive form 'cwukimul tanghata' or causative verb 'cwukita'

(59) tewu-n yelum-i-nikka ipalso-eyse maynsol syamphwu-lo
 hot-PRE-MOE summer-COP-PRE-because-CON barbour-LOC menthol shampoo-INS

siwenhakey meli-**lul** **kam-key hay** cwu-nta
 refreshingly hair-ACC allow wash-CAU-PRE-DEC

The barber washes the customer's hair with menthol shampoo refreshingly because it is a hot summer.

Substitution of syntactic causative verb 'kamkey hata' for derived causative 'kamkita'

(60) tokilkwun-un khwili seom-ul kongkyekha-le
 german soldiers-TOP Curie Island-ACC attack-PRE- in order to-CON

wa-ss-ciman sem-uy alumtawum-ul po-ko salam-ul
 come-PAST-but-CON Island-POSS beauty-ACC see-PRE-and-CON people-ACC

mos **cwuk-key hay**-ss-ta
 cannot make people die-CAU-PAST-DEC

The German soldiers came to Curie Island to attack but they could not kill people after seeing the beauty of the Island.

Substitution of syntactic causative 'cwukkey hata' for derived causative 'cwukita'

(61) ai-ka kecismal-ul ha-myen pwumo-ka
 child-NOM lie-ACC do-PRE-if-CON parents-NOM

cengcik-sikhy-eya han-ta
 honest make- CAU have to-PRE-DEC

③ Choice of verb between active and passive verbs

(62) hankul-**i** hankwuk mwunhwa sangcingmwul-lo **kkop-nun** iyu-nun
 Hangul-NOM Korean culture symbol-INS select-ACT-PRE-MOE reason-TOP

taum-kwa kath-ta.
 following-COM like-PRE-DEC

The reasons why Hangul **is considered** one of Korea's cultural symbols are as follows.

Substitution of active verb 'kkopta (to select)' for derived passive verb 'kkophita (to be selected)

(63)	hankwuk	kil-ey	ssuleykithong-i	manhi	epse-se	ssuleyki-ka
	Korea	street-LOC	litter bin-NOM	many	is not-PRE-because-CON	rubbish-NOM
	koskos-ey	pelve	iss-nun	kes-ul	po-l	swu iss-ta
	all over-LOC	throw away-AUX-PRE-MOE		thing-ACC		can-PRE-DEC

We can see rubbish which **was thrown away** because there are not many litter bins on the street in Korea.

Substitution of active verb 'pelita' for syntactic passive verb 'pelyecita'

(64)	1893nyen	phulangsu	lwui	18sey-ka	tantwutay-eyse	chehyenghavy-ess-supnita.
	1893 year	France	Louis	18 th -NOM	guillotine-LOC	execute-ACT-PAST-DEC

The King Louis XVI of France **was executed** on the guillotine in 1893.

Substitution of active verb 'chehyenghata' for syntactic passive verb 'chehyengtoyta' or 'chehyengtanghata'

(65)	ce-nun	tayhak	3nyen-tongan	manh-un	kwicwungha-n	kyenghem- ul.
	I-TOP	university	3years-during	many-PRE-MOE	valuable-PRE-MOE	experience-ACC
		ssahy	ess-supnita			
		accumulate-PASS-PAST-DEC				

I **accumulated** many valuable experiences during 3years of undergraduate study.

The substitution of active verb 'ssahta' for derived passive verb 'ssahita'

(66)	hwacangsil	peyk	yeki ceki-eyse	nakse- lul	poi-l	swu iss-ta
	Toilet	wall	here and there-LOC	scribble-ACC	see-PASS	can-PRE-DEC

(We) could see scribbles here and there on the wall in toilet.

The substitution of passive verb 'poita' for active verb 'pota'

(67)	mwul-uy	onto-ka	100to-ka	toy-myen	mwul-i
	water-POSS	temperature-NOM	100-NOM	become-PRE-if-CON	water-NOM
	kkulh-eci-ko		0to-ka	toy-myen	mwul-i
	boil-PASS-PRE-and-CON		0degree-NOM	become-PRE-if-CON	water-NOM
	el-eci-nta				
	freez-PASS-PRE-DEC				

When the temperature reaches 100 degrees, the water **boils**, if the temperature is 0 degree, it **freezes**.

The substitution of passive verb 'kkulhecita' for active verb 'kkulhta'

The substitution of passive verb 'elecita' for active verb 'elta'

(68)	wungtong-ul sport-ACC	haki- cen, do-PRE-NOE-before	cwunpi warming up	wuntong-ul exercise-ACC	haci anh-umyen do not-NEG-PRE-if-CON
	pwusang-toyl get injured-PASS	swu iss-unikka... can-PRE-because-CON..			
<p>Because if (you) do not do warm up exercises before doing sport, you could get injured The substitution of verb 'tanghata' or 'ipta' for verb 'toyta'</p>					

(69)	chinkwu-wa friends-COM	swuta-lul chat-ACC	ttel-ko talk-PRE-and-CON	masiss-nun delicious-PRE-MOE	umsik-ul foold-ACC	hamkkey together
	mek-umyen eat-PRE-if-CON	suthuleysu-ka stress-NOM	phwul-eci-nta release-PASS-PRE-DEC			
<p>I am relaxed when I chat with my friends and eat delicious food. The substitution of syntactic passive verb 'pwulecita' for derived passive verb 'pwulita'</p>						

④ Choice of verb between causative and passive verbs

(70)	kangha-n strong-PRE-MOE	him-i power-NOM	cenguy-lamyen justice-PRE-if-CON	kwukka-uy country-POSS	pep law	hyolyek-to validity-also	ta all
	eps-ay-l break-CAU	swu iss-ta can-PRE-DEC					
<p>If strength is equated to justice, the validity of a country's law is null and void. Substitution of causative verb 'epsayta' for passive verb 'epsecita' or Omission of subject</p>							

(71)	con John Lee	li Hancock	hayngkhok director-NOM	kamtok-i Michael	maikhul Lewis-NOM	lwulisu-ka write-PAST-MOE	ss-un
	<pwullaintu saitu: keyimuy cinhwa>-lul <Blind Side: Evolution of a Game>-ACC	sukhulin-ulo Screen-INS	olmkyeci-n move-PASS-PAST-MOE				
	cakphwum-ita work-COP-PRE-DEC						
<p>'The Blind Side: Evolution of a Game' was written by Michael Lewis and adopted for the silver screen by direct John Lee Hancock. Substitution of passive verb 'olmkyecita' for causative verb 'olmkita'</p>							

(3) Connectives

① Substitution of wrong connective

(72) wuli to talliki tayhoy-eyse kacang coh-un kilok-ul
our province running race-LOC best good-PRE-MOE record-ACC

seywe-ss-ese sang-ul pat-ki-to hay-ss-supnita.
set-PAST- because-CON prize-ACC receive-PRE-NOE-also do-PAST-DEC

I won a prize in our province's running race by setting the best record.
Addition of past prefinal ending '-ess-'

(73) ku tanetul sai-uy acwu misoha-n chai-ka
those words between-POSS very subtle-PRE-MOE difference-NOM

iss-ese sinkyeng ssu-**ko** cektangha-n tane-lul
is-PRE-because- CON pay attention -PRE-and -CON appropriate-PRE-MOE word-ACC

kol-a sse-ya ha-nta
select-PRE-and-CON use have to- AUX-PRE-DEC

We have to select appropriate word carefully because there are subtle differences between words.
The substitution of connective '-ko (and)'' for connective '-a/ese (because)'

