FSI Korean Basic Course Vol. I

Notes 2009

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Korean Basic Course was developed by the Foreign Service Institute in the late 1960s. Since then, (South) Korean economy and society have changed very much. Naturally, Korean language has evolved as well. These notes provide some corrections and amendments to the original course, as well as some additional explanations which appear necessary more than 40 years after the first release. (Please note that the author of this revision and of these Notes is not affiliated to the FSI).

The original FSI tapes were digitized by "DemiPuppet", contributor to (and one of the administrators of) www.FSI-language-courses.com. In the present revision, the audio quality was enhanced and optimized for understandability by digital filtering. In addition, noisy conversation from other rooms, that was audible at a disturbing level in many Units, had to be eliminated as well. In the Drills and in the "Dialogue for memorization" tracks, the original pauses often were too short for a student to react and to speak. Where necessary, they were adjusted to a more realistic length (in many instances, especially in the last drills of each Unit, you may still find them challenging and need several repetitions of the drill until you are able to answer fluently – this is an important aspect of the training methodology of all FSI courses). Additional pauses were inserted for the student to repeat the "correct" answer in the drills. That way, the drills were adapted to the "four-stroke" scheme (stimulus – student's response – correct response – student's repetition of the correct response) which has become the standard in audio training and is also employed in most of the other FSI "Basic Courses".

In the "Dialogue for Memorization" sections, long sentences are first given in smaller parts, before they are trained in full length.

For easier navigation, the original tapes were separated into smaller tracks, whereby each stage of the conversations and each drill was assigned its own track number (CD version) or file name (MP3 version).

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Unit 0: Introductory Unit

The main difficulty in Korean phonology for Europeans and Americans is the differentiation between <u>normal</u>, <u>tensed</u> and <u>aspirated</u> consonants. In many Western languages, tensification and aspiration are employed as a means of emphasis. For example, if somebody did not understand the word "car" spoken through the telephone, you would repeat it with more tension and stronger aspiration of the letter "c". In Korean, on the other hand, such a change in pronunciation would destroy the understandability of the respective word, instead of enhancing it! The sounds "`k`" (normal), "`kk`" (tensed, with higher tension in the throat and the tongue, but without aspiration), and "`kh`" (aspirated, with a puff of air) are completely different consonants. The same is true for the triplets `p / pp / ph,  t / tt / th,` and `c / cc / ch,` as well as for the pair `s / ss.` These differences are trained in Practice 3 and Practices 5 through 9.

There are several more situation-dependent sound changes of consonants which are not systematically described in the book. So a few paragraphs about the most frequently occurring of these effects seem in order (here, we use a hyphen to separate syllables within one word or within one expression pronounced as one word):

Softening: If `p, t, k, c` stand between two vowels, or if they stand between one of the voiced consonants `m, n, ng, l` and a vowel, they become voiced themselves, i.e. they are pronounced as `b, d, g, j`. Listen to the first word of each group in Practice 3 for this effect on the consonant in the middle of the word.

Other examples: `Han-kuk` ("kingdom of the nation = Korea") → `/Han-guk/;`
`kong-pu` ("studying") → `/kong-bu/.`

Aspiration: `p, k, t, c` before or after (!) `h` are combined with the `h` into one aspirated consonant, i.e., into `ph, kh, th, ch`.

Examples: `mot-hae yo` ("cannot") → `/mo-thae yo/;`
`kɪləh-ke` ("like that") → `/kɪlə-khe/.`

Tensification: `p, t, k, c, s` after `p, t, k` become tensed, i.e., they are pronounced as if they were `pp, tt, kk, cc, ss`.

Examples: `sik-tang` ("restaurant") → `/sik-ttang/;`
`tɪt-ki` ("listening") → `/tɪt-kki/.`

Nasalization: `k, t, p` before `m` or `n` are nasalized to `ng, n,` or `m`, respectively. This is true even if they are belonging to different words, as long as both words are parts of one expression.

Examples: `yuk nyən` ("6 years") → `/yung-nyən/;`
`pat-nɪn` ("receiving") → `/pan-nɪn/;`
`hap-nita` ("I do") → `/ham-nida/.`

L-N-Assimilation: `n+l` or `l+n` are assimilated to `ll`.

