



On Contrastive Analysis of Syntactical Structures in Korean and German

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Abstract

Contrastive linguistics – a rather modern part of linguistics has brought up the first concrete results ten years ago. Today, there exist in Europe about 15 projects which deal with the contrastive analysis of modern languages; the languages concerned are internationally used languages like English, French, German or Japanese. But, on the other side, you can find an increasing interest in contrastive analysis in countries which have less disseminated languages. The target of these analyses is to improve the situation and the circumstances of learning and teaching the partner language.

First, I examined several syntactical models existing in German linguistics to what extent they are useful for the contrastive analysis of Korean and German. The conclusion I drew from the literature and from the experience was that in contrastive analyses there is a strong interdependence of theory and practice, so that the best method would be one combining the theoretical and practical. The experience showed that there are areas of contrastive analysis in which no purely theoretical method would lead to a satisfactory solution. These considerations prompted me to choose a model that would yield mainly practical results. In the future, these practical results should be applicable in compiling and developing teaching materials and methods, which is one of the basic aims of my survey.

I. Approach to Contrastive Linguistics

The basic consumption of contrastive linguistics and contrastive analysis (CA) is that while languages are different, there is always a certain degree of similarity between them. If there were no similarity there would be no contrastive analysis, in the same way as there would be no contrastive analysis if there were no differences. This position falls somewhere half way between that of traditional structuralism, which stresses the uniqueness of each language, and that of transformationalism, which stresses their fundamental similarities.

The fact, that most of what is written or said in one language indicates that there must be a certain, rather high degree of similarity between languages. At the same time, translation shows that the similarity is always only partial, even with cognate languages or with dialects of the same language.

Languages may be said to consist of some isolable elements and of certain arrangements of the isolated elements. Language elements are assigned first to various hierarchical ranks of structural units, and it is usually convenient to isolate five ranks: morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence. The elements are further-on assigned to levels according to certain criteria, mostly of a paradigmatic, distributional or extralinguistic nature. "Level" means one of the main aspects of language, a phonology, grammar or lexicon. If this classification of language elements is carried out by a consistent application of a language theory, the results will show greater or less similarity between languages in regard of the isolated language elements and their properties.

However great the different in the isolated language elements between languages, it is still possible to render a very large portion of meaning conveyed by the elements of one language into the other. This possibility seems to imply two things: 1) similarity between languages is not necessarily limited to similarity between elements belonging to corresponding levels in the languages concerned, and 2) similarity between languages is not necessarily limited to similarity between elements belonging to corresponding classes or ranks in the languages concerned.

Some fundamental questions about CA can and should be raised before one embarks upon a contrastive research. Among the questions are the following:

- What is the scope of CA?
- What exactly does it mean to contrast two languages or two linguistic systems?
- How does one isolate the linguistic systems for contrastive purposes?

- What is the metatheory that can bring them together most revealingly?
- What is the end product of contrasting supposed to be?
- What (practical and non-practical) uses is it expected to have?

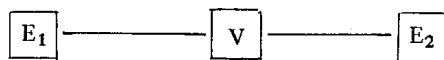
Implicit in most of these questions is the problem of choice of the model of description to be used in the contrastive analysis. Three possibilities are open to the researcher in this situation: he can either adopt the taxonomic model, or the generative model, or a combination of the two.

II. Review on Current German Syntactic Studies

The present German linguistics are dominated by 4 academics; BRINKMANN, following Tesnière's valency grammar, bases his theory on the ability of the verb to demand other constituents of the sentence; these constituents are called "Mitspieler" (Brinkmann, p. 223), a word which is taken from the field of sports and means team-mates. The subject keeps its special position, and the verbs are classified according to their ability "how many constituents aside from the subject are necessary or possible". The nominative is strictly connected with the verb, and therefore with the whole sentence; the other cases symbolize only parts of a sentence; Brinkmann calls these cases, in a figurative sense, "Bauglieder", meaning 'parts of a building' in the field of architecture.

