A Brief History of Korean Lexicography

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1. Introduction

A dictionary is a text which lemmatizes lexical entries of a given language, and by providing concise information about pronunciation, grammar and meaning, it establishes head entries as dictionary articles arranged according to a systematic sequence. The overall structure of lemmatized entries is termed macrostructure, and the structure of individual entry is termed microstructure; accordingly, it can be said that a dictionary is a text of integrated system that combines macrostructure and microstructure.

Since the language information included in a dictionary is characterized by socialized language information of a given society, it is a general practice that a dictionary analyzes and compiles the standardized language information. From a dictionary thus compiled, users will try to get necessary information out of a lemmatized entry; as the user may try to obtain language information in the entries related to the lemmatized entry, a dictionary should be compiled so as to facilitate systematic acquisition of language information. With this objective, lexicographers emphasize "a uniform description of a certain class of words" (Apresjan, 1992) to make better dictionaries. A coherent description of certain types of words may differ according to the phonological/syntactical/ semantic standards adopted in that particular dictionary; but lexicography, because it assumes linguistic analysis, falls into the category of applied linguistics, though its autonomy in compiling techniques is duly acknowledged.

Language information within microstructure (provided by the dictionary compilers and looked up by the users) can differ according to the distinctive

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character or type of dictionaries. But the usual format is as follows: the lemmatized entry itself provides grammatical information; the pronunciation conveys phonetic information; indication of parts of speech and other sub-classification or syntactic structure provides grammatical information; the meaning of the headword is then defined and the definition is supplemented; to show the usage, sample sentences are given, finally, synonyms, antonyms and other related words are given. The representative lemmatization according to this microstructure is usually arranged in the sequence of consonants/vowels.\(^1\) But a dictionary may also be classified and compiled according to a certain linguistic standard to form a macrostructure. The latter is a classified dictionary, and the principle of classification can be phonetics, grammar, and theme, which will respectively assume the character of pronunciation dictionary, grammar dictionary, and thematical dictionary.

Any attempt to write a history of Korean dictionary compilation must consider both the inner history of dictionary itself and the outer history of dictionary compilation. But since this is a brief history of Korean lexicography, I will concentrate on the major points.

2. The Hunmin ch'ŏng'um and Rhyme Dictionaries

In 1443 King Sejong proclaimed Hunmin ch'ŏng'um, our own writing system, and this led to a compilation of a dictionary that describes standard Sino-Korean phonetic values in Humin ch'ŏng'um, classified according to the combination of the rhymes and the Four Tones. Tongguk ch'ŏng'um (1448) is the first pronunciation dictionary based on artificially standardized rather than really pronounced Sino-Korean sounds. Sasŏngt'onghae (1517) by Ch'oe Se-jin, a Korean linguist of Chinese language, is a kind of rhyme dictionary. Sino-Korean rhyme dictionary based on really pronounced Sino-Korean sounds came later. The representative ones are Hwadong ch'ŏng'un t'ongsŏk ungo (1747) by Pak Sŏng-won, Samun sŏnhwī (1751) by Hong Kye-hŭi, and Kyujang jŏnun (1792) by Yi Tŏk-mu, Sŏ Myŏng-ŭng and others. These rhyme dictionaries fall into the category of classified pronunciation dictionary; they were used to acquire correct phonetic values of Chinese characters and to write poetry in rhymes.

The Korean rhyme dictionaries, compiled along with the proclamation of Hunmin ch'ŏng'um, were greatly influenced by the Chinese rhyme dictionaries which had

\(^1\) A dictionary that deals mainly with Chinese characters is arranged according to radicals and stroke counts.
been reissued many times from several centuries before.

