



GRAMMAR WORKBOOKS

Basic German

A Grammar and Workbook

Heiner Schenke and Karen Seago

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BASIC GERMAN: A GRAMMAR AND WORKBOOK

Basic German: A Grammar and Workbook comprises an accessible reference grammar and related exercises in a single volume.

It introduces German people and culture through the medium of the language used today, covering the core material which students would expect to encounter in their first years of learning German.

Each of the 28 units presents one or more related grammar topics, illustrated by examples which serve as models for the exercises that follow. These wide-ranging and varied exercises enable the student to master each grammar point thoroughly.

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- Clear grammatical explanations with examples in both English and German
- Authentic language samples from a range of media
- Checklists at the end of each Unit to reinforce key points
- Cross-referencing to other grammar chapters
- Full exercise answer key
- Glossary of grammatical terms

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PREFACE

Basic German is aimed at absolute beginners and those learners who have some knowledge of German but who need to refresh and consolidate basic structures. It can be used on its own or in connection with any major German coursebook and it is suitable for self-study, class-based learning or reference purposes.

Presentation of grammar

The book explains the essentials of German grammar in clear and simple language. The format is easily accessible and grammar topics follow a progression, which moves from simple aspects to more complex features. For more in-depth study, there are cross-references to related grammar items. Explanations are simple and avoid specialised terminology while introducing key terms. The vocabulary is practical and functional. It is introduced on a cumulative basis and builds on vocabulary associated with topics featured in major course books.

Structure of units

There are 28 units. Each unit covers one key grammar topic, which is contrasted with English structures where appropriate. Each topic starts out with an overview. This is followed by detailed explanation in an easy-to-follow step-by-step layout, breaking down complex aspects into simple segments. Examples in English and German illustrate each point and introduce relevant vocabulary.

Checklists and exercises

Integrated exercises allow immediate practice to consolidate each grammar point. Exercises are varied and progress from simple recognition to more complex application of grammar points.

A checklist at the end of each unit reinforces main points and provides an opportunity to self-assess understanding of the material covered.

Answers to all exercises and checklists are at the end of the book.

Using the book as a grammar reference

Unit headings indicate which grammar point is covered, and the glossary provides clear definitions and simple explanations of key grammatical terms. When appropriate, cross-references are provided within units.

Extra features

Unit 1 highlights some basic principles where the structures of German are fundamentally different from English. It explains their characteristics in simple terms and draws attention to underlying patterns. Extra tips on how to learn a language and learning specific grammar points are provided in this unit and throughout the book.

The book is suitable for

- independent learners
- GCSE preparation
- AS/A-level revision
- beginners' courses at university and in further education
- adult education courses.

UNIT ONE

What's different in German? Basic tips and patterns

Learning German is often perceived as difficult. In 1880, Mark Twain famously dubbed it 'the awful German language', protesting 'Surely there is not another language that is so slipshod and systemless, and so slippery and elusive to the grasp' (Mark Twain, 'The awful German language', *The Tramp Abroad*, 1880 (Harmondsworth: Penguin 1997), pp. 390–402).

But is this really the case? One thing that is very helpful in learning German is that it is a systematic language, which follows rules. There are many ways to make these rules easier to learn, and there are quite a few tips which will help you in learning the language.

If you approach the language step by step you will find that it is much easier than you may think at the beginning. Here are pointers to some basic principles where German is different from English, and which may be useful before you start out with the grammar proper.

Spelling – capital letters and different characters

There are a few ways in which German spelling is different from English.

Capital letters for nouns

German is one of the few languages which uses capital letters not only at the beginning of sentences but also within sentences. In English, this applies only to proper names, to the personal pronoun 'I' and to personifications, such as 'Love'.

In German, all nouns must always be written with a capital letter, regardless of whether they are at the beginning of a sentence or in the middle:

Der Mann und die Frau arbeiten jeden Tag am Computer.

The man and the woman work at their computer every day.

Note that the pronoun **ich** ('I') has no initial capital in German, but **Sie** (formal form of 'you') has.

Different characters

The German alphabet has some characters which do not exist in the English alphabet:

ß – the sharp ‘s’

The letter **ß**, called **eszett** in German, is pronounced like the normal English ‘s’, for example in ‘sun’ or ‘basic’.

German uses this letter for instance after **ei** and **ie**, and after **a**, **o**, **u** if they are pronounced long:

heißen	to be called
Straße	street
groß	big

The umlauts – **ä**, **ö**, **ü**

These are very important. They change the pronunciation of a word and, more importantly, its meaning:

Mutter means ‘mother’, but **Mütter** is the plural form and means ‘mothers’. **Musste** means had to, but **müsste** means ‘should’ or ‘ought to’.

Three genders

All nouns in German are masculine, feminine or neuter. This shows in their singular article: **der** for masculine, **die** for feminine, **das** for neuter.

It is important to realise that gender in German is grammatical, *not* biological as it is in English. This means that objects, concepts etc. which are neuter (‘it’) in English can be masculine, feminine or neuter in German:

der Tisch	the table (<i>masculine</i>)
die Tür	the door (<i>feminine</i>)
das Fenster	the window (<i>neuter</i>)

Whenever you learn a new noun, always learn it with its gender: the best way to do it is to learn it with its article. You will find that this will pay off in the long term.

Endings

One of the principal differences between English and German is that in German words take specific endings depending on their relationship to other

parts of the sentence. This applies to verbs, articles and possessive adjectives and adjectives.

Verbs

These are words describing the ‘action’ of a sentence, such as ‘to run’, ‘to think’. For example, the German verb ‘to go’ has different endings when used with ‘I’, ‘he’ and ‘they’:

Ich gehe.	I go.
Er geht.	He goes.
Sie gehen.	They go.

Articles and possessive adjectives

These are words linked to a noun such as ‘a’, ‘the’, ‘my’ or ‘his’. For example, the indefinite article meaning ‘a’ changes in German when it is linked to the subject of the sentence (**ein Mann**) or the object of the sentence (**einen Mann**):

Ist das <i>ein</i> Mann?	Is that a man?
Da drüben sehe ich <i>einen</i> Mann.	I can see a man over there.

Adjectives

These words, which describe the quality of a noun, such as a ‘new’ computer, an ‘intelligent’ woman, a ‘beautiful’ house, follow a similar pattern when they appear in front of a noun. In German adjectives can have different endings when they are linked to a masculine noun (**ein neuer Computer**), a feminine noun (**eine intelligente Frau**) or a neuter noun (**ein schönes Haus**).

Cases

One of the most important features of German is that you can tell what function a noun performs in a sentence by its ending and the form of the article. These show its case. For example, a noun can be the subject of the sentence, i.e. the ‘agent’ of what is happening:

<i>Der Hund</i> beißt den Mann.	<i>The dog</i> bites the man.
--	-------------------------------

Or it can be the object, i.e. the ‘receiver’ of the action in the sentence:

Der Hund beißt <i>den</i> Mann.	The dog bites <i>the</i> man.
--	-------------------------------

The subject and the object are in different cases, which means that the article ('the') has a different ending. Both 'dog' and 'man' are masculine (**der**) but 'the dog' is the subject (**der Hund**) and the man is the object (**den Mann**).

Word order

Word order is much more flexible in German than in English, but there are some very important rules. The most important apply to the position of the finite *verb*. Here are some basic principles, which illustrate the difference to English word order.

- The finite verb is *the second idea* in most statements:

Er hat zwei Brüder.	He has two brothers.
Morgen fahre ich nach Manchester.	Tomorrow I'm going to Manchester.

- The finite verb goes at the *beginning* of a sentence in orders and many questions:

Öffnet das Fenster!	Open the window, please.
Hast Du morgen Zeit?	Are you free tomorrow?

- The finite verb goes at the *end* in subordinate clauses:

Ich kann morgen nicht kommen, weil ich nach Manchester fahre.
I can't come tomorrow because I'm going to Manchester.

- If there are two verb forms, one of them goes at the end:

Morgen muss ich nach Manchester fahren.
Tomorrow I have to go to Manchester.

Tenses

English tenses differentiate between an action happening at the moment ('I am working') and an action taking place regularly ('I work at Harrods'). In German, this difference does not exist. The finite verb form is the same in both statements:

Ich arbeite.	I am working.
Ich arbeite bei Harrods.	I work at Harrods.

The past in English is expressed either by the *present perfect tense* (when something happened recently or has a connection to the present: 'I was

working' or the *simple past tense* (when something happened at a certain time in the past or has no link to the present: 'I worked'). German is simpler: you normally use the *present perfect* when you *talk* about the past regardless of when it happened, and you normally use the *simple past* in *written German*.

And finally – looking for principles

German is a very systematic language, and very soon you will realise that there are certain patterns which occur again and again. If you bear this in mind you will see that, after the first few weeks of a fairly steep learning curve, things will become easier and you will recognise these patterns.

Buy a good dictionary. It not only gives you a list of translations but also tells you how to pronounce unfamiliar words and gives you important grammatical information, for example whether a verb takes a certain case or what the plural is for a noun. Throughout the book, we tell you how to work with dictionaries to get this kind of information and how it is relevant.

Checklist	✓
1 Where do you use capital letters in German?	
2 When do you use the letter ß ?	
3 Why are umlauts important?	
4 What is the difference between the use of gender in German and English?	
5 Give an example where a word changes its ending in German.	
6 What is one of the most important principles affecting German word order?	
7 Is there a difference between 'I am working' and 'I work' in German?	

UNIT TWO

Verbs in the present tense

What is a verb?

A verb usually describes what a person or any other subject is *doing*: 'I *go* to the cinema.' 'She *thinks* about her holiday.' 'They *play* football.' It can also describe a state: 'He *is* angry.' 'She *lives* over there.' 'They *love* me.'

Verbs in English

In English, verbs take no endings except for the third person singular ('he'/'she'/'it') in the present tense. You would say: 'I go', 'you go', 'he/she/it goes', 'we go', 'you go', 'they go'. Apart from the third person singular where '-(e)s' is added, the verb in the sentence is the same form as the *infinitive*, that is the basic form of a verb as it is listed in a dictionary or glossary ('to go').

Verb Formation

German has more endings for verbs in the present tense than English. You take the *stem* of a verb and then add the required ending. The stem is the form of the infinitive without **-en** or **-n**.

<i>infinitive</i>	<i>stem</i>	
kommen	komm	to come
wohnen	wohn	to live
hören	hör	to hear

Verb endings – an overview

Here is an overview of the verb endings in the present tense:

		<i>komm-en</i>	<i>wohn-en</i>	<i>hör-en</i>
ich (I)	-e	komme	wohne	höre
du (you, <i>informal</i>)	-st	kommst	wohnst	hörst
Sie (you, <i>formal</i>)	-en	kommen	wohnen	hören
er/sie/es (he/she/it)	-t	kommt	wohnt	hört
wir (we)	-en	kommen	wohnen	hören
ihr (you, <i>plural, informal</i>)	-t	kommt	wohnt	hört
Sie (you, <i>plural, formal</i>)	-en	kommen	wohnen	hören
sie (they)	-en	kommen	wohnen	hören

A verb with its ending is called a *finite verb* (as opposed to the infinitive which does not have a meaningful ending). This is an important grammatical term, and you will find it in quite a few of the units.

Verb endings in more detail

Although as a beginner you probably mostly use the first and second person singular (**ich** and **du** or **Sie**) it is important to know all the endings for the verbs. Here they are in more detail.

ich ('I')

For the first person singular you add **-e** to the stem:

Ich wohne in Frankfurt.

I live in Frankfurt.

Ich spiele Gitarre.

I play the guitar.

du/Sie ('you', *singular*)

There are two forms of address in German: the informal and the formal. If you are addressing one person, the informal address is **du** and the formal is **Sie** (always with an initial capital letter). The endings are **-st** and **-en**:

Woher kommst du?

Where do you come from?
(*informal*)

Wo wohnst du?

Where do you live? (*informal*)

Woher kommen Sie?

Where do you come from? (*formal*)

Wo wohnen Sie?

Where do you live? (*formal*)

er/sie/es ('he', 'she', 'it')

To talk about a third person or thing you use **er** for 'he', **sie** (with small s) for 'she' and **es** for 'it' in German and add **-t** to the stem:

Er spielt Tennis.

He plays tennis.

Woher kommt sie?

Where does she come from?

Es schneit.

It is snowing.

wir ('we')

Overall the plural forms are much easier to learn. 'We' (**wir**) takes **-en** – the same form as most infinitives:

Wir wohnen in Köln.

We live in Cologne.

Wir lernen Deutsch.

We learn German.

ihr/Sie ('you', plural)

As for the singular, there is an informal (**ihr**) and a formal way (**Sie**) to address more than one person. These take different endings:

Wo wohnt ihr?

Where do you live? (*plural, informal*)

Was macht ihr hier?

What are you doing here? (*plural, informal*)

Wo wohnen Sie?

Where do you live? (*plural, formal*)

Was machen Sie hier?

What are you doing here? (*plural, formal*)

sie ('they')

When referring to several people, German uses **sie** again (spelled with a small s!). You have to add **-en**:

Und woher kommen sie?

And where do they come from?

Jutta und Bernd – was machen sie?

Jutta and Bernd – what are they doing?

Uses of **sie/Sie**

When you start learning German you may be confused by the different meanings of the word **sie**.

- **sie** with a small **s** can mean either 'she' or 'they'.
- **Sie** with a capital **S** is used for formal 'you' in both singular and plural.

The verb endings for 'they' and singular and plural formal 'you' are identical.

One present tense in German

As we have seen, in German there is only one present tense, which corresponds both to the simple and to the continuous present in English:

Er trinkt Bier.

He drinks beer. *or* He is drinking beer.

Sie spielt Fußball.

She plays football. *or* She is playing football.

Exceptions

Although the majority of verbs in German follow the regular pattern described above, there are a number of exceptions (*irregular forms*):

- Some verbs have slight spelling variations, or their stem vowel changes (see Unit 3).
- **Sein** and **haben** ('to be' or 'to have') are particularly irregular (see Unit 4).

But before you explore the mysteries of German verb endings further, make sure that you have digested all the information from this Unit.

- For more information on verb endings see Units 3 and 4.
- See also Unit 15 for more details on personal pronouns ('I', 'you', 'he', 'she' etc.).

Exercise 2.1

Use the endings from the list below to complete the verb forms. The first one has been done for you.

-en -en -e -st -t -en -en -t

ich -e

wir ___

du ___

ihr ___

Sie ___

Sie ___

er/sie/es ___

sie ___

Exercise 2.2

Here is a short interview with Alex Maschke, who lives in Berlin. Complete the gaps with the appropriate verb forms.

Example: kommen → Woher ___ du? – Ich ___ aus Frankfurt.
→ Woher *kommst* du? – Ich *komme* aus Frankfurt.

- 1 wohnen → Wo ___ du? – Ich ___ jetzt in Berlin.
- 2 studieren → Und was ___ du? – Ich ___ Physik und Chemie.
- 3 hören → Welche Musik ___ du? – Ich ___ gern klassische Musik.
- 4 lernen → Welche Sprache ___ du im Moment? – Ich ___ Spanisch.
- 5 trinken → Was ___ du gern? – Ich ___ gern Kaffee.

As you have probably noticed, Alex was addressed informally. Rewrite the questions in the formal mode (using the **Sie** form).

Exercise 2.3

Supply the missing endings.

Example: Anna komm ___ aus Wien.
→ Anna *kommt* aus Wien.

- 1 Ich heiß ___ Ulrike.
- 2 Komm ___ du wirklich aus London?
- 3 Peter wohn ___ im Stadtzentrum.
- 4 Das ist Pia. Sie geh ___ sehr gern ins Restaurant.
- 5 Wie heiß ___ Sie?
- 6 Ich heiß ___ Petra Schmidt.
- 7 Und was mach ___ Sie beruflich?
- 8 Ich studier ___ Physik.
- 9 Und woher komm ___ ihr?
- 10 Was mach ___ ihr hier?
- 11 Und wo wohn ___ ihr?
- 12 Wir komm ___ aus Süddeutschland.
- 13 Wir geh ___ zu einem Fußballspiel.
- 14 Wir bleib ___ drei Tage.
- 15 Sie (Pier und Jörg) lern ___ Englisch.
- 16 Basel lieg ___ in der Schweiz.
- 17 Komm ___ ihr aus Freiburg?
- 18 Und woher komm ___ du?

- 19 Ann und Tina spiel __ gern Badminton.
 20 Wir find __ Berlin sehr interessant.

Exercise 2.4

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 I live in Berlin.
- 2 He drinks beer.
- 3 She plays tennis.
- 4 Carla and Sophia are playing football.
- 5 Where do you come from? (Use (a) the **du** and (b) the **Sie** form.)
- 6 Where do you live? (Use (a) the **du**, (b) the **Sie**-form and (c) the **ihr** form.)

Checklist	✓
1 Can you form the stem of a German verb?	
2 What are the verb endings in the singular?	
3 Do you know the endings in the plural?	
4 How many tenses are there in German for the present?	
5 Can you define what a finite verb is?	

UNIT THREE

Verb variations and irregular verbs

Regular and irregular forms

Most verbs in German follow a regular pattern where the ending is simply added to the stem of the verb. But there are some variations where the spelling is slightly different. There is also a group of irregular verbs where there are changes in the stem of the verb.

Irregular forms in English

In English there is also a difference between regular and irregular verbs, but it usually does not affect the present tense, except for 'to be' and 'to have'. These verbs will be discussed in Unit 4.

Spelling variations – an overview

Stem endings in -d or -t

There are some German verbs where the stem ends in **-d** or **-t**. It would be difficult to pronounce the **-st** endings for **du** and the **t** ending for **er/sie/es** and **ihr** if **-st** or **-t** was directly added to the stem. This is why an **e** is put before these endings:

<i>infinitive</i>	<i>stem</i>	<i>finite verb</i>	
arbeiten	arbeit	du arbeitest	to work
kosten	kost	es kostet	to cost
reden	red	ihr redet	to talk

Verbs such as **atmen** and **regnen**

Verbs such as **atmen** and **regnen**, where the stem ends in a consonant + **n** or **m**, also need the additional **e**:

<i>infinitive</i>	<i>stem</i>	<i>finite verb</i>	
atmen	atm	du atmest	to breathe
regnen	regn	es regnet	to rain

Examples:

Du atmest sehr heftig.	You're breathing rather heavily.
Herr Maier arbeitet bei Siemens.	Mr Maier works for Siemens.
Es regnet schon wieder!	It's raining again!
Das Buch kostet 5 Euro.	The book costs 5 euros.
Ihr redet zu viel.	You're talking too much.

Only **du**, **er/sie/es** and **ihr** are affected

The extra **e** is added only with the endings for **du**, **er/sie/es** and **ihr**: it does not affect the other verb forms:

ich arbeite	wir arbeiten
du arbeitest	ihr arbeitet
Sie arbeiten	Sie arbeiten
er/sie/es arbeitet	sie arbeiten

Stem endings in -s, -ss, -ß, -x, -z, -tz

Normally the verb ending for **du** is **st**, but, if the verb stem ends in **s**, **ss** or **ß**, add a **t** as the verb ending for **du**:

<i>infinitive</i>	<i>finite verb</i>	
reisen	du reist	to travel
küssen	er küsst	to kiss
heißen	du heißt	to be called

Examples:

Reist du wieder nach Italien?	Are you travelling to Italy again?
Du heißt doch Frank, oder?	You're called Frank, aren't you?
Susi küsst gern.	Susi likes kissing.

For a few verbs where the stem ends in **x**, **z** or **tz** the same pattern applies:

faxen	du faxt	to fax
tanzen	du tanzt	to dance
schwitzen	du schwitzt	to sweat

Irregular verbs with vowel changes

There is a group of German verbs where the vowel in the stem changes in the present tense. These changes apply only in the **du** and **er/sie/es** forms. None of the other endings is affected. Here are examples in some frequently used verbs:

<i>infinitive</i>	<i>finite verb</i>	
schlafen	er schläft	to sleep
essen	sie isst	to eat
sprechen	du sprichst	to speak
lesen	du liest	to read
sehen	er sieht	to see

Examples:

Liest du gern Harry Potter?	Do you like reading Harry Potter?
Er sieht ein Fußballspiel.	He is watching a football match.
Sie isst gern Pizza.	She likes eating pizza.
Sprichst du Deutsch?	Do you speak German?
Sie schläft bis elf Uhr.	She sleeps until eleven o'clock.

Looking out for patterns

These changes apply only to a limited number of verbs. It is best to learn these verbs by heart. There are also certain patterns which can help you predict how a verb changes. They are:

a	→	ä
e	→	i
e	→	ie

Here they are in more detail.

