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## ISSUES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING FROM A COMMUNICATIVE PERSPECTIVE

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**Keywords:** Linguistics, Korean language, oral speech, structure, borrowed vocabulary, research, proposal, methodology, educational technologies, semantics

**Abstract:** In the circle of the humanities, linguistics plays a significant place. The nature of interdisciplinary relations, and the mutual influence of these sciences and linguistics largely determined the strategic directions of language learning and established the type of correlation of tradition and innovation in the history of linguistic teachings. They were interested in the problems of naming, the connection between thought and speech, the relationship between lexical and grammatical semantics, the theory of anomalies and analogies, and the questions of the origin of the language. This article presents the issues of speech activity and communication. In studies of speech activity, it was found that almost every speech utterance contains speech phenomena that are not provided neither with the language system nor with the norm of the language or with the usage. In this article sentences of motivation in the Korean language are considered, as well as forms of imperative and inviting inclination which are added to motivational sentences. This fact makes syntax science solve the actual problems of communication and cognition. The question of the sentence and its structure, and peculiarities of the syntax connection have various solutions in the research of the contemporary Korean language. The reason is that in syntax analyzing theoretical questions is connected mostly with the research of simple and complicated sentences, defining the methods of interaction of different parts of the sentence. The sentence is a unit of communication and its semantics and structural composition had specific signs and certain grammatical constructions.

### 1. Introduction. Methods of Linguistic Research

Cultural exchange and changes in the education system, along with the active implementation of pedagogical technologies in language instruction, stimulate the transition to new technologies in all sectors of the economy. Specifically, teaching becomes interconnected and interdependent within the framework of intercultural communication, which requires no lengthy explanation. Seminars, trainings, and other activities of every kind are organized in the present day to satisfy sociohistorical and educational requirements. The pressing concerns raised by these events pertain to language acquisition in relation to its application across various domains of society, including science, technology, economy, and culture. In addition, it is critical to study languages in a synchronous cross-section, that is, in close proximity to the world of the studied language, against the broad backdrop of the social, cultural, and political life of the people who speak the language. Additionally, we encounter linguocultural issues arbitrarily in this instance.

Every scientific discipline, in addition to its subject matter, necessitates specific research methodologies. The concept of "method" in both its general philosophical and specific limited meaning. Method, in a philosophical sense,


is a process of understanding and interpreting any real-world phenomenon. In essence, a method refers to a structured collection of research techniques and procedures that facilitate the intentional investigation of a particular subject matter from a particular standpoint. Linguistic methodology may be founded upon an individual language or a collection of languages. Specialization refers to the concentration on a specific level of a language. The structural or functional properties of the language under investigation constitute aspects of methodology. Methodology refers to the incorporation of a specific research technique into the overall research process. We differentiate between the following methods: observation, isolation of linguistic units, generalization of units into classes, modeling, and experimentation. Additionally, we acknowledge the subsequent methodologies:

1. Descriptive method. A system of research techniques known as the descriptive method is employed to characterize linguistic phenomena at a particular stage of their evolution. It constitutes a synchronous analysis method. The method is founded upon the observational method, which involves the intuitive selection of linguistic units and their subsequent synthesis. The objective is to

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ascertain specific facts or phenomena and incorporate them into the canon of scientific inquiry.

2. Method of primary segmentation: 1) primary segmentation; 2) secondary segmentation, which involves the isolation of structural elements; and 3) interpretation of the structural and nominative communicative units that have been selected.

3. Structural methods. The primary objective is to depict and describe the system of a language by representing its structure. Description the semantic structure of a term is beneficial. It is predicated on the fact that fundamental units of meaning that are interconnected in a systemic fashion constitute the lexical meaning of a word.

#### **2. Communicative method in language teaching**

The current phase of foreign language instruction in our country is characterized by methodological efforts in response to the escalating intricacy of pedagogical challenges and the pressing requirement to implement novel technologies. When imparting knowledge of a foreign language, the *communicative method* of learning currently demands meticulous consideration. What is the communicative method and what professional development do instructors who employ this method undergo? The objective of the communicative method is to facilitate the concurrent growth of fundamental language abilities (including speaking, writing, grammar, reading, and listening) through the use of upbeat, casual dialogue. Instructors are primarily responsible for instructing students in foreign language communication. By situating the presentation of vocabulary, grammatical structures, and expressions of a foreign language within an authentic, emotionally charged scenario, the student is more likely to retain the material in a lasting and efficient manner. The communicative approach entails minimizing the psychological distance that exists between the instructor and learner, while primarily addressing the challenge of foreign language instruction through effective communication. A multitude of innovative approaches and strategies for executing template tasks and incorporating game elements into instruction infuse lessons with vitality, foster positive affective states among students, and bolster their drive to learn. By organizing activities such as working "in pairs," "in threes," "in groups," and engaging in discussions on topics of interest to students, instructors can cater to the unique qualities of each student, foster an engaging and innovative learning environment, and enable students to perform a portion of the teaching process unnoticably.

By utilizing instructional strategies such as working "in pairs," "in threes," "in groups," and engaging in discussions on topics of interest to students, instructors can effectively cater to the unique attributes of each student, foster an engaging and innovative learning environment, and maintain complete authority over the learning process without the students' knowledge. Additionally, it is pertinent to recall the topic of speech performance in foreign language courses at this juncture. This attribute implies that during the instruction of a foreign language, speech activities that solve communicative tasks—finding expression in the acquisition of valuable information through reading and communicating—should be the focal point. Practical orientation in speech does not merely adorn the lesson; rather, it transforms it into its core essence; consequently, all other activities in the lesson ought to be subordinate to the completion of this task.