Examples: `il nyən` ("1 year") → `/il-lyən/;`
`yən-lak` ("contact, liaison") → `/yəl-lak/.`

Unit 1

Unit 1 introduces the "formal polite" level of communication, determined mainly by the verb ending `-mnida / -sɪmnida`. Expect to be addressed like that at government offices, banks, shops, and so on. This speech level implies that the communication is determined by your function (e.g., as a diplomat, representative, customer) rather than by a personal relationship. As soon as you are expected to come to more personal terms with your conversation partner (e.g., when meeting a new colleague), a less formal level would likely be used, unless you wish to signal distance. (So you'd better wait until Unit 4 before trying your new Korean skills on your friends.)

Dialogue A, Sentence 3:
The expression much more commonly used as an equivalent to "Nice to meet you" is: `Manna-sə pankapsɪmnida` ("as a consequence of meeting [you], I am glad"; `manna-ta` = to meet; `-sə` = particle indicating consequence; `pankap-ta` = to be glad).

Dialogue B, Sentence 17:
In present-day Korean, this expression should never be used! Asking directly, "How is fun?", is felt as indiscrete and blunt. It might imply that you conceive the addressee as lacking seriosity. You may, however, ask *specifically* about fun at work, at school, and so on, as introduced in Unit 8, Dialogue B, Sentence 11.

Grammar Note 2 (a):
The topic particle `ɪn / nɪn` is always pronounced at a slightly higher pitch than the preceding word.

Grammar Note 2 (c):
The romanization of the possessive particle `e` is somewhat misleading. Although it is indeed often (especially at higher speed) pronounced as "e", the more careful (and official) pronunciation is "ɪi", just as it is written in Hankul. In Unit 2, the location particle `e` will be introduced which is different from the possessive particle both in Korean writing and in pronunciation.

Unit 2

Dialogue A, Sentence 4:
The expression əti e is nowadays more frequently contracted by dropping the e, yielding əti instead of əte.

Grammar Note 2 (a):
Just like the topic particle ɨn / nɨn, also the subject particle i / ka is always pronounced at a slightly higher pitch than the preceding word.

Grammar Note 2 (b):
As described in the original script, lo occurs after a place noun ending in a vowel, while ɨlo occurs after a place noun ending in a consonant. There is an exception to this rule: The ending of a place noun ending in l + ɨlo is contracted to −llo. Example (see Drill E): konmul-lo ("to the building"); remember that the double consonant ll is pronounced similarly to the English "l" in "long" (not as an "r").

Grammar Note 3:
The determinative kɨ has two meanings. One is, as indicated in the original script, (the thing or person) "just mentioned", the other is, "distant from the speaker, but near to the listener".

Unit 3

Grammar Note 5:
If the dynamic-location particle esə is combined with əti in order to ask where something happened, əti esə would normally be contracted to əti sə. This is very similar to the contraction of əti e to əti, mentioned in the above note concerning Unit 2, Dialogue A, Sentence 4.

Dialogue B, Sentence 10:
The word cənkəcang is out of use. The similar sounding word cənglyucang (pronounced cəngnyucang) refers to bus stops. The proper word for railroad or subway stations is yək, as introduced in Sentence 3.

Drill E, Sentence 13:
The word uphyənkuk is out of use. Now, the proper word for "post office" is uchaəkuk.

Unit 4

Numerals 1 (Sino-Korean Numerals):
There are a few more pronunciation specialties in addition to those already noted in the book:
 70 chil-sip /chilssip/
 80 phal-sip /phalssip/
    Reason: After l, si (otherwise pronounced as "shi") is tensified to ssi (with more or less sharp s).
106 paek-yuk /paengnyuk/
    Reason: Nasalization: k becomes ng before n, and yuk is pronounced nyuk in composite numerals.   (cf. 16 sip-yuk   /simnyuk/, where the p is nasalized to m).
As to the change of yuk into nyuk, many words now starting with yu or yə historically actually started with nyu or nyə, and the n has been eliminated over the centuries. Under certain circumstances, it can "reappear".