Changes from a to ä

Important verbs – apart from **schlafen** – which follow this pattern are:

fahren	→	du fährst, er/sie/es fährt	to drive
halten		du hältst, er/sie/es hält	to hold, to stop
tragen		du trägst, er/sie/es trägt	to carry
waschen		du wäschst, er/sie/es wäscht	to wash

Examples:

Du fährst morgen nach Hause.	You're going home tomorrow.
Gleich fällt es runter!	Any moment now it will fall (down)!
Er trägt ein neues T-Shirt.	He wears a new T-shirt.

Changes from **e** to **i**

You have seen that **sprechen** and **essen** are two prominent verbs which change their vowel from **e** to **i**. Other verbs which follow this pattern are:

geben	→	du gibst, er/sie/es gibt	to give
helfen		du hilfst, er/sie/es hilft	to help
treffen		du triffst, er/sie/es trifft	to meet
werfen		du wirfst, er/sie/es wirft	to throw

Examples:

Er hilft Frau Maier.	He helps Frau Maier.
Triffst du heute Angelika?	Are you meeting Angelika today?
Er wirft den Ball zu Beckham.	He throws the ball to Beckham.

The verb **nehmen** also follows the **e** to **i** pattern, but it has greater spelling variations. Here are all forms:

ich nehme	wir nehmen
du nimmst	ihr nehmt
Sie nehmen	Sie nehmen
er/sie/es nimmt	sie nehmen

Examples:

Nimmst du Kaffee oder Tee?	Do you take coffee or tea?
Er nimmt ein heißes Bad.	He is taking a hot bath.

Changes from **e** to **ie**

Some verbs such as **sehen** and **lesen**, where the **e** sound is pronounced long, change their vowel **e** into **ie**:

sehen	→	du siehst, er/sie/es sieht	to see
lesen		du liest, er/sie/es liest	to read

Another important verb is **empfehlen**:

empfehlen → **du empfiehlst, er/sie/es empfiehlt** to recommend

Examples:

Er *sieht* Jutta nicht.
Sie *empfiehlt* Tee.

He doesn't see Jutta.
She recommends tea.

Where to look for irregular forms

All verbs with a vowel change are irregular verbs. You will find a list of irregular verbs, often also called strong verbs, at the back of most course books and dictionaries, as well as at the back of this one. But beware: not all irregular verbs change their spelling in the present tense.

Other irregular verbs

There are also two other groups of verb forms which do not conform to the regular pattern in the present tense:

- the verbs **sein** and **haben** 'to be' and 'to have' (see Unit 4)
- the modal verbs (see Unit 18).

Exercise 3.1

Write out the full present tense of the following verbs (for all persons: **ich, du, Sie, er/sie/es, wir, ihr, Sie, sie**):

- 1 arbeiten
- 2 tanzen
- 3 heißen
- 4 reisen

Exercise 3.2

Here is a list of frequently used irregular verbs. Place a tick against the ones which change their vowel in the present tense and a cross against the ones which do not. The first two have been done for you. Use a verb list to check your answers.

bleiben	✗	helfen		schreiben		stehen	
essen	✓	kommen		schwimmen		tragen	
fahren		nehmen		sehen		treffen	
geben		lesen		singen		trinken	
gehen		schlafen		sprechen		waschen	

Exercise 3.3

Here is what Hans Homann, a young television presenter from Austria, says about himself. Use this information to write a short portrait of him. The first sentence has been done for you.

- 1 Ich heie Hans Homann. → Er heit Hans Homann.
- 2 Ich komme aus Wien.
- 3 Ich arbeite fr das sterreichische Fernsehen.
- 4 Ich spreche natrlich Deutsch, aber auch Englisch und Spanisch.
- 5 Ich lese gern Kriminalromane.
- 6 Ich fahre auch gern Ski und schwimme viel.
- 7 Ich sehe gern alte Filme mit Marlene Dietrich.
- 8 Ich schlafe oft lange.
- 9 Ich reise gern.
- 10 Und ich helfe am Wochenende alten Leuten.

Exercise 3.4

Translate the following sentences into German:

- 1 She reads a book.
- 2 Peter speaks German and English.
- 3 We speak German and Spanish.
- 4 Magda likes eating pizza.
- 5 I'll have a beer, please.
- 6 He has a beer.
- 7 She is wearing a T-shirt.
- 8 It is raining.

Checklist	✓
1 Can you remember for which endings there is a stem vowel change?	
2 Can you identify when you need to use an additional e?	
3 What do you need to remember if the stem ends in an s sound?	
4 What are the most common stem vowel changes?	

UNIT FOUR

Irregular verbs: **haben** and **sein**

Irregular in both languages

The verbs **haben** ‘to have’ and **sein** ‘to be’ are both very important. They are quite irregular in German, as in English.

Different patterns

As explained in Unit 3, irregular verbs in German tend to change their stem vowel. In the present tense this sometimes affects the **du** and **er/sie/es** forms:

lesen	→	du liest, er/sie/es liest	to read
essen		du isst, er/sie/es isst	to eat

Sein is an example of an irregular verb where the endings change even more drastically. This is very similar to English, where ‘to be’ has very irregular forms in the present tense: ‘I am’, ‘you are’, ‘he/she/it is’, ‘we are’, ‘you are’, ‘they are’.

Haben and **sein** – an overview

Here is an overview of the verb forms for **haben** and **sein**:

	<i>haben</i>	<i>sein</i>
ich (I)	habe	bin
du (you, <i>informal</i>)	hast	bist
Sie (you, <i>formal</i>)	haben	sind
er/sie/es (he/she/it)	hat	ist
wir (we)	haben	sind

ihr (you, plural, informal)

Sie (you, plural, formal)

sie (they)

habt

haben

haben

seid

sind

sind

Here are both verbs in more detail.

Haben in more detail

*Different pattern for **du** and **er/sie/es***

There are some patterns with **haben** which may help you remember the endings.

The endings for **ich**, **wir**, **ihr** and **sie** are regular: you add them to the stem in the normal way:

ich hab-e, wir hab-en, ihr hab-t, sie hab-en.

It is only for **du** and **er/sie/es** that the finite verb form is irregular – you need to drop the **b** from the stem:

du hast, er/sie/es hat.

Examples

Ich habe viel zu tun.

I have a lot to do.

Claus hat eine Schwester.

Claus has one sister.

Haben Sie Wechselgeld?

Do you have change?

Sie haben ein neues Auto.

They have a new car.

*Use of **haben***

Haben is an important verb which you will be using a lot. It is used to form tenses just as English uses ‘to have’:

Ich habe gesungen.

I have sung.

Useful phrases

Here are a few useful phrases with **haben**:

Hunger haben

to be hungry

Ich habe Hunger.

Durst haben

to be thirsty

Er hat Durst.

Zeit haben

to be free/have time

Du hast Zeit.

Langeweile haben

to be bored

Wir haben Langeweile.

Kopfschmerzen haben

to have a headache

Sie hat Kopfschmerzen.

Sein in more detail

Completely irregular

The finite verb forms for **sein** are completely irregular and need to be learned by heart: **ich bin, du bist, Sie sind, er/sie/es ist, wir sind, ihr seid, Sie sind, sie sind.**

Examples:

Ich bin aus Deutschland.	I'm from Germany.
Sind Sie Herr Schuhmacher?	Are you Mr Schuhmacher?
Du bist sehr schön.	You're very beautiful.
Er ist Amerikaner.	He is an American.
Sie ist Lehrerin.	She is a teacher.
Es ist schwer.	It's difficult.
Entschuldigung, wir sind verspätet.	Apologies, we are late.
Seid Ihr verheiratet?	Are you married?
Wir sind aus Großbritannien.	We're from Great Britain.

And there is, of course Shakespeare: *To be or not to be, that is the question.* In German this would be: **Sein oder Nicht-Sein. Das ist die Frage.**

Use of sein

Like **haben**, **sein** is an important verb and you will be using it a lot. It is used to form tenses and other grammatical forms.

Reminder – only one present tense in German

Although there are many similarities between the use of 'to be'/**sein** in English and German, there are also important differences. You cannot, for instance, use **sein** to form a tense similar to the English: 'I am going'. This tense does not exist in German. There is only one present tense: **Ich gehe.**

- For more irregular verb endings in the present tense see Unit 3.
- To remind yourself of the regular endings see Unit 2.

Exercise 4.1

Complete the following sentences with the correct finite verb forms of **haben**.

Example: Ich ____ eine Schwester.
 → Ich *habe* eine Schwester.

- 1 ____ du heute Abend Zeit?
- 2 Wir ____ neue Nachbarn.
- 3 Er ____ eine Schwester und einen Bruder.
- 4 ____ ihr etwas Geld?
- 5 Petra ____ ein neues Auto.
- 6 ____ Sie ein Zimmer frei?
- 7 Ich ____ Hunger.
- 8 Susanne und Frank ____ eine neue Wohnung.

Exercise 4.2

Use the appropriate finite verb forms of **sein** to complete the following short dialogues.

Example: Was ____ Carsten von Beruf? – Er ____ Student.
 → Was *ist* Carsten von Beruf? – Er *ist* Student.

- 1 ____ Sie Engländer? – Nein, ich ____ aus Australien.
- 2 ____ du aus Deutschland? – Ja, ich komme aus der Nähe von Bonn.
- 3 ____ ihr aus München? – Nein, wir ____ aus Nürnberg.
- 4 Was machen denn Kathrin und Boris? – Beide ____ Studenten.
- 5 Was ____ Nele von Beruf? – Sie ____ Designerin.

Exercise 4.3

Now write out the full present tense (for all persons: **ich, du, Sie, er/sie/es, wir, ihr, Sie, sie**) of the verbs (1) **haben** and (2) **sein**.

Exercise 4.4

Translate the following sentences into German.

- 1 We are from New York.
- 2 They are from Australia.
- 3 Mario is from Munich.
- 4 Are you Mr Becker? (Use (a) the **du** and (b) the **Sie** form.)
- 5 He has one sister.
- 6 Do you have time? (Use (a) the **du** and (b) the **Sie** form.)

-
- 7 They are students.
 - 8 Berlin is the capital of Germany.
 - 9 I have a flat.
 - 10 We are hungry.

Checklist	✓
1 Do you know all the finite verb forms (in the present tense) for sein by heart?	
2 What are the irregularities for haben ?	
3 Can you remember some useful phrases with haben ?	

UNIT FIVE

Separable verbs in the present tense

What is a separable verb?

These are verbs which are made up of two parts: a prefix and the infinitive of a verb.

For example: **auf** + **stehen** → **aufstehen** 'to get up'.

Comparison with English

Separable verbs are comparable to English phrasal verbs, which consist of an infinitive plus an adverb or preposition: 'to get up', 'to get on' etc.

Important separable verbs

Separable verbs are quite frequent in German. Here are some of the most important ones:

abfahren	to depart
abholen	to pick up
abwaschen	to do the washing up
anfangen	to start
ankommen	to arrive
anrufen	to phone
aufhören	to stop
aufräumen	to tidy up
aufstehen	to get up
ausgehen	to go out
einkaufen	to go shopping
einladen	to invite

einschlafen	to fall asleep
fernsehen	to watch television
saubermachen	to clean
stattfinden	to take place
vorbereiten	to prepare
(sich) vorstellen	to introduce oneself

Prefixes go at the end

When a separable verb is in the present tense, the prefix is usually separated from the finite form of the verb and goes to the end of the sentence:

anrufen	→ Herr Nolte ruft seine Frau an. Mr Nolte rings his wife.
aufstehen	Bernhard steht um fünf Uhr morgens auf. Bernhard gets up at five o'clock in the morning.
ausgehen	Corinna geht jeden Tag aus. Corinna goes out every day.
fernsehen	Die Kinder sehen jeden Abend fern. The children watch television every evening.
einkaufen	Er kauft im Supermarkt ein. He goes shopping in the supermarket.
stattfinden	Das Meeting findet am Montag statt. The meeting takes place on Monday.

Separable verbs in two clauses

When a sentence consists of two clauses, the split-off prefix goes to the end of the relevant clause. This may not necessarily be at the end of the sentence.

<i>clause 1</i>	<i>clause 2</i>	
Ich stehe auf	und dann frühstücke ich.	I get up and then I have breakfast.
Herr Carlsen sieht fern,	aber seine Kinder lesen.	Mr Carlsen is watching television, but his children are reading.

If you have a sentence with several clauses which use separable verbs, then you have the split-off part at the end of each clause:

Dr Schuster *schläft* erst um vierundzwanzig Uhr *ein*, aber er *steht* schon um fünf Uhr *auf*.

Dr Schuster only goes to sleep at midnight, but he gets up at five o'clock.

Verbs can have more than one prefix

A verb often takes more than one prefix. Here are examples of the many different meanings that the verb **kommen** 'to come' has when combined with a prefix:

ankommen	to arrive
mitkommen	to come <i>along</i>
weiterkommen	to get <i>on</i>
hereinkommen	to come <i>in</i>
herauskommen	to come <i>out</i>
nachkommen	to come <i>later</i>
zurückkommen	to come <i>back</i>

Another example is the verb **steigen**: **einsteigen** means 'to get in/on', **umsteigen** means 'to change' (trains, buses etc.) and **aussteigen** means 'to get out/off'.

You can quite often guess the meaning by knowing what the prefix means. But that does not work all the time, so meanings of separable verbs need to be learned.

How to find out whether a verb is separable

You can find out whether a verb is separable by checking in a good dictionary. After the main entry, it will say '*sep.*' if it is separable.

Common separable prefixes

The most common separable prefixes are:

ab-, an-, auf-, aus-, ein-, mit-, nach-, vor-, zu-, zurück-

You will find examples of most of these prefixes used with a verb in the preceding pages.

Some inseparable prefixes

There are also prefixes which are inseparable. They include **be-**, **er-**, **ge-** and **ver-**. Frequently used verbs with inseparable prefixes are **bezahlen** ‘to pay’, **erzählen** ‘to tell’, **verdienen** ‘to earn’, **verkaufen** ‘to sell’ and **verstehen** ‘to understand’.

Er bezahlt mit seiner Kreditkarte. He pays with his credit card.
Sie verkauft ihren alten Computer. She is selling her old computer.

As you can see, these prefixes do not separate from the verb.

More about separable verbs

As a beginner you will probably use separable verbs most often as explained above. However, separable verbs occur also in the imperative, in combination with modal verbs, and in the perfect and future tense. See Units 6 and 20–23 for more information.

If you cannot find a separable verb in a verb list or dictionary, look up the verbs without its prefix. So, for example, to find out the simple past tense form of **abfahren**, look up **fahren** in the verb list.

Exercise 5.1

Here is a description of Jens Fischer’s day. Complete the gaps with the finite verb and the prefix.

Example: ausstellen Jens ____ den Wecker um sieben Uhr ____ .
 → Jens *stellt* den Wecker um sieben Uhr *aus*.

- 1 Jens ____ um halb acht Uhr ____ . (aufstehen)
- 2 Er ____ seine Arbeit um neun Uhr ____ . (anfangen)
- 3 Mittags ____ er seine Freundin ____ . (anrufen)
- 4 Um siebzehn Uhr ____ er mit seiner Arbeit ____ . (aufhören)
- 5 Nach der Arbeit ____ er im Supermarkt ____ . (einkaufen)
- 6 Abends ____ er ____ . (fernsehen)
- 7 Er ____ mit seiner Freundin ____ . (ausgehen)
- 8 Um Mitternacht ____ er meistens ____ . (ausgehen)

Exercise 5.2

Use your dictionary to check which ones of the following verbs are separable. Put a tick against them. The first separable verb has been done for you.

aufstehen	✓	verlieren		abfahren		anrufen	
verstehen		fernsehen		aufhören		stattfinden	
einladen		mitkommen		bezahlen		erzählen	
aufräumen		frühstücken		einkaufen		benutzen	

Exercise 5.3

Now use the separable verbs from Exercise 5.2 to fill in the gaps below. The first has been done for you.

- Herr und Frau Conradi **stehen** um sieben Uhr **auf**.
- Die Kinder ____ ihr Zimmer ____ .
- Er ____ immer im Supermarkt ____ .
- Wir gehen ins Kino. ____ du ____ ?
- Frau Schmidt ____ mit dem Rauchen ____ .
- Wann ____ das Konzert ____ ?
- Herr Claus liebt Seifenoperen. Er ____ jeden Tag ____ .
- Wann ____ der nächste Zug nach Hamburg ____ ?
- Wir ____ viele Gäste zu unserer Party ____ .
- Sie kauft eine Telefonkarte und ____ ihre Mutter ____ .

Exercise 5.4

Translate the following sentences:

- I get up at six o'clock.
- I start my work at 8 o'clock.
- The meeting takes place on Monday.
- When does the train depart?
- When does the train arrive?
- Michael is tidying up and his children are watching television.
- Are you coming along to the cinema?

Checklist	✓
1 Which part of the verb is split off?	
2 Where does it go in a sentence?	
3 What happens if a sentence consists of more than one clause?	
4 How can you check whether a verb is separable?	
5 Do you know which prefixes are non-separable?	

UNIT SIX

Imperatives

What is the imperative?

The imperative is used for giving orders or instructing people to do things.

The imperative in English

In English, the imperative works by using the infinitive form of the verb:

Go home! Open your books! Close the window!

Whether you are addressing only one person or several, it does not change.

Four different forms in German

The imperative in German is a bit more complicated. There are different forms depending on whether you are addressing one person only or more than one. German also distinguishes between the formal and informal mode of address in the imperative.

Imperatives – an overview

Here is an overview of the different forms of the imperative:

	<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>	
	<i>du</i>	<i>Sie</i>	<i>ihr</i>	<i>Sie</i>
kommen	Komm!	Kommen Sie!	Kommt!	Kommen Sie!
warten	Warte.	Warten Sie.	Wartet.	Warten Sie.
sprechen	Sprich	Sprechen Sie	Sprecht	Sprechen Sie
	leise.	leise.	leise.	leise.

anfangen	Fang an.	Fangen Sie an.	Fangt an.	Fangen Sie an.
haben	Hab	Haben Sie	Habt	Haben Sie
	Geduld.	Geduld.	Geduld.	Geduld.
sein	Sei	Seien Sie	Seid	Seien Sie
	vorsichtig.	vorsichtig.	vorsichtig.	vorsichtig.

As you can see, the **du**, **Sie** and **ihr** forms follow different patterns. The formal imperative is the same in the singular and plural.

Imperatives in more detail

Here are the different forms in more detail.

Addressing one person informally (du form)

The *informal singular* or **du** form is used with one person with whom you are quite familiar – children, family or close friends.

Formation

You form the imperative by using the stem of the verb without an ending:

komm-en	→	komm	Komm her!	Come (here)!
trink-en		trink	Trink weniger.	Drink less.

Irregular forms

Verbs which have some variation in their present tense also have slight variations for the imperative:

- Verbs ending in **d**, **t**, consonant + **m** or consonant + **n** add **e** to the stem:

warten	→	wart (+-e)	Warte.	Wait.
atmen		atm (+-e)	Atme schneller.	Breathe faster.

- Verbs which have a *stem vowel change* have the same stem vowel change in the imperative:

sprechen	→	sprich	Sprich leise.	Talk quietly.
lesen		lies	Lies die Zeitung.	Read the newspaper.

- But verbs which have a *stem vowel change* from **a** to **ä** do *not* change. They simply use the stem to form the imperative:

fahren	→	fahr	Fahr rechts!	Drive on the right!
tragen		trag	Trag das rote Kleid.	Wear the red dress.

Separable verbs

Separable verbs split off their prefix and place it after the finite verb or at the end of the clause:

anfangen	→	fang . . . an	Fang an!	Start.
mitmachen		mach . . . mit	Mach mit!	Join us!

Haben and sein

Haben and **sein** behave like regular verbs. Use the stem of the verb:

hab-en	→	hab	Hab Geduld.	Be patient.
sei-n		sei	Sei vorsichtig.	Be careful.

Addressing one person formally (**Sie** form)

Use the formal singular or **Sie** form when you address one person you are not intimate with.

Formation

Simply use the present-tense **Sie** form. Unlike the informal, the formal imperative includes the personal pronoun **Sie**. You can tell that it is an imperative because the **Sie** comes *after* the verb:

kommen	→	Kommen Sie, bitte.	Please come.
warten		Warten Sie!	Wait!

Separable verbs

Separable verbs split up again:

anfangen	→	Fangen Sie bitte an.	Please start.
-----------------	---	-----------------------------	---------------

Addressing more than one person informally (**ihr** form)

The informal plural is used when you are addressing at least two people or a group of people you are familiar with – children, family or friends.

Formation

The informal plural is formed exactly like the second person plural (**ihr**): add **t** to the stem of the verb.

Verbs which take an *additional e* because their stem ends in **d**, **t**, consonant + **m** or consonant + **n** also have the ending stem **-et**.

Separable verbs split off their prefix.

Examples:

kommen	→ Kommt, bitte!	Please come.
warten	Wartet auf uns!	Wait for us.
aufhören	Hört mit dem Reden auf.	Stop talking.