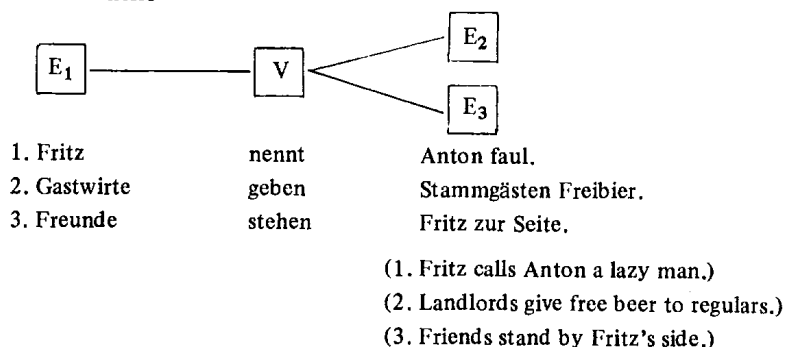
The word "valency" is used by J. ERBEN. In his opinion, the verb constitutes the characteristic heart or crux of a sentence. "The character and valency – you can even compare it with the valency of an atom – decides on which and how many constituents occur and build up the sentence construction" (Erben, p. 231). Starting at this point, Erben develops four basic sentence models, according to the number of the complementary parts. In accordance with their possible valency or valencies, all verbs are categorized into four groups, i.e. verbs having one, two, three or four valencies.

Ex. Two valencies



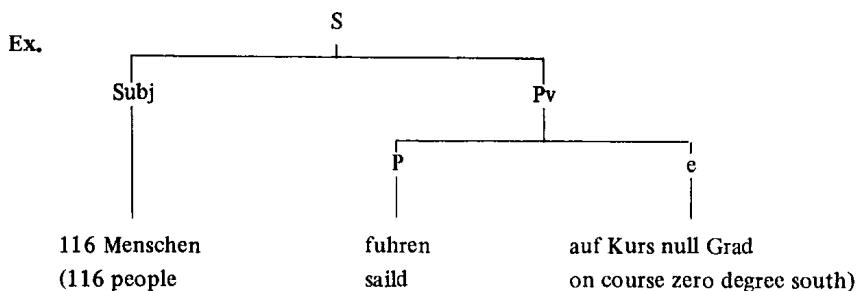
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|---------------|--------|-------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Großvater | ist | katholisch. | (Grandfather is cath.) |
| 2. Mitschuler | helfen | mir. | (Class-mates help me.) |
| 3. Fritz | geht | zur Post. | (Fritz goes to the post-office). |

Ex. Three valencies



Erben does not explain the exact criteria for the inclusion of the complements into a sentence model. This problem can be solved only by intruding the categories "obligatory complement" and "optional complement". This distinction is disputed among German linguists, and the opinion of that is given differently. Paul GREBE, one of the editors of the DUDEN, makes the difference between obligatory and free complements; the latter are found by doing a test on if a complement has to be used or not; the terminus is "Weglassprobe", which was first introduced by L. WEISGERBER.

The DUDEN depicts the sentence structure by a kind of transformational grammar; some specialist terms, however, are taken from the traditional grammar system: Subj. = Subjekt (subject), P = Prädikat (predicate), E = Ergänzung (complement), Pv = Prädikatsverband (verbal phrase) (cf. Duden 4, no. 1166).



Some years ago, there was made a very interesting attempt at combining generative and dependence grammar. G. HELBIG and W. SCHENKEL published the "Wörterbuch zur Valenz und Distribution deutscher Verben", a dictionary which is based on the valency theory; but the term 'valency' is more largely seen as "syntactic valency". That means that the verb has the ability to initiate certain "empty" places in the sentence structure which are to be filled by obligatory or

optional complements. Each verb has different variants of complements; in order to get a grasp of the possible complements, it is not enough to determine their number, but, in exceeding this idea, it is necessary to know the syntactic and semantic nature of the verb, i.e. the distribution. This term means the “sum total of environments which a verb occurs in” (Helbig/Schenkel, p.49). The distribution analysis classifies the linguistic units on the basis of their environments, sentence positions, occurrence, context. The distribution of an element is the sum total of all contexts which an element can occur in – in contrast to those contexts which it can not occur in.

