

Reference Grammar

NOUNS

- §1 **Nouns** identify. They may identify something animate (a person, a tree) or inanimate (a rock, a city), including abstract concepts such as difficulty or justice. A noun may stand by itself:

power corrupts

or it may be part of an entire **noun phrase**:

the tall woman with the Great Dane

- §2 Nouns in written German can be identified readily; they all begin with **capital letters**:

der Amerikaner die Österreicherin
der Paß die Fahrkarte das Gepäck

A spelling note: When a word ends in *-ss* or *-sst*, the *-ss* is written *ß*: *Paß*, *heißt*. *ss* is also written *ß* after long vowels and double vowels (diphthongs): *stoßen*, *heißen*.

- §3 All German nouns are classified by **gender**. You will note that each noun in the chapter vocabulary lists appears with *der*, *die*, or *das*:

Gender of nouns

der Paß **die** Fahrkarte **das** Gepäck

In form and function, *der*, *die*, and *das* all correspond to English 'the'. In German, however, the differences among the three forms *der*, *die*, *das* play an important grammatical role. They indicate whether a noun is "masculine", "feminine", or "neuter".

Der represents **masculine** nouns such as *Paß*.

Die signifies **feminine** nouns such as *Fahrkarte*.

Das represents **neuter** nouns such as *Gepäck*.

The correct forms of the nouns are *der Paß*, *die Fahrkarte*, and *das Gepäck*. **Die Paß*, **das Fahrkarte*, and **der Gepäck* are impossible combinations for a native speaker of German. Obviously, there is nothing especially masculine about a passport, or feminine about a ticket. These words have what is called **grammatical gender**. But nouns referring to humans generally show **natural gender**, such as *der Kanadier* or *die Frau*.

No doubt you can confidently predict natural gender. After more exposure to German you may begin to predict grammatical gender. For now, though, **you must memorize the gender of each noun**. If you do not know the gender, you will be unable to use the noun correctly, and you may confuse your listeners.

Nouns in the dictionary of this text are grouped by *der*, *die*, or *das* in order to encourage their identification with one of these three gender signs.

- §4 In some instances it is possible to make an intelligent guess about the gender of a noun. Especially important may be the **ending** of the noun. Here are some principles:

- a) **Characteristic endings**: Nouns that end in *-er* and denote nationality are **masculine**: *der Amerikaner* 'American (man)', *der Kanadier* 'Canadian (man)'.

Also **masculine** are nouns that end in *-er* and denote professions: *der Lehrer* 'teacher', *der Schaffner* 'conductor'.

Corresponding **feminine** nouns are derived from these masculine forms. They end in *-in*: *die Amerikanerin*, *die Kanadierin*, *die Lehrerin*, *die Schaffnerin*.

Most nouns ending in *-e* are **feminine**: *die Fahrkarte* 'ticket', *die Straße* 'street'. These include nouns formed from adjectives such as *die Länge* 'length' and *die Breite* 'width'.

- b) **Characteristic suffixes:** Nouns ending in the suffixes *-heit*, *-keit*, *-schaft*, and *-ung* are always **feminine**: *die Schönheit* 'beauty' (from *schön* 'beautiful'), *die Wichtigkeit* 'importance' (from *wichtig* 'important'), *die Freundschaft* 'friendship', *die Hoffnung* 'hope' (from the verb *hoffen* 'hope').

All nouns ending in the suffixes *-chen* and *-lein* are **neuter**; the two suffixes suggest smallness: *das Häuschen* 'small house', *das Kindlein* 'little child'.

- §5 Just as in English, German nouns generally have both **singular** and **plural** forms.
Plurals English noun plurals usually end in '-s':

tables parties cats houses

(Note that the sound represented by the written 's' may vary, and that spelling changes can be complicated!)

But there are also many nouns whose plurals do not end in '-s':

mice women oxen children feet

Some nouns do not even show distinctive plural forms:

sheep fish moose a ten-foot pole

And some nouns have no plural forms at all:

evidence milk inflation darkness

Long ago German nouns could be identified by groups, and plural forms were reasonably predictable. Today, however, it is very difficult to guess what a noun's plural form might be.

<u>SINGULAR</u>	<u>PLURAL</u>
Mann	Männer
Flasche	Flaschen
Wurst	Würste
Engländer	Engländer
Ticket	Tickets
Kanadierin	Kanadierinnen

Because of the variety of plural forms, the plural of each noun **must** be learned along with the singular.

- §6 There are several common patterns of plural formation in German.

- **Feminine nouns ending in -e add -n:** *die Fahrkarte, die Fahrkarten; die Schule, die Schulen* 'school, schools'.
- **-er nouns of nationality or profession have no additional ending:** *der Engländer, die Engländer* 'Englishman, Englishmen', *der Bäcker, die Bäcker* 'baker, bakers'.
- **The feminine -in nouns of nationality or profession add -nen:** *die Amerikanerin, die Amerikanerinnen, die Autorin, die Autorinnen*.
- **Nouns with the feminine suffixes -heit, -keit, and -ung add -en:** *die Schönheiten* 'beauties', *die Möglichkeiten* 'possibilities', *die Hoffnungen* 'hopes'.
- **Some German noun plurals end in -s. They are usually words borrowed from other languages, such as English or French:**

die Hobbys die Hotels die Autos

- **Masculine and neuter nouns that end in -el, -en, -er, -chen, and -lein have no additional plural ending:**

<i>der/die Schlüssel</i>	<i>key/keys</i>
<i>der/die Wagen</i>	<i>car/cars</i>
<i>der/die Arbeiter</i>	<i>worker/workers</i>
<i>das/die Hündchen</i>	<i>puppy/puppies</i>
<i>das/die Häuslein</i>	<i>cottage/cottages</i>

NOTE: The genitive is commonly used to express **indefinite past and future time**, time about which the speaker is not certain. The most common such expression is *eines Tages* 'one day', a staple of storytelling or planning:

Eines Tages wurde der König aber krank und ließ seine drei Söhne zu sich kommen.
But one day the king became sick and bade his three sons come to him.

Wir müssen unbedingt eines Tages zusammen Kafee trinken!
We'll just have to get together for coffee sometime!

§11 **Compound nouns** are formed from two or more nouns, or from nouns and other parts of speech such as adjectives or verbs. The last element of a compound noun is always a noun, and this noun always determines the gender of the compound:

noun + noun:	der Sport	+ <u>das</u> Fest	<u>das</u> Sportfest
	die Kartoffel	+ <u>der</u> Salat	<u>der</u> Kartoffelsalat
verb + noun:	fahren	+ <u>die</u> Karte	<u>die</u> Fahrkarte
	sprechen	+ <u>die</u> Stunde	<u>die</u> Sprechstunde (office hours)
adjective + noun:	weiß	+ <u>der</u> Wein	<u>der</u> Weißwein
	groß	+ <u>die</u> Mutter	<u>die</u> Großmutter
verb + 2 nouns:	braten + die Wurst	+ <u>der</u> Stand	<u>der</u> Bratwurststand

§12 A very few singular nouns add an *-n* or *-en* in the accusative, dative, and genitive cases:

Irregular nouns	NOMINATIVE	but	ACCUSATIVE, DATIVE, GENITIVE
	Herr		Herrn
	Student		Studenten
	Soldat		Soldaten
	Junge		Jungen
	Mensch		Menschen

§13 (See **Adjectives §16**) One of the nouns in §12, *der Junge* 'boy', is really a noun formed from an adjective (*jung* 'young', hence 'the young one'). This is a very common principle of word formation in German, and extends to neuter nouns as well as masculines and feminines:

der Deutsche	<i>the German (man)</i>	der Alte	<i>the old man</i>
die Deutsche	<i>the German (woman)</i>	die Alte	<i>the old woman</i>
die Deutschen	<i>the Germans</i>	das Alte	<i>that which is old; old stuff</i>

Because these words are nouns, they are all capitalized, and because they are also adjectives, they have the appropriate endings:

ein Bekannter von mir	<i>an acquaintance of mine</i> (masculine nominative singular)
ich habe einen Bekannten in . . .	<i>I have an acquaintance in . . .</i> (masculine accusative singular)
Das sind unsere Verwandten.	<i>Those are our relatives.</i> (nominative plural)

§14 With few exceptions, all nouns in the **dative plural** end in *-n*. If no *-n* is present in the normal plural form, one must be added. The addition of the *-n* causes no changes in the rest of the noun. Looking at the group of six nouns in §5, we see that *Flaschen* and *Kanadierinnen* already end in *-n*. Therefore, no additional *-n* is necessary in the dative plural. But the other four nouns do not end in *-n*. Three of the plurals seen in context are

die Männer	mit den Männern
die Würste	mit den Würsten
die Engländer	mit den Engländern

Das Ticket / die Tickets presents a special case. Those nouns that have plurals ending in -s do not add an -n in the dative plural. Typically, these words are of foreign origin, usually English or French. The most common ones are

das Taxi	das Restaurant
das Radio	das Baby
das Hotel	die Kamera

In the dative plural: *mit den Taxis / Hotels / Babys*, etc.

- §15 The **accusative case** is used to express **definite time**. Common expressions of definite time — time about which the speaker is certain — are found in

Es hat einen Tag / zwei lange Tage gedauert.
Wir spielen den ganzen Tag.
Wir bleiben eine Woche in Berlin.
Das dauert wenigstens eine Stunde.

- §16 **Infinitives** (See **Verbs §1**) may function as nouns. When they do, they are always neuter nouns and are capitalized. They have the meaning ‘the act of ___-ing’.

Das Schwimmen macht mir immer Spaß.
I always like swimming.

The word for ‘food’, *das Essen*, is formed in this way, and no longer means just ‘the act of eating’.

Infinitival nouns are often used as the object of the preposition *bei* in a phrase meaning ‘in the act of ___-ing’. *Bei* then combines with *dem*, the neuter dative definite article, as *beim*:

Beim Bergsteigen kann er nicht so gut atmen.
He can't breathe very well when he's mountain climbing.
Beim Aufwachen ist sie immer müde.
She's always tired when she wakes up.

Colloquial German even makes prepositional phrases into nouns:

ins Bett gehen > das Insbettgehen
Vor dem Insbettgehen trinkt er eine Tasse Tee.
He drinks a cup of tea before going to bed.

PRONOUNS

§1 Pronouns refer to something or someone that has already been mentioned.

*Where's Margaret? Margaret's in town.
What's Margaret doing there? Margaret's buying Margaret some clothes.
Well, Margaret's mother is looking for Margaret.*

Obviously, this conversation sounds more natural if pronouns such as she, herself, and her substitute for the name Margaret. Similarly, the statement 'She's in town' makes no sense unless the listener knows who 'she' is.

§2 Pronouns can replace entire noun phrases:

*What ever happened to
that nice young **man** who used to come over to mow your lawn?*

He moved to Tennessee.

§3 There are several kinds of pronouns:

Kinds of pronouns	DEMONSTRATIVE pronouns	§4
	PERSONAL pronouns	§5
	POSSESSIVE pronouns	§9
	RELATIVE pronouns	§15
	INDEFINITE pronouns	§16
	INTERROGATIVE pronouns	§20
	REFLEXIVE pronouns	§22

§4 **Demonstrative** pronouns have the same forms as the definite article (*der, die, das*) in all cases except the genitive singular and the dative plural, where they are identical to the **relative** pronouns (See **Pronouns §15**). **Demonstrative** pronouns point to things or people, demonstrating (often visually) what or whom the speaker is referring to.

The "all-purpose" demonstrative pronoun *das* can be used to point to tangible objects or to something abstract:

Das ist mein Vater. **Das** ist eine gute Idee.

The object of reference can be either singular (as in these two examples) or plural:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
Das ist Luise.	Das <u>sind</u> Ueli und Luise.
Das <u>ist</u> Rotwein.	Das <u>sind</u> gute Menschen.

When demonstrative pronouns refer to **people**, the context is usually quite casual:

Franz kommt morgen. Franz? Ach, gut — **der** ist wirklich nett.
... *He's a great guy.*

When a difference must be made between something near and something far, a contrast between *dies* 'this' and *das* 'that' is common:

Dies ist meine Wurst, und das ist Ihre Wurst.

§5 **Personal** pronouns are found in first, second, and third person, both singular and plural:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERSON	ich	wir
SECOND PERSON	Sie	Sie
THIRD PERSON	er / sie / es	sie

Personal pronouns are used to refer to nouns when no special emphasis is called for:

Wann beginnt denn die Oper? **Sie** beginnt schon um 7.
Ich glaube, Manfred studiert Philosophie. Ja, ich weiß. **Er** ist sehr klug.

- §6 Be sure to consider **perspective** when you use personal pronouns. That is, consider who is speaking or being spoken about:

Ich glaube, **ich** gehe nach Hause. **ich** bin furchtbar müde.
Wie, bitte? **Sie** gehen schon? Aber es ist noch früh!

Arthur und ich fahren nach Rom. **Wir** bleiben eine Woche dort.
So? Sie und Arthur? und was machen **Sie** denn in Rom?

Ich habe eine gute Idee: Sie kommen um 5 und bleiben bis 6.
Ich komme um 6, und dann gehen **wir** zusammen ins Kino.

Gut. Also ich komme um 5 und bleibe bis 6.
Sie kommen um 6 — das ist eine gute Idee — und dann gehen **wir**. Prima!

- §7 Many **accusative** forms of the personal pronouns are identical to the nominative forms:

Accusative	SINGULAR		PLURAL
	FIRST PERSON	mich	uns
SECOND PERSON	Sie	Sie	
THIRD PERSON	ihn / sie / es	sie	

- §8 **Dative** personal pronouns:

Dative	SINGULAR		PLURAL
	FIRST PERSON	mir	uns
SECOND PERSON	Ihnen	Ihnen	
THIRD PERSON	ihm / ihr / ihm	ihnen	

- §9 **Possessive pronouns** exist in first, second, and third person forms in the singular and the plural. They establish the relationship between someone and something “possessed” or “owned” by that person:

EXAMPLE	“OWNER”	THING “OWNED”
<i>my cows</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>cows</i>
<i>your father</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>father</i>
<i>her dark eyes</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>eyes</i>
<i>their semester grades</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>grades</i>

Here the relationships are between

I and *my* *you* and *your* *she* and *her* *they* and *their*.

In German the relationships are

	SINGULAR		PLURAL		
	<i>pronoun</i>	<i>possessive</i>	<i>pronoun</i>	<i>possessive</i>	
FIRST PERSON	ich		mein	wir	unser
SECOND PERSON	Sie		Ihr	Sie	Ihr
THIRD PERSON		er	sein		
		sie	ihr	sie	ihr
		es	sein		

- §10 The possessive pronouns, which derive from pronoun forms, are often called possessive adjectives. This is so because they are base forms, to which **endings** may be added to indicate the gender, number, and case of the following noun:

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
Ihr Paß	meine Fahrkarte	Ihr Gepäck	Ihre Tickets

The endings for all possessive adjectives are the same as those for *ein-* and *kein-*, and for this reason many German grammars refer to this entire group of words as the *ein-words*.

	EIN / KEIN				POSS. ADJS. (EX.: IHR='HER')			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Pl.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Pl.
NOMINATIVE	ein	eine	ein	keine	ihr	ihre	ihr	ihre
GENITIVE	eines	einer	eines	keiner	ihres	ihrer	ihres	ihrer
DATIVE	einem	einer	einem	keinen	ihrem	ihrer	ihrem	ihren
ACCUSATIVE	einen	eine	ein	keine	ihren	ihre	ihr	ihre

§11 The forms of *du*, the second person familiar pronoun, are similar to those of *ich*.

NOMINATIVE	<u>ich</u>	<u>du</u>
DATIVE	mir	dir
ACCUSATIVE	mich	dich
POSSESSIVE PRONOUN	mein-	dein-

§12 The plural of *du* is *ihr*, 'my (two or more) good friends'. *ihr*, like the other personal pronouns, appears in various forms according to its function in the sentence:

NOMINATIVE	<u>ihr</u>
DATIVE	euch
ACCUSATIVE	euch
POSSESSIVE PRONOUN	euer-

NOTE: When endings are added to *euer-*, the stem reduces to *eur-*:

Das ist **euer**_ Zimmer BUT: mit **eurem** Vater für **eure** Freunde

§13 SUMMARY: paradigms of personal pronouns, singular & plural

Summary

FIRST PERSON

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
NOMINATIVE	ich	wir
GENITIVE	mein-	unser-
DATIVE	mir	uns
ACCUSATIVE	mich	uns

SECOND PERSON

	familiar		polite	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
NOMINATIVE	du	ihr	Sie	Sie
GENITIVE	dein-	eur-	Ihr-	Ihr-
DATIVE	dir	euch	Ihnen	Ihnen
ACCUSATIVE	dich	euch	Sie	Sie

THIRD PERSON

	singular			plurals	
	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	(ALL)	
NOMINATIVE	er	sie	es	sie	
GENITIVE	sein-	ihr-	sein-	ihr-	
DATIVE	ihm	ihr	ihm	ihnen	
ACCUSATIVE	ihn	sie	es	sie	

§14 Like nouns, pronouns can be combined with prepositions, and personal pronouns are no exception. Typical short phrases using dative and accusative prepositions are

DATIVE	ACCUSATIVE
mit uns	für mich
bei ihr	ohne ihn
von ihm	gegen uns
zu Ihnen	durch sie

Combinations of this sort are common when the pronouns refer to people.

When the pronouns refer to objects, they occur as the form *da-* in combination with the preposition, with *da-* being the equivalent of English 'it' or 'that'.

damit	with it	dafür	for it, for that
dabei	along with that	dadurch	through that, thereby
danach	after that	dagegen	against that
davon	from that		

All prepositions are combined with *da-* without showing case.

If the preposition begins with a vowel, the first part of the *da-* construction becomes *dar-*:

daraus	darum	darin	daran	darüber
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§15
Relative

Relative pronouns are pronouns that refer to a person or thing already mentioned. Their equivalents in English are 'who', 'whom', 'that', and 'which'. As in English, they come after the words they refer to (their antecedents) and stand at the beginning of a relative clause.