Addressing more than one person formally (**Sie** form)

If you address more than one person in a formal way, you use the **Sie** plural form. As the formal imperative does not differentiate between singular and plural, it is formed exactly like the singular:

kommen	→ Kommen Sie, meine Herren.	Gentlemen, please come.
warten	Warten Sie!	Wait!
eintreten	Bitte treten Sie ein.	Please enter.

Verb in first position

As you have seen, all imperative forms in German have one important feature in common: the verb is placed in the first position in the sentence. This structure is very similar to English.

Exclamation marks

In written German, you often put an exclamation mark after the command form. This puts more emphasis on what is being said.

Frequent use

The imperative is used quite frequently in German. It is not impolite or rude to do so. English tends to use more elaborate structures, often in question

form, when asking somebody to do something: ‘Could you open the window, please?’ Although German quite often uses similar phrases, be prepared for imperatives as well.

Exercise 6.1

Complete these commands by using the verbs in brackets.

Example: _____ Sie langsamer, bitte. (reden) → Reden Sie langsamer, bitte.

- 1 _____ Sie mir noch ein Bier, bitte.(bringen)
- 2 _____ Sie bitte die Rechnung.(schreiben)
- 3 _____ Sie doch bitte von Ihrem Urlaub.(erzählen)
- 4 _____ Sie bitte noch fünf Minuten.(warten)
- 5 _____ Sie ____!(anfangen)
- 6 _____ Sie mit dem Rauchen ____!(aufhören)
- 7 _____ Sie bitte ruhig.(sein)
- 8 _____ Sie ein bisschen Geduld.(haben)

Exercise 6.2

Now rewrite the sentences from Exercise 6.1, this time using the **du** form.

Example: 1 Bring mir noch ein Bier, bitte.

Exercise 6.3

You are giving your close friend advice about her health. Put the following in the command form, using the **du** form.

Example: mehr Zeit für sich selber / haben → Hab mehr Zeit für dich selber!

- 1 mehr Gemüse / essen
- 2 mehr mit dem Fahrrad / fahren
- 3 mit dem Rauchen / aufhören
- 4 weniger / fernsehen
- 5 weniger Tabletten / nehmen
- 6 mehr Bücher über Gesundheit / lesen
- 7 mehr / schlafen
- 8 relaxter / sein

Exercise 6.4

Translate the following sentences. To practise all command forms in German, use first the **Sie** form, then the **du** form and finally the **ihr** form.

- 1 Please start.
- 2 Open the window.
- 3 Could you bring me the bill, please.
- 4 Be careful.

Checklist	✓
1 How many different imperative forms are there in German?	
2 How do you form the singular informal imperative?	
3 Do normal verb variations apply in the formation of the imperative?	
4 How do you recognise the formal imperative?	

UNIT SEVEN

Questions

Two types of questions

There are two main types of questions. The first starts with a question word (*interrogative*) and tends to be more 'open'. The second starts with a finite verb and requires 'yes' or 'no' as an answer.

Similar use in English and German

Both types are frequently used in English and German:

Interrogative

Where do you come from?

Where do you live?

Woher kommen Sie?

Wo wohnen Sie?

Yes or no question

Have you got brothers and sisters?

Is this your mobile?

Haben Sie Geschwister?

Ist das Ihr Handy?

Here are both types in more detail.

Interrogative or 'w-questions' in detail

Frequently used question words

Here is a list of important question words and their English equivalents:

wer?

was?

wo?

woher?

wohin?

who?

what?

where?

where . . . from?

where . . . (to)?

wann?	when?
wie?	how? what?
wie lange?	how long?
wie viel?	how much?
wie viele?	how many?
wie oft?	how often?
warum?	why?

Examples

Here are some examples which show how the question words work.

Wer ist das?	Who is that?
Wo wohnst du?	Where do you live?
Woher kommen Sie?	Where do you come from?
Wohin fährt Juliane nächstes Wochenende?	Where is Juliane going next weekend?
Wie ist deine E-Mail-Adresse?	What is your e-mail address?
Wie viel kosten 100 Gramm Mozzarella?	How much is 100 grams of Mozzarella?
Wie oft gehst du aus?	How often do you go out?

Useful points

As you can see, the usage of most question words in German is very similar to English. Note the following points.

Wie used for names and addresses

The German interrogative **wie** 'how' is also used when you ask for a name or address:

Wie ist dein Name?	What is your name?
Wie ist Ihre Telefonnummer/ Adresse?	What is your phone number/ address?

It is incorrect to use **was** in such questions.

Use of wo, wohin and woher

Note that **wo** corresponds to the English 'where'. If motion to or from a place is indicated, German always uses **wohin** or **woher**:

Wo ist die Kirche?	Where is the church?
Wohin gehst du heute Abend?	Where are you going (to) this evening?
Woher kommst du gerade?	Where have you just come from?

How to ask about professions and where you work

The most common way in German to ask what somebody does for a living is:

Was sind Sie von Beruf?	What do you do for a living? <i>lit.</i> What are you by profession
--------------------------------	--

To find out for which company somebody is working, the question in German is:

Wo arbeiten Sie?	For whom do you work? <i>lit.</i> Where do you work?
-------------------------	---

Question words in first position

The question word occupies the first place in a question. It is followed by the finite verb as the second idea and then the subject:

<i>question word</i>	<i>finite verb</i>	<i>subject</i>	<i>other elements</i>
Woher	kommen	Sie?	
Wohin	fährt	Juliane	am Wochenende?

Yes and no questions in detail

Formation

The second type of question can be answered by a simple 'yes' or 'no'. As you can see, it does not need a question word. Instead the finite verb moves into the first position:

<i>finite verb</i>	<i>subject</i>	<i>other elements</i>
Kommt	Peter	aus Berlin?
Wohnen	Sie	im Hotel 'Zur Sonne'?
Trinkst	du	gern?

This structure differs from a statement, where the finite verb is the second idea:

statement

Peter *kommt* aus Berlin.

Sie *wohnen* im Hotel Zur Sonne.

question

***Kommt* Peter aus Berlin?**

***Wohnen* Sie im Hotel 'Zur Sonne'?**

Simpler structure than English

English often uses the verb 'do' to form this kind of question: 'Does Peter come from Berlin?' 'Do you stay in the hotel "Zur Sonne"?' 'Do you like drinking?'

In German, these structures do not exist. It is sufficient to move the finite verb to the beginning of the sentence. Here are some more examples:

Sprechen Sie Deutsch?

Arbeitet er bei MTV Deutschland?

Läuft sie wirklich jeden Tag 10 km?

Do you speak German?

Does he work for MTV
Germany?

Does she really run 10 km each
day?

German is much simpler than English in this respect.

Exercise 7.1

Supply the missing question words from the list. The first one has been done for you.

wo wie wie wann wo was wie wie woher wie

- 1 **Wie** heißen Sie?
- 2 ___ wohnen Sie?
- 3 ___ ist Ihre E-Mail-Adresse?
- 4 ___ arbeiten Sie?
- 5 ___ sind Sie von Beruf?
- 6 ___ kommen Sie eigentlich?
- 7 ___ viel kostet das?
- 8 ___ beginnt das Konzert?
- 9 ___ viel Uhr ist es?
- 10 ___ viele Einwohner hat Deutschland?

Exercise 7.2

Here is an interview with Oliver Gehrs, who is a well-known journalist. Can you find out what the questions were?

Example: Wie alt sind Sie?
→ Ich bin 32 Jahre alt.

- 1 _____?
→ Mein Name ist Oliver Gehrs.
- 2 _____?
→ Ich bin Journalist.
- 3 _____?
→ Meine Arbeit beginnt meistens um 8.00 Uhr.
- 4 _____?
→ Ja, die Arbeit ist sehr interessant. Manchmal aber auch ein wenig stressig.
- 5 _____?
→ Ja, ich habe Kinder. Eine Tochter und zwei Söhne.
- 6 _____?
→ Ja, ich bin seit fast 15 Jahren verheiratet.
- 7 _____?
→ Ich lese gern, ich gehe gern ins Kino und ich schwimme auch viel.
- 8 _____?
→ Nein, ich spreche kein Spanisch. Ich spreche aber sehr gut Englisch.

Exercise 7.3

Translate the following questions. Use both the **du** and **Sie** forms for 'you'.

- 1 What is your name?
- 2 Where do you come from?
- 3 What is your e-mail address?
- 4 What is the time?
- 5 Are you married?
- 6 Do you have children?
- 7 Do you speak English?

Checklist	✓
1 Which question word do you use when you ask for a name or an address?	
2 Where do you put the finite verb in a yes or no question?	
3 Where do you put the finite verb in a 'w-question'?	
4 If you want to describe somebody coming from somewhere or going to a destination, which question words do you need to use?	

UNIT EIGHT

Nouns and gender

What is a noun?

A noun is a word used to name a person, an object, an abstract quality or a concept: a woman, a boat, friendship, democracy. In many languages nouns have different genders – they can be masculine, feminine or neuter.

Biological gender in English

In English, the gender of nouns conforms with their status: things, objects, animals and concepts are neuter ('it'), female persons are feminine ('she') and male persons are masculine ('he'). This way of classifying nouns can be called 'biological' gender. German uses instead grammatical gender, where there is no such obvious relationship.

Three genders in German

In German, all nouns are masculine, feminine or neuter. They can be identified by the definite article ('the' in English) which is different for each gender: **der** is for masculine nouns, **die** for female and **das** for neuter nouns:

Masculine

der *der Mann, der Tisch* the man, the table

Feminine

die *die Frau, die Tür* the woman, the door

Neuter

das *das Kind, das Fenster* the child, the window

Note that in the plural all three groups take the same article: **die Männer** 'the men', **die Frauen** 'the women', **die Kinder** 'the children'.

As you can see, it is easy to guess the gender for nouns where the natural gender is fairly clear: **der Mann** is masculine and **die Frau** feminine.

Unfortunately for the majority of nouns the gender seems difficult to work out. The German words for 'table', 'door' and 'window' for example all belong to different groups.

It is therefore advisable to learn a new noun with its gender: **der Tisch**, **die Tür**, **das Fenster**.

How to find the gender of a noun

In a dictionary the gender of a noun is usually indicated after the word. The most common abbreviations are: *m* (masculine), *f* (feminine), *nt* (neuter).

Nevertheless, there are some clues that can help you work out whether a noun is masculine, feminine or neuter. One is the ending of a noun. There are also certain groups of nouns which have identical genders. Here is an overview.

Clues for masculine nouns

Typical endings

The following endings usually indicate that a noun is masculine:

-er	der Computer, der Wecker	computer, alarm clock
-ig	der Honig, der Käfig	honey, cage
-ismus	der Idealismus, der Kapitalismus	idealism, capitalism
-ling	der Frühling, der Schilling	spring, shilling
-or	der Motor, der Reaktor	engine, reactor

Groups of nouns

There are also certain groups of nouns which are masculine. They include:

male persons	der Vater, der Sohn	father, son
names of days and months	der Montag, der August	Monday, August
names of seasons	der Sommer, der Winter	summer, winter
makes of cars	der BMW, der Jaguar	BMW, Jaguar
alcoholic drinks	der Whisky, der Wein	whisky, wine

'Beer' is an exception and neuter: **das Bier**

Clues for feminine nouns

Typical feminine endings

The following endings usually indicate that a noun is feminine:

-ei	die Bäckerei, die Türkei	bakery, Turkey
-enz	die Intelligenz, die Differenz	intelligence, difference
-heit	die Freiheit, die Dummheit	freedom, stupidity
-ie	die Demokratie, die Phantasie	democracy, imagination
-ion	die Nation, die Kommunikation	nation, communication
-keit	die Schwierigkeit, die Möglichkeit	difficulty, possibility/ opportunity
-tät	die Universität, die Fakultät	university, faculty
-schaft	die Mannschaft, die Landschaft	team, landscape
-ung	die Wohnung, die Zeitung	flat, newspaper
-ur	die Kultur, die Natur	culture, nature

Note also that about ninety per cent of nouns ending in **-e** are feminine:

die Adresse ‘address’, **die Flasche** ‘bottle’, **die Krawatte** ‘tie’

But there are a number of important exceptions such as **der Name** ‘name’ and **der Käse** ‘cheese’.

Groups of nouns

Nouns which tend to be feminine are:

female persons	die Mutter, die Tochter	mother, daughter
names of motorbikes and ships	die BMW, die Titanic	BMW, <i>Titanic</i>
names of trees and flowers	die Eiche, die Rose	oak, rose

Notable exceptions include: **das Mädchen** ‘girl’, **das Veilchen** ‘violet’.

Clues for neuter nouns

Typical endings

As for the other two genders, certain endings help you identify that a noun is neuter. The most important are:

-chen	das Mädchen, das Märchen	girl, fairy tale
-lein	das Fräulein, das Männlein	Miss, little man
-ma	das Klima, das Thema	climate, theme/topic
-ment	das Dokument, das Instrument	document, instrument
-o	das Kino, das Büro	cinema, office
-um	das Album, das Zentrum	album, centre

Important exceptions include: **die Firma** ‘company’.

Groups of nouns

There are also certain groups of nouns which tend to be neuter:

young persons	das Baby, das Kind	baby, child
infinitives used as nouns	das Singen, das Tanzen	singing, dancing
names of hotels and cinemas	das Hilton, das Roxy	the Hilton, the Roxy
names of most metals	das Silber, das Gold	silver, gold
diminutives	das Tischlein	small table

Compound nouns

You may have noticed that German speakers love to form long words. In grammar terms a word that is made up of more than one noun is called a compound noun. In this case the last noun defines the gender:

der Wein + die Flasche	→	die Weinflasche	wine bottle
das Telefon + die Nummer		die Telefonnummer	telephone number
der Computer + das Spiel		das Computerspiel	computer game

Nouns take capital letters in German

Remember that all nouns in German start with a capital letter:

Der Computer hat eine neue Tastatur.	The computer has a new keyboard.
Wie heißt das Kino?	What is the name of the cinema?

This can help you spot a noun in a German sentence.

Plurals of articles

You have already seen that there are three different singular forms for the definite article: **der**, **die** and **das**. In the plural all three are **die**.

The indefinite articles

The indefinite article ('a' in English) is: **ein** for masculine nouns, **eine** for feminine nouns and **ein** for neuter nouns:

Masculine

ein *ein Mann, ein Tisch* a man, a table

Feminine

eine *eine Frau, eine Tür* a woman, a door

Neuter

ein *ein Kind, ein Fenster* a child, a window

Articles can change

In more complex structures the forms of both the definite and the indefinite articles can change slightly. For more details see Units 10–14.

Summary of main pointers

Here is a summary of the main clues that can help you identify the gender of a noun in German:

Groups of nouns include:

masculine nouns (der)

Male persons, names of days and months, names of seasons, makes of cars, alcoholic drinks

Endings are:

-er, -ig, -ismus, -ling,
-or

feminine nouns (die)

Female persons, names of motorbikes and ships, names of trees and flowers

-ei, -enz, -heit, -ie, -ion,
-tät, -schaft, -ung, -ur

neuter nouns (das)

Young persons, infinitives used as nouns, names of hotels and cinemas, names of most metals, diminutives

-chen, -lein, -ma, -ment,
-o, -um

Exercise 8.1

Here are groups of nouns. Do you remember which article they take?

Example: ___ Hilton, Ritz, Vierjahreszeiten-Hotel → *das* Hilton, Ritz, Vierjahreszeiten-Hotel

- 1 ___ Montag, Dienstag, Mittwoch, Sonntag
- 2 ___ Audi, Ferrari, Mini, Ford
- 3 ___ Silber, Gold, Eisen, Kupfer
- 4 ___ Rose, Tulpe, Sonnenblume
- 5 ___ Tochter, Schwester, Mutter, Oma
- 6 ___ Sommer, Frühling, Herbst, Winter
- 7 ___ Wodka, Rum, Rotwein, Schnaps
- 8 ___ Schwimmen, Essen, Tanzen, Joggen

Exercise 8.2

Decide whether the nouns in the box are masculine, feminine or neuter and put *m*, *f* or *nt* in the appropriate box. Most words have appeared previously, but, if you are not sure about the meaning, check in your dictionary. The first two have been done for you.

Konditorei	<i>f</i>	Auto		Tasse		Computer	
Lampe	<i>f</i>	Märchen		Metzgerei		Museum	
Kirche		Emigration		Zentrum		Religion	
Liberalismus		Nation		Demokratie		Instrument	
Zeitung		Kino		Büro		Terror	
Meinung		Universität		Solidarität		Motor	
Flasche		Modernismus		Mädchen		Kultur	

Now make a list of the typical (1) *masculine*, (2) *feminine* and (3) *neuter* endings that have appeared in the above examples.

Exercise 8.3

Rewrite the following sentences and put a capital letter where necessary. All German sentences start with a capital letter.

Example: berlin hat eine lange geschichte → Berlin hat eine lange Geschichte.

- 1 berlin ist eine fantastische stadt.
- 2 das hotel, wo wir wohnen, ist sehr komfortabel.
- 3 der service ist ausgezeichnet und das essen ist gut.
- 4 die woche geht so schnell vorbei.
- 5 die landschaft um berlin und besonders die seen sind sehr schön.
- 6 heute abend gehen wir in die kneipe und feiern unseren letzten tag in berlin.

Exercise 8.4

Translate the following sentences.

- 1 The Ferrari is very fast.
- 2 The table and the window are broken.
- 3 The daughter is called Marianna.
- 4 The newspaper is too expensive.
- 5 The rose is very beautiful.
- 6 The cinema is closed. (closed = **geschlossen**)
- 7 The football team is bad.
- 8 The beer costs 2 euros.
- 9 The town centre is very old.
- 10 Is the computer new?
- 11 The girl is five years old and the boy is seven.
- 12 The cheese is from France.

Checklist	✓
1 Why is gender so important for learners of German? What is meant by grammatical gender?	
2 Can you give the definite and indefinite articles for masculine, feminine, neuter nouns?	
3 What are the endings which indicate that a noun is masculine, feminine, neuter?	
4 Can you list the categories in which nouns are usually masculine, feminine, neuter?	
5 What is distinctive about the spelling of German nouns?	

UNIT NINE

Plural of nouns

Singular and plural

When nouns refer to only one item grammatically they are in the singular form. If you talk about more than one item you use the plural: **ein Auto** 'a car' (singular) → **zwei Autos** 'two cars' (plural).

Plurals in English

In English it is relatively easy to form the plural forms of nouns – normally you only add '-s':

'a cigarette' → 'two cigarettes', 'a house' → 'five houses'.

Exceptions include: 'a woman' → 'two women', 'a child' → 'three children'.

Patterns in German

German has several ways of forming the plural. It is therefore advisable to learn a new word with its plural form. But as with gender there are patterns for typical endings, or plural formations for masculine, feminine and neuter nouns. Here is an overview.

Clues for masculine nouns

Adding -e

The great majority of masculine nouns form their plural by just adding **-e**:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>ending: -e</i>
der Beruf	job	die Berufe	jobs	-e
der Film	film	die Filme	films	-e
der Tisch	table	die Tische	tables	-e

Adding an umlaut + -e

Often an umlaut is added when the original stem vowel is **a, o** or **u**:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>ending: umlaut + -e</i>
der Ball	ball	die Bälle	balls	umlaut + -e
der Zug	train	die Züge	trains	umlaut + -e

Nouns ending in **-er, -el** or **-en**

Nouns ending in **-er, -el** or **-en** have no change or sometimes add an umlaut:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>no ending or just umlaut</i>
der Kuchen	cake	die Kuchen	cakes	–
der Apfel	apple	die Äpfel	apples	umlaut

Always remember that these are only guidelines, there are some irregular endings such as **der Mann** → **die Männer**.

Clues for feminine nouns

Adding **-n** or **-en**

The huge majority of feminine nouns add **-n** or **-en**:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>ending -n or -en</i>
die Frau	woman	die Frauen	women	-en
die Zeitung	newspaper	die Zeitungen	newspapers	-en
die Tasse	cup	die Tassen	cups	-n
die Sprache	language	die Sprachen	languages	-n

Adding umlaut + -e

A number of commonly used feminine nouns add umlaut: + **-e**:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>ending -e + umlaut</i>
die Hand	hand	die Hände	hands	Umlaut + -e
die Stadt	city	die Städte	cities	Umlaut + -e

Again be aware that there are different forms. **Mutter** and **Tochter** for instance both only add an umlaut:

die Mutter → **die Mütter**; **die Tochter** → **die Töchter**.

