PURPOSES   The Reference Grammar serves a variety of purposes. Above all, it supplements the Strukturen / Structures presentations in the Wie, bitte? Kontexte, which are short treatments of German structure that that present "just-in-time" – just what is needed for the current communicative tasks. The Reference Grammar, which is intended for study outside class, gives more complete explanations and examples of spoken and written German. It is intended both for expanded treatment of the points presented in the Kontexte, and for review in longer sections.

ORGANIZATION   The red links take you the main parts of the **Reference Grammar**. From each page you can return to this page and thus branch out to any of the parts. The body of the **Reference Grammar** is organized according to the relative importance of linguistic features at the introductory level, from nouns to word order. The TOPIC SUMMARY lists the main sections and their individual items. Each section – nouns, pronouns, and so on – begins with basic structures and proceeds to more complex ones. In this way you can always review a topic or read ahead in it, according to your needs or curiosity.   The *WIE, BITTE?* KONTEXT INDEX shows which items are appropriate for each part of the *Strukturen / Structures* presentations. PAGE 1 takes you to the first page of the topic presentations. COMMON GERMAN GRAMMAR ERRORS is a checklist of the relatively few grammar errors that most often trouble beginning learners of German.

HOW TO USE – AND WHETHER   Be sure to read the *Strukturen / Structures* section in the Kontext first. Then you may want to consult the keyed **Reference Grammar** section(s), either directly from the *Strukturen / Structures* sections, or by using the *WIE, BITTE?* KONTEXT INDEX. Some students may find that the *Strukturen / Structures* presentations are complete enough that they can get along very well without the **Reference Grammar.** Here is can be helpful to have an assessment of your learning styles. It is also good to remember that explanation of grammar are not the same thing as the language itself, any more than the cookbook is the same things as the food itself. If you concentrate on the **Reference Grammar** so much that you fail to use the language for real communicative purposes, you have missed the point.

SOME TECHNICAL TERMS   The *parts of speech* referred to in the **Reference Grammar** are defined in their individual sections, but here are some quick definitions for ready reference.
• **Nouns** name persons, places, things, qualities, or states, and are often the subjects of sentences: Mr. Holmes, Arkansas, cave, darkness, panic.
• **Pronouns** replace or substitute for nouns: she (Mrs. Holmes), they (the journalists), we (you and I).
• **Adjectives** describe nouns: dark, forthright, ambivalent, hairy.
• **Adverbs** tell more about verbs, adjectives, and even other adverbs: She sings well, he is extremely worried, they ran too fast.
• **Verbs** show action, state, or relation. They also indicate time: She falls/fell, he is/was afraid, it becomes/became chilly.
• **Prepositions** define relationships and precede nouns and adjectives: in her heart, between the two friends, with anxiety.

SCOPE   We do not intend this **Reference Grammar** to be an exhaustive grammar of German. However, it does contain all the structural information required for solid performance at a fairly advanced level. You will probably want to keep the **Reference Grammar** for use in your subsequent study of German.

TOPIC SUMMARY

The numbers below refer to *sections* within the topic, *not* to page numbers

NOUNS

1 Function of nouns
2 Noun spelling
3 Gender of nouns
4 Guessing noun gender
5 Plurals
6 Plural formation patterns
7 Dictionary symbols
8 Gender in the plural
9 Number and case (see **Adjectives §§3-7**)
10 Possession in nouns: von; the genitive
11 Compound nouns
12 Irregular nouns
13 Adjectival nouns
14 Dative plurals in -*n*
15 Accusative of definite time
16 Infinitives as nouns

PRONOUNS

1 Definition and function of pronouns
2 Pronouns replace noun phrases
3 Kinds of pronouns
4 Demonstrative pronouns
5 Personal pronouns
6 Perspective in personal pronouns
7 Accusative personal pronouns
8 Dative personal pronouns
9 Possessive pronouns
10 Endings of possessive pronouns
11 *du, dich, dir, dein*
12 *ihr, euch, euer*
13 Personal pronoun summary
14 Pronouns combined with prepositions; *da-*
15 Relative pronouns
16 Definite and indefinite pronouns
17 *man*
18 *jemand, niemand*
19 *nichts, etwas, alles*
20 Interrogative pronouns
21 *wem, wen*
22 Reflexive pronouns

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

1 Adjectives and adverbs defined
2 *der/die/das* as gender markers
3 Subjects; *d-* in the nominative case
4 Direct objects; *d-* in the accusative case
5 Indirect objects; *d-* in the dative case
6 Possession; *d-* in the genitive case
7 Summary of the definite article
8 Summary of the indefinite article; *kein*
9 *ein-, kein-* as pronouns
10 Endings of unpreceded adjectives
11 Adjective endings after *ein*: masculine and neuter nominative and accusative

12 Adjective endings after *ein*: feminine nominative and accusative
13 Adjective endings after *ein*: dative
14 Adjective endings after *ein*: genitive
15 Summary of adjective endings after *ein*
16 Adjective endings after d-: nominative and accusative
17 Adjective endings after *d-*: genitive and dative
18 *welch-, dies-, jed-, solch-*
19 Endings of adjectives in series
20 Adjectival nouns
21 Adjectival nouns of national identity
22 Comparison: positive, comparative, superlative
23 Positive forms
24 Comparative forms
25 Comparative forms with umlauted stem vowel
26 Comparative forms with endings
27 *so . . . wie*
28 *-er als*
29 Comparison strategy
30 Use of adverb + comparative form for greater precision
31 Superlative forms
32 Umlauted and irregular superlatives
33 Definition of adverbs
34 Adverb phrases
35 Superlative adverbs ending in *am -sten*
36 Word order of adverbs
37 Combining adverbs for greater precision
38 *noch, nicht mehr, kein- . . . mehr*
39 *schon, erst, noch nicht, noch kein-*
40 *gern, lieber, am liebsten*
41 *hin*
42 *her*
43 *-lang* for adverbs of time and distance

VERBS

1 Verb stem and ending
2 Tense: past, present, future
3 Tense signals
4 Present tense: stem vowel remains
5 Subjects match endings
6 Person and number
7 Pronouns and endings
8 *du + -st*
9 *ihr + -t*
10 Present tense + adverb = future tense
11 Present tense + *seit*
12 Stem-changing verbs
13 Stem changes with *du*
14 The verb *sein*
15 *du bist, ihr seid*
16 *er, sie, es hat*
17 *du hast*
18 *möchte* as a modal pattern
19 Function of the modal verbs
20 Five other modals
21 Word order of modals; *sehen, hören,* and *lassen* as modals

Reference Grammar Topic Summary

Reference Grammar Topic Summary

Reference Grammar

NOUNS

§1   **Nouns** identify. They may identify something animate (a <u>person</u>, a <u>tree</u>) or inanimate (a <u>rock</u>, a <u>city</u>), including abstract concepts such as <u>difficulty</u> or <u>justice</u>. 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 **A**merikaner   die **Ö**sterreicherin
> der **P**aß   die **F**ahrkarte   das **G**epäck

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

Gender of nouns

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

> **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 <u>Paß</u>.
> **Die** signifies **feminine** nouns such as <u>Fahrkarte</u>.
> **Das** represents **neuter** nouns such as <u>Gepäck</u>.