(74) twayci 1-uy cip-un ciphwulaki tapal-lo mantu-n
pig 1-POSS house-TOP straw bundle-INS make-PAST-MOE

kes-i-lase nuktay-ka palam-ul pwul-**myen** han peney
thing-COP-PRE-because-CON wolf-NOM wind-ACC blow-PRE-if-CON once

pwusecye pelye-ss-ta.
destroy-PASS-PAST-DEC

When the wolf blew, the house was destroyed at once because the house of Pig 1 was made of straw.
The substitution of connective '-myen (if)'' for connective '-ca (when, as)'

(75) hankwuk umsik-un sayngkak-pota mayw-ul ppwun-man ani-la
Korean food-TOP thought-than spicy-FUT-MOE not only but-PRE-CON

mek-**taka** maywu-n mas-i kanghay-ci-nta
eat-PRE-while-CON spicy-PRE-MOE taste-NOM get stronger-PASS-PRE-DEC

Korean food is not just spicier than you think, the more you eat the spicier it gets.
The substitution of connective '-taka (while)'' for connective '-(u)l swulok (the more and more)'

(76) hankwuk-ey-nun motun il-i ppalli han-tako hay-ss-nuntey
 Korea-LOC-TOP all work-NOM quickly do-PRE-CON say-PAST-CON

hankwuk-ey o-**ta poni** cengmal kuleh-ta.
 Korea-LOC come-PRE- keep doing-CON really true-PRE-DEC

It is said that (Korean people) do everything quickly, I found that it is true after I came to Korea.
 The substitution of connective ‘-ta poni (keep doing)’ for connective ‘-a/e poni (after having something)’

② Tense and connectives

(77) kulente y hankwuk-ey myechil-pakk-ey iss-ci anh-**ciman** chespenccay-wa
 by the way Korea-LOC few days-only-LOC stay-NEG-PRE-but-CON first time-COM

talli hankwuk-ul saylopkey nukky-ecin-ta
 differently Korea-ACC differently feel-PASS-PRE-DEC

Even though I have been in Korea for no more than a few days, I feel differently about Korea to how I did at first.

Omission of past prefinal ending in front of connective ‘-ciman’

(78) khilukhicusuthan-ey chungkusu aithumattopu-lako ha-nun hwullyungha-n
 Kyrgyzstan-LOC Chingiz Aitmatov-PRE-CON is called-PRE-MOE great-PRE-MOE

cakka-ka iss-tako taytap-**hay-ssess-teni** yeki salamtul-i
 writer-NOM exist-PRE-CON answer-PAST-PAST-since-CON here people-NOM

molu-te-lakoyo.
 do not know-RET-DEC

I answered that there was a great novelist, Chingiz Aitmatov, in Kyrgyzstan, but people here did not know him.

Addition of past tense ‘-ess-’ to connective ‘-teni (since)’

(79) cey-ka com yongki-lul **nav-ss-te-lamven** salangha-ntako **kopavkhay-ss-supnita**.
 I-NOM more courage-ACC pluck-PAST-RET-if-CON love-PRE-CON confess-PAST-DEC

If I screwed up my courage more, I would have confessed my love.

Substitution of past perfect tense for past tense

③ Subject agreement and connectives

(80)	ceyil	chinha-n	chinkwu-nun	pappu-killay	koyencen-ey
	best close-PRE-MOE	friend-TOP	busy-PRE-so-CON	sport competition between Korea and	
			o-ci	anh-keyss-tako	ha-ss-ta.
	Yonsei Universities-LOC	come-NEG-FUT-that-CON	say-PAST-DEC		
My closest friend told me that she would not come to the sport competition between Korea and Yonsei Universities.					
Substitution of the connective ‘-a/se (because)’ for ‘-kilay (so, because)’					

(81)	mwulka-nun	pissa-ntey	yesengtul-un	ai-lul
	living cost-TOP	expensive-PRE-but-CON	women-TOP	child-ACC
	khiwu- nulako	namcatul-un	ton-ul	te
	take case of-PRE-because-CON	men-TOP	money-ACC	more
	pel-eya	ha-nta.		
	make-should-AUX-PRE-DEC			
Men have to make more money because women take care of children and the cost of living high.				
Substitution of the for ‘-nulako (because, what with) for connective ‘-nikka (because)’				

(82)	ku	ttay	kimswuhwan	chwukikyengnim-ul	manna-ssteni	mwukcwu-lul
	that	time	Soohwan Kim	cardinal-ACC	meet-PAST- since-CON	rosary-ACC
	pat-ass-ta.					
	receive-PAST-DEC					
When (I) met the cardinal Soohwan Kim, (I) received the rosary (from him)						
Substitution of ‘-assteni (since)’ for the connective ‘-a/ese (because)’						

(83)	ku	ttay	kimswuhwan	chwukikyengnim-ul	manna-ssteni	chwukikyengnim-kkeyse
	that	time	Soohwan Kim	cardinal-ACC	meet-PAST-CON	cardinal-NOM-HON
	mwukcwu-lul	na-eykey	cwu-sye-ss-ta.			
	Rosary-ACC	me-DAT	give-HON-PAST-DEC			

④ Connectives and sentence endings

(84)	ku	kyoswunim-i	mwusew- ese	cosimha-lako	somwun-ul
	that	professor-NOM	scary-PRE-because- CON	be careful –PRE-CON	news-ACC
	tu-le	iss-ess-ta.			
	hear- PAST-DEC				
I was told to be careful of the professor because he is scary man.					
Substitution of connective ‘-a/e se (because)’ for connective ‘-(u)nikka ’					

(85)	intheneys-i internet-NOM	pokup toy-ki propagate-PASS-PRE-NOE	cen-ey before-LOC	wuli-nun we-TOP	chinkwu-wa friend-COM
	iyakiha- lyemyen talk-PRE- in order to -CON	hangsang always	khephisyop-ey coffe shop-LOC	ka-ss-ta go-PAST-DEC	
<p>Before the Internet spread, we always had to go to a coffee shop if we wanted to talk to our friends. Substitution of connective ‘-lyemyen (if you intend to)’ for connective ‘-ki wihay (in order to)’</p>					

⑤ Connectives and verbs

(86)	wuli-nun we-TOP	hakkyo university	saynghwal-lo activity-INS	<u>pappu-nulako</u> busy-PRE-because-CON	manna-nun meet-PRE-MOE	kihoy-to chance-also
	<p>Reduce-PASS-PAST-DEC</p>					
<p>We have less chance to meet because we are busy with university activities.. Substitution of connective ‘-nulako (because)’ for connective ‘-a/ese (because)’</p>						

(87)	ku-nun he-TOP	maltetumcung-ul stammer-ACC	kisangchenoyha-n extraordinary-PRE-MOE	chilyopep-ul therapy-ACC	<u>thongha-ko</u> through-PRE-and- CON
	<p>kukpokha-key toy-nta overcome become -AUX-PRE-DEC</p>				
<p>He overcame his stammer through extraordinary therapy. Substitution of connective ‘-ko’ for connective ‘-a/ese’</p>					