ANTECEDENT	RELATIVE PRONOUN
<i>The fellow who wore the hat is my brother.</i>	
	RELATIVE CLAUSE

FORM: Relative pronouns have the same forms as the demonstrative pronoun:

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
NOMINATIVE	der	die	das	die
GENITIVE	dessen	deren	dessen	deren
DATIVE	dem	der	dem	denen
ACCUSATIVE	den	die	das	die

USAGE: Relative pronouns establish a direct link between their antecedents and the additional information supplied in their clause, and must occur in the same number and gender as their antecedents. The case in which relative pronouns occur is determined by their usage within the relative clause. The case of the antecedent is irrelevant to the case of the relative pronoun. Because relative clauses are also subordinate clauses, the finite verb is placed at the end of the clause.

nominative Das war der Junge, der immer so schön singt.

The relative pronoun is masculine and singular because *Junge* is masculine and singular; it is nominative because it is the subject of *singt*, the verb in its own clause.

genitive Die Frau, deren Hand meine Katze gebissen hat, heißt Marx.

The pronoun is feminine and singular because *Frau* is feminine and singular; it is genitive because of possessive relationship between *Frau* and *Hand*.

dative Wo ist denn das Kind, dem ich die DM 20 gegeben habe?

The pronoun is neuter and singular because *Kind* is neuter and singular; it is dative because it is the indirect object in its own clause: I gave the money to the child.

accusative Der Berg, den du siehst, heißt die Zugspitze.

The pronoun is masculine and singular because *Berg* is masculine and singular; it is accusative because it is the direct object of *du siehst*.

NOTE: English often omits relative pronouns:

The man [] I saw *The child [] I gave the money to*

but relative pronouns must be used in all relative clauses in German.

§16
Indefinite

All the pronouns you have seen so far are **definite** ones. They refer to real people or things. There are a number of **indefinite pronouns** that do not refer to anyone or anything specific: *man*, *jemand*, *niemand*, *nichts*, *etwas*, and *alles*.

- §17 The most important of these pronouns is **man**, the equivalent of ‘one, people, they, you’ in English. If speakers of North American English used the word ‘one’ as a pronoun very often, the correspondence would be clear. But we have a variety of colorful ways of avoiding ‘one’ on this side of the Atlantic Ocean.

People aren't as nice as they used to be.

They say it's going to rain tomorrow.

You just can't get a good cigar anymore.

All of these homespun expressions have equivalents using *man* in German. But this pronoun is by no means confined to casual conversation down at the courthouse square. *Man*, which is derived from *der Mann*, refers to any person of either sex, and is always accompanied by a third person singular verb:

Man muß nicht lange auf die Straßenbahn warten.

Man is used in generalizations and never refers to someone specific. Often a sentence with *man* replaces one in which the passive voice or an infinitive phrase is used:

Das wird leicht gemacht.

That's easily done.

Das ist leicht zu machen.

That's easy to do.

Das kann man leicht machen.

You can do that easily.

Das macht man leicht.

You do that easily.

Man is often used prescriptively:

So etwas tut man einfach nicht!

You just don't do something like that!

Man nimmt die Gabel in die linke Hand.

You take your fork in your left hand.

- §18 **Jemand** and **niemand** contain the word *man*, and both also refer to people. *Jemand* is simply ‘someone or other’ — the identification of a single human being, rather than ‘they, people’, as the source of the action. Both pronouns, like *man*, are used with third person singular verb forms.

Jemand hat das Fenster aufgemacht.

Someone opened the window.

(It wasn't the wind.)

Niemand is the opposite of *jemand*, ‘nobody, no one in particular’:

Niemand hat das Fenster aufgemacht. Das war der Wind.

- §19 **Nichts**, **etwas**, and **alles** all refer to things: ‘Nothing’, ‘something’, and ‘everything’. Again, the accompanying verb is in the third person singular.

Nichts ist so gut wie italienisches Eis.

Möchten Sie etwas essen? Nein, danke. Ich habe Eis gegessen.

Wo ist denn das italienische Eis? Rainer hat alles gegessen!

When used as a pronoun, *etwas* can be defined by a following neuter adjectival noun, whose case is determined by the usage of the phrase within the entire sentence. Most frequently that adjectival noun has the nominative or accusative ending -es:

Was möchtest du trinken? Kaffee? Nein. Etwas Kaltes, bitte.

Mutti! Der Hansjürgen hat etwas Dummes gesagt!

Etwas is also an adverb meaning ‘somewhat’.

Heute ist es etwas kalt, nicht? Ja, etwas kälter als gestern.

Like *etwas*, **nichts** is often followed by an adjectival noun:

Was hat denn der Arzt gesagt? Nichts Gutes. Tut mir leid.

Alles is often found in the phrase *Alles Gute!* — ‘Best wishes’, literally ‘I wish you everything that is good’.

§20 Interrogative **Interrogative pronouns**, as their name suggests, are used to ask questions. They may refer to people ('Who?' 'Whom?' 'Whose?') or to things ('What?'). The interrogative pronouns do not show gender, and are both singular and plural.

	PEOPLE	THINGS
NOMINATIVE	wer	was
GENITIVE	wessen	see Pronouns §21
DATIVE	wem	see Pronouns §21
ACCUSATIVE	wen	was

All these forms are used in either direct or indirect questions. A direct question ends with a question mark; an indirect question is concealed within a statement or another question.

DIRECT: *Who are you?*

INDIRECT: *I don't know who you are.
Do you know who that is?*

Wer, the nominative form, is used when the interrogative is the subject of a question:

Wer ist das? Wer sind denn diese Leute?

Wessen, the genitive form, is the equivalent of English 'Whose?':

Wessen Mantel ist das? Ist das Heidis Mantel?

Wem shows that the identity of the recipient of an action is unknown:

SUBJECT (nominative)
Wem hat er denn das Geld gegeben?
RECIPIENT (dative)

Wen asks a question in which the direct object of the verb is an unknown person:

Wen hast du am Bahnhof gesehen? War das Hildegard?

§21 Both wem and wen, which are the equivalents of English 'whom', can be the objects of prepositions, just as English 'whom' can:

*Mit wem bist du eigentlich zum Zoo gegangen?
Für wen haben Sie denn in Köln gearbeitet?*

Colloquial English places the prepositions at the end of such questions:

Who(m) did you work for?

But standard German does not permit this. If there is a connection between preposition and interrogative pronoun, as there is in this English question, the two words must appear together. The English written standard requires the same form as the German:

For whom did you work?

Was, the neuter interrogative pronoun, does not have dative or genitive forms. Colloquial German allows speakers to say *Von was?* and *Mit was?*, using the accusative form as a dative. The standard language requires that the *was* be couched in a *wo-* construction, in which the *wo-* does not mean 'where':

*Womit spielst du denn? What are you playing with?
Weißt du, wovon er erzählte? Do you know what he was talking about?*

If the preposition begins with a vowel, the *wo-* becomes *wor-*: *woraus, woran*.

Older forms of English used the equivalent of *wo-* constructions in 'where-', still present in the word 'whereby' ('by what') and 'wherein' ('in what').

§22 Reflexive **Reflexive pronouns** refer back, or reflect back, on the subject of a sentence. By definition they cannot appear in either the nominative or the genitive case. The subject may be doing something on her own behalf, in which instance the reflexive pronoun appears in the dative case. If the subject does something to himself directly ('He bit himself'), the reflexive pronoun appears in the accusative case. (See the discussion of verbs used with reflexive pronouns in **Verbs §41ff.**)

Forms: The reflexive pronouns are identical in form to the personal pronouns with the exception of the second person polite (*Sie*) and the third person singular (*er, sie, es*) and plural (*sie*), where the pronoun is *sich* 'him-/her-/itself, themselves'.

Usage: The action in the sentence reflects back on the subject. Subject and object must be the same person.

reflexive:	Der Wolf beißt <u>sich</u> (himself) in den Fuß.
not reflexive:	Der Wolf beißt <u>ihn/sie</u> (someone else) in den Fuß.
reflexive:	Ich kaufe <u>mir</u> später einen neuen Pullover.
not reflexive:	Ich kaufe <u>ihm/ihr</u> später einen neuen Pullover.

NOTE: Many verbs have special meanings when they are used with reflexive pronouns. See **Verbs §41ff.**

Caution: *Selber* also means 'self'. It is not a reflexive pronoun, however, but rather an intensifier. It puts greater emphasis on a person already referred to:

	DIRECT OBJECT
Gib mir den Hammer. Ich mache <u>das selber</u> .	
	INTENSIFIER

ADJECTIVES & ADVERBS

§1 **Adjectives** and **adverbs** are descriptive words. **Adjectives** tell us more about nouns: how big they are, how colorful, important, tasty, obtuse, and so on. **Adverbs** give more information about verbs (how well someone sings, how high she flies, when they will arrive, where the party will be), about adjectives (they're unusually calm, incredibly rich), and even about other adverbs (he ran extremely fast).

§2 **Definite articles** In **Nouns §3** you read about *der*, *die*, and *das* as gender markers of nouns: *der*-nouns are masculine, *die*-nouns are feminine, and *das*-nouns are neuter. *Der*, *die*, and *das* are three of the forms of the definite article, the most important and useful adjective in German. 'Definite' means 'known, obvious, old information', 'the one we all know about'. There is an indefinite article in German as well, expressing 'new or unspecified information'. (See **Adjectives §8**). The German definite article *d-*, with all its forms, is an essential tool in the manipulation of the language. If the forms of *d-* are not handled with precision, then communication will be severely inhibited and some grave misunderstandings can occur. **LEARN THESE FORMS!**

§3 **Nominative** *Der*, *die*, and *das* identify masculine, feminine, and neuter nouns when used as the subject of a sentence:

Der Kartoffelsalat kostet DM 2,20.
Die Fahrkarte ist nicht zu teuer.
Das Zimmer hat keine Dusche.

When a noun is the **subject** of a sentence, it appears in what is called the **nominative case**. *Der Kartoffelsalat*, *die Fahrkarte*, and *das Zimmer* are all nominative forms. The subject directs the action of a sentence and fits the verb ending (See **Verbs §7**). Nouns that are not the subject of a sentence, but are identical with the subject, also appear in the nominative case:

SUBJECT NOUN		PREDICATE NOUN
Ihre <u>Mutter</u>	ist	<u>Universitätsprofessorin</u> .

When the definite article is used in the plural, all nouns — regardless of gender — that appear in the nominative case are identified by the article **die**:

der Paß: Bitte, wo sind die Pässe?
die Fahrkarte: Die Fahrkarten kosten DM 36,—.
das Hotel: Die Hotels in Frankfurt sind sehr elegant.

SUMMARY: definite articles in the nominative case

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
der	die	das	die

§4 **Accusative** German nouns may appear in four different grammatical cases, according to their sentence usage. For example, subject nouns or pronouns can act with the verb to have a direct effect on objects in the rest of the sentence, the predicate. These nouns in the predicate are **direct objects**, and almost without exception they appear in the **accusative case**.

SUBJECT		DIRECT OBJECT
Meine <u>Mutter</u>	kauft immer	<u>Schokolade</u> mit Nüssen.

When a noun has a nonsubject function in a sentence, the form of its definite article may change. Before feminine and neuter nouns in the **accusative** (direct object) case, the definite articles *die* and *das* do not change. Before masculine nouns, however, the definite article appears as **den** in the accusative.

Haben Sie den Kartoffelsalat?
Morgen kaufe ich **die** Fahrkarte nach Berlin.
Wir möchten **das** Zimmer für heute und morgen.

When the definite article is used in the accusative **plural**, it appears for all genders in the form **die**:

der Paß: Haben wir die Pässe?
die Fahrkarte: Heute kaufe ich die Fahrkarten.
das Hotel: Ich finde die Hotels in Salzburg sehr komfortabel.

SUMMARY: definite articles in the accusative case

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
<u>den</u>	die	das	die

NOTE: The accusative is used to express definite time. See **Nouns §15**.

§5 Dative Sometimes a noun or pronoun is neither the subject of a verb nor its object, but rather a beneficiary, or recipient, of the action in a sentence.

In the sentence

He bought the old horse some medicine.

the subject is 'He', the direct object is 'medicine', and the animal for which it was bought, 'the old horse', is different from the subject. 'The old horse' is the one for which the action is performed, and appears in the **indirect object** case, called the **dative**. By no means does this example mean that 'horse' is always in the dative case, or that 'medicine' must always be an accusative. This action took place at the veterinarian's office. If 'some medicine' is stricken from the sentence, the meaning changes entirely:

He bought the old horse.

Now 'He', the subject, acted directly on 'the old horse', the accusative object of the verb 'bought'. This action took place at the sale barn.

A person hearing or reading a noun that appears in the dative case can tell immediately what its function is by the form of the preceding article:

der Mann: Ich gebe **dem** Mann einen Reiseführer.
 die Frau: Wir kaufen **der** Frau zwei Pfund Äpfel.
 das Kind: Schenken wir **dem** Kind eine Modellbahn?

When the definite article precedes nouns in the dative plural, it has the form **den**, regardless of the gender of the noun:

Bringen Sie den Männern eine Flasche Wein, den Frauen je ein Liter Pils und den Kindern Kola oder Orangensaft.

The dative is not used just as an indirect object case. Many prepositions govern the dative case as well. (See **Prepositions §4ff.** and **§20ff.**)

Gehen Sie mit der Frau da.
 — Mit ihr?
 Ja, mit ihr. Nicht mit dem Mann. Er ist ein Idiot.
 — Gut, also mit ihr, nicht mit ihm.

SUMMARY: definite articles in the dative case

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
<u>dem</u>	der	dem	den

§6 Genitive Another set of forms of the definite article shows that a noun is in possession of something. That possession may be tangible, as in

the doctor's children

or it may be intangible, as in

the end of the day.

In these examples, the nouns that show possession — the doctor and the day — appear in the **genitive case**, also called the **possessive case** in English grammar. The definite articles that precede genitive nouns have characteristic forms:

der Arzt: Der Sohn **des** Arztes wohnt in Salzburg.
 die Tante: Die Kinder **der** Tante heißen Vetter.
 das Hotel: Die Zimmer **des** Hotels sind wunderschön.

For an explanation of the -(e)s ending on genitive nouns, see **Nouns §10**.

When the definite article appears in the genitive plural, all genders have the form **der**:

der Computer: Der Preis **der** Computer ist zu hoch.
 die Maus: Es ist unmöglich, eine **der** Mäuse zu fangen.
 das Problem: Das war nur der Anfang **der** Probleme.

SUMMARY: definite articles in the genitive case

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
des	der	des	der

NOTE: The genitive is used to express indefinite time. See **Nouns §10**.

§7 Definite articles in all cases, singular and plural

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
NOMINATIVE	der	die	das	die
GENITIVE	des	der	des	der
DATIVE	dem	der	dem	den
ACCUSATIVE	den	die	das	die

§8 Indefinite articles **Indefinite articles**, forms of *ein-*, precede nouns that introduce new information or describe any member of a category. They correspond to English 'a' or 'an', as opposed to the definite article 'the'. The paradigm of the indefinite article bears a strong resemblance to that of the definite article (§7):

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
NOMINATIVE	ein	eine	ein
GENITIVE	eines	einer	eines
DATIVE	einem	einer	einem
ACCUSATIVE	einen	eine	ein

Note that *ein-* has no ending in the masculine and neuter nominative or in the neuter accusative. Note also that, by definition, *ein* has no plural forms. Moreover, the absence of an article in the plural signals an indefinite plural. Plural endings do exist, however, for **kein**, the negative of *ein*:

	PLURAL
NOMINATIVE	keine
GENITIVE	keiner
DATIVE	keinen
ACCUSATIVE	keine

Kein has singular forms also, since it negates singular nouns as well as plural ones. These endings are the same as those for **ein**. As the negative of **ein**, **kein** has the meaning 'none, not any, -n't . . . any'.

§9 Sometimes **ein** and **kein** follow nouns that have been used in a previous clause. Here they are similar to 'one' and 'none' in English, and take on the function of pronouns.

Where did my pet turtles go? *Here's one!*
Do you have some money? *No, I don't have any.*

In these situations *ein* and *kein* add the endings that would be present if the nouns in question were there:

Wo sind meine Schildkröten? Hier ist eine [Schildkröte]!
 Haben Sie einen 10-Mark-Schein? Nein, ich habe keinen [Schein].

This principle applies even in those cases where *ein* and *kein* do not have endings themselves, in the masculine nominative and the neuter nominative and accusative. Here *ein* and *kein* borrow endings from the definite article, with *eines* shortened to *eins*:

MASCULINE NOMINATIVE: Wo ist ein Bleistift? Hier ist einer.
der Bleistift

das Auto

NEUTER ACCUSATIVE: Wer hat ein neues Auto? Ich habe eins.

Ein can also anticipate an understood noun in the German equivalent of 'one of . . .'. Here, too, *ein* borrows endings from the definite article if they are not already part of the *ein* declension. The 'of' phrase is rendered either by *von* and the dative or by the genitive:

anticipates der Freund
 Wer ist das? Das ist einer von meinen Freunden.
 Das ist einer meiner Freunde.
 genitive plural

anticipates die Freundin
 Das ist eine von meinen Freundinnen.
 Das ist eine meiner Freundinnen.
 genitive plural

- §10 Definite and indefinite articles always come before the nouns they modify. Other adjectives, however, may either precede or complement the nouns they modify — just as in English.

preceding: *the old gray mare*
 complementary: *the mare is old and gray*

When adjectives follow the nouns they modify, their form stays the same in German:

kalt: Das Wetter ist kalt.
 schön: Die Autos waren sehr schön.