Grammar Note 1:
Some of the informal polite present forms summarized on pages 91 and 93 are outdated. In present Korean, the rule is to add −a yo after a stem whose last vowel is a or o, and −ə yo in all other cases. This means that some of the verbs previously displaying the -ə yo ending, now are formed with -a yo. Only children, especially girls, who want to sound sweet, would now use the -ə yo ending. Listening carefully, you will note that the male voice on the tapes sometimes already uses

the more modern pronunciation, whereas the female voice sticks to the classical one. In the table on p. 91, the following verbs are affected (changes indicated by bold typeface):

	Stem	Formal Polite present	Informal Polite present
'to know'	a(l)-	amnita	al**a** yo
'to look for'	chac-	chac(s)ɪmnita	chac**a** yo
'to sell'	pha(l)-	phamnita	phal**a** yo

In the tables on page 93, the following verbs are affected:

	Stem	Formal Polite present	Informal Polite present
'to hold', 'to grasp'	cap-	capsɪmnita	cap**a** yo
'to ache', 'to get sick'	aphɪ-	aphɪmnita	aph**a** yo
'to live'	sa(l)-	samnita	sal**a** yo

Note, however, that the **wə** replacing stems (Group 3 on page 93) are not affected, as the sound w is considered a half-vowel, written in Hankul as u, so that the last vowel before the ending is u, not a:

	Stem	Formal Polite present	Informal Polite present
'to be near'	kakkap-	kakkapsɪmnita	kakkaw**ə** yo
'to be beautiful'	alɪmtap-	alɪmtapsɪmnita	alɪmtaw**ə** yo

Grammar Note 2:
Orthography of the Formal Polite past tense verb forms has changed. Following the general rule of formal polite statement verb endings, -sɪmnita rather than just -ɪmnita is appended to the stem (+ si / -ɪsi) + tense suffix construction, as both the past and future tense suffixes end with a consonant. Thus, the F.P. past entries in the table on p. 94 should read: haess-sɪmnita, kass-sɪmnita, wass-sɪmnita, etc. Of course, the pronunciation is unchanged.

Grammar Note 5:
Just as with the verbs just described, the informal polite present form of anh-ta has now become anh**a** yo.

Unit 5

Numerals 2 (Numerals of Korean origin):
A few more pronunciation specialties should be noted (they are obvious from the tape, but not mentioned in the text):

14 yəl-ne(s) / yəl-le(s)/
   Reason: Beginning n after l is assimilated to l.
60 yesun /yesɪn/
   Probably by analogy with the other multiples of 10, the u of the second syllable is pronounced more like ɪ than like u.
106 paek-yəsəs /paeng-nyəsəs/
107 paek-ilkop /paeng-ilkop/
108 paek-yətəl /paeng-nyətəl/
210 ipaek- yəl /ipaeng-nyəl/
260 ipaek- yesun /ipaeng-nyesɪn/
   Reason: Nasalization of k to ng; insertion of n before y (cf. yuk /nyuk/ in Unit 4).

Drill Q:
Remember from above (remark concerning Grammar Note 5 of Unit 4) that, instead of anh**ə** yo, you should use the modern pronunciation anh**a** yo.

Unit 6

Grammar Note 3:

One explanation needs to be added: In the construction described, the object particle `ıl / lıl` is dropped, unless you want to stress that you refer to one specific object. Compare

`Chinku lıl manna yo.`	Ambiguous: I meet a (specific) friend. **or**
	I meet some friend or friends.
`Chinku manna-lo ka yo.`	I go in order to meet some friend or friends.
`Chinku lıl manna-lo ka yo.`	I go in order to meet a (specific) friend.

Grammar Note 4.b):

Two frequently used words need to be added: `ocən` ('before noon', the opposite of `ohu`) and `saepyək` (dawn; used also for night after midnight). The following table lists the approximate hours during which each of the expressions is appropriate:

새벽	saepyək	01 - 06
아침	achim	06 - 09
오전	ocən	08 - 11
(한) 낮	(han-)nac	11 - 13
정오	cəngo	11 - 13
오후	ohu	13 - 18
저녁	cənyək	17 - 21
밤	pam	20 - 24

Drill I:

See the comment to Grammar Note 3 above: in modern spoken Korean, most of the object particles `ıl / lıl` of this drill would be dropped.

Drill K, Sentence 3:

In spoken language, `əti esə` would be contracted to `əti sə`. See the above note to Unit 3, Grammar Note 5.

Drill N, Sentence 14:

With the demise of the Soviet Union, the Korean word `Ssolyən` has become history, too. Russia is now referred to as `Rəsia`.

Drill W:

The verb of all these sentences is now spelled and pronounced `anhasssımnita` (see above).

Unit 7:

Basic Dialogue, Sentence 8, and Drill B, Sentence 1:

`Nyən` ('year') is pronounced /`lyən`/ after the numbers 1 (`il`), 7 (`chil`), 8 (`phal`), as `n` after `l` is assimilated to `l`.