(4) Nominal forms

(88)	pwumo-ka parent-NOM	palukey well	hayngtonghay-ya behave-PRE-whne-CON	ai-to child-also	palu-key well	hayngtongha- l behave-FUT-MOE
	<p>malyen-ita. way-COP-PRE -DEC</p>					
<p>When parents behave well, their children will behave well as well. Substitution of modifier ‘-(u)l’ for nominal form ‘-ki’ or adverbial derived ending ‘-key’</p>						

(89)	hankwuksalam-un Korean people-TOP	kenkangha-key healthy	mek-nun eat-PRE-MOE	kes-ul thing-ACC	chwukwuha-yse pursue-PRE-because-CON
	<p>yoliha-l cook-FUT-MOE</p> <p>ttay cwulo when mostly</p> <p><u>kkulhi-m-ul</u> boiling-CAU-PRE-NOE-ACC</p> <p>manhi sayongha-nta. many use-PRE-DEC</p>				
<p>Korean people usually boil food when they cook because Korean people pursue eating healthily. Substitution of nominal form ‘-um’ for ‘kkulhi-nun(nominal form)’+ noun ‘pangpep (method)’</p>					

(90) inlyu-uy mwunmyeng-to ene-ka nathanaki-pwuthe
 human-POSS civilisation-also language-NOM appear-PRE-NOE-from

sicaktoy-ess-ta.
 start-PASS-PAST-DEC

Human civilisation was started from when language appeared.
 Substitution of nominal form ‘-ki’ for connective ‘-myense (while)’

(91) yangsayng taykukkwen-un hyelayk swunhwan sikhi-ki-wa
 Tai chi-TOP blood circulation making -PRE-NOE-COM

sincin taysa-uy cocelha-ki-ey maywu coh-ki ttaymwun-ita.
 metabolism-POSS controlling-PRE-NOE-LOC very good-PRE-NOE because-PRE-COP-DET

Tai chi is very good for the circulation of blood and control of metabolism

Addition of the form ‘verb sikhita +nominal form -ki’
 Addition of the form ‘verb hata +nominal form -ki’

(92) i kul-ul te manh-un salamtul-i ilk-e han pen casin-uy
 This essay-ACC more many-PRE-MOE people-NOM read-PRE- and-CON once own-POSS

salm-ul tolapo-nun kes-ul kwenha-ko siph-ta
 life-ACC looking back-PRE-MOE thing-ACC recommend want-AUX-PRE-DEC

I would like to recommend people read this essay and just once look back at their life.
 Substitution of modifier ‘-nun+noun ‘kes’ for nominal form ‘-ki’

(93) wisayng mwuncey-ey tayha-y pwulan-ul nukky-e
 sanitary problem-LOC concerning-PRE-CON anxiety-ACC feel-PRE-because- CON

chicu mek-um-ul kkelye-ss-ciman
 cheese eating-PRE-NOE-ACC avoid-PAST-but-CON

People avoided eating cheese because they felt uneasy about sanitary matters...
 Substitution of nominal form ‘-um’ for nominal form ‘-ki’

(94) chaysik-ul olay ha-myen hyelayk kholeytsutheylo-i
 vegetarian diet-ACC long do-PRE-if-CON blood cholesterol-NOM

naylyeka-ki-ey ttal-a hyelkwan kinung-to kaysenha-key toy-nta.
 reduce-PRE-NOE-LOC as-PRE-CON vessel function-also improvebecome-PRE-DEC

If people continue being on vegetarian diet for long time, the function of their blood vessels improves as the cholesterol in their blood is reduced.
 Substitution of nominal form ‘-ki’ for nominal form ‘-m’

(5) Adverbs

① Restriction of predicates

(95) cey-ka hankwuk-ey wa-se cevil nukki-n kes-un
I-NOM Korea-LOC come-PRE-after-CON most feel-PRE-MOE thing-TOP

pesu-ka nemwu ppalukey talli-ntanun cem-ip-nita.
bus-NOM too fastly run-PRE-MOE thing-COP-PRE-DEC

What I felt most after I came to Korea is that buses drive too fast.

Addition of ‘cevil (most, first)’

(96) peltul-uy ciptan-ey-to wikyey cilse-ka cal concauha-nta
bee-POSS group-LOC-also rank order-NOM well exist-PRE-DEC

A hierarchy exists well in a group of bees.

Addition of adverb ‘cal (well)’

② Restriction of tense

(97) na-nun yocum maum-ey tu-nun yenghwa-lul han phyen po-ass-ta.
I-TOP recently heart-LOC like-PRE-MOE movie-ACC one watch-PAST-DEC

I recently watched one movie which I liked.

Substitution of ‘yocum’ (recently) for ‘choykun’ (recently)

(98) wuli-nun celm-ki ttaymwun-ey aph-un il-to pangkum
we-TOP young-PRE-NOE because-LOC painful-PRE-MOE thing-also just before

ta kukpokha-l swu issta.
all overcome can-PRE-DEC

We could overcome pain shortly because we are young.

Substitution of ‘pangkum’ (just before) for ‘kumpang’ (quickly)

③ Restriction of negation

(99) hankwuk-eyse-nun sensayngnim-kkey kkok mwulken-ul han son-ulo
Korea-LOC-TOP teacher-DAT-HON must things-ACC one hand-INS

cwu-meyn an toy-pnita.
give-PRE-if-CON not-NEG- should-PRE-DEC

You should not give things to a teacher using one hand.

Substitution of ‘kkok’ (must) for ‘celtay’ (never)

(100) insayng-ul salaka-l ttay yeysangha-ci mosha-n il-un
 life-ACC live-FUT-MOE when predict-PRE-CON cannot-NEG-PRE-MOE thing-TOP

celtay ilena-nikka...
 never happen-PRE-because-CON..

While we live life unexpected thing always happen..
 Substitution of 'celtay' (never) for 'hangsang' (always) or 'enceyna' (always)

④ **Restriction of connectives**

(101) **eccina** telep-ko phwuseokphwuseokha-n sukheyliku-lul mwusiha-ci
 so dirty-PRE-and-CON dough-faced-PRE-MOE Skellig-ACC ignore-PRE

anh-ko ttattushakey mac-a..
 not-NEG-PRE-and-CON warmly welcome-PRE-and-CON

(They) did not ignore Skellig who is dirty and dough-faced, but welcomed him warmly..
 Addition of adverb 'eccina (so)'

(102) **elmana** himt-un il-i iss-eto cham-ko
 how hard-PRE-MOE work-NOM is-PRE-even if-CON endure-PRE-CON

iky-e naka-nun cwuinkong-chelem
 overcome-PRE-MOE main character-like

However, many hardships one has (in life) like the main character who endures and overcomes..
 Substitution of adverb 'elmana' for 'amwuli'

(103) **selyeng** kwisa-ey ipsaha-myen kwisa-ey towum-i
 even if your company-LOC enter-PRE-if-CON your company-LOC help-NOM

toy-tolok choisen-ul taha-keyss-supnita.
 become-PRE-in order to-CON my best-ACC I do-FUT-DEC

If I enter your company, I will do my best to be helpful to it.
 Substitution of adverb 'selyeng' (even if) for noun 'manyak' (if)