This theory is well worth mentioning because one can make good use of it in theoretical linguistics and in foreign language teaching, an experience this writer made during his practical studies when this theory was translated into action.

Ex.

Abbreviations:

- S : Substantive = noun
- n : the case of the element concerned has to be the nominative
- a : the case of the element concerned has to be the accusative
- d : the case of the element concerned has to be the dative
- ps : the element concerned has to be connected with a preposition
- Hum : the element concerned has to belong to the “human” field
- Anim : the element concerned has to mark an animate, i.e. a thing belonging to the living world
- Abstr : the element concerned has to an abstract thing
- NS : Nebensatz = subordinate clause

For the following example, see Helbig/Schenkel, p.201.

The example is the verb “*streiten*”.

- I streiten
- II streiten Sn, pS/NS_{daß}
- III Sn → 1. Hum (*Sie streiten für das Recht*)
(They fight for justice)
- 2. Abstr (as Hum) (*Die Arbeiterbewegung streitet für den Sozialismus*)
(The labour movement fights for socialism)
- p=mit, gegen, für
- If p=mit
- pSd → 1. Hum (Er streitet *mit seinem Widersacher*)
(He argues with his adversary)
- 2. Abstr (as Hum) (Er streitet *mit dem Institut*)
(He quarrels with an institute)
- 3. Abstr (Er streitet *mit seiner Leidenschaft*)
(He fights his passion)

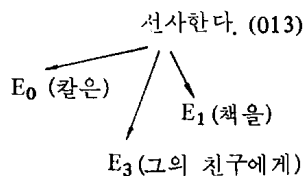
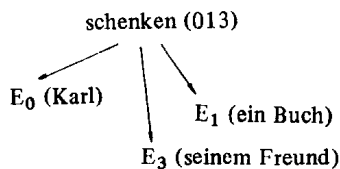
- If p=gegen
 pSa → 1. Hum (Er streitet *gegen seinen Widersacher*)
 (He fights against his adversary)
 2. Abstr (as Hum) (Er streitet *gegen das Institut*)
 (He fights against the institut)
 3. Abstr (Er streitet *gegen seinen Jahzorn*)
 (He fights his violent temper)
- If p=für
 pSd → 1. Hum (Er streitet *für seinen Freund*)
 (He fights for his friend)
 2. Abstr (as Hum) (Er streitet *für seinen Staat*)
 (He fights for his country)
 3. Abstr (Er streitet *für den Sozialismus*)
 (He fights for socialism)
- NS → (Er streitet dafür, *daß* die Welt besser wird)
 (He fights for a better world)

Both, the generative-transformational grammar and the structuralistic grammar did not take into consideration what a sentence means, whereas Helbig/Schenkel make initial stages of including semantic interpretation. This fact opens new ways because, besides syntactical possibilities of elements, one can see how many and which complements can be combined with a verb.

The writer of this paper would like to use the model which has been developed by Ulrich ENGEL, an up-to-date German linguist. His dependence model is based only on the valences a verb can have. This model has an advantage over other models because of its clear categorization, a fact which is helpfull for the students of German language, especially for the reason that the new prevailing trend in language learning is the monolingual teaching. The verb dominates, in ENGEL's model, the sentence (dependence grammar):

Ex.

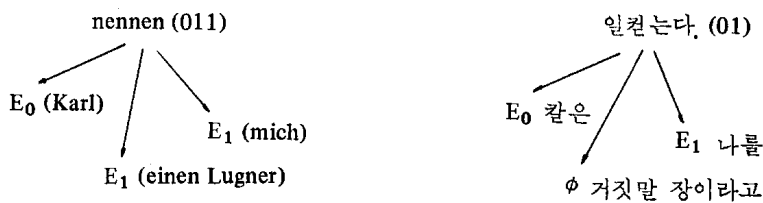
Karl schenkt seinem Freund ein Buch. 칼은 그의 친구에게 책을 선사한다.
 (Charles gives a book to his friend.)



In this case, there are no differences between Korean and German. But the next example will show a great difference, especially in concern of the verb valence:

Ex.