An alternative solution that warrants consideration is the *integrated character of foreign language instruction*. This approach necessitates the inclusion of listening, speaking, and reading instruction in an 80-minute class for the overwhelming majority of instances. In this particular

instance, writing serves solely as a vehicle to instruct other forms of verbal activity during a specific phase of the practical course.

*An abundance of diverse aides, encompassing both technical and non-technical varieties*, may also serve as a remedy for challenges encountered in communication learning. The imperative nature of this strategy is justified by the fact that, when utilized appropriately, teaching instruments significantly enhance the efficacy of both the instructor's instruction and the students' learning.

*Students' linguistic activity is increased during instruction in speaking and reading foreign literature*. If the student engages in active speech activities no more than twice or thrice during the practical instruction (for a total of a few minutes), the learning impact of this form of influence will be minimal. Conversely, increased engagement in oral speech activity facilitates the completion of learning tasks with greater efficiency and within a reduced timeframe.

Indeed, the establishment of an *artificial foreign language environment* emerges as the paramount resolution to the challenges inherent in foreign language instruction. This entails that a significant portion of the curriculum is delivered in a foreign language, with sessions taking place in dedicated spaces furnished with country studies resources and technological apparatus (the more, the more beneficial). The significance of establishing such a communicative atmosphere cannot be overstated, as a foreign language environment can only be created in the context of meticulously planned and adequately outfitted classes, in contrast to all other disciplines.

Before proceeding, it is imperative to delineate the most prevalent deficiencies of conventional practical classes and propose strategies to surmount them:

a) ambiguity or the absence of a distinct objective for practical training. When this occurs, the objective is frequently stated broadly, as in "teaching oral speech" or "teaching to read a specialized text," which is, in reality, the objective of the entire three-stage foreign language course. When presented with such a task statement, both the instructor and the students are uncertain about their respective responsibilities. Given such a set of objectives, it is obviously inappropriate to discuss the educational process's efficacy. In order to rectify this significant deficiency, the instructor must assign three distinct objectives for every lesson: practical, general educational, and educational. For instance, "to instruct students on the process of descending intonation within a narrative sentence" or "to teach monologic utterance (at the two or three sentence level) pertaining to the subject matter of the text..." "to broaden students' understanding of the progression of... (agriculture, industry, medicine, etc.)" on the subject matter of the text; to instill in students a sense of pride for their own accomplishments; to foster reverence for the instructor and the older generation on the subject matter; and to instill in students the determination to surmount challenges in..."

b) The practical lesson's structure is deemed irrational, leading to the allocation of 30-50% of the instructional time towards overseeing completed assignments. As a consequence, a reasonable allocation of time to one or more phases of the course is disrupted. An increasingly apparent negative trend emerges in this regard: educators who lack methodological rigor exert greater control over their students, as they are incapable of implementing and varying effective teaching approaches. While instructing is the primary responsibility of the instructor during practical classes, control should also occur; however, it is critical that control be exercised selectively, with the most crucial exercises and fragments of the material

being examined. Building upon the aforementioned, the instructional control methods that sustain learning throughout the control process ought to be the most widely utilized.

c) An example of an irrational structure is the arrangement of practical training in which the teacher's speech activity is significantly elevated (22–33%, according to research data), while the students' speech activity is excessively low (approximately 5%). It is crucial to bear in mind that students have the exclusive use of the first eighty minutes of instruction time. The responsibility of the instructor is to design instructional methods that maximize the time allotment for active learning techniques, encompassing both reading and speaking.

In the course of acquiring proficiency in various languages, linguistic competencies and knowledge are mutually influenced. Observations indicate that in bilingualism, distinct speech content domains are influenced differently by various languages. Proficiency in certain aspects of the grammatical structure of previously learned languages facilitates the learning process of the new languages, whereas hinders the acquisition of the structure of the new language are other aspects of the grammatical structure. In light of the observed trends in practical communication and the increased pace of Korean language acquisition in Uzbekistan, we have been tasked with undertaking this study from two unique perspectives: firstly, from the standpoint of minimal informative sufficiency, and secondly, from the standpoint of communicative sufficiency. In sentences with minimal informative sufficiency in communication, this establishes the necessity of a comprehensive approach to the study of the grammatical and functional-semantic nature of the primary sentence components in modern Korean.

V.V. Krasnykh asserts that the lingua-cognitive approach to communication enables the identification, analysis, and organization of elements that are intrinsically linked to the national distinctiveness of consciousness: the cognitive plan of discourse and the macro-cognitive layer of communication, which is denoted by context and presupposition. Therefore, the lingua-cognitive approach to communication enables us to examine the entirety of determinants that impact the communication process, in addition to the system of phenomena that, on the one hand, mirror the nation-specific characteristics of the mental-linguistic complex and, on the other, foretell the nation-cultural particularities of communication itself.

As one acquires proficiency in multiple languages, they mutually influence one another in terms of linguistic expertise and knowledge. Observations indicate that in bilingualism, one language influences the other in various speech content domains in diverse ways, but predominantly for the better. Proficiency in specific aspects of the grammatical structure of previously learned languages facilitates the assimilation of novel learning material. The “favorability” of teaching, or the use of the situation in teaching, should be mentioned in consideration of the peculiarities of the language situation when students are instructed in an academic institution in a third language and not only their native tongue. These instances ought to result in fruitful outcomes in the instruction of foreign languages, a subject that is currently critical for the education of young professionals across all domains.