But when adjectives precede the nouns they modify, they carry endings according to the function of the nouns in the sentence. When the adjectives stand alone in front of nouns, these endings correspond closely to the endings of the definite article. The examples show nominative forms:

MASCULINE:	<u>der</u> Wein	küh <u>ler</u> Wein
FEMININE:	<u>die</u> Milch	frische <u>e</u> Milch
NEUTER:	<u>das</u> Obst	gute <u>s</u> Obst
PLURAL:	<u>die</u> Kinder	liebe <u>n</u> Kinder

- §11 One of the adjectives preceding a noun must indicate the function of that noun in the sentence. When the adjective is a form of the definite article *d-*, that task has been performed. (*Der* before *Mann* shows, for example, that the following noun is masculine and nominative and singular.) When the adjective is a form of the indefinite article *ein-*, however, it fails in three instances to indicate the function of the following noun:

	MASCULINE	NEUTER
NOMINATIVE	ein	ein
ACCUSATIVE	ein	ein

In these situations the adjective following *ein* takes over and says something about the noun that follows according to the principle outlined in §10:

	MASCULINE	NEUTER
NOMINATIVE	ein alter Mann	ein altes Haus
ACCUSATIVE	ein alter Mann	ein altes Haus

- §12 In the feminine the adjective following *eine* also carries the *-e* ending:

NOMINATIVE	eine alte Frau
ACCUSATIVE	eine alte Frau

- §13 In all other situations the adjectives following variations of *ein-* and the other *ein-* words (*kein* and the possessive pronouns) have the ending *-en*. The full paradigm of endings for the **nominative, dative, and accusative** is

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
NOM	ein_ <u>alter</u> Mann	eine <u>alte</u> Frau	ein_ <u>liebes</u> Kind	meine <u>lieben</u> Kinder
DAT	einem <u>alten</u> Mann	einer <u>alten</u> Frau	einem <u>lieben</u> Kind	meinen <u>lieben</u> Kindern
ACC	einen <u>alten</u> Mann	eine <u>alte</u> Frau	ein_ <u>liebes</u> Kind	meine <u>lieben</u> Kinder

§14 In the **genitive** case the endings on adjectives following *ein-* words are all *-en*:

eines alten Mannes einer alten Frau eines lieben Kindes meiner lieben Kinder

§15 **SUMMARY: ENDINGS ON ADJECTIVES FOLLOWING EIN- WORDS**

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
NOMINATIVE	-er	-e	-es	-en
GENITIVE	-en	-en	-en	-en
DATIVE	-en	-en	-en	-en
ACCUSATIVE	-en	-e	-es	-en

§16 **Adjectives that follow the definite article** take endings that are either *-e* or *-en* in the nominative and accusative:

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
NOM.	der <u>alte</u> Mann	die <u>alte</u> Frau	das <u>alte</u> Auto	die <u>alten</u> Autos
ACC.	den <u>alten</u> Mann	die <u>alte</u> Frau	das <u>alte</u> Auto	die <u>alten</u> Autos

NOMINATIVE: -e Sind Sie der Nächste? Sind Sie die Nächste?
Montag ist der zehnte, Mittwoch der zwölfte.
Der andere Brief ist schwerer.
Die große Postkarte nach Kanada . . .

ACCUSATIVE: -en Für den zwölften haben wir noch Karten.
Geben Sie mir den ersten Brief.

PLURAL: -en Die beiden Briefe sind DM 4,60.
Für die beiden Pakete . . .

§17 **Genitive and Dative adjectives after the definite article** have an *-en* ending:

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
GEN.	des <u>alten</u> Mannes	der <u>alten</u> Frau	des <u>alten</u> Autos	der <u>alten</u> Autos
DAT.	dem <u>alten</u> Mann	der <u>alten</u> Frau	dem <u>alten</u> Auto	den <u>alten</u> Autos

Wir müssen schon am elften wegfahren.

. . . in der dritten Reihe

Die Fußgängerzone in der Hohen Straße . . .

§18 The adjectives *welch-* 'which' and *dies-* 'this' take endings that are identical to those of the definite article. The adjectives that follow them are declined according to the paradigms illustrated in §16 and §17.

Welcher Student war denn das?

— Ach, das war dieser junge Student aus den USA.

Wirklich? Was machen wir denn mit diesen amerikanischen Studenten?

— Welche meinen Sie denn? Die sind nicht alle so schlimm.

The same endings are used with *jed-* 'every' and *solch-* 'such'.

§19 Once an adjective ending pattern has been established in a phrase, the endings on all adjectives are the same:

ein böser alter Mann eine nette alte Frau ein liebes kleines Kind
mit einem großen, schweren, schwarzen Hammer

§20 An adjective may refer to a person without a following noun. In this case the adjective itself becomes a noun, and is capitalized. Except in the plural, the form of the definite article leaves no doubt about the gender of the person. The adjective maintains its proper ending.

der alte Mann der Alte die alte Frau die Alte die alten Leute die Alten

mit dem Alten 'with the old man'
mit der Alten 'with the old woman'

This is the origin of the word for 'boy', *der Junge*, literally 'the young male'.

Note the similarity to English adjectival nouns: the old, the just, and so on.

*The rain it raineth on the just
And also on the unjust fella.
But mostly on the just because
The unjust steals the just's umbrella.*

Reflecting on this crime, we also find neuter nouns made from adjectives:

das Böse = *evil, that which is evil, the evil thing, etc.*
das Gute = *the good, that which is good, the good thing, etc.*

Other common parallels are *das Positive*, *das Negative*, *das Interessante*.

- §21 Adjectival nouns showing national identity follow the principle established in §20. Although there are abundant examples of nouns of national origin such as *der Amerikaner*, *die Amerikanerin*, many such nouns are really formed from adjectives and thus must have adjective endings to reflect their gender and function within a sentence.

Identical to the pattern of *der Junge*, therefore, are *der Deutsche* and *die Deutsche*, with datives

mit dem Deutschen (masc.) mit der Deutschen (fem.),

accusatives

für den Deutschen (masc.) für die Deutsche (fem.),

and plurals

die Deutschen mit den Deutschen für die Deutschen.

- §22 Adjectives are frequently used to compare one thing to another, or to establish a hierarchy including "standard" quality, the **positive** form, "better" quality, the **comparative** form, and "best" quality, the **superlative** form.

- §23 **Positive** The **positive** form of an adjective is the form in which it appears in glossaries: *gut*, *alt*, *neurotisch*, *weitsichtig*, and so on.

NOTE: When endings are added to *hoch*, the stem becomes *hoh-*.

- §24 **Comparative** The **comparative** form of an adjective compares one thing to another, the equivalent of English adjectival forms ending in '-er' ('higher') or preceded by 'more' ('more interesting'). Of these two forms, German uses only the first: All adjectives form their comparative by adding *-er*.

<u>POSITIVE</u>	<u>COMPARATIVE</u>
schön	schöner
weit	weiter
interessant	interessanter

NOTE: Although many speakers of English use the superlative (best, highest, etc.) to compare two things, German must use the comparative.

- §25 An important variation in the comparative form is the umlauting of a stem vowel, especially in one-syllable adjectives:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE
alt	älter (note English <i>old</i> — <i>elder</i>)
warm	wärmer
kurz	kürzer

Hoch has a special comparative form: *höher*.

There are a few “irregular” comparative forms, the most notable of which is *besser*, from the positive *gut*. (Note English ‘good-better’.)

- §26 The comparative forms of adjectives are still adjectives, which may come after a noun:

Ich glaube, das Kotelett ist heute besser.

— or before it, in which case they must have appropriate adjective endings according to §§10-19:

Ich finde, der längere Mantel ist schöner.

These endings provide essential signals and are never abbreviated, even where redundancy seems likely with adjectives ending in *-er*:

	comparative suffix	
ein tapfererer Soldat		<i>a braver soldier</i>
	adjective ending	

- §27 Comparison can be carried out without the *-er* ending. If object A is better than object B, then object B is not as good as object A. The formula used to compare two things from the perspective of the lesser of the two is *so . . . wie*, the equivalent of English ‘as . . . as’:

Die Berge sind schön, aber das Meer ist schöner.

— Ja, ich finde die Berge auch nicht so schön wie das Meer.

- §28 Another way of stating the comparison in §26 would be from the perspective of the greater of the two. Here the word *als* is used after the word describing the greater:

Das Meer ist schöner als die Berge.

— Ja, ich finde das Meer auch schöner.

- §29 **Comparison strategy:** If for some reason you do not know a specific word you want to use in a comparison, think of an antonym and use another kind of comparative construction:

Die Berge in Wyoming sind . . . sind . . . [“*Hmm . . . ‘higher than’? How do you say ‘higher’, anyway? . . . aha —*”] Die Berge in Vermont sind nicht so hoch wie die Berge in Wyoming.

— So, in Wyoming sind die Berge also höher — sehr interessant.

- §30 Not all things that are compared differ to an equal degree. One thing may be marginally better than another, or better by far. The hierarchy of adverbs used to lend greater precision to the comparison is

<u>etwas</u> besser	<u>ein bißchen</u> besser
	<u>noch</u> besser
<u>viel</u> besser	<u>weit</u> besser

- §31 **Superlative** The **superlative** form of an adjective, ending in *-st* in German as it does in English, compares the accompanying noun to others and finds it superior to all the rest. The superlative is used when three or more unequal things are being compared.

Adjectives with stems ending in a *t-* or *s-* sound normally add an *-e-* before the *-st* ending: *interessantest-*. A conspicuous exception is the superlative of *groß*: *größt-*.

There are two environments for superlative forms: one before nouns and one after nouns. When a superlative adjective comes **after** the noun it modifies (“Alpine milk is the richest”) it is couched in the formula *am . . . -sten*:

Geranien sind schön, und Tulpen sind auch schön.
 — Ja, aber Rosen sind am schönsten.
 Konrad hat viel Geld, und Jürgens Vater ist Millionär. . .
 — aber Elisabeth ist am reichsten.

When the superlative adjective comes **before** the noun it modifies, it must have the appropriate adjective ending:

kleinst- Christina ist die kleinste Tänzerin in der Gruppe.
teuerst- Die teuersten Diamanten finde ich nicht schön.

This rule also applies when there is no apparent following noun, but one is strongly implied:

Die teuersten Diamanten sind auch die schönsten [Diamanten].
 Ja, Hunde sind gute Haustiere. Aber die besten [Haustiere] sind Fische.
 — Wie, bitte? Die besten Hunde sind Fische??
 — Nein, nein. Die besten Haustiere sind Fische.

§32 Adjectives that umlaut their stem vowels in the comparative do so as well in the superlative. Note the following common irregular comparative and superlative forms:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
gut	besser	best-
viel	mehr	meist-
nahe	näher	nä <u>ch</u> st-
hoch, hoh-	hö <u>h</u> er	hö <u>ch</u> st-
groß	grö <u>ß</u> er	grö <u>ß</u> t-

NOTES: 1. *Mehr* does not take adjective endings; *viel* takes endings only in the plural.
 2. *Nahe*: Compare archaic English 'nigh', 'nearer', 'next'. The 'next' place is literally the 'nearest' one.

§33 Adverbs It was stated in §1 that adverbs modify adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs. Adverbs generally do not have forms that are different from the forms of adjectives. In English, most adverbs have a characteristic suffix '-ly'. Whereas German does have an equivalent suffix *-lich*, it is used for both adjectives and adverbs (*möglich* 'possible', 'possibly'). English speakers sometimes have difficulty coming to terms with adverbs such as *gut*, whose equivalent, 'good', we learn as an adjective only: Her voice is good (adjective), but she sings well (adverb).

Adverbs answer the questions 'When?', 'Where?', 'How?', 'How far?', 'To what extent?', etc. That is, they tell time, location, direction, manner, extent, cause, and purpose. They may be one-word adverbs, such as *doch*, *immer*, *auch*, *heute*, or adverb phrases which combine adverbs with each other or with prepositional phrases.

CATEGORY	QUESTION WORD	ADVERB	PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE
TIME	wann	heute	vor der Klasse
LOCATION	wo	hier	vor dem Haus
DIRECTION	wohin	dorthin	in die Stadt
	woher	hierher	aus der Stadt
MANNER	wie	schnell	mit dem Auto
EXTENT	wie	sehr	durch die ganze Welt
CAUSE	womit	damit	mit einem Hammer
PURPOSE or REASON	warum	deshalb	wegen dem Wetter
	wozu		
	wieso		

- §34 Even if adverbs are several words long, their function in a sentence does not change. In this first sentence, both adverbs modify the verb *spielt*:

adverb tells when
Der Cellist spielt am 29. März im Auditorium Maximum.
adverb tells where

In der Stadthalle am linken Ufer des Rheins gibt es am Freitag ein tolles Konzert.
adverb tells where

- §35 Although there are no differences in form between the positive and comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs, the superlative form of adverbs exists only in the *am . . . -sten* framework described in §31.

Von allen Sängern singt Barbara weitaus am schönsten.

- §36 **Word order.** Adverbs of time are often placed first in a sentence.
Word order

Morgens ißt er ganz wenig.
In the mornings he eats very little.

Other kinds of adverbs show emphasis in first position — in English as in German.

Mit meinem Hund gehe ich im Stadtpark spazieren.
With my dog I go walking in the city park.

Often there is more than one adverb in a sentence, in which case the more or most important one comes first, with the verb following. Of course, the importance of an adverb is determined by the speaker, not by some abstract set of rules.

The rule of thumb “time—manner—place” is often cited for the order of adverbs in a German sentence.

Am Donnerstag gehe ich mit meinem Hund im Stadtpark spazieren.
when how where

But this assumes that no single adverbial element is emphasized over any other. All things being equal, this is an appropriate order, but in the real world of daily communication the “rule” is probably broken more often than it is obeyed. The principle of “most important first” is the one to remember.

- §37 Adverbs can be doubled, as in English, to lend greater precision to a statement. Obviously, ‘tonight’ does not say as much as ‘tonight at 8’. Generally the more general statement is made first, then the more specific:

Wir kommen morgen Abend um sieben Uhr.
general specific

Er findet uns im Park neben dem Rathaus. Ihr Koffer ist oben im zweiten Stock.
general specific general specific

- §38 The adverb *noch* has to do with time that has begun in the past and has continued into the present. It is an adverb that looks back, saying that a prior condition still exists.

Sind Sie noch hier? Ich dachte, Sie sind schon lange weg.
Are you still here? I thought you'd left long ago.

The combination of *noch* with *immer* as *noch immer* or *immer noch* provides special emphasis:

Ist er denn immer noch in Bonn? *Don't tell me he's still in Bonn!*

One **negative** of *noch* is **nicht mehr**, used to negate an entire idea. The condition that began in the past no longer exists.

Ja, also, er war heute hier — jetzt aber nicht mehr. Ich weiß nicht, wo er ist.
(IDEA: ist er noch hier?)

Another negative of *noch* is **kein- . . . mehr**. This phrase is used to negate nouns:

Entschuldigung. Haben Sie heute noch Zeit? Es tut mir leid, daß ich so spät komme.
— Nein, jetzt habe ich keine Zeit mehr. Warum waren Sie nicht früher hier?

- §39 In a sense the adverb **schon** is the opposite of *noch*, because *schon* often has to do with time that is beginning in the present and extending into the future. A question using *schon* asks whether an expected (future) condition already exists. Elaboration often contains the adverb *erst* 'just, not until'.

Sind Sie schon hier? Ich dachte, Sie kommen erst um 8 Uhr.
— Ja, ich weiß. Es ist jetzt erst 7 Uhr 30. Hoffentlich ist das nicht zu früh.

NOTE: In combination with other adverbs of time, *schon* points not forward, but back in time. The continuity with present time is still firmly established.

Sie wohnt schon lange (zwei Jahre, zehn Monate) in Köln.
She's been living in Cologne for a long time (two years, ten months) now.

The **negative** forms of *schon* parallel those of *noch* (§37). **Noch nicht** 'not yet' negates an entire idea:

Ist sie schon hier? Ach, ich hoffe es!
— Nein, sie ist noch nicht hier. Ich sage es Ihnen, wenn sie kommt.
(IDEA: ist sie hier?)

NOTE: *Noch nicht* is **not** the negative of *noch*!

Noch kein- negates nouns:

Haben Sie Ihren Brief schon?
— Nein, ich habe noch keine Post bekommen. (noun: Post)
Aber warum nicht?
— Nun, ich war noch nicht bei der Post. (idea: bei der Post sein)

- §40 The adverb **gern** shows that the action of a verb is gladly or willingly undertaken. By extension, it is used in sentences that tell what someone's interests or hobbies are. *Gern* also reinforces *möchte*.

Möchten Sie mit mir einkaufen gehen? — Ja, gern. Ich komme gern mit.
Ja, mein Franz spielt so gern mit seiner Modelleisenbahn. Schade!
— Warum schade? Es ist schön, daß Ihr Enkel gern spielt.
Aber Franz ist mein Mann! Er ist doch 87 Jahre alt!
— Nun, seien Sie nicht so. Ich möchte auch gern so lange leben.

Lieber, the comparative of *gern*, is used to show preference for one thing over another.

Tennis ist ein schöner Sport. Aber ich schwimme lieber.
Was möchten Sie lieber machen? Reiten oder im Gummiboot paddeln?
Ich glaube, ich möchte lieber paddeln. Es ist doch so furchtbar heiß.

Am liebsten is the superlative of *gern*, showing a preference for one thing over several others.

Ja, Hummel und Scarlatti höre ich sehr gern. Aber am liebsten höre ich Schostakowitsch.
So. Jetzt haben wir ein ganzes Wochenende. Was möchten Sie am liebsten machen?

- §41 The adverb **hin** shows motion away from the speaker. It often reinforces another directional adverb in the sentence, and is frequently a part of a separable verb prefix. Combining with *wo* it means 'Where to?'

Die ganze Familie ist 1880 nach Amerika hingezogen.
Zuerst wollten sie nach New York hin, aber dann kamen sie nach New Orleans.

Wo gehen Sie hin, bitte? or Wohin gehen Sie, bitte?
_____ *Where are you going?*

Hin can combine with prepositions to indicate a more precise direction:

Steigen Sie nur hinauf. *Go ahead and climb on up.*
Ach, mein Hut ist von der Turmspitze hinuntergefallen!
down away (from me)

§42 The adverb **her** is used to indicate motion toward the speaker. Combining with *wo* it means 'Where from?'

Kommen Sie bitte her!
Wo kommen Sie her, bitte? or Woher kommen Sie, bitte?
_____ *Where do you come from?*

In this function it is often combined with prepositions to indicate more precisely the direction taken.

Herein, bitte! Kommen Sie bitte herunter.
Please come in. Please come down here (toward me).

In spoken German, the difference between *hin* and *her* is frequently obscured, with a variant of *her* being used more often and simply with the meaning 'with motion'.

Und plötzlich ist der Bergsteiger in die Gletscherspalte heruntergefallen.
And suddenly the mountain climber fell down into the crevasse.
(The speaker would have to be down in the glacier for the strict her rule to apply.)

'Raus! *Get out of here!*

Understandably, the phrase *hin und her* means 'back and forth'.