Clues for neuter nouns

Adding -e

Most neuter nouns add -e but no umlaut:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>ending: -e</i>
das Bein	leg	die Beine	legs	-e
das Haar	hair	die Haare	hairs	-e
das Jahr	year	die Jahre	years	-e

Adding umlaut + er

Another common ending is -er, with an umlaut where the original stem vowel is **a**, **o** or **u**:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>ending: -er or umlaut + -er</i>
das Kind	child	die Kinder	children	-er
das Buch	book	die Bücher	books	umlaut + -er

Nouns ending in -chen or -lein

Nouns ending in -chen or -lein do not change in the plural:

<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>		<i>no ending</i>
das Mädchen	girl	die Mädchen	girls	-

Foreign words

Foreign word which are 'imported' into German from English or French usually add -s:

der Chef	boss	→	die Chefs	bosses
die Party	party		die Partys	parties
das Team	team		die Teams	teams

How to find the plural from a dictionary

If you do not know the plural form of a noun you can look it up in a dictionary. The plural form is usually given in third place following the *gender* and the *genitive ending* (see Units 10 and 12) of the noun:

Beruf *m*, **-(e)s**, **-e** occupation, job → Here the plural is given as **-e**: **Berufe**

Reise *f*, **-**, **-n** journey, trip → Here the plural is given as **-n**: **Reisen**

If you look up the ending of a noun and see **;**, this means that an umlaut is needed:

Vater *m*, **-s**, **;** father → The plural should therefore be **Väter**.

In some cases an umlaut plus another ending is required:

Hand *f*, **-**, **;**e hand → Here you have to add an umlaut plus **-e**: **Hand** becomes **Hände**

Points to remember

Here is a summary of the most common plural noun endings:

- e** Most masculine nouns need an extra **-e**: **der Film** → **die Filme**
- The same applies to neuter nouns: **das Bier** → **die Biere**
- e + umlaut** Many masculine nouns also add an umlaut: **der Ball** → **die Bälle**
- So do a number of feminine nouns: **die Hand** → **die Hände**
- er (+ umlaut)** Many neuter nouns add umlaut + **-er** when possible: **das Buch** → **die Bücher**
- A few masculine nouns also take the same changes: **der Wald** → **die Wälder**
- n or -en** Around ninety per cent of feminine nouns follow this pattern:
die Sprache → **die Sprachen**
die Frau → **die Frauen**
- s** Most foreign words in German take **-s**: **die Party** → **die Party's**
- no ending** Nouns ending with **-chen** or **-lein**: **das Mädchen** → **die Mädchen**
- Nouns ending with **-el**, **-en**, **-er**: **der Spiegel** → **die Spiegel**
- Often they add an umlaut: **der Vater** → **die Väter**

Exercise 9.1

Use the given information and write out the plural form of the following nouns. The first has been done for you.

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------|
| 1 Messer <i>nt, -</i> | die Messer |
| 2 Blumentopf <i>m, -e</i> | _____ |
| 3 Buch <i>nt, -er</i> | _____ |
| 4 Kühlschrank <i>m, -e</i> | _____ |
| 5 Glas <i>nt, -er</i> | _____ |
| 6 Mutter <i>f, -</i> | _____ |
| 7 Mantel <i>m, -</i> | _____ |
| 8 Regal <i>nt, -e</i> | _____ |
| 9 Tasse <i>f, -n</i> | _____ |
| 10 Teppich <i>m, -e</i> | _____ |
| 11 Zeitung <i>f, -en</i> | _____ |
| 12 Zimmer <i>nt, -</i> | _____ |

Exercise 9.2

Give the plural form of the following nouns.

Example: die Flasche → die Flaschen

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------|
| 1 der Tag | → die _____ |
| 2 der Kurs | die _____ |
| 3 der Orangensaft | die _____ |
| 4 der Gast | die _____ |
| 5 der Schnaps | die _____ |
| 6 die Tasse | → die _____ |
| 7 die Tomate | die _____ |
| 8 die Meinung | die _____ |
| 9 die Stadt | die _____ |
| 10 die Bratwurst | die _____ |
| 11 das Schiff | → die _____ |
| 12 das Boot | die _____ |
| 13 das Haus | die _____ |
| 14 das Buch | die _____ |
| 15 das Land | die _____ |
| 16 das Hotel | → die _____ |
| 17 die Cola | die _____ |
| 18 das Büro | die _____ |
| 19 der Tipp | die _____ |
| 20 der Club | die _____ |

Exercise 9.3

Now go through the plural forms again and identify the typical (1) *masculine*, (2) *neuter* and (3) *feminine* endings used in these examples.

Exercise 9.4

Translate the following sentences.

- 1 I would like two bottles, please.
- 2 Two sausages, please.
- 3 The apples are very sweet.
- 4 He has got two sisters and three brothers.
- 5 She reads three newspapers.
- 6 The flat has four rooms.
- 7 She speaks five languages.
- 8 The parties are always interesting.

Checklist	✓
1 How do most masculine nouns form the plural?	
2 How do most feminine nouns form the plural?	
3 How do most neuter nouns form the plural?	
4 How do most foreign (imported) words form the plural?	
5 Where do you find information on how the plural is formed in a dictionary entry?	

UNIT TEN

The four cases

This Unit will give you a very short overview of the basic rules governing the cases in German and will compare them to English. Units 11–14 will explain each case in detail and give examples and exercises.

What are cases?

Nouns (words such as ‘man’, ‘house’, ‘dog’) play different roles in a sentence or clause. For example, a noun can be the agent of what is happening (‘*Dog* bites man’) or it can be in the position where the action of the verb happens to it (‘Dog bites *man*’). In German, these different roles are signalled by the *case*. The different cases are shown in the endings.

How does this compare to English?

In English, the noun also plays these different roles in the sentence. You know that a noun is a subject when it comes *before* the verb. If it is an object, it comes *after* the verb. But normally the case isn’t evident, except when you use pronouns: ‘he’/‘she’/‘it’ etc.:

Peter loves Mary.
Mary loves Peter.

He loves *her*.
She loves *him*.

The four cases in German

There are four different cases in German. Each case can be linked with a particular role, or ‘function’, in the sentence.

The nominative case

The nominative is used when the noun is the subject of the sentence, i.e. the ‘agent’ of what is happening (‘Who is doing the action?’):

Der Mann liest.

The man is reading.

The accusative case

When the noun is the direct object, i.e. the ‘receiver’ of the action in the sentence, German normally uses the accusative (‘Who or what is affected by the action?’):

Der Mann liest *einen Roman*.

The man is reading *a novel*.

The dative case

In addition to the direct object, many verbs can take a second object, the indirect object (‘To whom/what, or for whom/what is the action done?’).

Der Mann gibt *der Frau* einen Roman.

The man gives *the woman* a novel.

The genitive case

This is used to show the relationship between two nouns. It indicates that one item ‘belongs’ to the other.

Der Hut *des Mannes*.

The man’s hat.

Why are cases important?

The cases dictate the endings of definite articles (‘the’ – **der, die, das**), indefinite articles (‘a’ – **ein, eine, ein**) and other words linked with nouns (see Units 11–14 for more). Here is a quick overview of how the four cases affect the indefinite article and the definite article.

The indefinite article:

	<i>nominative</i>	<i>accusative</i>	<i>dative</i>	<i>genitive</i>
<i>masculine</i>	ein	einen	einem	eines
<i>feminine</i>	eine	eine	einer	einer
<i>neuter</i>	ein	ein	einem	eines

The definite article:

	<i>nominative</i>	<i>accusative</i>	<i>dative</i>	<i>genitive</i>
<i>masculine</i>	der	den	dem	des
<i>feminine</i>	die	die	der	der
<i>neuter</i>	das	das	dem	des

Can you spot the changed endings in the examples on the previous page?

Answers: **einen Roman** = masculine accusative; **der Frau** = feminine dative; **des Mannes** = masculine genitive.

Factors which determine case

There are three factors which determine case. We have explained one of them above: the case is determined by the role the noun plays in the sentence; is it a subject or an object?

There are two more factors, which decide what case must be used: the verb, and prepositions in the sentence.

Verbs

The verb determines which case you use for the object:

- The majority of verbs require the accusative.
- Certain verbs always require the dative (for example, **helfen** ‘to help’ or **gehören** ‘to belong’).
- Very few verbs take the genitive case.

If you have a verb which requires the dative case, then the object in the German sentence *must* be in the dative even if it would be a direct object in English:

Der Mann hilft *der* Frau.

The man helps the woman.

In the German, ‘the woman’ is in the dative case (**der Frau**) because **helfen** is a verb after which you must always use the dative.

Prepositions

Prepositions in German (words such as English ‘at’, ‘on’, ‘to’, ‘for’) require a certain case.

- Some of them take the accusative (for example **durch** ‘through’ or **für** ‘for’.
- Some prepositions take the dative (for example **mit** ‘with’ or **von** ‘from’.
- Very few prepositions take the genitive.

If you have a preposition which requires the accusative case, then the object in the German sentence *must* be in the accusative, even if it would be an indirect object in English:

Ich kaufe einen Roman für meinen Freund. I’m buying a novel for my friend.

In English, ‘for my friend’ is the indirect object, but in German **für meinen Freund** is in the accusative case because **für** is one of the prepositions after which you must always use the accusative.

Summary of basic principles

The use of cases is determined by three principles:

- whether the noun is the subject or the object of the sentence
- the verb, and
- any prepositions used.

It is particularly important to learn which verbs take the dative, and which prepositions govern which case.

Exercise 10.1

Underline the subject – the noun in the *nominative* – in each sentence.

Example: Die Frau isst einen Hamburger. → Die Frau isst einen Hamburger.

- 1 Der Mann geht ins Kino.
- 2 Das Kind spielt mit den Autos.
- 3 Nach dem Essen trinken die Leute noch Kaffee.
- 4 Die Katze heißt Kassandra.
- 5 In der Garage steht das Auto.
- 6 Um acht Uhr verlässt die Nachbarin das Haus.

Exercise 10.2

Identify the objects in the following sentences and number them 1 and 2. Can you identify which one is in the accusative and which one in the dative case? Check the tables above for endings.

Example: Sie gibt dem Mann eine Zigarette. → dem Mann (1), eine Zigarette (2)

(1) **dem Mann** is in the dative case (something is given to him)

(2) **eine Zigarette** is in the accusative case

- 1 Ich schenke der Frau ein Buch.
- 2 Er kauft dem Mädchen ein Eis.
- 3 Herr Schulz zeigt dem Gast seinen Garten.
- 4 Der Kellner bringt dem Mann das Essen.

Exercise 10.3

In the two tables below, put a tick against those endings which are different from the nominative. One of each has been done for you.

The indefinite article:

	<i>accusative</i>		<i>dative</i>		<i>genitive</i>	
<i>masculine</i>	einen		einem		eines	
<i>feminine</i>	eine		einer		einer	
<i>neuter</i>	ein		einem	✓	eines	

The definite article:

	<i>accusative</i>		<i>dative</i>		<i>genitive</i>	
<i>masculine</i>	den	✓	dem		des	
<i>feminine</i>	die		der		der	
<i>neuter</i>	das		dem		des	

Checklist	✓
1 How many principles govern the cases in German?	
2 Can you give these principles?	
3 Which case do you use for the subject?	
4 Which case do you normally use for the direct object?	
5 Which case do you normally use for the indirect object?	
6 Which words or parts of words change when you use the different cases?	
7 When is an 'indirect' object in the accusative case?	
8 When is a 'direct' object in the dative case?	

UNIT ELEVEN

The nominative case

What is the nominative case?

German uses the nominative case if the noun is the subject in a sentence – a person or thing doing the action.

Examples

Here are some examples of nouns in the nominative case:

***Der Mann* hört Musik.**

The man is listening to music.

***Die Frau* liest das Buch.**

The woman reads the book.

***Das Kind* kauft einen Apfel.**

The child buys an apple.

***Die Gäste* wollen es nicht.**

The guests don't want it.

Endings in the nominative case

As described in Unit 10, cases are important in German because they affect the endings of various words linked to nouns. Here is an overview of the most common endings:

<i>modifier</i>	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>definite articles</i>	der Mann	die Frau	das Kind	die Gäste
<i>indefinite articles</i>	ein Mann	eine Frau	ein Kind	Gäste
<i>negative article</i>	kein Mann	keine Frau	kein Kind	keine Gäste
<i>possessive</i>	mein Mann	meine Frau	mein Kind	meine Gäste

The nominative case after *sein* and *werden*

Note that you also use the nominative after **sein** 'to be' and **werden** 'to become':

Er ist *ein* interessanter Mann. He is an interesting man.
Es wird *ein* schöner Tag. It's going to be a nice day.

However, this is not always obvious, since you sometimes do not use an indefinite article with these verbs in German:

Er ist Ingenieur. He is an engineer.
Sie wird Lehrerin. She is going to be(come) a teacher.

How to spot the nominative case

The subject does not have to be at the beginning of the sentence:

Morgen fährt *die Klasse* nach Berlin. Tomorrow the class is going to Berlin.
Nach dem Essen trinkt *er* einen Espresso. After the meal he drinks an espresso.

An easy way to find out the subject of a sentence is to ask 'Who or what is doing the action?' Who is going to Berlin tomorrow? The class. Who is drinking an espresso? He is.

Exercise 11.1

Fill in the correct form of the indefinite (**ein, eine, ein**) and definite articles (**der, die, das**, plural **die**) in the nominative. The genders of the nouns are given in parentheses.

Example:(f) Das ist **eine** Popgruppe. *Die* Popgruppe heißt No Angels.

- 1 (*m*) Das ist ____ Computer. ____ Computer kostet 1200 Euro.
- 2 (*nt*) Das ist ____ Auto. ____ Auto ist ein VW.
- 3 (*f*) Das ist ____ Zeitung. ____ Zeitung heißt *Die Welt*.
- 4 (*f*) Das ist ____ Flasche Bier. ____ Flasche kommt aus München.
- 5 (*nt*) Das ist ____ Hotel. ____ Hotel heißt Maritim.
- 6 (*m*) Das ist ____ Supermarkt. ____ Supermarkt heißt Aldi.
- 7 (*pl*) Das sind Studenten. ____ Studenten kommen aus Kanada.
- 8 (*pl*) Das sind Briefmarken. ____ Briefmarken kommen aus der ganzen Welt.

Exercise 11.2

Underline the subject in the following sentences:

Example: Am Wochenende spielt sie meistens Fußball. → Am
Wochenende spielt sie meistens Fußball.

- 1 Morgen fahren wir nach Italien.
- 2 Meine Mutter heißt Karin.
- 3 Hast du heute Zeit?
- 4 Im Sommer wohnen wir in Berlin.
- 5 Trinkt er gerne Bier?

Exercise 11.3

Translate the following sentences.

- 1 This is a house.
- 2 The house is very old.
- 3 The man is called Mario.
- 4 He is an engineer.
- 5 The newspaper is very interesting.
- 6 Aldi is a supermarket in Germany.
- 7 Who are the children?

Checklist	✓
1 What function does the noun have in a sentence when it is in the nominative case?	
2 After which two verbs do you also use the nominative?	
3 How can you spot the subject in a sentence?	

UNIT TWELVE

The accusative case

What is the accusative case?

German normally uses the accusative case when the noun is the direct object, i.e. the 'receiver' of the action in the sentence:

Der Mann kauft *den* Computer. The man buys the computer.

Masculine forms change

In the accusative case, the endings for the modifiers (for example, the definite article, e.g. **der**, or the indefinite article, e.g. **ein**), change when used for masculine nouns:

- **der** changes to **den** and
- **ein** changes to **einen**

For nouns in the feminine, the neuter and the plural, the endings are the same as in the nominative case.

Endings in the accusative case

Here is an overview of accusative endings for some of the most common modifiers:

<i>modifier</i>	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>definite articles</i>	den Mann	die Frau	das Kind	die Gäste
<i>indefinite articles</i>	einen Mann	eine Frau	ein Kind	– Gäste
<i>negative article</i>	keinen Mann	keine Frau	kein Kind	keine Gäste
<i>possessive</i>	meinen Mann	meine Frau	mein Kind	meine Gäste

As you can see, the endings for all masculine modifiers are **-en**.

Examples

Here are some examples of nouns in the accusative case in use:

<i>Nominative</i>	<i>accusative</i>	
der Stuhl	Ich kaufe <i>den</i> Stuhl.	I buy the chair.
die CD	Er hört <i>die</i> CD.	He is listening to the CD.
das Auto	Fährst du <i>das</i> Auto?	Are you driving the car?
ein Regenschirm (m)	Ich habe <i>einen</i> Regenschirm.	I've got an umbrella.
eine Cola (f)	Ich nehme <i>eine</i> Cola.	I'll take a coke.
ein Bier (n)	Sie trinkt <i>ein</i> Bier.	She is drinking a beer.
der Hunger	Ich habe <i>keinen</i> Hunger.	I'm not hungry.
ihr Bruder (m)	Sie vermisst <i>ihren</i> Bruder.	She misses her brother.

The accusative case after most verbs

You also use the accusative after certain verbs. In fact, the majority of German verbs which can take a (direct) object take the accusative.

Verbs which take the accusative are also called *transitive verbs*. In the dictionary, there will be an abbreviation 'vt' after the headword to indicate this. If you find a 'vt' after a verb entry in the dictionary, you know that this verb takes the accusative case.

The accusative case after prepositions

You also use the accusative case after certain prepositions. The following prepositions always take the accusative:

bis	until
durch	through
für	for
gegen	against, round
ohne	without
um	around, at

Examples:

Wir fahren gerade durch <i>einen</i> Tunnel.	We are just driving through a tunnel.
Arbeitest du für <i>die</i> Firma?	Do you work for the company?
Er ist gegen <i>das</i> Angebot.	He is against the offer.

Sie kommt ohne *ihren* Freund.

She is coming without her
boyfriend.

Remember that whenever you use one of the prepositions listed above, you *must* use the accusative case in the noun linked to it.

More than one accusative in a sentence

As explained above, use of the accusative case is *not* determined only by the noun being in a position like the direct object in English. Use of the accusative case is also governed by the verb and some prepositions. It is therefore possible for there to be more than one accusative form in a sentence:

**Ich sehe *den* Jungen ohne *seinen*
Mantel.**

I see the boy without his coat.

**Wir kaufen *einen* Tisch und *einen*
Schrank für *deinen* Vater.**

We are buying a table and a
wardrobe for your father.

The accusative case – the main points

The accusative case is mainly used for the *direct object* in a sentence. But it can also be determined by the *verb* and *certain prepositions*.

Don't forget that, with feminine, neuter and plural nouns, the endings for the modifier are *not* changed in the accusative and are exactly the same as the nominative:

eine Schokolade Ich möchte **eine Schokolade.** I would like a hot chocolate.

das Kind Ich sehe **das Kind.** I see the child.

die Gäste Ich höre **die Gäste nebenan.** I hear the guests next door.

- For more information on prepositions see Unit 24.
- For more information on pronouns see Unit 15.
- For accusative endings in adjectives see Unit 25.

Exercise 12.1

You have moved house and still need a lot of things. Make sentences beginning with **Ich brauche** and use the correct endings in the accusative case.

Examples: die Tasche → Ich brauche eine Tasche.
der Computer → Ich brauche einen Computer.
das Kochbuch → Ich brauche ein Kochbuch.

- 1 die Lampe → _____
- 2 die Waschmaschine → _____
- 3 der CD-Spieler → _____
- 4 der Videorekorder → _____
- 5 das Handy → _____
- 6 das Sofa → _____
- 7 der Kühlschrank → _____
- 8 der Küchentisch → _____
- 9 das Bücherregal → _____
- 10 die Blumenvase → _____
- 11 der Teppich → _____
- 12 die Mikrowelle → _____

What else do you need? For further practice make a list of things that you might also need. Check the vocabulary and gender in your dictionary.

Exercise 12.2

Fill in the correct endings after prepositions taking the accusative case.

Example: Carla ist für d__ Entscheidung. (*f*) → Carla ist für *die* Entscheidung.

- 1 Das Buch ist für ein __ Freund.
- 2 Die CD ist für ein __ Freundin.
- 3 Die Turnschuhe sind für mein __ Schwester.
- 4 Die Socken sind für mein __ Vater.
- 5 Die Lego-Steine sind für d __ Kind.
- 6 Er ist gegen d __ Idee. (*f*)
- 7 Ohne d __ Hund möchte er nicht in Urlaub fahren. (*m*)
- 8 Er möchte um d __ ganze Welt fahren. (*f*)

Exercise 12.3

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 I'll have a coffee and a tea.
- 2 I'll have a bottle of beer.

- 3 She eats a sausage.
- 4 The man buys the computer.
- 5 The woman buys the video recorder.
- 6 The child reads the book.
- 7 The book is for my sister.
- 8 The CD is for my brother.
- 9 We walk through the park.
- 10 I am in favour of the idea. ('in favour of' = *für*)

Checklist	✓
1 When do you use the accusative case?	
2 Do modifier endings have to change for all nouns in the accusative case?	
3 How do you find out in the dictionary whether a verb takes the accusative case?	
4 Can you name some verbs and prepositions which require the accusative case?	

UNIT THIRTEEN

The dative case

What is the dative case?