3. Korean Bilingual/Multilingual Lexicography and Chosŏn Government

Sahak which was handed down from the old was established as discipline in the early Chosŏn period, and Sayŏgwon (Bureau of Interpreters of Foreign Languages) was in charge of it. Sahak is a study of Mandarin Chinese, Mongolian, Jurchen (later replaced by Manchurian), and Japanese; and Sayŏgwon was a government institution that trained translators. The translators at Sayŏgwon compiled a basic vocabulary book on Sahak; Yŏgŏ yuhae (1690), Waeŏ yuhae (1709?), Tongmun yuhae (1748), Mongŏ yuhae (1768) are the outstanding examples. There were books on Mongolian and Mandarin Chinese as early as late fifteenth-century, though they are not extant now; and Hanch'ŏng mun'gam (1777?), Pang'ŏn jipsok (1778) and others were also published. All the lemmatized entries of these dictionaries were given in Chinese characters, which were followed by corresponding Korean words. Another common feature is that the lemmatized entries were classified and arranged according to meaning such as “Heavenly Matters, Current Affairs, Geographical Interests...” Pronunciations were divided into Standard Mandarin and Colloquial Mandarin, which were followed by Korean definitions, and if found necessary, annotations were added. They were Chinese-Korean bilingual dictionaries. Tongmun yuhae and Hanch'ŏng mun'gam are Chinese-Korean-Jurchen multilingual dictionaries; the lemmatized entries of (Waeŏyuhae) are in Sino-Korean words, so it is a Sino-Korean-Korean-Japanese multilingual dictionary. Pang'ŏn jipsok is a multilingual dictionary that provides approximately five languages including Korean, but it lacks linguistic clarity.

Before the dictionaries which provide basic vocabulary were published, there was a vocabulary book called Nobakchimnam compiled by Ch'oe Se-jin, to be used by those studying Nogŏltae and Pakt'ongsa, Chinese conversation books. This is not so much a dictionary as a glossary. ᄎמרכ is similar, though it is arranged according to the number of characters.

The bilingual dictionaries of Chosŏn mentioned above reflect the diplomatic relationships of the period. That is, diplomatic relationships revolved around China, but linguistic features of lemmatized entries imply that there were direct diplomatic relationships with Japan.
4. Thematic-Categorical Dictionaries of the Names of Things

In Korea, there were great interests in the definition of the names of things. *Hyang’vak kugęp-pang* (Emergency Remedies of Folk Medicine) published in the mid thirteenth-century includes an appendix with the title of *Pangjung hyang’vak mokch’o-pu* that lists 180 names of medicinal stuffs. Each entry started with a name of medicinal stuff in Chinese characters, and the corresponding native name was given with the sound and meaning of Chinese characters, annotations were provided at the end. This system of description was handed down to, for example, *Hyang’vak ch’aech’wi wóllyông* (1431), *Hyang’vak chipsông-pang* (1433), *Ch’on’ga kubüp-pang* (late sixteenth-century), and *Tong’üi pogam* (1613). In the case of *Tong’üi pogam*, a native word for the given medicinal stuff, if existent, was translated into *han’gül*. The glossary of the names of medicinal stuff was appended so as to facilitate one’s understanding of prescriptions in medical books.

Aside from medicinal stuffs, there were compilations of the names of grains *Kümyang chamnok* by Kang Hui-maeng (1424-83) includes *Kokp’um* which lists some forty kinds of grains. The name of a grain was written down in *Idu* style Chinese characters, which was followed by *han’gül* and annotations. This method of description is similar to the list of medicinal stuffs, and it was adopted by the agricultural books that followed.

The first attempt to list the names of things in general (without confining itself to the names of medicinal stuff or of grains) is “The Names of Things” that heads the book *Shikyông ónhae*. The names of things in Chinese which were not translated into Korean in the text were listed there, along with corresponding native words in *han’gül* and annotations. The purpose of this list is to facilitate accurate understanding of the text through annotations. This is in line with *Hummong chahoe*, an exercise book for Sino-Korean words focusing not so much on expletives as on substantives to aid the students to gain accurate grasp of the names of things.

This burgeoning of the glossaries of the names of things bore fruit in eighteenth- and nineteenth-centuries. *Chaemulbo, Kwang-chaemulbo, Mulbo, Mong’yup’yŏn, Mulmyônggo, Saryu pakhae*, to cite only a few examples, were compiled during this period. The structure of these dictionaries can be summarized as follows: Chinese or Sino-Korean words were given as lemmatized entries, and the corresponding native words, when available, were provided along with annotations. This is in line with traditional format. This arrangement also follows the traditional pattern in that the entries are classified according to meaning. Most of these dictionaries were
handwritten and bound into book form; since they were not printed, their social function was not great. In summary, the glossaries from Koryo period to Chosŏn period can by and large be characterized as selective and categorical dictionaries (rather than as extensive dictionaries) in that they compile words of a specific field. In addition, the head entries of these glossaries were by and large in Chinese or in Sino-Korean words; some head entries, exceptionally, were in sound-borrowed Chinese characters.

