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ON WORD-FORMATION:
LINGUISTIC STRUCTURE OF COMPOUND NOUNS
IN LATE 20TH CENTURY GERMAN VOCABULARY
AND ITS DIDACTIC USE

by

KAREN M. ZARROUKI, B.A.HONS.

A thesis submitted to
the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfilment of
the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts
Department of German

Carleton University
Ottawa, Ontario
April 6, 1990

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The undersigned recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
and Research acceptance of the thesis

"On Word-Formation: Linguistic Structure of Compound Nouns in
Late 20th Century German Vocabulary and its Didactic Use"

submitted by Karen Zarrouki, B.A. (Hons)
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Arts

Thesis Supervisor

Chair, Department of German

Carleton University

Abstract

Compound nouns constitute an important part of present day NHG. Theoretically speaking, they influence modern writing style with their semantic density and dominant syntactic presence. In journalistic texts, compound nouns appear frequently supporting the textual cohesion of articles dealing with various topics. The compound is a characteristic communicative device used by journalists; it is part of an essential function of the language. Compound noun structure, then, must be taught to both native and non-native readers of German, in order to cultivate effective reading skills.

Nominale Komposita bilden einen wichtigen Teil des heutigen NHD. Sie beeinflussen durch ihre semantische Dichte und ihre dominierende Stellung im Satz den modernen Schreibstil. In der Pressesprache erscheinen Zusammensetzungen häufig, und damit unterstützen sie den Textzusammenhang der Artikel in nahezu allen Themenbereichen. Diese Tatsache erlaubt Journalisten, Komposita als Mittel zur Kommunikation zu verwenden. Um wirksame Lesefähigkeiten zu entwickeln, ist Kompositionsstruktur deshalb deutsch- und anderssprachigen Lesern beizubringen.

Acknowledgements

I would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge those people who have supported and made this endeavour possible. Among these are Dr. J. Goheen, my thesis supervisor and mentor, who provided excellent advice and guidance, and who showed great patience throughout the whole process despite the setbacks; the Department of German at Carleton University for providing me with the option of writing a thesis; my family and especially my husband for supporting and encouraging this effort.

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Introduction

Since the compound noun is a prevalent feature of modern written German, the study of nominal compounds in New High German represents an important and worthwhile undertaking for two reasons: for the understanding of modern written German and for demonstrating the link between linguistic research and the didactic methodology of language teaching. It is a meaningful linguistic element whose syntactic structure provides a model for new vocabulary. In journalistic writing, choosing and inventing words to relate facts and events constitute a large part of a journalist's skill. Compound noun structure provides the journalist with an effective device to meet the present needs of journalistic writing, such as brevity and objectivity. When reading periodicals, it is evident that compound nouns, both old and new, are frequently employed. This frequency reflects a trend in journalistic writing towards a noun-oriented style which differs from an older style characterized by the use of complex verbal structures. The compound noun structure lends itself to create new expressions reflecting novel situations. Thus compounds represent many aspects of journalistic style: wit, playfulness and sensationalism.¹ Frequent use of compounds often occurs in tandem with a "simplified", paratactic sentence

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¹ H. Löffler, Germanistische Soziolinguistik, Berlin, 1985, pp.122-125.

structure in which the compound frequently occurs as a replacement for the subordinate clause. As in any text created for a general readership and for giving information, a journalistic text is by nature relatively short and concise and reflects a style which stresses brevity and is dense with facts. Because of these trends, students of German as a second language must be equipped with reading strategies which enable them to analyze and comprehend the compound as well as the surrounding text. The principles of word-formation theory provide a base for the conception of methods to teach compound noun structure.

The thesis will deal with word-formation theory, the frequency of compounds in journalistic language and the teaching of compound noun structure in three parts. Firstly, we shall discuss principles of word-formation theory as concerns compound nouns with two nominal elements. The second part deals with examples demonstrating the distribution of compound nouns in articles from the Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung and Der Spiegel selected from issues within a twenty-seven-year period (1959-1986), and with the influence of these compounds on journalistic writing style, specifically "nominal style". We have chosen to investigate compound nouns in FAZ and SPIEGEL since both publications are available to non-native German speakers in Canada, since they are written for an educated public, and since they offer a wide range of topics in which to study the distribution of compound nouns.

In the last section, a method for teaching compound nouns to anglophone students of German at the second-year level will be proposed along with a brief theoretical discussion on teaching reading in a second language. With these goals in mind, let us begin with the discussion of the linguistic principles of German word-formation.

Part I

Theoretical Basis of Word-Formation in New High German: the Compound

Word-formation is that part of grammar which embraces semantics, syntax and morphology. Marchand calls this a "threefold division" in word-formation analysis:

Word-formation deals with the making of words insofar as they are new formal and lexical units and are built as syntagmas. This at once establishes a threefold division, that of form, meaning, and grammatical structure. A description of word-formation patterns can therefore be in morphological, semantic, and grammatical terms.²

These three aspects of word-formation apply to compound noun structure and will be discussed here. In the course of the discussion, certain central (i.e. the analysis of compounds as they occur in context) as well as peripheral questions (e.g. transformational grammar) concerning compound noun analysis will be addressed. These questions are terminology for the analysis of compound nouns, word-formation versus word-creation, principles for analysis such as semantics, syntax and morphology and their interaction in the analytical process including some discussion on transformational grammar, and motivation. But first, let us compare the three sources of our principles.

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² H. Marchand, 1974 a) "On the Analysis of Substantive Compounds and Suffixal Derivatives not Containing a Verbal Element", p. 292; henceforth called "1974 a)".

In this section, we shall outline several principles of word-formation as explained by three different authors, H. Marchand (1974), J. Erben (1975) and B. Naumann (1972 and 1986, 2nd ed.). The three authors are contemporaries and present the relatively recent "state" of the "art". All three deal with the three main principles of morphology, semantics and syntax while demonstrating the analysis of all types of word-formation, including, of course, the compound noun, our main focus. While Marchand's articles on compound nouns are in English, Erben's and Naumann's textbooks on word-formation are written in German (New High German: NHG) for Germans³. Marchand's articles deal specifically with compound nouns, as part of the study of word-formation. As well, they are more recent studies, and their more specific treatment of word-formation principles is directly applicable to German, whereas Marchand's book, which is nevertheless comprehensive, deals mainly with the specifically English patterns rather than with German ones. The most pragmatic work is Naumann's as it is designed to be used as a workbook (it includes homework exercises and their answers) as well as a text. Both first and second editions of Naumann's text have been consulted because the first edition addresses the relation of transformational grammar to word-formation principles, and the second has an updated approach to word-formation concurrent with Erben's and

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³ We are referring to Marchand's articles instead of his book, The Categories of Present-Day English Word-Formation, München, 1969.

Marchand's studies, which thus makes the three comparable.

Both textbooks introduce the study of word-formation, but whereas Erben provides an overview of the basic principles for analysis and study of different types of word-formation with the most detail and wide range of examples from different historical periods, Naumann clearly explains and demonstrates the use of theoretical principles for the analysis of words found in today's NHG. Marchand presents actual analyses for specific types of word-formations taking into consideration criticism and other theories by other linguists. Based on similar research, the three sources complement each other in their content and approach to the subject, Erben being the most general, Naumann the most didactic and Marchand the most specific and scientific. Part I of my thesis deals with the topics mentioned above with reference to Marchand's, Erben's and Naumann's works.

Introducing the theoretical part of the thesis, we shall explain the terms to be used in the course of the discussion in order to establish a basis for explanations and analyses of compounds. Because "word" is a general and somewhat ambiguous term, we shall define it together with "compound" and "compound noun". The two types of compound nouns which interest us the most are the copulative and the determinative noun compound, since they contain two or more nouns and occur regularly in journalistic articles. But first, let us establish our terminology.

1. Definitions

1.1. Lexeme

The discussion deals with principles and practices of word-formation. We shall introduce it by defining our terminology. A word is a "lexeme", such as "Haus" or "Schulwegkostenerstattung", as compared to a "morpheme", such as "-bar" in "untrinkbar", or "phoneme", such as [t] or [X]. A lexeme is a phonetic unit which performs a function in a sentence (see definition below) and brings its specific semantic value to the sentence (J. Erben, 1975)⁴. The type of lexeme we are dealing with, nouns, is a lexical unit or a "free morpheme" (Bloomfield, 1935). A word or free morpheme is semantically and structurally independent, in contradistinction from a prefix, for example, which is a bound morpheme (Bloomfield, 1935) and never occurs alone (as in "distribution" = free morpheme, and "redistribution" = bound morpheme + free morpheme). Words are classed according to grammatical types (e.g. noun, adjective, verb), called "parts of speech", and perform particular functions in a sentence. Since compounds are constructed on morphological and syntactic principles, the differentiation between parts of speech is a necessary constituent of word-formation theory.

It is necessary to clarify the meaning of "word" in order

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⁴ Footnotes will henceforth be reserved for explanations and for citing specific page numbers for quotes.

to use it as part of the terminology for compound analysis, that is to distinguish between components, and for the description of compound noun structure in the following section.⁵ With this understanding of a word, let us now examine one specific type of lexeme more closely, the compound noun.

1.2. Compound

In a compound (= Zusammensetzung, Kompositum), two or more free morphemes merge to form a semantic whole, a lexeme. A nominal compound is composed of a noun, an adjective, a verb or a particle (preposition) plus another noun, with the noun as last element. Because of the frequency of compound nouns in the German language, we shall deal only with compounds with two nominal elements, for example das Haus + die Tür = die Haustür. A compound noun (made of two nouns), according to Marchand, has one determinant and one determinatum (Marchand, 1974a)⁶. Naumann uses the term "Kernmorphem"⁷ for both

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⁵ The term "word" has been chosen over "lexeme" and "morpheme" for our terminology in order to be consistent with the terminological usage in our theoretical sources and for didactic reasons ("word" is part of the average student's active vocabulary) since it permits us to be flexible and yet precise when dealing with second-year students who may or may not have already been exposed to traditional linguistic terminology.

⁶ H. Marchand, "Synchronic Analysis and Word-Formation" in Studies in Syntax and Word-Formation, D. Kastovsky, ed., München: Wilhelm Fink, 1974, p. 171-2.

⁷ See bottom of page 9.

elements, giving each an ordinal number (first and second "Kernmorpheme") respective to its place in the compound but (seemingly) disregarding any relationship between the elements. Erben uses "Bestimmungswort" (= determining word) and "Grundwort" (= base word) to define the two constituents of a compound noun, where both are "Grundmorpheme" (= "base" or free morpheme). These free morphemes are numbered according to semantic weight and in reverse order according to placement. For example, "Haustür" (= door to the house, front door) consists of "Haus" and "Tür", both of which are free morphemes: "Tür" is "free morpheme 1" and "Haus" is "free morpheme 2". "Haustür" can also be part of a larger compound, such as "Haustürschlüssel" (= front door key), where "Haustür" is free morpheme 2 (or determining word) and "Schlüssel" is free morpheme 1 (or base word). A compound can also have two compounds as its constituents as in "Steinkohlenbergwerk": "Steinkohle(n)" as modifying word and "Bergwerk" as base word.

Another feature of a (determinative) compound noun is that the base word can replace the whole compound, but the modifying word cannot. Using the above examples then, "Tür" replaces "Haustür", "Schlüssel" replaces "Haustürschlüssel" and "Bergwerk" replaces "Steinkohlenbergwerk". "Werk" cannot replace "Steinkohlenbergwerk" in the same way "Tür" can

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In strict reference to German word-formation theory, I am translating "Kernmorphem" to "kernel morpheme", even though it has a specific meaning in English linguistics. See also "base morpheme".

replace "Haustür", but rather "Bergwerk" (free morphemes one and two), can replace the whole compound.

Since we are analyzing only compound nouns with two nominal elements, Erben's term "free morpheme" describes both elements better than Naumann's "kernel morpheme". By the same token, Erben's "determining" and "base" words are more concise than Marchand's "determinant/determinatum", because the latter terms cover too broad a range of word-classes and thus can be confused with a derivative structure. Marchand himself points out the general nature of his terms: "[...], we have to state that a derivative is a syntagma consisting of a determinant and a determinatum, whether we have a compound (e.g. headache), a suffixal derivative (e.g. father-hood), or a prefixal derivative (e.g. un-do)"⁸. In order to imply the interactive relationships (mutual sharing of meaning and deeper syntactic relationship) between the elements, "determining word" and "base word" serve best for analysis. "Free morpheme" applies to both (all) elements in a compound, thus supporting the fact that a compound is made of two lexemes forming one semantic unit, in contradistinction to derivatives whose basic constituents are one free and one bound morpheme.

Another element which can be part of some compound nouns is a "Fugenelement" (= linking element/letter⁹). This irregular, non-frequent element is sometimes an inflexional mor-

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⁸ H. Marchand, 1974 a), p. 171-2.

⁹ H. Lederer, 1969, p. 34 f.

pHEME¹⁰ belonging to the first free morpheme, as in "Tageslicht" = "Licht des Tages" (= daylight), or a formal element which simply joins the two elements, as in "Geschäftsmann" and "Steinkohlenbergwerk" (Erben: Kompositionsfuge, Fugenzeichen). The linking letters found in NHG are -e-, -n-, -en-, -er-, -(e)s-, -ens-, -i- and -o- (Naumann, 1986; Fleischer, 1982), which can be flexional morphemes of the plural or genitive singular. According to Naumann and Marchand, there are really no rules governing the use of linking letters, but Naumann does consider the possibility of them being euphonically as well as syntactically governed; that is as part of a deep structure (see 2.2. below), a genitive attribute (e.g. "Tageslicht" = Licht des Tages), instead of as an additional element there for facilitating pronunciation. For example, the "s" in "Funktionsverb" could be deemed a necessary phonetic element to pass from the "n" to the "v", the "en" in "Breitengrad", from the "t" to the "g" and the "e" in "Tagedieb", from the "g" to the "d"¹¹. So far,

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¹⁰ An inflexional morpheme (= Flexionsmorphem) is a bound morpheme attached to another morpheme (either bound or free) which indicates e.g. for nouns case, number and/or gender (e.g. Wort-Wörter, word-words; it is distinguished from the "Formationsmorphem", also a bound morpheme, which indicates a (change in) part of speech (e.g. Freund-freundlich, slow-slowly). B. Naumann, Tübingen, 1986, p. 7-8.

¹¹ It is interesting to note that this linguistic practice is a reversion of phonetic theory, that is to say, the presence of linking letters is determined by the first (preceding) element in the compound rather than the second.

these are features of determinative compounds as opposed to copulative compounds.