The dative case is mainly used for the indirect object, i.e., a person or thing to whom or to which something is done:

Der Lehrer gibt *der Frau* ein Buch. The teacher gives *the woman* a book.

Changes in the dative case

In the dative case, the modifier (for example, the definite article, e.g. **der**, or the indefinite article, e.g. **ein**), changes. This applies to all genders: masculine, feminine and neuter.

In the plural, you also need to add **-en** or **-n**.

Endings in the dative case

Here is an overview of the dative forms for most common modifiers:

<i>modifier</i>	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
	der Mann	die Frau	das Kind	die Gäste
<i>definite article</i>	dem Mann	der Frau	dem Kind	den Gästen
<i>indefinite article</i>	einem Mann	einer Frau	einem Kind	– Gästen
<i>negative article</i>	keinem Mann	keiner Frau	keinem Kind	keinen Gästen
<i>possessive</i>	meinem Mann	deiner Frau	seinem Kind	unseren Gästen

Note that

- the masculine and the neuter endings are the same: add **-em**
- for the feminine endings add **-er**
- for the plural add **-en** to the modifier and add **-en** or **-n** to the noun.

Verbs which require the dative case

You use the dative after a few verbs. The most important are:

helfen ‘to help’, **danken** ‘to thank’, **gehören** ‘to belong to’, **folgen** ‘to follow’

Here are some of them in use:

der Mann	Ich folge <i>dem</i> Mann.	I follow the man.
die Mutter	Das Baby gleicht <i>der</i> Mutter.	The baby resembles the mother.
das Kind	Ich danke <i>dem</i> Kind.	I’m thanking the child.
die Gäste	Ich helfe <i>den</i> Gästen.	I help the guests.

Try to learn these verbs by heart.

The dative after prepositions

You have the dative also after some prepositions. They are:

aus	from, out of
außer	apart from
bei	at, near
gegenüber	opposite
mit	with, by (for means of transport)
nach	after, to
seit	since, for
von	from
zu	to

Here are some of them in use:

Er kommt aus <i>der</i> Türkei.	He’s from Turkey.
Außer <i>den</i> Meiers sind alle da.	Except for the Meiers, everybody is here.
Ich arbeite bei <i>der</i> Firma Meier.	I work for (the company) Meier.
Er wohnt gegenüber <i>der</i> Kirche.	He lives opposite the church.
Ich fahre mit <i>dem</i> Auto.	I’ll go by car.
Nach <i>der</i> Arbeit gehe ich einkaufen.	After work, I’ll go shopping.
Wir fahren zu <i>meiner</i> Freundin.	We’ll go to my girlfriend’s.

More than one dative in a sentence

Because the dative in German can be governed by the verb or by a preposition, it is not uncommon for it to appear more than once in a sentence or clause. Look at the following examples:

Ich helfe dem Jungen mit seinem Mantel.

I help the boy with his coat.

Sie folgen dem Mann und dann der Frau mit ihren Freunden.

They follow the man and then the woman and her friends.

The dative case – the main points

The dative case is mainly used for the *indirect object* in German. But it can also appear after certain *verbs* and after a number of *prepositions*.

All endings for the modifier differ from the nominative:

- masculine and neuter endings are **-em**
- feminine endings are **-er**
- plural endings are **-en** added to the modifier and **-en** or **-n** added to the noun.

- For more information on prepositions see Unit 24.
- For more information on pronouns see Unit 15.
- For dative endings in adjectives see Unit 23.

Exercise 13.1

Presents! Presents! Maria has been on an exchange. On her last day she gives her guest family lots of presents. Write out what she gives to whom following the example.

Example: Großmutter → eine Schachtel Pralinen

Sie gibt der Großmutter eine Schachtel Pralinen.

- 1 Großvater → ein Buch über Churchill
- 2 Mutter → einen Strauß Blumen
- 3 Vater → eine Flasche Wein

- 4 Sohn → eine CD von Fatboy Slim
- 5 Tochter → ein T-Shirt
- 6 Baby → einen Ball

Exercise 13.2

Fill in the correct endings after prepositions and verbs taking the dative case. Remember that some prepositions are contracted with the definite article (e.g. **zum** = **zu dem**).

Example: Wie komme ich z__ Fußballstadion?
→ Wie komme ich *zum* Fußballstadion?

- 1 Er fährt jeden Tag mit d__ Auto.
- 2 Gegenüber d__ Rathaus ist der Stadtpark.
- 3 Sie kommt gerade aus d__ Stadt.
- 4 Das neue Hotel gibt es seit ein__ Jahr.
- 5 Wie komme ich z__ Bahnhof?
- 6 Wo geht es z__ Gedächtniskirche?
- 7 Was machst du nach d__ Arbeit?
- 8 Vor ein__ Woche hat sie geheiratet.
- 9 Sie hilft d__ Frau.
- 10 Das gehört d__ Mann.
- 11 Der Kommissar folgt d__ Leute __.
- 12 Er dankt d__ Mitarbeiter __.

Exercise 13.3

Translate the following sentences.

- 1 She gives the baby a book.
- 2 Paulina gives the child the CD.
- 3 He gives the grandfather a bottle of wine.
- 4 He follows the man.
- 5 The telephone belongs to the driver.
- 6 Peter helps the girl.
- 7 He gives the children a football.

Checklist	✓
1 Which three factors determine the use of the dative case?	
2 Do modifier endings have to change for all nouns in the dative case?	
3 Can you name the dative endings for the most common modifiers?	
4 Are there also endings to the noun itself in the dative case?	

UNIT FOURTEEN

The genitive case

What is the genitive case?

The genitive case is used to indicate possession or ownership: **Das ist die Tasche meines Vaters.** ‘That is *my father’s* bag.’

What’s different in German?

Usage in English and German is very similar. One main difference is the *word order*. Whereas in English the genitive construction comes first, in German it usually follows the noun it refers to. Look at the following examples:

Das ist die Tasche meines Vaters.	That is <i>my father’s</i> bag.
Das ist das Auto meiner Tante.	That is <i>my aunt’s</i> car.
Das ist das Spielzeug meines Babys.	That is <i>my baby’s</i> toy.
Das ist die Meinung der Gäste.	That is <i>the guests’</i> opinion.

Like the accusative and dative case, the genitive also affects the endings of the modifier (for example the indefinite and definite articles).

Endings in the genitive case

Here is an overview of some of the most common endings in the genitive case:

<i>modifier</i>	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>definite</i>	des Mannes	der Frau	des Kindes	der Gäste
<i>indefinite</i>	eines Mannes	einer Frau	eines Kindes	–
<i>possessive</i>	meines Mannes	meiner Frau	meines Kindes	meiner Gäste

- As you can see, the ‘modifiers’ in the genitive end in **-es** for *masculine* and *neuter* nouns and **-er** for *feminine* nouns and the *plural*.
- Masculine and neuter nouns also add **-es** to most short nouns (**der Mann** → **des Mannes**) and usually **-s** to nouns with two syllables or more (**der Computer** → **des Computers**).
- Nouns in the feminine or the plural do not take an ending.

No apostrophe

When an s is added to masculine or neuter nouns, there is no apostrophe in German. The same applies when you refer to a person’s name:

Das ist Peters Buch.

This is Peter’s book.

The genitive case after prepositions

There are also certain prepositions which take the genitive case. The most common are:

trotz despite	während during
wegen because	(an)statt instead of

Examples:

Während seiner Zeit . . .

During his time . . .

Trotz ihres hohen Alters . . .

Despite her old age . . .

It is not very likely that you will use these forms at beginners’ level. However, it is good to be aware of them.

Spoken German

In spoken German the genitive is often regarded as too formal and old-fashioned. A common way to replace it is to use **von** + dative:

Das ist das Auto *meines* Bruders. → **Das ist das Auto *von meinem* Bruder.**

The genitive case – the main points

The genitive expresses a *possessive relationship* between two nouns. The usage in English and German is very similar, but it is important to remember that the endings for modifiers change:

- **-es** for *masculine* and *neuter* nouns and
- **-er** for *feminine* nouns and the *plural*.

Also do not forget to add **-(e)s** to neuter and masculine nouns.

- For more information on prepositions see Unit 24.
- For more information on pronouns see Unit 15.
- For dative endings in adjectives see Unit 25.

Exercise 14.1

Replace the genitive construction by using **von** + dative.

Example: Das ist die neue Freundin *meines* Vaters.
→ Das ist die neue Freundin *von* *meinem* Vater.

- 1 Das ist die Gitarre *meines* Bruders.
- 2 Das ist der Sportwagen *meiner* Frau.
- 3 Das ist das Spielzeug *meines* Kindes.
- 4 Das ist die Frau *meines* Chefs.
- 5 Da vorne steht die Freundin *meines* Sohnes.
- 6 Die Mutter *meines* Freundes ist Zahnärztin.
- 7 Der Manager *meiner* Bank ist nicht sehr freundlich.
- 8 Die Meinung *meiner* Freunde ist mir sehr wichtig.

Exercise 14.2

Fill in the missing endings for the modifiers in the *genitive* case and make the correct changes to the noun, if applicable.

Examples: Wie war der Name dein ____ Freund ____? → Wie war der Name *deines* Freundes?

Das ist das Auto mein ____ Mutter _____. → Das ist das Auto *meiner* Mutter.

- 1 Das ist das Zimmer mein ____ Sohn ____.
- 2 Wie war der Name d ____ Sängerin ____?
- 3 Das Cover d ____ Buch ____ ist sehr attraktiv.
- 4 Der Vorname mein ____ Yoga-Lehrer ____ ist Karl-Günther.
- 5 Das Hobby mein ____ Chefin ____ ist Reisen.
- 6 Der Bildschirm mein ____ neuen Computer ____ ist sehr gut für die Augen.
- 7 Trotz d ____ schlechten Wetter ____ macht er einen Spaziergang.
- 8 Während ihr ____ Mittagspause ____ geht sie meistens ins Restaurant.

Exercise 14.3

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 That is my brother's book.
- 2 That is my sister's car.
- 3 These are the friends of my child.
- 4 This is Paula's bag.
- 5 It was Boris Becker's mistake.

Checklist	✓
1 Which two factors determine the use of the genitive case?	
2 Do modifier endings change for all nouns in the genitive case?	
3 Can you name the endings for the most common modifiers?	
4 Are there also endings to the noun itself in the genitive case?	

UNIT FIFTEEN

Personal pronouns

What are personal pronouns?

A personal pronoun is a word which stands in for a noun, usually for a person or thing:

Sara will bring a quiche. *She* will bring a quiche.

It can also replace a noun group or a whole phrase:

My neighbour's house has been burgled. *It* has been burgled.

Personal pronouns in German

These are the personal pronouns in German:

	<i>singular</i>		<i>plural</i>	
<i>First person</i>	ich	I	wir	we
<i>Second person</i>	du	you (<i>informal</i>)	ihr	you (<i>informal</i>)
	Sie	you (<i>formal</i>)	Sie	you (<i>formal</i>)
<i>Third person</i>	er	he	sie	they
	sie	she		
	es	it		

As you probably already know, German has different modes for addressing people. Use **du/ihr** for friends and children, and the polite **Sie** for people whom you do not know well and who are older than you.

Points to watch out for

Verb endings

The verb endings in German change in accordance with the subject. Here is a short summary of the endings for regular verbs.

ich ___ e	wir ___ en
du ___ st	ihr ___ t
Sie ___ en	Sie ___ en
er/sie/es ___ t	sie ___ en

- For more details of verb endings refer to Units 2–4.

Spelling for 'I' and 'you'

Note that **ich** 'I' in German is spelled with a lower-case i when it is not at the beginning of a sentence. The formal 'you' **Sie** on the other hand always takes an initial capital letter.

Sind Sie nicht Franz Beckenbauer? Aren't you Franz Beckenbauer?

Pronouns in German use the grammatical gender

In German, third-person pronouns are used according to grammatical gender. This is different from English, where the use of the third-person pronouns is based on biological gender: 'he'/'she' for people, and 'it' for things or concepts.

Masculine nouns

Note that masculine nouns are replaced by **er**, regardless of whether they are people, animals or things:

Der Mann ist schön → **Er ist schön.**
Der Hund ist schön. **Er ist schön.**

Feminine nouns

Feminine nouns are replaced by **sie**:

Die Frau ist schön. → **Sie ist schön.**
Die Brille ist schön. **Sie ist schön.**

Neuter nouns

Neuter nouns are replaced by **es**:

Das Kind ist schön. → *Es ist schön.*
Das Sofa ist schön. *Es ist schön.*

Pronouns change according to case

In addition, German is more complicated than English in that the personal pronouns can change when the case changes.

In English, this also happens in some of the pronouns when they are used as objects in the sentence.

I	→	me	The man saw <i>me</i> yesterday.
he		him	I saw <i>him</i> yesterday.
she		her	We saw <i>her</i> yesterday.
we		us	You saw us yesterday.
they		them	You saw <i>them</i> yesterday.

In English, these are the only changes which occur in personal pronouns. All others stay the same regardless of whether you use them as a subject or as an object.

In German, almost all the pronouns change their form. They also have different forms depending on whether you are using them in the accusative or the dative.

For example, if the pronoun replaces a noun (phrase) which functions as the object of the sentence, the pronoun has to be in the appropriate case:

<i>accusative</i>	<i>dative</i>
Wir sehen <i>den Mann</i>.	Wir helfen <i>dem Mann</i>.
Wir sehen <i>ihn</i>.	Wir helfen <i>ihm</i>.

Pronouns in the accusative case

All forms

Here is a list of the pronouns in the accusative case:

ich I	<i>accusative</i>	mich me
du you (<i>informal</i>)		dich you
Sie you (<i>formal</i>)		Sie you

er	he	ihn	him, it
sie	she	sie	she, it
es	it	es	it
wir	we	uns	us
ihr	you (<i>informal</i>)	euch	you
Sie	you (<i>formal</i>)	Sie	you
sie	they	sie	them

Accusative pronouns for the direct object

If the pronoun is the direct object in a sentence, it is in the accusative form:

Ich sehe *den Mann*. → **Ich sehe *ihn*.**
Er kauft *das Auto*. **Er kauft *es*.**

Here are more examples with the pronoun as direct object:

Siehst du mich?	Do you see me?
Ich liebe dich.	I love you.
Magst du sie?	Do you like her?
Den Laptop? Ich habe ihn gekauft.	The laptop? I bought it.
Er besucht uns.	He is going to visit us.
Die CDs. Hast du sie gesehen?	The CDs. Have you seen them?

Accusative pronouns after prepositions

Note that the same happens after certain prepositions such as **durch** ‘through’, **für** ‘for’, **gegen** ‘against’, **ohne** ‘without’ and **um** ‘around’, which all take the accusative case:

Die Blumen sind *für dich*. The flowers are for you.
***Ohne euch* möchte ich nicht fahren.** I wouldn’t like to go without you.

Pronouns in the dative case

Dative pronouns for the indirect object

You need a dative pronoun if the pronoun is the indirect object in a sentence:

Sie zeigt *dem Mann* das Buch. → **Sie zeigt *ihm* das Buch.**

Dative pronouns after prepositions and verbs

A dative pronoun is also required after certain prepositions and verbs:

Ich folge *dem Mann*. → **Ich folge *ihm*.**
Er arbeitet mit Frau Schiffer. **Er arbeitet mit *ihr*.**

Important verbs which require the dative case are: **danken** 'to thank', **helfen** 'to help', **folgen** 'to follow'.

Prepositions which take the dative case are: **außer** 'apart from', **aus** 'from, out of', **bei** 'at, near', **gegenüber** 'opposite', **mit** 'with', **nach** 'after, to', **seit** 'since, for', **von** 'from', **zu** 'to'.

- For more details of prepositions see Unit 24.

All forms

Here is a list of pronouns in the dative case:

		<i>dative</i>	
ich	I	mir	me
du	you (<i>informal</i>)	dir	you
Sie	you (<i>formal</i>)	Ihnen	you
er	he	ihm	him, it
sie	she	ihr	she, it
es	it	ihm	it
wir	we	uns	us
ihr	you (<i>informal</i>)	euch	you
Sie	you (<i>formal</i>)	Ihnen	you
sie	they	ihnen	them

Note that **uns** and **euch** are the same as in the accusative case.

Examples:

Gib mir die Flasche Wein, bitte.	Give me the bottle of wine, please.
Gehört das Handy dir?	Is this your mobile?
Ich kann nicht mit ihm zusammen arbeiten.	I can't work with him.
Ich danke Ihnen.	I'd like to thank you.

Phrases using dative pronouns

There are also a number of frequently used expressions which require the dative case and often a dative pronoun:

Wie geht es dir/Ihnen/euch?	How are you?
Es geht mir gut.	I am well.
Es tut mir Leid.	I am sorry.
Meine Nase/Mein Kopf tut mir weh.	My nose/My head hurts.
Mir ist kalt/warm.	I am cold/warm.

Learning tip

And finally – don't feel overwhelmed by the sheer number of different pronouns in German. As a beginner you will mostly use the nominative form (**ich, du, er, sie, es** etc.) and some common phrases (**Wie geht es dir?** etc.).

The more exposure you have to the language, the more you will get used to the different forms and the more confident you will feel about dealing with them.

Exercise 15.1

Replace the subject of each sentence with a pronoun.

Example: *Carla* hat eine Schwester. → **Sie** hat eine Schwester.

- 1 *Oliver* kommt aus Bremen.
- 2 *Angela* hat einen neuen Freund.
- 3 *Die Kinder* spielen im Park Fußball.
- 4 *Das Auto* ist neu.
- 5 *Die Blumen* waren teuer.
- 6 *Die Pizza* kostet 7.50 Euro.
- 7 *Das Buch* ist wirklich interessant.
- 8 *Die Mannschaft* hat einen schlechten Tag.
- 9 *Das Kind* heißt Emil.
- 10 *Mein Onkel* ist Ingenieur von Beruf.

Exercise 15.2

Answer each of the following questions with 'yes', using the appropriate accusative pronoun in your response.

Example: Kaufst du *das Radio*? → Ja, ich kaufe *es*.

- 1 Kaufst du das Buch?
- 2 Kennst du den Mann?
- 3 Kennst du die Schauspielerin?
- 4 Hast du das Geld?
- 5 Trinkst du den Kaffee?
- 6 Möchtest du die Pralinen?
- 7 Magst du die Leute?
- 8 Besuchst du mich?
- 9 Besuchst du uns?
- 10 Liebst du mich?

Exercise 15.3

Supply the correct dative pronoun from the list below. The first one has been done for you.

ihnen ihnen dir ~~ih~~ ihm uns mir euch mir Ihnen

- 1 Schenkst du Gaby etwas? – Ja, ich schenke *ihr* Blumen.
- 2 Gefällt dir die Party? – Nein, die Party gefällt ____ überhaupt nicht.
- 3 Kaufst du Matthias eine CD? – Nein, ich kaufe ____ eine Badehose.
- 4 Hilfst du den Kindern? – Ja, ich helfe ____.
- 5 Schreibst du mir? – Ja, ich schreibe ____.
- 6 Schreiben Sie mir? – Ja, ich schreibe ____.
- 7 Gehört das Ihnen? – Ja, es gehört ____.
- 8 Was bringst du denn Anna und Peter mit? – Ich kaufe ____ eine Flasche Wein.
- 9 Soll ich euch die Wohnung zeigen? – Ja, zeig sie ____, bitte.
- 10 Schreibst du uns aus dem Urlaub? – Ja, ich schicke ____ eine Postkarte.

Exercise 15.4

Translate the following sentences. Use the **du** and **Sie** forms for ‘you’.

- 1 Call me.
- 2 The flowers are for you.
- 3 Are you going to visit us?
- 4 How are you?
- 5 I am fine.
- 6 Can you help me?
- 7 I am sorry.

Checklist	✓
1 Do you know all the personal pronouns in the accusative case?	
2 Do you know all the personal pronouns in the dative case?	
3 What is meant by grammatical gender? Why is it important for personal pronouns?	
4 How do you decide whether to use a personal pronoun in the dative or the accusative case?	

UNIT SIXTEEN

Possessive adjectives

What are possessive adjectives?

Possessives are words such as ‘my’, ‘your’, ‘his’, ‘her’ which indicate that something belongs to somebody.

Usage in English and German

Possessives are used in a similar way in English and in German. If something belongs to a male person, use the male pronoun ‘his’ to indicate that it belongs to him. If something belongs to a female or to more than one person, you choose the female pronoun ‘her’ or a plural pronoun such as ‘our’ or ‘their’.