§43 The adverbial suffix *-lang* attaches to noun plurals in order to indicate distance or duration of time.

der Tag, -e	tagelang
die Woche, -en	wochenlang
der Monat, -e	monatlang
das Jahr, -e	jahrelang
das Meter, -	meterlang
die Meile, -n	meilenlang

VERBS

- §1 Verbs appear in the glossary of this text in their **infinitive** forms, and consist of a verb stem plus an ending. The ending of the infinitive is either *-en* or *-n*:

STEM		ENDING	INFINITIVE
komm-	+	-en	kommen
wander-		-n	wandern

- §2 Verbs identify the **time** of the action in a sentence relative to the speaker's own time. This time can be in the past, the present, or the future. The **present** is the fine line between the **past** (extending from a second ago back into prehistory) and the **future** (extending from now into all time to come).

- §3 Verbs indicate time by signals in their structure. **Present** time is signaled by the stem vowels and their specific variants. **Past** time is revealed by special changes or additions to the verb stem. **Future** time is most often expressed by the present tense in German.

- §4 Most verbs show **present** time through their stems, with the stem vowel unchanged:

kommen: ich komme

- §5 Verbs also identify the **subject** of a sentence, or its **actor**. They do so by means of **endings** that conform to the subject. These endings match only the subject of the verb, never other elements in the sentence.

- §6 **Subjects** are identified by **person**. The person may be **first person**, or "I". (Remember this by considering that many people always think of themselves first.) If "I" is the first person, then "you" is the **second person**. "I" could be called the speaker and "you" the listener, the one whom "I" addresses directly. Everyone and everything else — that is, "he", "she", and "it" — is considered **third person**. If "I" is the speaker and "you" the listener, then the others are the ones talked about: those "over there", not included in our little circle.

Subjects are also identified by **number**. "I" is **singular** in number, since there's only one of me. If another individual is included, then the "I" becomes **plural**: "we".

In English the second person "you" can be either singular or plural, according to the number of people meant: "you, my friend" or "you, my friends". (The phrase "you all [y'all]" is a handy way of illustrating a second person plural form.)

The third person pronouns all have "they" as their plural form.

<u>SINGULAR</u>	<u>PLURAL</u>
<i>he</i>	
<i>she</i>	<i>they</i>
<i>it</i>	

- §7 This is the pattern of German pronouns used in Chapters 1-10, and of the **present tense verb endings** that show agreement with the subject:

	<u>SINGULAR</u>	<u>PLURAL</u>
FIRST PERSON	ich komm-e	wir komm-en
SECOND PERSON	Sie komm-en er komm-t	Sie komm-en
THIRD PERSON	sie komm- t es komm- t	sie komm-en

You must learn that the pronoun *ich* matches the verb ending *-e*, the pronoun *er* matches the verb ending *-t*, and so on. There is no such thing as *er kommen or *ich kommt; these are impossible forms.

Of course, these correspondences hold true for nouns as well: *Er kommt* could be *Karl kommt*, and *wir kommen* could be *Erika und ich kommen* (See **Pronouns §6**).

Verbs with stems ending in *-t*, *-d*, or certain groups of consonants add an *-e-* before the third person singular ending *-t*:

es findet sie arbeitet er öffnet

§8 The second person singular familiar pronoun **du** is always paired with the verb ending *-st*: *du kommst*, *du studierst*, *du bringst*. Just as *du* has a close relative in archaic English 'thou', the *-st* ending is historically the same as in older English forms 'thou hast', 'thou prearest', 'thou anointest'.

§9 The second person plural pronoun **ihr** is always paired with the verb ending *-t*: *ihr geht*, *ihr kommt*, *ihr fahrt* ab.

§10 The verb conjugation illustrated in §7 is the standard pattern for most present-tense verbs. The **present tense** is used to describe actions or situations in present time. It is also used to refer to time in the near future, especially when the sentence includes a future time expression:

Ich treffe Sie um 4 Uhr am Rathausplatz.
Wir fahren morgen abend mit dem Rheindampfer.

These two German sentences could be translated with the English present tense:

I'm meeting you at 4. . . . Tomorrow evening we're taking. . . .

But we also commonly use the helping verbs 'will' and 'going to' to show future time:

*I'll meet you . . . / I'm going to meet you . . .
We'll leave . . . / We're going to leave. . .*

§11 The patterns described in §10 are easily understood by speakers of English. But the German present tense can also refer to actions that began in the past and are continuing in the present. The preposition *seit* (with the dative case) is used to tell how long the action has been taking place:

Er wohnt seit März in Innsbruck.
He's been living / has lived in Innsbruck since March.
Ich spiele Poker schon seit 20 Jahren.
I've been playing / have played poker for 20 years.

This structure is used only if the action is continuing in the present. If it is not, then it belongs to the past, and a past tense must be used.

§12 A number of verbs change their stem vowels in the third person singular (*er/sie/es* form). Most of these verbs have the stem vowel *-e-*:

<u>INFINITIVE</u>	<u>3RD PERSON SINGULAR</u>
essen	er ißt
vergessen	er vergißt
sprechen	sie spricht
treffen	er trifft
nehmen	sie nimmt (irregular)
geben	es gibt
sehen	sie sieht (note: <u>ie</u> , not <u>i</u>)

A very few of these stem-changing verbs have the stem vowel *-a-*:

fahren sie fährt
tragen er trägt
schlafen sie schläft

German is not alone in changing the pronunciation of stem vowels in the third person singular. Note that the vowels in the English infinitives 'say' and 'do' differ from those in the third person forms 'he says' ('sez') and 'she does' ('duz').

- §13 Those verbs that change their stem vowel in the third person singular make the same change for the second person familiar (*du*) form as well. Because *du* is used, the verb ending is *-st*:

du ißt du sprichst du nimmst du fährst

Note that *ß + s = ß* in the *du* form of *essen*.

- §14 The verb **sein** 'to be' has forms unlike those in the standard pattern seen in §7. Its present tense paradigm is

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERSON	ich bin	wir sind
SECOND PERSON	Sie sind	Sie sind
THIRD PERSON	er/sie/es ist	sie sind

The function of *sein* is to join other sentence elements. This coupling, or linking function is like the equal sign in mathematics. Two things are seen to be related, or placed in the same light. This is also true of *werden* 'become' and *heißen* 'be called'.

Das ist mein Vater. Es ist Annemarie Wir sind Studenten.

If two things are to be seen as the same, then they also appear in the same grammatical case. Because *Das*, *Es*, and *Wir* are all the subjects in the examples above, and therefore appear in the nominative case, then *Vater*, *Annemarie*, and *Studenten* are also nominative. The phrase *mein Vater* shows clearly that *Vater* is a nominative form (See **Pronouns §10**).

- §15 Two other forms of *sein* are not included in the chart above. They are the second person familiar forms, matching the pronouns *du* and *ihr*:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
du <u>bist</u>	ihr <u>seid</u>
Du <u>bist</u> nicht mehr so jung.	<u>Seid ihr</u> schon wieder hungrig?

- §16 **Haben**, another high-frequency verb, also has irregular forms in the singular. The third person singular of *haben* is **hat**, not *habt*.

Sie möchte kommen, aber sie hat keine Fahrkarte.

- §17 Matching the third person form *hat* is the *du* form **hast**:

Wieviel Geld hast du denn heute? Genug für das Kino?

- §18 There are other important verbs whose present tense is "irregular", that is, whose conjugation does not fit the pattern in §7. These include *möchten*, the other modal verbs, and *wissen*. *Möchten* is used here to establish the pattern for these essential verbs:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERSON	ich möchte	wir möchten
SECOND PERSON	Sie möchten	Sie möchten
THIRD PERSON	er/sie/es möchte	sie möchten

Note that the third person singular form does not have the familiar *-t* ending. In this group of verbs, the *ich* form and the *er/sie/es* form are identical.

- §19 **Modals** The modal verbs are normally used in combination with the infinitive forms of other verbs. They impart a special tone to a statement or question, establishing a "mood" in which the action of the main verb is carried out.

Used by itself, **möchten** is the German equivalent of 'would like' in English:

Ich möchte eine Weißwurst, bitte.

But when *möchte* is combined with another verb, it means 'would like to':

Wir möchten in die Schweiz fahren.

Here *möchten*, the modal verb, agrees with the subject of the sentence, *wir*, but it is clear that the main action of the sentence has to do with traveling to Switzerland. *Möchten* imparts a special mood or tone to what is said.

§20 The other modal verbs and their special meanings are

KÖNNEN	<i>can, may, be able to</i>	(action is <u>possible</u>)
MÜSSEN	<i>must, have to, gotta</i>	(action is <u>physically necessary</u>)
SOLLEN	<i>supposed to</i>	(action is <u>morally necessary</u>)
WOLLEN	<i>want to</i>	(action is <u>very desirable</u>)
DÜRFEN	<i>may, be allowed to</i>	(action is <u>permissible</u>)

§21 Two major patterns apply to the use of the modal verbs:

1. Modals are followed by infinitives, and these infinitives appear at the end of the clause in which the modal appears. (This means that the infinitive normally comes at the end of a sentence.) Be careful not to conjugate the infinitive to agree with the subject of the sentence! Once you have conjugated one main verb (here the modal) to agree with the subject, further conjugation is downright wrong.

2. The infinitive appears by itself at the end of the sentence without any other word that might be thought to equal English 'to'. Note the difference between the two languages:

Wir **wollen** im Herbst nach Österreich fahren.
We **want to** go to Austria in the fall.

In addition to the verbs listed in §20, the common verbs *sehen*, *hören*, and *lassen* may function as modals, with complementary infinitives.

Endlich sehe ich ihn kommen. *I finally see him coming.*
Hörst du sie singen? *Do you hear her singing?*
Lassen Sie mich doch gehen! *Let me go!*

§22 **Können:** Action is possible. Someone 'is able to' do something.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	Ich <u>kann</u> kein Spanisch verstehen	Wir <u>können</u> Sie um 11 sehen.
2	Sie <u>können</u> mich später finden.	<u>Können</u> Sie es morgen kaufen?
3	Er/Sie <u>kann</u> es nicht sagen.	Sie <u>können</u> es schon vergessen.

§23 **Müssen:** Action is physically necessary. Someone 'has to' do something.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	Ich <u>muß</u> einfach mehr schlafen.	<u>Müssen</u> wir schon gehen?
2	Sie <u>müssen</u> hier bleiben!	<u>Müssen</u> Sie das wissen?
3	Er/Sie <u>muß</u> weiter arbeiten.	Sie <u>müssen</u> um 10 Uhr fliegen.

NOTE: The negative of *müssen* does not mean 'must not', but rather 'do(es) not have to'. (See Verbs §26)

Das müssen Sie nicht essen.
You don't have to eat that if you don't want).
(not *You mustn't eat that.*)

§24 **Sollen:** Action is morally necessary. One 'is obligated to' do something.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	Ich <u>soll</u> zu Hause bleiben.	Wir <u>sollen</u> immer nett sein.
2	Sie <u>sollen</u> keine Angst haben.	Sie <u>sollen</u> Ihre Eltern fragen.
3	Er/Sie <u>soll</u> das wissen.	<u>Sollen</u> sie immer ruhig bleiben?

Sollen is also used in the sense 'is said to be':

Innsbruck soll sehr schön sein.
Innsbruck is said to be very beautiful.
People say that Innsbruck is very beautiful.

§25 **Wollen:** Action is desirable. Someone 'wants to' do something.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	Ich <u>will</u> keinen Fisch essen!	Wir <u>wollen</u> immer studieren.
2	<u>Wollen</u> Sie mehr Wein?	Sie <u>wollen</u> ein Pils, ja?
3	Er/Sie <u>will</u> eine Wurst haben.	<u>Wollen</u> sie einen Zwanziger?

NOTE: *Wollen* does **not** mean 'will'. The two words have the same origin, but vastly different meanings today. Remember that 'I will go tomorrow' is simply *Ich gehe morgen*.

§26 **Dürfen**: Action is permissible. Someone 'is allowed' do something.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	<u>Darf</u> ich hier Platz nehmen?	Wir <u>dürfen</u> nicht mitkommen. Schade.
2	Ja, das <u>dürfen</u> Sie machen	Natürlich <u>dürfen</u> Sie ein Taxi nehmen.
3	Er/Sie <u>darf</u> nicht gehen	<u>Dürfen</u> sie alle zum Zoo kommen?

NOTE: In the word 'dare', English retains the old meaning commonly expressed by its close relative *dürfen*:

Dare I mention the credit card bill?
We dare not say anything to Mother.

NOTE: The negative of *dürfen* means 'must not':

Das dürfen Sie nicht essen! *You mustn't eat that!*

§27 The last of these unusual, but very common, verbs is **wissen**:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	Das <u>weiß</u> ich nicht mehr	Danke, wir <u>wissen</u> es schon.
2	<u>Wissen</u> Sie die Adresse?	Sie <u>wissen</u> seinen Namen, ja?
3	Er/Sie <u>weiß</u> , wo ich wohne	<u>Wissen</u> sie, wieviel das kostet?

Wissen is used to indicate knowledge of something as a fact. It is not used in the sense of 'know a person'. The verb *kennen* is used for that:

Ich weiß seinen Namen. *I know that fact.*
Aber ich kenne ihn nicht gut. *I don't know him well.*

§28 The second person singular familiar (**du**) forms of the modals and *wissen* add an *-st* to the singular stem:

INFINITIVE	SINGULAR STEM	DU FORM
möchten	möchte	möchtest
können	kann	kannst
müssen	muß	mußt (note spelling)
sollen	soll	sollst
wollen	will	willst
dürfen	darf	darfst
wissen	weiß	weißt (note spelling)

§29 The second person plural familiar (**ihr**) forms of these verbs add *-(e)t* to the plural stem:

INFINITIVE	PLURAL STEM	IHR FORM
möchten	möcht-	möchtet
können	könn-	könnt
müssen	müss-	müßt
sollen	soll-	sollt
wollen	woll-	wollt
dürfen	dürf-	dürft
wissen	wiss-	wißt

§30 **Prefixes** Many verbs change their meaning by adding prefixes to the infinitive. These changes can be very subtle, and they can also be quite dramatic.

She looked over the contract.
She overlooked the fine print.

Some of the prefixes are found connected to the verbs in their infinitive forms, but unconnected to the verbs when they are used in the normal process of description in present tense. These prefixes are called **separable prefixes**.

Other prefixes remain attached to the verbs in all forms. These are called **inseparable prefixes**.

English has a number of verb prefixes as well. Notice how the meaning of the verb 'pass' changes when the preposition 'by-' is added as a prefix, or how 'construct' is changed by the prefix 're-'. In these examples, 'by' is something like a separable prefix in that it is often used in its own right; some other English examples are 'out-', 'with-', 'over-', and 'under-'. On the other hand, 're-' acts as an inseparable prefix because it cannot stand alone as an independent word. Other prefixes of this sort in English are 'inter-', 'de-', 'dis-', 'ab-', and 'pre-'.

§31 Most **separable prefixes** are taken from the inventory of prepositions found in **Prepositions §4, §13, and §20**. Sometimes they change the meaning of verbs in very predictable ways, as in the case of *ausgehen*, *durchgehen*, and *untergehen*:

aus	<i>out</i>	+ gehen	gehen	ausgehen	<i>go out, exit</i>
durch	<i>through</i>	+ gehen	gehen	durchgehen	<i>go through</i>
unter	<i>under</i>	+ gehen	gehen	untergehen	<i>go down (the sun), decline (the Roman Empire)</i>

In other instances the meaning of the separable prefix verb cannot necessarily be guessed by knowing the meaning of the individual elements, for many words have figurative as well as literal meanings. For example, the combination of *an* 'on, at' and *nehmen* 'take' produces *annehmen* 'take on, accept, assume' — but from the literal meaning of a 'taking on', as in

He assumed his new duties as division chief.

we also derive a figurative meaning:

He assumed his new duties would be easy.

And in the case of some separable prefix verbs, all we can do is scratch our heads and wonder how they came to have their current meanings — although there are usually perfectly good historical reasons. A case in point is the combination of the prefix *auf* 'up, on' with the verb *hören* 'hear, listen': *Aufhören* means 'stop'. Clearly you must learn the special meaning of each new prefixed verb, for the whole is sometimes quite different from its parts.

Word order: In normal use in the present tense, the separable prefix appears not in combination with the verb, but at the very end of the clause. If the infinitive is called for — at the end of a clause after a modal verb, for example — the prefix attaches to it. Separated or attached, the prefix is thus in final position. Example — *einkaufen* 'go shopping':

end of clause

Kaufen Sie später ein, oder kommen Sie jetzt mit?
 Ich kaufe heute Nachmittag ein.
 Ich möchte später einkaufen.

For an account of separable prefix verbs in infinitive phrases, see **Verbs §39**.

§32 **Inseparable verb prefixes** are just that: They never separate from their verbs. Also, only rarely can a meaning be associated with an inseparable prefix. This means that the inseparable verbs created by the addition of the prefix must simply be memorized as individual vocabulary items without regard to the larger word family to which they belong historically. Examples of this sort of unpredictability are

kommen	<i>come</i>	bekommen	<i>get, receive</i>	entkommen	<i>escape</i>
hören	<i>hear</i>	gehören	<i>belong</i>	verhören	<i>interrogate</i>

In at least one common pair the inseparable verb means the opposite of its base form:

kaufen	<i>buy</i>	verkaufen	<i>sell</i>
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Again, the inseparable prefix remains with the verb at all times:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	ich verkaufe	wir verkaufen
2	Sie verkaufen	Sie verkaufen
3	er/sie verkauft	sie verkaufen

§33 One relatively small group of prefixed verbs contains verbs with prefixes that look separable (i.e., are identical to a few prepositions), but may or may not be, according to the meaning of the verb. Understandably, these verbs can be confusing, since their written form gives no hint about the nature of their prefixes.

For example, übersetzen and übersetzen are two verbs with the same written form, but different meanings. The first, which the underlining shows to be accented on the verb stem, is the more common of the two and means 'translate'. It is an inseparable verb.

Sie übersetzt nicht gern. Sie liest einfach lieber.

The second, which is accented on the prefix, is separable. It means 'set over'.

Sie setzt ihren Koffer auf den Gepäckkarren über.

In verb pairs of this sort, the pronunciation of the verbs gives the clue to their meaning and usage. If the prefix is stressed, then the verb has the more literal or physical meaning (here literally 'set across' or 'transfer') and is separable. If the verb stem is stressed, then the verb has a figurative or nonphysical meaning (here 'set across from one language into another') and is inseparable. Dictionaries use conventional means of differentiating the two kinds of verbs, usually with a mark before the stressed syllable: übersetzen 'translate' vs. 'übersetzen 'set across'.