5. Orthography of the Korean Alphabet and Lexicon

From mid eighteenth-century, there arose renewed interests in the orthography of han’gŭl. Phonological studies and classification of data aiming at transcribing Sino-Chinese sounds into accurate Korean alphabets were the main area of interests. The representative work of this kind is Yu Hŭi’s Ŭnmunji (1824). The work that set out to regulate speech and writing is Sŏkpŏn’s Ŭn’um chŏpko (in two books; 1846). It points out the general errors in orthography, and listed native words and Sino-Korean sounds separately. Book I explicated the origin of Korean alphabet, classified Sino-Korean words according to the stroke counts of Chinese characters (e.g. one stroke, two strokes), and arranged the corresponding Korean word according to the modern consonant sequence (ㄱ ㄴ ㄷ ㄹ ㅁ ㅂ ㅅ ㅈ ㅊ ㅋ ㅌ ㅍ ㅎ). Book II transcribed Chinese characters into Korean alphabets and gave the related Sino-Korean words. The principle of classification in Book I is the number of characters, but it is quite modern in the sense that it adopts syllable unit of consonant/vowel sequence as the modern Korean dictionaries do. In other words, one may argue that Ŭn’um chŏpko, by virtue of its arrangement of head entries, is a glossary in transition that moved toward modern dictionary.

After Kabo Reformation (1894), more emphasis was laid on han’gŭl, following King Kojong’s language policy. It was decreed that all documents, public and private, should be written in han’gŭl; but in reality, various proportions of han’gŭl and Sino-Chinese characters were combined according to different occasions. Under these circumstances was published Kuk’an hoeŏ (1895), a Korean-Sino-Korean dictionary. The lemmatized entries of this dictionary were given in han’gŭl, and the definitions were in Sino-Korean words or sentences. The entries were arranged according to the consonant/vowel sequence in syllable unit like modern Korean dictionaries. Unlike the dictionaries of the past, it is the first dictionary to be printed in lateral lines.

Since exclusive use of han’gŭl was not general and prevalent in the late
nineteenth-century, a working knowledge of Sino-Korean words and sentence structures was required. *Kuk’an hoe’d* accepted the condition as given and presented as lemmatized entry not only ‘가라치다—教訓-teach’ but also ‘가라칠 교—教 teach’ and ‘가라칠훈—訓,’ so as to aid dictionary users to study Sino-Korean characters and words. Sometimes English equivalents were given.

6. The West and Bilingual Lexicography

In 1870s Korea opened its ports to Western countries as well as the countries in the Far East. Due to this expansion in diplomatic relationships, bilingual dictionaries of Korean and a Western language appeared. The missionaries from the West were especially keen on publishing such bilingual dictionaries, but due to several circumstances most of them were published abroad.

*Opjet Russko-Korejskago Slovarja* (Ro-han chadyón, 1874), published in St. Petersburg by M. Putcillo, used a variant of the north-eastern dialect used in Hanyeong Province; it was based on *A Comparative Vocabulary of Chinese, Corean and Japanese* (Chosönwiguk chahwir) published way back in 1834 in Bataba. Other dictionaries include *Pazvedchiku u Koree* (Russko-Koreskij Slovarj) (1904), published to facilitate information activities in Korea; *Opjet Kratkago Russko-Koreiskago Slovarja* (1904), published by M. Mashanov in Kazan University, had Korean students of Kazanskaja Uchiteljskaja Seminarija to promote the civic status of Koreans residing in Russia. All these are based on the north-eastern dialect.

*Dictioiree coréen-français* (Han-pul chadyón, 1880) was published in Yokohama, Japan, by the French missionaries in Korea (*La société de missions étrangères de Paris*), the leading member of which was Father Felix-Clair Ridel and his colleagues. *Petit dictionnaire français-coréen* (Pôp-han chadyón, 1901) was published in Seoul by C. Alévèque. *Parvum vocabularium ad usum studiosae juventus Coreanae* (Ra-han so-saëón, 1891) was published in Hong Kong by M. N. A. Davelay, and *Dictionarium Latino Coreanum* (1936) was published in Seoul by P. Laurention Youn (Yun Ùl-su).