In recapitulation, the following terms will be used in the subsequent discussion and analysis. A **nominal compound** is composed of two **free morphemes**, where the first free morpheme, the **determining word**, modifies the second, the **base word**, in a determinative compound. A **linking letter** or **letters** are necessary to join the two free morphemes; this element can be a **formal morpheme** or a **flexional morpheme** belonging to the first free morpheme. In cases of **derivatives** (e.g. "Versorgung"), the main lexical element is the **kernel morpheme**¹² (here: -sorg-) to which other **bound morphemes** are joined; they are either **prefixes** (ver-) or **suffixes** (-ung). The derivative is important to our analysis since a noun derived from a verb, for example, (as in "Versorgung" from "(ver-)sorgen") can be one of the constituents of a **compound noun**, as in "Datenverarbeitung" and "Entwicklungsland".

1.2.1. Copulative and Determinative Compounds

There are two types of compounds: copulative and determinative. Duden states that the copulative compound is less common to date in German than the determinative compound, and that the former is a little-used type of construc-

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¹² See note 7 for explanation of English term.

tion in comparison to the latter¹³. According to Erben, "das Kopulativkompositum faßt als Verbindung zweier gleichgeltender Ist-Prädikationen den abschließenden Befund zusammen".¹⁴ In other words, both elements of a copulative compound carry equal weight in the meaning resulting from their paratactical joining, for example "Strumpfhose", "Ofenkamin" and "Dichterkomponist" (Duden). These are to be distinguished from a looser form of connected free morphemes which are called "Zusammenrückungen"¹⁵. However, this is the form in which original copulative compounds now tend to occur: "Arzt-Kosmonaut", "Schauspieler-Autor" and "Kinder-Gangster" to name a few.¹⁶

Since a copulative compound consists of two lexemes which carry equal semantic weight, these lexemes are both base words, in contradistinction to the determinative compound which contains a determining word(s) and a base word. Following this logically, the second element, or the second base word in a two-element copulative compound, cannot replace the whole compound as can the base word in a determinative compound, because the meaning of the copulative compound is created through the mutual joining and dependency of the two

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¹³ Duden: Die Grammatik, Bd. 4, pp. 439-40.

¹⁴ J. Erben, Wortbildungslehre p. 57.

¹⁵ There is no English equivalent which can render the meaning of "Zusammenrückung". Loosely translated, it is a "put together word", usually hyphenated.

¹⁶ J. Erben, Wortbildungslehre p. 57.

elements and can therefore not be separated and mean the same as the compound. Conversely, the base word of a determinative compound can replace the whole compound, since, for example, a door is always a door, wherever it is situated, whereas a "Dichterkomponist" is neither simply a writer nor simply a composer, but rather the two at the same time. In other words, "Dichterkomponist" cannot be replaced by "Komponist" in the same manner that "Tür" can replace "Haustür".

Excepting the few examples listed here, many copulative compounds are "Gelegenheitswörter" (= words composed for a specific occasion) which are used only once in a specific context, and seldom reoccur. Determinative compounds which are "Gelegenheitswörter", however, tend to reoccur firstly as "in" words, then, after being accepted into current vocabulary, they survive if the context for which they were coined remains tangible. Technological inventions, for example, are often given a compound noun as a name, such as "Atomkraftwerk" (= nuclear power plant), "Datenverarbeitung" (= data processing) and "Elektroenzephalogramm" (= electroencephalogram).

Determinative compounds, the more common kind, are hypotactically connected, where the first free morpheme determines the second. For example in the word "Hausschuh" (= slipper), the first element "Haus" (= house) modifies "Schuh" (= shoe), or determines the type of "Schuh", i.e. the shoe for wearing inside the house.

There are different types of determinative compounds,

which can be grouped according to semantic and syntactic principles. Naumann quotes H. Paul's examples for semantic categories, ten in all, in which the first element determines the category¹⁷. It is possible to reduce the ten categories to six, which eliminates the repetition of a category; to these we shall add a seventh which is not included by either Paul or Naumann, which includes the genitive case as a criterion for semantic categories.

- 1) The first element names the material or part of the material with which the second element is made: "Filzhut", "Apfelkuchen".
- 2) The first element names the place where the second is found or belongs: "Feldblume", "Haustür".
- 3) The first element names the time when the second element is used: "Nachthemd", "Sommeranzug".
- 4) The first element names the purpose for which the second was intended: "Bierfaß", "Suppenlöffel"; "Regenschirm", "Feuerversicherung".
- 5) The first element names the concept to which the second is compared: "Rabenvater", "Staubzucker", "Sandstein".
- 6) a) The first element names the thing with which the second is done: "Handarbeit", "Faustkampf";
 b) The first element names the thing which the second makes or uses (often a vocation): "Hutmacher", "Goldschmied"; "Metallarbeiter", "Buchhändler".

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¹⁷ B. Naumann, 2nd ed., 1986, p. 66.

- 7) The first element names to what or to whom the second belongs: "Vogelfeder", "Tischbein".

Most linguists dealing with word-formation theory distinguish between word-formation and word-creation. Although the difference between the two appears self-evident, their impact on the analysis of compounds must be examined. The main difference is that formation means the construction of a word by following rules established by grammar (syntax and morphology), while creation implies a different process where a new word is presented or "coined", although still following rules, albeit sometimes very loosely. Onomatopoeic words are creations rather than constructions, imitating the natural sound of something (e.g. the sounds that animals make). Coining words is considered to be using "poetic licence" when the rules are not strictly followed in order to create an impact on the reader.¹⁸

For Erben there are no more neologisms in NHG, but rather newly-formed words. Rather than being created from a completely new string of phonetic symbols (such as was the symbol for "house"), original concepts or objects are expressed by building new lexemes from known, established forms such as the compound (e.g. "Kernkraftwerk"). Erben does not rule out the

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¹⁸ The Concise Oxford Dictionary, 7th ed., 1982, p. 579: "writer's or artist's irregularity in grammar, metre, perspective, etc., esp. for sake of effect (poetic licence)".

possibility of pure word-creation, but considers that the probability is limited.¹⁹ Naumann agrees that neologisms are relatively rare. Since most newly coined lexemes are derivatives or compounds, word-formation plays a central rôle in creating and comprehending new vocabulary in German.

This leads us to the discussion of syntax and morphology as pertains to compound nouns, including the effect these two aspects of word-formation have on the meaning of a nominal compound. In the next section, morphology, syntax and semantics are identified as key players in the inner workings of the compound noun. Topics included here are transformational grammar and motivation.

2. Morphological and Syntactical Principles

2.1. Syntax, Valence, Case.

A sentence is a group of words which are linked by rules of grammar or syntax. Marchand states that "a sentence is based on the same structural principle of a determinatum/determinant relationship as is a compound, the difference being that the sentence is a complete utterance, while the compound is only part of an utterance".²⁰ In NHG, the main structural element in a sentence is the word-class "verb" (Duden), with all other words in the sentence being related

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¹⁹ J. Erben, p.17 f.

²⁰ H. Marchand, 1974 a), p. 294.

to the verb by their function. Syntactic rules identify the function that each element performs with respect to the verb. These rules determine which elements of a grammatically complete sentence build a "structural minimum"²¹ or a "complete utterance"²². The so-called "valence" theory prescribes the type and number of elements a verb requires, both semantically and syntactically speaking, to form a structural minimum, based on the premise that the verb is the central structural and semantic element. Similarly, nouns and adjectives have valence requirements²³; that is to say that specific prepositions are connected with certain nouns (e.g. "Gegenteil" + "von" + noun [expressing the opposite of a preceding statement], as in: "Groß ist das Gegenteil von klein."), and only certain cases can be connected with specific adjectives (e.g. "wert" + noun in dative case: "Es ist der Mühe wert."), both as a necessary component of their meaning. Valence is significant for our study when it plays a part in a compound noun's underlying syntactic structure.

Looking more closely at syntax in relation to valence theory, within determinative compounds, the compounds are the basis for eight syntactic relationships (Marchand (1974) on Lees, 1966; Motsch, 1970): 1) subject-subjective completion

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²¹ K. E. Sommerfeldt and H. Schreiber, Wörterbuch zur Valenz und Distribution der Substantive, 1980.

²² Op. cit. 10 (above).

²³ Ibid.

(or predicate) (S-S.Compl.), 2) subject-verb (S-V), 3) subject-object (S-O), 4) verb-object (V-O), 5) subject-prepositional object (S-Pr.O), 6) verb-prepositional object (V-Pr.O), 7) object-prepositional object (O-Pr.O) and 8) genitive (Gen.). Using a selection of the examples for the semantic categories (above), we shall demonstrate these relationships:

1) S - S.Compl.: Sandstein - Der Stein ist Sand.

2) S - V: Vogelruf - Der Vogel ruft.

3) S - O: Bierfaß - Das Faß enthält Bier.

4) V - O: Hutmacher - Jemand macht einen Hut.

Metallarbeiter - Jemand bearbeitet Metall.

5) S - Pr.O: Filzhut - Der Hut besteht aus Filz.

Feldblume - Die Blume wächst im Feld.

Regenschirm - Der Schirm schützt vor Regen.

6) V - Pr.O: Faustkampf - Jemand kämpft mit der Faust.

Feuerversicherung - Jemand versichert sich/
etwas gegen Feuer.

7) O - Pr.O: Nachthemd - Man trägt das Hemd in der Nacht.

Suppenlöffel - Man verwendet den Löffel für
Suppe.

8) Gen.: Haustür - Das ist die Tür des Hauses.

Tischbein - Das ist das Bein des Tisches.

From these examples, it is evident that the syntactic relationship between the two elements of a determinative compound varies, and that a free morpheme may be the first or the

second element in the compound.

As seen above, compounds can have a derivative as a constituent; for example, in "Feuerversicherung", our second lexeme is "Versicherung", functioning as a free morpheme and as a (deverbal) derivative. This is what causes the verb - prepositional object relationship between the two morphemes: "versichern", the verb from which "Versicherung" is derived ("versicher-" = base morpheme), requires by valence not only a subject and direct object (shown as "jemand" and "sich/etwas" above), but also that another object must be preceded by the preposition "gegen" (i.e. "gegen Feuer"). These syntactic requirements in turn determine the semantic nature of the verb modifiers. The object of the preposition, in this case, must contain the meaning or connotation that it poses a threat, since one insures (versichert) oneself against something (or conceivably someone) which is life-threatening or could severely damage one's well-being. In this manner, valence theory is part of our studies in word-formation in NHG.

Any learner of NHG will encounter valence and "Rektion", i.e. case. Marchand considers case a necessary concept when studying word-formation, since case relationships "are also found to exist inside a morphologic composite"²⁴, (e.g. in a compound noun) as well as between words and groups of words

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²⁴ H. Marchand, 1974, a), p. 295, quoting C. Bally, Linguistique générale et linguistique française, 1944, p.102.

within a sentence. The recognition of case relationships is important for the comprehension of the meaning of a compound, as they show the syntactic relationship between the two (or more) components (e.g. "Jahresdurchschnitt" = Durchschnitt des Jahres: genitive relationship). They can also be distinguished from other forms such as plural forms (e.g. "Wörterbuch", "Bücherregal": umlaut + -er = plural form of "Wort" and "Buch") and from formal morphemes (= Formationsmorpheme), such as the linking letter found in "Geschäftsmann".

2.2. Word-Formation and Transformational Grammar

Discussing the reconstruction of forms within a form brings us to transformational grammar. In principle, transformational grammar deals with the analysis rather than the synthesis of words; Naumann calls this "Morphemidentifikation" (1972). By identifying the morphemes of which a word or syntagma is composed, one has identified its "surface structure", and it is possible to recognize their transformation. For example, all verbs undergo an obligatory transformation when conjugated: "ich trinke" from "trinken" (= {personal pronoun +} bound morpheme "trink-" + flexional morpheme "-e"). Although the form, or surface structure, of "trinken" (= to drink) is changed when conjugated (i.e. "ich trinke" = "I drink"), the meaning, or the "deep structure", of "(to) drink" does not change. A compound noun, in comparison, is a voluntary transformation, where two independent

semantic units (i.e. free morphemes) are joined together syntactically (e.g. Haus + Schuh = Hausschuh: Man trägt den Schuh im Haus.). Transformations only change the form, or surface structure, of a syntagma and leave its semantic value as established by a syntactic relationship, or "deep structure", intact. In this sense, syntax connects morphology with semantics in a compound.

As the compound noun can represent a reduced sentence (Motsch, 1970), it is necessary to discuss the syntactic structures relevant to principles of word-formation. In the words of Hans Marchand,

morphologic composites (=compounds, suffixal derivatives...) are 'reduced sentences' in substantival, adjectival, or verbal form and as such explainable from 'full' sentences,... e.g. washing machine.²⁵

He also calls the compound noun a "nominalized sentence"²⁶; Duden describes this phenomenon as "paraphrasing"²⁷. Duden also specifies that only "transparent" compounds can be paraphrased:

Zwar steht fest, daß (die durchsichtigen) Zusammensetzungen sowohl auf Wortgruppen als auch auf Satzfügungen bezogen und durch sie umschreibend (paraphrasierend) wiedergegeben werden können.²⁸

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²⁵ H. Marchand, 1974 a), p. 294.

²⁶ H. Marchand, 1974 c): "The Analysis of Verbal Nexus Substantives", p. 276 (henceforth 1974 c)).

²⁷ Duden-Grammatik, 1984, pp. 402-403.

²⁸ Duden-Grammatik, 1984, p. 402.

The example given is the paraphrasing of "eine Eisentür", an iron door²⁹:

Das ist eine Tür. Sie besteht aus Eisen.
 Die(se) Tür besteht/ist hergestellt aus Eisen.
 eine Tür, die aus Eisen besteht
 eine Tür aus Eisen
 eine eiserne Tür
 eine Eisentür

It is evident from the example that a sentence (or two, as above) can be reduced to a compound noun; similarly, a compound can be made into a sentence.

In so doing, the deep structure of the compound is revealed and then its meaning is clarified. When a compound is reconstructed as an uncomplicated sentence, it is possible to analyze the syntactic relationship between the two free morphemes and to identify the connotation each component maintains when joined in that compound (as in 1.2.1. above). The example above, "eine Eisentür", is not just any door (= Tür), but rather a door made of a specific material. When one thinks of simply "a door" or "eine Tür", many connotations (i.e. kinds) of doors can be considered; the noun "Tür" is a generic term. With the addition of "Eisen", the connotations are reduced to one which designates the material from which the door was made. Thus a compound noun has a surface structure, the compound itself, and a deep structure, its meaning

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²⁹ Duden-Grammatik, 1984, p. 403.

and the syntactic relationship linking the two (or more) components in the compound (here: subject {door} + object of the preposition adjunct to the main verb {iron}).

This surface structure-deep structure relationship helps to identify semantic differences between seemingly identical compounds. For example, "Eisentür", "Haustür", "Hintertür" and "Schwingtür" all have a common element, the base word "Tür", and a similar surface structure of free morpheme plus free morpheme (except "Schwing-" which is a bound morpheme). These compounds do not have the same deep syntactic structure nor do they mean exactly the same thing. We know that "Eisentür" has a subject-predicate relationship (here a prepositional phrase: Die Tür besteht aus Eisen.), and means an "iron door", from previous discussions. "Haustür" has a subject-prepositional object relationship (i.e. Die Tür ist am Haus.) and means the "front door (to the house)". "Hintertür", meaning "back door", has a different syntactical relationship from those mentioned already since "hinter" is a preposition; we shall call this a subject-preposition relationship (i.e. Die Tür ist hinter dem Haus). Lastly, "Schwingtür" has a subject-verb relationship (i.e. Die Tür schwingt.) and means a "swinging door". Since a compound's surface structure leads to its deep structure, studying its formation and the reason for its creation becomes significant.