Dictionary entry examples

< Table 1: Case frame information in entries of ‘manhta’ and ‘ttwienata’ >

<p>manhta Adjective (many, a lot) ▷ ①ey ②ka manhta. (①LOC) ②NOM V</p>	<p>ttwienata Adjective (be excellent, outstanding) ▷ ①i ttwienata ①NOM V ▷ ①i ②ey ttwienata ①NOM ②LOC V</p>
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< Table 2: Entry of verb ‘kathta’ >

<p>kathta*** [kattta kaŋ'a] adjective</p> <p>1. Appearance or characteristic of something is not different each other. There is no difference.</p> <p>¶ i paci-<u>wa</u> saykkal-<u>i</u> <u>kath</u>-un pullawusu-lul this trousers-COM colour-NOM same-PRE-MOE blouse-ACC poyecwu-sey-yo. show-CAU-HOE-PRE-IMP (Please show me the blouse which is the same colour as these trousers)</p> <p>hyeng-<u>kwa</u> na-<u>nun</u> khi-<u>ka</u> <u>kath</u>-ayo. Older brother-COM I-TOP height-NOM same-PRE-DEC (I am the same height as my brother)</p> <p>oppa<u>wa</u> ce<u>nun</u> achim-mata <u>kathun</u> pesu-lul Older brother-COM I-TOP morning every same-PRE-MOE bus-ACC tha-yo. take-PRE-DEC (My older brother and I take the same bus every morning).</p> <p>▷ ①i ②wa kathta (①NOM ②COM V)</p> <p>2. Comparing to other things, the meaning or characteristic is similar.</p> <p>¶ swumi ssi-<u>nun</u> maum-<u>i</u> chensa-<u>wa</u> <u>kath</u>-ayo. Sumi-TOP heart-NOM angel-COM same-PRE-DEC (Sumi's heart is like an angel's.)</p> <p>chelswu-ka ha-nun cis-<u>i</u> kkok elinai-<u>wa</u> Chulsoo-NOM does-PRE-MOE behaviour-NOM exactly child-COM</p> <p><u>kath</u>-ta. same-PRE-DEC (Chulsoo's behaviour is exactly the same as a child's.)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②wa kathta (①NOM ②COM V)</p>

< Table 3: Case frames for verb 'kathta' (be the same) >

①i	②i	③wa	kathta	=	①uy	②i	③wa	kathta
NOM	NOM	COM	Verb	=	POSS	NOM	COM	Verb

(② is a possession of ① in many many cases such as heart, behaviour, character..)

< Table 4: Entry of the verb 'cohta' >

cohta Adjective

1. ¶ cey-ka sa-nun haswukcip-un 9chung-i-ntey
 I –NOM live-PRE-MOE lodging house-TOP 9th floor-COP-PRE-CON
 cenmang-to **coh-ko** kakyek-to ssa-pnita
 view-also good-PRE-and-CON the price –also cheap-PRE-DEC

(The lodging house where I live is on the 9th floor. The view is good and price is cheap.)

paykhwacem-ey-nun **coh-un** mwulken-to manh-ta
 department store-LOC-TOP good-PRE-MOE product-also a lot-PRE-DEC

(There are many good products in the department store).
 ▷ ①i cohta (Subject-Verb)

3. ¶ na-nun wulipan-eyse Youngmi-ka ceil **coh-ayo.**
 I-TOP our class-LOC Youngmi-NOM most good/like-PRE-DEC

(I like Youngmi most in our class)

ce-nun wuntong cwung-eyse swuyeng-i ceil **coh-ayo**
 I –TOP sports among-LOC swimming-NOM most good/like-PRE-DEC

(I like swimming the most of all sports)
 ▷ ①i ②ka cohta (Subject 1- Subject 2-V) (① person ② noun)

< Table 5: Case frames of emotional descriptive verbs >

	Case Frame	-a/e hata form
mwusepta (be scared)	▷ ①i mwusepta (S-V) ▷ ①i ②ka mwusepta. (S1-S2-V) ▷ ①i -kika mwusepta (S1- S2-V)	X
elyepta (be difficult)	▷ ①i elyept (S-V) ▷ ①i -kika elyepta (S1-S2-V)	X
sulphuta (be sad)	▷ ①i (②ka) sulphuta. (S1-(S2)-V)	O
kipputa (be pleased)	▷ ①i (②ka/-nun kesi) kipputa (S1-(S2)-V) ▷ ①i –a/ese kipputa (S- Connective ending a/ese-V)	O

< Table 6: Case frames for the verb ‘cohta’ >

①i ②ka cohta (S1- S2- V)	(① first person ‘I’)
①i ②ka coha?/choni? (S1-S2-V?)	(① second person ‘you’)
☞ ①i ②lul cohahata (S-O-V)	(① all persons can be used)

< Table 7: Case frames of the verb ‘pyenhata (to change)’ >

pyenhata (change)	
1. ①i (②lo) pyenhata	S- (INS)- V
①i –key pyenhata	S- adverb-deriving ending ‘key’ -Verb
2. ①i pyenhata	S-V (① taste/shape)
3. ①i pyenhata	S-V (① person/heart/emotion)

< Table 8: Case frames of the verb ‘kata’ >

kata ^{1***} [to home] Verb	
▷ ①i ②ey/eykey/lo kata (S- LOC/DAT/INS- V)	(① person/animal ② place/person)
▷ ①i ②lul kata (S-O-V)	(① person/animal ② place/person)

< Table 9: Case frames of the verb ‘thata’ >

thata Verb	
1. take a place in somewhere	
▷ ①i ②ey thata (S-LOC-V)	(① person ② transport/seat)
2. move using form of transport	
▷ ①i ②lul thata (S-O-V)	(① person ② transport/horse)

< Table 10: Case frames of ‘kakkwuta’ and ‘chilhata’ >

Verb	Case frame
kakkwuta (to grow)	▷ ①i ②ey ③ul kakkwuta (S-LOC-O-V) (① person ② garden, field, farm ③ plant)
chilhata (to paint)	▷ ①i ②lul ③ulo chilhata (S-O-INS-V) (② place ③ paint, colour..) ①i ②ey ③ul chilhata (S-LOC-O-V) (② place ③ paint, colour,)

< Table 11: Case frames in the entries of three verbs >

Verb	Case frame
ttaylita (to hit)	①i ②lul (③ulo) ttaylita (S-O-(LOC)-V) (①person/animal ③rod/fist/cane..) ①i ②lul ttaylita (S-O-V) (① rain/wave/wind)
sata (to buy)	①i ②lul sata (S-O-V)
khiwuta (to raise/own)	①i ②lul khiwuta (S-O-V) (① person/animal ② person/animal/plant)

< Table 12: Examples of morphological errors >

*nayngcenghanta/*sincwunghanta/*ssalssalhanta/*philyohanta/*cwungyohanta (*cold /*cautious /*chilly /*necessary /*important)

< Table 13: Examples of morphological errors >

kyellon (conclusion), konghay (pollution), pakswu(applause), pemcoy (crime), soum (noise), sungpwu (game/match), yenghyang (influence), inyen (replation), cinsim (cordiality), thongcung (pain), sinnyem (belief)

< Table 14: Entry of predicate noun ‘selchi’ >

selchi (installation) related word: selchitoyta, selchihata ◇ selchilul hata ☞ selchihata

