

Pedagogical Application of a Linguistic Analysis of Negation in Jejeuo

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<https://doi.org/10.18627/jslg.36.1.202005.073>

pISSN : 1225-4770

eISSN : 2671-6151

Received: April 12, 2020

Revised: April 27, 2020

Accepted: May 18, 2020

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본인이 투고한 논문은 다른 학술지에 게재될 적이 없으며 타인의 논문을 표절하지 않았음을 서약합니다. 추후 중복게재 혹은 표절된 것으로 밝혀질 시에는 논문게재 취소와 일정 기간 논문제출의 제한 조치를 받게 됨을 인지하고 있습니다.

ABSTRACT

The Journal of Studies in Language 36.1, 073-092. This paper aims to integrate linguistic analysis into grammar teaching in the modern-language classroom on Jeju Island by examining how negation in Jejeuo, the province's traditional language, could be taught to native speakers of Korean.¹⁾ In adopting the assumption that knowledge of a first language influences acquisition of a second language, a comparative analysis of the properties of negation in Jejeuo and Korean is provided. The overview of negation in Jejeuo (based on previous linguistic work) and the sample lesson plan that accompanies it offer teachers a potential model for developing lesson plans for teaching Jejeuo in the schools of Jeju Island. (Jeju National University)

Keywords: Jejeuo, negation, transfer, grammar teaching, TBLT

1. Introduction

The traditional language of Jeju Island, Jejeuo (ISO 639-3 jje) has gained a vast amount of attention in Jeju since UNESCO declared it critically endangered in 2010 (Mossely, 2010). Despite increasing revitalization efforts in Jeju, young learners' proficiency in the language is still marginal. A recent Jejeuo production test (Yang, 2018), focusing on basic vocabulary and verbal patterns, reveals an accuracy rate of only about 9% among elementary school students.²⁾ Although Jejeuo is being forgotten in everyday life, the aspiration of community members to pass their language to the next generation is evident.³⁾

- This work was supported by the Core University Program for Korean Studies through the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Korea and the Korean Studies Promotion Service of the Academy of Korean Studies (AKS-2015-OLU-2250005).
 - I would like to thank the native Jejeuo speakers, Inja Oh (86), Seongsu Huh (78), and Misoon Byun (69) for providing negation sentences and their grammatical judgement opinion. I also like to thank Professor William O'Grady for his helpful comments.
- 1) These speakers were born in Jeju but did not receive enough exposure to Jejeuo to acquire it as their first language. They may have developed receptive skills to some degree but lack in productive skills. As a result, standard Korean used in formal education is their first language.
 - 2) According to Yang (2018: 66), the accuracy rate decreased by age (approximately 66% for adult, 34% for college, 35% for high school, 18% for middle school participants). The cross-generational decline indicates that Jejeuo acquisition is not occurring naturally and the intergenerational transmission of Jejeuo is failing.
 - 3) According to the attitude survey conducted on 360 adult participants (Oh et al., 2012), more than 80% of the participants believed that Jejeuo has to be preserved. Moreover, almost 70% of the participants agreed that Jejeuo education is necessary.

It is not easy to teach an endangered language such as Jejueo at home and in classrooms. There is a lack of those who can fluently speak to the younger generation, and there are unlikely to be trained teachers, teaching materials, and systematic support for teaching and learning programs (Yang, 2014). Grammar instruction calls for special attention from teachers, as knowledge of this type is essential for effective communication. However, it often takes a great effort to understand the necessary rules and terms as well as to provide appropriate and meaningful contexts for particular forms while at the same time creating a learner-friendly environment.

This paper considers and suggests how to approach grammar teaching in the modern language classroom in light of the importance of language transfer in second language learning. As Jejueo is closely related to Korean, similar grammatical patterns may enhance the learning of Jejueo whereas the differences between the two languages may result in errors when Korean rules are transferred to Jejueo. Teachers should therefore be aware of those similarities and differences in order to modify their teaching appropriately.

In the following section, I briefly outline the reality of language transfer in second language acquisition and its relation to Jejueo acquisition. Section 3 summarizes the key features of the Jejueo system of negation, drawing on previous work by many scholars and focusing on similarities and differences with Korean. Negation was chosen for this demonstration because it is a universal category in human languages (Dahl, 1979) and is one of the most essential forms for successful everyday communication. Section 4 presents an illustration of how negation can be taught using a mixture of modern and traditional teaching methods: the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production).

2. Jejueo (L2) acquisition and the role of the standard modern Korean (L1)

Influence from the first language in L2 learning has long been acknowledged in SLA field, where it is commonly referred to as ‘language transfer’. The underlying assumption is that knowledge of the first language affects all levels of second language development (phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics) either negatively or positively to some extent. Odlin (1989: 27) defines transfer as follows:

“Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired”.

Ellis (1994) states that the influence of the L1 can be either positive or negative, depending on whether the transferred knowledge aligns with the grammar and lexicon of the L2. In their study of L1 Swedish children’s vocabulary development in the closely-related language, German, Lindgren and Bohnacker (2019) found that cognates facilitated noun acquisition in the second language. In addition, Chiswick and Miller (2005) report that when all other factors are controlled, linguistic distance is the main determinant for language proficiency. In other words, when the target language is close to L1, there is a greater likelihood of successful language acquisition.