The correct forms of the nouns are <u>der</u> *Paß*, <u>die</u> *Fahrkarte*, and <u>das</u> *Gepäck*. **<u>Die</u> Paß*, **<u>das</u> Fahrkarte*, and **<u>der</u> 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 <u>grammatical gender</u>. But nouns referring to humans generally show <u>natural gender</u>, such as <u>der</u> *Kanadier* or <u>die</u> *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)   <u>Characteristic endings</u>: 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) <u>Characteristic suffixes</u>: 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
Plurals
Just as in English, German nouns generally have both **singular** and **plural** forms. 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 <u>ten-foot</u> 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.

SINGULAR	PLURAL
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

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

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

NOTE: In the dative plural all nouns (other than those whose plurals end in *-s*) end in *-n*.

NOMINATIVE PLURAL: die Tage   DATIVE PLURAL: nach zehn Tage<u>n</u>

§7 Many dictionaries show noun plurals by using a kind of shorthand:

der Mann, ⸚er

This entry means that the word *Mann* is masculine (<u>*der* Mann</u>), that the plural adds an *-er* to the stem, and that the stem vowel (M<u>a</u>nn) is umlauted (M<u>ä</u>nner). (Note the similarity to English 'man—men'.) Dictionary entries for the other words listed above are

die Flasche, -n   die Wurst, ⸚e   der Engländer, -
das Ticket, -s   die Kanadierin, -nen

§8 Gender is irrelevant in the plural. That is, regardless of gender, the dictionary forms of all plural nouns are identified by *die*: *die Männer*, *die Tickets*, *die Kanadierinnen*. **This does not mean that all nouns somehow "become" feminine in the plural!**

§9 In addition to **gender** (masculine, feminine, neuter) and **number** (singular, plural), all German nouns appear in one of four different **cases** according to their function within a sentence. For a discussion of the case system, see **Adjectives §§3-7**. Be sure to read that section before proceeding with this discussion of nouns.

§10 Nouns can show **possession** in a number of ways:

    a) **Personal names** add an *-s*, just as English names do. This is true of both masculine and feminine names: <u>*Karls*</u> *Freundin*, <u>*Martinas*</u> *Mutter*.

    b) Phrases such as 'my father's friend' are expressed in the form

the friend   of   my father

One common equivalent uses the dative preposition ***von***:

der Freund	**von**	mein<u>em</u> Vater
		mein<u>er</u> Schwester
		mein<u>en</u> Eltern

    c) Written German often uses the <u>genitive case</u> (without *von*!) to express possession. The genitive case is sometimes encountered in spoken German as well:

der Freund	mein<u>es</u> Vaters
	mein<u>er</u> Schwester
	mein<u>er</u> Eltern

      • In the genitive case, most singular **masculine and neuter nouns** end with an *-s*. An *-e-* is often inserted before the *-s* after nouns of one syllable. The article or other limiting word also ends in *-es*:

NOMINATIVE	GENITIVE
der Vater	Vorname <u>des</u> Vater<u>s</u>
der Großvater	Freunde mein<u>es</u> Großvater<u>s</u>
das Jahr	Ende <u>des</u> Jahr<u>es</u>

      • **Feminine nouns** have no characteristic genitive ending. The article or other limiting word, if there is one, ends in *-er*:

die Kinder mein<u>er</u> Tante   der Preis d<u>er</u> Fahrkarte

      • **Plural nouns** have no characteristic genitive ending. The article or other limiting word, if there is one, ends in *-er*:

die Eltern mein<u>er</u> Freunde

      • **Spoken German** tends to avoid genitive constructions. Speakers most often paraphrase by using the preposition *von* with the dative. See **Nouns §10b** above.

NOTE: The genitive is commonly used to express <u>indefinite past and future time</u>, 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

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
Irregular nouns

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

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

§13
Adjectival nouns

(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	*the German (man)*	der Alte	*the old man*
die Deutsche	*the German (woman)*	die Alte	*the old woman*
die Deutschen	*the Germans*	das Alte	*that which is old; old stuff*

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

ein Bekannter von mir	*an acquaintance of mine* (masculine nominative singular)
ich habe einen Bekannten in . . .	*I have an acquaintance in . . .* (masculine accusative singular)
Das sind unsere Verwandten.	*Those are our relatives.* (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 Männe<u>n</u>
die Würste	mit den Würste<u>n</u>
die Engländer	mit den Engländer<u>n</u>

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

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 <u>she</u>, <u>herself</u>, and <u>her</u> substitute for the name <u>Margaret</u>. 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

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

When demonstrative pronouns refer to <u>people</u>, 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:

> <u>Dies</u> ist meine Wurst, und <u>das</u> ist Ihre Wurst.

§5

Personal

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:

Possessive

EXAMPLE	"OWNER"	THING "OWNED"
my cows	*I*	*cows*
your father	*you*	*father*
her dark eyes	*she*	*eyes*
their semester grades	*they*	*grades*

Here the relationships are between

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

In German the relationships are

	SINGULAR		PLURAL		
	pronoun	*possessive*		*pronoun*	*possessive*
FIRST PERSON	ich		mein	wir	unser
SECOND PERSON	Sie		Ihr	Sie	Ihr
	er	sein			
THIRD PERSON	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	mein<u>e</u> Fahrkarte	Ihr Gepäck	Ihr<u>e</u> 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	ich	du
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	ihr
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 **eur<u>em</u>** Vater   für **eur<u>e</u>** 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 <u>when the pronouns refer to people</u>.

<u>When the pronouns refer to objects</u>, 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

§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 <u>antecedents</u>) and stand at the beginning of a <u>relative clause</u>.

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

<u>FORM</u>: Relative pronouns have the same forms as the <u>demonstrative pronoun</u>:

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

<u>USAGE</u>: 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 <u>case</u> 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 <u>end</u> of the clause.

nominative   Das war der Junge, <u>der</u> immer so schön <u>singt</u>.

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, <u>deren</u> Hand meine Katze gebissen <u>hat</u>, 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, <u>dem</u> 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 <u>to the child</u>.

accusative   Der Berg, <u>den</u> 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 <u>must</u> 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 <u>direct or indirect questions</u>. 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 <u>who you are</u>.*
                                                              Do you know <u>who that is</u>?

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

<u>Wer</u> ist das?   <u>Wer</u> sind denn diese Leute?

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

<u>Wessen</u> Mantel ist das?   Ist das Heidis Mantel?

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

SUBJECT (nominative)
<u>Wem</u> hat er denn das Geld gegeben?
       RECIPIENT (dative)

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

<u>Wen</u> 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:

<u>Mit wem</u> bist du eigentlich zum Zoo gegangen?
<u>Für wen</u> 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 <u>not</u> 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 '<u>where</u>-', 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 <u>dative</u> case. If the subject does something to himself directly ('He bit himself'.), the reflexive pronoun appears in the <u>accusative</u> case. (See the discussion of verbs used with reflexive pronouns in **Verbs §41**ff.)

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 §41**ff.

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</u> <u>selber</u>.

INTENSIFIER

ADJECTIVES & ADVERBS

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

> <u>Der</u> Kartoffelsalat kostet DM 2,20.
> <u>Die</u> Fahrkarte ist nicht zu teuer.
> <u>Das</u> 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 — <u>regardless of gender</u> — that appear in the nominative case are identified by the article *die*:

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

SUMMARY: definite articles in the <u>nominative</u> 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*:

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

SUMMARY: definite articles in the <u>accusative</u> 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 <u>den</u> Männern eine Flasche Wein, <u>den</u> Frauen je ein
        Liter Pils und <u>den</u> 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 §4**ff. and **§20**ff.)

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

SUMMARY: definite articles in the <u>dative</u> case

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER	PLURAL
dem	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 <u>doctor's</u> children

or it may be intangible, as in

the end <u>of the day</u>.