§34 **Verb complements** are words or phrases that complete an idea begun by a verb. In their simplest form, they are single words:

Jetzt ist Hannelore wieder gesund.

Here the meaning of the sentence is unclear until the last word. The sense of the statement could be changed completely with the substitution of *krank*, *hier*, or *müde*. The single word could also be changed to *in Stuttgart*, *auf einer Reise*, or *böse auf ihren Mann*, and in each instance the impact of the sentence hinges on the last phrase.

Note that the verb complement appears at the end of the sentence. In subordinate clauses (after subordinating conjunctions such as *wenn*) the verb complement appears near the end, just before the verb:

Es macht ihm immer eine große Freude, wenn er im Café sitzt.

§35 In many instances the **verb complement** is a **prepositional phrase**, introduced by a preposition that combines with the verb to create a special meaning. Using the English verb work, we can construct sentences of very different meanings using the different phrases work with, work at, work under. In addition, we can work under pressure and work under a supervisor, and even work under cover or under an assumed name or under a tent — all with different meanings that cannot be anticipated or perceived when we hear merely the word work.

These combinations of verbs and prepositions contribute much to our flexibility as speakers and writers of English. We wait for things, speak about them, and are interested in them. In German, as in English, the preposition that combines with the verb is important in determining the meaning of the whole sentence. However, because German prepositions are used with specific cases (See **Prepositions §4, §13, §20**), these cases must be kept in mind in constructing the prepositional phrase that completes the idea begun by the verb. Of course, those prepositions that are always used with specific cases continue to govern those cases only.

<u>von</u>	dative	Sie spricht immer <u>von</u> ihrer Reise nach Österreich.
<u>für</u>	accusative	Ich interessiere mich <u>für</u> die Buchdruckkunst.

However, the prepositions used with either the dative or the accusative (**Prepositions §20**) provide some difficulties. When these prepositions are used as verb complements

to give special meaning to verbs, the “motion toward” vs. “location or motion within” distinction no longer applies. Now the verb and preposition combination must be learned with a specific case to be associated with a special meaning. For example, the preposition auf means ‘on, onto’. When combined with the verb *warten* and used with the accusative case, it means ‘for’:

Er wartet am Bahnhof auf seinen Bruder.
He's waiting for his brother at the station.

Thus we must learn warten auf with accusative as the equivalent of ‘wait for’. If this seems inconvenient, it is also absolutely necessary. For if *warten auf* is used not with the accusative, but with the dative, auf maintains its literal meaning of ‘on’.

Er wartet am Bahnhof auf seinem Bruder.
He's waiting on top of his brother at the station.

Understandably, serious miscommunication can arise if the cases governed by verbal complements are not scrupulously learned. To facilitate your learning, dictionaries indicate these cases either by giving clear examples (*Er wartet auf den Zug*, in which *den* is clearly an accusative form) or by supplying the case: *warten auf/acc.* or *warten auf w/acc.*

- §36 Sometimes the verb complement is a **verb** itself. As in English ‘go’, the German verb gehen can be supplemented by an infinitive of another verb to indicate an activity about to take place. As with the other complements, the infinitive that completes the idea comes at the end of the clause:

Heute morgen gehe ich mit meiner Mutter einkaufen.

After a modal verb, the complement can no longer come at the very end of the clause, because another infinitive is there:

Ich möchte mit dir einmal einkaufen gehen.

Other verbal complements include stehenbleiben and kennenlernen.

Bitte, bleiben Sie noch einen Moment stehen.
 Ich lernte ihn in einer Jugendherberge kennen.

- §37 **Dative** A number of verbs govern not the accusative case, but the dative. Generally, the verb phrases are ones in which a condition or an action on behalf of someone is either explicit or implied. Two clear examples are the verbs *helfen* ‘help’ and *dienen* ‘serve’:

Bitte, <u>helfen</u> Sie mir!	<i>Please help me! (Give aid to me)</i>
Womit kann ich Ihnen <u>dienen</u> ?	<i>What can I help you with?</i> (help = give service to)

The group of verbs that govern the dative case includes **gehören** ‘belong to’. Since something must belong to someone, it seems natural that that person should appear in the dative case:

Mir? Nein, das gehört mir nicht. Vielleicht gehört es meiner Mutter.

Gefallen is the verb most commonly used to indicate liking. Because it is used so often, its special meaning must be understood: it does not mean ‘like’, but rather ‘be pleasing to’. When we use *gefallen*, we must rethink our English inclination to say ‘I like it’ and say instead ‘It is pleasing to me’. This may sound stiff in English, but

Es gefällt mir

is perfectly normal to a German speaker. Other examples:

<u>Gefällt</u> Ihnen das?	<i>Do you like that?</i>
Der Film hat uns wirklich sehr gut <u>gefallen</u> .	<i>We really liked the movie.</i>

Note that what appears as the object in the English ‘I like it’ is really the subject when the action of liking is seen from the German perspective, and that the English subject ‘I’ turns into the German dative object *mir*.

Similarly, one expression with the verb *gehen* and two with the verb *tun* are used to indicate physical well-being:

Wie <u>geht</u> es Ihnen/ <u>dir</u> heute?	<i>How "does it go with you" today?</i> (How are you?)
Danke, es <u>geht mir</u> gut.	<i>I'm fine, thanks.</i>

NOTE: Never respond to *Wie geht's?* with *Ich bin gut*, which is an assertion of superiority.

Ach, das <u>tut mir/uns</u> furchtbar leid.	<i>Oh, I'm/we're terribly sorry.</i> (literally: <i>That does sorrow to me/us.</i>)
Mein Fuß <u>tut mir weh</u> .	<i>My foot hurts. ('does woe' to me.)</i>

Other verbs using the dative case include *antworten* 'answer' and *schmecken* 'taste (good)'.

Antworte mir!	<i>Answer me! (Give an answer <u>to</u> me.)</i>
Das schmeckt mir nicht.	<i>That doesn't taste good (<u>to</u> me).</i>

§38 We make a distinction in English between the verb forms 'he eats', 'he is eating', and 'he does eat':

He eats bread (habitually)
He is eating bread (at this very moment)
He does eat bread (but he'd rather not)

Standard German does not have equivalent verbal forms, but deals with these matters by other means. (The verbal forms are present in colloquial German, however.) This feature of English, and its absence in the German standard, suggests why German speakers learning English make characteristic mistakes such as

I eat my toast now.
Go we now home, yes?

English also sets traps for English speakers learning German. Beginning students often make the mistake of translating word for word such phrases as

<i>I am eating</i>	Ich bin essen
<i>I don't drink milk</i>	Ich tue nicht trinken Milch.

English speakers must recognize that an entire verb form in English is rendered by an entire verb form in German. Here 'am eating' is the equivalent of German *esse*, and 'do drink' is *trinke* in German. Whatever you want to say, be careful not to formulate your thoughts in English and then transfer them bit by bit into German.

§39 **Infinitive phrases** You have seen that infinitives do not show tense: They are "infinite" in their meanings in the same way that "finite" forms such as *gehst* and *trägt* signify a specific person, number, and tense. Infinitives are used not just in dictionary glossaries, and not just as complements to modal verbs, but also as the focus of action in **infinitive phrases**.

Es macht immer Spaß, bei Hans und Irma zu übernachten.

Here the infinitive *übernachten* combines with *zu* to describe an activity that is not restricted to any specific tense or person. An individual could say this sentence with reference to himself, or the action of spending the night could be described by an entire swarm of Hans and Irma's relatives. Also, the person saying the sentence could indicate that it was always fun or will always be fun to spend the night at that house. The tense of the entire sentence is determined by the tense of the verb in the main clause (here *macht*), and the infinitive never needs to change its form.

The structure of an infinitive phrase is illustrated by the sentence above: an introductory comma separates the phrase from the rest of the sentence, and the infinitive preceded by *zu* comes at the very end of the phrase. If the infinitive has a separable prefix (See **Verbs §31**), the *zu* is enclosed between the infinitive and the prefix:

Es ist immer schön, unsere Eltern anzurufen.

- §40 An infinitive phrase that is introduced by the particle **um** expresses purpose. That is, something is done for a specific reason. The equivalent in English is 'in order to', with the 'to' showing that we also have the infinitive phrase in English:

Sie geht in die Stadt, um ihren Bruder bei der Polizei abzuholen.

The infinitive phrase introduced by *um* answers the question *Warum?*

The preposition **ohne** may also begin an infinitive phrase, the resulting construction showing how something is done: namely, without some specific other activity:

Jörg ging einkaufen, ohne sein ganzes Geld auszugeben.

Jörg went shopping without spending all his money.

The equivalent construction in English is 'without -ing'.

- §41 **Reflexive constructions** involve actions that are directed back upon the subject of the verb: He bit himself, they threw themselves at her feet. In English reflexive constructions involve a pronoun ending in -self/-selves. In German the pronoun is identical to the personal pronoun except for the second person polite (*Sie*) and the third person singular (*er, sie, es*) and plural (*sie*), where it is *sich*.

In their simplest form, reflexive actions involve doing something for oneself: buying oneself a cold drink or a new hat, doing oneself a favor, finding oneself a seat on a bus. Here the reflexive pronoun is in the dative case, since the action is performed for oneself, in one's own interest:

Ich kaufe mir morgen einen neuen Mercedes.

There is nothing inherently reflexive about these constructions. They could be used in the same way without specifying the person for whom an action is taken. (*Ich kaufe morgen einen neuen Mercedes.*) But the situation itself is reflexive: The subject is the beneficiary of the action.

- §42 Reflexive constructions often have direct equivalents in English. We are often called upon to introduce or identify ourselves:

Darf ich mich vorstellen?

May I introduce myself?

Sie kann sich nicht ausweisen.

She can't identify herself.

These constructions both include a verb and a reflexive pronoun in the accusative case, because the verb is understood to be acting directly back upon the subject.

- §43 Most reflexive constructions, however, do not have direct equivalents in English and must therefore be learned as specific vocabulary items including verb and reflexive pronoun. In the glossary to this text, verbs that are used with a reflexive pronoun are identified by a *sich* accompanying their infinitives. Common verb-pronoun combinations include

sich (hin)setzen

sit down

Bitte, setzen Sie sich (hin).

sich beeilen

hurry

Warum mußt du dich so beeilen?

sich waschen

wash

Er kann sich noch nicht gut waschen.

sich erinnern

remember

Wie heißt er? Ich erinnere mich nicht.

sich umschauen

look around

Wir schauen uns nur um, danke.

sich anziehen

get dressed

Zieh dich doch schnell an!

sich fühlen

feel

Wie fühlst du dich heute? Besser?

sich erkälten

catch cold

Ich habe mich wieder erkältet.

sich entscheiden

decide

Hm — ich kann mich nicht entscheiden.

sich lohnen

be worth it

DM 20? Das lohnt sich gar nicht.

sich freuen

be happy

Heute ist schön. Ich freue mich sehr.

- §44 **Prepositions** A number of reflexive verb/pronoun combinations are used with specific **prepositions**, just as in English. Remember that the case governed by the preposition must be learned so that you can use the expression effectively. Among the most common combinations are

sich freuen auf (acc.)	<i>look forward to</i> ich freue mich immer auf Weihnachten.
sich freuen über (acc.)	<i>be happy about</i> Er freut sich über sein neues Baby.
sich erinnern an (acc.)	<i>remember</i> Erinnerst du dich an deinen alten Freund Max?
sich interessieren für (acc.)	<i>be interested in</i> Interessieren Sie sich für Jazz?
sich beschäftigen mit (dat.)	<i>be busy with</i> Sie hat keine Zeit. Sie beschäftigt sich mit ihren Steuern.
sich wundern über (acc.)	<i>be amazed about</i> Wir wundern uns über dein Glück.
sich gewöhnen an (acc.)	<i>get used to</i> Man gewöhnt sich eigentlich an alles.

§45 In some reflexive constructions the subject is not the direct goal of the verb's action, but the indirect goal. In these situations there is an accusative object of the verb, but the subject is still involved as a point of reference. One example of this sort of construction has already been cited in §41.

Ich kaufe mir morgen einen neuen Mercedes.

Here *Mercedes* is the direct object of the verb, and *mir* tells for whom the action is being undertaken. The car could just as well be bought for someone else.

Some common verbs are used with dative reflexive objects. Here the reflexive is dative, and the other object is accusative.

sich etwas überlegen	<i>consider something</i>
sich etwas anschauen	<i>take a look at something</i>
sich etwas vorstellen	<i>imagine something</i>
sich etwas anhören	<i>(take a) listen to something</i>

In each of these, the *etwas* reflects an accusative object of the verb, and the *sich* reflects a dative object referring back to the subject of the sentence.

Ich möchte es mir anschauen

thus means 'I'd like to look at it (*es*) for myself (*mir*)'. The verb cannot be used with another dative object: I cannot look at something with someone else's eyes. Similarly, I cannot take note of something or listen to music or consider something for anyone other than myself. Others will have to do their own taking note, listening, and considering. Other sentences with these verbs:

Nun, überlegen Sie es sich mal.	<i>Well, think about it a bit.</i>
Schau es dir doch an.	<i>Take a look at it.</i>
Ich möchte mir deine neue Kassette anhören.	<i>I'd like to listen to your new tape.</i>
Das kann ich mir gut vorstellen.	<i>I can well imagine that.</i>

§46 An important group of reflexive constructions deals with parts of the body: washing hands, brushing teeth, and so on. When the specific parts of the body are mentioned, one does not simply perform these acts — one does them on one's behalf, thus calling for a dative reflexive pronoun. The functions include, but are not limited to

sich die Hände/das Gesicht/die Füße (etc.) waschen
sich die Haare kämmen / trocknen
sich die Zähne putzen

This formula extends to clothing as well:

sich das Hemd (etc.) anziehen / umziehen / ausziehen

Obviously, it is possible to use the verbs *waschen*, *kämmen*, *trocknen*, *putzen*, and *anziehen* as simple active verbs taking an object other than oneself, especially when parents are performing these duties for young children:

Diese Eltern waschen ihre Kinder nicht oft genug.
Ich muß meinen Sohn wieder anziehen.

But when reference is made to specific parts of the body or items of clothing, then a dative noun or pronoun must be used to show whose body or clothing is involved. Note the difference between a nonreflexive function and a reflexive one:

NONREFLEXIVE: Mutter trocknet ihr (*the daughter*) die Haare zu lange.
REFLEXIVE: Mutter trocknet sich (*herself*) die Haare zu lange.
NONREFLEXIVE: Ich putze meinem Sohn die Zähne.
REFLEXIVE: Ich putze mir die Zähne.

- §47 Imperative All the verb forms discussed so far have been in what is called the **indicative mood**. **Mood** has to do with the attitude of the speaker toward what he is saying. Statements in the indicative mood are made in a straightforward and nonrestrictive fashion in a variety of tenses. The **imperative mood**, on the other hand, is used to **give commands**. Imperative forms do not indicate time — we cannot command others to ‘have done’ or to ‘will do’ something, but just to ‘do’ it in present time.

yes: *Please buy me a Toblerone* (present)
no: *Please bought me a Toblerone.* (past)
no: *Please will buy me a Toblerone.* (future)

When individuals are being addressed, both English and German place the verb in first position to give commands.

- §48 Signs in public places usually warn or inform by simply using an infinitive at the end of the imperative statement:

Bitte nicht mit dem Wagenführer sprechen.

Please do not speak to the driver.

Bitte nicht hinauslehnen.

Do not lean out of the window.

Nicht öffnen, bevor der Zug hält!

Do not open until the train stops!

Nicht rauchen.

No smoking.

- §49 When commands are directed at people known to the speaker as *Sie*, German uses the *Sie* form of the verb:

Bringen Sie uns bitte zwei Glas Rotwein. (Please) **bring us**

Bleiben Sie bitte zwei Nächte! (Please) **stay**

The verb *sein* is an exception to this pattern, but the difference between the infinitive and the *Sie* imperative form is insignificant in the spoken language:

Seien Sie bitte vorsichtig! Please **be** careful!

The prefix of a **separable verb** appears at the end of the command:

Bitte, **rufen Sie** mich später am Nachmittag an.
Please call me later this afternoon.

- §50 Understandably, there are also special imperative forms that apply to individuals well known to the speaker as *du*. Almost all verbs use just the verb stem for this purpose. Note that the pronoun *du* itself does not appear:

Komm schnell! **Schlaf** nicht ein! **Sei** bitte ruhig!

Verb stems ending in *-d* or *-t* and stems of *-n* infinitives (*wandern*, *handeln*) add an *-e* in the *du* imperative:

Finde deinen Bruder und bring ihn hierher.
Arbeite mit beiden Händen.
Wandre nicht so weit!

Some other verbs, those with stems ending in *-ieren* or in certain groups of consonants, also frequently add an *-e* in the *du* imperative:

Studiere Philosophie, das ist interessanter. **Öffne** das Fenster, bitte.

Verbs with stems in *-e-* that normally change in the *du* and *er/sie/es* forms make the change in the *du* imperative as well:

Nimm die Linie 7 zum Stadion.
Gib der Oma diese Plätzchen, und **sprich** nicht mit dem bösen Wolf!

Other stem-changing verbs, those with stems in *-a-*, do not make the vowel change in the *du* imperative:

Lauf schneller, sonst verpassen wir die Tram! **Schlaf** gut, meine Liebe.

- §51 The *ihr* imperative simply uses the *ihr* form of the verb. As in the *du* form, the pronoun does not appear in the imperative:

Wartet doch, ich komme schon!
Nehmt mir diesen Brief bitte mit zur Post.
Seid lieb zueinander, Kinder!

- §52 When we give orders to ourselves, we speak as if we were speaking to a second person.

Come on, bear down, fella!
Stop that twitching and play it right for once!

But sometimes our commands include another person as well as ourselves, so that the people involved are *wir*, not just *ich*. In English these commands take the form of suggestions, couched in tones that may range from gentle to severe:

Let's go have some ice cream.
Let's pay attention to what we're doing for once!

In German these suggestions use the first person plural form of the verb and add the personal pronoun *wir*:

Fahren wir doch in die Stadt zum Zirkus.
Bleiben wir heute zu Hause.

The verb *sein*, as in the formal imperative, has a distinctive *wir* imperative form:

Seien wir jetzt freundlicher zueinander, ja?