Skehan (2008) argues that information about the similarities and differences between the L1 and L2 should be available when pedagogical decisions are made to improve educational programs and coursebooks and also to understand learners’ difficulty in learning L2. Moreover, it is particularly important for teachers to be knowledgeable in this area as they observe various language errors and attempt to give appropriate feedback.

The majority language on Jeju Island is standard modern Korean (henceforth Korean), which is strongly reinforced in the school system. Although Jejueo is at a disadvantage in terms of language policy, it can still be heard and used outside the classroom with close family members and friends at varying degrees of bilingualism. Therefore, this natural learning environment and the fact that Jejueo is closely related to Korean may improve the prospects for learning Jejueo.

So far, there has been a lack of discussion on language acquisition and teaching regarding closely related languages. I, therefore, propose to compare and contrast features of Jejueo with Korean to identify the differences and similarities between the two languages in the belief that knowledge of already acquired Korean can facilitate the acquisition of Jejueo. Moreover, this will help teachers decide which features to focus on in the classroom so as to help learners to produce fewer errors. The following section illustrates this approach by focusing on negation in Jejueo.

3. Negation in Jejueo

Similar to Korean, Jejueo expresses negation at two different grammatical levels: syntactic and lexical. The syntactic way of negating utterances involves the morphemes *ani* (아니)/*ai* (아이)/*an* (안) ‘not’ and *mos* (못) ‘not possible, cannot, unable’. This type of negation can be further subcategorized into short negation and long negation depending on syntactic complexity and the position of the main verb in the construction. Lexical negation consists of the inherently negative verbs *mal-da* (말다) ‘no’, ‘don’t want to’, ‘quit/stop’, ‘don’t do’ as well as *eus-da* (웃다) ‘not exist’, *moleu-da* (몰르다) ‘don’t know’, and *ani-da* (아니다) ‘be not’. The following section begins with the discussion of syntactic negation.

3.1 Syntactic negation

3.1.1 Short negation

Short negation is formed by placing *ani* (아니) and *mos* (못) immediately before the predicate as in the examples we will consider next.

Short negation pattern with *ani* (아니)

The morpheme *ani* (아니) generally negates simple facts, as in (1) with the descriptive verb *gob-da* (곱다) ‘pretty’. It also negates habitual actions as in (2), with the action verb *ig-da* (익다) ‘to read’.

(1) *Chime-ga ani gob-da.* (치메가 아니 곱다)

skirt-NOM not pretty-SE⁴

‘(Your) skirt is not pretty.’

(2) *Cheg ani ig-eun-da.* (책 아니 익은다)

book not read-NPST-SE

‘(Someone) does not read books’

4) A list of abbreviation is provided at the end of this paper.

In addition, *ani* (아니) conveys an implication of volitionality, as in (3) in which the negative occurs in combination with the prospective marker *-k-* (ㄱ).

- (3) *Bas-duit ani ga-k-yeo.* (밭되 아니 가켜)
 field-place not go-PROSP-SE
 ‘I will not go to the field.’

Short negation pattern with *mos* (못)

The morpheme *mos* (못) conveys a sense of impossibility or inability to do something as a result of outside forces that the speaker has no control over, as in (4-6).

- (4) *I-geo mos meog-na.* (이거 못 먹나)
 this-thing cannot eat-SE
 ‘(We) cannot eat this.’
- (5) *Geu-duit mos sa-n-da.* (그되 못 산다)
 that-place cannot live
 ‘(We) cannot live there.’
- (6) *Badang-i mos ga-k-yeo.* (바당이 못 가켜)
 sea-DIR cannot go-PROSP-SE
 ‘(We) cannot go to the sea.’

In these examples, the speaker is unable to live, eat or go, not as a matter of choice but rather as the result of a factor such as food having gone bad, a house being destroyed, or the weather being too rough. Only action verbs are allowed in the *mos* (못) construction; unlike in the *ani* (아니) pattern of negation, descriptive verbs are not allowed.

3.1.2 Long negation

Long negation is realized by combining *ani* (아니) or *mos* (못) with the light verb *haw-da* (한다) ‘to do’ (*ani-haw-da* 아니 한다 ‘not do’ and *mos-haw-da* 못한다 ‘not possible, cannot do’). The morpheme *ani* (아니) or *mos* (못) then negates a lexical verb, which is accompanied by a nominalizer such as *-ji* (지), as illustrated below.

1) Long negation pattern with *ani* (아니)

- (7) *Chime-ga gob-ji ani-haw-da.* (치메가 곱지 아니 한다)
 skirt-NOM pretty-NMLZ not-do-SE
 ‘(Your) skirt is not pretty.’
- (8) *Cheg ig-ji ani-haw-n-da.* (책 익지 아니 한다)
 book read-NMLZ not-do-NPST-SE
 ‘(Someone) does not read books’

- (9) *Bas-duit ga-ji ani-haw-k-yeo.* (밭디 가지 아니하켜)
 field-place go-NMLZ not-do-PROSP-SE
 ‘I will not go to the field.’