< Table 15: Case frames in the entries of ‘hata’ pattern verbs >

Verbs	Case Frames
philyohata (to need)	①i ②ka philyohata (S1-S2-V) ①i ②ey/ekey philyohata (S-LOC/DAT-V) ①i -nun teyey philyohata (S-nun teyey- V) Connective –nun teyey
hwaltonghata (to do)	①i hwaltonghata (S-V) ①i (②ulo) hwaltonghata (S-INS-V)
tochakhata (to arrive)	①i ②ey tochakhata (S-LOC-V)

< Table 16: Entries related to predicate noun ‘paltal’ >

paltal	noun
◇ paltalul hata	↔ paltalhata
◇ paltali toyta	↔ paltaltoyta
paltalhata	▷ ①i paltalhata (S-V)
paltaltoyta	▷ ①i paltaltoyta (S-V)

< Table 17: Entries related to the predicate noun ‘wanseng’ >

wanseng (completion)	
Related word:	wansengtoyta · wansenghata
◇ wansengul hata	↔ wansenghata
◇ wansengi toyta	↔ wansengtoyta
wansengtoyta	wansenghata
▷ ①i wansengtoyta (S-V)	▷ ①i ②lul wansenghata (S-O-V)

< Table 18 Information in entries ‘mekta’ and ‘mekita’ >

mekta (eat) ¹ ★★★	Causative: mekita	Passive: mekhita
mekita ☆★★	Active: mekta	

< Table 19: Information in subentry ‘-key hata’ >

hata ² ★★☆	[akey hata] [hata hada] Verb(Auxiliary)		
▷ [-key · tolok] hata			
¶ emeni-lul	kippu-key ha-lyemyen	ettehkey ha-myen	coh-ulkka?
mother-ACC	happy CAU-PRE-in order to-CON	how do-PRE-if-CON	good-PRE-INT
(What should I do make my mother happy?)			
sensayngnim-i	aitulul	motwu kyosil-lo	tuleka-key hay-ss-ta
teacher-NOM	children	all classroom-INS	go into-CAU-PAST-DEC
(Teacher made all the children go into the classroom)			
aph-ulo	ilccik	tuleo-tolok ha-lkeyyo.	
in the future-INS	early	come-PRE-so that-CON- FUT-DEC	
(I will come home early in the future.)			

< Table 20: Information in entry ‘sikhita’ >

<p>sikhita*** [sikhita sik^hida] Verb</p> <p>1. (to someone) make to do</p> <p>¶way na-hanthey-man il-ul sikhi-nun keya? Why I-DAT-only work-ACC put-CAU-PRE-MOE thing-COP-PRE-IMP</p> <p>(Why do you put only me to work?)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②eykey ③ul sikhita (S-Adv-O-V) (① person ② person ③ work/word/song)</p> <p>¶sensayngnim-un na-eykey chayk-ul kacyeo-lako sikhisy-ess-ta Teacher-TOP I-DAT book-ACC bring-PRE-CON ask-CAU-PAST-DEC</p> <p>(Teacher asked me to/made me bring the book)</p> <p>emeni-nun na-eykey yak-ul sao-lako sikhye-ss-eyo. Mother-TOP I-DAT medicine-ACC buy-PRE-CON ask-CAU-PAST-DEC</p> <p>(Mother asked me to/made me buy medicine)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②eykey -lako sikhita (S-Adv- V) (① person ② person)</p> <p>¶enni-nun nay-ka onul cenyek selkeci-lul ta sister-TOP I-NOM today night washing dishes-ACC all</p> <p>ha-tolok sikhy-ess-ta do-PRE-in order to-CON ask-PAST-DEC</p> <p>(My sister made me wash all the dishes tonight)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②eykey [-key/tolok] sikhita (S-Ad [-adverb deriving ending] V) (① person ② person)</p>

< Table 21: Case frame in entries of ‘nophita’ and ‘cwukita’ >

<p>nophita Verb</p> <p>(to make something high, to increase)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②lul nophita (Subject-Object-Verb) (① person/animal ② person/animal)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②lul ③eykey nophita to use honorific expression (Subject-Object-Dat-Verb) (① person ② person ③ word)</p>	<p>cwukita Verb</p> <p>(to kill)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②lul cwukita (Subject-Object-Verb) (① person/animal ② person/animal)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②lul cwukita (Subject-Object-Verb) (① person/animal ② sound/volume)</p>
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< Table 22: Information in entry ‘mekita’ >

<p>mekita ☆☆☆ [mekita məgida] verb</p> <p>1. (to feed someone) make someone to eat/drink</p> <p>¶ aki-lul an-ko wuyu-lul mek-ye pwayo. baby-ACC hold-PRE-and-CON milk-ACC give-CAU-PRE-IMP (Please hold the baby and give milk to the baby)</p> <p>emeni-ka ai-eykey pap-ul mek-ipnita mother-NOM child-DAT meal-ACC make eat-PRE-DEC (Mother makes the child have a meal)</p> <p>▷ ①i ②eykey ③ul mekita (Subject-Dative-Object-Verb) (② person/animal ③ food/medicine.)</p>

< Table 23: Information about ‘-a/ecita’ in entry for ‘cita’ >

<p>cita 5 Verb Auxiliary [use like ‘nacita’, ‘yeyppecita’]</p> <p>3. To change into a certain state or to be changed into a certain state by a third party.</p> <p>¶ ipwucali-ka yamcenhi kaye-cye iss-ess-ta. bedding-NOM well fold up-PASS-PAST-DEC (The bedding was fold up well.)</p> <p>kwutwu-ka kkaykkusha-key takkacy-ess-eyo? shoes -NOM clean-ADV polished-PASS-PAST-INT (Were the shoes polished well?)</p> <p>i wusa-i cal phy-eci-ci anh-ayo. this umbrella-NOM well not open-NEG-PRE-DEC (This umbrella is not opened well.)</p> <p>Reference: It follows transitive verbs such as ‘kayta (fold up)’ or ‘ssahta (pile up)’ and makes them into intransitive verbs.</p>

< Table 24: Information in the entry for ‘chingchan’ (compliment) >

<p>chingchan (compliment, praise Noun): related word: chingchanhata (to give a compliment) ▷ chingchanul [tutta (listen)] [patta (receive)] (receive, enjoy praise)</p>

< Table 25: Case frames in the entries for four verbs >

	kelita (to be hung)	tathita (be closed)	pwullita (come untied)	pakhita (be stuck)
Case frame	①i ②ey kelita (S-Loc-V)	①i tathita (S-V)	①i pwullita (S-V)	①i ②ey pakhita (S-Loc-V)

< Table 26: Information in the entry for ‘caphita’ >

<p>caphita verb</p> <p>2. (cannot run away) be caught</p> <p>¶ i kunpang-ey-nun ocinge-ka caphi-nta. this near-LOC-TOP octopuse-NOM be caught-PASS-PRE-DEC</p> <p>(Octopuses are caught in this area.)</p> <p>totwuk-i kyengchalkwn-eykey caphy-ess-ta thief-NOM police officer-DAT be caught-PASS-PAST-DEC</p> <p>(The thief was caught by the police officer.)</p> <p>▷ ①i (②eykey) caphita. (S-(Dat)-V) (② person/animal)</p> <p>5. (weakpoint or weakness) is revealed to other people</p> <p>¶ ku-eykey yakcem-ul caphy-e pely-ess-uni He-DAT weak point-ACC be caught-PASS-PAST-because-CON</p> <p>khunil-ita. awful-COP-PRE-DEC</p> <p>(It is awful that he has something on me)</p> <p>Minswu-eykey hum-i caphi-myen Minsoo-DAT weakness-NOM be caught-PASS-PRE-if-CON</p> <p>khunil-ita. awful-COP-PRE-DEC</p> <p>(If Minsoo has something on me, it would be awful.)</p> <p>▷ ①i (②eykey) ③ul caphita. (S-Ad-O-V) (① person ② person ③ weakness/weakpoint..)</p>