### 3. Language and cultural-linguistic knowledge in the study

Understanding specific aspects of Korean culture and, without a doubt, the Korean language, is beneficial for grammatical-semantic structure research. By this, we refer to the formation of a sentence as a unit of communication

that is adequate. “You can understand a Korean by listening to him to the end” is a statement that is frequently encountered. Such ostensibly trivial deductions reveal intriguing truths; therefore, it is vital to pay close attention to the structure of an utterance. The agglutinative changes that transpire in the base of the predicate and the placement of the predicate at the conclusion of the sentence in Korean communicate not only the semantic content of the sentence but also the speaker's emotional state. Consider inductive sentences written in Korean. Primarily, grammatical affixes and intonation, of which there are numerous varieties (depending on what is conveyed in the sentence—order or request, advice or appeal, etc.—formalize the inductive nature of an utterance. “We” (including the recipient) is the typical subject of inductive sentences. Sentences of this nature are not permitted to include any verbs that possess affixes of the future, present, or past tenses (e.g., *at/ot, get*). Grammatical means of formalizing inductive sentences are formalized by affixes *tzha*, which, as mentioned previously, also formalize the inductive intonation (in some cases *pschida, sichzhe*, etc.).

*Bodocja is onyl hep. Sen'gakkhya pochja, Girigo.*  
(translation: *Let's attempt to do today and try to think.*)

A certain number of examples are analytic forms of the inductive mood with the particle *davay*, *davayte* (let, let's) (-ka). This type of volitional speech acts is characteristic of article-essays. For example: “소통합시다”...강기정 광주시장-시민단체 “맞장 토론”. “Let's communicate”...Gwangju Mayor Kang Ki-jong and civic groups are “talking face to face” (연합 뉴스. 2023-01-30);

In relation to imperative sentences classified by utterance type, Korean encompasses a variety of imperative forms: When speaking directly to the interlocutor while facing them, the direct imperative is formed by appending the imperative endings *ara/ora, kora/nora* to the verb base: *Palli poara*. (English: *Glance hastily*). When addressing a large number of objects of command or when addressing via the press (or other forms of mass media), indirect command is typically employed. The scientific observations unequivocally validate the significance of the current investigation, given the lack of research into not only the formation of the communicative unit in dynamics but also the composition of sentences in Modern Korean that contain only minimal information. New approaches to the study have been established in light of the recent dynamics of Korean language development: from the standpoint of Korean studies in Korea and from the standpoint of foreign Korean studies. Diverse approaches to the study of Korean in Korea and abroad demonstrate that nearly every aspect of its grammar is beset with grave contemporary issues. Furthermore, it is critical to address the concerns pertaining to the syntax and syntactic units of the Korean language without delay. The necessity of any theory not only for theoretical illumination and analysis but also for practical implementation, demonstrates this conclusion. Specifically, we are concerned with the syntactic unit in communication and, to delve further into the subject matter of this research, the unit in communication that provides information while containing the fewest number of sentence components.

As is common knowledge, acts of communication occur in every sphere of social activity through a complex interaction of extra-linguistic factors that influence the choice of linguistic means to express particular communicative intentions. The current focus of Korean language studies in Uzbekistan is on communication, which has allocated a particular significance to syntax. This includes investigating the functional-semantic character of



syntactic units as well as their formal structure. However, research concerning the functionality of specific linguistic structures, specifically alterations in their structure that transpire when they are directly connected to the “syntactic environment” that is closest to them, is also highly pertinent. Phrasical and functional convergence and divergence of sentence components, as well as the interaction of grammatical and semantic transformations in both simple and complex sentences, are the basis for these modifications.

The significance of investigating transformations in sentence components in Korean extends beyond the agglutinative nature of the language to include speech style affixes, collocational forms, decorum forms, and more. This latter structural form, which can serve as both subject and predicate, is one of the most distinctive characteristics of Modern Korean grammar. Korean has conventionally been classified as a member of the Altaic language family. An additional facet of the significance of its investigation becomes apparent when one contemplates the notions of univocality and bivocality of sentences. The lack of a definitive answer regarding the primary syntactic unit and its constituents in contemporary Korean, in relation to communicative processes, is the underlying cause. An examination of sentence composition from various perspectives yields the conclusion that comprehending and translating Korean sentences does not present challenges, according to syntactic rules. This is because the categorization of sentences in Modern Korean according to composition, structure, and purpose of utterance has been delineated, albeit with ambiguous conclusions, specifically in the works of Park Young Sun and Park Young Jung.

The escalating intricacy of pedagogical challenges and the pressing requirement to implement novel technologies in language instruction currently compel methodological endeavors across all facets of foreign language instruction in our republic.

Language is demonstrated through the ability of one individual to communicate with another, wherein the recipient can comprehend the message and offer suggestions and reflections in the language employed by the interlocutor. However, it is common knowledge that after completing a language course in an academic institution, the majority of students can only read and translate foreign texts using a dictionary, rarely compose in that language, and even less frequently speak it. This observation is unsurprising, given that conventional language teaching methodologies emphasize the enhancement of reading and translation abilities rather than verbal proficiency.

From the mid-20th century until the 1980s, the grammar-translation method was prevalent as a foreign language instruction approach. Its fundamental tenet was to master texts in the target language through the study of grammar. The classes consisted primarily of exercises in grammar and text translation from the target to the foreign language. Grammar concepts were elucidated in the native tongue, and in cases where the student was unable to rectify an error, the instructor provided the correction. The primary drawbacks of this approach were that the pupil never gained proficiency in oral communication and rapidly forgot grammatical concepts devoid of practical application.

The implementation of the so-called audio-lingual method of instruction became more prevalent after the 1980s, with the emergence of language laboratory courses and language laboratory classes. Advocates of this approach maintained that it is imperative to commit to memory of grammatical and phraseological structures of the language through repetitive recitation in pre-designed training dialogues. They further asserted that the student would instinctively apply these structures at the appropriate

juncture. However, empirical evidence indicates that individuals rarely possess the ability to promptly and appropriately employ a phrase or turn of phrase that they have learned in a real-life circumstance. We consider the lack of feedback from a native speaker and the impossibility of communicating in daily life using only memorized phrases and turns to be the primary drawbacks of the audio-lingual method.