2) Long negation pattern with *mos* (못)

- (10) *I-geo meog-ji mos-haw-n-da.* (이거 먹지 못한다)
 this-thing eat-NMLZ cannot-do-SE
 ‘(We) cannot eat this.’
- (11) *Geu-duit sal-ji mos-haw-n-da.* (그디 살지 못한다)
 that-place live-NMLZ cannot-do-NPST-SE
 ‘(We) cannot live there.’
- (12) *Badang-i ga-ji mos-haw-k-yeo.* (바당이 가지 못하켜)
 sea-DIR go-NMLZ cannot-do-PROSP-SE
 ‘(We) cannot go to the sea.’

Long negation with *mos* (못) can only occur with a descriptive verb that expresses a desirable and positive quality. For example, *daws-da* (똥다) ‘warm’ denotes a desirable and positive quality in meaning and therefore allows the long negation as in (13). In contrast, a descriptive verb like *eol-da* (얼다) ‘cold,’ which has an undesirable and negative value, cannot appear with *mos* (못), as illustrated in (14).

- (13) *Nal eol-eobunan gudeul-i daws-ji mos-haw-da.* (날 얼어부난 구들이 똥지 못한다)
 day cold-because room-NOM warm-NMLZ cannot-do-SE
 ‘Because the weather is cold, (this) room is not warm.’
- (14) * *Nal-i eol-ji mos-haw-da.* (날이 얼지 못한다)
 day-NOM cold-NMLZ cannot-do-SE

3.1.3 Short negation vs. Long negation

As in Korean, although the two types of negation have the same basic meaning, they are associated with somewhat different syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic functions (Lee, 2003: 256). One such difference involves the fact that the main verb in long negation patterns can carry a suffix such as *-do* (도) ‘even’ to indicate that the speaker objects to the belief that the speaker ate a lot, as in (15). Without *-do* (도), the sentence expresses the same sense of negation associated with the (preverbal) pattern or short negation in (16). Other suffixes of this type include the topic marker, *-n* (ㄴ), which indicates that the action is being compared with some other action; the accusative marker, *-l* (ㄹ), which emphasizes the action that is being negated; and *-man* (만) ‘only’, which expresses that there are other actions that the speaker did except for this particular action.

(15) *Hayeong meog-ji-do anyeo-s-jeo.* (하영 먹지도 아녜저)

a.lot eat-NMLZ-even not.do-PFV-SE

‘(I) didn’t even eat a lot.’

(16) *Hayeong ani meog-eos-jeo.* (하영 아니 먹엇저)

a.lot not eat-PFV-SE

‘(I) didn’t eat a lot.’

In addition, Moon (1999b: 28-32) argues that short negation indicates a simple but straightforward denial whereas long negation is used to express one’s intention rather indirectly. Several Jejuo linguists have identified greater usage of short negation in Jejuo speech, similar to the trend also found in Korean (Moon, 1999b; Lee, 2003; Ko, 2011). However, the use of the nominalizer, *-ji* (지) was found to be more frequent in Korean (36%) than in Jejuo (11%) (Lee, 2003: 558). This contrast seems to reflect the fact that forms of the nominalizer other than *-ji* (지) are used in Jejuo (see section 3.1.4).

3.1.4 Middle Korean morphemes

A fascinating fact about Jejuo is that certain Middle Korean morphemes have been maintained and are still being used actively by native speakers. According to Lee (2004: 296), *ani* (아니) is the original form of *an* (안) but is rarely used in Korean, except in old-fashioned expressions or in writing (Sohn, 1999: 389). However, *ai* (아이) and *ani* (아니) are widely used by native speakers of Jejuo (Moon, 1999b: 6-12), although *an* (안) is more common in the urban areas and among young people today.

Moreover, the Middle Korean nominalizers *-do* (도) and *-deul* (들) are still being used in Jejuo negative patterns, as illustrated in (17) and (18).⁵⁾

(17) *Na-n ssaweo-bo-do ani-haw-yeos-jeo.* (난 싸워보도 아니헛엇저)

I-TOP fight-try-NMLZ not-do-PFV-SE

‘I’ve never fought.’

(18) *Badang-i ga-deul ani-haw-yeos-jeo.* (바당이 가들 아니헛엇저)

sea-DIR go-NMLZ not-do-PFV-SE

‘(I) didn’t go to the sea.’

In addition, *-deun* (든) is also found in the Jejuo long negation construction, corresponding to Korean as *-ji-neun* (지는).⁶⁾

5) According to Park (2014: 34), *-di* (디) is the proto-form of *-ji* (지) before it was palatalized. In addition, *-do* (도), *-di* (디), and *-dawl/deul* (들/들) also appear in the same position as *-di* (디) in the 15th century literature.

6) *-deul* (들) and *-deun* (든) may be related to the middle Korean morphemes, *-di* (디) or *-do* (도) followed by the accusative marker, *-l* (ㄹ) and the topic marker, *-n* (ㄴ) respectively. Further study of these morphemes is needed.

- (19) *Bab meog-deun ani-haw-n-da.* (밥 먹든 아니한다)
 rice eat-NMLZ not-NEG-do-NPST-SE
 ‘(S/he) doesn’t eat rice.’ (Park, 1960: 347)

3.1.5 Jejueo vs. Korean

Because Korean is the dominant language for most residents of Jeju Island, explicit instruction is often required to clarify the differences between Jejueo and Korean in how they express negation which might be responsible for communication breakdown.⁷⁾ I focus here on four such differences.