*A Concise Dictionary of the Korean Language in Two Parts: Korean-English and English-Korean* (1890) that combines Han-yŏng chadyón and Yŏng-han chadyón in one book was published in Yokohama by H. G. Underwood; *English-Corean Dictionary* (1891) was published in Seoul by J. Scott. *A Korean-English Dictionary* (Han-yŏng chadyón, 1897) was published in Yokohama by Gale; *An English-Korean Dictionary* (Yŏng-han chadyón, 1914) was published by G. H. Jones. It was in 1928 that The New Korean English Dictionary (Choeshin Sŏn-yŏng saëón) was
published in Seoul by a Korean lexicographer, Kim Tong-sŏng.

Among the bilingual dictionaries mentioned above, *Dictionnaire coréen-français* and Underwood’s and Gale’s dictionaries exerted considerable influence on the compilation of Korean dictionaries thereafter. The dictionaries, which gave head entries in Korean with corresponding definitions in a foreign language, were various: some, like *Dictionnaire coréen-français*, were based on the alphabetical system of a particular foreign language and arranged head entries into consonant/vowel sequence, describing duration, or giving combined forms with the nominative particle ‘-i’ and suffix ‘-a/e, -ën’. Others added, like Underwood’s dictionary, to the Korean head entries the corresponding Sino-Korean words (e.g. 야오, 弟, A younger brother of a brother, a younger sister of a sister). Some dictionaries, like Gale’s, indicated the duration of headwords with S. and L., and gave the meaning of each Chinese character; as for verbs, they listed representative usage as in *Dictionnaire coréen-français*. For example, the headword ‘아양스럽다’ is followed by “S. 아양 (야양) 한 모양 러워, 은. To be pretty; to look nice; to be beautiful. Sec 아양스럽다.” The usage was given basically in the combined forms of ‘-Ŏ/a, -ën/n’. This presentation of usage, deriving from *Dictionnaire coréen-français*, was a way of inculcating the agglutinative characteristics of Korean language to people used to Indo-European languages. This method, in turn, profoundly influenced the compilation and edition of Korean dictionaries to come. In the modern Korean dictionaries, however, it is reduced to pointing out strong conjugation. Accordingly, prosodic information as to vowel shortening, provided in *Dictionnaire cor en-fran ais* (e.g. 죽다, kop-та, ko-a, ko-ŏn. 베. Beau), is no longer available in modern Korean dictionaries.


On October 1, 1910, the Japanese Government-General in Korea was established to rule Korea as a colony. One of the means adopted for effective colonial rule led to an edition of a new dictionary, *Chosŏn-Language Dictionary* (*Chosŏn-ŏ sajŏn*), which was a project for the general survey of old customs and institutions. At first it was planned as Korean-Korean-Japanese bilingual dictionary so as to be useful in both countries. But as this dictionary was ready for publication, 3.1 Independence Movement broke out and resulted in the reinforcement of repressive colonial rule. Therefore, it was published as Korean-Japanese dictionary in 1920 by the Japanese Government-General in Korea. The arrangement of head entries of prefix
derivatives were subdivided into sub-heads of suffixes; Sino-Korean words that correspond to primary constituent were presented first as head entries and then subdivided into sub-heads; in the case of compounds they were arranged according to the base. Duration was marked in each head entry, and the words that were not pronounced as written were indicated. As in Dictionnaire coréen-français or Gale’s dictionary, every verb was given in a conjugated form of ‘-a/h, -un/h’. The dictionaries up to this period made it the principle of lemmatisation to adopt ‘ㄹ’-hiatus by ‘-다’ in the case of final predicate ‘ㄹ’. In the case of syllable final consonant predicates ‘ㄴ, ㄹ, ㅅ, ㅈ’ the principle was to adopt syllable final consonant ‘ㅅ’.

8. Patriotic Enlightenment Movement and Korean Language Lexicography

The necessity of compiling Korean monolingual dictionary that transcribes Korean head entries into Korean was emphasized by Chu Shi-kyŏng, a patriotic enlightenment leader, and others. He believed that unified language and grammar would lead to the unity and solidarity of the Korean people; accordingly, he worked on the regulation of speech and writing, studied grammar, and prepared for compilation of a dictionary.