#### 4. Study of lexical composition and its replenishment

Examining the processes that transpire within the lexicon of the Korean language throughout its various stages of development is unquestionably a critical undertaking within the field of lexicology.

The necessity to nominate novel concepts, the uneven progress of scientific and technical disciplines across nations, and the extensive evolution of international relations collectively contribute to the significance of foreign-language word borrowing as a means of augmenting the lexical repertoire of any given language.

The borrowing of English words and word forms that have become deeply ingrained in linguistic and social systems is referred to as “*conglish*.” Similar to pidgin in China, *Conglish* is a common consequence of mutation that can affect any language spoken in a country where it is a second or foreign language following the native vernacular. For a more comprehensive definition of the term *conglish*, consider the following two phenomena:

1) A lingua franca between Korean and English that is rife with grammatical and other errors;

2) English loanwords that have undergone naturalization through the incorporation of the grammatical system of the Korean language.

There exists a viewpoint that attributes the origins of the emergence of *Conglish* to the North-South Civil War (1950-1953) and World War II. However, it is widely acknowledged that the origins of *Conglish* can be traced back to the period of Japanese colonial rule in Korea, during which American culture started to influence the country. Nevertheless, the impact of the United States was obscured, which likely explains why the post-war era is forever associated with the emergence of English.

A huge lexical stratum in the Korean language is the Sino-Korean lexicon, which enriched the Korean language until the twentieth century. But in recent times, the enrichment of Korean has been through the languages of Europe and America. Although borrowings, along with enrichment, also pollute the Korean language. Example: 그 슈퍼마켓 (supermarket) 에서 모던 (modern) 뷰티 살롱 (beauty salon) 은 오픈 (open) 되었습니다. All borrowings, in our opinion, are used unnecessarily in this sentence except 슈퍼마켓.

The Korean vocabulary comprises three significant lexical layers: the native Korean lexicon, the Sino-Korean lexical layer, and loanwords originating from diverse languages, predominantly European origins. *Conglish* functions as an independent subgroup within the lexical structure of the Korean language, which is progressively incorporating a new layer.

During the 20th century, Japanese introduced Korean to a significant number of English borrowings, in addition to those from other languages. Numerous individuals observe that numerous *Conglish* words are also present in Japanese. As a result, initially they possessed a phonetic quality more akin to the Japanese phonetic system; gradually, their pronunciation evolved to more closely resemble that of the source language, English.

Example: 와이셔츠 = “shirt: dress shirt”, from English “white shirt”, Japanese. Waishatsu = 와이셔츠;

아파트 = “apartment”, Japanese. Apāto = 아파트;

미싱 = “sewing machine”, Japanese. Mishin, in standard Korean it is common to use Sino-Korean 재봉틀

텔레비전 = “television”, Japanese. Terebi = 텔레비전

아르바이트 = “part-time job” from German Arbeit, “to work”, Japanese. Arubaito

Words from English have been borrowed by Korean through Japanese before. These are words such as truck, skate, drum, nut, suspense, cup, cup, slippers, etc., which were originally pronounced in Korean, which were originally pronounced in Korean: 또라꾸, 스께또, 도라무, 낫도, 사스펜스, 고뿌, 스레빠. In modern Korean, they sound different - closer to the phonetic shell of the original language: 트럭, 스케이트, 드럼, 너트, 서스펜스, 컵, 슬리퍼. Even a word like 담배 had a form (Japanese tabako), first in the form 담바고.

In turn, *conglish* branches off as follows:

1. directly borrowed words and interjections – words and interjections borrowed from English with the same meaning as in the original language, i.e. they denote the same phenomenon.

바이 바이	Bye bye	
오케이	O’K	
와우	WOW	
오마이갓	Oh, my God!	
오라이	All right	
헬로	Hello	
스태미나	Stamina	
다이밍	Timing	
커피	Coffee	
머플러	Muffler	
팬츠	Pants	
체크	Check	
소파	Sofa	
다이어트	Diet	
스토브	(electric) stove	
와인	Wine	
아이스 크림	Ice cream	
컴퓨터	Computer	
모니터	Monitor	
하드 드라이브	Hard drive	
바겐 세일	Bargain sale	
비디오	Video, video tape, video tape recorder	
모텔	Motel	

호텔	Hotel	
프로젝트	Project	

This category primarily comprises definitions of material concepts that have been borrowed in conjunction with realia or professional terminology pertaining to a specific domain of human endeavor.

2. fabricated concepts are those composed of layers whose original meanings have been altered by the new borrowing culture and given a new meaning that does not exist in the source language; these concepts are created by the speakers of the borrowing language.

애프터 서비스	Free of charge Service	
아메리칸 스타일 커피	Black Coffee	
오토바이	Motorcycle	
백 미러	Rear-view mirror	
백 넘버	Jersey number	
캐시커너	ATM	
아이 셔핑	Window shopping	
게임 룸	(video) arcade	
골든 볼	Sudden death (in game)	
헤어 밴드	Head band	
핸드폰	Mobile phone, cellular phone	
하이퍼 마켓	Grocery store	
아이스 바	[US] Popsicle, [UK] Ice Lolly	
인터폰	Intercom	
라이트 콜라	Diet coke	
멤버 아이디	User name	
모닝 콜	Wake-up call	
오일 방크	Gas station	
네임 카드	Business card	

3. abbreviated borrowings, i.e. those which, under the influence of external factors, are shortened for ease of pronunciation.