1) *ani* (아니) ‘not’

In Jejueo, descriptive verbs are often constructed with the help of the light verb *haw-da* (한다), including color-denoting predicates (Moon, 1998a: 70). These expressions generally appear in long negation as in (20).

- (20) *Nolang-haw-ji an-haw-da.* (노랑하지 않는다)
 yellow-do-NMLZ not-be-SE
 ‘(Something) is not yellow.’ (Moon, 1998a: 70)

However, according to Moon (1999b: 17), descriptive verbs of this type are also compatible with short negation in which the negator can occur in either of the two positions illustrated below.

- (21) a. *An nolang-haw-da.* (안 노랑한다)
 not yellow-be-SE
 ‘(Something) is not yellow.’
 b. *Nolang an haw-da.* (노랑안 한다)
 yellow not be-SE
 ‘(Something) is not yellow.’

2) Contraction

Whereas *an-ha-da* (안하다) is contracted to *anh-da* (안다) ‘not do’ in Korean (Lee, 2003: 531), Jejueo manifests a contraction operation that reduces *ani + haw-da* (아니 + 한다) to *anyeo-da* (아녀다) ‘not do.’ (Moon, 1999b: 29)

Korean: *an + haw-da* (안 + 한다)

1) contraction occurs

2) becomes *anh-da* (안다) ‘not do’

7) According to O’Grady (2014), participants from Yeosu, Busan, and Seoul understood less than 10% of the spoken narrative given in Jejueo (average of 7.35%). When the same method was applied to the pair of Norwegian and Dutch, Norwegian was 9.89% intelligible to L1 Dutch speakers (Yang et al., 2019: 11).

Jejueo: *ani* + *haw-da* (아니+하다)

- 1) *h* deletion in *haw-da* (하다) ‘do’
- 2) contraction occurs
- 3) becomes *anyeo-da* (아녀다)⁸⁾

(22) *I bae-neun keuji-do anyeo-ju.* (이 배는 크지도 아녀주)
 this ship-NOM large-even not.do-SE
 ‘This ship is not even large.’ (Moon, 1999c: 29)

Moreover, Jejueo speakers commonly use the non-contracted form *ani-haw-da* (아니하다) as in (23).

(23) *I bae-neun keuji-do ani-haw-ju.* (이 배는 크지도 아니하주)
 this ship-NOM large-even not.do-SE
 ‘This ship is not even large.’

3) *mos* (못) negation

mos (못) can generally not appear with descriptive verbs in Korean, where it expresses inability or the impossibility of doing something (also see section 3.1.2).⁹⁾ There is no such restriction in Jejueo.

- (24) a. *Nal-i joh-ji mos-he-do ga-sa-ju.* (날이 좋지 못해도 가사주)
 day-NOM good-NMLZ cannot-do-although go-must-SE
 ‘Although the weather is not good, (we) must go.’
- b. *I bae-neun keu-ji-do mos-haw-ju.* (이 배는 크지도 못하주)
 this boat-NOM large-NMLZ-even not.do-SE
 ‘This boat is not even large.’ (Moon, 1999c: 29)
- c. *Be-ga dawndwn-haw-ji mos-haw-yeononan...* (배가 든든 하지 못 하여노난...)
 stomach-NOM hard-do-NMLZ cannot-do-because
 ‘Because my stomach is not full...’
- d. *Jikkeoji-ji mos-haw-yeos-jeo.* (지꺼지지 못하엿저)
 joyful-NMLZ cannot-do-PFV-SE
 ‘(I) am not joyful.’

8) Lee and Ramsey (2011: 299) report the use of (*haw-di*) *anyeo* (하다 아녀) ‘not (do)’ in texts from the 17th and 18th centuries. The (*ha-ji*) *ani haw-da* (하지 아니하다) ‘not do’ and the more contemporary contracted form (*ha-ji*) *anh-da* (하지 않다) ‘not do’ replaced (*haw-di*) *anyeo* (하다 아녀) in modern Korean. Therefore, the form *anyeo-da* (아녀다) in Jejueo seems to be another example of the retention of the Middle Korean form.

9) However, *mos* (못) appears with descriptive verbs in idiomatic expressions such as *mos-hata* (못하다) ‘be inferior’, and *mos-mattanghata* (못마땅하다) ‘be unsatisfactory’ (Sohn 1999: 389).

4) *mos dwe-da* (못 웨다) ‘cannot become’

In Jejuo, *mos* (못) can negate the verb *dwe-da* (웨다) ‘become’, yielding a construction equivalent to Korean *-su eobs-da* (수 없다) ‘cannot do’.

(25) *Eodi ga-ng dodog-jil-do mos dwe-go.* (어디 강 도둑질도 못 웨고)

where. go-CON steal-doing-even cannot become-CON

‘(I) can’t even do stealing anywhere.’ (Moon, 1999b: 8)

[Jejuo]

(26) *Eodi ga-seo dodug-jil ha-l su-do eobs-go.* (어디 가서 도둑질 할 수도 없고)

where go-CON steal-doing do-FUT.CON ability-even not.have-CON

‘(I) can’t even do stealing anywhere.’