< Table 27: Information in the entry for ‘capta’ >

<p>capta Verb (to catch)</p> <p>5. find out (weakness or proof) and use it</p> <p>¶ senpaytul-un wuli-uy yakcem-ul cap-a senior students-NOM our-POSS weak point-ACC catch-PRE-and-CON</p> <p>wuli-lul kyolophy-ess-ta we-ACC bully-ACT-PAST-DEC</p> <p>Senior students bullied us using our weak point.</p> <p>▷ ①i ②lul capta (① person ② thing) (S-O-V)</p>

< Table 28: Case frames in the entry for ‘tanghata’ >

<p>tanghata Verb</p> <p>▷ ①i ②eykey ③ul tanghata. (S-Dat-O-V)</p> <p>(③ hyeppak (threat), moyouk (insult), paysin (betray), hay (damage))</p> <p>▷ ①i ②ul tanghata. (S-O-V) (② accident, robbery, death, damage, fire..)</p>

< Table 29: Information in the entry for ‘pihata’ >

<p>pihata Verb</p> <p>compare</p> <table> <tr> <td>¶ike-n</td> <td>cen-ey</td> <td>poeye tuly-ess-ten</td> <td>kes-kwa-nun</td> </tr> <tr> <td>This-TOP</td> <td>before-LOC</td> <td>show-PAST-RET-MOE</td> <td>thing-COM-TOP</td> </tr> </table> <p><u>pi-hal swu-ka eps-nun</u> mwulken-i-pnita. comparecannot-PRE-MOE product-COP-DEC</p> <p>This product cannot compare to the one I showed you before.</p> <table> <tr> <td>i</td> <td>kos-ey</td> <td>iss-nun</td> <td>mwulken-uy</td> <td>tayangham-un</td> </tr> <tr> <td>this</td> <td>place-LOC</td> <td>are-PRE-MOE</td> <td>product-POSS</td> <td>variety- TOP</td> </tr> </table> <p>paykhwacem-ey <u>pi-hal pa-ka ani-pnita.</u> department store-LOC not compare- NEG-PRE-DEC</p> <p>The variety of products here cannot compare with department stores.</p> <p>▷ ①i ②lul ③ey pihata (Subject-Object-Loc-Verb)</p> <p>Synonym: pikyohata, pikita</p> <p>Reference: It is usually used with ‘epsta’, ‘anita’.</p> <p>Pronunciation: [pihameyn], pihaye, pihapnita</p> <p>▷ [-n/un,-nun] [tey, kes-ey] [pihaye, pihay] in comparison with (past/present modifier) + (bound nouns+locative particle) + (Verb+ connective ‘-a/e’)</p> <p>▷ -ey [pihamyen, pihantamyen] (locative particle ‘ey’ +Verb+ connective ‘-myen (if)’)</p> <p>▷ -ey [pihaye, pihay(se)] (locative particle ‘ey’ +Verb+connective ‘-a/e’)</p> <p>▷ -piha-l tey eps-i (Verb+future modifier -l+ boun noun ‘tey’ + eps(not) + Adverb deriving ending ‘-i’ (beyond comparison)</p>	¶ike-n	cen-ey	poeye tuly-ess-ten	kes- kwa -nun	This-TOP	before-LOC	show-PAST-RET-MOE	thing-COM-TOP	i	kos-ey	iss-nun	mwulken-uy	tayangham-un	this	place-LOC	are-PRE-MOE	product-POSS	variety- TOP
¶ike-n	cen-ey	poeye tuly-ess-ten	kes- kwa -nun															
This-TOP	before-LOC	show-PAST-RET-MOE	thing-COM-TOP															
i	kos-ey	iss-nun	mwulken-uy	tayangham-un														
this	place-LOC	are-PRE-MOE	product-POSS	variety- TOP														

< Table 34: Information in the entry for ‘-taka’ >

-taka² ending (while)

1. Stopped something and started to do different thing on the way/ in the middle of doing something.

¶nemwu caymi-ka eps-ese yenghwa-lul po-**taka**
 too fun-NOM not-PRE-because- CON movie-ACC watch-PRE-while-CON

nawa pely-ess-eyo.
 leave-PAST-DEC

(The movie was very boring so I left the movie theatre halfway through the movie)

cip-ey twukoo-n kes-i i-ss-ese
 home-LOC leave-PRE-MOE thing-NOM is-PAST-because-CON

hakyou-ey ka-**taka** t ola-wass-eyo.
 school-LOC go-PRE-while-CON come back-PAST-DEC

(I came back home on the way to school because I left something at home)

icey-kkasewul-eyse-man sal-**taka** hantal cen-ey
 now until Seoul-LOC-only live-PRE-while-CON one month ago-LOC

pwusan-ulo naylye-wass-eyo.
 Busan-to come-PAST-DEC

(I lived in Seoul until I moved to Busan one month ago.)

< Table 35: Information in the entry for ‘-teni’ >

<p>-teni^{***} (ending)</p> <p>1. It indicates that the thing which speaker listened or experienced is/became a reason or basis for different event or state.</p> <p>¶ ecespam nuskey-kkaci il-ul hay-<u>ss-teni</u> mom-i Last night late until work-ACC do-PAST-since-CON condition-NOM</p> <p>phikonhay-yo. tired-PRE-DEC</p> <p>(I am very tired from working until late last night)</p> <p>swul-ul manhi masye-<u>ss-teni</u> wi-ka an alchol-ACC a lot drink-PAST-since-CON stomach-NOM not</p> <p>coha-cye-ss-eyo. good become-PAST-DEC</p> <p>(I have got trouble with my stomach because I have drunken a lot) Reference: It is used to connect sentences. It is usually used in the form of ‘-essteni-’.</p> <p>3. When an event or state happens different from the event or state experienced in the previous sentence.</p> <p>¶ ipen cwu naynay kipwun-i wuwulha-<u>teni</u> onul-un this week all feeling-NOM depressed-PRE-when-CON today-TOP</p> <p>coh-acye-ss-eyo. good-become-PAST-DEC</p> <p>(I have been depressed all this week but I feel better today.)</p> <p>aik-a elye-ss-ul ttay-nun mal-ul cal. child-NOM young-PER-MOE when-TOP word-ACC well</p> <p>tut-<u>teni</u> khe-se-nun an kulay-yo obey-PRE-when-CON grew up-after-CON-TOP not do -PRE-DEC (My child was obedient when he was young, but not anymore after growing up.)</p> <p>Reference: It is used to connect sentences. It indicates contrast between first sentence and second sentence.</p>

< Table 36: Syntactic codes for ‘-taka’ >

<p>Ⓐka V1+taka (Ⓐka) V2</p> <p>Ⓐ:subject V1 V2 should be different verbs</p> <p>V1: processive/descriptive verb present tense</p> <p>V2: processive/descriptive verb past, present, future</p> <p>Ⓐka V1+taka Ⓑka V1</p> <p>Ⓐ:subject V1 V2 should be the same verb</p> <p>First V1 : processive/descriptive verb present tense</p> <p>Second V1: processive/descriptive verb past, present, future</p>