에이 에스	After service	
에이컨	Air conditioner	
아파트	Apartment building	
백 뮤직	Background music	
백 싱거	Backup singer	
볼펜	Ball point pen	
밴드	Bandage	
카세트	Cassette player	
센치	Centimeter	
디카	Digital camera	

클래식	Classical music	
클립	Paper/head clip	
코팅	Plastic coating	
콤비	Combination	
크래파스	Cra(yon) + pas(tel)	
크림 샌드	Cream sandwich	
디비	Database	
디시	Discount	
데모	Demonstration	
랩	Laboratory	
도큐	Documentary	
플래시	Flash light	
프라이팬	Frying pan	
미션	Transmission	
나이트	Night club	
노트	Notebook	
오므라이스	Omelet rice	

4. hybrid vocabulary – formed from combining Korean (or Sino-Korean) and English vocabulary. Example: Vinyl+봉투=바날 봉투, 휴대(용+tele)phone= 휴대폰, instal+하다=인스탈하다, 휴게 (실+ho)tel=휴게텔....

5. Calcs are word-for-word translations of English concepts in Korean or Sino-Korean. Example: 불 – lighter, the English expression “shoot” – “to shoot” used in basketball is also translated into Korean by the verb 쏘다, where in the phrase 정상회담, 정상 identifies the heads of countries. The term “summit meeting” is a literal translation of the English term “summit meeting” in which “summit” means “산꼭대기” and is translated using Sino-Korean vocabulary. There aren't many cripples in the Korean language. But here are some completely new concepts formed recently under the influence of the same America: the expression “CD 를 굶다” is a literal translation from English “to burn CD”, or another expression, also translated from English “to wash money”, which in Korean sounds like 돈 세탁하다 (to wash money).

6. phonetically changed words - words that have changed their phonetic form beyond recognition due to their adaptation to the phonetic system of the Korean language. Example: 버전 – version, 비자 – visa, 런츠 – lunch, 스포츠 – sport ... or in the mouth of the Korean language have found homonyms that are audible to the foreigner's ear unaccustomed to Korean pronunciation and impossible in the original language. Example: 백 - bag [bæg] ≠ back [bæk], 라이트 - light [lait] ≠ right [rait], 파이프 - wife [waif] ≠ pipe [paip], 랩 - lap [læp] ≠ rap [ræp].

Instead of English borrowings, the development of Conglish has been influenced by Korean television. As a form of popular culture, television possesses immense influence over society.

In August 1947, following the liberation of Korea from Japanese occupation, television began to develop

swiftly in an American fashion. The deployment of American soldiers to the southern region of the Korean peninsula in 1945 instigated this event.

Presently, the Americanization of Korean television remains a discernible trend. Early on in the post-occupation era of Korean television, program titles frequently contained numerous English words, the majority of which were superfluous.

For example: TV 그랜드쇼 (TV grand show), 유머 클럽 (humor club), KBS 시네마 (KBS cinema) and many others.

And how is the situation in television today today? In 2003, Professor Im Kyuhon of Gyeongsang University, Department of Korean Language and Literature, published a paper titled “Linguistic Analysis of TV Program Titles Composed of Borrowed Words in Korean Television”, which included practical research on Korean TV program titles. The object of the study was five Korean television channels: 한국 방송 1, 한국 방송 2, 문화 방송, 서울 방송, 경인 방송 (Seoul and Incheon Television). The following table shows the percentage of programs with titles like “borrowed (Sino-Korean) word + Sino-Korean (borrowed) word”, “native Korean (borrowed) word + borrowed (native Korean) word” and only “borrowed” word.

hannel	korean TV 1	korean TV 2	hannel Cultur e	seoul TV	seoul and Incho n TV	n total
quantit y of progra ms	3	7	3	6	0	99
n %	5,2	8,5	7,5	3,9	6,9	1,2

According to the data presented in this table, 61.2% of all television programs have titles composed entirely of borrowed terms. One cannot help but be concerned about the language situation in Korean television in light of these numbers. Given that the media is a highly influential educator and source of information in society, it is among the most vital.

The subsequent table presents the precise count of programs whose titles exclusively comprise borrowed words, as determined by Im Kyuhong.

channel	korean TV 1	korean TV 2	channel Culture	seoul TV	seoul and Incho n TV	n total
quantit y of progra ms	0	7	7	9	1	4
n %	3,7	1,5	3,0	6,4	0,4	5,8

For comparison, a table with program names consisting only of native Korean words is provided.

channel	korean TV 1	korean TV 2	channel Culture	seoul TV	seoul and Incho n TV	n total
quantit y of						



progr ams						
n %	.1	.9	.4	.6	.0	.6

The outcomes differ in comparison to the preceding table.

The Channel Culture was where the initial indications of the purported “purification” of the language became apparent. During the nascent stages of Korean television, nearly every month witnessed the debut of a fresh program. On February 7, 1947, the management of “Channel Culture” declared its intention to combat the use of foreign vocabulary in the titles of its programming. Measures were taken and “MBS 페스티벌” was renamed “MBS 대향연”, “가요 스테이지” was renamed “가요 선물”, and “MBS 그랜드서” was renamed “토요일 토요일 밤에”. But this trend didn’t last long either.

As is common knowledge, the subsequent surge of “purification” of the Korean language began during the presidency of Park Chonghi (1961-1979). Upon assuming office, Chonghi issued a decree mandating the elimination of foreign vocabulary from Korean television and periodicals. Once more, Channel Culture took the initiative and promptly initiated the process of renaming programs. Once more, this surge was of brief duration and did not reoccur until the 1990s.