[Korean]

3.2 Lexical negation

Another common way to negate in Jejuo involves using inherently negative verbs such as *mal-da* (말다) ‘don’t do’/‘not’/‘no’, ‘let go’ and *eos-da* (엇다) ‘not exist’, *ani-da* (아니다) ‘be not’ and *moleu-da* (모르다) ‘don’t know’. Here too there are differences between Jejuo and Korean.

3.2.1 *mal-da* (말다) ‘don’t/not/ let go/no’

In Jejuo *mal-da* (말다) has multiple meanings: ‘don’t’, ‘not’, ‘no’, ‘let go’,

1) don’t

As can be seen in (27)-(29), *mal-da* (말다) is used to express prohibition of the actions expressed by the embedded verbs *ga-da* (가다) ‘go’, *meog-da* (먹다) ‘eat’, *mawngkae-da* (몽깨다) ‘dawdle,’ each of which is followed by the *nominalizer* *-ji* (지) or *-deulan* (드란).

(27) *Ga-ji mal-ge.* (가지 말게)

go-NMLZ don’t-SE

‘Let’s not go.’

(28) *Mawngkae-ji mal-ang hawnjeo gawjy-eo-o-sim.* (몽깨지 말앙 혼저 그져오심)

dawdle-NOM don’t-CON quickly take-LV-come-SE

‘Don’t dawdle and bring it (to me) quickly.’ (Kang, 2000: 30)

(29) *Bab meog-deulan mal-la.*¹⁰⁾ (밥 먹드란 말라)

meal eat-NMLZ don’t-SE

‘Don’t eat a meal.’ (Park, 1960: 347)

While Korean does not allow *mal-da* (말다) to stand alone in imperatives and propositives, it can be used alone in

10) *-deulan* (드란) is another unique nominalizer found in Jejuo and its origin needs to be further studied (also see section 3.1.3).

Jejueo to express prohibition of an action. This usage is also found in Middle Korean (Moon, 1998b: 44). The Korean equivalent of *mal-la* (말라) ‘don’t (do that)’ is *ha-ji ma* (하지마), as in (31).

- | | | | |
|---|-----------------|---|-----------------|
| <p>(30) <i>Mal-la</i>. (말라)
 don’t-SE
 ‘Don’t (do that).’</p> | <p>[Jejueo]</p> | <p>(31) <i>Ha-ji ma</i>. (하지마)
 do-NMLZ don’t
 ‘Don’t (do that).’</p> | <p>[Korean]</p> |
|---|-----------------|---|-----------------|

2) not

As can be seen in (32), *mal-da* (말다) is used in Jejueo, whereas *anh-da* (안다) is more commonly used in Korean.

- | | |
|---|-----------------|
| <p>(32) <i>Hawggyo ga-ji mal-k-yeo</i>. (학교 가지 말켜)
 school go-NMLZ not-PROSP-SE
 ‘(I) will not go to school.’ (Moon, 1998b: 31)</p> | <p>[Jejueo]</p> |
| <p>(33) <i>Haggyo ga-ji anh-gess-eo</i>. (학교 가지 않겠어)
 school go-NMLZ not-PROSP-SE
 ‘(I) will not go to school.’</p> | <p>[Korean]</p> |

3) let go

mal-da (말다) is used to express the speaker’s suggestion to let things go (not to worry) in a particular situation.

- (34) *Ga-geon mal-ju*. (가건 말주)
go-CON let.go-SE
‘If (he/she) goes, let (it) go.’ (Moon, 1998b: 30)

4) no

As illustrated in (35), *mal-da* (말다) can be used in responses to yes/no questions, in contrast to Korean. In this case, *mal-da* (말다) is equivalent to *silh-da* (싫다) ‘don’t want/like’ in Korean (Moon, 1998b: 35). This is a unique feature of negation in Jejueo and different from Korean—yet another point of which teachers should be aware.

- (35) *Badang-i ga-k-a?* (바당이 가카?)
sea-DIR go-PROSP-SE
‘Shall we go to the sea?’
- (36) *Mal-da*. (말다)
not.do-SE
‘No.’

The negative verbs *eos-da* (엇다) ‘not be/exist/have’ and *ani-yeo* (아니여) ‘no’ can also be used in this way.

(37) *Eos-da.* (엇다)
not.be-SE
'No.'

(38) *Ani-yeo.* (아니여)
not-SE
'No.'

3.2.2 *eos-da* (엇다) 'not have/be'

eos/eus-da (엇다/웃다) is equivalent to Korean *eobs-da* (없다) 'not have/be' and serves as the negative counterpart of *is/sis-da* (잇다/잇다) 'be/have' in Jejuo.

1) not have

eos-da (엇다) can indicate that one does not have something.

(39) *Halmang jib-i eos-eon jawdeul-ams-jeo.* (할망이 집이 엇언 즈들았저)
grandmother-NOM house-NOM not.have-CON get.worried-CONT-SE
'Grandmother is getting worried because she doesn't have a house.' (Jung, 1983: 12)

2) not be in a particular location

eos-da (엇다) can also indicate that something 'isn't' at a particular location.