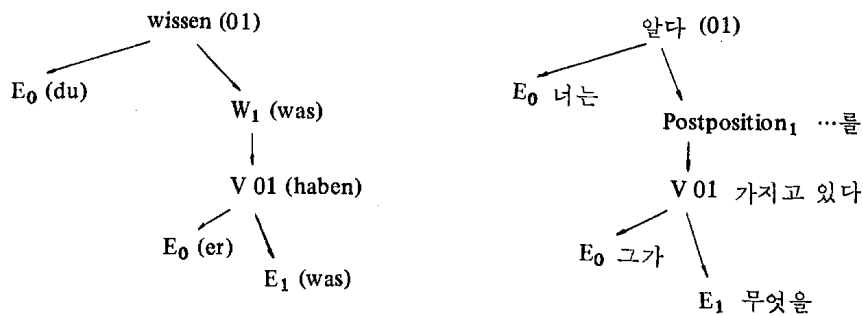
Karl nennt mich einen Lugner. 칼은 '나를 거짓말장이'라고 일컫는다.
(Charles calls me a liar.)



Even subordination can easily be demonstrated:

Ex.

Weißt du, was er hat? 너는 그가 무엇을 가지고 있는지를 아니?
(Do you know what's wrong with him?)



ENGEL makes the distinction of 10 "complements", i.e. "Erganzung" = E (Engel, p.323).

E₀ = nominative complement, E₁ = accusative complement, E₂ = genitive complement as object, E₃ = dative complement, E₄ = prepositional complement, E₅ = complement determining the area, E₆ = complement determining the direction, E₇ = nominal complement, i.e. predicative noun, E₈ = qualitative complement, i.e. adjective as predicative noun, E₉ = verbal complement.

Let me now specify the complements more precisely:

E ₀	Die Rose blüht (The rose blooms)	장미가 피어있다.	(E ₀)
E ₁	Der Gärtner bindet die Blumen (The gardener binds the flowers)	정원사가 꽃을 묶는다.	(E ₁)

E ₂	Ich bedarf <i>seiner Hilfe</i> (I need his help)	나는 그의 도움을 필요로 한다.	(-)
E ₃	Der Sohn dankt <i>dem Vater</i> (The son thanks his father)	아들이 <u>아버지에게</u> 감사한다.	(E ₃)
E ₄	Ich denke <i>an dich</i> (I have you in my mind)	나는 너를 생각한다.	(-)
E ₅	Das Bild hängt <i>an der Wand</i> (The picture is hanging on the wall)	그 그림은 <u>벽에</u> 걸려있다.	(E ₅)
E ₆	Ich hänge das Bild <i>an die Wand</i> (I hang the picture on the wall)	나는 그 그림을 <u>벽에</u> 건다.	(E ₆)
E ₇	Karl wird <i>Lehrer</i> (Charles is going to be a doctor)	칼은 <u>선생이</u> 된다.	(E ₇)
E ₈	Der Arzt, der heute kommt, is <i>berühmt</i> (The doctor who will come today is famous)	오늘 오는 그 의사는 유명하다	(-)
E ₉	Karl hört seine Schwester singen (Charles hears his sister singing)	칼은 그의 <u>누이동생이 노래하는</u> <u>것을</u> 듣는다	(E ₁)

Even this short structural analysis shows the evident differences between German and Korean, and you can easily imagine the difficulties which are in store for the Korean student. Generally said, while comparing the possible sentence structures, there are less various sorts of complements (E) depending on Korean verbs. The mostly used complements (E) are nominative complement (E₀), accusative complement (E₁), dative complement (E₃), complement determining the area (E₅) and the verbal complement in the form of E₁. The fact that the valence number in Korean language is small, results in an interference; provided that the Korean lexemes and the structure are mechanically translated into German, you get an interference form, i.e. a wrong sentence or a sentence which sounds artificial. See the following examples (cf. Kim K.H. p.67):