< Table 39: Information in the entry for ‘-ki’ >

-ki (ending)
It is used to make predicates behave like a noun when attached to the stem of a predicate.
¶ halwu ppalli mana-key toy-ki-lul palap-nita One day soon meet-PRE-ADV become-PRE-NOE-ACC wish/hope-PRE-DEC
(I hope we can meet soon)
pangkum pap-ul mek-ess-ki ttaymwun-ey pay-ka an koph-ayo. Just before meal-ACC eat-PAST-NOE because-LOC not hungry-NEG-PRE-DEC
(I am not hungry because I had lunch just before)
Usage: It is preceded by stems of predicates and prefinal endings.
(ka-ki / mek-ki / po-ass-ki /ka-kyess-ki /ka-si-ki)
(go-PRE-NOM/eat-PRE-NOE/see-PAST-NOE/ go-FUT-NOE/go-HON-PRE-NOE)

< Table 40: Case frames of ‘yaksokhata’ >

yaksokata (to promise)
▷ ①i ②eykey -ki-lo yaksokhata (S-Loc-‘-ki’ +Ins- V)
▷ ①i ②wa -ul kes-ul yaksokhata (S-Com-‘-ul kes’+O-V)

< Table 41: Case frames in entries for four verbs >

olhta (right)	tumult (rare)	ikswukhata (familiar)	epsta (not)
▷ ①i olhta (S-V)	▷ ①i tumulta	▷ ①i [②ey/-nun teyey]	▷ ①i olhta
▷ ①i -nun kesi	(S-V)	ikswukhata	(S-V)
olhta		(S [ad/-nun teyey] V)	
(S1-nun kes-S2-V)			

< Table 42: Information in the entry for ‘ttaluta’ >

ttaluta Verb
▷ ~ey ttalase (according to) 1. ~ey uyhay locative particle Verb+connective ‘a/e’
¶ catongcha-ka manh-aci- m-ey ttal-a kongki-to napp-acy-esss-upnita. car-NOM increase-PRE-NOE-LOC-as-CON air-also worse-PAST-DEC (As the number of cars increase, the quality of air is becoming worse and worse.)
sanep-i patalha- m-ey ttal-a sahoy saynghwal-to te industry-NOM develop-PRE-NOE-LOC-as-CON social life-also more
pokcaphakey toy-ess-ta. complicatedly become-PAST-DEC (As industry develops, social life is becoming more complicated.)

< Table 43: Information in entry for ‘acwu’ >

<p>acwu : adverb</p> <p>1. degree or level is more than usual</p> <p>¶i secemeyn-un cenmwunse-wa capci-ka acwu manh-supnita. thibook store-TOP technical book-COM magazine-NOM very many-PRE-DEC</p> <p>(There are lots of of technical books and magazines in this book store. Synonyms: koyngcanghi, maywu, mopsi, mwuchek, kkway. Reference: The word ‘acwu’ is used with descriptive verbs, adverbs, modifiers or nouns which indicate degree.</p> <p>The adverb ‘mopsi’ is used to express negative meaning.</p> <p>2. wancenhi (completely)</p> <p>3. cenhye (never/at all)</p> <p>Reference: It is used with words which indicate negative meaning.</p> <p>4. yengwenhi yengyeng (forever)</p> <p>Reference: It preceeds verbs.</p> <p>Reference: difference between ‘mopsi’ and ‘acwu’</p>

< Table 44: Example sentence in the entry for ‘imi’ >

<p>imi adverb .already</p> <p>¶yenghwaphyo-nun imi maycintway-ss-eyo. movie ticket-TOP already be sold out-PASS-PAST-DEC Movie tickets were already sold out.</p> <p>imi sihem-i kkuthna-ss-nuntey hwuhoyha-myen mwe-hay-yo? already exam-NOM finish-PAST-and-CON regret-PRE-if-CON what do-PRE-INT</p> <p>The exam is already over, so there is no use regretting it.</p>

< Table 45: Information in reference box for comparing ‘pangkum’ and ‘kumpang’ >

<p>The difference between ‘pangkum’ (just before) and ‘kumpang’ (soon)</p> <p>The adverbs ‘pangkum’ and ‘kumpang’ both indicate ‘only short time ago’, but sometimes their usages are different. ‘pangkum’ indicates ‘a short time ago’ from the time of speaking so it is usually used with past tense. On the other hand, ‘kumpang’ can indicate before or after time of speaking so it can be used with all tenses.</p> <p>Example: pankum wa-ss-eyo (O) /kumpang wa-ss-eyo (O) Just before come-PAST-DEC soon come-PAST-DEC</p> <p>pankum kal-keyyo (X) /kumpang kal-keyyo (O) just before go-FUT-DEC soon go-FUT-DEC</p>

< Table 46: Case frame information in the entry for ‘palkta’ >

<p>palkta (to be bright)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. (the light of something) is light ▷ ①i palkta (S1+V) (① sun/moon/light/lamp) 2. (the feeling of colour) is light ▷ ①i palkta (S1+V) (① colour) 3. (facial expression, heart, atmosphere) is bright ▷ ①i palkta (S1+V) (①facial expression/face/voice/atmosphere) 4. (future) is bright ▷ ①i palkta (S1+V) (① future/prospect) 5. (manner) is good or decent ▷ ①i ②ka palkta (S1+S2+V) (① person ②manner, courteous) 6. (to certain thing) have lots of knowledge and experience ▷ ①i ②ey palkta (S1+ Loc+V) (② part/field)

< Table 47: Coded patterns of connective ending ‘-nulako’ >

<p>Ⓐka ①+nulako, (Ⓐ)ka ②+ an/mos V/haci mos V (S1-V+ nulako, (S1)-negation-V)</p> <p>Ⓐ =Subject</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> ① processive verb (only present tense can be used) ② processive verb (past, present or future tense can be used) Imperative sentences such as ‘-(u) seyyo’ or ‘(u)psita’ does not occur in ② <p>Ⓐka ①+nulako (Ⓐ)ka ② (S1-V+nulako, (S1) V)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> ① processive verb (only present tense can be used) ② descriptive verbs such as phikonhata (be tired), papputa (be busy), cengsini epsta (be out of one’s mind) : usually descriptive verbs which has negative meaning are used. (past, present or future tenses are available)

< Table 48 Example sentences for comparing the usage of ‘-a/ese’ and ‘-ko’ I >

a.	Yengmi-nun	anc-ase /nwuw-ese/se-se-se	chay-ul	ilk-ess-ta
	Youngmi-TOP	sit-con/lie-con/stand up-PRE-and-CON	book-ACC	read-PAST-DEC
	Youngmi read a book sitting down/lying down/standing up.			
b.	Yengmi-nun	*anc-ko/*nwuw-ko/*se-ko/*ilena-ko	chay-ul	ilk-ess-ta (X)
	Youngmi-TOP	sit/lie/stand up/stand up-and-CON	book-ACC	read-PAST-DEC
	*Youngmi read a book sitting down/lying down/standing up/standing up			
c.	Youngmi-nun	anc-ko	na-nun	se-ss-ta
	Youngmi-TOP	sit-PRE-and-CON	I-TOP	stand up-PAST-DEC
	Youngmi sat down and I stood up.			