A transformation, then, is a motivated reconstruction of

a deep structure, or of a new surface structure for a deep structure. Thus a compound noun is a motivated transformation, whose deep structure is embedded in its form. Morphology, syntax and semantics are interconnected within the compound noun, making it a productive construction which inspires creativity and at the same time making it an analyzable, accessible and significant feature in the context of written NHG of the last two decades.

2.3. Word-Formation and Motivation

Motivation, as the word implies, is the "raison d'être" of a word, or the transparency a word has. Motivation is the link between semantics and morphology in word-formation. Onomatopoetic words are fully motivated or completely transparent: their meaning is easily understood, or "self-evident"³⁰. Words like "house" and "love" are not transparent in meaning or in form, but rather "opaque" and not motivated. In other words, their morphological form does not necessarily coincide with what they mean (de Saussure calls this a "signifiant-signifié" relationship)³¹. "Transparent" (= durchsichtig) words will have a meaning which is literal and self-evident; their meaning is easily deduced. A "translucent" word is less easily analyzed, since its meaning may

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³⁰ B. Naumann, 1986, p. 36 f.

³¹ J. Lyons, Language and Linguistics, Cambridge, 1981, p.221.

be hidden in a metaphor; for example, the word for "glove" in German is "Handschuh" which literally means "hand shoe", or shoe for the hand. Taken figuratively, the meaning is nevertheless evident after very little thought. The words which are "opaque" have elements or an element which has disappeared in its non-compound form from current use; for example the first elements in "Hauptstadt" and "Himbeere" have become demotivated and thus make these compounds semantically opaque (e.g. in English: cranberry³²). Naumann presents a chart (by U. Püschel, 1978) in which the range from self-explanatory to transparent to opaque words is shown.³³ He shows that there are some words which are completely "demotivated", whose roots are not apparent in the form (e.g. "Herberge"); Naumann calls them "lexemes"³⁴. The more transparent the forms are, the more motivated the meanings are, such as in the following list, ranging from fully motivated to unmotivated words: "Diskussionsbeitrag, Morgenhimmel, Jahresdurchschnitt, Nachtarbeit, Großstadt, Augenblick"³⁵. This is important for compound nouns, in that the form can reveal the meaning of the whole compound, morphological rules connect the semantic units. In this way, apparently un-

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³² The "cranberry" example is a disputed one; "cran-" appears only in "cranberry" in the Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982, 7th ed., p.221), meaning "crane".

³³ B. Naumann, 1986, p. 39; also U. Püschel, 1978, p.164.

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ B. Naumann, 1986, p. 36, citing Fleischer, 1982.

motivated compounds can be understood when analyzed morphologically.

The reverse process, coining words within the rules of syntax and morphology, lends itself to creating new compounds. Erben believes that certain word-creations are productive, because being transparent and fully-motivated they can survive (i.e. become lexicalized), be reproduced in their form and even co-exist with a semantically competing word.³⁶ For Erben, a "transposition" (= transformation) of a free or bound morpheme, such as in "fahren; Fahrer, Fahrzeug, Fahrbahn; befahrbar" is "economical and creates motivated constructions"³⁷.

With these principles in mind, let us now proceed to the next part of the thesis where we shall examine excerpts from journalistic texts. We propose to analyze actual compound nouns as well as their context in order to discover changes in writing style over time and to authenticate the use of current journalistic texts as teaching material.

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³⁶ J. Erben, p.47.

³⁷ J. Erben, p.21.

Part II

Texts: Analysis

1. Discussion

Periodicals and newspapers are the most up-to-date printed material for linguistic studies, containing a wider range of topics than literary works or scientific papers. They offer sufficient relevant data for the present discussion and analysis. Journalistic writing shows current linguistic usage, which reflects tendencies in the style of modern written NHG; it is creative as news requires new concepts and these concepts interpret the news. Its style is also directed towards its readers (Carstensen, 1971), which reflects different socio-linguistic level of German. Our choices, Der Spiegel and Die Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, reflect several levels of language, but address educated readers for the most part, Der Spiegel mostly men. Journalistic texts provide an example of the distribution of compound nouns in twentieth-century German of the last two decades, in which the use of compound nouns, new as well as known ones, has become important once again, thus influencing the development of language (Carstensen, 1971). Finally, they contain topics current enough to evoke a feeling of familiarity and interest in the readers.

Our texts are articles taken from older and recent issues of Der Spiegel and of Die Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung.

These two publications reflect the particular linguistic trends in the period from 1965 to 1985: Der Spiegel (SPIEGEL) is a weekly publication and Die Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung (FAZ) is a daily. Their articles deal with current issues which can stem from a wide range of topics such as politics, sports, the arts to the economy, and from many more areas of discussion which are too numerous to mention here. FAZ as a daily may possibly have less reflective and more up-to-the-minute reports, but serves readers from a broader socio-linguistic spectrum; this is also reflected by its large selection of topics. Being from Frankfurt a.M., a large economic centre in the Federal Republic of Germany, FAZ logically carries features which would interest people in business and entrepreneurial endeavours, such as statistics, politics, business and economy. The articles in SPIEGEL, a news magazine (as opposed to a women's magazine like Brigitte or a science magazine like GEO), include in-depth reports as well as current affairs. There is much emphasis on politics, economy and sports--which, if we may be so bold as to state, are traditionally male-oriented (even businessman-oriented) topics.³⁸ Because of this attention paid to the latest issues such as world politics, the writers of FAZ and SPIEGEL use the latest words, expressions and turns of phrase to express these issues; for example, an article on American politics will

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³⁸ B. Carstensen, 1971, p. 18: " 'von einem Mann für einen Mann' zu schreiben" is a characteristic of style for SPIEGEL, according to Carstensen.

contain words and expressions common to this topic, such as "Sprecher des Repräsentantenhauses" (= speaker of the House of Representatives) and "Wahlmänner-gremium" (= Electoral College)³⁹. In order to report the most recent events, often new words are coined, many of them compounds.

Despite the fact that a newspaper aims at a more generalized readership than a news magazine (Löffler, 1985), FAZ and SPIEGEL both share features and can therefore be compared as publications with common aims and topics of discussion. Any periodical's public expects a certain level of language and a certain quality of information (Löffler, 1985). SPIEGEL and FAZ both meet the standards of a middle to upper-middle class readership in their content and form, which are, as mentioned above, up-to-date information written in comprehensible and at times modish German (Sandig, 1986; Carstensen, 1971). To a certain extent, some readers may be attracted to SPIEGEL because of its reputation as a newsmagazine which uses the latest expressions and catch-words (Carstensen, 1971); in other words, certain periodicals, like SPIEGEL, hold the position of "status symbol" (Löffler, 1985). Having this type of socio-linguistic group as (most likely) regular readers, both publications must provide the quality of information and level of language which meet the standard expected by their readers.

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³⁹ SPIEGEL, Vol. 46, 1984, p. 134. "Wahlmännnergremium" was explained in a footnote in the article itself.

We have chosen these two publications for several reasons. Firstly, they are available in Canada, thus aiming beyond the borders of Germany. As journalistic texts, in contradistinction to literary texts (i.e. novels, dramas or poetry), they reflect the standard norm of the printed word which makes them appropriate examples for our study of current trends in the German language. FAZ and SPIEGEL also address a wide readership which renders them accessible to readers with varying levels of education and with different linguistic backgrounds. Lastly, they offer a wide enough variety of topics for compounds to be observed in context and to show the influence of compounds on writing style. These articles serve as a testing ground for our hypotheses that compound nouns occur more and more frequently in NHG, both as older and as newly-coined compounds, and that, as a result of this increase, variance of sentence structure tends to be limited in a journalistic article to paratactical structures, where compound nouns occur densely, replacing or avoiding the subordinate clause structure.

2. Analysis

2.1. Principles of Journalistic Language and Style

The language of the written press has the task of giving precise information of all kinds (Sandig, 1986). It belongs to the same type of written German as every-day speech, scientific and law texts and literary prose and poetry (Löffler,

1985). These types of texts each reflect particular writing styles, which in turn overlap in the news article (Löffler, 1985) or "story" (Sandig, 1986; Howe, 1972; Carstensen, 1971). According to Löffler (1985), the main characteristics of journalistic language are: nominalization, simple, uncomplicated sentence structure, parataxis, "Häckselstil" (= choppy, cropped style), the use of catch-words, fashionable expressions and subject-specific lingo or jargon⁴⁰. This type of language can deviate from the norms of syntax and writing style, and hence will introduce new trends and expressions into standard use of the language (Löffler, 1985).

Newspaper-language (= geschriebene Pressesprache) itself has been divided by Carstensen (1971) into four different categories: 1) "Sprache der Information", 2) "Sprache der Wirkung", 3) "Sprache der Exklusivität" and 4) "Sprache ohne spezifische Funktion"⁴¹. The first category of language deals with the clear expression of informational content; included here are short sentences, the enumeration of facts, and compound words, which make context instantly clear and comprehensible by their property of being reduced sentences (Carstensen, 1971). The purpose of the second type of language is to awaken the readers' interest in the topic as well as to

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⁴⁰ H. Löffler, 1985, p. 125.

⁴¹ B. Carstensen, 1971, on D. Just (1967), pp. 32-33: = 1) language of information, 2) language of impression or influence, 3) language exclusive [to SPIEGEL] and 4) language without a specific function.

proffer diverse opinions and criticism. The third type is what Carstensen deems as language which is exclusive to SPIEGEL and thus attracts readers (similar to Löffler's "status symbol" (1985)). Lastly, "language without a specific function", for Carstensen, is foreign words. Although these categories apply mainly to SPIEGEL, they do appear in FAZ as well, if at times to a lesser degree. In this discussion, we shall concentrate mainly on the first type of language which is used for the giving of information.

Choice of vocabulary is of important when communicating information. Journalists must use a type of language which gets the message across in a few objective but communicative words. Because of space constraints, journalistic articles, or reports, are relatively short and to the point, in comparison to a novel, for example. Bernhard Sowinski (1978) defines the report as a genre, in which specific events or occurrences are recounted in chronological order. This applies to any type of report, be it a newspaper, business or scientific report. Pragmatic principles such as brevity and objectivity determine the style of a report.

2.2. Compound Nouns in Journalistic Usage and Style

Since the standard criteria for a news report are brevity, objectivity and quality of information (i.e. how much and what kind of information a journalist can relate briefly

and objectively; Howe, 1972), compound nouns are excellent tools at a newswriter's fingertips. Their conciseness provides the brevity needed to preserve a piece from the editor's "axe", and their semantic density helps the writer get his/her story across quickly. From the premise that a compound noun is a reduced sentence, it follows that a single sentence may actually contain several sentences which are represented by a few well-chosen compounds. The morphologic flexibility of this type of noun in German--i.e. a compound can contain more than two free morphemes--, permits writers to invent words to fit the subject matter of their stories (e.g. "Geldschloß" (= a castle for money) to express an imposing bank building). The use of a common free morpheme throughout the text, as determining element at one point and base element at another joined each time to a different free morpheme, thus bringing out another shade of meaning in the common free morpheme, is a style which promotes cohesion within the whole text (e.g. "Geldschloß" and "Schloßassoziationen"). Adding attributes to a compound noun further enhances not only its meaning but its value as a tool for the newspaper reporter. In these respects, newspaper reporters are well served by neutral and evaluative compound nouns, in that they satisfy the requirements of clarity, brevity and a certain degree of objectivity while providing the necessary information. The intrinsic characteristics of brevity and density of (compound) nouns lead to the predisposition towards

selecting compound nouns as a main feature in a journalist's writing style. This style is called nominal style (Nominalstil).

2.3. Nominal Style

Nominal style is characterized by the frequent occurrence of noun groups (nouns and their modifiers) in a (single) sentence or text (Sowinski, 1978). This style is typical for journalistic literature, which is dominated by nouns, both simple and compound (Carstensen, 1971). Löffler (1985) also names "nominalization"--when a verbal syntagma is transformed into a substantival expression--as a characteristic of the language of the press. This also implies nouns as being the dominant feature of a syntagma, as opposed to verbs or verbal expressions. The verb, however is the structural centre of all sentences (as indicated in Part I), and a nominal syntagma cannot appear as a grammatically independent unit, i.e. without a verb. With the strong nominal element as a grammatical dependent, the verb tends to lose its semantic value, since the nominal syntagma has become semantically dense, as in the case of a compound noun.

This noun-dominated style has a "passive effect" on the prose and its reader/listener; instead of giving the feeling that the reported events are dynamic (or active), they seem static (or inactive). The use of a noun structure or a nominalized verb structure to express action may make that

action less dynamic, or static. Two concurrent verb-structures which have a similar effect must be mentioned here: the passive voice and "Funktionsverbgefüge"⁴². Popadic calls the latter a "Passiv-Ersatz"⁴³, a "passive-voice-substitute", in her study of the nominalization of verbal expressions in late twentieth-century German journalistic prose. The "Funktionsverbgefüge" (with certain verbs), she explains, is a simplification for a potentially complicated passive construction with "werden", which can become cumbersome in NHG in compound tenses because of word order. Popadic considers this passive-voice substitution important when combined with compound nouns.

Durch die Zusammensetzung wird die Aussagekraft des Substantivs und mit diesem der Verbalverbindung natürlich gesteigert; als Bestandteil der Verbalverbindung haben wir aber in der Zusammensetzung gleichzeitig ein Mittel zur Nuancierung der Bedeutung gewonnen.⁴⁴

Here, she states that when the noun in the "Funktionsverbgefüge" is a compound noun rather than just a simple, common

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⁴² A "Funktionsverbgefüge" is a nominalization of a verb structure; it is a semantic and grammatical structure involving a noun and a verb which replaces a verb semantically; the noun, rather than the verb, carries the main meaning and the verb supports the noun grammatically.; e.g. "zur Geltung kommen" from the verb "gelten" = "to take effect", replacing "affect". (See K. Daniels, 1963, H. Popadic, 1971, Duden-Grammatik, 1984 for more information.)

⁴³ H. Popadic, 1971, p. 69 ff.

⁴⁴ H. Popadic, 1971, p. 56.

noun, the semantic value of the expression is augmented and the compound noun has the power to give nuances to the verbal expression. In her examples, "Sicherheitsmaßnahmen - Schutzmaßnahmen - Vorsorgemaßnahmen ... treffen; einen Höflichkeitsbesuch oder Staatsbesuch machen"⁴⁵, we see that the nuances are made by the common free morpheme. The connotation of the common base morpheme here is changed by the addition of a different free morpheme or determining element. Although we have not found this as a dominant feature in our texts, it is necessary to take this type of context into consideration in order to account for the usage of compound nouns in journalistic writing.