<i>sein</i> Haus	his house
<i>ihr</i> Auto	her car
<i>unsere</i> Tochter	our daughter

The possessive adjectives in German

Here is an overview of the possessive adjectives:

ich	I	→	mein	my
du	you (<i>informal</i>)		dein	your
Sie	you (<i>formal</i>)		Ihr	your
er	he		sein	his
sie	she		ihr	her
es	it		sein	his
wir	we		unser	our
ihr	you (<i>informal</i>)		euer	your

Sie you (*formal*)
sie they

Ihr your
ihr their

Possessive adjectives require endings

In German, the endings of possessive adjectives must agree in gender, number and case with the noun that they are linked to. However, this is not as complicated as it sounds. The endings follow the pattern of the indefinite article **ein**, with some variations in the plural.

Possessive adjective endings in the nominative case

In the nominative case, there are no possessive adjectival endings before masculine and neuter nouns. If the noun is feminine or plural, **-e** is added to the possessive:

Das ist mein Bruder.	This is my brother.
Das ist meine Mutter.	This is my mother.
Das ist mein Auto.	This is my car.
Meine Geschwister wohnen in Berlin.	My brothers and sisters live in Berlin.

Possessive adjective endings in the accusative case

You probably remember the main change in the accusative case, where the indefinite article for masculine nouns changes from **ein** to **einen**. The possessive follows exactly the same pattern and adds **-en** when it appears before a masculine noun. The feminine and plural forms take an extra **-e**.

Sie trifft ihren Bruder.	She meets her brother.
Sie trifft ihre Schwester.	She meets her sister.
Sie sieht ihr Kind.	She sees her child.
Sie trifft ihre Freunde.	She meets her friends.

Possessive adjective endings in the dative case

In the dative case, the possessive takes the endings **-em** when referring to masculine and neuter nouns and **-er** if the noun is feminine. In the plural add **-en**:

Er spricht mit seinem Bruder.	He talks to his brother.
Er spricht mit seiner Schwester.	He talks to his sister.

Er spricht mit seinem Kind.	He talks to his child.
Er spricht mit seinen Eltern.	He talks to his parents.

Possessive adjective endings in the genitive case

At beginners' level you are unlikely to use possessives in the genitive case, but you may encounter them in a written text or a recording. They have **-es** endings for masculine and neuter, and **-er** for feminine nouns and the plural.

Das ist der Freund unseres Sohnes.	This is the friend of our son.
Das ist der Freund unserer Tochter.	This is the friend of our daughter.
Das ist der Freund unseres Kindes.	This is the friend of our child.
Die Freunde unserer Kinder sind sehr nett.	The friends of our children are very nice.

Spelling variation for *euer*

Note that **euer** ('your', informal plural) is spelled slightly differently when used in connection with a feminine noun or the plural:

Ist das eure Mutter?	Is it your mother?
Sind das eure Eltern?	Are these your parents?

Summary of possessive endings

Here is an overview of the endings for the possessive pronouns:

	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>nominative</i>	mein Mann	meine Frau	mein Baby	meine Kinder
<i>accusative</i>	meinen Mann	meine Frau	mein Baby	meine Kinder
<i>dative</i>	meinem Mann	meiner Frau	meinem Baby	meinen Kindern
<i>genitive</i>	meines Mannes	meiner Frau	meines Babys	meiner Kinder

- For more information on how cases work and on endings for the accusative, dative and genitive cases see Units 10–14.

Exercise 16.1

Match up the English possessives with their German equivalents from the list. The first one has been done for you.

sein ihr Ihr euer dein unser sein ~~mein~~ Ihr ihr

my	mein	our	_____
your	_____	your	_____
(singular, informal)		(plural, informal)	
your	_____	your	_____
(singular, formal)		(plural, formal)	
his	_____		
her	_____	their	_____
its	_____		

Exercise 16.2

Fill in the missing endings in the nominative case. In some cases no endings are needed.

Example: Wie ist Ihr _____ Adresse? – Mein _____ Adresse ist Falkenweg 12.
 → Wie ist Ihre Adresse? – Meine Adresse ist Falkenweg 12.

- Wie ist dein _____ Name? – Mein _____ Name ist Frank Auerbach.
- Wie ist dein _____ Telefonnummer? – Mein _____ Telefonnummer ist 863001.
- Ist das sein _____ Auto? – Nein, das ist ihr _____ Auto.
- Was sind Ihr _____ Hobbys? – Mein _____ Hobbys sind Wandern und Skifahren.
- Was sind eu _____ Namen? Unser _____ Namen sind Svenja und Boris.

Exercise 16.3

Write sentences describing what these people are looking for, following the examples. Use the accusative case.

Examples: Claudia → Tasche (*f*) → Claudia sucht **ihre** Tasche.
 Matthias → Führerschein (*m*) → Matthias sucht **seinen** Führerschein.

- Thomas → Brille (*f*) _____ .
- Britta → Geld (*nt*) _____ .
- Maria → Kreditkarte (*f*) _____ .
- Manfred → Schal (*m*) _____ .

- 5 Klaus → Schuhe (*pl*) _____ .
 6 Peter → Papiere (*pl*) _____ .
 7 Paula und Pia → CDs (*pl*) _____ .

Exercise 16.4

Translate the following sentences.

- 1 This is my father.
- 2 This is my mother.
- 3 Jörg is looking for his credit card.
- 4 Susanne is looking for her driving licence.
- 5 We meet our friends.
- 6 Sebastian talks to his mother.
- 7 Arianne talks to her brother.
- 8 The children talk to their grandparents.

Checklist	✓
1 Do you know all the possessive pronouns in German?	
2 What do the endings of the possessive pronouns have to agree with?	
3 Which possessive pronoun changes its spelling when it is used with feminine nouns or in the plural?	

UNIT SEVENTEEN

Reflexive verbs

What are reflexive verbs?

Reflexive verbs refer to an action that a person is doing to himself or herself. Examples in English are: 'I wash myself.' 'He buys himself a new computer.'

Frequency of use

Reflexive verbs are more frequent in German than in English. They often refer to daily activities, so they are very useful when you want to talk, for instance, about your daily routine.

Important reflexive verbs

Here are some frequently used reflexive verbs in German:

sich amüsieren	to enjoy oneself
sich anziehen	to get dressed
sich ausziehen	to get undressed
sich beeilen	to hurry
sich duschen	to shower oneself/to have a shower
sich entscheiden	to decide
sich entschuldigen	to apologise
sich kämmen	to comb one's hair
sich rasieren	to shave
sich schminken	to put make-up on
sich treffen	to meet
sich umziehen	to change
sich waschen	to wash oneself/to have a wash

Reflexive pronouns

A reflexive verb is always accompanied by a so-called *reflexive pronoun*, a word such as ‘myself’, ‘yourself’, ‘himself’. Most reflexive verbs simply take the *accusative* pronouns: **mich, dich, sich, uns, euch** and **sich**. Here is how they go with **sich waschen** ‘to have a wash’:

Ich wasche mich.	Wir waschen uns.
Du wäschst dich.	Ihr wascht euch.
Sie waschen sich.	Sie waschen sich.
Er/sie/es wäscht sich.	Sie waschen sich.

Here are more examples of reflexive verbs in use:

Ich beeile mich.	I hurry (up).
Du duschst dich jeden Tag.	You have a shower every day.
Er rasiert sich.	He shaves (himself).
Wir treffen uns mit Steffi und Boris.	We meet Steffi and Boris.
Amüsieren Sie sich?	Are you enjoying yourself?

When to use a dative pronoun

Reflexive verbs normally take the accusative pronoun. A change occurs only when you want to specify, for instance, what clothes you are putting on or what part of the body you are cleaning. Then the new item becomes the direct object of the sentence, and the reflexive pronoun – as the indirect object – takes the dative form:

Ich ziehe mich an.	→ Ich ziehe <i>mir</i> eine Jacke an.	I put on a jacket.
Ich wasche mich.	Ich wasche <i>mir</i> die Haare.	I wash my hair.
Kämmst du dich?	Kämmst du <i>dir</i> die Haare?	Are you combing your hair?

This looks more complicated than it actually is. In practice this affects only the **ich** and **du** forms, as the accusative and dative pronouns are otherwise identical.

Here is an overview of all dative pronouns:

Ich wasche *mir* die Haare.
 Du wäschst *dir* die Haare.
 Sie waschen *sich* die Haare.
 Er/sie/es wäscht *sich* die Haare.

Wir waschen *uns* die Haare.
 Ihr wascht *euch* die Haare.
 Sie waschen *sich* die Haare.
 Sie waschen *sich* die Haare.

Separable verbs

When a reflexive verb is separable, the pronoun tends to follow the finite verb and the prefix goes to the end of the sentence or clause:

anziehen	→	Sie zieht sich <i>an</i>.	She gets dressed.
umziehen	→	Sie ziehen sich in der Umkleidekabine <i>um</i>.	They get changed in the dressing room.

More useful expressions

Note the following commonly used expressions involving reflexive verbs:

sich das Gesicht waschen	to wash one's face
sich die Hände waschen	to wash one's hands
sich die Zähne putzen	to brush one's teeth
sich die Nase putzen	to blow one's nose
Wasch dir die Hände!	Wash your hands.
Ich putze mir die Zähne.	I brush my teeth.
Er putzt sich die Nase.	He blows his nose.

- For pronouns see Unit 15.
- For the accusative case see Unit 12; for the dative case see Unit 13.

Exercise 17.1

Which of these verbs are reflexive? Put a tick in the relevant box. The first one has been done for you.

amüsieren	✓	beeilen		entscheiden		spielen	
anziehen		bezahlen		entschuldigen		tanzen	
ausgehen		duschen		fahren		treffen	
ausziehen		denken		kämmen		waschen	

Exercise 17.2

Make complete sentences using the information given.

Example: er/sich entscheiden/für den Plan → Er entscheidet sich für den Plan.

- 1 ich/sich amüsieren/heute Abend
- 2 er/sich entschuldigen/bei seiner Freundin
- 3 das Kind/sich kämmen/nicht gern
- 4 der Clown/sich schminken/vor dem Auftritt
- 5 ich/sich umziehen
- 6 sie/sich anziehen/ihr neues Kleid
- 7 die Kinder/sich waschen
- 8 die Fußballspieler/sich duschen/nach dem Spiel
- 9 wir/sich beeilen
- 10 wir/sich treffen/um acht Uhr

Exercise 17.3

Supply the reflexive pronoun in the dative.

Example: Er putzt ____ die Nase. → Er putzt **sich** die Nase.

- 1 Ich wasche ____ die Hände.
- 2 Putzt du ____ heute nicht die Zähne?
- 3 Zieh ____ etwas Warmes an. Es ist kalt.
- 4 Ich wasche ____ das Gesicht nur mit Wasser.

Exercise 17.4

My morning routine. Translate the following sentences:

- 1 I have a shower.
- 2 I brush my teeth.
- 3 I get dressed.
- 4 I comb my hair.
- 5 I put on a jacket.
- 6 I hurry up.

Checklist	✓
1 What are reflexive verbs always accompanied by?	
2 What do many commonly used reflexive verbs refer to?	
3 Which case do most reflexive pronouns usually take?	
4 What happens to the reflexive pronoun when you add information on what it is that you are washing or putting on?	

UNIT EIGHTEEN

Negatives

Negative statements

There are different ways to make a negative statement, depending on whether you are dealing with an adjective, a verb or a noun.

Negatives in English

In English, you normally use 'not' with adjectives and verbs, and verbs usually also need a form of 'to do':

The house is not very nice.
They don't (do not) drink coffee.

Nouns are less straightforward; negation can take various forms, such as 'no', 'do + not', 'not' or 'not any':

There are *no* sausages left.
He *doesn't have* children.
I *haven't got* *any* money.

Negatives in German

German has two main words to make a sentence negative: **nicht** and **kein**.

- **Nicht** is normally used in connection with *adjectives* and *verbs*:

Das Wetter ist gut.	→	Das Wetter ist <i>nicht</i> gut.
The weather is fine.		The weather is not good.
Ich trinke.	→	Ich trinke <i>nicht</i>.
I drink.		I don't drink.

- **Kein** is normally linked to nouns:

Ich habe ein Auto. → **Ich habe kein Auto.**
I've got a car. I haven't got a car.

Here are the forms in more detail.

Nicht in detail

Use **nicht** for adjectives and verbs

Nicht corresponds to the English 'not'. It is used in connection with an adjective or a verb:

Nicht + adjective

Die CD ist nicht teuer. The CD is not expensive.
Das Haus ist nicht sehr schön. The house is not very beautiful.

Nicht + verb

Sie kommt nicht. She isn't coming.
Ich rauche nicht mehr. I don't smoke any more.

Position of **nicht**

For a beginner the placing of **nicht** may be confusing. The following guidelines may help you develop a feeling for it.

- In the present tense **nicht** usually follows the finite verb:

Sie kommt nicht.
Er geht nicht gern ins Kino.

- It may be preceded by an expression of time:

Sie kommt heute nicht.

- In the present perfect tense formed with **haben**, **nicht** stands in front of the past participle:

Ich habe das Buch nicht gekauft.

Kein in detail

Kein used for nouns

The other important word in German to make a sentence negative is **kein**, which is normally linked to a noun:

Kein Problem.	No problem.
Das ist keine Antwort	This is not an answer.
Ich habe keine Zeit.	I do not have any time.

To negate a noun in German you need only to use **kein**, which corresponds to 'no', 'not a(n)', 'not any' or 'do not have'/'haven't got' in English.

Endings for **kein**

Kein behaves exactly like the indefinite article (**ein, eine, ein**). It must agree in gender (*masculine, feminine, neuter*), number (*singular, plural*) and case (*nominative, accusative, dative, genitive*) with the noun:

Er hat keinen Bruder. (<i>accusative, masculine</i>)
Sie hat keine Schwester. (<i>accusative, feminine</i>)
Er hat kein Kind. (<i>accusative, neuter</i>)
Sie hat keine Geschwister. (<i>accusative plural</i>)

Here is an overview of all endings for **kein**:

	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>nominative</i>	kein Mann	keine Frau	kein Baby	keine Kinder
<i>accusative</i>	keinen Mann	keine Frau	kein Baby	keine Kinder
<i>dative</i>	keinem Mann	keiner Frau	keinem Baby	keinen Kindern
<i>genitive</i>	keines Mannes	keiner Frau	keines Babys	keiner Kindern

As you can see, they are identical with the endings for **ein** – except for the plural, where they follow the endings for the possessive, for instance **mein**.

Phrases where **nicht** or **kein** can be used

With some phrases you can use either **nicht** or **kein**. They include:

Ich spreche nicht/kein Deutsch.	I don't speak German.
Er ist nicht/kein Ingenieur.	He isn't an engineer.
Ich fahre nicht/kein Auto.	I don't drive.

Exercise 18.1

Change the sentences below into the negative using **nicht**. Make sure you put it in in the right place.

Example: Peter arbeitet gern. → Peter arbeitet **nicht** gern.

- 1 Marco raucht.
- 2 Er tanzt gern.
- 3 Nadine geht gern ins Kino.
- 4 Monica kommt aus Österreich.
- 5 Sie trinkt viel Weizenbier.
- 6 Sie glaubt an Gott.
- 7 Oskar ist charmant.
- 8 Der Film ist interessant.
- 9 Das Wetter in England ist gut.
- 10 Das Auto fährt schnell.
- 11 Der Urlaub war billig.
- 12 Viel Kaffee ist gesund.
- 13 Er fährt mit seinem Auto.
- 14 Linz liegt in der Schweiz.
- 15 Frankfurt war die Hauptstadt von Deutschland.

Exercise 18.2

Give a negative response to all questions by using the correct form of **kein**.

Example: Ist das ein Porsche? → Nein, das ist **kein** Porsche.

- 1 Ist das ein Park?
- 2 Ist das eine Kneipe?
- 3 Hat Jörg ein Auto?
- 4 Möchtest du einen Kaffee?
- 5 Nimmst du einen Nachtschisch?
- 6 Hat Conrad eine Schwester?
- 7 Hat Familie Schmidt ein neues Haus?
- 8 Hat das Hotel einen Swimmingpool?
- 9 Brauchst du eine neue Kamera?
- 10 Hat Freiburg eine U-Bahn?
- 11 Haben Sie Geschwister?
- 12 Möchten Sie Kartoffeln?
- 13 Ist das eine gute Idee?

- 14 Hast du Zeit?
15 Haben Sie Geld?

Exercise 18.3

Translate the following sentences.

- 1 Luke doesn't drink.
- 2 The town is not beautiful.
- 3 The computer is not cheap.
- 4 This is not far.
- 5 Paul doesn't have a bike.
- 6 They don't have a car.
- 7 He hasn't got any time.
- 8 Arnd doesn't have any money.
- 9 This is not a good idea.
- 10 I don't speak French.

Checklist	✓
1 When do you use nicht ?	
2 When do you use kein ?	
3 How does kein have to agree with the noun?	
4 Can you remember some phrases where you can use either nicht or kein ?	

UNIT NINETEEN

Comparison of adjectives and adverbs

Comparative and superlative

When you compare things, you can state that some are smaller, bigger, cheaper, more expensive etc. (*comparative*) or that one is the smallest, the biggest etc. (*superlative*).

Usage in English

In English the comparative is formed by adding ‘-er’ to short adjectives or by using the word ‘more’:

This laptop is *cheaper*.
London is much *more* interesting than Paris.

To form the superlative you either add ‘-est’ or use the word ‘most’:

This Laptop is the *cheapest*.
London is the *most* interesting city.

Formation in German

For once German is more straightforward than English. Regardless of how long the adjective is, the *comparative* is formed by adding **-er** to the basic form:

billig → **Dieser Laptop ist billiger**.
interessant → **London ist viel interessanter als Paris**.

The same principle applies to the *superlative*. When the adjective comes after the noun you simply add **-sten** and use the word **am**.

billig → **Dieser Laptop ist *am* billigsten.**

Here are all forms in more detail.

The comparative adjective in more detail

Adding **-er**

Most adjectives simply add **-er** in the comparative:

klein	small	→	kleiner	smaller
schnell	fast		schneller	faster
hässlich	ugly		hässlicher	uglier
langweilig	boring		langweiliger	more boring

Adding *umlaut* + **-er**

Most monosyllabic adjectives with stem vowels **a**, **o** or **u** also add an umlaut. Here are some frequently used words:

alt	old	→	älter	older
arm	poor		ärmer	poorer
jung	young		jünger	younger
groß	big, tall		größer	bigger, taller
kalt	cold		kälter	colder
lang	long		länger	longer
stark	strong		stärker	stronger
warm	warm		wärmer	warmer

Short adjectives which do not take an umlaut include: **flach** ‘flat’ → **flacher** ‘flatter’ and **rund** ‘round’ → **runder** ‘rounder’.

Irregular forms

Most adjectives follow a regular pattern. There are only a few exceptions. The most important are:

gut	good	→	besser	better
viel	a lot		mehr	more

Note also the spelling variations for:

hoch	‘high’	→	höher	‘higher’
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To make them easier to pronounce, adjectives ending in **-er** and **-el** drop the **e** in the comparative:

teuer	expensive	→	teurer	more expensive
dunkel	dark		dunkler	darker

How to say 'than'

The German equivalent of *than* is **als**:

Berlin ist größer als München.	<i>Berlin is bigger than Munich.</i>
Der Rhein ist länger als die Themse.	<i>The Rhine is longer than the Thames.</i>

The superlative adjective in more detail

Adding **-sten**

The superlative is formed by adding **-sten** to the adjective. In addition, it is preceded by the word **am**.

klein	small	→	am kleinsten	smallest
schnell	fast		am schnellsten	fastest
hässlich	ugly		am hässlichsten	ugliest
langweilig	boring		am langweiligsten	most boring

Adding umlaut + **-sten**

As in the comparative form, most monosyllabic adjectives with stem vowels **a**, **o**, **u** add an umlaut. Here are some notable examples:

jung	young	→	am jüngsten	youngest
groß	big, tall		am größten	biggest, tallest
lang	long		am längsten	longest
warm	warm		am wärmsten	warmest

Irregular forms

Adjectives which do not follow a regular pattern include:

gut	good	→	am besten	best
viel	a lot		am meisten	most

Note that the superlative for **hoch** 'high' is regular:

am höchsten	highest
--------------------	---------

Adjectives ending in **-er** and **-el** which drop the **e** in the comparative ‘retake’ it in the superlative:

teuer	expensive	→	am teuersten	most expensive
dunkel	dark		am dunkelsten	darkest

Adjectives ending in **-d**, **-t**, **-s**, **-z**

To make pronunciation easier, adjectives ending in **-d**, **-t**, **-s**, **-z** in the basic form of the superlative usually add an extra **e** before **-sten**:

kalt	cold	→	am kältesten	coldest
kurz	short		am kürzesten	shortest

Comparative and superlative of adverbs

Adverbs are used with verbs

While adjectives provide more information about nouns, adverbs describe activity by giving additional information about verbs:

<i>adjective</i>	<i>adverb</i>
Er ist schön.	Sie tanzt sehr schön.
He is beautiful.	She dances beautifully.