- §53 **Subjunctive** In addition to the indicative and the imperative, German has a third mood, the **subjunctive**. The subjunctive is commonly used to express **politeness** or **tentativeness**, especially in a few very high-frequency verbs such as *sein*, *haben*, *werden*, *wissen*, and the modals. This is the subjunctive function that beginners are most likely to encounter first. English equivalents of polite expressions are “Would you have . . . ?” or “Do you suppose you could . . . ?” The body language that accompanies this kind of language is often cautious and tentative rather than forthright or aggressive.

The subjunctive is also used to express **hypotheses** — to guess what would be true if certain other things were to be one way or another. The sentence “If it rained right now, we’d be drenched” contains two verbs in the subjunctive mood. It is a hypothesis: ‘In fact, it is not raining right now, and we are not being drenched’. Since the adverb ‘right now’ implies that we are dealing with present time, the use of the verb forms ‘rained’ and ‘(woul)d be drenched’ instead of the present tense ‘is raining’ and ‘are being drenched’ tells us that the speaker is supposing what might be the result of some hypothetical action.

- §54 **Subjunctive forms.** We have seen that English resorts to the use of past tense forms ('rained') to talk about a contrary-to-fact situation in present time. German does the very same thing — to no one's surprise, perhaps, since the two languages are closely related. In fact, English also uses apparently past forms in order to express politeness or tentativeness: "Could you perhaps . . .?"

In dealing first with the most common German subjunctive forms, it will be helpful to list the past tense forms from which they are derived:

INFINITIVE	PAST STEM	PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE
sein	war-	wär-
haben	hatt-	hätt-
werden	wurd-	würd-
wissen	wußt-	wüßt-
können	konnt-	könnt-
müssen	mußt-	müßt-
dürfen	durft-	dürft-
sollen	sollt-	sollt-
wollen	wollt-	wollt-

The characteristic difference between the past stem and the present subjunctive is the unlauded stem vowel, which immediately says to the listener 'hypothesis! politeness! tentativeness!' (*Sollen* and *wollen* are obvious exceptions to the pattern, but because of other clues built into an entire subjunctive sentence, their non-unlauded stem vowels still do not hinder the transmission of the important subjunctive message.) To these present subjunctive stems are then added endings that match the subject. Example: *hätt-*

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERSON	ich hätte	wir hätten
SECOND PERSON	du hättest	ihr hättet
	Sie hätten	Sie hätten
THIRD PERSON	er/sie/es hätte	sie hätten

Just as in the simple past tense, the third person singular has no *-t* ending.

- §55 Although it is the "polite" subjunctive that one encounters, recognizes, and uses first, it is the subjunctive of **hypothesis** that is more widespread and that gives greater flexibility to both the written and spoken language. The forms listed above are used to hypothesize as well as to express politeness or tentativeness, and other verbs (virtually all can be used to hypothesize) also have subjunctive forms that are derived from their past stems. Although functions may differ, the forms are the same.

In its capacity to express hypotheses, the subjunctive exists in two **tenses**, the **present** and the **past**. The **present subjunctive** is used to describe those things that might be, but are not:

PRESENT *If he saw a bear now, he'd run.*

The sentence is contrary to fact: He doesn't see a bear now, and he's not running now. The statement is pure hypothesis. The **past subjunctive** describes things that might have been, but were not:

PAST *If he had seen a bear then, he would have run.*

This is also contrary to fact: He didn't see a bear then, and he didn't run. Note that each of these sentences consists of a clause beginning with If . . . and a clause stating a result. Appropriately, these are called the "if clause" and the "result clause". Subjunctive forms are used in each one, because contrary-to-fact situations are stated in each. The verb is placed at the end of its clause because *wenn*, a subordinating conjunction, is used in German if clauses.

§56
Present
subjunctive

The **present subjunctive**, in English as well as German, is formed from the simple past stem, as seen in the examples rained and saw above. In the case of the **regular verbs**, those that form their past stems by adding *-te* to the present stem, the past is identical to the present subjunctive. Exceptions are, as ever, the high-frequency verbs listed in §54. Note the close correspondence to English forms.

PAST INDICATIVE	PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE
Ich <u>kaufte</u> ein Geschenk. <i>I bought a present.</i>	Wenn ich ein Geschenk <u>kaufte</u> , . . . <i>If I bought a present, . . .</i>
Er <u>holte</u> mir ein Bier. <i>He fetched me a beer.</i>	Wenn er mir ein Bier <u>holte</u> , . . . <i>If he fetched me a beer, . . .</i>
Ich <u>hatte</u> einen Porsche. <i>I had a Porsche.</i>	Wenn ich einen Porsche <u>hätte</u> , . . . <i>If I had a Porsche, . . .</i>
Das <u>wußte</u> sie schon. <i>She knew that already.</i>	Wenn sie das schon <u>wüßte</u> , . . . <i>If she knew that already, . . .</i>

In order to establish a realistic context for the subjunctive, however, there must be some clear factual situation to which the subjunctive provides an alternative. The second column above is more properly compared to some real situation in the present tense:

Ich kaufe kein Geschenk. Aber wenn ich ein Geschenk <u>kaufte</u> , . . . <i>I'm not buying a present. But if I bought (were buying) one, . . .</i>
Er holt mir kein Bier. Aber wenn er mir ein Bier <u>holte</u> , . . . <i>He's not fetching me a beer. But if he fetched (were fetching) me one, . . .</i>

Note that there are various possibilities for the English subjunctive here: 'If I bought', 'if I were buying', 'if I were to buy', 'if I happened to buy', 'if I should buy' — all expressing a hypothesis. In German the single form *kaufte* functions for all these English equivalents.

For **irregular verbs**, those that do not form their past stem with *-t*, the same principle of usage applies. As opposed to the regular verbs, however, these normally umlaut the vowel of the past stem before adding the characteristic subjunctive endings. Of course, only *a*, *o*, and *u* can be umlauted.

INFINITIVE	PAST STEM	PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE
sein	war	wär-
werden	wurde	würd-
heißen	hieß	hieß-
kommen	kam	käm-
gehen	ging	ging-
laufen	lief	lief-

§57 'If' clauses can be used alone to express wishes ('If my prince would come . . .'). However, they are usually not left unfinished, as they are in §56 above, but are completed by a result clause. When the 'if' clause is the first syntactical element, the verb in the main clause must come next as the second element in the entire sentence:

1	2
<u>Wenn ich ein Geschenk kaufte</u> ,	<u>hätte</u> ich kein Geld mehr.
	<i>If I bought a present, I wouldn't have any more money.</i>

This sentence can be rearranged — in German as in English — by placing the result clause first:

1	2
<u>Ich hätte</u> kein Geld mehr,	wenn ich ein Geschenk kaufte.
	<i>I wouldn't have any more money if I bought a present.</i>

§58 **Würde: the all-purpose subjunctive form.** *Würde*, the present subjunctive of *werden*, is used widely for all functions of the subjunctive — polite, tentative, and hypothetical.

würde

POLITE: Würden Sie mir bitte das Salz reichen?
 TENTATIVE: Würden Sie vielleicht eine Nummer größer vorziehen?
 HYPOTHETICAL: Würden Sie es kaufen, wenn Sie das Geld hätten?

The combination of *würde* and an infinitive produces the same result as the present subjunctive form of that infinitive. That is,

würde + haben	=	hätte
würde + sein	=	wäre
würde + gehen	=	ginge
würde + kaufen	=	kaufte

Ich würde ins Theater gehen, wenn ich as Geld hätte.
 Ich ginge ins Theater, wenn ich das Geld hätte.

Style and level of diction are important factors in the use of the subjunctive in modern German. In colloquial speech, the use of *würde* with an infinitive to form the present subjunctive is widespread in both if clauses and result clauses.

COLLOQUIAL: Wenn ich den Bären sehen würde, würde ich weglaufen.

In less colloquial speech *würde* is not used in if-clauses, but frequently occurs in result clauses:

FORMAL: Wenn ich den Bären sähe, würde ich weglaufen.
 MORE FORMAL: Wenn ich den Bären sähe, lief^e ich weg.

Even allowing for differences in level of speech, most German speakers today do not choose to combine *würde* with *sein*, *haben*, or the modal verbs.

§59 **The past subjunctive**, as stated above, is used to describe those actions that might have taken place, but did not:
 Past subjunctive

PAST: *If he had seen a bear, he would have run.*

In English the past subjunctive is formed by combining the past participle of the main verb with the present subjunctive form of its helping verb. In this sentence the verbs in question are *sehen*, which takes the helping verb *haben*; and *laufen*, which takes the helping verb *sein*. Again, because *wenn* is used, the finite verb — here the helping verb that agrees with the subject — comes at the very end of the clause:

Wenn er einen Bären gesehen hätte, wäre er gelaufen.

Just as with the present subjunctive, the order of clauses can be reversed without changing the meaning. As ever, the main verb is in second position:

Er wäre gelaufen, wenn er einen Bären gesehen hätte.

The past subjunctive with modals combines *hätte* with a double infinitive.

Wenn ich es hätte sehen können, hätte ich keine Angst gehabt.
If I'd been able to see it, I wouldn't have been afraid.

Note that, although *wenn* normally places the auxiliary in final position, a double infinitive is always the very last element in a sentence. (See **Verbs §75**)

§60 The subjunctive mood is used to report what someone else has said. Typically, such **indirect discourse** is introduced by a phrase such as *sie sagte* or *sie meinte*, in order to make it clear that the statement is someone else's opinion. When the original statement is in the **present tense**, the **present subjunctive** is used to relate it:

original statement by Marta:	"Hans <u>ist</u> eigentlich ganz nett."
related by another person:	Marta sagte, Hans <u>wäre</u> eigentlich ganz nett.
or:	Marta sagte, daß Hans eigentlich ganz nett <u>wäre</u> .

When the original statement is in past time, then it is related by the past subjunctive:

- original: "Der Winter war doch furchtbar kalt."
 retold: Er sagte, der Winter wäre furchtbar kalt gewesen.
 or: Er sagte, daß der Winter furchtbar kalt gewesen wäre.
 original: "Jemand hat unseren Wagen gestohlen."
 retold: Sie sagten, jemand hätte ihren Wagen gestohlen.
 or: Sie sagten, daß jemand ihren Wagen gestohlen hätte.

- §61** German normally uses the present tense with an adverb of time to indicate future action. A formal **future tense** does exist, however, occurring frequently in writing and occasionally in speaking. It is formed with the verb *werden* as a helping verb, followed at the end of the clause by an infinitive — similar in construction to modal clauses.

Morgen werden wir alle mit dem Postbus nach Trimmis fahren.

Werden is the finite verb, agreeing with the subject and holding second place in the sentence unless used in a subordinate clause:

Er sagte, daß wir alle morgen mit dem Postbus fahren werden.

NOTE: In the future tense a modal verb occurs in final position, after its dependent infinitive.

Morgen wirst du es besser verstehen können.

- §62** The **past tense**, sometimes called the **narrative past**, is used to describe events — usually a series of events — that occurred in past time. By its very nature, the past tense is heavily used in newspapers and other sources that report and analyze past occurrences. With the exception of the common verbs *sein*, *haben*, *wissen*, *denken*, *werden*, and the modals, the past tense is not frequently used in normal conversation.

- §63** These high-frequency past tense forms are some of the most important ones commonly used in both writing and speaking:

<u>INFINITIVE</u>	<u>PAST STEM</u>
sein	war
haben	hatte
wissen	wußte
können	konnte
müssen	mußte
dürfen	durfte
sollen	sollte
wollen	wollte

- §64** The **formation of the past tense** depends on the kind of verb involved — regular or irregular. The **regular verbs** form the past stem by the addition of a *-te* to the present stem:

<u>INFINITIVE</u>	<u>PRESENT STEM</u>	<u>PAST STEM</u>
kaufen	kauf-	kaufte-
studieren	studier-	studierte-
kosten	kost-	kostete-

The conjugation of the past tense is similar to that of the present tense, with the exception of the third person singular forms, which are identical to those of the first person:

	<u>SINGULAR</u>	<u>PLURAL</u>
FIRST PERSON	ich kauf te	wir kauf te n
SECOND PERSON	du kauf te st	ihr kauf te t
	Sie kauf te n	Sie kauf te n
THIRD PERSON	er/sie kauf te	sie kauf te n

- §65 **Irregular verbs** The **irregular verbs** do not have past stems with *-te*. Instead, their past is formed by vowel change, and sometimes with a slight difference in consonant structure as well. There are good historical reasons for each of these past forms, and with more exposure to German you will develop a “feel” for what the past tense of an irregular verb might be. The only way to learn these forms at the beginning is to memorize them along with their infinitives. The infinitive is called the first principal part of a verb, and the past stem is called the second principal part.

<u>INFINITIVE</u>	<u>PAST STEM</u>
sein	war
heißen	hieß
essen	aß
trinken	trank
bleiben	blieb
gehen	ging

Additional examples of irregular verbs with all their principal parts are listed on the back flyleaves of the Class Text.

The conjugation of the irregular verbs in the past is identical to that of the regular verbs:

	<u>SINGULAR</u>	<u>PLURAL</u>
FIRST PERSON	ich blieb	wir blieb en
SECOND PERSON	du blieb st	ihr blieb t
	Sie blieb en	Sie blieb en
THIRD PERSON	er/sie/es blieb	sie blieb en

- §66 In addition to the regular and irregular verbs, there are a few that seem to be combinations of the two kinds. Again, there are good historical reasons for their forms, but from a modern viewpoint they appear to be anomalies. These verbs combine the *-te* suffix of the regular verbs with the vowel change of the irregular ones:

<u>INFINITIVE</u>		<u>PAST STEM</u>
bringen	<i>bring</i>	brachte
denken	<i>think</i>	dachte
kennen	<i>know</i>	kannte
nennen	<i>call</i>	nannte
rennen	<i>run</i>	rannte
wissen	<i>know</i>	wußte

- §67 As you have already seen in the discussion of the present perfect, English and German verbs, especially the most common ones, tend to be remarkably similar in form. Regular verbs in English have past stems ending in -d (such as said from say), a sound that is a close relative of German *-t*. Irregular verbs in English generally show the vowel change characteristic of their German cognates (words with which they share a common origin):

tragen — trug draw — drew

Some useful examples:

<u>IRREGULAR (vowel change)</u>		<u>REGULAR (-d [Eng.] / -t [Ger.])</u>	
<i>drink — drank</i>	trinken — trank	<i>have — had</i>	haben — hatte
<i>eat — ate</i>	essen — aß	<i>dare — dared</i>	dürfen — durfte
<i>forget — forgot</i>	vergessen — vergaß	<i>make — made</i>	machen — machte
<i>find — found</i>	finden — fand	<i>love — loved</i>	lieben — liebte
<i>come — came</i>	kommen — kam	<i>say — said</i>	sagen — sagte
<i>sleep — slept</i>	schlafen — schlief	<i>hear — heard</i>	hören — hörte
<i>see — saw</i>	sehen — sah	<i>play — played</i>	spielen — spielte

§68 **Present perfect** The **present perfect tense**, sometimes called the **conversational past**, is used in everyday speaking about events in past time. It does not describe a time different from that described by the past tense. Both tenses can talk about the same time, illustrating that “tense” and “time” are not one and the same. When the telling involves a single event in past time, then the present perfect is usually the tense chosen for the job. When a chain of events is discussed, then the past tense is frequently used. The term “conversational past” says a good deal about the usage of this new tense: It is used in speaking — but is also very common in writing. Very often the small group of high-frequency words listed above — *sein, haben, wissen*, and the modals — are used in the past tense while the other verbs in a discussion appear in the present perfect.

§69 The **formation of the present perfect** requires the use of the past participle of a verb in combination with either *haben* or *sein* as a helping verb. The past participle is the name for the third principal part of a verb. If ‘drink’ and ‘drank’ are the first and second principal parts of ‘drink’, then ‘drunk’ is the third. It is used in combination with a form of the helping verb ‘have’, which is the only helping verb in modern English:

They have drunk all the tea! What do we do now?

Past participles of **regular verbs** are formed by combining the present stem (the infinitive minus the *-n* or *-en* ending) with 1) the prefix *ge-* and 2) the suffix *-t*.

holen: **ge + hol + t**

The principal parts of *holen* are thus

FIRST	SECOND	THIRD
holen	holte	geholt

The only additional information needed to use the verb *holen* in all its tense forms is the helping verb, which — as for virtually all regular verbs — is *haben*. Traditionally, the helping verb is learned in its third person singular form along with each verb’s past participle:

holen — holte — hat geholt

For both regular and irregular verbs, the past participle comes at the very end of the clause.

Wir haben heute keine Bananen gekauft.

Sie hat in der Stadtmitte nur Rockmusik gehört.

NOTE: The past participles of **separable verbs** include the *ge-* prefix between the prefix and the stem:

Sie hat das Brot schon eingepackt.

The past participles of **inseparable verbs** do not add the *ge-* prefix:

Müllers haben ihr Haus schon verkauft.

NOTE: The past participles of verbs ending in *-ieren* do not add the prefix *ge-*. All *-ieren* past participles end in *-t*.

Sie hat studiert. Wir haben schon telefoniert. Haben Sie es reserviert?

§70 **Irregular verbs** form their past participle by adding to the verb stem the *ge-* prefix and the suffix *-en*. Usually the vowel of the verb stem is changed as well.

singen: **ge + sung + en**

Most verbs use *haben* as a helping verb.

Herr Fischer-Dieskau hat wunderschöne Lieder gesungen.

Endlich haben sie oben auf dem Berg gestanden.

§71 There are a number of irregular verbs that use *sein* as a helping verb, just as an older form of English once used the verb ‘be’:

Lo! An angel is come . . .

These verbs in German are intransitive — they do not take objects. They also show a change of location or condition. A change of location includes verbs such as *laufen*, *kommen*, *gehen*, *fahren*, and *steigen*. A change of condition includes not only *sterben* ‘die’ (some would say this implies a change of location!), but the common *einschlafen* ‘go to sleep’, *werden* ‘become’, and *aufwachen* ‘wake up’, which is a regular verb.

Er ist früh am Abend eingeschlafen und erst spät am Morgen aufgewacht.

Two common verbs that do not fit this pattern, but that are used with sein, are *sein* itself and *bleiben*:

Wir sind nur kurz im Westerwald gewesen.

Wie lange sind Sie eigentlich in der Steiermark geblieben?