Basic Dialogue, Sentence 8,   Grammar Note 4, and Drills I, N, O, P:

The male voice pronounces the ending `-(ı)lyəko` as /`-(ı)lyeko`/. This is considered non-standard.

Grammar Note 2.b and Drill J, Sentence 7:

`Hapsıng` and `cəncha` are not an option as means of transport anymore.

The word `hapsıng` alone no longer refers to a vehicle; that would now be `hapsıng-cha`, but jitneys have disappeared from Korean streets anyway. `Hapsıng` now means the illegal practice of a shared taxi ride, whereby the driver retains double fare for the shared distance, as each passenger pays the full fare for his way. Although outlawed, this is still practiced by many taxi drivers during rush hour and around bar closing time on Friday and Saturday night. The streetcars, `cəncha`, operating in Seoul until about 1970, have been replaced by `cihachəl` ('subway'; derived from

ciha = 'underground'). In fact, due to frequent traffic jams, `cihachəl` is the means of transport of choice in all major cities. The subway lines are referred to as `hosən`. You might add a sentence like the following one to Drill J:

`Cihachəl il-hosən ılo kal kka hamnita.` 'I am thinking of going by subway line 1.'

Unit 8:

Drill M:
Note the slightly higher pitch of the word `ccım` in all these sentences.

Unit 9:

Drill A:
Note the dropped object particle in all sentences (see the remark to Unit 6, Grammar Note 3).

Drill N, 0:
Again, as in Unit 7, the male voice pronounces the ending `-(ı)lyəko` as `/-(ı)lyeko/`. This is considered non-standard.

Unit 13:

Basic Dialogue, Sentence 14:
The topic particle `ın / nın` is used here to distinguish between objects. Until now, it has been used only to distinguish between subjects, replacing the subject particle `i / ka`. In a similar way, when one wishes to contrast two objects, the object particle `ıl / lıl` is replaced by the same topic particle `ın / nın`. The subject particle and the object particle are the only particles that can be <u>replaced</u> by the topic particle. In all other cases, the topic particle is just <u>added</u> to the respective particle. Example: `Səul e nın cip kaps i pissamnita.`

Additional Vocabulary and Phrases 8 e:
While the noun `philo` = fatigue is still in use, the verb `philohata` = be fatigued is practically out of use.

Drill M:
Remember (Unit 4) that the pronunciation `alə yo` is now used only by children; actually it should be `ala yo`.

Drill P:
Remember (Unit 4) that the pronunciation `anhə yo` should be replaced by `anha yo`.

Unit 14:

Basic Dialogue, Sentence 12 and Drill D:
Maybe this is the place to give a broader description of family relations. Koreans distinguish three levels of family relations:

핵가족	haek-kacok:	core family (parents and children)
직계가족	cik-kye-kacok:	immediate family (core family plus grandparents, if living together)
확대가족	hwaktae-kacok:	extended family (including grandparents, aunts, uncles, etc.)

relatives	친척	chinchək

a) Parent – child relation

parents	부모	pumo
father	아버지	apəci
father (familiar, "dad")	아빠	appa
mother	어머니	əməni

mother (familiar, "mum")	엄마	əmma
stepfather ("new dad")	새아빠	sae appa
stepmother ("new mum")	새엄마	sae əmma
child	아이	ai
son	아들	atɪl
daughter	딸	ttal

b) Relations among brothers and sisters

brothers (sometimes also: siblings of either sex)	형제	hyəngce
sisters	자매	camae
older brother of male	형	hyəng
older brother of female	오빠	oppa
older sister of male	누나	nuna
older sister of female	언니	ənni
younger sibling	동생	tongsaeng
younger brother (both of male and of female)	남동생	nam-tongsaeng
younger sister (both of male and of female)	여동생	yə tongsaeng
	누이동생 (outdated)	nui tongsaeng

c) Grandparents and grandchildren, great-grandparents and great-grandchildren

grandparents	조부모	copumo
grandfather (more in 3rd person)	조부	copu
grandfather (more in direct address)	할아버지	halapoci
grandfather (specifically mother's father)	외할아버지	we-halapoci
grandmother (more in 3rd person)	조모	como
grandmother (more in direct address)	할머니	halməni
grandmother (specifically mother's mother)	외할머니	we-halməni
grandson	손자	sonca
granddaughter	손녀	sonnyə
great-grandparents	증조부모	cɪng copumo
great-grandfather	증조부	cɪng copu
great-grandson	증손자	cɪng sonca
great-granddaughter	증손녀	cɪng sonnyə
great-great-grandfather	고조부	ko copu