Conglish is utilized by the educated youth of urban areas, who are motivated to import and assimilate American popular culture. Conglish is employed to delineate non-traditional cultural phenomena for which the lexicons of Korea or Sino-Korean are inadequate. As a result of the immeasurable dynamism of globalization processes, Conglish has become the “dialect” of forward-thinking urban youth.

Given the rate and caliber of English immersion in Korean culture, one cannot help but be apprehensive about the potential repercussions. Undoubtedly, in the era of contemporary globalization, it is impossible to avoid economic and political superpowers such as the United States, Great Britain, China, and others. However, it is imperative to acknowledge that a nation remains functional not solely for the duration of its state territory, but also so long as its language continues to be spoken, as it serves as the foundation for the people’s history, identity, and self-awareness.

Let us now proceed to explore other potential iterations of the Conglish development forecast.

1. Upon Conglish’s evolution into an autonomous programming language, such as BASIC, the subsequent image becomes apparent. Consider two programmers, one hailing from Russia and the other from Korea, who both utilize the BASIC programming language.

2. Some contend that the Korean may facilitate Korea’s earlier entry into the English-dominated global market. However, it is worth noting that Conglish serves to undermine Korea’s position in terms of global competitiveness. Koreans are occasionally ridiculed in official business correspondence, websites, and television programs that employ Conglish; this is due to the native speakers’ frequent phonetic, lexical, and grammatical errors.

3. We hold the view that designating English as the official state language is an intolerable matter. This matter was previously examined.

Regarding the development of Conglish in Korea, the aforementioned alternatives represent merely our subjective stance on the subject; we have no intention of imposing our viewpoint on others. To formulate any

definitive judgments regarding the future trajectory of Conglish, one would benefit from the expertise of a philosopher-sociologist rather than a linguist.

An extremely large number of English-borrowed words are utilized extensively in the contemporary Seoul standard. They are present in the vocabularies of all domains, including politics, economy, culture, science, art, and daily existence. Particularly prevalent are borrowings in the terminology. It suffices to recall the terminology employed to refer to the computer and its associated peripherals, such as monitor, laptop, scanner, printer, toner, processor, Internet, e-mail, and so forth, in order to ascertain their quantity. These are all identical terms, albeit with variant spellings and phonemes, in Korean. These variations in pronunciation result from specific phonetic and phonological processes that take place within the structure of borrowed words. One such process is the absence of phonologically substantial power stress in Korean. As a result, numerous Americanisms become excessively stylized, deviating to the degree that native speakers of the source language might be unable to comprehend their meaning. Additionally, phonetic modifications are quite organic, given that English and Korean are descended from distinct language families. Korean is a member of the Altaic language family, whereas English is a member of the Romano-Germanic language family. Diverse phonetic processes ensue as a result; English terms that have been adapted to the phonetic system of Korean may undergo unrecognizable changes in their phonetic form.

For instance: version á [bojong] “version,” visa à [bijja] “visa.” The proliferation of the Internet has facilitated the evolution of the Korean language. Research indicates that the domain of computer technology exhibits the highest proportion of Anglo-Saxon influences. Furthermore, Americanisms exert near-total dominance in the realms of European fashion and athletics. For instance, the following terms are represented in the text: Computer [khomphyutho], Program [phyrogyem], Joystick [jidoisyithik], System [sysythem], Show [chee], Wedding Dress [uedindyresy], Time [thaim], and Goal in [golin].

#### **Categorization of English borrowings incorporated into contemporary Korean.**

1) Directly borrowed words and interjections—Words and interjections that are borrowed from English but retain their original meaning, signifying the same phenomenon, are considered directly borrowed. For instance:

Korean variant	Source language variant
[inthonet]	Internet
[okhei]	OK
[khophi]	Coffee
[chhekhy]	Check
[sopha]	Sofa
[daiothy]	Diet
[aisykhyrim]	Ice cream
[khomphyutho]	Computer
[hothel]	Hotel
[phyrodjekthy]	Project

2) Fabricated concepts (false borrowings) – concepts consisting of lexemes that have lost their original meanings under the influence of the new borrowing culture and acquired new ones that do not exist in the original language,

but are formed by the speakers of the borrowing language themselves. Examples:

Korean variant	Source language variant
[bek nombo], (back + Jersey number)	
[othobai] (sokr. Ot)	Motorcycle
[hendyphon], (hand+phone)	Mobile phone, cellular phone
[khesi khono], (cash corner)	ATM (Automatic Teller Machine)

3) Abbreviated borrowings, i.e. those which, under the influence of external factors, have been shortened for ease of pronunciation. Examples:

Korean variant	Source language variant
[othi], (Orientation)	Orientation
[eikhon], (air + con(ditioner))	Air conditioner
[khombi], (combi)	Combination
[senchhi], (centi)	Centimeter
[bolphen], (ball + pen)	Ball Point Pen

4) A hybrid vocabulary is produced when English and Korean (or Sino-Korean) are combined. Pr. vinyl plus [ponthu], [bag] equals [binil bonthu], which is plastic; [molle] concealed plus camera equals [mollekhamera]. An undetected camera...

5) Calques refer to exact translations of English concepts into Korean employing Korean or Sino-Korean vocabulary.

An illustration of this can be seen in the English translation of the phrase "to burn CD" [CD kubta]: "to burn a CD."

In conclusion, it can be stated that the adoption of vocabulary from other languages is an inherent and progressive process that contributes to the growth of every language, given that no nation, which possesses and originates a specific language, leads an entirely secluded and detached existence.