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 <u>genitive</u> 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 <u>one</u>!*
Do you have some money?	*No, I do<u>n't</u> have <u>any</u>.*

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 ein**e** [Schildkröte]!
Haben Sie einen 10-Mark-Schein?	Nein, ich habe kein**en** [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 *ein<u>es</u>* shortened to *ein<u>s</u>*:

<u>de</u>r Bleistift

MASCULINE NOMINATIVE: Wo ist ein Bleistift?   Hier ist ein<u>er</u>.

<div align="right">das Auto</div>

NEUTER ACCUSATIVE: Wer hat ein neues Auto?   Ich habe ein<u>s</u>.

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:

<div align="center">anticipates <u>der</u> Freund</div>

Wer ist das?   Das ist ein<u>er</u> von meinen Freunden.
<div align="center">Das ist ein<u>er</u> mein<u>er</u> Freunde.</div>

<div align="center">genitive plural</div>

<div align="center">anticipates <u>die</u> Freundin</div>
<div align="center">Das ist ein<u>e</u> von meinen Freundinnen.</div>
<div align="center">Das ist ein<u>e</u> mein<u>er</u> Freundinnen.</div>

<div align="center">genitive plural</div>

§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 <u>old gray</u> mare*
complementary: *the mare is <u>old</u> and <u>gray</u>*

When adjectives <u>follow</u> the nouns they modify, their form stays the same in German:

kalt: Das Wetter ist <u>kalt</u>.
schön: Die Autos waren sehr <u>schön</u>.

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

MASCULINE: de<u>r</u> Wein   kühl<u>er</u> Wein
FEMININE: di<u>e</u> Milch   frisch<u>e</u> Milch
NEUTER: da<u>s</u> Obst   gut<u>es</u> Obst
PLURAL: di<u>e</u> Kinder   lieb<u>e</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 <u>definite</u> 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 <u>indefinite</u> article *ein-*, however, it fails in three instances to indicate the function of the following noun:

	MASCULINE	NEUTER
NOMINATIVE	ein	ein
ACCUSATIVE		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 alt**er** Mann	ein alt**es** Haus
ACCUSATIVE		ein alt**es** Haus

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

NOMINATIVE	eine alt**e** Frau
ACCUSATIVE	eine alt**e** 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_ alter Mann	eine alte Frau	ein_ liebes Kind	meine lieben Kinder
DAT	einem alten Mann	einer alten Frau	einem lieben Kind	meinen lieben Kindern
ACC	einen alten Mann	eine alte Frau	ein_ liebes Kind	meine lieben 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 alte Mann	die alte Frau	das alte Auto	die alten Autos
ACC.	den alten Mann	die alte Frau	das alte Auto	die alten 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 alten Mannes	der alten Frau	des alten Autos	der alten Autos
DAT.	dem alten Mann	der alten Frau	dem alten Auto	den alten 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:

> <u>das Böse</u> = *evil, that which is evil, the evil thing,* etc.
> <u>das Gute</u> = *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*.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE
schön	schöner
weit	weiter
interessant	interessanter

NOTE: Although many speakers of English use the superlative (best, highest, etc.) to compare two things, German <u>must</u> 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 *old—elder*)
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*:

<div align="center">

comparative suffix

ein tapfererer Soldat   *a braver soldier*

adjective ending

</div>

§27 Comparison can be carried out without the *-er* ending. If object A is <u>better than</u> object B, then object B is <u>not as good as</u> object A. The formula used to compare two things from the <u>perspective of the lesser</u> 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 <u>so schön wie</u> das Meer.

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

Das Meer ist <u>schöner als</u> 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 <u>so hoch wie</u> die Berge in Wyoming.

— So, in Wyoming sind die Berge also <u>höher</u> — 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 <u>three or more</u> unequal things are being compared.

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

There are two environments for superlative forms: one <u>before</u> nouns and one <u>after</u> 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 <u>am schönsten</u>.
Konrad hat viel Geld, und Jürgens Vater ist Millionär. . .
— aber Elisabeth ist <u>am reichsten</u>.

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

<u>kleinst</u>- Christina ist die kleinst**e** Tänzerin in der Gruppe.
<u>teuerst</u>- Die teuerst**en** Diamanten finde ich nicht schön.

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

Die teuersten Diamanten sind auch <u>die schönsten</u> [Diamanten].
Ja, Hunde sind gute Haustiere. Aber <u>die besten</u> [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**chs**t-
hoch, hoh-	hö**h**er	höchst-
groß	größer	größt-

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 '-<u>ly</u>'. 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 <u>good</u> (adjective), but she sings <u>well</u> (adverb).

Adverbs answer the questions 'When?, 'Where?, 'How?, 'How far?', 'To what extent?', etc. That is, they tell <u>time</u>, <u>location</u>, <u>direction</u>, <u>manner</u>, <u>extent</u>, 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	warum	deshalb	wegen dem Wetter
or REASON	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 <u>am 29. März</u> <u>im Auditorium Maximum</u>.
adverb tells where

<u>In der Stadthalle am linken Ufer des Rheins</u> 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 Sängerinnen singt Barbara weitaus <u>am schönsten</u>.

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

Word order

<u>Morgens</u> 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.

<u>Mit meinem Hund</u> 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.

how
<u>Am Donnerstag</u> gehe ich <u>mit meinem Hund</u> <u>im Stadtpark</u> spazieren.
when   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:

general
Wir kommen <u>morgen Abend</u> <u>um sieben Uhr</u>.
specific

general   general
Er findet uns <u>im Park</u> <u>neben dem Rathaus</u>. Ihr Koffer ist <u>oben</u> <u>im zweiten Stock</u>.
specific   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 <u>still</u> exists.

Sind Sie <u>noch</u> 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 <u>immer noch</u> in Bonn?   *Don't tell me he's still in Bonn!*

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

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

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

Entschuldigung. Haben Sie heute <u>noch Zeit</u>? Es tut mir leid, daß ich so spät komme.
— Nein, jetzt habe ich <u>keine Zeit mehr</u>. 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 <u>schon</u> hier? Ich dachte, Sie kommen <u>erst</u> um 8 Uhr.
— Ja, ich weiß. Es ist jetzt <u>erst</u> 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 <u>schon</u> hier? Ach, ich hoffe es!
— Nein, sie ist <u>noch nicht</u> hier. Ich sage es Ihnen, wenn sie kommt.
(IDEA: ist sie hier?)

NOTE: *Noch nicht* is <u>not</u> the negative of *noch*!

Noch <u>kein</u>- negates nouns:

Haben Sie Ihren Brief schon?
— Nein, ich habe <u>noch keine Post</u> bekommen.   (noun: Post)
Aber warum nicht?
— Nun, ich war <u>noch nicht</u> 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, <u>gern</u>. Ich komme <u>gern</u> mit.

Ja, mein Franz spielt so <u>gern</u> mit seiner Modelleisenbahn. Schade!
— Warum schade? Es ist schön, daß Ihr Enkel <u>gern</u> spielt.
Aber Franz ist mein Mann! Er ist doch 87 Jahre alt!
— Nun, seien Sie nicht so. Ich möchte auch <u>gern</u> 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 <u>lieber</u>.

Was möchten Sie <u>lieber</u> machen? Reiten oder im Gummiboot paddeln?
Ich glaube, ich möchte <u>lieber</u> 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 <u>am liebsten</u> höre ich Schostakowitsch.