d) Husband and wife

(my) wife	아내	anae
	처	chə
	집사람	cip salam
(your or his) wife ("lady")	부인	puin
husband (esp. to elder people)	남편	namphyən
husband ("our master")	우리 주인	uli cuin

e) Relation between children and their uncles / aunts and their children

uncle (from either parent's side)	숙부	sukpu
	아저씨 (outdated)	acəssi
aunt (from either parent's side)	숙모	sukmo
	아주머니 (outdated)	acuməni
nephew	(남)조카	(nam) cokha
niece	(여)조카	(yə) cokha

niece	조카딸 (outdated)	cokha ttal
cousin (both genders)	사촌	sachon

f) Specific: uncles and aunts from the father's side

father's elder brother = "big father"	큰 아버지	khın apoci
father's elder brother's wife = "big mother"	큰어머니	khın əməni
father's married younger brother 　　= "small father"	작은아버지	cakın apoci
father's younger brother's wife 　　= "small mother"	작은어머니	cakın əməni
father's unmarried brother	삼촌	samchon
father's sister	고모	komo
father's sister's husband	고모부	komo-pu

g) Specific: uncles and aunts from the mother's side

mother's brother	(외) 삼촌	(we)-samchon
mother's brother's wife	(외) 숙모	(we)-sukmo
mother's sister	이모	imo
mother's sister's husband	이모부	imo-pu

h) Spouses' parents / Children's spouses

parents-in-law (husband's parents)	시부모	si-pumo
father-in-law (husband's father)	시아버지	si-apoci
mother-in-law (husband's mother)	시어머니	si-əməni
father-in-law (wife's father)	장인 (어른)	cang-in(-ərın)
mother-in-law (wife's mother)	장모	cang-mo
son-in-law	사위	sawi
daughter-in-law	며느리	myənıli

i) Spouses' siblings

brother-in-law (husband's older brother)	시형	si-hyeong
addressed as:	아주버니	acupəni
brother-in-law (husband's younger brother)	시동생	si-tongsaeng
sister-in-law (husband's sister)	시누이	si-nui
if unmarried:	아가씨	akassi
brother-in-law (wife's brother)	처남	chə-nam
his wife (wife's brother's wife)	처남댁	chə-nam-taek
sister-in-law (wife's older sister)	처형	chə-hyəng
sister-in-law (wife's younger sister)	처제	chə-ce

j) Siblings' spouses

brother-in-law (male's older sister's husband)	매형	mae-hyəng
brother-in-law (male's younger sister's husband)	매부	mae-pu
the same, but more friendly	동생	tongsaeng
sister-in-law (male's older brother's wife)	형수	hyəng-su
sister-in-law (male's younger brother's wife)	계수	kye-su
sister-in-law (female's older brother's wife)	올케	ol-khe
sister-in-law (female's younger brother's wife)	올케	ol-khe
the same, but more friendly	동생	tongsaeng
brother-in-law (female's older sister's husband)	형부	hyəng-pu
brother-in-law (female's younger sister's husband)	제부	ce-pu

Some further explanations may help to memorize many of these words:

The sino-korean word 부 (pu) stands for father or for the husband of a female relative.

The sino-korean word 모 (mo) stands for mother.

부모 (pumo) = parents is the combination of both syllables, something like "Pa&Ma".

형 (hyəng) as an independent word stands for a male's older brother. However, the relatives of females are also sometimes designated using 형, in these cases meaning "older sister of a female":

처형 (chə-hyəng) = wife's older sister; 형부 (hyəng-pu) = female's older sister's husband

If a husband dies, his elder brother traditionally is expected to take care of the widow and children. This is why the father's elder brother is referred to as 큰 아버지 (khɨn apoci) = "big father" and his wife as 큰어머니 (khɨn əməni) = "big mother".

The father's unmarried brother 삼촌 (sam-chon) literally means "third degree" (삼 = 3, 촌수 = degree or score points), family relation points being counted as follows: husband – wife: 0 points; parent – child: 1 point; brothers – sisters: 2 points; any other relation is counted by adding up points along the connecting lines; therefore child – parents' siblings: 1+2 = 3 points.