"Educated urban youth" are the social classes that employ "Conglish," a combination of Korean and English, in an effort to import and assimilate American popular culture. Conglish is employed in their vernacular to delineate non-traditional cultural phenomena that are beyond the capacity of Korean or Sino-Korean lexicon. Notwithstanding this, it is imperative to bear in mind that one ought not to purposefully and unnecessarily hasten this process by ceaselessly augmenting strata of foreign-language vocabulary in the native tongue. The necessities that Koreans themselves adopt a more methodical approach to activities aimed at popularizing the Korean language. Concerning the acquisition of borrowed vocabulary by international students, the issue of how to instruct such borrowings must be considered.

### 5. The issue of the complexity of studying semantic shifts in the structure of lexical meaning of borrowings

We will then examine the relationship between borrowed units and the elements of reality that they represent. Let us, however, first define the character of these relationships. Semantic relations are notorious for their susceptibility to internal contradiction. One notable attribute is their stability, whereby each term represents a distinct subject, category of subjects, or form of relationship.

Conversely, these terms exhibit remarkable mobility, as the word's association with the object or phenomenon it signifies can be readily altered.

A stability-to-variability ratio of the semantic aspect of lexical units can be observed during the process of transitioning between languages. The parties involved (native English speakers and Korean speakers) are able to fully comprehend one another due to the stability of the borrowed word's semantic aspect.

For example, the use of such monosemic words as 부치 – boots, 나이프 – knife, 주스 – juice in the process of communication does not cause problems in understanding.

However, within the category of borrowed words, one must also consider words that undergo monosemic transformations from English to Korean while retaining some of their original meanings, in addition to words that are polysemic in English but lose meanings during assimilation into Korean.

The English word *rime* can be defined in three different ways: firstly, as a brief piece of spoken or written discourse where the final words of a line sound identical to those at the end of preceding lines; secondly, as a word whose sound is similar to another; and thirdly, as a consonance between the ends of verses that separates and connects them. The primary and unifying meaning of this word, according to its semantic structure, is the third meaning, which is Korean 일임.

However, this principle cannot be applied to every borrowing that has ceased to be polysemous and acquired a single value. To illustrate, the English word *knob* refers to three distinct entities: a small round piece of something; a round button that regulates a specific aspect of a machine; a doorknob resembling a ring; however, in Korean, 너브 solely refers to a round ring found on an entrance door. A wrench is defined in English as a pinching yearning, the agony of separation, a forceful or pointed jerk or twist, or a wrench itself. A third definition of the term is present in American English; this is the one that the word 렌츠 acquired through assimilation.

In addition to the borrowing of certain meanings, one may also discern the emergence of novel connotations within the word. A statement may be misunderstood during communication if a borrowed word acquires a new meaning in the borrowing language; for instance, this could occur between a Korean speaker and an American or British person, since the English word does not refer to the object or phenomenon for which it was originally named. A similar phenomenon can transpire in the realm of reading, where sentences often possess semantic certainty (unambiguity) and their constituent terms may have multiple meanings, in addition to ensuring cohesion.

G.G. Katz and G.A. Fodor, two American researchers, suggested that the dictionary definition of lexical units should incorporate special semantic characteristics, known as semantic markers and semantic distinguishers. To ascertain the precise meaning of a polysemic word within a given context, the Katz-Fodor method shall be applied. To begin, however, let us define what they mean by "semantic marker," the term they use to refer to the primary function, in their method.

A semantic marker is an essential semantic category that is present in a variety of positive and negative concepts and meanings.

The English term "talent" is the source of the polysemantic word 탈렌트. By branching from top to bottom, semantic markers generate a series of "pointers" that

correspond to three distinct meanings. In contrast, the term “talent” possesses solely two connotations, namely (b) and (c), whereas the term **탤런트** encompasses three meanings. The English word is devoid of a positive person marker. The determination of a word’s semantic burden within a sentence is significantly facilitated by the use of a semantic marker; the interpretation of a polysemous word in context is no longer a matter of intuition and conjecture, but rather of practical knowledge. It should also be noted that the word **탤런트** is used more in Korean in (a) than in (b) and (c). This is most likely due to the fact that **탤런트** is an exoticism in (b), and there is a word of Chinese origin **재능** for ability and giftedness, which is used much more frequently in Korean than **탤런트**.

Using the Katz-Fodor method, we tried to determine the semantic acquisition of English loanwords in Korean.

The word **믹서** has only one meaning in its English version: a household appliance that is used to stir something. But Koreans call this word a machine for mixing cement and sand and making concrete, i.e. concrete mixer, and it also has the meaning of a household appliance used to make natural juices. In all these cases there are semantic distinguishers marked by one semantic marker. but the definition of the word **믹서** as a sociable person allows us to distinguish it under a separate semantic marker (+ person). Note that in English, a sociable person is referred to by the compound word good-mixer and an unsociable person poor-mixer, but in Korean there is no definition in front of the noun mixer, and the semantic marker (evaluative) is present only in the positive sense.

In Korean, there is an expression such as “저는 솔로 입니다”. To a native English speaker, this sentence may seem strange, as solo has the meaning of one singer or instrumentalist performing (with or without accompaniment) an independent part or episode of a work. In Korean, however, **솔로** has acquired, in addition to its basic meaning, the meaning of a single person (unmarried/unmarried). Here the word solo already has a semantic marker (person) in a positive sense and in this meaning it can be referred to such type of polysemy as metaphor, i.e. when there is a transfer of the name by similarity. In this case, this similarity is provided by the presence of the seme “alone, lonely”.

The term “handle,” which possesses the definition of “handle,” “knob,” or “convenience case” in English, has undergone an entirely different transformation in Korean, where it now denotes the steering wheel of a motor vehicle or bicycle.

The word **미팅** means blind date, while English meeting has meanings such as: an organized occasion when a certain number of people get together to discuss or decide something; a meeting of two or more people.

The Korean loan word **서클** refers to a place where people with common interests gather, while circle has only such meanings as: a geometric circle; a circle of friends; a line forming the shape of a ring.