So. Jetzt haben wir ein ganzes Wochenende. Was möchten Sie <u>am liebsten</u> machen?

§41 The adverb **hin** shows motion <u>away from the speaker</u>. 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 <u>nach Amerika hin</u>gezogen.
Zuerst wollten sie nach New York <u>hin</u>, aber dann kamen sie nach New Orleans.

<u>Wo</u> gehen Sie <u>hin</u>, bitte?   or   <u>Wohin</u> gehen Sie, bitte?
_____   *Where are you going?*

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

Steigen Sie nur <u>hinauf</u>.   *Go ahead and climb on up.*
Ach, mein Hut ist von der Turmspitze <u>hinunter</u>gefallen!
                                   down away (from me)

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

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

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

<u>Herein</u>, bitte!   Kommen Sie bitte <u>herunter</u>.
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 <u>her</u> 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 <u>noun plurals</u> in order to indicate distance or duration of time.**

der Tag, -e	tagelang
die Woche, -en	wochenlang
der Monat, -e	monatelang
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:

> k**o**mmen: ich k**o**mme

§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 <u>first</u>.) 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.

SINGULAR	PLURAL
he	
she	*they*
it	

§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:

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

You must learn that the pronoun *ich* matches the verb ending *-<u>e</u>*, the pronoun *er* matches the verb ending *-t*, and so on. There is no such thing as *<u>er kommen</u> or *<u>ich kommt</u>; 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 komm**st**, du studier**st**, du bring**st**.* Just as *du* has a close relative in archaic English 'thou', the *-st* ending is historically the same as in older English forms 'thou <u>hast</u>', 'thou <u>preparest</u>', 'thou <u>anointest</u>'.

§9 The second person plural pronoun ***ihr*** is always paired with the verb ending *-t: ihr geh**t**, ihr komm**t**, ihr fahr**t** 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 <u>present time</u>. It is also used to refer to <u>time in the near future</u>, especially when the sentence includes a future time expression:

> Ich <u>treffe</u> Sie <u>um 4 Uhr</u> am Rathausplatz.
> Wir <u>fahren</u> <u>morgen abend</u> 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 <u>since</u> March.*
> Ich spiele Poker schon seit 20 Jahren.
>> *I've been playing / have played poker <u>for</u> 20 years.*

This structure is used <u>only</u> 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 <u>third person singular</u> (*er/sie/es* form). Most of these verbs have the stem vowel *-e-*:

INFINITIVE	3RD PERSON SINGULAR
ess<u>en</u>	er i<u>ß</u>t
verg<u>e</u>ssen	er vergi<u>ß</u>t
spr<u>e</u>chen	sie spri<u>c</u>ht
tr<u>e</u>ffen	er tri<u>ff</u>t
n<u>e</u>hmen	sie ni<u>mm</u>t (irregular)
g<u>e</u>ben	es gi<u>b</u>t
s<u>e</u>hen	sie s i<u>e</u>ht (note: <u>ie</u>, not <u>i</u>)

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

f<u>a</u>hren	sie f<u>ä</u>hrt
tr<u>a</u>gen	er tr<u>ä</u>gt
schl<u>a</u>fen	sie schl<u>ä</u>ft

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>
<u>Du 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 <u>hat</u> keine Fahrkarte.

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

> Wieviel Geld <u>hast</u> 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 <u>möchte</u> eine Weißwurst, bitte.

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

> Wir <u>möchten</u> in die Schweiz <u>fahren</u>.

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	*can, may, be able to*	(action is <u>possible</u>)
MüSSEN	*must, have to, gotta*	(action is <u>physically necessary</u>)
SOLLEN	*supposed to*	(action is <u>morally necessary</u>)
WOLLEN	*want to*	(action is <u>very desirable</u>)
DüRFEN	*may, be allowed to*	(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 <u>fahren</u>.
> We **want to** <u>go</u> 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 <u>sehe</u> ich ihn <u>kommen</u>.	*I finally see him coming.*
<u>Hörst</u> du sie <u>singen</u>?	*Do you hear her singing?*
<u>Lassen</u> Sie mich doch <u>gehen</u>!	*Let me go!*

§22   ***Können***: Action is possible. Someone 'is <u>able</u> 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 '<u>has</u> 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).*
>   (<u>not</u> *You mustn't eat that.*)

§24   ***Sollen***: Action is morally necessary. One 'is <u>obligated</u> 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 <u>soll</u> sehr schön <u>sein</u>.
>   *Innsbruck <u>is said to be</u> very beautiful.*
>   *People say that Innsbruck <u>is</u> very beautiful.*

§25   ***Wollen***: Action is desirable. Someone '<u>wants</u> 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 <u>not</u> mean 'will'. The two words have the same origin, but vastly different meanings today. Remember that 'I <u>will</u> go tomorrow' is simply *Ich gehe morgen*.

§26   ***Dürfen***: Action is permissible. Someone 'is <u>allowed</u> to' 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 <u>weiß</u> seinen Namen.   *I know that fact.*
> Aber ich <u>kenne</u> 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	mu<u>ßt</u>	(note spelling)
sollen	soll	sollst	
wollen	will	willst	
dürfen	darf	darfst	
wissen	weiß	wei<u>ßt</u>	(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
Separable

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	*out*	+ gehen *go*	ausgehen	*go out, exit*
durch	*through*	+ gehen	durchgehen	*go through*
unter	*under*	+ gehen	untergehen	*go down* (the sun), *decline* (the Roman Empire)

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 <u>assumed</u> his new duties as division chief.

we also derive a figurative meaning:

    He <u>assumed</u> 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 <u>very end of the clause</u>. 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 <u>ein</u>, oder kommen Sie jetzt mit?
    Ich kaufe heute Nachmittag <u>ein</u>.
    Ich möchte später <u>einkaufen</u>.

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

§32
Inseparable

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	*come*	bekommen	*get, receive*	entkommen	*escape*
hören	*hear*	gehören	*belong*	verhören	*interrogate*

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

kaufen	*buy*	verkaufen	*sell*

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, *über**setz**en* and *über*setzen 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: *über'setzen* '**translate**' vs. *'übersetzen* '**set across**'.

§34
Complements

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 <u>subordinate clauses</u> (after subordinating conjunctions such as *wenn*) the verb complement appears <u>near</u> 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 <u>work</u>, we can construct sentences of very different meanings using the different phrases <u>work with</u>, <u>work at</u>, <u>work under</u>. In addition, we can work <u>under pressure</u> and work <u>under a supervisor</u>, and even work <u>under cover</u> or <u>under an assumed name</u> or <u>under a tent</u> — all with different meanings that cannot be anticipated or perceived when we hear merely the word <u>work</u>.

These combinations of verbs and prepositions contribute much to our flexibility as speakers and writers of English. We wait <u>for</u> things, speak <u>about</u> them, and are interested <u>in</u> 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.

| von | **dative** | Sie spricht immer von ihrer Reise nach Österreich. |
| für | **accusative** | Ich interessiere mich für 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 <u>with a specific case</u> 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 <u>wartet</u> am Bahnhof <u>auf</u> sein<u>en</u> Bruder.
> *He's waiting <u>for</u> his brother at the station.*

Thus we must learn *warten auf* <u>with accusative</u> 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 <u>wartet</u> am Bahnhof <u>auf</u> sein<u>em</u> Bruder.
> *He's waiting <u>on top of</u> 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 <u>verb complement</u> is a **verb** itself. As in English 'go', the German verb <u>gehen</u> 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 <u>end</u> of the clause:

> Heute morgen <u>gehe</u> ich mit meiner Mutter <u>einkaufen</u>.