Going one step further, by the 1-point parent-child relation down from uncles and aunts to their children, we come to the cousins, literally "fourth-degree" relatives 사촌 (sa-chon, 사 = 4).

In traditional Korean society, a wife lived in the house of her husband, often together with his parents and unmarried siblings. In contrast to these relatives in the same house, the wive's former family appeared "outside". This is why, from the perspective of her children, the relatives from her side got the prefix 외 (we), meaning "foreign":외할아버지 (we-halapəci = mother's father = foreign grandfather), 외할머니 (we-halməni = mother's mother = foreign grandmother), 외 삼촌 (we-samchon = mother's brother = foreign uncle).

The word 집사람 (cip salam) = "house person" for "wife" (referred to by her own husband) is easily explained by the usual in-house occupation of married women in earlier times. Similarly, wives of other relatives can be designated by appending 댁 (taek) = house (honorative) to the male relative, e.g. the wife's brother is 처남 (chə-nam), and his wife in turn becomes 처남댁 (chə-nam-taek).

Some of the words describing family relations are also used to address people outside the family, similar to many Western cultures:

older male friend (but not boy-friend) or class-mate of a girl: 오빠 (oppa)

older female friend (but not girl-friend) or class-mate of a boy: 누나 (nuna)

older female friend or class-mate of a girl: 언니 (ənni)

    Note: The older friend or colleague would call the younger one simply by his or her name. The other way round, however, the younger person must not use the older person's name alone, but either append the "relationship title" to the name, or simply use the title alone.

female friend of mother, addressed by a child: 이모 (imo) = aunt

unknown, supposedly unmarried young woman: 아가씨 (akassi) = sister-in-law

unknown middle-aged married woman (especially one running a business, shop or restaurant, or behaving dominantly): 아주머니 (acuməni) or 아줌마 (acumma) = aunt

unknown man aged > 60: 할아버지 (halapoci) = grandfather

unknown woman aged > 60: 할머니 (halməni) = grandmother

    Note: Once you know the profession and/or title of a person, you should not call him or her by these terms, but rather by their proper business or academic title.

Unit 17:

Drill I:
In spoken language, the expression "… muəs ilako hamnikka?" is normally contracted to "… muə lako hae yo?"

Unit 18:

Dialogue A, Sentence 8:
The word cangma means "heavy rain of long duration".

Dialogue B, Sentence 12:
Note the pronunciation of laetio: After the final 'm' of achim, the initial 'l' becomes an 'n', and laetio sounds as naetio.

Further Resources:

There are several rather good free resources available to complement the present course. The following link list cannot claim to be complete and, as is usual with internet links, some of them may be broken by the time you read these lines. Please note that these resources are not in the public domain, but the property of their owners who may or may not continue to make them available free of charge. (Note: We cannot assume any responsibility for the contents of these sites!)

Free online dictionaries Korean – English / English – Korean:

http://www.lingvozone.com: fast translation of single words. If a word cannot be found, but similar words are available, a drop-down list of choices is offered. A very practical feature is the immediate availability of back-translation: if an English word has several meanings in Korean or *vice versa*, just click on the translated words one by one in order to see their meaning in the first language.

http://dic.impact.pe.kr/: translation of single words and small phrases. Additionally, all occurrences of the respective word or phrase in a large database of phrases are displayed with translations.

http://www.systranet.com/dictionary: translation of single words up to whole passages of text. Many pairs of languages available. As with all machine translation programs, the quality of the translation of longer phrases and sentences is somewhat questionable.

Vocabulary Drill:

http://www.lingvosoft.com/info/software/Flashcards: Downloadable evaluation version of FlashCards for vocabulary drill. At the time of writing, these are available for Windows, Pocket PC and Palm OS only. Many language pairs are offered in addition to English – Korean. You need Korean language support on your computer installed (the FlashCard program even helps you with that). You learn to read and to write all trained words. The selection of the vocabulary for the "Basic" and "General" training units appears highly arbitrary – but there is probably no harm in knowing all these words. You are supposed to register for a modest fee, once you decided to definitely use the program.

Language Course for Everyday Situations:

http://world.kbs.co.kr/learn_korean/lessons/e_index.htm: Radio Korea International offers this free online course. Although it is rather primitive, you can use it to recapitulate what you have learnt in the FSI course and, perhaps more importantly, to learn some of the more colloquial expressions used in today's everyday situations.