Taehan minho, a patriotic enlightenment paper, had a column named Saqŏn yŏngu-ch’o in 1910. This column provided ten words per issue and was serialized for 95 issues. But this paper was shut down by the repressive Japanese colonial policy. Each head entry gave definitions in both han’gil and Sino-Korean words, as in: ‘가’ means 往; present stem; abbreviation that orders someone to go.’ In the case of substantives or predicates, some inflections or conjugations were listed. The first full-scale Korean dictionary was Mal-moi, which was compiled by Chu Shi-kyŏng and his disciples, Kim Tu-pong, Yi Kyu-yŏng, Kwŏn Chin-kyu and others. This was an attempt at practical usage of language by Kwangmunhoe, organized in October 1910 with the objective of Susa, Ip’ak, Iŏn. The grammatical basis of this alphabetical dictionary was Chu Shi-kyŏng’s grammar, and therefore, it was extremely analytical. Among the head entries, Sino-Korean words were marked with ‘+’, loan words were distinguished with ‘×’, and native words were given without any marking. In the case of predicates, only the stem of a word made the head entry; as in the example of ‘감-으-슨-립’, the analysis of each word went as far as it could go. Since the dictionary was based on such analysis, the head entries of substantives did not include inflection, and those of predicates did not include
conjugation. Each head entry was provided with pitch and duration, but not by the syllable but by the vowel. The dictionary includes not only native words, Sino-Korean words and loan words but also technical words; and therefore, it was not so much a linguistic dictionary as a comprehensive general dictionary. The more or less detailed definitions were in both han’gul and Sino-Korean words. Brief sample sentences were inserted from time to time. The structure was quite close to modern Korean dictionaries.

Mal-moi was abandoned almost at the stage of completion. What remains is the manuscript of the first book (가-감축), which is in my possession.

The first Korean dictionary to be published is Mun Se-yŏng’s Chosŏn-Language Dictionary (1938). This dictionary was made possible by the contribution of Yi Yun-chae, another Korean lexicographer. Since this is the only Korean dictionary to be published under the Japanese rule, it was extremely influential and its significance in terms of social history cannot be exaggerated. At the end of the Japanese rule, the Koreans were deprived of the education of their native language. During this period, the correct usage of Korean language depended upon this dictionary.

Since the head entries of this dictionary include not only professional and technical terms but also proper nouns, this alphabetical dictionary was in part expanded into an encyclopedia. The head entries also included Sino-Japanese words, which reflect the confused state the Korean language was in at the time. For example, both Sino-Korean word ‘shikku’ and Sino-Japanese word ‘kajok’ made the entry. The head entries also included Sino-Korean word ‘po’ and Sino-Japanese word ‘pojung,’ but the latter was not indicated as Japanese in origin. It is unfortunate that such editing policies have continued from Mun Se-yŏng’s dictionary to the recent ones. As before, duration was marked on the head entries; as in the dictionary published by the Japanese Government-General in Korea, prefix derivatives were subclassed into the prefix category. In the case of predicates, the base combined to ‘-ta’ was established as head entry, with the exception of strong conjugations. If the strong conjugation combines ‘-aŏ, -un/n,’ its particular strong conjugation was given, as in ‘-e’-irregular, the exception being syllable final consonant ‘e’ predicate combined with ‘-l’, ‘-l.’ Generally, the dictionary concentrates on modern language, but like the dictionary published by the Japanese Government-General in Korea, it includes Idu. Definitions were concise, and a short sample sentences were given from time to time. Among related words, synonyms but not antonyms were given.

Mun Se-yŏng’s dictionary continued to be published in expanded and revised
9. The Liberation and Korean Language Lexicography