- 1) 나는 선생에게 질문한다. (=Ich frage den Lehrer, acc)
*Ich frage dem Lehrer (dat)
- 2) 나는 선생을 돕는다 (=Ich helfe dem Lehrer, dat)
*Ich helfe den Lehrer (acc)
- 3) 나는 그것을 확신한다. (=Ich bin davon überzeugt, adv)
*Ich überzeuge das (acc)
- 4) 나는 역으로 그녀를 마중 나갔다 (=Ich ging zum Bahnhof, um sie abzuholen, final structure)
*Ich bin für sie zum Bahnhof gegangen (prepositional structure)
- 5) 나는 그 남자로부터 그 책을 빼앗았다. (=Ich habe dem Mann das Buch weggenommen, dat)
*Ich habe von dem Mann das Buch weggenommen (prepositional structure)

Especially the examples no. 3, 4 and 5 point to an elementary problem the Korean students of German language are faced with, that is how to make good use of the German prepositional structures the frequency of which is rather great in German language.

On the basis of these experiences the writer of this paper believes that this part of learning German language, the prepositional structure, is very important because the students can't express themselves intelligibly without the exact use of prepositions. Admittedly, errors for instance which are made by connecting the main elements of a sentence, are important, but sentences having a wrong construction are more comprehensible than these with wrong prepositions.

III. The Role of Interlanguage

The students studying German language at university, have already some experiences, which means that the teaching at German Department has not to start at the zero position. The students have a kind of "transitional competence" (Corder S.P., p.167) or "approximal system" (Nemser W., p.151); the contrastive linguist has always to bear this fact in mind. "The achievement of the target language comes about through gradual change by using, overtime, greater proportions of more target" (Dickerson L.J.). The actual language capacity differs from person to person and varies according to the unsystematic level of achievement. The hypostasis of unstable transitional stage constitutes, for the present, the end of development of the CA and the error analysis (EA).

A great number of errors and deviations occur in this transitional phase, which comes up after the learner has given up his native language system as a model, but has not yet completely mastered the system of the target language. And that's why another sort of errors exists, especially morphological ones; they originate from an incorrect analogy which a learner tries to establish within the foreign language. He tries to apply a general rule to all cases or to apply one rule, with which he is acquainted, to similar cases, as we have seen above (interference form).

IV. Contrastive Procedures in the Field Chosen for this Paper

Let me now, in the light of the previous remarks, examine the possible contrastive procedures.

One such procedure would consist in taking system of forms of a given category in one language and contrasting its entire range of meanings with the range of meanings of the system of forms of the corresponding category in the other language. The results of this kind of analysis would be

described under such headings as the following: "The nominal group in Korean and German", "Linking verb and compliment in Korean and German"; the taxonomie is at the root of this approach: the items to be contrasted are obtained by segmentation and classification. Of course, the analysis itself may have been affected in both in taxonomic and generative terms, depending on the nature of the phenomenon discussed.

Another possible contrastive procedure would consist in starting from a given category in one language and moving towards the equivalent form or the plurality of forms used to express its meanings in the other language. Characteristic headings under which the analysis can be made will be the following: "The present perfect tense and its Korean equivalents", "Lexico-grammatical features of 'mussen' and 'sollen' and their equivalents in Korean". Here too, taxonomy plays a great role in isolating the elements to be contrasted and in the process of contrasting itself.

Yet another approach would be to take different linguistic processes of one language and see how they compare with processes performing the same function in the other language. In this case one would get analyses such as "Composition in German and Korean", "Rules of premodification in German and Korean", "Reflexivisation in German and Korean", "Nominalization in German and Korean". The contrastive statement in this case will best be made in transformational-generative terms, but taxonomy will be an integral part of the generative statement. The important thing to note is that classification is necessary, for instance nouns will be subclassified into abstract and concrete, animate and inanimate, human and non-human, count and non-count.

Finally one more approach to contrastive analysis is possible: it would consist in taking meaning as a starting point and describing the different forms in the two languages in which it can be expressed. Possible headings would be the following: "Expression of time relationship in German and Korean", "Expression of manner in German and Korean", "Expression of spatial relations in German and Korean". It is easy to see that taxonomic procedures would figure prominently not only on the semantic side, but also on the grammatical side of such a subject.

For the present paper, the second of the four approaches is chosen. The given category is the German *p r e p o s i t i o n a l* complement as *o b j e c t* (=E₄ in Engel's system). There are hundreds of possibilities.