< Table 49 Example sentences for comparing the usage of ‘-a/ese’ and ‘-ko’ II >

a.	pap-ul	*mek-e	/os-ul	ip-e	/*cayk-ul
	meal-ACC	*have-and-CON	cloth-ACC	wear-CON/*	book-ACC
	ilk-e	hakkyo-ey	ka-ss-ta. (X)		
	read-PRE-CON	school-LOC	go-PAST-DEC		
	I ate food/got dressed/read a book and went to school.				
b.	pap-ul	mek-ko	/os-ul	ip-ko	/cayk-ul
	meal-ACC	have-and-CON	cloth-ACC	wear-and-CON	/ book-ACC
	ilk-ko	hakkyo-ey	ka-ss-ta.		
	read-PRE-CON	school-LOC	go-PAST-DEC		
	I ate food/got dressed/read a book and went to school.				

< Table 50: Description of adverb in the entry of connective ‘-(u)l cilato’ >

-(u)l cilato (although)
Adverbs such as ‘pilok’ or ‘sellyeng’ often occur in the first clause of ‘-(u)l cilato’.
Or It often occurs with the adverbs ‘pilok’ or ‘sellyeng’ like
pilok/sellyeng Verbs+(u)l cilato ☞ see pilok

Grammatical item examples

(A)

Intransitive predicate noun:

- unergative: wuntong (exercise), tokse (reading), casal (suicide), hwaltong (activity), chwulsey (success), siksa (meal), nolum (gambling), seongkong (success)
- unaccusative: cinhwa (evolution), thoyhwa (atrophy), sengcang (growth), paltal (development), akhwa, (deterioration), yakhwa (be weaken), cungpal (evaporation), phyenghwa (peace), myengcwung (hit the mark), tochak (arrival), chimmol(sinking), phoham (inclusion)

(Cho Youngjun 1996: 240)

(B)

a.- ey:

kaip (admission, joining), chamsek (attendance), katam (participation), iphak (entering school), chamka (participation), chamye (participation), hensin (devotion), kiswul (description), total (reaching), tochak (arrival)..

b. -lo: hwanwen (swingback), sungkup (promotion)..

c.-wa:

kyekcen(a final), kyelthwu (duel), kyelhon (marriage), celkyo (end a relationship), ihon(divorce)..

d. -eysey:

thaltoy (withdrawal from), chwulso (be released from prison), kiwen (origin), palwen (origin).

e. -ey/lo: tolip (introduction), mangmyeng (asylum), yuip (inflow), icwu (move), cinhak (enter school)

f. -ey/eyse: kiswuk (loding), noswuk (sleep in the open), untwun (seclusion)

(Nam Kyungwan and You Hyewon 2005: 144)

(C)

Two-argument predicate nouns

Transitive predicate noun

a. paysin (betrayal), conkyeng (respect), chingchan (compliment), tongceng (sympathy), cecwu (curse), cungo (hate), salang (love)

b. phakoy (destruction), hayko (dismissal), wanseng (completion), phason (damage), selkyey(design), senen (announcement,) , phyencip (edit)

(Cho Youngjun 1996: 240)

(D)

Three argument predicate nouns

a. -ey: ceychwul (submission), kopayk (confession), ceykong (offer), pwuthak (request), cilmwun (question), yocheng (request), sincheng (application), saceng (reason), kiip (recording), kiek (memory)..

b. -lo: senke (election), chwuchen (recommendation), senthayk (selection, choice), oin(misconception), cecang (storage), phakyen (dispatch)

c. -wa: yaksok (appointment), thouy (discussion), kyeyyak (contract), enyak (promise), hyepsang (negotiation), nayki (bet), kyoughwan (exchange), yenhap (alliance), yenkyel (connection), tayco (contrast), pikyo (comparison)...

d. -eyse: thalhwan (re seizure, retaks), cepswu (receipt), inswu (assumption), kwuip (purchase), chaip (borrowing), cingswu (collection), kwuchwul (rescue), inyong (quotation)..

e. -lako: yakching (diminutive), conching (address), ilum (address)

(Nam Kyungwan and You Hyewon 2005:146)

(E)

The kinds of verbs which cannot be combined with causative suffixes

a. Ditransitive verbs such as cwuta (to give), tulita (honorific form of cwuta; to give), pachita (to dedicate)

b. Benefactive verbs such as etta (to gain), patta (to receive), ilhta (to lose), topta (to help)

c. Symmetric verbs which require the comitative particle 'wa/kwa' (with/and) such as manata (to meet), talmta (to resemble), ssawuta (to fight)

d. Verbs of experience such as paywuta (to learn), nukkita (to feel), palata (to wish/hope)

e. Verbs which have vowel-final stems 'l(i)' such as ikita (to win), tencita (to throw), cikhita (protect, save), ttaylita(to hit)

f. Verbs which consist of 'noun+ hata verb' such as nolayhata (to sing), tochakhata (to arrive), chwulpalhata (to depart)

Lee Iksep and Chay Wan (1999: 52)

(F)

· **suffix '-i-'** : transitive verbs which end in vowel, k or h .

· **suffix '-hi-'**:transitive verbs which end in consonant k, t, p, c or ch.

· **suffix '-li-'** : transitive verbs which end in 'l', 't', irregular verbs such as 'ketta, tutta' or verbs which end in 'lu' such as 'nwuluta (to press)' or 'caluta (to cut)'

· **suffix '-ki-'** : transitive verbs which ends in 'n', 'l' or 's'

Korean Grammar for Foreigners I 2007: 273

(G)

a. ‘-(u)m’ noun phrase:

tulenata (to reveal), palkhyecita (to be identified), allita (to inform), allyecita (to be known), thanlonata (to be revealed), alta (to know), moluta (not know), kiekhata (to remember), pwuinhata (to deny), palphyohata (to announce), pokohata (to report), thongcihata (to rule/ to govern), pwuthakhata (to ask favour), thatanghata (to be reasonable), isanghata (to be wired), myohata (to be strange), hyenmyenghata (to be wise), olhta (to be right), elisekta (to be foolish), sasil+ita (fact+copula), calmos+ita (fault+copula), swuchi-ita (shame+copula)

b. ‘-ki’ noun phrase:

palata (to wish), huymanghata (to wish), pilta (to beg), kalmanghata (to desire), kitalita (to wait), kitayhata (to look forward to), cohta (to be good), napputa (to be bad), silhta (to hate), almacta (to be appropriate), cektanghata (to be suitable)

c. ‘-nun kes’:

topta (to help), ketulta (to help), malita (to stop), chamta (to suffer), ekceyhata (to control), nukkita (to feel), tutta (to listen), kumcihata (to prohibit), kyeysokhata (to continue), sinsokhata (to be quick), nulita (to be slow), hyenmyenghata (to be wise), swusanghata (to be suspicious), pinpenhata (to be frequent), haplicek+ita (logical+copula), sokukcek+ita (passive+copula), yeysa+ita (nomal+copula), potong+ita (nomal+copula)

(H)

Past tense:

mak (just before), pangkum (just before), pelsse (already), akka (a while ago), imi (already), cincak (before), ceyttay (right time)

Present tense:

kumsi (this time, right now), yocum (recently), iccum (now), cikum (now), hyencay (present)

Future tense:

kumhwu (after this), tangcang (right now), itta (later), ihwu (after), hyanghwu (henceforth)

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