3. Examples

3.1. Introductory Comments

The texts have been selected from articles in the two publications (FAZ and SPIEGEL) dating from 1959 to 1986. They were chosen according to topic and of course, the quantity (we analyzed a total of 1462 compound nouns in thirty-five articles; see Appendix A) and quality of useful examples for our study, such as "DDR-Staatsratsvorsitzende" with SPIEGEL's typical acronym + compound structure (Carstensen, 1971), or "Geldtempel", a coined word in a FAZ architecture article, or "Sprengladung" from a SPIEGEL article on nuclear arms testing. The articles from FAZ concern politics, sports and architec-

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⁴⁵ Ibid.

ture; the ones from SPIEGEL report on politics, sports and current affairs. This selection will enable us to illustrate the points of discussion in Parts I and II, and to study and compare the occurrence of compounds and their effect on style according to topic and to year.

As explained in Part I, our grammatical analysis will start with the premise that the verb is the structural centre or nucleus of a German sentence. For each article, we followed a systematic procedure for analyzing the grammatical function within the sentence as a whole. The first step was simply the identification of compound nouns (here we included "Zusammenrückungen"⁴⁶ since they constitute a significant percentage of SPIEGEL's vocabulary, as in the above example). We then proceeded to analyze each compound's grammatical function according to valence theory; our main aim was to discover how many compounds per article were obligatory verb complements in order to establish a basis for our hypothesis that compounds influence sentence structure in such a way that syntactic structures with the verb as semantic centre are minimal and that noun-centred structures occur more and more frequently over time, hence the long time span between the articles chosen for our study. The verb may be in one of many forms (finite, infinitive, participial) and still have dependent elements linked with it (e.g. accusative object of an infinitive); all other parts of speech are analyzed in

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⁴⁶ See Part I, 1.2.1. above.

relation to the verb on which they are dependent. The hypothesis to be tested here was that compounds perform all of the above-mentioned grammatical functions. We would like to point out that although the verb may be the grammatical/syntactical centre of a German sentence, it is not necessarily the semantic centre of the sentence.

In the following section, we shall provide examples of compound noun structure analysis as demonstrated in theory in Part I. The purpose of this exercise is to prove that the theory is compatible with practice, rendering the theoretical approach a useful reading and comprehension device. (Aside from strictly theory, a reader's understanding compound nouns in periodicals also justifies their use by journalists.)

3.2. Analysis of Examples

Compound nouns play an important rôle in our texts, since they occur frequently and in all grammatical functions. In an overall survey of the twenty-one articles from SPIEGEL and the fourteen from FAZ (see Appendix A), we deduced that compound nouns make up a significant percentage of all the nouns in an average 400- to 500-word article. Of these compounds, only forty-five percent, on the average, are directly connected by valence to verbs in structurally central positions in sentences. Other grammatical roles, not con-

nected to the verb, are: sentence adverb⁴⁷, (e.g. "Während der Woche durfte sie eine Spritztour in ihrem Traumwagen...unternehmen."; FAZ: Vol. 186/1986/p.23)⁴⁸, noun in apposition, (e.g. "Das... neue Thermalbewegungsbad im Rotenbachtal, einem Seitental der Oos, gliedert sich an..."; FAZ: 210/85/25), genitive noun modifier (e.g. "als wichtigen Stützpunkt seiner Olympiavorbereitungen"; FAZ: Oct./65/6) and part of a prepositional phrase (e.g. governed by accusative: "der Bundesausschuß für Leistungsförderung"; FAZ: Oct./65/6; dative: "Gebühreneinnahmen aus der Breitbandverkabelung"; FAZ: 209/85/4; and genitive: "indem es wegen Umbauarbeit geschlossen war"; FAZ: 278/75/17). It is thus evident that compound nouns dominate many of the "verbal" as well as "non-verbal" structures, as proven by Carstensen (1971) and Löffler (1985).

Interpreting the charts in Appendix A, we observe that all articles contain a large number of compound nouns. From 1965-1975, roughly half of all compounds in one article are obligatory verb complements. This means that verb structure plays a significant rôle in the journalistic writing of that time, insofar as verbs govern a substantial percentage of

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⁴⁷ Sentence adverb: an adverbial phrase, containing a preposition and a (compound) noun, modifies the whole sentence, and is not a required valence complement. P. Eisenberg, 1986, p. 197.

⁴⁸ Sources for quotations from periodicals will henceforth be noted as follows: Name of periodical: volume (when available)/year/page number (i.e. FAZ: 286/86/23).

compound nouns. From 1976 on, the proportion of compound nouns syntactically dependent on verbs versus those which are independent of verb structure decreased from approximately one half to one third. There are exceptions to these interpretations in our selection of articles. It is interesting to note that the proportion of compounds dependent on verbs is different for each topic: articles on politics tend to follow the pattern as described above, articles on sports tend to have proportionately more compounds dependent on verbs, whereas the editorials and articles on architecture tend to have a significantly lesser percentage of compounds dependent on verbs. Although we shall not attempt to draw any conclusions from these observations, we can state that there is a trend towards a more noun-oriented grammatical structure in journalistic writing, since the overall number of compounds increased. For example, the following sentence (from FAZ: 249/86/25) demonstrates a simple verb structure (here: sein...zu + infinitive: "ist...zu rechnen") providing a syntactical basis for several compounds:

Mit einer dauernden Präsenz der Gemälde und Druck-
erzeugnisse ist allerdings unter den beengten Raum-
verhältnissen im Walter-Gropius-Bau am Berliner
Landwehrkanal kaum zu rechnen.

These observations support our hypothesis that noun structures are occurring more frequently over time.

As explained Part I, the determinative compound occurs more frequently in NHG than copulative compounds. The

following lists of examples correspond to the groups of determinative compounds in Part I, in order by a) semantic categories and b) syntactic categories.

a) Semantic categories (from SPIEGEL and then from FAZ):

1. Material: "Atomwaffen" (22/65/25), "Sternornament" (278/75/17);
2. Place: "Parkspaziergang" (48/83/23), "Spitzenposition" (210/76/25);
3. Time: "Nachtflug" (26/75/62), "Eröffnungsausstellung" (278/75/17);
4. Purpose: "Sicherheitspolizei" (2/78/97), "Kriegsopferorganisation" (278/75/2);
5. Complement: "Kunststück" (48/83/197);
6. a) Object: "Zahlungsverpflichtung" (46/84/206), "Gebührengestaltung" (209/85/4);
       b) Person: "Spruchbandträger" (22/65/131), "Tennispieler" (Oct./65/6);
7. Possessive: "Menschenrechte" (36/84/23), "Dommuseum" (Oct./65/9).

b) Syntactic categories (from SPIEGEL and then from FAZ):

1. S-S.Compl.: "Kunststück" (48/83/197), "Kurstadt" (210/85/25);
2. S-V: "Ausrüsterfirmen" (13/86/312), "Marktentwicklung" (209/85/4);
3. S-O: "Sicherheitspolizei" (2/78/97), "Staatspräsident" (220/76/3);

4. V-O: "Spruchbandträger" (22/65/131), "Tennisspieler"
(Oct./65/6);
5. S-Pr.O: "Atomwaffen" (22/65/25), "Sternornament" (278/75/
17);
6. V-Pr.O: "Raketenfrage" (48/83/23), "Kriegsteilnehmer"
(278/75/2);
7. O-Pr.O: (none found);
8. Genitive: "Jugendohnsitz" (36/84/23), "Klangqualität"
(210/85/25).

Compound nouns, as we see here, are able to express both objects and people (e.g. "Flugplatz", "Verteidigungsminister"), and concrete and abstract meaning (e.g. "Klangqualität", "Raketenfrage"), thus proving the versatility of this structure. These few examples represent the diversity of compound nouns occurring in journalistic texts; each article contains a different distribution of them, as shown by the charts in Appendix A. It is evident that the various semantic and syntactic categories occur irregularly, some categories being represented more often than others (e.g. syntactic category number 7 occurs infrequently). In this material, we can observe the relative distribution of compounds beyond textbook definitions, which gives us an insight into historical trends and into tendencies in the linguistic development of the German lexicon.

3.3. Subject-Specific Compound Nouns

An article from SPIEGEL entitled "Das Loch von Sedan an der Zonengrenze?" (22/65/25) reports on nuclear crater barriers in the Nevada desert: scientists were testing nuclear bombs. Remembering that 1965 was the twentieth anniversary of the bombings in Japan during World War II, this type of article would be at least current to that time, as well as being thought-provoking. The now-familiar "jargon"⁴⁹ of nuclear weapons and the effects thereof was at that time not nearly as well known to those readers (e.g. "Staubwolken", "Kampfbedingungen", "Atomwaffen" and "Atomkrieg"); this is an example of the author employing the current technical terms to explain his subject. He talks about the nuclear weapon testing using words like: "einen atomaren Sprengsatz", "Sprengwert", "Sprengkraft", "Sprengladung", "Atomladung", "Atomsprengladungen", "Atomsprengkörper", "Atomwaffen", "Atomgroßmächte", "Atomkrieg"; "Loch-Anrainer", "Loch- und Röhrenstrategie", "Bohrloch", "Bohrversuche", "Versuchsdetonationen", "Detonationstiefe"; "Testreihen", "Teststopabkommen", "Wüstentest"; "Trichtersperren", "Trichterhindernis", and "Trichterdurchmesser". These compound nouns are linked together by their common free morphemes (e.g. Spreng-, Atom-, Test-). By reading them in this grouping

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⁴⁹ Language which is specific to a certain area of work or study; according to The Concise Oxford Dictionary, 7th edition, 1982, jargon is a "mode of speech familiar only to a group or profession", p.⁵³⁷.

without the main body of the text, one can get the gist of the text. The use of compound nouns enriches this text with their density of meaning as well as with their precision of technical terms.

3.4. Compound Nouns with Appraisive Functions

From the issue of FAZ dated April 28th, 1988, an article on architecture shows a journalist's skill in linking his/her text using common free morphemes in a creative manner.⁵⁰ In "Eine Residenz für das Geld" (roughly: a residence for money), journalist Mathias Schreiber describes the reconstructed Landeszentralbank in Frankfurt together with a discussion on buildings for financial institutions in general. He uses the terms "Geldfunktion", "Geld-Architektur", "Geldschloß", "Geld-Klassizismus", "Geldtempel", "Geldinstitute", "Prunksucht", "Machtsymbolik", "Architekturvokabular", "Renaissance-Fassade", "Tempelportal", "Schloß- und Palazzo-Assoziationen", "Bankgebäude", ("Bundesbank", "Commerzbank", "Landeszentralbank", "Reichsbank"), and "Reichsbankgebäude". The "Geld" (= money) metaphors along with the list of different banks paint a picture of large, imposing structures which are almost places of worship. This impression comes across quite strongly in words like "Geldfunktion" (= function of money, as a power-giving object), "Geldschloß" (= money

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⁵⁰ This text does not figure with the main body of texts since it is from 1988. However, the clever use of "Geld" is the reason for keeping it in the thesis.

castle), "Geld-Klassizismus" (= money classicism), "Geldtempel" (= money temple) and "Geldinstitute" (= money institutes). Other attributes mentioned above, such as "Tempelportal" (= a temple's portal) and "Schloß- und Palazzo-Assoziationen" (= castle and palace associations), complete the idea of an awe-inspiring and grandiose structure which houses money. In a few well-chosen nouns, an author can express himself/herself concisely and creatively using a mixture of conventional and new compounds.

3.5. Catch-words

Certain newly-coined words are used to catch the readers' attention: the reporter will use nouns with a foreign ring to them in order to keep the reader interested, for example, "Europa-Trophäe" (from "trophée" in French) and "Pilasterordnung" (from "pilastro" in Italian; FAZ: 99/88/ 27). At the same time, foreign words can entice readers by their familiarity: English words have been in German sports language for a long time. In a previous study of SPIEGEL articles, we also found that the ones on sports have many, if not the most words borrowed from English. From 1965 on, the following words have repeatedly surfaced: "Weltcup", "Europacup", "Charterflugzeug", "Real-Star", "Bundestrainer", and "Live-Sendung". These are but a few examples. Two of the most often-used nouns in our texts are the English "Trainer", as above, and "Manager". While the first is almost exclusive to sports-

related articles, the second can be found in our sports, politics and current affairs articles. In the search for articles, one as far back as 1959 (SPIEGEL: 8/59/28) is a report about a manager from an employment bureau; the word "manager" used five times, one of which as a compound, "Industriemanager". The construction of these two English words is analogous to the nomen agentis⁵¹ structure in German, making it easy for Germans to comprehend and assimilate the English words presented in this manner, since the construction is familiar and morphologically motivated. The foreign "taste" of the English, French and Italian words adds to the flavour and impact of the article.

3.6. Compound Nouns and Sentence Structure

Journalistic writing encompasses all types of styles, from the everyday to the scientific to the literary⁵². The sentence structure varies greatly among these three styles; everyday language uses ellipses and short, uncomplicated sentences, scientific language also employs simple, as opposed to periodic, sentence structure, with the tendency towards technical language, and literary texts use both simple and

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⁵¹ Nomen agentis: the morpheme -er is added to the verb stem to create a noun derivative, the new word is the person who performs the action denoted by the verb. In English we have for example, to train -trainer, to work - worker, to teach - teacher; in German's parallel construction we find trainieren - Trainer, arbeiten - Arbeiter and lehren - Lehrer.

⁵² See 2.1. above.

complicated, paratactical sentences (Löffler, 1985; Sowinski, 1978; Carstensen, 1971). There are different manifestations of simple sentence structure, for example as an ellipse, simply as a short sentence or as an uncomplicated verbal syntagma with largely complemented nouns, whereas parataxis does not tend to vary in its manifestation.

An article on tennis player Martina Navratilova (FAZ: 242/86/23) begins with a series of ellipses:

Feiertage, nichts als Feiertage. Am Mittwoch Blumen, Schmuck und eine große Sahnetorte zum tausendsten Einzelserfolg in einem offiziellen Turnier. An diesem Samstag Blumen und viele andere Präsente zum 30. Geburtstag. Am morgigen Sonn- und Feiertag, wenn das Sprichwort stimmt und damit aller guten Dinge drei sind, ein Porsche 911 Cabrio zu ihrem dann dritten Grand-Prix-Turniersieg in Filderstadt.

In this text, the lack of verbs does not hinder comprehension: the nouns here carry so much meaning, that the presence of verbs is not really necessary, although the word order and cases obviate the predicate here. This also is a good example of the enumeration of facts in a newspaper report (Sowinski, 1978; Howe, 1972).