After the compilation of *Mal-moi*—the dictionary by Chu Shi-kyông and his disciples—was interrupted, its spirit of patriotic enlightenment was handed down to ‘A Society for Compiling Chosôn-Language Dictionary,’ initiated by 108 persons in October 1929. In 1936 this project was transferred to Chosôn-Language Research Society (after the Liberation, renamed The Korean Language Research Society). Those who participated as contributors were: Yi Kŭk-ro, Yi Yun-chae, Chŏng In-sŭng, Han Chin, Yi Chung-hwa (Kwŏn Sŭng-uk, Kwŏn Tŏk-kyu, Chŏng T’aechin). They established and published ‘Standardization of Korean Orthography’ (1933) and ‘Corrected List of Standard Chosôn Words’ (1936), along with of ‘Standard Writing of Loan Words.’ They were compiling a Korean dictionary when the core members were thrown into prison by the Japanese police. All preparation of the dictionary came to a stop because of this so-called Chosôn-ŭ hak’oe sakŏn. Only after the Liberation, the project was resumed, and in 1947, the first book of *The Great Dictionary of Chosôn-Language* ([Chosôn-mal k’ŭn-saŏn]) was published by Chosôn-ŭ hak’oe. The publication was completed with the Book 6 in 1957, and the dictionary was retitled *Great Dictionary* (by the Korean Language Research Society). With this, the Korean people came to possess a full-scale Korean dictionary. This was a cultural achievement that took thirty years of nation-wide efforts. The head entries of *Great Dictionary* include “archaic words, *Idu*-words, old institutional words, well-known dialects of different districts, slangs, jargons; names of important places, persons, books, scenic spots and historical sites.” If found necessary, the head entries include “important compounds and idiomatic expressions.” In the end, *Great Dictionary* turned out to be a comprehensive linguistic dictionary, that is, it constructively combines the characteristics of extensive dictionary with those of encyclopedia. The lematization followed the principles of *Sayŏnghan Chosôn-ŭ p’yojûn-mal moîm*, and the grammar that of *Han’gŭl mach’unpŏp tongil-an* (Revised edition, 1947). The number of head entries ran up to 164,125 items. All derivatives and compounds made individual entries and no sub-entry was given. Predicates that end with ‘-hada’ were given after the definitions under the pertinent head entry, and distinctions between transitive and intransitive verbs and strong conjugations were indicated. Definitions were not repeated to save space. The indication of pronunciation was confined to ‘those which are easy to mispronounce’; the principle was vague, and accordingly, not
systematic. The indication of duration was added to head entries. Even the second syllable in compounds was stressed, as in ‘잇 scrollTop, 부회장, 대도-희, 모범, 영 영, 반-반’. But as we can see from ‘대례, 모사, 가사’, the second stress was treated as short vowel; so we may safely conclude that the standard applied was not consistent. As to the head entries of predicates, no conjugation was indicated, except in the case of strong conjugation which gave the abbreviation of its type. The grammatical information of head entries gives the classification of parts of speech and sub-classification (e.g. intransitive and transitive verbs); concise definition; and the usage was sporadically given in summary fashion. So the grammatical and semantic information was not provided as much as was necessary. The system and approach of *Great Dictionary* was more or less accepted by the Korean dictionaries edited thereafter.

Immediately after the publication of the first book of *Great Dictionary, Standard Chosŏn-Language Dictionary* ([P’yŏjun chosŏn-mal saŭn]) (1947) was published. This small dictionary was edited and compiled by Yi Yun-chae who was imprisoned because of *Chosŏn-ŏ hak’oe sakŏn*. After his death in the prison, his son-in-law Kim Pyŏng-che amended and published it. This likewise combined the characteristics of linguistic dictionary with those of encyclopedia.

There was no sub-entry given under head entries; however, in the case of predicates that end with ‘-hada,’ the definition of the predicate base was given, ‘-hada’ indicated thereafter. Since archaic words and *Idu* were not included in the head entries, the dictionary assumes the characteristics of synchronic dictionary concentrating on modern language. As to pronunciation, “those which are easy to mispronounce will be indicated after the word, and the correct pronunciation will be given in parenthesis; long syllables, even the second syllable, will be indicated by ‘-’ on the letter. The head entries of predicates were lemmatized in ‘-ta’ form; in the case of strong conjugation, however, combined forms of two suffixes (‘-aŏ, (으) ni’) were given and the type of conjugation was indicated.

### 10. Korean Language Lexicography Since Korean War (1950)

After the Korean War (1950-1953), many Korean dictionaries were published in North Korea as well as in South Korea. In the South, they were edited and compiled by individuals and academic societies, and published by private publishing houses. In the North, they were edited and compiled by a ‘small group of dictionary compilation’ affiliated with Dictionary Compilation Division of *Sahoe-kwahagwŏn ēnŏ-yŏnkuso* (Language Study Center of the Academy of Social Sciences). The
dictionaries published in Seoul—i.e., Shin Ki-ch’ŏl and Shin Yong-ch’ŏl’s *Standard Korean Dictionary* (P’yo’jun kugŏ sajon) (1958) and its revised and expanded edition (1960), *New Korean Dictionary* (Kugŏ sae-sajŏn) (1958) edited by Korean Language and Literature Association, Kim Min-su and Hong Yun-sŏn’s *Sae-sajŏn* (1959) and others—more or less followed the system and approach of *Great Dictionary. Korean Great Dictionary* (Kug tae-sajŏn) (1961) with about 230,000 entries, edited by Yi Hŭi-sŏng, and its revised and expanded edition (1982) with about 420,000 entries were no exception. Yi Hŭi-sŏng’s dictionary, however, differed in the consonant/vowel sequence of head entries in that each fortis (ㄱ, ㄷ, ㅂ, ㅅ) appeared respectively after lenis (ㄱ, ㄷ, ㅂ, ㅅ) and that various idiomatic expressions were given. Since *New Korean Great Dictionary* (Sae urmal k’ŭn-sajŏn) (about 310,000 entries; 1975), edited by Shin Ki-ch’ŏl and Shin Yong-ch’ŏl, followed the sequence of Yi Hŭi-sŏng’s dictionary, the arrangement of head entries in Korean dictionaries were standardized. This dictionary was compiled in reference to *Chosŏn-Language Dictionary* (Chosŏn-mal sajŏn) (1960-62), published in North Korea. The revised and expanded dictionary of this dictionary (in two books; 1986) followed the same path.