Adverbs in German

In English, adverbs often have a different form from adjectives – in most cases you add ‘-ly’ (‘beautiful’ → ‘beautifully’). In German, most adverbs have the same form as adjectives.

Using adverbs in the comparative and superlative

The comparative and superlative of adverbs therefore works in exactly the same way and follows all the rules described above for adjectives. Here are some examples of adverbs in use:

Meine Tante fährt langsam.	→	Mein Onkel fährt langsamer.	→	Mein Vater fährt am langsamsten.
My aunt drives slowly.		My uncle drives more slowly.		My father drives most slowly.
Karl singt schlecht.	→	Thomas singt schlechter.	→	Bernd singt am schlechtesten.
Karl sings badly.		Thomas sings worse.		Bernd sings the worst.

Bernd liest *viel*. → **Frauke liest *mehr*.** → **Jörg liest *am meisten*.**
 Bernd reads a lot. Frauke reads more. Jörg reads the most.

Using *gern*

To express what you prefer doing and what you like best of all, it is important to know the comparative and superlative form of the adverb **gern**, which is quite irregular:

Ich trinke *gern* Wasser. → **Ich trinke *lieber* Kaffee.** → **Ich trinke *am liebsten* Bier.**
 I like drinking water. I prefer drinking coffee. I like drinking beer best of all.

Using comparatives and superlatives before nouns

The examples in this Unit relate to comparative and superlative forms following nouns. These forms may change endings when they appear before a noun. See Unit 25.

Exercise 19.1

Fill in the missing forms of the adjectives or adverbs below. The first one has been done for you.

klein	<i>comparative</i> kleiner langweiliger	<i>superlative</i> am kleinsten
alt		
groß		am höchsten
gut		
gern	mehr	

Exercise 19.2

Put these adjectives in the comparative and superlative, following the example.

Example: warm → im Frühling / im Herbst / im Sommer
 → Im Frühling ist es warm. Im Herbst ist es wärmer. Aber im Sommer ist es am wärmsten.

- 1 lang → die Donau / die Elbe / der Rhein
- 2 groß → München / Hamburg / Berlin
- 3 laut → Jazz / Rock / Techno
- 4 alt → Carsten / Theo / Franz
- 5 flach → Nordrhein-Westfalen / Niedersachsen / Schleswig-Holstein
- 6 weit → Großbritannien / Nigeria / Australien
- 7 teuer → das Buch / die CD / das Parfum
- 8 hoch → der Brocken / der Watzmann / die Zugspitze (these are all mountains)
- 9 gut → Wandern / Joggen / Faulenzen
- 10 kompliziert → Portugiesisch / Ungarisch / Chinesisch
- 11 langweilig → Peter / Michael / Bernd
- 12 interessant → London / Paris / New York

Exercise 19.3

Make comparisons by following the example.

Example: Pavarotti singt gut. – Carreras / Placido Domingo
 → Pavarotti singt gut. Carreras singt besser, aber Placido Domingo singt am besten.

- 1 Ich trinke gern Tee. – Kaffee / Wein
- 2 Salat schmeckt gut. – Pasta / Pizza
- 3 Der Ford fährt schnell. – der BMW / der Ferrari
- 4 Clara spricht klar. – Gerd / Anna
- 5 Susanne treibt viel Sport. – Nele / Anke

Exercise 19.4

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 London is bigger than Paris.
- 2 The Rhine is longer than the Danube.
- 3 Jens is older than Susan.
- 4 Boris is more intelligent than Claus.
- 5 Gabriella is most intelligent.
- 6 The aeroplane is more expensive than the train.

- 7 Ralf drives more slowly than Michael.
8 The book is better than the film.

Checklist	✓
1 How is the comparative formed?	
2 How is the superlative formed?	
3 Is there a special form for the comparative or superlative of long adjectives or adverbs?	
4 When is there often a change in the stem of the adjective or adverb?	
5 What changes are introduced to make pronunciation easier?	

UNIT TWENTY

Modal verbs

What are modal verbs?

Modals are verbs which express a certain ‘mood’ in a sentence; for example you *can* do something, *should* do something or *must* do something.

Modal verbs in English

In English, modal verbs are generally used together with a main verb in the infinitive: ‘If you are free, you *can come* with us.’

The six modal verbs in German

There are many similarities between the modals in English and German. These are the six modals in German:

dürfen	may/to be allowed to
können	can/to be able to
müssen	must/to have to
sollen	to be supposed to, should, ought to
wollen	to want
mögen	to like

All modal verbs are quite irregular and often have a stem vowel change in the present tense.

Modal verbs in detail

Dürfen – may/to be allowed to

The modal **dürfen** is used to express permission:

Sie dürfen hier rauchen.

You are allowed to smoke here.

When used in a question it adds a sense of politeness and corresponds to the English 'may'.

Darf ich Ihnen helfen?

May I help you?

It is highly irregular and has a vowel change in the **ich**, **du** and **er/sie/es** forms. Note that **ich** and **er/sie/es** also do not have the **-e** and **-t** endings:

ich darf**wir dürfen****du darfst****ihr dürft****Sie dürfen****Sie dürfen****er/sie/es darf****sie dürfen**

When used with **nicht**, **dürfen** conveys the meaning of something one *must not* do:

Sie dürfen hier nicht rauchen.

You must not smoke here.

Man darf hier nicht fotografieren.

One is not allowed to take photographs here.

Können – can/to be able to

The modal **können** means 'can' or 'to be able to':

Kannst du mir helfen?

Can you help me?

Er kann sehr gut Salsa tanzen.

He can dance Salsa very well.

Können follows a similar pattern to **dürfen**: there is a vowel change in the **ich**, **du** and **er/sie/es** forms, and **ich** and **er/sie/es** do not have their usual endings:

ich kann**wir können****du kannst****ihr könnt****Sie können****Sie können****er/sie/es kann****sie können****Müssen** – must/to have to

The closest equivalent of the modal verb **müssen** in English is 'must' or 'to have to':

Ich muss jetzt gehen.

I must/have to go now.

Er muss am Wochenende arbeiten.

He must/has to work at the weekend.

When used with the negative **nicht**, **müssen** does not convey the meaning of prohibition as in English, but means ‘don’t have to’:

Du <i>musst nicht</i> rauchen.	You don’t have to smoke.
Du <i>musst nicht</i> gehen.	You don’t have to go.

To say ‘you must not’, use **dürfen** + **nicht**:

Du <i>darfst nicht</i> rauchen.	You must not smoke.
--	---------------------

Note also that **müssen** drops its umlaut for the **ich**, **du** and **er/sie/es** forms. Also, **ich** and **er/sie/es** do not have their usual endings:

ich muss	wir müssen
du musst	ihr müsst
Sie müssen	Sie müssen
er/sie/es muss	sie müssen

Sollen – *to be supposed to, should, ought to*

The modal **sollen** means ‘to be supposed to’ or ‘should’:

Sie <i>sollen</i> mehr Sport treiben.	You should do more sport.
Was <i>soll</i> das bedeuten?	What is this supposed to mean?

There are no vowel changes for **sollen**, but the **ich** and **er/sie/es** forms drop their endings:

ich soll	wir sollen
du sollst	ihr sollt
Sie sollen	Sie sollen
er/sie/es soll	sie sollen

Wollen – *want*

The modal **wollen** usually expresses an intention or desire and corresponds to the English ‘to want to’:

Ich <i>will</i> nach New York fliegen.	I want to fly to New York.
Sie <i>will</i> ein Eis essen.	She wants to eat an ice cream.

It has a vowel change in the **ich**, **du** and **er/sie/es** forms and no endings for **ich** and **er/sie/es**:

ich will
du willst
Sie wollen
er/sie/es will

wir wollen
ihr wollt
Sie wollen
sie wollen

Note that **wollen** cannot be used in the sense of the English verb ‘will’ to form the future tense. This requires another verb in German: **werden**. ‘She will go to Germany’ would be **Sie *wird* nach Deutschland fahren**.

mögen/möchten – to like/would like

The modal **mögen** means ‘to like (to)’ and is often used with reference to people, food or places and activities:

Ich mag Barbra Streisand.
Sie mögen Paris.
Sie mag Tennis.

I like Barbra Streisand.
They like Paris.
She likes Tennis.

Its present tense forms are:

ich mag
du magst
Sie mögen
er/sie/es mag

wir mögen
ihr mögt
Sie mögen
sie mögen

But it is most often used in its subjunctive form, **möchten**, which means ‘would like to’:

Er möchte arbeiten.
Er möchte ein neues Auto kaufen.

He would like to work
He would like to buy a new car.

Its verb endings are regular, except for **er/sie/es**, where there is no final **-t**, and there is no stem vowel change:

ich möchte
du möchtest
Sie möchten
er/sie/es möchte

wir möchten
ihr möchtet
Sie möchten
sie möchten

Note that **möchten** is often used on its own, without a second verb:

Ich möchte ein Glas Bier, bitte.

I would like a glass of beer,
please.

Modal verbs used with another verb

As in English, modals are normally used together with another verb:

Er *kann* sehr gut Tango *tanzen*. He can dance Tango very well.
Sie *sollen* mehr Sport *treiben*. You should do more sport.

You see that there is one main difference between English and German. In English, the modal verb and the main verb stay together; in German, the modal verb and the main verb are separated. The modal verb is the second idea of a sentence and the main verb goes to the end of the sentence:

Ich *möchte* heute ins Kino *gehen*. I would like to go to the cinema
today.
Er *muss* auf Geschäftsreise *fahren*. He has to go on a business trip.

Also note that the modal verb takes the verb endings – it is the finite verb, while the main verb is in the infinitive.

Modal and separable verbs

When you use a modal verb with a separable verb, the separable verb stays together and goes to the end of the sentence:

Ich *möchte* heute Abend *ausgehen*. I would like to go out this evening.
Dr Schmidt *muss* ein Meeting *vorbereiten*. Dr Schmidt has to prepare a meeting.

Summary

Here is an overview of all modal verbs and their endings. Remember, there are certain patterns when you try to learn them:

- The **ich** and **er/sie/es** forms are the same for all modals and drop their endings (no **-e** or **-t**).
- All modals except for **sollen** have a vowel change in the **ich**, **du** and **er/sie/es** forms.

Note that the irregular forms are all italicised. To check the forms for **möchten** see above.

	<i>dürfen</i>	<i>können</i>	<i>müssen</i>	<i>sollen</i>	<i>wollen</i>	<i>mögen</i>
<i>ich</i>	darf	kann	muss	soll	will	mag
<i>du</i>	darfst	kannst	musst	sollst	willst	magst
<i>Sie</i>	dürfen	können	müssen	sollen	wollen	mögen
<i>er/sie/es</i>	darf	kann	muss	soll	will	mag
<i>wir</i>	dürfen	können	müssen	sollen	wollen	mögen
<i>ihr</i>	dürft	könnt	müsst	sollt	wollt	mögt
<i>Sie</i>	dürfen	können	müssen	sollen	wollen	mögen
<i>sie</i>	dürfen	können	müssen	sollen	wollen	mögen

- See Unit 22 for modal verbs in the past tense.

Exercise 20.1

Write out the full present tense of all modal verbs (for all persons: **ich**, **du**, **Sie**, **er/sie/es**, **wir**, **ihr**, **Sie**, **sie**): (1) **dürfen**; (2) **können**; (3) **müssen**; (4) **sollen**; (5) **wollen**; (6) **mögen**.

Exercise 20.2

Supply the finite verb form of **können**.

Example: ____ Sie Englisch sprechen? → **Können** Sie Englisch sprechen?

- 1 Ich ____ morgen leider nicht kommen.
- 2 ____ du eigentlich Ski fahren?
- 3 Er ____ sehr gut tanzen.
- 4 ____ ihr bitte ein bisschen leise sein?
- 5 Wir ____ die Party doch nächstes Wochenende machen.

Exercise 20.3

Fill in the finite verb form of the modal verb in parentheses.

Example: Rita sagt, sie ____ gesünder leben. (wollen)
→ Rita sagt, sie **will** gesünder leben.

- 1 Kinder ____ die Baustelle nicht betreten. (dürfen)
- 2 Hier ____ man nicht rauchen. (dürfen)

- 3 ____ ich Sie etwas fragen? (dürfen)
 4 Mein Arzt sagt, ich ____ mehr Sport treiben. (sollen)
 5 ____ du immer so spät nach Hause kommen. (müssen)
 6 Ich ____ noch einen Saft, bitte. (möchten)
 7 Er ____ ein neues Leben anfangen. (wollen)
 8 ____ ihr uns nicht mal besuchen? (wollen)
 9 ____ man hier denn irgendwo gut essen gehen? (können)
 10 Am Wochenende ____ Martin und Britta nach Lübeck fahren. (wollen)
 11 ____ ihr ein Eis essen? (möchten)
 12 Er ____ nicht immer so pessimistisch sein, finde ich. (sollen)
 13 ____ Sie mir helfen? (können)
 14 ____ du nicht zu Hause bleiben? (sollen)
 15 Hier ____ Sie langsam fahren. (müssen)
 16 ____ du das noch mal wiederholen? (können)

Exercise 20.4

Translate the following sentences. Use both the **du** and **Sie** forms for ‘you’:

- 1 I can dance Salsa.
- 2 He wants to go by car.
- 3 She should do more sports.
- 4 We would like to pay.
- 5 Can you help me?
- 6 May I ask you something?
- 7 You may not smoke here.
- 8 You mustn't take photographs.

Checklist	✓
1 What are the irregular patterns for modal verb endings?	
2 Where is the main verb in a sentence with a modal verb?	
3 How do you use mögen ?	
4 How would you translate sollen ?	
5 How would you translate ‘must not’?	

UNIT TWENTY-ONE

The present perfect tense

Past tenses in English and German

English and German both have two main tenses for referring to past events, the *present perfect tense* and the *simple past tense*:

<i>Present perfect:</i>	I have talked to him.	Ich habe mit ihm gesprochen.
<i>Simple past:</i>	I talked to him.	Ich sprach mit ihm.

Different usages

In English you use the present perfect if a past event is still fairly closely connected to the present and with certain words such as ‘just’: ‘I have just talked to him’. For most other situations you use the simple past: ‘I last talked to him two years ago’.

In German, the present perfect tense is mostly used for the *spoken* language and the simple past for *written* German. Note that the present perfect tense therefore also refers to events that might have happened some time ago, when you *talk* about the past:

Gestern <i>hat</i> es <i>geregnet</i>.	It rained yesterday. (lit: It has rained)
Vor fünfzehn Jahren <i>habe</i> ich bei IBM <i>gearbeitet</i>	Fifteen years ago I worked for IBM.

Regular and irregular verbs – an overview

For most verbs in German you form the present perfect tense with a form of **haben** ‘to have’ + **the past participle** of the main verb: **haben** + **gehört** ‘have listened’; **haben** + **getrunken** ‘have drunk’.

As in English, some verbs are regular ('have listened'/**gehört**) and some are irregular ('have drunk'/**getrunken**) in German.

Some verbs use the finite form of **sein** instead of **haben** plus the past participle:

Ich bin nach Paris gefahren. I've gone (I went) to Paris.

Regular verbs in more detail

Formation

The present perfect tense of regular verbs (often called weak verbs) is constructed by using the present tense of **haben** + the past participle.

You form the participle by using the stem of the verb (infinitive minus **-en**) and add **ge-** in front and **-t** at the end:

<i>Infinitive</i>		<i>past participle</i>
(-en)	+	ge + stem + t
kauf-en	→	ge-kauf-t
spiel-en		ge-spiel-t
sag-en		ge-sag-t

Haben is the finite verb

When you use this structure in a sentence, the endings of **haben** must agree with the personal pronoun – it is the finite verb in the sentence. The past participle does not change. Look at the complete present perfect tense of **spielen** 'to play':

ich habe gespielt	wir haben gespielt
du hast gespielt	ihr habt gespielt
Sie haben gespielt	Sie haben gespielt
er/sie/es hat gespielt	sie haben gespielt

Word order

You probably noticed from the examples that **haben** takes the second position in a sentence, while the past participle goes to the end of the sentence or clause:

Sie hat ein neues Kleid gekauft. She bought a new skirt.
Gestern habe ich Tennis gespielt. Yesterday I played tennis.

Irregular verbs in more detail

Formation

Irregular verbs (also called strong verbs) form their past participle in most cases by adding **ge-** to the stem and **-en** at the end:

<i>infinitive</i>		<i>past participle</i>
(-en)	+	ge + stem + en
les-en	→	ge-les-en
schlaf-en		ge-schlaf-en

The majority of irregular verbs also have a *stem vowel change*:

<i>infinitive</i>		<i>past participle</i>
(-en)	+	ge + stem + en
find-en	→	ge-fund-en
helf-en		ge-holf-en
schreib-en		ge-schrieb-en
trink-en		ge-trunk-en

Word order

As with the regular verbs, the past participle goes to end of the sentence or clause:

<i>Hast du den neuen Bond-Film gesehen?</i>	Have you seen the new Bond film?
<i>Wir haben eine neue Wohnung gefunden.</i>	We (have) found a new flat.
<i>Maike hat mir sehr geholfen.</i>	Maike (has) helped me a lot.
<i>Sie haben zu viel Bier getrunken.</i>	They drank/have drunk too much beer.

Mixed verbs

There is also a group of verbs (often called mixed verbs) which have a stem change but add **-t** instead of **-en**. The most important are:

<i>infinitive</i>		<i>past participle</i>
(-en)	+	ge + stem + t
bring-en	→	ge-brach-t
denk-en		ge-dach-t
wiss-en		ge-wuss-t

Examples:

Das *habe* ich mir *gedacht*.

I thought so.

Das *habe* ich nicht *gewusst*.

I didn't know that.

The present perfect tense with *sein*

Verbs of motion take sein

Verbs of motion or those verbs which express a change (of state) form the present perfect with the finite form of **sein** plus the past participle of the verb. Here are some useful examples:

fahren to go, to drive → **Ich *bin* nach Paris *gefahren*.**

fliegen to fly ***Bist* du mit KLM *geflogen*?**

gehen to go, to walk **Er *ist* zu Fuß *gegangen*.**

kommen to come **Er *ist* spät *gekommen*.**

laufen to run **Sie *ist* 10 km *gelaufen*.**

schwimmen to swim **Sie *sind* im Atlantik *geschwommen*.**

reisen to travel **Wir *sind* früher viel *gereist*.**

As you can see, most participles end in **-en**, but there are exceptions such as **gereist**.

More verbs with sein

The following verbs also form the present perfect tense with **sein** and are irregular:

<i>infinitive</i>	→	<i>past participle</i>	
bleiben		geblieben	to stay
sterben		gestorben	to die
werden		geworden	to become

Examples:

Wie lange *seid* ihr in den USA *geblieben*?

How long have you stayed (did you stay) in the States?

Sie *ist* Lehrerin *geworden*.

She's become (she became) a teacher.

The present perfect tense of *haben* and *sein*

As you can see, **haben** and **sein** play an important role as auxiliary verbs in the formation of the present perfect tense. But it is also important to know their participle forms.

The past participle of **haben** is **gehabt**:

Er hat keine Zeit gehabt.

He hasn't had (didn't have) any time.

Sein has an irregular past participle – **gewesen**:

Wo bist du gewesen?

Where have you been?

In spoken German, it is quite common to use the simple past of **haben** and **sein** as an alternative to the present perfect tense. For more details see Unit 22.

Other points to watch out for

Verbs with stem endings in **-d** or **-t**

Verbs whose stem ends in **-d** or **-t** need an extra **-e** to form the participle:

Hast du wieder so viel geredet?

Have you been talking so much again?

Er hat viel gearbeitet.

He's worked a lot.

Verbs with an inseparable prefix

Verbs with an inseparable prefix such as **be-**, **er-**, **-ver-**, **-zer** do not put **ge-** in front. This applies to regular verbs such as **bezahlen** and **verkaufen** and also to irregular verbs such as **verlieren**:

Er hat das Essen bezahlt.

He's paid for the meal.

Wir haben das Auto verkauft.

We've sold the car.

Ich habe meinen Terminkalender verloren.

I've lost my diary.

Verbs ending in **-ieren**

Verbs ending in **-ieren** (for example **studieren** and **passieren**) also do not add **ge-** at the front:

Er hat in Berlin *studiert*.
Was ist *passiert*?

He's studied in Berlin.
 What has happened?

Separable verbs

Separable verbs form the past participle like other regular or irregular verbs, but *the prefix stays at the front*:

regular

prefix + **ge** + stem + **t**

aufmach-en → **auf-ge-mach-t**

einkauf-en → **ein-ge-kauf-t**

irregular

prefix + **ge** + stem + **en**

aufsteh-en → **auf-ge-stand-en**

fernseh-en → **fern-ge-seh-en**

Here are some examples:

Hast du das Bier *aufgemacht*?

Die Eltern haben *eingekauft*.

Bist du wieder früh *aufgestanden*?