(40) *Halmang i-dui eos-jeo.* (할망 이디 엇저)
grandmother here-place not.be-SE
'Grandmother isn't here.'

Another unique feature of *eos-da* (엇다) in Jejuo is that it can also be used in response to yes/no questions. According to Moon (1997: 180), *eos-da* (엇다) is more commonly found in older speakers' speech whereas *ani-da* (아니다) is more widely used among younger speakers. Moreover, she observes that *eos-da* (엇다) is used to deny the question itself, thereby conveying the more direct and affirmative intention of the negated answer, 'no'.

(41) *Badang-i ga-n?* (바당이 간?)
sea-DIR go-PST
'Did you go to the sea?'

(42) *Eos-da.* (엇다)
not.be-SE
'No.'

(43) *Ani-yeo.* (아니여)
not-SE
'No.'

3.2.3 *ani-da* (아니다) 'be not'

According to Moon (1999a: 96) *ani-da* (아니다) 'be not' is a compound verb which can be analyzed as the negative marker *ani* (아니) 'not' and the copula *i-da* (이다) 'be'. As can be seen in (44), *ani-da* (아니다) negates a preceding noun.

Moon (1999a: 26) notes that fluent speakers use both *eos-da* (엇다) and *ani-yeo* (아니여) in this context, whereas less fluent speakers prefer *ani-yeo* (아니여) which is similar to the Korean form, *ani-ya* (아니야).

3.3 Summary of differences and similarities in negation between Jejuo and Korean

As mentioned earlier, the differences and similarities may be one of the crucial factors in learning Jejuo for those who have no knowledge of Jejuo but understand how Korean works. The similarities between Jejuo and Korean that summarized below may facilitate the learning of Jejuo whereas the differences can be expected to have the opposite effect.

Similarities

- A. Both Jejuo and Korean have two types of negative patterns: syntactic and lexical.
- B. In syntactic negation, both languages use short and long-negation patterns with *an* (안) and *mos* (못).
- C. In short negation, both languages place *an* (안) and *mos* (못) in the preverbal position and negate simple facts with *an* (안) and express inability or impossibility with *mos* (못).
- D. In long negation, both languages place *ani* (아니) and *mos* (못) in the postverbal position, creating a complex negative expression such as *-ji ani-haw-da* (지 아니하다) or *-ji mos-haw-da* (지 못하다). These constructions express the same basic meaning as their equivalents of short negation.
- E. In lexical negation, both languages use verbs that are inherently negative such as *moleu-da* (모르다) ‘don’t know’ and *ani-da* (아니다) ‘be not’, and *mal-da* (말다) ‘don’t do’.

Differences

1) Syntactic negation

- A. Fluent Jejuo speakers use *ani* (아니 also *ai* 아이) extensively, whereas *an* (안) is exclusively used by Korean speakers.
- B. Color-denoting descriptive verbs allow both short and long-negation patterns in Jejuo (see example 20)
- C. Jejuo allows *an/ani/ai* (안/아니/아이) before a compound color-denoting descriptive verb, whereas Korean only allows long-negation pattern. Moreover, negators in Jejuo can appear either before or after the noun stem (see example 20).
- D. In Jejuo, *mos* (못) can appear with descriptive verbs in long-negation pattern, unlike Korean. (see example 24)
- E. In Jejuo, *mos* (못) is used where *-su eobs-da* (수 없다) is preferred in Korean (see examples 25-26).
- F. In Jejuo, the middle Korean morphemes *-deul* (들), *-do* (도), *-deun* (든) appear in the long-negation pattern, where the nominalizer *-ji* (지) is preferred in Korean (see examples 17-19).
- G. In Korean, *ani-haw-da* (아니하다) has been contracted to *anh-da* (안하다) whereas the contracted form in Jejuo has no ‘h’ as in *anyeo-da* (아녀다) (see example 22).
- H. In Jejuo, *-deulan* (드란) is used where *-ji* (지) is preferred in the *mal-da* (말다) imperative pattern in Korean (see example 29).

2) Lexical negation

- A. In Jejueo, *mal-da* (말다) can stand alone in imperatives and propositives, unlike Korean (see examples 30-31).
- B. In Jejueo, *mal-da* (말다) is used where *anh-da* (안다) is more commonly used in Korean (see examples 32-33).
- C. Unlike Korean, *mal-da* (말다) and *eus/eos-da* (웃/엇다) can be used in responses to questions in Jejueo (see examples 36-37, 42, and 50).
- D. *ani-da* (아니다) can stand alone without a sentence ender in Jejueo whereas it is ungrammatical in Korean (see examples 45-46).

In the following section, I suggest how to address the similarities that can be carried over ‘for free’ from Korean to Jejueo and more importantly how to treat the differences between the two languages as the target for pedagogical efforts in the classroom using modern grammar teaching methods.

4. Classroom Applications

4.1 Grammar teaching in the modern language classroom

One of the approaches to language teaching that has gained popularity in recent years is Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which reflects the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) philosophy (Nunan, 2011). The main idea of TBLT is to link classroom language learning with real-world language use through meaningful and communicative tasks that reflect learners’ experiences and interactions in the target language (Nunan, 2011).