The most recent dictionary is *Korean Great Dictionary* (Kugŏ tae-sajŏn) (Kŭmsŏng, 1991), compiled and edited by Kim Min-su, Ko Yong-kŭn, Im Hong-pin, Yi Sŏng-chae. It tried 1) to indicate the word origins; 2) to give as many sample sentences as possible; 3) to incorporate 3,000 items of North Korean words; 4) to adhere to ‘Standard Writing of Loan Words’ (1986), ‘Standard Korean Orthography’ (1988), and ‘Regulations for Standard Language’ (1988).

Meanwhile, the Korean Language Research Society published *Urmal k’ŭn-sajŏn* (19- ) in four books according to its traditional grammar and standard language, ignoring the newly proclaimed orthography and ‘Regulations for Standard Language’ of 1988.

The dictionaries most frequently in use in South Korea are: 1) Yi Hŭi-sŏng’s dictionary; 2) Shin Ki-ch’ŏl and Shin Yong-ch’ŏl’s dictionary; 3) Kŭmsŏng edition Dictionary; 4) Dictionary published by the Korean Language Research Society. They are different in some ways, but they are similar in combining the characteristics of linguistic dictionary with those of encyclopedia and in focusing on the normative and standardized characteristics of modern language.

The dictionaries that were published before the Korean War were Mun Se-yŏng’s dictionary and Yi Yun-chae and Kim Pyŏng-che’s dictionary.² After the War, the

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² Besides these two dictionaries, there was K’ŭn-sajŏn issued by Chosŏn-ŭ hakoe, but it was not
revised and expanded edition of Mun Se-yǒng’s dictionary was widely used in the South. Since Kim Pyǒng-che moved to North Korea, Yi Yun-chae and Kim Pyǒng-che’s dictionary was widely used in the North.

Chosǒn People’s Republic, once established in the North, started preparation for dictionary compilation. But due to the War, it was delayed. In 1956, Research Center for Chosǒn Language and Literature of the Academy issued Chosǒn-sosajǒn (30,000 copies); between the years 1960-1962, Chosǒn-mal sajǒn (in 6 books) was published in par with Kǒn-sajǒn (in 6 books) in the South. The number of head entries were 187,137 items. The dictionary reflects a deliberate attempt to reflect communist ideology in definitions as well as in selections of head entries, but on the whole, it was not different in structure.

With the emergence of so-called Chuch’e sasang (the Doctrine of Kim Il-sǒng) in the mid 1960s, North Korea started compiling a dictionary according to Kim Il-sǒng’s Directive which can be summarized as follows: 1) the principle of Chuch’esǒng, 2) the principle of the Party, Labor class, and People; 3) the principle of modernity; 4) the principle of Science and Norm, and others. This resulted in Hyǒndae chosǒn-mal sajǒn (1968), Chosǒn munhwa-sajǒn (1973), Urimal sajǒn (1977; for the students), Hyǒndae chosǒn-mal sajǒn (Second edition; 1981), whose focus is on modern language with a strong ideological character. On the one hand, Kim Il-sǒng’s statements were given in gothic letters; on the other, ‘Cultured Language’ based on P’yǒng’yang dialect was greatly reflected; reformulated native words and Northern dialects made the head entries. As a result, linguistic heterogeneity between the North and the South became more conspicuous. ‘Ice-cream’ became ‘Orim posung’i,’ ‘Chulgyǒng’i’ was replaced by ‘Kiltchanggu.’