Therefore, the applied method should be demonstrated from a very special grammatical phenomenon, the genitive object. Today, there exist only 16 verbs demanding this case (according to DUDEN 4 Nr. 1189); this valence is going to die out and is replaced by other cases or the prepositional object. The following contrastive list lights up the correspondent Korean expression.

GERMAN	Model No.	KOREAN	Model No.
1) sich annehmen Ich nehme mich <i>des Kindes</i> an. (I look after the child.)	E ₂	나는 그 <u>어린이</u> 를 돌본다	E ₁
2) sich bedienen Darf ich mich <i>Ihres Angebotes</i> bedienen? (May I use your offer?)	E ₂	내가 <u>당신이 주신것</u> 을 이용해도 될까요?	E ₁
3) bedürfen Der Kranke bedarf dringend <i>des Arztes</i> . (This sick man needs urgently a doctor.)	E ₂	그 환자는 긴급하게 <u>의사</u> 를 필요로 한다.	E ₁
4) sich befeißigen Ich befeißige mich <i>des Medizinstudiums</i> . (I make great efforts to study medicine.)	E ₂	나는 <u>의학</u> 을 연구한다.	E ₁
5) sich begeben Ich begeben mich <i>dieses Vorteils</i> . (I renounce this advantage.)	E ₂	나는 <u>이러한 이득</u> 을 포기한다.	E ₁
6) sich bemächtigen Ein Verdacht bemächtigt sich <i>seines Herzens</i> . (A suspicion comes over him.)	E ₂	의혹이 <u>마음</u> 을 사로잡는다.	E ₁
7) sich entäußern Er entäußerte sich <i>seiner Verpflichtung</i> . (He divests himself of his commitment.)	E ₂	그는 <u>그의 책임</u> 을 전가한다.	E ₁
8) sich enthalten Er enthält sich <i>der Abstimmung</i> . (He abstains (from voting).)	E ₂	그는 <u>투표</u> 를 기권한다.	E ₁
9) sich entledigen Er entledigt sich <i>seiner Arbeit</i> . (He discharges his duty.)	E ₂	그는 <u>자기의 일</u> 을 다한다.	E ₁
10) sich entraten Ich kann <i>deiner Hilfe</i> nicht entraten. (I am unable to dispense with your help.)	E ₂	나는 <u>네 도움</u> 이 없이는 곤란하다.	E ₀
11) sich entwöhnen Er entwöhnt sich <i>des Rauchens</i> . (He loses the habit of smoking.)	E ₂	그는 <u>흡연의 습관</u> 을 버린다.	
12) ermangeln Der Vortrag ermangelt <i>jeder Sachkenntnis</i> . (The lecture lacks every knowledge of this subject.)	E ₂	그 강연은 <u>전문적 지식</u> 을 가지고 있지 않다.	E ₁

13) sich erwehren Er mußte sich <i>der beiden Angreifer</i> erwehren. (He had to fend off the aggressors.)	E ₂	그는 <u>두 명의 공격자를</u> 막아야 했다.	E ₁
14) gedenken Er gedachte <i>seines toten Vaters</i> . (He remembered his dead father.)	E ₂	그는 <u>죽은 아버지를</u> 칭찬해서 말했다.	E ₁
15) sich rühmen Er hat sich nie <i>seines Erfolges</i> gerühmt. (He boasted never about his success.)	E ₂	그는 결코 <u>그의 성공을</u> 자랑하지 않는다.	E ₁
16) sich vergewissern Ich muß mich erst <i>meines Besitzes</i> vergewissern. (First, I have to make sure of my property.)	E ₂	나는 우선 <u>내 재산을</u> 확인해야 한다.	E ₁

As we can see, 14 of the 16 German forms have the same equivalent (E₁) in Korean. All the same, it must be mentioned that there are other forms possible in Korean; but the number of possibilities has to be restricted in the first step of explanation; that seems to be necessary for the students confronted with this method in their transitional phase.

From the pedagogical point of view, an easily comprehensible grammatical field can give a better idea and a better lead-in to the structure of the target language. The educational applicability is an important value; if one wants to use the material of contrastive analysis in teaching the target language, then a representative corpus will offer much better and more versatile teaching material than the example we use in a theoretical discussion to illustrate rules.