The role of grammar in TBLT is to enhance effective communication rather than to be the end goal of the teaching process. However, there are two separate views on grammar teaching in TBLT. First, Long and Crookes (1992), who are strong proponents of the task-based syllabus, reject traditional approaches to grammar teaching such as PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) or Harmer’s (1998) ESA (Engage-Study-Activate) teaching model because they include structure-based teaching.

In contrast, Ellis (2009) argues that traditional approaches are complementary to TBLT and provide the necessary knowledge of grammar for successful communication. This view is based on practical issues reported from around the world. For example, there has been criticism of the lack of grammar teaching in the immersion program in Canada where the explicit focus on grammatical forms could have increased accuracy (Sheen, 2003). Moreover, Carless (2004) found three main problems in implementing task-based teaching in the English classrooms in Hong Kong: use of the L1, learners’ lack of discipline during group/pair work, and the completion of tasks with little target language production.

In the case of teaching Jejueo, Ellis’s (2009) position for TBLT, which allows grammar teaching, seems to be more advantageous as it provides flexibility in teaching. According to her, explicit form-focused instruction can be used in TBLT and tasks can be designed to focus on target grammatical features in a way that avoids obvious instruction but still helps learners use those features in the given task.

It is, therefore, more sensible to adopt an eclectic approach to grammar teaching while acknowledging both the challenges and benefits of TBLT and PPP (or ESA). While TBLT provides opportunities for learners to perform and

explore language in a more communicative way, traditional approaches can provide a controlled environment in which grammatical knowledge enhances accuracy. The next section proposes a sample lesson plan on how to teach negation in Jejueo by combining both TBLT and traditional approaches (PPP and ESA).

4.2 Teaching negation in Jejueo

To demonstrate how to teach negation, I adopt a chapter on negation from the Jejueo textbook (Chapter 7), *Jejueo 1* (Yang et al., 2017). This textbook is for beginners and is the first textbook designed to teach the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing with audio files. Grammar practice is also included in each chapter.

The role of the teacher is to facilitate tasks, motivate learners, give feedback and introduce grammatical structure. The role of learners is to actively participate in tasks and to use the target language. This demonstration follows the three pedagogic sequences proposed by TBLT: Pre-task, Main Task, Post-Task. In this format, grammar instruction can be placed between the pre-task and the main task phases so that learners may consider using the newly introduced structure during the main task phase (Skehan, 2003: 9; Ellis, 2009: 232).

- 1) Pre-Task: Engage, introduce a topic. Use reading/ listening activities.
- 2) Presentation/Study: Instruct grammar: focus on form, meaning, and use
- 3) Main Task: Perform pedagogic tasks. (e.g. information gap, problem-solving, role-playing, simulations, oral discussion, project work and storytelling (Ashraf Ganjouee et al., 2018; Rubdy, 1998))
- 4) Post-Task: Report outcomes.

4.2.1 Pre-task

In the pre-task phase, the presentation of a picture introduces a new topic. As can be seen in the picture below, two people are sitting looking bored. One person is suggesting, Uli gwegi meog-k-a? ‘Shall we eat meat?’ and the other person is rejecting the suggestion by saying Mal-da, na gwegi an meog-na ‘No, I don’t eat meat.’

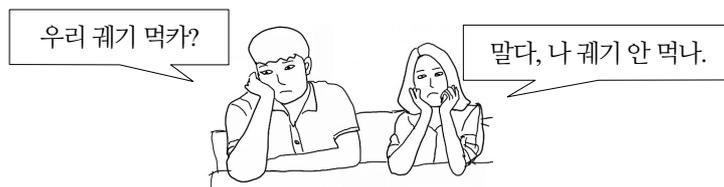


Fig. 1. Pre-task: Introduction of the topic using a picture (adapted from Yang et al., 2017: 43)

The picture is followed by a short dialogue that includes a series of sample utterances (see Figure 2). The teacher can first play the accompanying audio file and ask learners to say words that they have heard or know.

[여약] (7-1) Dialogue

만수: 소연아, 즈영게 타게! ‘Soyeon, let’s ride a bike.’
 소연: 말다, 종애 아프다. ‘No, my leg hurts.’
 만수: 게민, 우리 궤기 먹카? ‘Then, shall we eat meat?’
 소연: 말다, 나 궤기 안 먹나. ‘No, I don’t eat meat.’
 만수: 기? 경흐민 우리 책이나 보게! ‘Really? Then, let’s read books.’
 소연: 경 흐게. 느 책 잇어? ‘OK, let’s do that. Do you have books?’
 만수: 엇저. 흐나 빌려도라. ‘No, lend me one.’
 소연: 기여. ‘Sure.’

Fig. 2. Pre-task: A written dialogue with audio (adapted from Yang et al., 2017: 43)

The teacher may then play the audio file one more time and challenge learners to take note of additional words (phrases or sentences). After listening, learners are asked to compare what they heard with their partners and report back to the class.

4.2.2 Presentation

In the presentation phase, the target short-negation pattern with *ani* (아니) and the negative response *mal-da* (말다) can be introduced as in Figure 3.