The most recent dictionary to be published in the North is Chosǒn-mal tae-sajǒn (1992). Since it “is a great dictionary made in our way, having adopted the everlasting Chuch’e sasang as the firm leading principle, and basing itself on linguistic theory and dictionary compilation of Chuch’e,” it was, like the previous dictionaries, ideological in character. The head entries reached 330,000 items. Standard orthography followed Chosǒn-mal kyǒbǒm-chip (1988). There were also changes in ‘Refined Language.’ In the previous dictionaries, ‘ice-cream’ was replaced by ‘Orim posung’i’; but now ‘ice-cream’ was also included in the head entries. The head entries were not confined to modern words, but they included words related with famous historical events, artifacts, historical sites as well as

completed There was also Yu Yǒl’s Hyǒndae haksueng urimal sajǒn (1950), but since it was published just before the War, it was not widely used.
geographical names; archaic Sino-Korean words, historical terms, archaisms, Idu, and dialects were all included in the head entries; the dictionary, therefore, became a comprehensive dictionary. After the emergence of Chuch’e sasang, it was a general practice that the dictionaries quoted primarily from ‘classical lucubration’ of Kim Il-sŏng to illustrate socio-political terms; in Chosŏn-mal tae-sajŏn, Kim Chŏng-il’s works were also included. Pronunciation, duration and pitch were given in many a head entry. The numbers 1, 2, 3 indicated the low, middle, high pitch. Chinese characters, which had been excluded so far, were given at the end of each item. This is similar to Urimal k’ŭn-sajŏn issued by the Korean Language Research Society.

The appendix of Chosŏn-mal tae-sajŏn included ‘Dialects,’ ‘Archaisms,’ ‘A Table of Korean Language Suffixes,’ ‘A List of Frequently Used Words (frequency being indicated at the end of each item’).

As the dictionaries of the North had been compiled by groups affiliated with an institution, they tend to be more systematic than those of the South in terms of definition descriptions, sub-classification of definitions, morphological analysis of head entries. As a whole, both of them can be characterized as linguistic dictionaries, with the added features of encyclopedia and of ideological dictionary. Especially, ideology stands out in the definitions and usages of socio-political terms; even in the usage of ordinary words, communist ideology is reflected.

11. Summary

Lexicography in Korea assumes the characteristics of lexicon, wordbook, or dictionary, the history of which diverges into two streams. One is the traditional lexicography from mid thirteenth-century to late nineteenth-century which can be characterized as categorical or thematic lexicography. Sino-Korean rhyme dictionary was a categorical dictionary. The wordbooks that list medicinal stuffs or grains were thematic dictionary, and the wordbooks on the names of things were categorical dictionary. In addition, the structure of each item was as follows: head entries which were given mostly in Chinese characters were translated into corresponding Korean word(s) if possible and necessary information was given thereafter. Before Hunmin chŏng’ŭm was proclaimed, Korean language was written down by borrowing the sounds and meanings of Chinese characters.

At the end of the nineteenth-century, influenced by the Western dictionaries, Korean dictionaries began to be compiled as alphabetical dictionary. During this transitional period, bilingual lexicography was conducted by the westerners. The microstructure of the dictionary of this period reflected the following pattern:
indication of etymology of headwords, pronunciation, definition, usage, and related words.

After the Korean War, the division between North and South led to compilation of different dictionaries which, in turn, resulted in linguistic heterogeneity based on different socio-cultural background. In the South, dictionaries were published by individuals, academic societies or private publishing houses, so they were quite various. In the North, however, they were all published by a group affiliated with the Academy, so they tend to be more systematic and unified.

The interest in lexicography as a modern discipline is quite new in Korea. It burgeoned in the late 1970s and flowered in the latter half of the 1980s, and it more or less assumes the characteristics of applied linguistics. In describing the history of lexicography of Korean Language, I am thinking of more effective methods of conveying phonetic, grammatical, and semantic information so as to make a better Korean dictionary.

Stimulated by this new interest in lexicographical studies, new dictionaries are being prepared. At National Korean Language Research Institute, a comprehensive dictionary is being compiled in expectation of the unification of Korea. Committee of Korean Dictionary Compilation of Yonsei University is collecting data for a dictionary focusing on modern Korean language, and the Academy of Korean Studies is making preparations for Korean dictionaries of each century. At some circles, studies for computational lexicography are being carried on.

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References