Short sentences, the next step up from the ellipse, tend also to enumerate facts. This is evident in two articles, one dealing with nuclear arms testing and the other with soccer. Despite the difference between the two topics, the same method of writing is used to convey information. The first two paragraphs on nuclear arms testing (SPIEGEL: 22/ 65/25)

follow almost a formula: the word order patterns in sentences one and two are subject-verb-object, three and four, adverb (phrase)-verb-subject-object, and five, verb-subject-object/complement, which stress certain positions of compounds (such as the obligatory verb complements: "Testreihe", "Sandboden", "Sprengsatz" and "Staubwolken"):

Die Testreihe dauerte mehrere Jahre. Die Arbeit der Wissenschaftler von der amerikanischen Atomenergie-Kommission war tiefschürfend--in wörtlichem Sinne.

Bohrloch auf Bohrloch trieben die Gelehrten in den alluvialen Sandboden der Wüste von Nevada. An die jeweils tiefste Stelle der verschalten Röhren legten sie einen atomaren Sprengsatz. Waren die Staubwolken der Detonation verflogen, maßen sie gewissenhaft Breite und Tiefe der entstandenen Krater in Fuß und Zoll.

This example demonstrates also the characteristics of a non-complex writing style: the compound nouns represent the terms used for nuclear armament, the sentences are simply constructed, with one clause per sentence (excepting the last sentence here) and in a logical order giving objective observations of an experiment. Our following example (SPIEGEL: 22/65/130) is similar, in that there is little variance of word order (i.e. S-V-O order) and the events are given in chronological order:

Die Invasoren näherten sich in 41 Charterflugzeugen, drei Sonderzügen und 125 Bussen. Am vergangenen Mittwoch erreichten sie--12 000 Mann stark--London und sammelten sich im Wembley-Stadion:

Sepplhut-Bayern und Trompeten blasende Fußball-Fans, sogar Münchens Oberbürgermeister Dr. Vogel

und eine siebenköpfige Stadtrat-Deputation waren herbeigeeilt, um die Elf von München 1860 zu unterstützen. Der deutsche Pokalsieger hatte als zweite deutsche Mannschaft ein Europacup-Finale erreicht (...).

Again only the facts are given, in an almost statistical form (e.g. 41 charter flights, 3 special trains and 125 buses) which lends to the impression of objectivity, a key element in newspaper reporting. The compound nouns are a mixture of conventional (e.g. "Oberbürgermeister", "Stadtrat) and fashionable ones (e.g. "Fußball-Fans", "Europacup-Finale") which give precise yet brief information.

Compound nouns play a part in sentences with simple verbal syntagmas. Many attributes, such as adjectives, adjectival phrases and other noun-complements, add semantic weight to the compounds. Verbs, in this case, become a secondary feature, in that their structure is not as complex, with less distinctive meaning, for example "machen", "sein" and "kommen". Löffler calls this type of word an "Aller-weltswort"⁵³: they can be used in almost any situation with many different semantic values. An example of this type of style is taken from an architectural report (FAZ: 210/85/25):

Der großzügige "Anbau" ist ein lichtdurchfluteter, fast streng konzipierter, klassizistisch anmutender, von Säulen getragener Rundbau aus Stahl, Glas, hellem türkischen Marmor und blauem Granit, ein Kuppelbau, der an die Tradition der Baden-

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⁵³ H. Löffler, 1985, p.109.

Badener Kur- und Bäderbauten (...) anknüpft und die alte Form mit zeitgemäßen architektonischen und konstruktiven Mitteln neu interpretiert (...).

Here we see only two clauses, a main clause with one, simple verb, "ist", and one two-part relative clause with relatively simple verbs, "anknüpft" and "interpretiert". The first compound noun, "Rundbau" is largely modified firstly by a row of participles acting as adjectives, secondly by a prepositional phrase with four noun objects and thirdly by a noun in apposition, "Kuppelbau", also a compound, which in turn is complemented by the two-part relative clause. All four compounds complement each other: each has the morpheme "Bau" as a component, firstly as base element, "Rundbau" and "Kuppelbau", then as kernel morpheme, "Kurbauten" und "Bäderbauten". The text's cohesion is found in the nominal elements (both the compound nouns and their modifiers) rather than in the verbal structure.

The cohesion of a periodic sentence structure is characteristically the result of its main clause-subordinate clause syntax, instead of the combination of several well-chosen compounds. This is more typical of literary or rhetorical writing style than one used for more general purposes, like a news article. For example, Thomas Mann employs hypotactic syntactical structures with subordinate clauses and dependent infinitive clauses, such as those marked in the following

example from Der Tod in Venedig⁵⁴:

Er hatte, zum mindesten seit ihm die Mittel zu Gebote gewesen waren, die Vorteile des Weltverkehrs beliebig zu genießen, das Reisen nicht anders denn als eine hygienische Maßregel betrachtet, die gegen Sinn und Neigung dann und wann hatte getroffen werden müssen. Zu beschäftigt mit den Aufgaben, welche sein Ich und die europäische Seele ihm stellten, zu belastet von der Verpflichtung zur Produktion, der Zerstreuung zu abgeneigt, um zum Liebhaber der bunten Außenwelt zu taugen, hatte er sich durchaus mit der Anschauung begnügt, die jedermann, ohne sich weit aus seinem Kreise zu rühren, von der Oberfläche der Erde gewinnen kann, und war niemals auch nur versucht gewesen, Europa zu verlassen.

In the following article on gymnastics (FAZ: 209/85/24), which is written in a similar style as the above example of a literary text, both compound nouns and complex syntactic structure contribute to the text's coherence:

Der Schwarzwald hielt in der Herbstsonne gelassene Distanz. Drinnen in der Sporthalle beim Qualifikationskampf für die Weltmeisterschaft in Valladolid/ Spanien herrschte die etwas angestrenzte Munterkeit, die der Gymnastik-Szene bei entscheidungstrachtigen Wettkämpfen eigentümlich ist. Ohne die achtundzwanzigfache deutsche Meisterin Regina Wever, der eine Achillessehnenentzündung Trainingspause auferlegt, ohne die Pfälzerin Claudia Herold, die bei den deutschen Meisterschaften im Juni erhebliche Fortschritte nachgewiesen hatte, aber in der Gruppengymnastik startet, ohne die europameisterschaftserprobte Monika Meschede, die überraschend zurückgetreten ist, und mit einer gerade genesenen Claudia Scharmann (Kniooperation) lagen diesmal alle Chancen bei den B-Kader-Gymnastinnen.

In these sixteen lines (twenty-two in the original article

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T. Mann, Frankfurt a.M., 1954, p.9.

format), only seven, relatively uncomplex verbal syntagmas appear: "hielt", "herrschte", "ist", "auferlegt", "hatte nachgewiesen", "startet", "ist zurückgetreten" and "lagen". The journalist has also extended the prepositional phrases with "ohne" to create anaphoric repetition, and has expanded each prepositional phrase with a relative clause, to end with the antithetical juxtaposition of a prepositional phrase with "mit". These techniques of rhetoric coupled with the compound nouns enable the journalist to communicate much information in a short space.

Read without the syntactic structure, the compound nouns as catch-words provide enough information for a reader to get the gist of the whole paragraph (in this example): "Herbstsonne" indicates when the event took place, "Sporthalle" tells generally where, "Qualifikationskampf" and "Weltmeisterschaft" give the reason why, "Gymnastik-Szene" says what the event is. The what, where, how, when and why of an event are the most important items to be present in the first paragraph of a story (Howe, 1972). These items of information are all given with a few, well-chosen, motivated compound nouns. For example, "Herbstsonne" (= autumn sun) is motivated, meaning word for word what it says, "die Sonne im Herbst" (= the sun in autumn); this compound describes to the reader not only the quality of the sun (i.e. the sun being cooler than in the summer) but also the time at which the reported event took place (i.e. in autumn). The compound's structure was motivat-

ed by a need to express the time of year in the Black Forest; the journalist achieved this in a creative manner by describing the place in terms of sunlight: "Der Schwarzwald hielt in der Herbstsonne gelassene Distanz." "Gruppengymnastik" is also transparent, meaning gymnastics done in a group. Motivated compounds are shown here to be creative communicative devices which serve the purpose of reporting the news.

3.7. Nominalization and Compound Nouns

This next and last example corresponds to the discussion in 2.3. above, in which "nominalization"--a verbal syntagma transformed into a substantival expression--is designated as a characteristic of the linguistic usage of the press. A substantival expression does not necessarily have to be a compound noun, however a compound noun with a deverbal derivative as one of its constituents will naturally convey more information than a simple noun. The following excerpt is from an article on the authorities concerned with unemployment insurance (SPIEGEL: 8/59/28), whose title is "Arbeitsvermittlung"--an example of nominalization:

Initiator der Beschlagnahme-Aktion war--durch Anzeige beim Düsseldorfer Amtsgericht--die Bundesanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung in Nürnberg, die ihre traditionelle Monopolstellung auf dem westdeutschen Arbeitsmarkt durch private Industrieberater gefährdet sieht. Am Fall Hanten sollen in einem Musterprozeß die Bestimmungen des sogenannten Gesetzes über Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung vom 3. April 1957 demonstriert werden, in denen es heißt, daß die "Arbeitsvermittlung, Berufsberatung und

Lehrstellenvermittlung ... nur von der Bundesanstalt und ihren örtlichen Dienststellen, den Arbeitsämtern, durchgeführt werden dürfen.

This is also an excellent example of a journalist employing language specific to the topic, which is here "bureaucratese" (= Amtssprache⁵⁵). This jargon does include the use of the passive voice and nominalization (Löffler, 1985). There are two examples of passive voice here: "sollen...demonstriert werden" and "durchgeführt werden dürfen". This structure's awkwardness, as discussed above (Part II, 2.3.), is demonstrated here, in this case coupled with a modal verb (i.e. "sollen" and "dürfen"). The nominalizations are manifested in the frequent compound nouns with a deverbal derivative ending with "-ung": "Arbeitsvermittlung" (= jd. vermittelt eine Arbeit), "Arbeitslosenversicherung" (= jd. versichert Arbeitslose), "Monopolstellung" (= jd. steht allein), "Berufsberatung" (= jd. berät jn. über einen Beruf) and "Lehrstellenvermittlung" (= jd. vermittelt eine Lehrstelle). Here is evidence that a compound noun is much briefer than its corresponding syntactic deep structure. This excerpt and all of the excerpts above, demonstrate the various manifestations of the nominal style characteristic in today's journalistic writing as well as the frequency of compound nouns in recent journalistic texts.

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⁵⁵ H. Löffler, 1985, p. 121 f.

4. Closing Observations

The above examples show the usefulness of compound nouns to a journalist. Because they convey so much information so quickly and precisely, they serve the need for rapidity in this age of high-speed communication. Because compound nouns carry the same amount of meaning as a "complete utterance" (Marchand, 1974)⁵⁶, they are able to take the place of verb-oriented sentences. While a periodic sentence shows the ability of a novelist to manipulate the language through its complex syntactic structure (it carries many compliments and attributes radiating from the semantically and grammatically central verb, as in the above example from Thomas Mann in 3.6.), the compound noun enables a journalist to convey just as much information and to be just as creative. Johannes Erben attributes this preference for noun-oriented sentences to "Bedürfnissen nach knapper Information"⁵⁷.

We have now demonstrated that compound nouns make up a large portion of German journalistic language and style. Reading German periodicals, however, is not restricted specifically to German native speakers. Students of German, also (potential) readers, must unravel both transparent and demotivated compounds found in nominal style. In order to facilitate this task, students should be taught to recognize

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⁵⁶ See Part I, 2.1. above.

⁵⁷ J. Erben, roughly in English "a demand for concise information", Abriß der deutschen Grammatik, Berlin, 1967, p. 102 ff.

and analyze compound nouns, as shown in our next section.

Part III

Compound Nouns in Teaching Reading in German as a Second Language

1. Introduction

We are concentrating on compound nouns as a topic for language instruction because they occur frequently in NHG. As demonstrated in Part II, compounds make up an essential part of present-day vocabulary in written texts. Because of this, they are essential for vocabulary learning. The patterns of motivated compounds, especially determinative compounds, make them accessible to the adult student at the intermediate level.

Acquiring the ability to locate one type of word in a text gives students encouragement to carry on looking for other types of words, since they were successful with at least one type. Since adults learn with structures, compound nouns are easy for them to learn because one can analyze their surface structure to reveal their deep syntactic structure and their meaning. Learning to analyze also gives the students the ability to create compound nouns when writing. An English speaker can do this in English, as though it were second nature, or at least with the inherent knowledge of grammatical structure he/she possesses as a native speaker. Anglophones need to be aware of compounds in their own language and can transfer this knowledge to learning German, because the

morphological structure of compound nouns in the two languages is similar, and in some cases identical (Gass, 1988; van Helmond and van Vugt, 1984; Kellerman, 1983). Locating and understanding words without the help of a dictionary encourage and incite the student to continue. He/she can have confidence when reading and doing homework and even on tests and exams, because they have cultivated their "Sprachgefühl"⁵⁸ and their analytical abilities in two languages, once having learned the corresponding morphological rules. The "Sprachgefühl" transfer is useful.

By teaching our students to use their inherent and previously learned linguistic knowledge and build on it, the students can have a sense of accomplishment with some effort and common sense. Since the process of learning this one thing proved useful and effective, they will be encouraged and have the confidence to learn more about new things. They will be more efficient learners since they have seen that they can use what they know to learn more. Our aims are to show that compound noun structure can be taught to adult students of German at the intermediate level, using linguistic theory as a basis for teaching methods, and that "authentic" texts, such as articles from journalistic texts, provide adequate teaching materials for learning compounds.

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⁵⁸ "Sprachgefühl" = (roughly) feeling for a language which enables a speaker/reader to predict what expression/ word will be employed (next) by his/her partner in dialogue or by the author (in either audio or visual (i.e. written) media).

2. Teaching Second Language Reading

2.1. On a Practical-Theoretical Approach

An ideal approach to teaching is pragmatism, a mixture of practicality and theory. This approach takes the student's abilities into consideration, which include their native language and the level they have reached in language acquisition. To be able to understand a compound, students must first understand its structure, its constituents as individual words, then must form the compound again to understand the word as a whole. The ability to recognize and form a structure within a simple compound noun will enable a student to analyze more complex compound nouns and to acquire new vocabulary.

This is why our teaching must be pragmatic when we are dealing with foreign languages. Going from the premise that you cannot use what you don't have, we must devise a method to make the student use his/her previous knowledge and insight, to recognize, analyze and create. They need to feel confident in their acquired knowledge so they will have the impetus to learn more. Practically speaking, German nouns are one of the easiest parts of speech to recognize: they all are capitalized. (The student must, of course, remember this.) Once having this piece of information at his/her fingertips, the student will quickly be able to identify all nouns in German, whether of one syllable or eighteen. With this, they can start building the foundations of grammar and of voca-

bulary knowledge.