Koreans, using the word **머플러**, mean a warm scarf, a muffler. The word muffler, from which it is derived, has no such meaning, but denotes a part of a firearm that muffles the sound of a shot, that is, a silencer. And it also denotes the part of an automobile that muffles the sound of the exhaust.

Every instance listed above demonstrates the incorporation of additional connotations into the Korean language. However, while constructing new meanings, these words also communicate every meaning that the borrowed word possesses in its English equivalent. There are words that precisely represent the new meanings of borrowed English words; their application during communication with a native English speaker would not result in miscommunication, unlike the utilization of borrowed words with altered meanings. (Appendix).

Also conceivable are word combinations composed of English-origin words that do not have the same meaning in Korean and words that do not have the English equivalent of their “counterparts” in the specific combination they are composed of.

The Korean term **올백**, which originates from the English words “all” and “back,” refers to a hairstyle characterized by hair being pulled back without a part. *Back hair* is the appropriate English equivalent of this expression.

The definition of “cunning” as “cunning, guile” has been obliterated due to assimilation. Presently, when students use a cheat document or obtain information from another student in order to cheat on an exam, Koreans employ the term **컨닝/커닝**.

If an English speaker orders cider, which sounds like *cider* in English and means an alcoholic beverage made from apples, in a Korean cafe or bar, he or she will get soda water, because in Korean **사이다** (from *cider*) means a soft drink.

The word **개그맨**, formed from English *gag* – joke, comic number and man – man, names a profession, the meaning of which is to entertain people, to make them laugh, and also this word is called simply **jokers**. But there is no word **gagman** in any English dictionary.

Neither Americans nor Brits say “*goal in*” when they mean to score a goal, while Koreans use **고을인** to mean the same thing when an American uses *make the goal*.

A native speaker of English will say that he or she hurt his or her hip, but a Korean will realize that it is not the part of the human body at the top of the leg and below the waist that is hurt, but the part that people usually sit on, since the Korean **히프** (from *hip*) refers to that part of the body.

By **가스레인지** (*gas* + *range*), Koreans mean a gas stove. In English, the word *range* has many meanings and one of them is “cooking stove”, but it is not used in combination with the word *gas*.

The expression **사파리 스타일** (*safari* + *style*) can be understood in two ways by a person who knows English but is not well versed in Korean vocabulary: as a style of clothing for a hunting expedition (usually in East Africa), or as clothing worn by soldiers to become less conspicuous. The second option is correct, although this word combination may seem strange and unfamiliar.

Not every person who speaks English will understand that they are being asked for a felt-tip pen if they are told **사인펜 주세요**. Since there is no combination of the words *sign* and *pen* in English. The same thing can happen if a Korean asks for a highlighter (marker), since the word **매직펜** (magic pen) does not exist in English.

We will also not find in English such word combinations as: back mirror (**백미러** – rear view mirror), back number (**백넘버** – the number on the uniform of team sports players), deep kiss (**딥키스** – French kiss), open car

(오픈카 – convertible car), old miss (올드 미스 – unmarried woman) in the meaning they are used in Korean.

Therefore, by considering the semantic aspect as a criterion, it is possible to categorize Korean borrowed terms into four distinct groups.

1. Lexical items that have preserved the semantic content of their English prototypes without undergoing any alterations or modifications in their original meanings.

2. Lexical items that have undergone a reduction in the semantic scope of their English prototypes, resulting in the loss of some meanings.

3. Words that have gained supplementary connotations beyond those derived from their English origins.

There exist terms that have completely lost the meanings attributed to them in English, yet have subsequently gained novel connotations. Additionally, there are word combinations that are not readily accessible in the English language.

## 6. Conclusion

In conclusion, it may be inferred that the information provided supports the notion that the topic at hand has been thoroughly examined and analyzed.

Human beings engage in the creation of both material and spiritual entities, as well as the establishment of behavioral standards. Through this process, individuals cultivate various skills and capacities, ultimately contributing to their own personal development. Indeed, culture is a product of human agency, and the cultural milieu of individuals embodies a distinct mode of human adjustment to the prevailing physical and biological conditions of life, rooted in deliberate human endeavors. Customs, traditions, and commonly accepted rules of behavior are integral components of societal dynamics, serving as crucial mechanisms for the perpetuation and advancement of nations. These cultural elements are passed down from one generation to the next, playing a vital role in the sustenance and progress of societies. Culture plays a crucial role in the preservation, facilitation, and protection of human life by building frameworks for individuals' interactions with nature, fellow human beings, and their own selves. Human beings possess the capacity to document certain expressions of culture, however, they are invariably incapable of comprehensively perceiving its entirety. By closely examining the profound influence of cultural artifacts on individuals' lives and behaviors, it becomes evident that cultural disparities lie at the core of these phenomena. The current urgency lies in the domain of language learning for international communication, particularly in its application across many societal contexts. In order to effectively address the issues at hand, it is imperative to recognize and implement the functions of

messaging and informativeness. The primary solution to addressing the practical challenge of teaching foreign languages as a method of communication among individuals from many nations and cultures is to approach language learning in conjunction with the respective worldviews and cultural contexts of the language-speaking communities.

The challenge of instructing individuals in the development of oral and written communication skills, as well as fostering their ability to generate and express ideas in foreign languages, is a challenging endeavor. This complexity is further compounded by the recognition that communication encompasses more than just verbal interaction. The efficiency of language proficiency is contingent upon various aspects, including but not limited to the conditions and cultural context of communication, adherence to social norms and etiquette, familiarity with non-verbal modes of expression such as facial expressions and gestures, possession of extensive background information, and numerous other elements.

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