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

> Ich <u>möchte</u> mit dir einmal einkaufen <u>gehen</u>.

Other verbal complements include <u>stehenbleiben</u> and <u>kennenlernen</u>.

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

§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!   *Please help me!* (Give aid to me)
> Womit kann ich Ihnen <u>dienen</u>?   *What can I help you with?*
>   (help = give service to)

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

> Mir? Nein, das gehört <u>mir</u> nicht. Vielleicht gehört es mein<u>er</u> Mutter.

Gefallen is the verb most commonly used to indicate <u>liking</u>. Because it is used so often, its special meaning must be understood: it does <u>not</u> 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?   *Do you like that?*
> Der Film hat uns wirklich sehr gut <u>gefallen</u>.   *We really liked the movie.*

Note that what appears as the object in the English 'I like <u>it</u>' 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 <u>Ihnen</u>/<u>dir</u> heute?	*How "does it go with you" today?*
	(How are you?)
Danke, es <u>geht mir</u> gut.	*I'm fine, thanks.*

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

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

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

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

§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 am eating	Ich bin essen
I don't drink milk	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 <u>was</u> always fun or <u>will</u> always <u>be</u> 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 <u>separable prefix</u> (See **Verbs §31**), the *zu* is enclosed between the infinitive and the prefix:

Es ist immer schön, unsere Eltern an<u>zu</u>rufen.

§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, <u>um</u> ihren Bruder bei der Polizei <u>abzuholen</u>.

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

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

> Jörg ging einkaufen, <u>ohne</u> sein ganzes Geld <u>auszugeben</u>.
> *Jörg went shopping without spending all his money.*

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

§41
Reflexives

Reflexive constructions involve actions that are directed back upon the subject of the verb: He <u>bit himself</u>, they <u>threw themselves</u> at her feet. In English reflexive constructions involve a pronoun ending in -<u>self</u>/-<u>selves</u>. 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 <u>for</u> 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.)	*look forward to* ich freue mich immer auf Weihnachten.
sich freuen über (acc.)	*be happy about* Er freut sich über sein neues Baby.
sich erinnern an (acc.)	*remember* Erinnerst du dich an deinen alten Freund Max?
sich interessieren für (acc.)	*be interested in* Interessieren Sie sich für Jazz?
sich beschäftigen mit (dat.)	*be busy with* Sie hat keine Zeit. Sie beschäftigt sich mit ihren Steuern.
sich wundern über (acc.)	*be amazed about* Wir wundern uns über dein Glück.
sich gewöhnen an (acc.)	*get used to* 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   *consider something*
> sich etwas anschauen   *take a look at something*
> sich etwas vorstellen   *imagine something*
> sich etwas anhören   *(take a) listen to something*

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

§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**. <u>Mood</u> 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 <u>sprechen</u>.**
> > *Please do not speak to the driver.*
> **Bitte nicht <u>hinauslehnen</u>.**
> > *Do not lean out of the window.*
> **Nicht <u>öffnen</u>, bevor der Zug hält!**
> > *Do not open until the train stops!*
> **Nicht <u>rauchen</u>.**
> > *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:

> **Sei<u>e</u>n 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 <u>ourselves</u>, 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*:

<u>Fahren wir</u> doch in die Stadt zum Zirkus.
<u>Bleiben wir</u> 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 umlauted 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-umlauted 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 <u>saw</u> a bear now, he'd <u>run</u>.*

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 <u>had seen</u> a bear then, he <u>would have run</u>.*

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

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'm not buying a present. But if I <u>bought</u> (<u>were buying</u>) one, . . .

Er holt mir kein Bier. Aber wenn er mir ein Bier <u>holte</u>, . . .
  He's not fetching me a beer. But if he <u>fetched</u> (<u>were fetching</u>) me one, . . .

Note that there are various possibilities for the English subjunctive here: 'If I <u>bought</u>', 'if I <u>were buying</u>', 'if I <u>were to buy</u>', 'if I <u>happened to buy</u>', 'if I <u>should buy</u>' — 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**
Wenn ich ein Geschenk <u>kaufte</u>, <u>hätte</u> ich kein Geld mehr.
        If I bought a present, I wouldn't have any more money.

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

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

§58
würde

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.

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 <u>würde</u> ins Theater <u>gehen</u>, wenn ich as Geld hätte.
Ich <u>ginge</u> 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 <u>sehen würde</u>, <u>würde</u> ich <u>weglaufen</u>.

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

FORMAL:	Wenn ich den Bären sähe, <u>würde</u> ich <u>weglaufen</u>.
MORE FORMAL:	Wenn ich den Bären sähe, liefe 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
Past subjunctive

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

PAST: *If he <u>had seen</u> a bear, he <u>would have run</u>.*

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 <u>gesehen hätte</u>, <u>wäre</u> er <u>gelaufen</u>.

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 <u>wäre gelaufen</u>, wenn er einen Bären <u>gesehen hätte</u>.

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 <u>present tense</u>, the <u>present subjunctive</u> 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 <u>past subjunctive</u>:

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

§61

Future tense

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 <u>werden</u> wir alle mit dem Postbus nach Trimmis <u>fahren</u>.

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

> Er sagte, <u>daß</u> wir alle morgen mit dem Postbus fahren <u>werden</u>.

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

> Morgen wirst du es besser verstehen <u>können</u>.

§62

Past tense

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:

INFINITIVE	PAST STEM
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:

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

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:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
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 <u>first principal part</u> of a verb, and the past stem is called the <u>second principal part</u>.

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

Additional examples of irregular verbs with all their principal parts are listed in the Wie, bitte? Survival Grammar.

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

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
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:

INFINITIVE		PAST STEM
bringen	*bring*	brachte
denken	*think*	dachte
kennen	*know*	kannte
nennen	*call*	nannte
rennen	*run*	rannte
wissen	*know*	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 -<u>d</u> (such as <u>said</u> from <u>say</u>), 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:

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

§68
Present perfect

The **present perfect tense**, sometimes called the **conversational past**, is used in everyday speaking about events in past time. <u>It does not describe a time different from that described by the past tense</u>. 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 <u>past participle</u> 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 <u>have drunk</u> 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 <u>haben</u> heute keine Bananen <u>gekauft</u>.
Sie <u>hat</u> in der Stadtmitte nur Rockmusik <u>gehört</u>.

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

Sie hat das Brot schon ein<u>**ge**packt</u>.

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

Müllers haben ihr Haus schon <u>verkauft</u>.

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

Sie hat <u>studiert</u>.   Wir haben schon <u>telefoniert</u>.   Haben Sie es <u>reserviert</u>?

§70
Irregular verbs

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 <u>hat</u> wunderschöne Lieder <u>gesungen</u>.
Endlich <u>haben</u> sie oben auf dem Berg <u>gestanden</u>.

§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 <u>is</u> 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 <u>ist</u> früh am Abend <u>eingeschlafen</u> und erst spät am Morgen <u>aufgewacht</u>.

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

> Wir <u>sind</u> nur kurz im Westerwald <u>gewesen</u>.
> Wie lange <u>sind</u> Sie eigentlich in der Steiermark <u>geblieben</u>?