Grammar 1: Short-negation Pattern	Grammar 2: Responding
<p style="text-align: center;">아니 (아이, 안) 동사-나 an (ani, ai) V-na</p> <p>Examples</p> <p>궤기 아니 먹나. ‘I don’t eat meat.’ 책 아니 익나. ‘I don’t read books.’ 글 아니 죽나. ‘I don’t write.’ 갱이 아니 잡나. ‘I don’t catch crabs.’</p> 	<p style="text-align: center;">제안: 독세기 사게* ‘Let’s buy egg’ </p> <p>1) 긍정 대답 Positive response: 오, 기여. ‘Yes.’ 2) 부정 대답 Negative response: 말다, 독세기 안 먹나. ‘No, I don’t eat eggs.’</p>

Fig. 3. Presentation: Short-negation construction and responses to suggestions (adapted from Yang et al., 2017: 45-46)

From a grammatical perspective, the teacher can use either a deductive or an inductive strategy to teach the target construction. If a deductive method is chosen, the teacher explains the rule first and then introduce examples. In an inductive approach, in contrast, the teacher introduces a list of examples and then lets learners figure out the underlying rule. Since short-negation pattern is very similar to Korean, learners should easily come up with the appropriate rule. The exception involving the preverbal position of *an* (안) with color-denoting verbs in Jeju dialect can then be pointed out in this phase (see 3.1.5 for more details).

- (21) a. *An nolang-haw-da.* (안 노랑하다)
not yellow-be-SE
'(Something) is not yellow.' (Moon, 1998a: 70)
- b. *Nolang an haw-da.* (노랑 안 하다)
yellow not be-SE
'(Something) is not yellow.' (Moon, 1998a: 70)

At this point, the negative response *mal-da* (말다) is introduced in the same context as in the dialogue in the pre-task phase. Because the use of *mal-da* (말다) differs from Korean when used in responses to yes/no questions, the teacher should give explicit instruction on the point (see section 3.2.1).

4.2.3 Main task

The main task, which must have a goal and an outcome, is performed at this point. The particular task designed for this unit uses the interview method; its main goal is to find a person who accepts suggestions on a given day. At the end of this task, learners will find out what kinds of activities their classmates do and not do.¹²⁾

- 1) Goal: Find people who can do the activities together each day.
- 2) Level: Beginners
- 3) Materials: 2 or 3 sets of identical pictures of activities (depending on class size, see Figure 4) and a one-week calendar (7 days) (see Figure 5)



Cheg ig-na. (책 읽나) '(I) read books.'



Gwegi meog-na. (궤기 먹나) '(I) eat meat.'

Fig. 4. Sample pictures of activities (adapted from Yang et al., 2017: 46)

Mon.	Tue.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.	Sun.

Fig. 5. Sample calendar (adapted from Yang et al., 2017: 46)

- 4) Task type: Interview, a whole class
- 5) Time: 20 minutes
- 6) Procedure

12) Tasks should be carefully designed by considering a series of factors such as task difficulty, the amount of language use, time, and expected background knowledge (Rudby, 1998: 264).

- a. Each learner chooses 2 pictures and places them on a preferred day on the calendar.
- b. Learners then interview each other, inviting them to do an activity on a particular day.
- c. Learners can accept an invitation-only when they have the same activity pictures placed on the same day.
Learners can invite more than one person to participate.

Example conversation

A: 쨩일날 책 익게. ‘Let’s read books on Sunday.’

B: 말다. 나 책 안 익나. ‘No, I don’t read books.’ OR 으/기여. ‘OK.’

- d. After responding, learners can ask for two more pictures, place them on different days, and interview other people.
- e. The task ends when at least one person fills in all 7 days.
- f. During the task, the teacher monitors the learners’ performance and give corrective feedback when necessary.
- g. The learners are encouraged to use any linguistic knowledge they have to communicate during the task.

4.2.4 Post-task

In the post-task phase, learners report on what they do on each day and with whom. Moreover, learners are encouraged to talk about what kinds of activities their classmates do and not do.

5. Conclusion

In sum, the study has described two common types of Jejeuo negation—syntactic negation and lexical negation, focusing on similarities and differences between Jejeuo and Korean. Drawing on previous work on Jejeuo, the patterns are further categorized into short and long negation involving the negators *ani* (아니) and *mos* (몯).

In a context where there is only limited training in how to teach Jejeuo and little educational infrastructure, teachers (and their students) may benefit from an understanding of differences and similarities in the grammatical patterns of Korean and Jejeuo. Based on this understanding, teachers can identify and point out errors that reflect the transfer from Korean to Jejeuo. In some cases (depending on the students’ age and level), the feedback might even illustrate where the errors stem from and give appropriate suggestions to learners.

The need for teaching Jejeuo in schools is clear as the language is still not being acquired by young learners even after several years of efforts at revitalization. A majority of teachers in Jeju are not fluent speakers and they need support that includes practical suggestions. The sample lesson in section 4, whose design is based on TBLT and PPP, will hopefully find its way into the hands of enthusiastic teachers to be modified, improved, and used in the classroom.

A list of abbreviation

CON= connective	NOM= nominative	SE= sentence ender
DIR= directional	NPST= non-past	TOP= topic
FUT= future	PFV= perfective	1= first person
INST =Instrumental	PROSP = prospective	SG= singular
NMLZ= nominalizer	PST= past	

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