2.2. Components for the Teaching of Word Formation

The instructor also plays a part in building foundations: by being informed of what a student or all students already know, he or she can build on this common foundation. In an intermediate-level German class at a university, a student should know the basics of German grammar; that is to say, they can construct simple sentences, complex sentences involving two or more clauses, with fairly simple, everyday vocabulary, in most tenses. One of their greatest gaps is vocabulary (Nuttall, 1982). They can neither comprehend nor construct complex words, it seems, by the end of two semesters of German. The second-year instructor must take this into consideration when teaching, so as to not put the students off learning German, and to encourage them to strive for more knowledge. This is most efficiently done when the students are taught comprehension and construction techniques rather than simply given a list of words to learn (François, 1985; Nuttall, 1982). After first year, there are simply too many new words to memorize (François, 1985). It is most worthwhile to teach methods or strategies for recognizing and analyzing words and to include cognitive processes in the memorization of a new lexicon.

This is why we have chosen compound nouns with two nominal elements as our methodological testing-ground. With

the shift towards a noun-dominated writing style in functional texts like journalistic articles, this seems a practical choice. Since compound nouns are used in such a wide range of subjects, all learners will be able to apply the methods in their field of interest.

Pragmatically speaking, the structure of German compounds is similar or to some degree the same as in English compounds. There are at least two elements and they have a syntactic as well as a semantic relationship with each other. Marchand states that compounds with two elements are similar in German and English, but compounds with three or more elements are less likely to be found in English than in German (e.g. "Atomkraftwerk" and "Steinkohlenbergwerk"; Marchand, 1974, d)). For example, "birthday" and "Geburtstag", and "daylight" and "Tageslicht", are all transparent and motivated and are almost identical in structure: the first element, "birth" or "Geburt", describes the second, "day" or "Tag", and similarly "day" or "Tag" describe "light" or "Licht". Their deep syntactic relationship is genitive (possessive): day of birth, or in German, Tag der Geburt (the "s" is a linking letter or formal morpheme, here) and light of day, Licht des Tages. Following this pattern, the English speaker will be able to acquire a large number of new words. The words which are opaque and demotivated are the ones which must be memorized. By the end of the intermediate level, the list for memorization would become considerably smaller.

The goal of teaching word formation is to enable a student to read and write more efficiently, and even more "creatively"⁵⁹. At the intermediate level, students have acquired the basics of German grammar. A greater obstacle to overcome for these students is new vocabulary encountered in and out of context. This obstacle can be set aside to a certain extent by learning basic techniques for the analysis of compounds. Telling the students that these techniques will optimize their vocabulary studying time also predisposes the students towards learning the techniques, since they will eventually be able to spend more time in areas of the language which they feel need more practice.

Students are accustomed to reading a passage in a textbook, which is meant to familiarize the student with the practical use of that chapter's grammar and vocabulary sections. These texts tend to be rather difficult to understand on the students' part and are therefore glossed. But this does not always enable the students to properly comprehend the piece. If this is the case with "textbook German", how can the students understand "real, everyday German" found in newspapers and magazines? How can they understand even the sports pages? They need something more, since students do not always find the correct meaning of a

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⁵⁹ By "creatively" we mean that students would actually use the theoretical patterns of compound noun structure to coin their own words, as does the journalist who is also bound by these patterns.

word read in context in their dictionary, especially since new words are formed all the time which are not in the dictionary (Nuttall, 1982). It would be expedient to teach them to determine when it is necessary to look up a word in the dictionary and when it is not, that is, reading in context.

The students first must learn to recognize a compound noun. Eliminating all other nouns such as simple nouns (e.g. "Buch", "Haus"), derived nouns (e.g. "Haltung", "Gebildete", "Möglichkeit"), and other compounds of which only one element is a noun (e.g. "Eßzimmer", "Leichtathlet") comes with learning to analyze. A compound's part of speech is determined by its last component. Given that, after a year of German, they should be able to identify the different parts of speech, they will, during analysis, be able to recognize an adjective, a suffix, a verb-stem or a preposition from a noun as they appear in a compound; for example, they will be able to distinguish the difference between "Nachteil" and "Hauptteil", the first being a particle + noun compound, the second containing two nouns. This differentiation is important to their understanding the word, since a verb, for example, does not always appear in its infinitive form in a compound as it would in the dictionary, for example in "Eßzimmer", the first component stems from the verb "essen" (not *"eßen"). In other words, they must recognize other parts of speech than nouns and therefore they learn much more

than just nouns and compound nouns when learning to analyze.

3. Transfer versus Interference

Language transfer is, in general, "the use of prior linguistic information in a second language context"⁶⁰. In other words, any transfer, whether it gives a positive or negative result, involves any linguistic knowledge, be it of the mother tongue, of a third language or even already acquired knowledge of the target language (Gass, 1988). Interference, then, could be called "negative transfer". Positive transfer is then very useful, but students cannot be assumed to transfer any prior linguistic knowledge automatically (Grabe, 1988). The actual study of language transfer is relatively young and encompasses more details which are beyond the scope of this thesis. The idea of transfer is relevant to our discussion as it helps to identify the use of an anglophone's "Sprachgefühl" in predicting the structure of compound nouns in German.

Since English and German compound noun structure is similar, it is logical that anglophones can transfer their knowledge of English compound structure to that of German compounds. The discussion of language transfer also raises the question of interference. While the former is a positive transposition of language knowledge, the latter is negative, since it deals with errors. These errors are caused by the

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⁶⁰ S. Gass, 1988, p. 385.

mother-tongue influencing the learner's interpretation of the target language (Gass, 1988). Two scholars, K. van Helmond and M. van Vugt (1984), studied the transferability of compound nouns in Dutch, German and English. They discovered that, although it is difficult to predict what could be transferred, the more transparent and motivated the compound, the more easily transferable it is and the more likely it is to be transferred⁶¹, such as "Europa-Cup-Finale".

4. Efficient Reading

Very briefly, efficient reading involves two skills: identification of structures and morphemes and inference of meaning from the context (Eskey and Grabe, 1988). We have already dealt with the former in recognizing lexical and grammatical structures. Inferencing is, on the other hand, a form of transfer, where the reader uses the information in the surrounding text to understand a word or a phrase, and where the reader applies his/her own prior knowledge of the subject to the comprehension of the text (Eskey and Grabe, 1988). When these two skills are used in tandem, the reader will have less recourse to the dictionary, thus not breaking off from the main theme(s) of the text, and accumulating enough information from context to deduce the meaning of unknown words. Linguists call this "interactive" reading (Grabe, 1988; Eskey and Grabe, 1988). This type of reading

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⁶¹ K. van Helmond, M. van Vugt, p. 12-13.

is efficient because it uses all of the information signals in the text for comprehension and it involves using prior knowledge to deduce and infer meaning: reading efficiently reduces the need to use the dictionary, a process which dissects a text into seemingly unrelated individual units, and favours the use of global understanding principles of the adult learner's more experienced eye. In respect to compound nouns, it is conceivable that just by understanding the nominal compounds in a given text, the reader will be able to comprehend the semantic gist of some texts, since a large percentage of many (journalistic) texts, as seen in Part II, is made up of compound nouns.

5. The Investigation of a Method for Teaching Word-Formation and Compound Nouns

5.1. Aim of Investigation

As said before, English and German nominal compounds are similar in structure on a very basic level. This being the case, teaching English students of German should be relatively uncomplicated, if the teaching method encompasses this aspect as well as the theoretical background of word-formation necessary for this type of investigation. The following method was developed a) to teach intermediate-level German students how to become relatively efficient readers of German, and b) to use current linguistic word-formation theory in a practical situation, i.e. the second language classroom. The

purpose of this experiment is to give students information they can use practically and creatively.

5.2. Hypothesis

Native speakers of English will be able to read more efficiently in German after learning how to analyze compound nouns. Efficient reading (in recapitulation of 4.) includes employing already acquired language skills to decode a text in German, reading for global meaning and limited use of the dictionary. Compound nouns represent a relatively motivated structure whose semantic value can be understood through analysis and language transfer. With the combination of efficient reading and the ability to analyze, a student of German might be able to grasp the overall meaning of a text without using a dictionary.

5.3. Method of Investigation

To test the hypothesis with adult students in a second-year course at the university level⁶², a single lecture-style lesson on basic word-formation principles was designed, together with in-class and homework exercises, using a chosen text, and a short in-class test.

The lecture was based on the three main theories presented in Part I of this paper. After a brief introduction of the

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⁶² Students participating were from Carleton University, course 22.205 "Intermediate German A", evening section, March 1989.

topic "word-formation", the differences between word-formation and word-creation, and between compounds and derivatives were shown through description and examples. A closer examination of different types of compounds (i.e. with free morphemes from different word-classes) was then undertaken, emphasizing our main concern was compounds with two nominal elements. We accomplished this with the help of hand-outs (designed prior to the lecture) with excerpts from H. Lederer's grammar book⁶³, which deal with German word-formation, in straightforward English. We then proceeded to explain and demonstrate the syntactic deep-structure of compound nouns, concentrating on prepositional and genitive relationships with mention of relative clauses, and Marchand's (1974) idea of a compound being a reduced sentence. We also pointed out that a deep structure might have two surface structures and vice-versa; the examples "Zuckerdose" versus "eine Dose mit Zucker" and "Hochhaus" versus "hohes Haus" were used (In hindsight, "Milchglas" would have made another good contrast to these examples.)

Examples given for the demonstration of analysis were simple and motivated: "Haustür", "Bettuch", "Tischtuch", "Handtuch" and "Haustürschlüssel" (see Part I, 1.2., above for the explanation of structure). These compounds were analyzed by using the words "modifying word" and "stem word"

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⁶³ H. Lederer, Reference Grammar of the German Language, New York: Scribner's, 1969, pp. 32-36.

(Lederer, 1969) as determining and base elements respectively. We employed the former terms because they were in English, in contrast with Erben's and Naumann's German terms, and because they were on the hand-outs. Marchand's (1974) terminology was also presented, but was not used since the Latin-based terms could not be grasped as quickly and easily as the English ones, as well as them possibly alienating the students from the topic at hand. In addition, students learned that a free morpheme, which we called "Kernmorphem" (= kernel morpheme) in accordance with the hand-outs, could act either as stem word or modifying word.

The next step was a graphic analysis using "trees", as presented by both Erben⁶⁴ and Naumann⁶⁵. For example, "Haustür" was thus represented:

To show the presence of a linking letter, Erben's trees were emulated:

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⁶⁴ J. Erben, 1975, p. 30-31.

⁶⁵ B. Naumann, 1986, p. 18-19.

In this particular example, the students could also observe the possibility of a derivative as being one element in a compound noun, as well as the fact that the linking letter is not always a genitive case marker for the first element (here: "Au₁klärung" is a feminine noun which does not have a genitive ending). With several analyses demonstrated, the students were invited to attempt analyzing given words (e.g. "Haus-schuh", "Straßenbahn" and "Hilfsmittel"), and also reconstructing words given in sentences (e.g. "Das Schiff fährt mit Dampf." = "Dampfschiff"; "Der Hut ist aus Filz." = "Filzhut").

The students were then asked to find all the compounds with two nominal elements in one column from a given text-excerpt (see Appendix B), to analyze them using the tree-method and to deduce their meaning from the analysis. (These exercises were assigned as homework to be completed and returned for correction within two days.)

The test, which took place two days after the lecture, was designed to test the students' ability to analyze and build compound nouns after a minimum of instruction (see Appendix D). Included in the test were similar exercises as in the lecture, although mostly reconstruction exercises were given, where students were to build compounds from a list of free morphemes, reconstruct compounds from a sentence (including a verb to be changed to a derivative) and to give the meaning of compounds by using them in a sentence. The

students were required to remember the terminology presented by building words from single morphemes designated firstly as stem words then as modifying words. This completes the method.

5.4. Observations, Results and Discussion

With regard to the lecture, most students reacted favourably towards the idea of learning a practical method for learning vocabulary. They were not as interested in the theoretical background as they were in the practical applications, although their attention did not seem to waver. This was evident by their enthusiastic response to the invitation to do tree-analyses at the blackboard in front of their classmates. Most were able to reduce the compounds given to a genitive relationship or to a relative clause, but the prepositional relationships were made with less facility. All understood the difference between "modifying" and "stem" words, as well as the linking letter. During rebuilding, however, the linking letter was difficult for them to insert in the correct places. The lecture was generally well received, although many did not enjoy the prospect of more homework exercises.

This leads us to the results of the homework. Of some eighteen students only six completed and submitted their homework assignments; of these six only three followed the instructions correctly. Despite the fact that the results

cannot reflect the norm, being so few, they can give some indication of a trend that the norm would follow. As indicated by the table in Appendix C, most students were able to recognize the presence of adjectives or particles (prepositional prefixes) as part of a compound, giving solely compound nouns with two nominal elements. However, none of the six were able to locate all of the compounds in a single column. This type of identification needs practice (although most studious members of this course would have been experienced in locating compounds by having done the corresponding exercises in their text, Kaleidoskop⁶⁶). The results of the analysis portion were quite varied; most were able to distinguish the two elements in the compound, but linking letters and flexional endings were not always indicated. The students needed repeated instruction and more, comprehensive in-class demonstration which would include a greater number of difficult cases. As seen in Appendix B, the compounds in the text are of a varying degree of transparency, for example from "Kaffeemühle" to "Reihenbildung". Only four out of the six attempted to give a meaning to their analyzed nouns; their results were rather good, although most equivalents suggested were based on the assumption of absolute transparency of the compounds. This, we believe, is a throwback of the students not entirely grasping the possibilities of underlying syntac-

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⁶⁶ J. Moeller, H. Liedloff, H. Lepke, 1987, pp. 57, 115, 159, 177 & 197.

tic structures. Despite the negative aspects of the results, we can see that it is possible to teach intermediate-level students of German to analyze compound nouns with the goal to their understanding them.

Results from the test also show that the students needed more instruction. Those students who completed the homework naturally fared better than those who did not. The first question requiring the meaningful coupling of free morphemes was well done, even though the discussion in the lecture did not emphasize this feature of compound nouns. The words given provoked transparent, familiar compounds, such as "Weinglas", "Kochbuch", "Briefpapier" and "Bücherregal"; not all students were able to remember to pluralize "Buch" in the last example, most likely as a result of interference from the English "bookshelf" (i.e. not *bocksshelf). The second question requested the students to construct compounds from two free morphemes used in sentence (with the exception of the fourth question). Those with transparent compounds, not requiring any additions to or subtractions from the free morphemes were correctly answered; most were not able to form "Menschenfresser" from "Menschen" and "frißt", nor "Kunstmuseum" from "Kunstwerke" and "Museum". When the students were asked to write sentences to demonstrate the meaning of a compound noun, they did not succeed, despite the fact that these words were chosen from the students' text. Those that did attempt this exercise usually gave a meaning which implied a transparent

compound, as seen earlier in the homework results. The last question was difficult for some since they did not remember the difference between "stem" and "modifying" words. For those who did, most of the compounds suggested were transparent, motivated and familiar, such as "Wörterbuch", "Tischtuch", "Geburtstag" and "Handtuch". These results prove that intermediate-level students of German can learn and use basic word-formation techniques, given the proper amount of instruction, practice and encouragement.