V. The Results of Contrastive Analysis

CA is regarded as having two main values: general linguistic and pedagogic. The general linguistic value is that it can show what the role of this subdiscipline is in linguistic description and how it can help us to analyze and describe more precisely some phenomena of two individual languages whose systems are being contrasted. The pedagogical one should produce, first, bases for foreign language teaching materials, second, better organization of the materials, i.e. the order in which individual items are taken up in teaching, and third, improved organization of the classes themselves, as for instance the amount of time to be devoted to introducing and reviewing various points.

In the future, more attention should be paid to the pedagogical value of CA. However, this value has been challenged several times and some attempts were made to restrict its application in language learning. Error analysis (EA) has been opposed to CA for the reason that “contrastive linguistic analysis – no matter how refined – can only point toward a potential learning problem or difficulty”, while “error analysis can tell the intensity of difficulty, or the size of the problem” (Alatis J.E., p.3).

It has further been claimed that “according to contrastive analysis learner difficulties are mainly made up of differences in the source and target language”, and that “it is questionable to select language learning materials solely from the viewpoint of the contrastive analysis theory” (Ollsson M.).

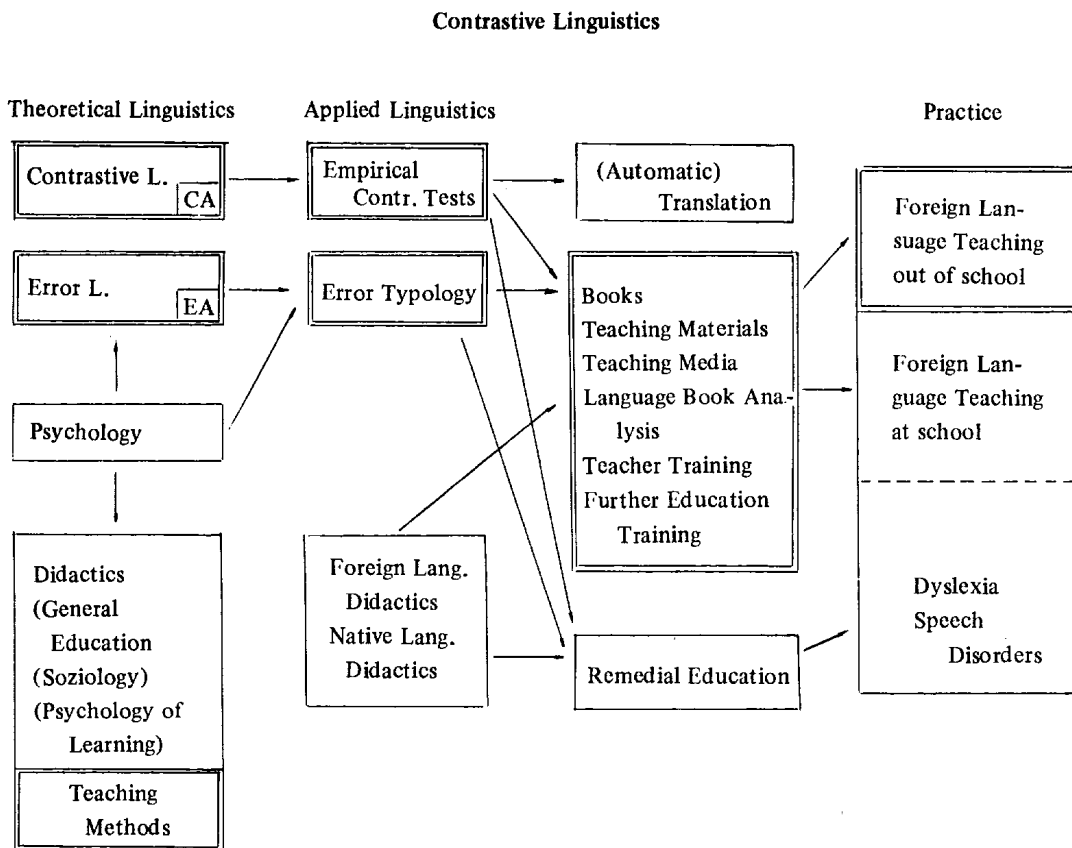
Therefore, there is one aspect which is important for linguistic analysis in general, but which has a special importance within contrastive analysis: this is the study of usage, of actual performance. The study of usage is needed for two reasons: first, it serves as a check on the descriptive statements and ultimately on the choice of what we are going to teach – it thus has a very definite theoretical and practical significance; it is a subject of contrastive study in its own right, and it is necessary to contrast patterns of usage just as much as it is necessary to contrast patterns of structure. Theoretically speaking, the study of usage will tell us whether our rules cover everything that actually occurs in the language, whether the two languages produce something not provided for in the rules, or whether they fail to produce everything that the rules say they should produce. It is also possible that certain patterns of usage are idiosyncratic, not easily generated by any rules, and only capable of taxonomic presentation. From the practical point of view, we will want to base our teaching on what actually happens in the language, not on the potential products of our rules. Thus, for instance, it would be difficult to formulate a rule which would generate the first sentence and not the second:

- A. 1) Man kann unmöglich mit ihm leben.
(He is impossible to live with.)
- 2) Er ist ein unmöglicher Mann, mit dem man nicht leben kann.
(He is an impossible man to live with.)
- B. *1) Man kann möglich mit ihm leben.
*(He is possible to live with.)
- *2) Er ist ein möglicher Mann, mit dem man leben kann.
*(He is a possible man to live with.)

Since 1968, in the European linguistics, some useful models were developed which are depicting the connection between theoretical and practical CA. The aspect of foreign language teaching was

taken into consideration first by G. NICKEL and H. WAGNER. They had the idea to take the individual interference in account and they put their main emphasis rather on psycho-linguistics than on systematic linguistics. R.J. di PETRO, in 1968, layed just more stress on generative linguistics.

In 1983, the German K. REIN submitted his own model describing the value of contrastive linguistics within linguistic science (cf. the following diagramm).



REIN's MODEL translated into English by the author

The writer of this paper has marked some double-line boxes in order to explain the fields relevant for foreign language teaching at university.

In conclusion it can be stated that the results of contrastive linguistics serve a very useful purpose in expanding and refining the findings of CA and EA and in providing some new insights, which guide our work in producing the final version of pedagogical materials, but it is a rather complex and time consuming procedure.

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Zusammenfassung

Kontrastive Linguistik als ein ziemlich neuer Zweig der Linguistik brachte erste brauchbare Ergebnisse vor etwa zehn Jahren. Heute gibt es in Europa etwa 15 Projekte, die sich mit der kontrastiven Analyse in modernen Sprachen beschäftigen; Untersuchungsgegenstand sind die international stark benutzten Sprachen wie Englisch, Französisch, Deutsch und Japanisch. Doch in letzter Zeit finden auch international weniger frequentierte Sprachen Beachtung. Das Ziel der Analysen ist es, die Lern-Situation und-Umstände und die Lehrverfahren der Partnersprachen zu verbessern.

Zuerst untersuchte ich verschiedene Syntaxmodelle, wie sie von der deutschen Linguistik heute angeboten werden, dahin, wieweit sie für eine koreanisch-deutsche Kontrastanalyse brauchbar sind. Das Resultat aus der Literaturdurchsicht und der Erprobung in der Praxis war, daß es einen großen Graben zwischen Theorie und Praxis gibt, sodaß es notwendig erschien, beide Seiten zu kombinieren. Die Erfahrung zeigte, daß auf dem Feld der Kontrastanalyse es keine theoretische Methode gibt, die, rein angewandt, ein befriedigendes Ergebnis bringen würde. Diese Gedanken führten dazu, ein Modell zu wählen, das hauptsächlich in der Praktikabilität seinen Wert hat.

Zusammenfassend läßt sich sagen, daß die Ergebnisse der kontrastiven Analyse eine große Hilfe geben, wenn es darum geht, Erkenntnisse der Fehleranalyse praktikabel zu machen und die Arbeit des Sprachvermittlers erfolgreich zu gestalten, aber es ist ein ziemlich komplexer und zeitaufreibender Weg.