- §72 The past participles of a few unusual verbs are noteworthy. They seem to be regular in having a -t suffix, yet their stems show a vowel change:

INFINITIVE		PAST PARTICIPLE
bringen	<i>bring</i>	hat gebracht
denken	<i>think</i>	hat gedacht
kennen	<i>know</i>	hat gekannt
nennen	<i>call</i>	hat genannt
senden	<i>send</i>	hat gesandt
wissen	<i>know</i>	hat gewußt

- §73 It is impossible to tell from the infinitive form of a verb whether it is regular or irregular, a feature shared by English. (This is a dilemma that inspired the poet E. Scumas Rory to pen the verse at the end of this paragraph.) *Fragen* ‘ask’ and *sagen* ‘say’, for example, are both regular verbs, with the past participles *gefragt* and *gesagt*. But *tragen* ‘carry’ is irregular, with the past participle *getragen*. Should you have to guess what a verb’s past participle might be, then use English as your guide. Remember: English and German are closely related, and the most common verbs tend to be old and therefore similar in both languages. Note the similarity between the first two verbs in the list above, *bringen* and *denken*, and their English counterparts, ‘bring/brought’, ‘think/thought’.

*The peeping Tom designed to peep
On Miss Godiva when she's sleep,
Wherefore on hands and knees he crept
And underneath her curtain pept.*

*Behind him, though, a watchman crope,
Pursuing peepers while she slope
And pounced on Tom because he pope. (Thanks, 7)*

- §74 **Past perfect** The **past perfect tense** is used to refer to events that took place before another past tense already referred to in a discussion. The past perfect can exist only with reference to this other tense, and cannot stand alone. The statement “She hadn't seen him for years” makes no sense unless we know that she was just visiting him or was looking for him. The statement “She hasn't seen him for years” does make sense, since it is firmly established in present time. Normally our frame of reference is

present time — time before present time.

If we establish our frame of reference in the past instead of the present, then this scheme is shifted to become

past time — time before past time.

The English past perfect tense refers to time before past time by using the past tense of the helping verb ‘have’, just as it was seen above to use the present tense of ‘have’ for the present perfect tense:

PRESENT PERFECT: *We have met the enemy, and he is ours.*

PAST PERFECT: *We had met the enemy, and he was ours.*

German operates the way English does, using the past tense forms of the helping verb *haben* and *sein*, as appropriate to the individual verb. This means that in the German past perfect tense, *war* and *hatte* are the helping verbs instead of *ist* and *hat*.

	Als ich ihn sah, <u>hatte</u> er das Geschenk schon <u>bekommen</u> .	
TIME:	1. <i>He received the present.</i>	2. <i>I saw him.</i>
	Als ich in Dübendorf ankam, <u>war</u> die Familie schon <u>abgefahren</u> .	
TIME:	1. <i>The family departed.</i>	2. <i>I arrived in Dübendorf.</i>

Because the past perfect tense has to exist within a past context, German sentences using the past perfect often contain the word *nachdem*, a subordinating conjunction meaning 'after' and establishing the time relationships:

Nachdem er den Fisch gekauft hatte, fuhr er schnell nach Hause.
 Sie stieg in den Sportwagen, nachdem sie Max geküßt hatte.

§75
 Double
 infinitive

When modal verbs are used in the present perfect tense, they appear in their infinitive form at the end of the clause in combination with the infinitive form of the verb that is used to complete their meaning. This construction is called a **double infinitive**. The same construction is used in the future tense. Note the differences in the four tenses:

PRESENT	Sie <u>will</u> nicht zum Zirkus <u>mitgehen</u> .
PAST	Sie <u>wollte</u> nicht zum Zirkus <u>mitgehen</u> .
PRESENT PERFECT	Sie <u>hat</u> nicht zum Zirkus <u>mitgehen wollen</u> .
FUTURE	Sie <u>wird</u> nicht zum Zirkus <u>mitgehen wollen</u> .

NOTE: *Sehen, hören, and lassen*, which can function as modals (See **Verbs §21**), use the double infinitive construction in the perfect.

Endlich habe ich ihn <u>kommen sehen</u> .	<i>I finally saw him coming.</i>
Hast du sie <u>singen hören</u> ?	<i>Did you hear her sing/ing?</i>
Er hat mich nach einer Stunde <u>gehen lassen</u> .	<i>He let me go after an hour.</i>

§76
 Voice

The verbs discussed up to this point have all been in one of three **moods**: the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive. They have also occurred in a variety of **tenses** that described time relationships. Verbs also have **voices**, the active voice and the passive voice. Paragraphs §§1-75 have treated verbs in the **active voice**, in which the subject of each sentence was performing an action. In the **passive voice** the subject of a sentence is acted upon by someone or something else in the sentence. Note the difference:

ACTIVE:	<i>They took him to the station in a Volkswagen.</i>
PASSIVE:	<i>He was taken to the station in a Volkswagen.</i>

The first sentence is in the active voice: 'They' is the subject, and 'him' is the object of the verb took. The second sentence is in the passive voice: the subject does not act, but is acted upon.

§77
 Passive voice

The **passive voice** combines a form of the verb *werden*, acting as a helping verb, with a past participle. In the English passive illustration in §76, 'was' is the helping verb and 'taken' is the past participle. In German the passive sentence would be

Er wurde in einem Volkswagen zum Bahnhof gebracht.
He was (being) taken to the station in a Volkswagen.

Wurde, of course, is a past tense form of the verb *werden*, and the sentence says that an action took place in the **past**. If the helping verb were *wird*, in the present tense, the action would be taking place in the **present**:

Er wird in einem Volkswagen zum Bahnhof gebracht.
He's being taken to the station in a Volkswagen.

In this sentence the true actors are missing: we do not know who is taking him to the station. If the agents were to be added to the sentence, they would be in a dative phrase with the preposition *von*:

Er wird von drei Männern in Schwarz zum Bahnhof gebracht.
He's being taken to the station by three men in black.

§78 **Other passive tenses** are encountered less frequently in spoken German. They are the **present perfect**, the **past perfect**, and the **future**.

Note the different ways of describing the same object:

PASSIVE:	Die Tür ist geschlossen worden.
PASSIVE SUBSTITUTE:	Man hat die Tür geschlossen.
FALSE PASSIVE:	Die Tür ist geschlossen.
ADJECTIVE:	Das ist eine geschlossene Tür.

Note also the fundamental difference between a door that is just swinging shut at the moment

Die Tür wird geschlossen

and one that is already closed:

Die Tür ist geschlossen.

Confusion can arise from the English equivalent, since the English verb 'be' is both a sign of the passive and a simple descriptor:

The door is closed every day at four. (It swings shut then.)

The door is closed every day at four. (When we come at four, it is shut tight.)

PREPOSITIONS

- §1 Prepositions are words that provide information about how something or someone — the **object** of the preposition — is related to the fundamental action of a statement or question. The groups of words in which prepositions appear — the **prepositional phrases** — tell how, where, when, in what direction, or even why something happens.

<i>He went shopping <u>with his brother</u>.</i>	(how)
<i>They bought clothes <u>at Clyde's</u>.</i>	(where)
<i>That was <u>in the afternoon</u>.</i>	(when)
<i>Then they went <u>into the city</u>.</i>	(in what direction)
<i>They walked <u>because of the weather</u>.</i>	(why)

- §2 Prepositions always have **objects**, words that follow them. That object is always either a noun or a pronoun. Other words, most often adjectives, may provide more information about the object.

PREPOSITION	OBJECT OF PREPOSITION
<i>with</i>	<i>(his) brother</i>
<i>at</i>	<i>Clyde's</i>
<i>in</i>	<i>(the) afternoon</i>
<i>into</i>	<i>(the) city</i>
<i>because of</i>	<i>(the) weather</i>

- §3 Prepositions cause their objects to appear in specific grammatical **cases**. (For an explanation of cases, see **Adjectives §§3-7**.) Some prepositions are always followed by the **dative** case, some are always used with the **accusative** case, and some can govern either of the two cases depending on the nature of the action in the sentence. In these instances, the use of the dative or the accusative has nothing to do with the other function of these cases as indirect or direct object cases. The object of a preposition is never an indirect object or a direct object.

- §4 Common prepositions always used with the dative case are

Dative **aus bei mit nach seit von zu.**

They govern the dative case whether their meaning is literal or figurative:

... aus dem Haus	<i>out of the house</i>
... aus dem Jahre 1907	<i>dating from the year 1907</i>
... aus den Vereinigten Staaten	<i>from the U.S.A.</i>

- §5 As the examples above show, **aus** has a broad range of meaning within the framework of 'out of'. Perhaps the most common use is in combination with the name of a city or country, indicating "point of origin". If someone is *aus Berlin*, then that person is taken to be a native of Berlin.

The point of origin can also be in time, mainly in discussing historical origins:

Der Dom stammt <u>aus dem 14. Jahrhundert</u> .	<i>dates from the 14th century</i>
Diese Kirche ist <u>aus dem Jahre 1766</u> .	

Aus can also indicate a source, or original material.

Hatte George Washington wirklich Zähne aus Holz?
<i>Did George Washington really have wooden teeth?</i>

- §6 **Bei** often indicates spatial proximity — nearness, or presence.

A town can be located near another (usually larger) one:

Beutelsbach bei Stuttgart.

If someone lives next to (or by) a church, then

Er wohnt bei der Kirche.

When I am at the barber shop, then

Ich bin beim (=bei dem) Friseur.

If I live with my parents in their house, then

Ich wohne bei meinen Eltern.

If I have no money with (or on) me, then

Ich habe kein Geld bei mir.

Bei can also indicate occasion, circumstance, or condition, as in

<u>bei</u> diesem Wetter	<i>in this weather</i>	<u>bei</u> 40 Grad Kälte	<i>at -40°</i>
<u>Berlin</u> <u>bei</u> Nacht	<i>Berlin at night</i>	<u>beim</u> Fußballspiel	<i>at the soccer game</i>

Bei often appears with a verbal noun to show simultaneous action:

Beim Singen macht er oft die Augen zu.
While/When he sings, he often closes his eyes.

Verbal idiom: *helfen bei* 'help with':

Hilf ihr bei der Arbeit. *Help her with her work.*

§7 **Mit** implies accompaniment or instrument.

Bitte, kommen Sie mit mir nach Hause.
Das ist der Mann mit dem roten Bart.
Schlagen wir es mit einem Hammer.

§8 **Nach** means 'to, toward' when used with the names of cities or countries:

Annegret fährt morgen nach Hannover.
Wann kommen Sie denn nach Amerika?

It also means 'after' in either a spatial sense:

Das Mädchen springt nach dem Fußball. (where to?)

or a temporal sense:

Nach dem Konzert gehen wir essen. (when?)
Es ist schon 10 Minuten nach zwei.

Nach is also part of the common idioms:

<u>nach</u> Hause	<i>(in the direction of) home</i>
Meiner Meinung <u>nach</u>	<i>in my opinion</i>
fragen <u>nach</u>	<i>inquire/ask about/after</i>
Er fragte <u>nach</u> ihrer Mutter.	<i>He asked about her mother.</i>

§9 **Seit** has exclusively temporal meaning — 'since'.

Seit dem Krieg wohnt sie allein.

In this sense it figures prominently in combination with present tense verbs to indicate activity that began in the past and is still continuing (See **Verbs §11**):

Wir studieren schon seit sieben Jahren.
We've been studying for seven years now.

§10 **Von** implies separation of something from something else.

Wir fliegen von Amsterdam nach Vancouver.
Das ist ein Brief von meiner Schwester.

Von also is used with nouns and pronouns as a substitute for the genitive (possessive) case ('of):

Ist das nicht die Mutter von Ihrem Mann?
Das war ein Teil von der Altstadt.
Die Bedeutung von diesem Artikel verstehe ich einfach nicht.
Er ist ein guter Freund von mir.

NOTE: You can avoid misunderstandings in the use of the words *Freund* and *Freundin* (either 'male/female friend' or 'boy/girlfriend') by contrasting

Das ist mein Freund / meine Freundin *That's my boyfriend / girlfriend*

with

Das ist ein Freund / eine Freundin von mir . . . *a friend of mine*

Von contracts with *dem* to produce **vom**.

Hedwig kommt gerade vom Büro.

§11 **Zu** shows direction toward someone or something that is not a city or country:

Komm zu mir, Hänschen!

Gehen wir zur Post.

Ich möchte zum Zirkus.

Zu is frequently used to mean 'to the house of':

Kommen Sie um acht Uhr zu mir, heute Abend gibt's eine kleine Fete.

Zu contracts with following *dem* and *der* to produce **zum** and **zur**.

Gehen wir zum Rathaus, ja? Nein, ich gehe lieber zur Paulskirche.

Note the following special uses of *zu*:

Was möchtest du zum Frühstück?

for breakfast

Den möchte ich gern zum Freund haben.

as a friend

Mit der Zeit wurde sie zu einer guten Schriftstellerin.

became a good writer

Egon gehört zu den besten Pianisten.

is one of the best pianists

§12 The prepositions *bei*, *von*, and *zu* appear with definite articles in the following contractions:

bei + **dem** **beim**

von + **dem** **vom**

zu + **dem** **zum** **zu** + **der** **zur**

The contraction is normally made unless the definite article is emphasized for a good reason:

Bei dem Wetter gehe ich nicht. *I'm not going in this weather.*

§13 Another group of prepositions is used only with the **accusative** case:

Accusative

bis **durch** **für** **gegen** **ohne** **um**

§14 **Bis** 'until, up to' occurs in many time expressions without a following article:

bis Dienstag bis nächste Woche bis 1990

When a following article is present, *bis* is most often supplemented with *zu* in the expressions *bis zum* . . . and *bis zur* . . . :

Bis zum Krieg wohnten wir in Danzig.

Die Straßenbahn Linie 12 fährt bis zur Kasernenstraße.

§15 **Durch** closely parallels the English word 'through' in both literal and figurative senses:

Fahren Sie ganz durch die Stadt, und fragen Sie noch einmal dort.

Durch die Zimmervermittlung finden wir immer gute Hotelzimmer.

§16 **Für** is most often the equivalent of English 'for'.

Hier ist ein Geschenk für dich. —Für mich? Ach, wie schön.

Be careful in time expressions, however, where English 'for' is usually not the equivalent of *für*:

Wir waren drei Wochen in Wien.
We were in Vienna for three weeks.

Er studierte ein ganzes Jahr in Bonn.
He studied in Bonn for a whole year.

When used with time expressions, *für* has the meaning 'with the intention of staying for ___'.

Sie fliegen für ein Semester nach München.
They're flying to München, where they'll be staying for a term.

Wir sind für 14 Monate nach Chur gezogen.
We moved to Chur, where we spent 14 months.

§17 **Gegen** means 'against' in both physical and nonphysical senses:

Das Auto ist gegen den Baum gefahren und ist jetzt wertlos.
Nein, ich bin gegen Ihren Plan. Tut mir leid.

§18 **Ohne** is the equivalent of English 'without'.

Ich, glaube, wir machen es ohne Ihre Hilfe.
Gehen Sie wirklich ohne uns? Ach, schade.

§19 **Um** means 'around, about' in a physical sense:

Die Kinder laufen um das Haus und suchen Ostereier.
... *around the house* (either inside or outside)

When used with clock time, *um* means 'at':

Wir treffen uns um drei Uhr vor dem Glockenturm.
Ihr Zug fährt um 17 Uhr 40.
Um Viertel vor acht sehe ich Sie im Cafe Wollmer.

Note the use of *um* in the verbal idiom *bitten um* 'ask for'.

Peter hat seine Mutter um hundert Schilling gebeten.
Peter asked his mother for 100 ÖS.

§20 A special group of prepositions is used with either the dative or the accusative, depending on the action expressed in the sentence:

Dat. — Acc.

an	auf	hinter	in	neben
über	unter	vor	zwischen	

When the prepositional phrase answers the question **Wo?** 'Where?', these prepositions are used with the dative case. If the prepositional phrase answers the question **Wohin?** 'Where to?', then they are used with the accusative.

wo = dative **wohin = accusative**

The crucial distinction between accusative and dative is not one of motion versus no motion, but of motion toward something (accusative) versus either location or motion within something (dative). It is possible for lots of movement to be taking place within a confined area — a child chasing a cat around in a room, for example. Because this is within a confined area, the preposition *in* would be used with the dative.

§21 **An** expresses physical location on or movement onto a **vertical** surface. It contracts with *dem* to yield **am**:

In der Mensa hängen die Annoncen immer am Schwarzen Brett. **dat.**
Wollen wir den Zettel an das Schwarze Brett hängen? **acc.**

An is also used to indicate location next to or movement toward something, usually a vertical surface:

Wer steht an meiner Tür? **dat.** . . . at my door
Gehen Sie bitte an das Fenster. **acc.** . . . to the window

But note this exception, decidedly a horizontal surface:

Wir fahren morgen ans Meer. **acc.** . . . to the ocean

An is an important part of verbal idioms. Note case usage:

teilnehmen an **dat.** *take part in* denken an **acc.** *think of*
arbeiten an **dat.** *work on, at* glauben an **acc.** *believe in*

Am introduces dates and days, telling when things are happening:

Erich kommt am 22. Juli wieder nach Hause.
Ach, schön, das ist am Dienstag, nicht?

§22 **Auf** expresses physical location on or movement onto a horizontal surface.

Ich glaube, ich schlafe heute Nachmittag auf dem Sofa. **dat.**
Bitte, legen Sie Ihre Sachen einfach auf den Stuhl. **acc.**

Auf is also often used to indicate location at or motion toward a place, usually a building in a town.

Mein Vater arbeitet immer noch auf der Post. **dat.**
Brigitte muß schnell auf die Post. **acc.**

Note the use of *auf* (acc.) in *warten auf*:

Wartet auf mich! *Wait for me!*

§23 **Hinter** indicates location or movement behind something:

Die Arbeiter bauen etwas hinter dem Bahnhof. **dat.**
Gehen Sie hinter den Bahnhof. Da finden Sie den Kiosk. **acc.**

§24 **In** shows location within or movement into something:

Arbeiten Sie gern in der Stadt? **dat.**
Ich muß schnell in die Stadt fahren. **acc.**

NOTE: As a separable verb prefix, *in* assumes the form *ein*:

eintreten *step in, enter*

§25 **Neben** expresses location or movement next to something:

Mein Büro steht neben der neuen Aula der Universität. **dat.**
Ach, stellen Sie die Lampe bitte neben die Couch. **acc.**

§26 **Über** indicates location or movement over something:

Der weiße Mond hängt über dem Garten. **dat.**
Der flinke braune Fuchs springt über den faulen Hund. **acc.**

When the meaning is 'about', *über* is always used with the accusative:

Das ist eine Geschichte über eine schöne Prinzessin.