§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	*bring*	hat gebracht
denken	*think*	hat gedacht
kennen	*know*	hat gekannt
nennen	*call*	hat genannt
senden	*send*	hat gesandt
wissen	*know*	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.*   (<u>Thunks</u>, 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 <u>hadn't</u> seen him for years" makes no sense unless we know that she was just visiting him or was looking for him. The statement "She <u>hasn't</u> 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 <u>past</u> instead of the <u>present</u>, 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 <u>past</u> 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 <u>have met</u> the enemy, and he is ours.*
> PAST PERFECT: *We <u>had met</u> the enemy, and he was ours.*

German operates the way English does, using the <u>past</u> 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. *He received the present.*   2. *I saw him.*
Als ich in Dübendorf ankam, <u>war</u> die Familie schon <u>abgefahren</u>.
TIME: 1. *The family departed.*   2. *I arrived in Dübendorf.*

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:

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

§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 finally saw him coming.*
Hast du sie <u>singen hören</u>?   *Did you hear her sing/ing?*
Er hat mich nach einer Stunde <u>gehen lassen</u>. *He let me go after an hour.*

§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 <u>active voice</u>, in which the subject of each sentence was performing an action. In the <u>passive voice</u> the subject of a sentence is acted upon by someone or something else in the sentence. Note the difference:

ACTIVE: *They took him to the station in a Volkswagen.*
PASSIVE: *He was taken to the station in a Volkswagen.*

The first sentence is in the active voice: 'They' is the subject, and 'him' is the object of the verb <u>took</u>. 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 <u>wurde</u> in einem Volkswagen zum Bahnhof <u>gebracht</u>.
        He <u>was (being) taken</u> 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 <u>past</u>. If the helping verb were *wird*, in the present tense, the action would be taking place in the <u>present</u>:

Er <u>wird</u> in einem Volkswagen zum Bahnhof <u>gebracht</u>.
        He's <u>being taken</u> 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 <u>von drei Männern</u> in Schwarz zum Bahnhof gebracht.
        He's being taken to the station <u>by three men</u> in black.

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

In the **present perfect** the verb *werden* still functions as a sign of the passive, but must have the helping verb *sein. Werden* appears in the form *worden* after the past participle:

> Er <u>ist</u> schon zum Bahnhof <u>gebracht worden</u>.
> *He 's already <u>been taken</u> to the station.*

In the **past perfect** the helping verb changes from the present to the past tense, according to the principle established in **§74**:

> Er <u>war</u> schon zum Bahnhof <u>gebracht worden</u>, als ich ihn sah.
> *He <u>had</u> already <u>been brought</u> to the station when I saw him.*

The **future** tense of the passive voice causes casual observers to throw up their hands in dismay because the sign of the future tense and the sign of the passive voice are one and the same verb, *werden*. Bear in mind, however, that the future is simply a form of *werden* plus an infinitive at the end of the clause.

>   future sign   passive sign
> Er <u>wird</u> zum Bahnhof gebracht <u>werden</u>.

Here the infinitive in the sentence is not an <u>active infinitive</u>, *bringen* 'bring', but rather a <u>passive infinitive</u>, *gebracht werden* '**be brought**'.

§79   When the passive voice is used with **modals**, the construction is parallel to that of the future passive (**§78**). The modal verb is used in combination with a passive infinitive, and the construction parallels exactly that in English. As in all modal constructions, the infinitive comes at the end of the sentence:

>   modal   past part.   passive sign
> Das <u>kann</u> schnell <u>gemacht</u> <u>werden</u>.
>
>   passive sign
> *That <u>can</u> <u>be</u> <u>done</u> quickly.*
>   modal   past part.

§80   English speakers tend to avoid heavy use of the passive voice, and German speakers often seek substitutes for the passive as well. One mechanism for replacing the passive voice, of course, is a switch to the active. Where no agent is present in the passive version (as in many of the sentences in **§78**), ***man*** is added to provide an active subject. Remember that *man* does not specify an individual, but simply 'they, someone'.

> PASSIVE: Er <u>wurde</u> zum Bahnhof <u>gebracht</u>.
> ACTIVE: <u>Man brachte</u> ihn zum Bahnhof.

A different substitute for the passive is the use of an infinitive phrase, the combination of *zu* and an infinitive:

> PASSIVE: Er wird nur schwer verstanden.
>   *He can be understood only with difficulty.*
> ACTIVE: Er ist schwer zu verstehen.
>   *He's hard to understand.*

§81   After an action has been performed, it can be described as a completed action. A door that <u>has been closed</u> (passive construction) is a <u>closed</u> door (adjectival description). A piece of cheese that <u>has been melted</u> (passive construction) is properly described as <u>melted</u> cheese (adjectival description). On the one hand we have a true passive voice, and on the other we have what is often called the **false passive**, or **statal passive**. The <u>false passive</u> is really just the use of an adjective, which may come before or after a noun:

> *That door is now <u>closed</u>.*
> *We discuss those things behind <u>closed</u> doors.*

Grammatically, all participles are adjectives, and here they can be seen clearly in that function. Because they are adjectives, they must agree with the nouns they precede:

> Das ist eine geschlosse<u>ne</u> Tür.

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 <u>how</u>, <u>where</u>, <u>when</u>, <u>in what direction</u>, or even <u>why</u> something happens.

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

§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 <u>always</u> used with the <u>dative</u> 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   *out of the house*
> . . . aus dem Jahre 1907   *dating from the year 1907*
> . . . aus den Vereinigten Staaten   *from the U.S.A.*

§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 <u>in time</u>, mainly in discussing historical origins:

> Der Dom stammt <u>aus dem 14. Jahrhundert</u>.   *dates from the 14th century*
> 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?
>   *Did George Washington really have wooden teeth?*

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

A town can be located <u>near</u> another (usually larger) one:

> Beutelsbach <u>bei</u> Stuttgart.

If someone lives <u>next to</u> (or <u>by</u>) a church, then

> Er wohnt <u>bei</u> der Kirche.

When I am <u>at</u> the barber shop, then

> Ich bin bei<u>m</u> (=bei dem) Friseur.

If I live <u>with</u> my parents in their house, then

> Ich wohne <u>bei</u> meinen Eltern.

If I have no money <u>with</u> (or <u>on</u>) me, then

> Ich habe kein Geld <u>bei</u> mir.

Bei can also indicate <u>occasion</u>, <u>circumstance</u>, or <u>condition</u>, as in

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

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

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

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

> <u>Hilf</u> ihr <u>bei</u> der Arbeit.   *Help her with her work.*

§7   *Mit* implies <u>accompaniment</u> or <u>instrument</u>.

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

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

> Annegret fährt morgen <u>nach</u> Hannover.
> Wann kommen Sie denn <u>nach</u> Amerika?

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

> Das Mädchen springt <u>nach</u> dem Fußball.   (where to?)

or a temporal sense:

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

Nach is also part of the common idioms:

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

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

> <u>Seit</u> 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 <u>seit</u> sieben Jahren.
>> *We've been studying <u>for</u> seven years now.*

§10   *Von* implies <u>separation</u> of something from something else.

> Wir fliegen <u>von</u> Amsterdam nach Vancouver.
> Das ist ein Brief <u>von</u> meiner Schwester.

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

> Ist das nicht die Mutter <u>von</u> Ihrem Mann?
> Das war ein Teil <u>von</u> der Altstadt.
> Die Bedeutung <u>von</u> diesem Artikel verstehe ich einfach nicht.
> Er ist ein guter Freund <u>von</u> 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 <u>vom</u> Büro.

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

>Komm <u>zu</u> mir, Hänschen!
>Gehen wir <u>zur</u> Post.
>Ich möchte <u>zum</u> Zirkus.