5.5. Conclusion to Experimental Lesson

Our hypothesis, that anglophones will be able to read more efficiently in German after learning how to analyze compound nouns, was tested in a very limited range, that is with respect to the ability to analyze transparent compounds. The fact that most students were anglophone facilitated the task of addressing compound nouns as a structural unit, since this same structure exists in their native language. The third question in our test proves that it is difficult for students at the intermediate level to understand relatively unfamiliar compounds out of context. The homework results support this observation; read in context, most students are able to deduce approximately the correct meaning of a compound, always assuming that the students in question used context to infer meaning to the compounds. Nevertheless, the compounds in the homework text were interrelated within a

column (see Appendix B), and as such able to give mutual clues to their meaning even out of context. Taking into account the brevity of instruction and the limited practice on the part of the students, we can only suggest that this method of teaching will improve the reading skills of anglophones studying German, and that in time, with much practice, they will become more efficient readers. This investigation has proven, that anglophones are able to identify and analyze compound nouns at an early stage of language acquisition.

6. Proposal for Further Instruction

In the above homework, students found compounds ranging from a large to a small degree of transparency, for example "Hauptteil", "Gebrauchsanleitung", "Schnittmodell", "Wechselstrom", "Voltzahl", "Sachbuch", "Gesichtspunkt" and "Reihenbauweise" (in descending order of transparency) (see Appendix B). The less transparent the word, the likelier it was that the student was not able to correctly guess the meaning, as demonstrated in Appendix C (columns E and F). This is supported by the results of the test, which shows the students' ability to analyze motivated compounds and to deduce their meaning from the analysis, and their apparent inability to go beyond the immediately transparent compounds (e.g. the difficulty in constructing "Menschenfresser" and in deducing "Geschäftsmann"). In order to further the students' capabilities, we suggest a second exercise.

This proposed lesson is a follow-up to the previous lesson, homework exercises and test. Firstly, the students and instructor will review the homework results together. From this, students should observe (if not, the instructor should point out) that only a few of the compounds in their text could be easily deduced through basic analysis and without using a dictionary, as in, for example, "Gesichtspunkt" (= face + point = point of view) and "Reihenbauweise" (= rows + construction + manner = ribbon-building) versus "Hauptteil" (= head + part = main part) and "Einlaßventil" (= admission/inlet + valve/vent = inlet valve). Asking the students why this is, in order to elicit the response that not all compounds have transparent meanings or motivated structures, introduces the discussion of how to distinguish opaque compounds, such as "Gesichtspunkt", from transparent ones, such as "Hauptteil". The instructor will then explain the ideas of motivation and transparency (as described in Part I), using the above pairs as examples for non-motivated or opaque and motivated or transparent, respectively; this will be followed by explaining the notion of deep syntactic structure, which is intended to enable the students to distinguish between words which need to be looked up in the dictionary from those which do not.

Bearing motivation, transparency and deep structure in mind, the students will then perform another analysis exer-

cise. This involves using an "authentic"⁶⁷ text taken from a current periodical for an in-class exercise, to be eventually read through by the students. We have selected one from SPIEGEL (36/1984/23) whose topic is relatively familiar to most: a state visit by a prominent political figure. Although this article contains fifty-eight compounds in all, we will concentrate only on the first five paragraphs, including the title of the article: " 'Das wird sein letzter Staatsbesuch sein.' Vorbereitungen westdeutscher Honecker-Gegner auf die Reise des DDR-Staatsratsvorsitzenden.'":

Steine flogen, rechte und linke Demonstranten droschen mit Holzplatten oder auch nur bloßen Fäusten aufeinander ein. "Volksverräter" und "Mauermörder" skandierten die Protestler, die DDR-Flagge wurde trotz der allgegenwärtigen Polizei niedergeholt und zerrissen. So sah am 21. Mai 1970 in Kassel der erste Besuch eines DDR-Regierungschefs auf westdeutschem Boden aus.

...Denn für den geplanten Besuch des DDR-Staatsratsvorsitzenden Ende September rüsten bereits die Rechten allenthalben in der Bundesrepublik.

Am weitesten mit den Vorbereitungen ist die "Internationale Gesellschaft für Menschenrechte" (IGFM) in Frankfurt. "Die Honecker-Visite ist für uns kein Staatsbesuch", heißt es in einem Schreiben an die "Freunde und Helfer des IGFM-Arbeitsausschusses DDR",...

...Der Sprecher des DDR-Ausschusses, Erhard Göhl, im Hauptberuf Postbeamter: "Welche Stadt Honecker auch immer besucht, wir wollen mit Transparenten, Flüsterlügen und Flugblättern anwesend sein."

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We have put the word "authentic" in quotation marks here because of the ongoing discussion of what makes a given text an authentic example of language usage. This thesis will not attempt to define this, but rather will take into consideration the fact that some do agree that newspaper articles are authentic texts.

Der Höhepunkt dieser Aktionen soll im saarländischen Wiebelskirchen liegen, wo Honecker aufgewachsen ist. Schon eine Woche vor dem wahrscheinlichen Besuch des DDR-Politikers soll ein IGFM-Trupp dort Quartier beziehen. Eine Bleibe haben die Demonstranten bereits: Gegenüber von Honeckers Jugendwohnsitz ... hat ein Kaufmann sein Domizil, der Mitglied des Frankfurter Vereins ist.

The students are told to read through the first five paragraphs of the article, identify all the compound nouns (with two nominal elements) there, title included, and divide them into two lists: one for compounds which they understand and one for those they do not. Next, the students must analyze the known compounds to reach their deep structure, in order to verify that they really know them; then they will analyze the unknown compounds as before (i.e. using "trees"), on their own at first, and deduce their meaning, this time taking context into consideration. (We suggest this be done in pairs to decrease the amount of class time taken, as well as to change the focus of the class' attention.) Together with the instructor, then, the actual meanings of the analyzed compounds would be compared with the students' deduced ones. Through this comparison, the students can observe which compounds are transparent and motivated, with the guidance of the instructor.

We suggest the following words as possible unknown compounds (in the order as they appear in the text): "Holzlatten" because of "Latten"; "Mauermörder" because it is a metaphor; "DDR-Staatsratsvorsitzenden" because "Staatsrat" is

not transparent; "IGFM-Arbeitsausschusses" because of "Aus-schuß"; "Flüstertüten" because it is opaque; and "Flugblätter" and "Jugendwohnsitz" because they are ambiguous. These compounds can be used in a further in-class exercise: again in groups, the students will attempt to analyze their deep structure, following the basic structural patterns which were deduced earlier when analyzing the known compounds.

To test their comprehension of transparency, motivation and deep structure, the students could be assigned the same analysis exercises as homework, using the remaining text of the same article, and having them specify when they had to use a dictionary.

The aim of this lesson is to teach the students to use context to determine the meaning of a compound which is unclear, and to indicate to them when to use a dictionary when reading.

7. Closing Observations

In the above discussions, lessons and results, it is evident that compound noun structure can be taught to intermediate level students of German through "hands-on" experience. As proven in Parts I and II, knowledge of compound noun structure is necessary for reading German periodicals, which endorses teaching the basic principles of word-formation to students of German. The two consecutive teaching methods above are proposals, the first of which has been implemented

with some success, enough to warrant further investigation. As seen here, teaching skills for reading in a second language can be successful and helpful to the students when approached in a systematic way, using linguistic principles as a basis for teaching methods.

Conclusion

We have seen that compound nouns constitute an important part of NHG vocabulary. Their structure is significant in that older compounds have survived the test of time, and provide a useful pattern from which new vocabulary can be created. This same aspect of the compound, motivation and transparency, allows both the native and non-native speaker to analyze compounds within a text and to create their own new words.

Theoretically speaking compound nouns influence today's writing style with their semantic density and dominant syntactic presence. Journalists are able to use compound nouns creatively in their writing; although this tends to lead away from objectivity on their part, creative compounds effectively convey interpretations of the news. In the case of periodicals, compound nouns appear in great number supporting the textual cohesion of articles on many different topics. As such, their use by journalists is unrestricted in the sense that the compound offers a useful communicating device in any field for any type of person, thing or idea. This importance leads to a demand for the comprehension of compound noun structure.

Readers of German, both native and non-native speakers, are required by the text to possess adequate reading skills. To read and communicate effectively, compound noun analysis is therefore necessary to learn. Teaching this to students

of German assists them to read efficiently and effectively, without being restricted by a lack of vocabulary; it also widens their perspective on the linguistic-analytic side of language learning, which is often neglected when emphasizing the memorization of grammar rules and vocabulary lists. For this purpose, newspapers and magazines offer useful, authentic and interesting teaching material. They also provide samples of language which is of a standard level and which reflects current trends in the language. This in itself justifies using news articles as teaching and research material.

Compound nouns as they appear in everyday language is an area of study which has been treated with thoroughness in the past. The next logical step is to teach the theory related to compound nouns; this has been explored with respect to native-speakers, but the practical use of this theory in the second language classroom has yet to be further exploited.

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Appendix A: Compound nouns: Their Function and Distribution in Journalistic Articles.

Table 1: Der Spiegel

Politics	Sports	Editorial
60/123/59	--	8/24/59
27/54/65	25/40/65	11/32/65
18/48/75	25/51/75	12/27/75
24/43/78	28/42/78	24/33/78
24/50/83	11/27/83	--
9/26/84	22/45/84	31/58/84
19/48/85	13/35/85	--
34/71/86	26/61/86	13/32/86

Table 2: Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung

Politics	Sports	Architecture
--	11/44/65	11/28/65
10/27/75	13/22/75	20/42/75
10/31/76	22/28/76	28/62/76
22/50/85	12/32/85	13/35/85
13/29/86	10/25/86	14/37/86

Description of Data:

First digit: number of compound nouns in article required by the valence of finite verbs or infinitives.

Middle digit: total number of compound nouns in article.

Last digit: last two digits of year (e.g. /65 = 1965) in which article was published.

N.B.: The average length of each article here is 400 to 500 words per article.

Appendix B: Word List from Homework Text

(from: "3. Beschreiben und Begründen", from Deutsch für Deutsche, J. Weinberg, Frankfurt, 1971, pp. 20-22)

Column 1: Bedienungsanleitung, Wechselstrom, Kaffeemühle, Voltzahl, Stromnetz, Fassungsvermögen, Schalterkopf, Kaffeemehl, Gebrauchsanleitungen, Schnittmodell, Dieselmotor (p. 20).

Column 2: Reihenaufbauweise, Hauptteil, Triebwerksteil, Steuerungsteil, Arbeitsweise, Einlaßventil, Auslaßventil, Arbeitsverfahren, Arbeitsablauf, Handwerker, Schwierigkeitsgrad, Sachgebeit, Sachbuch, Fachbuch, Hochschulingenieur, Reparaturanleitung, Fachbezeichnung, Redewendung (p. 21).

Column 3: Gesichtspunkt, Wortgruppe, Höheneinstellung, Sachverhalt, Reparaturanleitung, Wortschatz, Satzbau, Satzkonstruktion, Gummidichtung, Hauptsatz, Reihenfolge (p. 22).

N.B. The above lists are ordered by their appearance in the text.

Appendix C: Results from the Homework Exercise in Tabular Form

Parameters:

1. Students were at the intermediate level (end of 2nd yr.).
2. Students had only had one lecture on word-formation theory and morphological analysis of compound nouns.
3. The assignment was to identify the compound nouns with two nominal elements in the text, analyze them by using the tree method and give their meaning in English without using a dictionary, either bilingual or unilingual.
4. Only six students participated.

Student	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1	+	+	+/-	+	+	+	-/+
2	-/+	+/-	+/-	+	-	+	+
3	+	-(+)	+(-)	+	-	-	+
4	+(-)	-	+	+	+	+	-
5	+(-)	+	+(-)	+	+	+	-
6	+(-)	-	+(-)	+	+	+	-

Legend: + =presence thereof, - =absence thereof, ( ) =only small percentage thereof, / =greater amount to left of "/"

A = only compounds with two nouns listed (i.e. recognized presence of adjectives, bound morphemes)

B = compounds were missing from list

C = correct analysis of compounds--not including flexional or formal morphemes

D = complete correct analysis of compounds

E = correct English equivalent given (in some or all)

F = English equivalent close to correct one (in some or all)

G = no equivalent given (in some or all)

Appendix D: Word-Formation Test

1. Make up meaningful compounds from the following set of words (words may be used more than once): Buch - Koch - Bier - Brief - Wein - Tag - Glas - Papier - Kasten - Regal
2. Make up compounds from the following questions:
  - a) Wie nennt man ein Eimer, in dem man Wasser trägt?
  - b) Wie nennt man eine Wohnung, die Studenten mieten?
  - c) Wie nennt man eine Person, die Menschen frißt?
  - d) Wie nennt man eine Halle, in der der Markt abgehalten wird?
  - e) Wie nennt man das Museum, wo man Kunstwerke findet?
3. Give the meaning of the following compounds by using them in a sentence: Musikautomat - Morgenmantel - Landwirtschaft - Geschäftsmann oder -frau
4. a) Name several (3-5) compounds with the following stem words: Buch - Tuch - Auto
b) Name several compounds with the following modifying word: Hand - Grund - Geburt

Appendix E: Copies of Three Articles cited in Thesis

Because the constraints of length and space, the articles will appear in this order:

1. FAZ: 242/86/23
2. FAZ: 99/88/27
3. SPIEGEL: 8/59/28

1. FAZ: 242/86/23

„In Wirklichkeit bin ich sehr, sehr jung“ Ganz schön schnell: Martina Navratilova in Filderstadt

FILDERSTADT. Feiertage, nichts als Feiertage. Am Mittwoch Blumen, Schmuck und eine große Sahnetorte zum tausendsten Einzelerfolg in einem offiziellen Turnier. An diesem Samstag Blumen und viele andere Präsente zum 30. Geburtstag. Am morgigen Sonntag Feiertag, wenn das Sprichwort stimmt und damit alle guten Dinge drei sind, ein Porsche 911 Cabrio zu ihrem dann dritten Grand Prix Turniersieg in Filderstadt. Dort dreht sich in dieser Woche alles um die Nummer eins der Damen-Tenniswelt, Martina Navratilova. Die aus der Tschechoslowakei stammende Amerikanerin genießt ihre Festwoche in der Beschaulichkeit der schwäbischen Provinz. Zum fünften Mal ist sie gern in die Kleinstadt südlich von Stuttgart gekommen, deren regionale Bekanntheit früher allein auf dem dort ersprießlichen Wachstum von Kohlköpfen beruhte.