§27 **Unter** shows location or movement under something:

Die Maus hat unter dem Schreibtisch geschlafen. **dat.**
Die Katze ist unter den Schreibtisch gesprungen. **acc.**

§28 **Vor** expresses location or movement in front of something:

Zwei große Polizisten stehen vor der Tür. **dat.**
Der Schauspieler tritt vor das Publikum. **acc.**

Vor is also used in time phrases to mean 'ago'. It **precedes** its object:

Vor 5 Minuten / 2 Wochen / einem Tag / einer Stunde **war er hier.**

He was here 5 minutes / 2 weeks / a day / an hour / **ago**.

Note the important verbal idioms dealing with fear: *angst haben vor* and *sich fürchten vor* (dat.).

Wer hat angst vor dem großen bösen Wolf?

Who's afraid of the big bad wolf?

Rotkäppchen fürchtet sich nicht vor ihm.

Little Red Riding Hood's not afraid of him.

§29 ***Zwischen*** shows location or movement **between** two things:

Der Junge schläft gern zwischen seinen Eltern.

dat.

Der Hund lief zwischen meine Beine und aus dem Haus.

acc.

§30 **IMPORTANT:** Remember that the **location/movement toward** distinction between dative and accusative applies **only** to the group of prepositions discussed in §§20-29. Do not apply this rule to the prepositions that take only the dative or only the accusative. Many beginning students believe, for example, that the prepositional phrase in "All our canaries flew out the window" should use the accusative case because of the obvious motion implied. But no matter how much motion is involved, *aus* still takes the dative case: *aus dem Fenster*.

WORD ORDER

§1 Human language is sequential. Sounds (or their written versions) precede and follow each other. All languages have principles of word order. Such principles describe how speech elements can be combined. Some principles of word order tell what must be done, others what can but need not be done, and still others what is downright impossible in a language.

Many speakers of a language do not have a conscious, analytic knowledge of its principles of word order, but all normal human beings acquire a detailed working knowledge of the structural patterns of their native language. Typically we absorb notions of word order unconsciously, by trial, error, and example, before we learn conscious rules. Certain patterns just “sound right”.

Learners of foreign languages acquire their knowledge in many different ways, in accord with their personalities and with the method of instruction or exposure. Students with informal exposure to a language, perhaps through family background or travel abroad, may approach word order “by ear”. Some language classes emphasize that attitude. Other students may prefer to work with carefully formulated “textbook” rules of word order.

Both approaches have their benefits, and we hope that in your study of German the notion of what “feels right” will go hand in hand with a clear knowledge of what “is right”. The important thing to remember is that principles of word order are not abstract, pointless formulas to be memorized and parroted back, but rather descriptions of how genuine human speech works. Thus it is important that you consider not only what the language looks like on the printed page, but also what it sounds like when it is spoken and heard. Rhythm, pitch, intonation, and pace are all vital factors in the understanding of word order. When you study, be sure to pay attention to SOUND as well as sight.

§2 The basic principle of English word order is that in statements (or “declarative sentences”) the subject immediately precedes the verb (and objects follow the verb).

SUBJECT	VERB	OBJECT
<i>The <u>dog</u></i>	<i><u>bit</u></i>	<i>the <u>man</u>.</i>
<i><u>They</u></i>	<i><u>threw</u></i>	<i>a <u>party</u> for the emperor.</i>
<i>His <u>son</u></i>	<i><u>loved</u></i>	<i>a famous <u>economist</u>.</i>

From these sentences it would be impossible to understand that the man was doing the biting, or to be sure that the famous economist returned the son’s love. In the second sentence, the form they confirms for speakers of English that the party cannot be the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes the subject is the second element of an English sentence:

Generally it rains on our picnic.
With a heavy heart, I’ve decided to resign.

Note that **subject — verb — object** is a basic principle of English word order, and only that. There are sentences with object — subject — verb order, such as “Him I like, but her I don’t”, but it is hard to imagine an English sentence with object — verb — subject order: “The ball kicked she in front of the bus”. In English, it is the **sequence** of forms that gives meaning to a sentence. If that were not true, then “The dog bit the man” could be understood in two ways.

- §3 **The most important feature** of declarative sentences in German is that **the verb comes second**.

FIRST	SECOND	REST OF STATEMENT
Ich	habe	keine Pommes frites.
Heute	fahren	wir nach Freiburg.
Mein Gepäck	ist	das nicht.
Morgen um 14 Uhr 52	sind	wir in Köln.

In German the subject often precedes the verb, but that is not by any means a hard and fast rule. The first element may be the subject, or it may be an object of some kind, or even a long phrase telling when, where, or how the action of the sentence will take place. In the last example above, the verb is the sixth word in the sentence, but it is the second element. The first five words are a long adverb phrase telling ‘when’.

Placement in first position lends emphasis to a word or phrase that would not command such attention if it were placed in the middle or at the end of a sentence. If this first element is not the subject of the sentence, then the subject must follow the verb immediately.

- §4 **Questions** Word order in German **questions** is very similar to that in English ones. In each language, a form of the verb must come first in a question — unless there is an introductory question word, or interrogative, present.

(INTERROGATIVE)	VERB	SUBJECT	REST OF SENTENCE
	Fahren	Sie	heute nach Stuttgart?
	Are	you	traveling to Stuttgart today?
Warum	fahren	Sie	heute nach Stuttgart?
Why	are	you	traveling to Stuttgart today?

- §5 In German, as in English, it is often true that “the tone makes the music”. That is, it is possible to say a sentence with normal declarative word order (See **Word Order §2**), but with intonation that says “This is a question” to the listener. Listen carefully to the intonation patterns in the sentences

She likes him. (He’s nice.) She likes him? (Yuk!)
She likes him? (What a mismatch!)
Das ist mein Gepäck. (Yep, that’s mine, all right.)
Das ist mein Gepäck? (Yeek! It didn’t look like that before!)

- §6 There can be more than one verb in a German sentence, but in each independent clause — in each clause that can stand alone in the sentence — only one of those verbs is the finite verb, one that agrees in number with the subject. In the case of the **modal** verbs, those that are used with a following infinitive, the modal itself comes in second position, thus obeying this firm word order rule (See **Verbs §21**).

	modal		infinitive
Ich	<u>kann</u>	ihn nicht so gut	<u>verstehen</u> .
	2		end

The finite verb in second position may be an auxiliary (*sein* or *haben*); see **Verbs §69**.

- §7 **Conjunctions** are used to tie — or conjoin — two sentence elements.

Möchten Sie Bier **oder** Apfelsaft?
 Ich nehme ein Zimmer mit Dusche **und** eins ohne Dusche.

Sometimes the second element is an entire sentence, and the result is a compound sentence:

Wir fahren am Dienstag.		Sie fahren am Donnerstag.
Wir fahren am Dienstag	und	sie fahren am Donnerstag.

The word order of the second sentence is unchanged if one of the following common **coordinating** conjunctions is used:

und	<i>and</i>	denn	<i>because</i>
aber	<i>but</i>	sondern	<i>but (rather)</i>
oder	<i>or</i>		

- §8 The coordinating conjunction **sondern** deserves special mention. Like *aber*, it has the English equivalent 'but', and it does appear when two sentence elements are being compared. However, *sondern* is used when the two elements are mutually exclusive.

Ich finde ihn ganz nett, aber er ist doch sehr krank, nicht wahr?
Gut, ich komme mit, aber es wird schon spät.

In these examples, it is certainly possible for someone to be sick and nice at the same time; it is also possible for someone to come along even if it is getting late. In neither of these cases are the possibilities **mutually exclusive**. The use of *sondern* rejects any compatibility between two choices, and is therefore often reinforced by *nicht* or *kein*:

Nein, sie liebt nicht Helmut, sondern Jürgen.
Im deutschen Süden ist das Klima nicht hart, sondern mild.
Es ist nicht wichtig, was man sagt, sondern was man macht.

- §9 **Subordinating** There is a group of conjunctions that change the word order of the clauses in which they appear. Unlike the coordinating conjunctions (§§6-7), the **subordinating conjunctions** place the main verb at the very end of the clause. A common example of these conjunctions is *wenn* 'if, whenever'.

2

Ich bleibe noch eine Weile, wenn Sie schnell kommen.

Note that *kommen*, the verb that matches the subject (the finite verb), appears at the end of the clause. The use of the subordinating conjunctions might seem to violate that supreme principle of German word order explained in §3, but it does not. The **main** verb in this sentence is *bleibe*. It appears in the main clause, which can stand alone as an independent unit:

Ich bleibe noch eine Weile.

The *wenn* clause, on the other hand, cannot stand alone. For good reason, it is called a **dependent** (or **subordinate**) **clause** because it needs another clause, an **independent** (or **main**) **clause**, for support.

The **wenn** function can be managed **without** *wenn*:

Hast du Geld? Ja? Dann gehen wir einkaufen.

but *wenn* expresses conditions more clearly and efficiently:

Wir gehen einkaufen, wenn du Geld hast.

- §10 Another high-frequency subordinating conjunction is **daß** 'that'. Again, *daß* cannot stand alone. The clause

that she's staying all day

requires introduction by 'She said', 'I hear', or another similar phrase.

Sie **bleibt** den ganzen Tag.
Wir wissen, daß sie den ganzen Tag **bleibt**.

The **daß** function can be managed **without** *daß*:

Vater kommt am Mittwoch wieder. Wir wissen das.

but *daß* relates one action to another more clearly and efficiently:

Wir wissen, daß Vater am Mittwoch wieder kommt.

- §11 The subordinating conjunction **als** ‘when’ is used to relate two events in past time. It, too, places the finite verb at the very end of its clause.

Es regnete immer, als wir im Nordwesten lebten.

Note that there are two subordinating conjunctions with the apparent meaning ‘when’. However, there is a fundamental difference between *wenn* and *als*. *Wenn* is used in the sense of ‘whenever’ — that is, in describing a repeated action in past, present, or future. *Als*, on the other hand, occurs only in sentences dealing with past time, and specifically a single event in past time. If the context of the above sentence were such that the speaker lived in the Northwest on several different occasions, then als would be incorrect; wenn would be the proper word, indicating repeated action in past time.

The **als** function can be managed without *als*:

Wir waren 2 Jahre in der Schweiz. Das Wetter war immer schön.

but *als* better expresses that two things happen at the same time:

Das Wetter war immer schön, als wir in der Schweiz waren.

- §12 Another subordinating conjunction, **ob**, is frequently confused with *wenn*, and again English is the source of the confusion — for ‘if’ is the meaning most commonly assigned to both. Whereas *wenn* means ‘if’ in hypothetical situations, however, — ‘If I only had some worms, I’d go fishing’. — *ob* means ‘if’ in the sense of ‘whether’, a word used much less frequently today than ‘if’. The simple test is thus: in cases where ‘whether’ can be substituted for ‘if’, use *ob*. *Ob* is often used in subordinate clauses following main clauses containing the verb *wissen*.

Daniela? Moment, bitte — ich weiß nicht, ob sie zu Hause ist.
Wissen Sie, ob es heute regnen soll?

The **ob** function can be managed without *ob*:

Arbeite ich heute abend? Ich weiß nicht.

but *ob* eliminates the need to formulate artificial questions:

Ich weiß nicht, ob ich heute abend arbeite.

- §13 There are many other subordinating conjunctions, but the ones given in the above paragraphs are the most important. Some others:

obwohl	<i>although</i>	weil	<i>because</i>
nachdem	<i>after</i> (See Verbs §74)	bevor	<i>before</i>
seitdem	<i>since</i> (involving time)	damit	<i>so that</i>
bis	<i>until</i>	während	<i>while</i>

- §14 A number of the conjunctions above have English equivalents that are identical in form to the corresponding English prepositions. Be sure to make the distinction between the two parts of speech. **Prepositions** take a noun or pronoun object, and **conjunctions** introduce an entire clause.

PREPOSITION:	Nach dem Krieg . . .	<i>after the war</i>
CONJUNCTION:	Nachdem der Krieg vorbei war,	<i>after the war was over,</i>
PREPOSITION:	Seit dem Jahre 1949	<i>since the year 1949</i>
CONJUNCTION:	Seitdem wir hier wohnen . . .	<i>since we’ve been living here</i>
PREPOSITION:	Bis nächste Woche	<i>until next week</i>
CONJUNCTION:	Bis du wiederkommst, . . .	<i>until you come back again</i>
PREPOSITION:	Vor dem Konzert	<i>before the concert</i>
CONJUNCTION:	Bevor wir ins Konzert gehen, . . .	<i>before we go to the concert</i>

- §15 **Interrogative words** can also function as subordinating conjunctions. That is, they can introduce clauses that give more information about something in the main clause; and they can place the verb at the end of the subordinate clause.

Weißt du, wann er von den Wanderferien zurückkommt?
 Können Sie mir bitte sagen, wieviel das alles kostet?
 Wissen Sie, wo ich die Meierstraße finden kann?

- §16 When the compound tenses — that is, those tenses that consist of more than one verbal element — are used in subordinate clauses, it is the finite verb that is placed at the very end of the clause. This takes precedence over the rule that places past participles and dependent infinitives at the very end.

auxiliary verb verb auxiliary
 Wann hast du sie eigentlich das letzte Mal gesehen?
 — Ich weiß nur, daß ich sie seit Jahren nicht mehr gesehen habe.

auxiliary verb
Kann er das wirklich tun? verb auxiliary
 — Ich weiß nicht, ob er das wirklich tun kann. Mal sehen!

- §17 Subordinate clauses occur not only as a second element of a longer sentence, as in the examples above, but can be in first position as well. When they do appear in first position, remember that the finite verb in the main clause must be in second position.

1 2
 Als wir in der Schweiz waren, war das Wetter immer schön.
 finite verb

1 2
 Wenn Sie schnell kommen, bleibe ich noch eine Weile.
 finite verb

1 1 1
 Als ich mit meinen Freunden nach Hause kam und sah, daß mein kleiner Sohn

1 1 2
 mit seinem Hamster in der Ecke hinter dem Buchregal schlief, war ich böse.
 finite verb

- §18 When **two nouns** occur together, the one that is definite comes first.

1 2
 Zu Weihnachten gebe ich meinem Bruder einen Pullover.
 definite indefinite
 Zu weihnachten gebe ich meinen Pullover einem Freund.

- §19 When a **noun and a pronoun** occur together, it is the pronoun that has word order priority and comes closer to the verb. When there are two pronouns, it is the accusative pronoun that comes first.

1 2
 Was mache ich mit dem Pullover? Ich gebe ihn meinem Bruder.
 pronoun noun

Bitte, bringen Sie es mir später.
 direct object indirect object

§20 **Word order of *nicht*.** *Nicht* generally follows both noun and pronoun objects, and adverbs of time. When it negates a whole clause, it comes at the end of the clause.

object
Nein, er hat es meinem Vater nicht gesagt.

object
Es ist heute nicht so schön.

adverb of time
Wir sehen ihn heute abend nicht.

Nicht precedes other sentence elements, including predicate nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verb complements.

noun:	Das ist <u>nicht</u> mein Gepäck.
adjective:	Es wird heute <u>nicht</u> so regerisch.
adverb:	Fahr <u>nicht</u> so schnell.
verb complement:	Wir haben <u>nicht</u> Fußball gespielt.

Nicht also negates what it immediately precedes. (See **Word Order §8**)

Ich kaufe heute nicht Käse, sondern Joghurt.

Nicht may also appear at the very end of a sentence in order to invite confirmation of something that has been said. It has a wide variety of English equivalents, all of which are simply *nicht (wahr)?* in German.

Hm. Sie sind Kanadierin, nicht wahr?	... <i>aren't you?</i>
Er kommt aus Wien, nicht?	... <i>isn't he?</i>
Sie wohnen alle in Madrid, nicht?	... <i>don't they?</i>

- **wrong verb tense**
 1. Action that continues from the past into the present must be expressed in the present tense; seit introduces the related time phrase.
~~Ich habe hier für zwei Monate gewohnt.~~
 Ich wohne seit zwei Monaten hier.
I've lived (been living) here for two months.
 2. Overuse of the one-word past tense in imitation of English, especially in ordinary conversation.
~~Heute morgen aßen wir im Hotel.~~
 Heute morgen haben wir im Hotel gegessen.
This morning we ate in the hotel.
- **use of haben where sein is required in the present perfect**
~~Ich habe nach Hause gegangen.~~ Ich bin nach Hause gegangen.
- **neglect of differences among grammatical cases**
 1. use of the nominative as the universal case
 Ich nehme ~~der~~ den Bus zu ~~der~~ dem Bahnhof.
 2. confusion of pronouns (especially *Sie* 'you' / *sie* 'she' / *sie* 'they')
~~Ist sie hier? Ja, ich bin sie ist hier.~~
- 3. confusion of accusative and dative objects
 Ich kaufe ~~meinen~~ meinem Bruder ein T-Shirt.
- 4. use of the accusative case after *sein*
 Das ist ~~einen~~ ein Fahrplan.
- **confusion of du and Sie**
 Bitte, sagen Sie mir ~~deine~~ Ihre Telefonnummer.
 (or: Bitte, sag mir deine Telefonnummer.)
- **confusion of pronouns, especially Sie/sie**
sie= she, her (accusative); they, them (accusative)
ihr = her (dative, genitive); you (familiar plural, nominative only)
- **Incorrect negation (nicht / kein - / nichts ; placement of nicht)**
 1. use of nicht as a universal negation, with no provision for kein
 Wir haben ~~nicht~~ keine Bananen.
 2. confusion of nicht and nichts
 Ich wußte ~~nichts~~. *I didn't know anything.*
 Ich wußte nicht. *I didn't know.*
 3. incorrect placement of nicht
 negation of entire action:
 Wir sind gestern nicht nach Hamburg gefahren.
We didn't go to Hamburg at all, anytime.
 negation of part of the action:
 Wir sind nicht gestern nach Hamburg gefahren.
Whether or not we went to Hamburg, we didn't go yesterday.
- **Incorrect choice of wann , wenn , als , ob**
~~Wann Wenn~~ es 6 Uhr ist, können wir essen.
~~Wann Als~~ ich 12 Jahre alt war, . . .
 Können Sie mir sagen, ~~wenn~~ ob Sie Wienerschnitzel haben?