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

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

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

>Gehen wir <u>zum</u> Rathaus, ja?   Nein, ich gehe lieber <u>zur</u> Paulskirche.

Note the following special uses of *zu*:

>Was möchtest du <u>zum Frühstück</u>?   *for breakfast*
>Den möchte ich gern <u>zum Freund</u> haben.   *as a friend*
>Mit der Zeit <u>wurde</u> sie <u>zu einer guten Schriftstellerin</u>.   *became a good writer*
>Egon <u>gehört zu den besten Pianisten</u>.   *is one of the best pianists*

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

bei	+ de**m**	**beim**			
von	+ de**m**	**vom**			
zu	+ de**m**	**zum**	**zu**	+ de**r**	**zur**

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

>Bei <u>dem</u> Wetter gehe ich nicht.   *I'm not going in <u>this</u> 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 . . .* :

><u>Bis zum</u> Krieg wohnten wir in Danzig.
>Die Straßenbahn Linie 12 fährt <u>bis zur</u> Kasernenstraße.

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

>Fahren Sie ganz <u>durch</u> die Stadt, und fragen Sie noch einmal dort.
><u>Durch</u> die Zimmervermittlung finden wir immer gute Hotelzimmer.

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

>Hier ist ein Geschenk <u>für</u> dich.   —<u>Für</u> mich? Ach, wie schön.

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

> Wir waren <u>drei Wochen</u> in Wien.
> > *We were in Vienna <u>for three weeks</u>.*

> Er studierte <u>ein ganzes Jahr</u> in Bonn.
> > *He studied in Bonn <u>for a whole year</u>.*

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

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

> Wir sind <u>für 14 Monate</u> 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 <u>gegen</u> den Baum gefahren und ist jetzt wertlos.
> Nein, ich bin <u>gegen</u> Ihren Plan. Tut mir leid.

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

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

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

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

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

> Wir treffen uns <u>um</u> drei Uhr vor dem Glockenturm.
> Ihr Zug fährt <u>um</u> 17 Uhr 40.
> <u>Um</u> 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 <u>um</u> hundert Schilling gebeten.
> > *Peter asked his mother for 100 ÖS.*

§20

Dat. — Acc.

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

an	**auf**	**hinter**	**in**	**neben**
über	**unter**	**vor**	**zwischen**	

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

wo = dative   wohin = accusative

The crucial distinction between accusative and dative is not one of motion versus no motion, but of motion <u>toward</u> something (<u>accusative</u>) versus either location or motion <u>within</u> something (<u>dative</u>). 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 <u>am</u> Schwarzen Brett.   **dat.**
> Wollen wir den Zettel <u>an das</u> Schwarze Brett hängen?   **acc.**

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

Wer steht <u>an</u> mein<u>er</u> Tür?	**dat.**	*. . . <u>at</u> my door*
Gehen Sie bitte <u>an das</u> Fenster.	**acc.**	*. . . <u>to</u> the window*

But note this exception, decidedly a horizontal surface:

Wir fahren morgen <u>ans</u> Meer.   **acc.**   *. . . <u>to</u> the ocean*

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

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

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

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

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

Ich glaube, ich schlafe heute Nachmittag <u>auf dem</u> Sofa.   **dat.**
Bitte, legen Sie Ihre Sachen einfach <u>auf den</u> 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 <u>auf der</u> Post.   **dat.**
Brigitte muß schnell auf <u>die Post</u>.   **acc.**

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

Wartet <u>auf</u> mich! *Wait <u>for</u> me!*

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

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

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

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

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

<u>ein'treten</u>   *step in, enter*

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

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

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

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

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

Das ist eine Geschichte <u>über</u> eine schöne Prinzessin.

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

Die Maus hat <u>unter dem</u> Schreibtisch geschlafen.   **dat.**
Die Katze ist <u>unter den</u> Schreibtisch gesprungen.   **acc.**

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

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

Vor is also used in time phrases to mean 'ago'. It <u>precedes</u> its object:

> **Vor** 5 Minuten / 2 Wochen / ein<u>em</u> Tag / ein<u>er</u> 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 <u>hat angst vor</u> dem großen bösen Wolf?
> > *Who's afraid of the big bad wolf?*

> Rotkäppchen <u>fürchtet sich</u> nicht <u>vor</u> ihm.
> > *Little Red Riding Hood's not afraid of him.*

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

> Der Junge schläft gern <u>zwischen seinen</u> Eltern.   **dat.**
> Der Hund lief <u>zwischen meine</u> 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 <u>out the window</u>" 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: <u>*aus dem*</u> *Fenster*.

WORD ORDER

§1   Human language is <u>sequential</u>. 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. <u>Rhythm, pitch, intonation, and pace are all vital factors in the understanding of word order</u>. When you study, be sure to pay attention to SOUND as well as sight.

§2   The basic principle of <u>English</u> word order is that in statements (or "declarative sentences") <u>the subject immediately precedes the verb</u> (<u>and objects follow the verb</u>).

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

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 <u>they</u> confirms for speakers of English that the <u>party</u> cannot be the subject of the sentence.

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

Generally <u>it</u> rains on our picnic.
With a heavy heart, <u>I</u>'ve decided to resign.

Note that **subject — verb — object** is a <u>basic principle</u> of English word order, and only that. There are sentences with object — subject — verb order, such as "<u>Him</u> I like, but <u>her</u> I don't", but it is hard to imagine an English sentence with object — verb — subject order: "The <u>ball</u> kicked <u>she</u> 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 <u>word</u> in the sentence, but it is the <u>second</u> 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. <u>If this first element is not the subject of the sentence, then the subject must follow the verb immediately</u>.

§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 <u>interrogative</u>, 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 <u>likes</u> him. (He's nice.)   She likes <u>him</u>? (Yuk!)
<u>She</u> likes <u>him</u>? (What a mismatch!)

Das ist mein Gepäck. (Yep, that's mine, all right.)
<u>Das</u> ist <u>mein</u> 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 <u>finite</u> 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**).

<div align="center">

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

</div>

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

§7

Conjunctions

Conjunctions are used to tie — or <u>conjoin</u> — 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 <u>compound sentence</u>:

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	*and*	**denn**	*because*
aber	*but*	**sondern**	*but (rather)*
oder	*or*		

§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, <u>aber</u> er ist doch sehr krank, nicht wahr?
> Gut, ich komme mit, <u>aber</u> 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 <u>mutually exclusive</u>. The use of *sondern* rejects any compatibility between two choices, and is therefore often reinforced by *nicht* or *kein*:

> Nein, sie liebt nicht Helmut, <u>sondern</u> Jürgen.
> Im deutschen Süden ist das Klima nicht hart, <u>sondern</u> mild.
> Es ist nicht wichtig, was man sagt, <u>sondern</u> 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, <u>wenn</u> Sie schnell <u>kommen</u>.

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 <u>main</u> 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 <u>dependent</u> (or <u>subordinate</u>) <u>clause</u> because it needs another clause, an <u>independent</u> (or <u>main</u>) <u>clause</u>, for support.

The ***wenn*** function can be managed <u>without</u> *wenn*:

> Hast du Geld? Ja? Dann gehen wir einkaufen.

but *wenn* expresses conditions more clearly and efficiently:

> Wir gehen einkaufen, <u>wenn</u> 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, <u>daß</u> sie den ganzen Tag **bleibt**.