Seit 1978 ist das Lokalkolorit durch den Besuch der internationalen Tennis-großen angereichert worden. Zum zehnten Mal heißt es in diesem Jahr Vorteil Filderstadt, denn von Martina Navratilova abwärts singen alle Spielerinnen das hohe Lied des Lobs auf dieses, diesmal mit 175.000 Dollar Preisgeld dotierte Turnier. Daß sich ausgerechnet Steffi Graf und Claudia Kohde-Kilsch im Vorjahr dem harmonischen Einklang verweigerten, weil sie sich vom Publikum in der Halle von Filderstadt nicht genügend unterstützt glauben, hatte Folgen. Wenigstens in diesem Jahr fehlen die beiden deutschen Asse. Steffi Graf, weil ihr Vater im ersten Zorn angekündigt hatte, seine Tochter werde hier „nie wieder“ spielen. Claudia Koh-

de-Kilsch, weil sie zur Zeit einer schöpferischen Pause vom Turnier-Tennis nimmt. Beide jedoch werden 1987 zur elften Auflage wiederkommen. „Steffi liebt das Turnier“, hat auch Vater Graf zwischen Friedenssignale von Filderstadt ausgesandt.

Hier kostet derweil Martina Navratilova ihre Turnierwoche als das reinste Vergnügen aus und präsentiert sich entspannt, allzeit freundlich, schlagfertig und lebenswürdig. Damit widerlegt sie so nebenbei völlig unangenehme das ihr gelegentlich angepackte Klischee einer männlich harten, Herben, spröden Frau. „Ich habe immer gedacht, mit Dreißig wäre man alt. In Wirklichkeit bin ich sehr, sehr jung“, hat die gebürtige Pragerin in Filderstadt mit allen Anzeichen von Glaubwürdigkeit gesagt.

Und dann hat die Frau, die im Laufe ihrer Karriere mehr als jede andere Frau im Sport an Preisgeldern gewonnen hat (11 Millionen Dollar), über sich und ihre Vorlieben, Wünsche und Schwächen erzählt. Darüber, daß sie „in zwei Wochen Europa vier Bücher“ gelesen habe, daß sie gern viel öfter als einmal zweimal im Jahr in Theater oder Museen ginge („wie oft mußte ich mangels Zeit Karten verschenken“), daß es Tage gebe, an denen sie vom Tennis nichts hören und sehen wolle, daß ihr Trainer Mike Estep „manchmal eher als ich selber weiß, woran ich gerade bin“.

Martina Navratilova, eine Frau von hoher Emotionalität, ist ein Star, der sich den Sinn für die kleinen Freuden des Alltags bewahrt hat. So zog sie wie zum Beweis ein kleine Tafel Schokolade aus der Tasche ihres Trainingsanzugs, als sie „von der hervorragenden Betreu-

ung“ in Filderstadt sprach. Kleine Geschenke erhalten die Freundschaft, aber auch die Aussicht auf ein neues, 87.000 Mark teures Gefährt. Es trifft sich, daß die große Blonde aus Fort Worth in Texas ein fast schon schwärmerischer Fan jener Automarke ist, die das Sponsoren-Patronat über das Filderstädter Turnier übernommen hat. Während der Woche durfte sie eine Spritztour in ihrem Traumwagen, für den die Ziffern 859 stehen, unternehmen. Kraten, 400.000 Mark. „Es war ein unglaubliches Gefühl“, sagte sie hinterher. Und: „Ich liebe Bewegung, Geschwindigkeit, darum bin ich im Sport.“ So schnell sie auf dem Tennisplatz das Geschehen der Gegnerinnen schlägt, so schnell ist sie herullich wie privat unterwegs. Seit neuestem auch auf Brettern. Martina Navratilova, die Abfahrerin, die aber auch gut und gern Golf sowie Basketball spielt und es schade findet, so wenig von der im Augenblick laufenden Endspielserie um die amerikanische Baseball Meisterschaft mitzubekommen.

In Stuttgart wird sie an diesem Abend im Kreis ihrer Familie – die Eltern sind aus Prag, Schwester Jana aus Bonn angereist – und Freunde ihren 30. Geburtstag feiern. Keine Zäsur, kein Abschied von der Jugend und schon gar nicht vom Tennis als Beruf. „Ich habe noch viel vor mir, will noch einige Ziele erreichen.“ Daß die Milliarderin dabei längst nicht mehr nur an sich denkt, beweist ihr Engagement für die von ihr in Fort Worth gegründete Martina youth foundation, eine Stiftung für kranke und behinderte Jugendliche.

ROLAND ZORN

2. FAZ: 99/88/27

Eine Residenz für das Geld

Oppige Bescheidenheit / Zum Neubau der hessischen Landeszentralbank in Frankfurt

Wie soll ein Bankgebäude aussehen? Erlaubt die abstrakte Zählbarkeit, die das Geld zwischen uns und die Dinge schiebt, eine architektonische Darstellung? Geld, so definierte es der philosophierende Soziologe Georg Simmel um 1900, ist das einzige Kulturgebilde, das seine Kraft ist, das den substantiellen Träger völlig von sich abheben hat, indem er absolut nur Symbol ist. Allgemeingültigkeit mit tendenzieller Inaktualität zu verbinden, dies Schicksal teilt das Geld mit der menschlichen Begriffsbildung. Geld und Verstand sind unzerrennlich.

Der Philosoph Hans Blumenberg hat 1976 in einer kongenialen Simmel Interpretation den Zusammenhang von Geldfunktion und Humanität in die Szene gerückt. Nichts Wesentliches ist für Geld zu haben, aber alles Wesentliche ist erreichbar, wenn alles andere nur Geld zu haben ist. Blumenberg kritisiert jene Herablassung gegenüber dem Geld, die suggeriert, daß die Humanität gewinnt, wenn das Geld an Wert verliert, weil man dann nicht mehr alles dafür haben kann. Der erteile Befund ist aber, daß in dem Augenblick, da man für Geld nicht mehr alles haben kann, anstelle des Geldes das hergehen werden muß, was als Humanes unveräußerlich bleiben sollte. Bezahlte Arbeit ist ein Kapitel der Freiheitsgeschichte.

Die Verachtung, die besonders der deutsche Intellektuelle seit der Romantik dem Geld gegenüber pflegt, läßt auf ein Verhältnis zur Geld-Architektur ab. Deutsche Architekturhistoriker beschreiben bis heute allemal hebesvoller die Fassaden von Rathäusern, Kirchen und Museen als die Hausgesichter der bürgerlichen Banken, denen sie allenfalls Ehrfurcht und Machtwort huld beschreiben.

Das Thema „Architektur der Banken“ ist heimatlich klassisch. Wie konkretisiert man mit Würde und Skepsis die heilige Kraft der Abstraktion? Die Banken selbst bevorzugten von Anfang an die repräsentative Architektur: die archaische Renaissance, Symmetrie und Hierarchie der Renaissance-Fassade setzen die Dynamik des Allgemeinen gegen die Anarchie der Einzelheiten rigoros durch. Das Abstrakte

triumphiert über den Schmerz des vernünftigen Individuums, dem keine Asymmetrie, keine Dissonanz eingeräumt werden. Das schlechte Gewissen wird durch reichen Schmuck, durch Säulen, Gesimse, Figuren und anderes kompensiert.

Die Heisterler-Bauze, 1868 bis 1873 nach dem Plan von Léon Pierre Suys erbaut, hat ein Tempelportal mit sechs gewaltigen, korinthischen Säulen und figurenreichem Tympanon, das Ganze wirkt wie die Kombination von römischem Pantheon und Renaissance-Kirche. Die Schweizerische Kreditanstalt in Zürich (1873/76) von Friedrich Wanner ist ein breites Geldschloß mit kraftvollen Rundbogen-Arkaden, auffälligem Mittelrisalit und fünfzehn Fensterachsen, es huldigt einem spätklassizistischen baren Kolossalstil. Rustizierte Sockelzonen, kolossale Pfasterordnungen, tempelartige Portale, Mittelrisalite, Schloß- und Palazzo-Assoziationen - dies kennzeichnet auch viele deutsche Bankgebäude zwischen 1870 und 1910.

In dem berühmten Berliner Reichsbankwettbewerb von 1911 haben Mies van der Rohe und Gropius den Geld-Klassizismus stark vereinfacht, ja beinahe getilgt zugunsten einer glattschalen Monumentalität, welche die Abstraktionstendenz gegenüber dem Einzelornat verabsolutiert. Freilich hielt in der Anordnung der gewaltigen Kuben aus Beton und Glas, die sie vorschlugen, noch der Schloßgedanke nach.

Nach 1945 verselbständigte sich das schloßartige Ensemble von Kuben zur eisernen Kiste mit Rasterfassade, oder der klassische Säulenschmuck des Geldtempels wurde verabsolutiert zum säulenhaften Solitär zum Bankturm, wie er am eindrucksvollsten in Frankfurt der sechziger Jahre den Himmel der Abstraktion eroberte. Gerade in Frankfurt gibt es auch die große Ausnahme von dieser Regel. Die Deutsche Bundesbank ließ sich zwischen 1968 und 1972 von den Architekten Hecker und Hecker nahe dem Alleenring eine legendäre Kiste bauen, die Erinnerung an die klassische Dreiflügel-Anlage, ein symmetrisches Schloß des Geldes, im allerdings harten Rastergerüst. Die 1973 fertiggestellte Commerzbank von Richard Heit mit ihren 105 Metern Höhe wagte dann als erster profaner Turm in der Geschichte der Stadt den Dornsturm zu überragen. Amerikanische Weltoffenheit und Direktheit besiegten den Bürger, der über das Proportionsgefühl der alten Leutskultur sein Geld zu adeln suchte.

An dieses historische Wettspiel erinnert nun der hessische Bundesbank-Ableger, die Landeszentralbank, mit einem Neubau an der Taunusanlage, nahe den Glaskurven der Deutschen Bank und dem metallischen Hochhaus der Dresdner Bank. Im Arbeitsamt des Architekten Büro, das einst die Bundesbank entwarf, Das 240 Millionen Mark teure Gebäude - geplant von den Frankfurter Architekten Albrecht, Jourdan, Müller, Berghof, Landes-Rang - kehrt reumütig zurück zu der horizontalen, freilich auch raumgreifenden Bescheidenheit der „Mutter“, dabei deklariert es den organischen Regel der Bundesbank durch formalistisches Raffinement.

Die Landeszentralbank Hessen, eine regionale „Bank der Banken“ mit etlichen Notenbankfunktionen und eines der potentesten Geldinstitute der Republik, hatte sich in der Wettbewerbsschreibung 1978 dazu durchgerungen, nicht wie die

meisten „Mitbewerber“ in die Höhe zu bauen, sondern mit einem langgestreckten, vergeschossenen Flachbau dem Bahnhofsviertel und der von Gründerzeitvillen geprägten Taunusanlage Respekt zu zollen. Zum Genus Loci, auf den der Neubau Rücksicht nimmt, gehören eine viergeschossige wilhelminische Villa von 1890, mit prachtvoller Neu-Renaissance-Fassade zur Taunusanlage hin - sie wurde jetzt von der Landeszentralbank für 15 Millionen Mark umgebaut und umgebaut sowie der wichtige Eingangstrakt der ehemaligen Hauptstelle der Reichsbank, erbaut zwischen 1929 und 1932, keine „Nazi-Architektur“, wie es immer wieder heißt, sondern ein Beispiel für jenen sachlichen Monumentalismus der frühen dreißiger Jahre, den damals zum Beispiel auch die französische Republik kultivierte. Der für 45 Millionen Mark renovierte, unter anderem durch eine aus der Mittelachse verschobene Empfangsrotunde neu interpretierte Reichsbank-Rest hat eine lapidar gegliederte, schmucklose Muschelkalkfassade mit einem zweieinhalb Geschosse übergreifenden Pfeiler-Perronikus, der die griechische Tempelfront opernhafte vergrößert und vergrößert.

Die Architekten des Reichsbankgebäudes (Wolff und Ameler) waren Berliner Baubeamte. Ihr Gebäude verrät preußische Strenge. Jourdan, Müller und die anderen setzen ihr im Hinterhof den ornamentalen Übermut des Wiener Jugendstils, insbesondere Otto Wagners entgegen. Das Preußenhaus wurde zum Torgebäude umgebaut mit hubbarer Kantine, Gymnastikraum, zwei Sitzungssälen und Wohnungen für Hausangestellte. Dahinter öffnet sich ein breiter, gepflasterter Platz mit „Gartenlaube“ und Säulenskulptur. Als in der jedem zugänglich Vorplatz einer breiten, schloßartigen Anlage mit Mittelachse. Die Bank-Architektur beschneidet ihre Ursprünge.

Freilich ist die Symmetrie gestört und die früher so abweisende, geschlossene Natursteinfassade vielfach aufgebreechelt. Eine Fassadenreihe stützt sich auf ein Säulenfragment, das den Durchmesser einer der Säulen des Athener Parthenon-Tempels zitiert und die Sandsteinfassade wird - statt von Pilastern von vertikalen Fenstern und Fikern gegliedert. Der traditionell besonders dicklippige Sockelbereich ist demonstrativ luftig fast ganz verplast, ebenso das „Dachgesims“.

Die Monumentalität der Alten wird bewahrt, indem man sie säulenreich beschneidet, aber dort, wo sie besonders kraftvoll „mauert“, ins Hintere öffnet. Dies ist die These der neuen Landeszentralbank. Die Abstraktionstendenz des Geldes wird silhouettenhaft bejaht und doch relativiert in Momenten der Umkehrung, Asymmetrie und ornamentalen Individualisierung. Die ergänzend zu den drei Gartenhöfen an den beiden Längsseiten - alle Geschosse von der Mittelachse her mit Fagesicht vermachende Glisstrasse verbindet die Erinnerung an die Passage des 19. Jahrhunderts mit jener an die Bahnhofe des Historismus. Im herrlichen Lauer- und Pausenraum, in dem blüht die allzu plumpe Stahltreppentreppe.

Der Neubau widersteht schon wegen seines verschwenderischen Umgangs mit dem City-Grund nicht die benachbarten Bank-Hochhäuser. Aber er konfrontiert sie mit einem neuen, dialektisch duftenden Maß des Repräsentativen.

MATTHIAS SCHRÖDER

ARBEITSVERMITTLUNG

Manager vom Arbeitsamt

Abrechnen von den Punkten West-
deutschland, aber nicht die Ange-
legenheiten der Stempelsteuer an wech-
seln. Arbeit unter der Regierung.

In a Chapter Meeting
 Youngest Daughter given Flowers

Die Arbeit der Kommission wird durch die Arbeit der Unterkommissionen, die in den beiden letzten Sitzungen der Kommission am 1. und 2. März 1967 stattfanden, fortgesetzt. Die Unterkommissionen haben sich mit den folgenden Themen beschäftigt: 1. Die Rolle der Kommission in der Entwicklung der Wirtschaft der Bundesrepublik Deutschland. 2. Die Rolle der Kommission in der Entwicklung der Wirtschaft der Bundesrepublik Deutschland. 3. Die Rolle der Kommission in der Entwicklung der Wirtschaft der Bundesrepublik Deutschland.

Koffmally werden wir bis zum Ende der
Lösung periodisch geben. Schließlich ge-
hört der Artikel 12 des Grundgesetzes,
wenn Bürger das Recht haben, die
phr. und Ausbildungsstufe zu
wählen.

END

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