The ***daß*** function can be managed <u>without</u> *daß*:

> Vater kommt am Mittwoch wieder. Wir wissen das.

but *daß* relates one action to another more clearly and efficiently:

> Wir wissen, <u>daß</u> 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, <u>als</u> wir im Nordwesten <u>lebten</u>.

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 <u>past time</u>, and specifically a <u>single event</u> in past time. If the context of the above sentence were such that the speaker lived in the Northwest on several different occasions, then <u>als</u> would be incorrect; <u>wenn</u> would be the proper word, indicating repeated action in past time.

The **als** function can be managed <u>without</u> *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, <u>als</u> 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, <u>ob</u> sie zu Hause ist.
> Wissen Sie, <u>ob</u> es heute regnen soll?

The **ob** function can be managed <u>without</u> *ob*:

> Arbeite ich heute abend? Ich weiß nicht.

but *ob* eliminates the need to formulate artificial questions:

> Ich weiß nicht, <u>ob</u> 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	*although*	**weil**	*because*
nachdem	*after* (See **Verbs §74**)	**bevor**	*before*
seitdem	*since* (involving time)	**damit**	*so that*
bis	*until*	**während**	*while*

§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 . . .	*after the war*
CONJUNCTION:	Nachdem der Krieg vorbei war,	*after the war was over,*
PREPOSITION:	Seit dem Jahre 1949	*since the year 1949*
CONJUNCTION:	Seitdem wir hier wohnen . . .	*since we've been living here*
PREPOSITION:	Bis nächste Woche	*until next week*
CONJUNCTION:	Bis du wiederkommst, . . .	*until you come back again*
PREPOSITION:	Vor dem Konzert	*before the concert*
CONJUNCTION:	Bevor wir ins Konzert gehen, . . .	*before we go to the concert*

§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, <u>wann</u> er von den Wanderferien <u>zurückkommt</u>?
> Können Sie mir bitte sagen, <u>wieviel</u> das alles <u>kostet</u>?
> Wissen Sie, <u>wo</u> ich die Meierstraße finden <u>kann</u>?

§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 <u>finite verb</u> that is placed at the <u>very end</u> 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 <u>hast</u> du sie eigentlich das letzte Mal <u>gesehen</u>?
>   —Ich weiß nur, <u>daß</u> ich sie seit Jahren nicht mehr <u>gesehen</u> <u>habe</u>.

>   auxiliary   verb
> <u>Kann</u> er das wirklich <u>tun</u>?   verb   auxiliary
>   — Ich weiß nicht, <u>ob</u> er das wirklich <u>tun</u> <u>kann</u>. 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 <u>the finite verb in the main clause must be in second position</u>.

>   **1**   **2**
> <u>Als wir in der Schweiz waren</u>, <u>war</u> das Wetter immer schön.
>   finite verb

>   **1**   **2**
> <u>Wenn Sie schnell kommen</u>, <u>bleibe</u> ich noch eine Weile.
>   finite verb

>   **1**   **1**   **1**
> <u>Als ich mit meinen Freunden nach Hause kam und sah, daß mein kleiner Sohn</u>
>   **1**   **1**   **2**
> <u>mit seinem Hamster in der Ecke hinter dem Buchregal schlief</u>, <u>war</u> ich böse.
>   finite verb

§18   When **two nouns** occur together, the one that is <u>definite</u> comes first.

>   **1**   **2**
> Zu Weihnachten gebe ich <u>meinem Bruder</u> <u>einen Pullover</u>.
>   definite   indefinite
> Zu weihnachten gebe ich <u>meinen Pullover</u> <u>einem Freund</u>.

§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 <u>accusative</u> pronoun that comes first.

>   **1**   **2**
> Was mache ich mit dem Pullover? Ich gebe <u>ihn</u> <u>meinem Bruder</u>.
>   pronoun   noun

> Bitte, bringen Sie <u>es</u> <u>mir</u> 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 <u>es</u> <u>meinem Vater</u> <u>nicht</u> gesagt.
>
> object
> Es ist heute <u>nicht</u> so schön.
>
> adverb of time
> Wir sehen ihn heute abend <u>nicht</u>.

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 <u>nicht</u> 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?   *. . .aren't you?*
> Er kommt aus Wien, nicht?   *. . .isn't he?*
> Sie wohnen alle in Madrid, nicht?   *. . .don't they?*

Reference Grammar
CHECKLIST OF COMMON ERRORS

- **confusion of sounds or spelling; capitalization**

  ~~Ik~~ **ich**   ~~siet~~ **Zeit**   ~~Amerikanish~~ **amerikanisch**   ~~vas~~ **was**   ~~nür~~ **nur**

- **wrong vocabulary choice**
  1. A word may have several distinct equivalents in another language.

     right: [thing is] correct = *richtig*   not left = *rechts*;

     [person] is right = *recht haben*   right, privilege = *das Recht*
  2. Words that look or sound alike may not mean the same thing at all.

     stay   *stehen*   *vor*   **for**

Remedies: Look up the word in an English-German dictionary, and then look it up in the German-English part of the dictionary. If you don't have time for that, use simpler words or constructions that you are sure of.

- **failure to consider gender of nouns**
  1. Use of "duh" for all articles — ~~duh~~ *die Frau,* ~~duh~~ *der Mann,* ~~duh~~ *das Kind*
  2. German article, but wrong gender — ~~der~~ *die Fahrkarte,* ~~die~~ *der Paß*

Remedies: In speaking you may just have to guess, since you can't take time to check a dictionary. Otherwise, failure to check gender is inexcusable. Learn major patterns of noun formation.

- **failure to conjugate verbs according to both subject and tense**

  ~~Ich gehen gestern nach Hause.~~   Ich bin gestern nach Hause gegangen.

The error is especially likely when the subject and verb are separated from each other in a manner not encountered in English.

  ~~Ich rufe Sie gestern nicht an, weil ich arbeiten müssen.~~
  Ich habe Sie gestern nicht angerufen, weil ich arbeiten mußte.

- **incorrect verb placement**
  1. The main conjugated verb must appear in second position in all statements.
     ~~Heute ich gehe zum Bahnhof.~~   Heute gehe ich zum Bahnhof.

  The error is most likely when the statement begins with a time or location phrase.

  2. Verb complements appear at the end of main clauses.
     ~~Ich muß gehen nach Hause um zwei Uhr.~~
     Ich muß um zwei Uhr nach Hause gehen.
  3. The verb appears last in subordinate and relative clauses.
     ~~Ich glaube, daß wir gehen ins Restaurant.~~
     Ich glaube, daß wir ins Restaurant gehen.

- **imitation of the English progressive form of verbs (to be + [verb]-ing)**

  ~~Wir sind zum Bahnhof gehen.~~   Wir gehen zum Bahnhof.
         We're going to the station.

- **Incorrect formation of the past tense**

  ~~Ich habe geschriebt.~~   ~~Sie hat nichts gesagen.~~
  Ich habe geschrieben.   Sie hat nichts gesagt.

Remedies: Note which verbs are regular, and memorize irregular verbs. Trust English; related verbs often follow the same patterns: *leben, lebte, habe gelebt /* **live, lived, have lived;** *trinken, trank, getrunken /* **drink, drank, drunk.**

- **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 nicht**s**.   _I didn't know anything._
     Ich wußte nicht.   _I didn't know._
  3. incorrect placement of _nicht_
     negation of <u>entire</u> action:
        Wir sind gestern <u>nicht</u> nach Hamburg gefahren.
        We didn't go to Hamburg at all, anytime.
     negation of <u>part of</u> the action:
        Wir sind <u>nicht</u> 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?