Wir haben drei Stunden

***ferngesehen*.**

Have you opened the beer?

The parents have done the shopping.

Have you got up early again?

We've watched television for three hours.

Working with verb lists

Most German coursebooks, grammars and dictionaries have a list of irregular verbs in which the past participles are given. Verbs which form the present perfect tense with **sein** are usually indicated with a '*v.it*'. We recommend that you use these lists regularly and learn the most important verbs by heart. As with most other grammar points – the more you practise, the more progress you will make with your language learning.

- For more information on the simple past tense and when to use it in German see Unit 22.

Exercise 21.1

Which of these commonly used verbs form an irregular participle? Place a tick against them. Mark the ones which take **sein** with an asterisk. One example has been done for you. Use a verb list to check your answers.

arbeiten		hören		nehmen		sprechen	
bleiben	✓*	kaufen		schreiben		stehen	
essen		kommen		schwimmen		treffen	
fahren		lesen		sehen		trinken	
gehen		machen		spielen		wohnen	

Exercise 21.2

Complete the sentences with the correct present perfect form.

Example: Peter ____ seine Schwester _____. (besuchen)

→ Peter **hat** seine Schwester **besucht**.

- 1 Er ____ bis zwanzig Uhr _____. (arbeiten)
- 2 Ich ____ ein Konzert mit Gloria Estafan _____. (hören)
- 3 Paula ____ eine neue Jacke _____. (kaufen)
- 4 Was ____ Sie ____? (sagen)
- 5 Wir ____ lange auf den Bus _____. (warten)
- 6 Früher ____ Annette und Jörg in Berlin _____. (wohnen)
- 7 Was ____ du am Wochenende ____? (machen)
- 8 Er ____ sehr viel _____. (einkaufen)
- 9 Herr und Frau Stein ____ beide in Heidelberg _____. (studieren)
- 10 Susanne ____ mit ihrer Kreditkarte _____. (bezahlen)

Exercise 21.3

Put the following sentences into the present perfect tense.

Example: Ich stehe um acht Uhr auf.

→ Ich **bin** um acht Uhr **aufgestanden**.

- 1 Ich esse ein Croissant.
- 2 Ich lese die Zeitung.
- 3 Ich fahre mit dem Fahrrad zur Arbeit.
- 4 Ich schreibe am Computer.
- 5 Ich spreche mit einem alten Freund.
- 6 Um halb sieben treffe ich einen Freund.

- 7 Um zwanzig Uhr gehen wir ins Kino.
- 8 Wir sehen einen Film mit Julia Roberts.
- 9 Danach trinken wir noch etwas.
- 10 Um halb zwölf bin ich zu Hause.
- 11 Ich sehe noch ein bisschen fern.

Exercise 21.4

Put the following sentences in the present perfect tense. Use the **du**, **Sie** and **ihr** forms for 'you'.

- 1 Herr Witte worked until nine o'clock.
- 2 She bought a new CD.
- 3 Michael studied in Berlin.
- 4 They paid by credit card.
- 5 He went to the cinema.
- 6 They watched television.
- 7 When did you get up?
- 8 What did you do yesterday?

Checklist	✓
1 What tense do you normally use when you are <i>talking</i> about past events in German?	
2 How do you form the present perfect tense?	
3 When do you use sein for the present perfect tense?	
4 How do you form the past participle?	
5 Where does the past participle go?	

UNIT TWENTY-TWO

The simple past tense

Usage

The simple past tense is one of the two main tenses in German to describe past events. Whereas the *present perfect tense* is mostly used for the spoken language, the *simple past* is mainly used in written German. In grammar books the latter is often referred to as *preterite* (**Präteritum**) or the *imperfect* (**Imperfekt**).

Regular and irregular verbs

In English, verbs in the simple past tense are formed either regularly or irregularly:

- Regular verbs simply add ‘-ed’ to the infinitive (‘play’ → ‘played’).
- Irregular verbs usually have a vowel change (‘see’ → ‘saw’).

German has a similar pattern:

- Most regular verbs add the required endings to the stem (**spielen** → **ich spielte**).
- Many irregular verbs change their stem vowel (**sehen** → **ich sah**). Irregular verbs also have slightly different endings.

All forms are explained in the following paragraphs.

Regular verbs in detail

Formation

To form the simple past tense of regular verbs, take the *stem* and add the appropriate endings.

		<i>mach-en</i>	<i>spiel-en</i>	<i>kauf-en</i>
ich	-te	machte	spielte	kaufte
du	-test	machtest	spieltest	kauftest
Sie	-ten	machten	spielten	kauften
er/sie/es	-te	machte	spielte	kaufte
wir	-ten	machten	spielten	kauften
ihr	-tet	machtet	spieltet	kauftet
Sie	-ten	machten	spielten	kauften
sie	-ten	machten	spielten	kauften

Examples:

Als Kind wohnte er in Berlin. As a child he lived in Berlin.
Gestern kaufte er eine neue CD. Yesterday he bought a new CD.

Variations

Verbs where the stem ends in **-t**, **-n** or **-d** need an extra **e** to make them easier to pronounce:

antwort-en → **Sie antwortete nicht.** She didn't answer.
regn-en → **Gestern regnete es.** Yesterday it rained./Yesterday it was raining.
red-en → **Er redete für eine Stunde.** He talked for one hour.

Irregular verbs in detail

Similarly to English, German irregular verbs form the simple past through a stem vowel change. The verb endings in the simple past tense are similar to the endings in the present tense, except for **ich** and **er/sie/es**, where there is no ending:

		<i>seh-en</i>	<i>schreib-en</i>	<i>geh-en</i>
ich	–	sah	schrieb	ging
du	-st	sahst	schriebst	gingst
Sie	-en	sahen	schrieben	gingen
er/sie/es	–	sah	schrieb	ging
wir	-en	sahen	schrieben	gingen
ihr	-t	sahst	schriebt	gingt
Sie	-en	sahen	schrieben	gingen
sie	-en	sahen	schrieben	gingen

Examples:

Gestern *sah* ich einen Film.
Er *schrieb* einen Brief.
Sie *gingen* ins Restaurant.

Yesterday I watched a movie.
 He wrote a letter.
 They went to a restaurant.

Mixed verbs

There is also a small number of verbs which change their stem vowel, but have the **-te** endings like the regular verbs. They are often referred to as mixed verbs. The most important are:

denken	→	dachte	to think
bringen		brachte	to bring
kennen		kannte	to know
wissen		wusste	to know
brennen		brannte	to burn

Examples:

Sie *dachte* an ihre Ferien.
Das *wusste* ich nicht.

She thought about her holidays.
 I didn't know that.

Haben, sein and the modal verbs

Although the simple past tense is mostly used in written German, it also occurs in the spoken language. This particularly applies to **haben** and **sein** and the *modal verbs*. Here they are in more detail.

Haben and **sein**

Both verbs are quite irregular in the simple past tense. Here is an overview:

	<i>haben</i>	<i>sein</i>
ich	hatte	war
du	hattest	warst
Sie	hatten	waren
er/sie/es	hatte	war
wir	hatten	waren
ihr	hattet	wart
Sie	hatten	waren
sie	hatten	waren

Here are some examples:

Ich <i>hatte</i> keine Zeit.	I didn't have any time.
Er <i>hatte</i> schrecklichen Hunger.	He was terribly hungry.
Er <i>war</i> letztes Jahr in London.	He was in London last year.
Wo <i>wart</i> ihr denn?	Where were you?

Modal verbs in the simple past tense

Modal verbs also behave like 'mixed' verbs. Their stem vowel changes (**ü** → **u, ö** → **o**) but they take the **-te** endings. Here is an overview of the modal verbs in the simple past tense:

	<i>dürfen</i>	<i>können</i>	<i>müssen</i>	<i>sollen</i>	<i>wollen</i>	<i>mögen</i>
<i>ich</i>	durfte	konnte	musste	sollte	wollte	mochte
<i>du</i>	durftest	konntest	musstest	solltest	wolltest	mochtest
<i>Sie</i>	durften	konnten	mussten	sollten	wollten	mochten
<i>er/sie/es</i>	durfte	konnte	musste	sollte	wollte	mochte
<i>wir</i>	durften	konnten	mussten	sollten	wollten	mochten
<i>ihr</i>	durftet	konntet	musstet	solltet	wolltet	mochtet
<i>Sie</i>	durften	konnten	mussten	sollten	wollten	mochten
<i>sie</i>	durften	konnten	mussten	sollten	wollten	mochten

Examples:

Ich <i>durfte</i> nicht ins Kino.	I wasn't allowed to go to the cinema.
Er <i>konnte</i> nicht kommen.	He couldn't make it.
Wir <i>mussten</i> arbeiten.	We had to work.

Learning tip

As a beginner, you will probably use the simple past tense mainly as a 'receptive' skill – when reading texts in German where you have only to recognise the words. As in English, most verbs fall into two main groups: regular and irregular verbs which follow different patterns. However, the best way to learn the verb forms properly is by working with verb lists, which you can find at the end of this book or in any good dictionary. Try to learn the most commonly used verbs by heart and practise as much as you can – you will soon find that you are much more confident when you are dealing with the simple past tense.

Exercise 22.1

Here is an adapted excerpt from the famous German fairy tale *Schneewittchen* (*Snow White*). Read the text and underline all verbs in the simple past tense. The first two have been done for you.

Nun war das arme Kind in dem großen Wald ganz allein. Da hatte es große Angst. Es wusste nicht, wo es war und fing an zu laufen, bis es bald Abend wurde. Da sah es ein kleines Häuschen und ging hinein. In dem Haus war alles klein: da stand ein Tisch mit sieben kleinen Tellern. Außerdem gab es sieben Messer und Gabeln und sieben Becher. An der Wand standen sieben Betten. Schneewittchen, weil es so hungrig und durstig war, aß von jedem Teller ein wenig Gemüse und Brot und trank aus jedem Becher einen Tropfen Wein. Dann, weil es so müde war, legte es sich in ein Bett, aber keins passte; das eine war zu lang, das andere zu kurz, bis endlich das siebente recht war: und darin blieb es liegen, dachte an den lieben Gott und schlief ein.

Decide whether the underlined verbs are regular, irregular or mixed and classify them as in the columns below. Can you also find the infinitive of each verb?

regular verbs

irregular verbs

mixed verbs

war → **sein**

wusste → **wissen**

Exercise 22.2

Write out the full simple past tense (for all persons: **ich, du, Sie, er/sie/es, wir, ihr, Sie, sie**) of the following verbs: (1) **spielen**; (2) **kaufen**; (3); **wohnen**.

Exercise 22.3

Supply the correct endings. In some cases no ending is needed.

Example: Er trank ____ eine Flasche Bier. → Er **trank** eine Flasche Bier.

- 1 Ich blieb ____ für eine Woche in Prag.
- 2 Sah ____ du das Fußballspiel im Fernsehen?
- 3 Er ging ____ gestern ins Kino.
- 4 Nach dem Essen trank ____ wir noch Kaffee.
- 5 Frau Schneider fuhr ____ das erste Mal nach Schottland.

- 6 Er schrieb ____ ein E-mail an seine Freundin.
 7 Das wusst ____ ich nicht.
 8 Da bracht ____ der Kellner noch einen Nachttisch.

Exercise 22.4

Translate the following sentences.

- 1 Yesterday I played tennis.
 2 I bought a cup of coffee.
 3 As a child I lived in Frankfurt.
 4 I went to the cinema.
 5 I stayed in Germany for one week.
 6 It was last year.

Checklist	✓
1 When do you use the simple past tense?	
2 Which verbs use the simple past tense in the majority of cases?	
3 What are the verb endings for the simple past tense?	
4 How do you form the simple past tense for modal verbs and for regular verbs?	

UNIT TWENTY-THREE

The future tense

Future tenses in English

To talk about something that is going to happen, you use the future tense. English has several ways of expressing this. You can use a structure with ‘going to’ + verb to refer to something in the near future, or you can use ‘will’ + verb. When it is clear from the context that you are referring to the future, you can also use the continuous present tense form: ‘This afternoon I am working from home.’

The two main forms in German

German also has different ways of referring to future events.

- The easiest and most common way is to use the *present tense*

Heute Abend *bleibe* ich zu Hause. This evening I am staying at home.

- Another option is to use **werden** + infinitive:

Am Wochenende *werde* ich auf eine Party *gehen*. At the weekend I’ll go to a party.

Here are both forms in more detail.

Using the present tense

Speakers of German mainly use the present tense to refer to the future when the context makes it clear that you are referring to a future event. Look at the following examples:

Wir gehen heute ins Theater.	We're going to the theatre today.
Fahrt ihr nach Italien in den Ferien?	Will you be going to Italy in your holidays?
Er macht Bratwurst zum Abendessen.	He'll be making sausage for supper.

As you can see, there are often bits of information in the sentence which suggest the future. In the first example above, the word **heute** 'today' indicates that the event will be taking place later in the day. The second and third examples are even clearer: **in den Ferien** 'in the holidays' and **zum Abendessen** 'for supper' clearly state that the event referred to will take place in the future.

Expressions indicating the future

There are quite a few words which give clear indications of a time in the future. Here are some examples:

bald	soon
später	later
morgen	tomorrow
in 10 Minuten	in 10 minutes
in einer Woche	in a week
heute abend	tonight
nächsten Monat	next month

There are many more such expressions. Whenever you are using one of these words, you can quite easily use the present tense because it is evident that you are not speaking about the present. Look at the following examples:

Ich bin bald fertig.	I'll be ready soon.
Wir kommen später.	We'll come later.
Er hat morgen eine Prüfung.	He's got an exam tomorrow.
Sie können es in 10 Minuten abholen.	You can collect it in 10 minutes.
In einer Woche sind wir in Italien!	In a week's time we'll be in Italy!
Heute Abend gibt es nichts im Fernsehen.	There's nothing on television tonight.
Habt Ihr nächsten Monat Zeit?	Will you be free next month?

Using *werden* + infinitive

The other way of talking about future events uses grammatical forms which are similar in English and in German.

Ich werde dich anrufen.	I will call you.
Wirst du zu Hause sein?	Will you be at home?
Er wird die ganze Woche lange arbeiten.	He will be working late all week.
Der Film wird in Europa rauskommen.	The film will be released in Europe.
Sie werden im August umziehen.	They will move house in August.

English uses 'will' + *the infinitive of the main verb* and German uses *the finite form of werden* + *the infinitive of the main verb*.

German uses this future tense with **werden** + infinitive mostly in written German, when making a prediction, indicating probability or emphasising a point:

Morgen wird es regnen.	Tomorrow it will rain.
Sie werden wahrscheinlich nach Mallorca fliegen.	They will probably fly to Majorca.
Ich werde in Mai mein Abitur machen.	I'll sit my A levels in May.

Points to watch out for

If you are forming the future with **werden** + infinitive, there are two points you need to consider.

Werden is an irregular verb

Werden is quite irregular. Here are all forms:

	<i>werden + infinitive</i>	
ich	<i>werd-e</i>	arbeiten
du	<i>wir-st</i>	arbeiten
Sie	<i>werd-en</i>	arbeiten
er/sie/es	<i>wird</i>	arbeiten
wir	<i>werd-en</i>	arbeiten
ihr	<i>werd-et</i>	arbeiten
Sie	<i>werd-en</i>	arbeiten
sie	<i>werd-en</i>	arbeiten

Note the following irregularities:

- **werden** has a stem vowel change with **du** and **er/sie/es**: e → i: **du wirst, er/sie/es wird.**
- The form for **du** also drops the **d** from the stem: **du wirst.**
- There is no additional ending with **er/sie/es**: **er wird.**

Word order

The main verb is always in the infinitive, and it is placed at the end of the clause or sentence. **Werden** is the finite verb form and is in second position:

Der Film *wird* in Europa rauskommen.

Sie *werden* im August *umziehen*.

You have already come across this principle with modal verbs and with the present perfect tense.

Tips for English speakers

As with all other tenses, German does not have a progressive form of the future tense ('I will be working'). Only the 'normal' future is used in German:

Ich werde arbeiten.

Also avoid using the modal verb **wollen** + infinitive to talk about the future.

Ich will arbeiten does *not* mean 'I will work'. It means 'I want to work'.

Exercise 23.1

Underline the words and expressions which indicate the future.

Example: Am Dienstag gehen wir ins Restaurant.

→ Am Dienstag gehen wir ins Restaurant.

- 1 Morgen fahre ich zu meinen Eltern.
- 2 Bitte rufen Sie in einer halben Stunde wieder an.
- 3 Nächsten Monat habe ich wieder mehr Zeit.
- 4 Das Fußballspiel findet am Freitag statt.
- 5 Wir wollen heute Abend noch ins Kino gehen.
- 6 Sehen wir uns später?
- 7 Habt ihr bald Zeit?
- 8 Wohin fahrt ihr denn in den Sommerferien?

Exercise 23.2

Make complete sentences using the future tense with **werden** and say what these people will do at the weekend.

Example: ich → einkaufen gehen

Ich *werde* am Wochenende einkaufen gehen.

- 1 Frauke → einen Kriminalroman lesen
- 2 Jörg → ins Kino gehen
- 3 Peter und Anna → zu Hause bleiben
- 4 ich → Freunde besuchen
- 5 du → viel fernsehen
- 6 die Nachbarn → eine Party machen
- 7 Anja → im Supermarkt arbeiten
- 8 Opa → ein Fußballspiel sehen (Opa = Grandpa)

Exercise 23.3

Translate the following sentences. Use (a) the present tense and then (b) the future tense with **werden**. Use the **du**, **Sie** and **ihr** forms for 'you'.

- 1 In the evening I'll visit friends.
- 2 Tomorrow I'll go to the cinema.
- 3 On Friday I'll work late.
- 4 At the weekend I'll stay at home.
- 5 I'll come later.
- 6 What are you doing later?
- 7 What are you doing in the summer holidays?
- 8 I'll spend my holidays in Spain.

Checklist	✓
1 When can you use the present tense to talk about future events in German?	
2 How do you form the future tense?	
3 What irregularities are there in the finite forms of the verb werden ?	
4 Which form does the main verb have in the future tense and where does it go?	

UNIT TWENTY-FOUR

Prepositions

What are prepositions?

Prepositions are frequently used words such as ‘from’, ‘on’, ‘with’, ‘under’ which define the relation between different items in a sentence. They can give information about the

- direction: ‘I’m *from* Germany.’
- position: ‘The book is *on* the table’ or
- time: ‘She will come *at* eight o’ clock’.

Using prepositions in German

The function of prepositions in English and German is very similar. What complicates matters in German is that prepositions usually require a certain case. It does not matter in a sentence such as **Ich bin *aus* Deutschland** ‘I’m *from* Germany’ because there is no article. But for any other structures where the preposition precedes an article or possessive, you must be aware of the case the prepositions govern and the changes this may imply.

Prepositions and cases – an overview

In German prepositions can be divided into different groups, according to the case they require.

Prepositions + accusative case

Important examples of prepositions always followed by the accusative case are **für** ‘for/in favour of’ and **gegen** ‘against’:

Ich bin gegen *den* Plan.

I am against the plan.

Prepositions + dative case

Zu ‘to’, **mit** ‘with’ and **von** ‘from’ are frequently used prepositions which govern the dative case:

Ich komme *mit meinem* Bruder. I’ll come with my brother.

Prepositions + accusative or dative case

There is also a group of preposition such as **in** ‘in’, **auf** ‘on’ and **vor** ‘in front of’ which can take either the accusative or the dative depending on whether the emphasis is on movement or position.

Note that a few prepositions also require the *genitive case* in German. Here are all forms in more detail.

Prepositions + accusative case in more detail

The following prepositions are always followed by the accusative case:

bis	until
durch	through
für	for
gegen	against, around
ohne	without
um	around, at

Usage in both languages

The meaning and usage of these prepositions are very similar in English and German. Here are some examples:

<i>Bis</i> morgen.	Until tomorrow.
Gehen wir <i>durch</i> den Park?	Shall we go through the park?
Danke <i>für</i> das Geschenk.	Thanks for the present.
Er fährt <i>gegen</i> die Wand.	He drives against the wall.
Ich reise nie <i>ohne</i> meinen Wecker.	I never travel without my alarm clock.
Ich komme <i>um</i> fünf Uhr.	I’ll come at five o’clock.

Note that **gegen** can also refer to time: **gegen acht Uhr** ‘around eight o’clock’. **Um** is used for directions – **um die Welt** ‘around the world’ – and for time: **um fünf Uhr** ‘at five o’clock’.

Endings in the accusative case

Remember that in the accusative case articles, possessives or the negative **kein** referring to masculine nouns end in **-en**:

Gehen wir durch *den* Park?
Ich reise nie ohne *meinen* Wecker.

- For more information on the accusative see Unit 12.

Short forms

Note that in some instances the preposition and the definite article **das** are joined together: **durchs** = **durch das**; **fürs** = **für das**.

Prepositions + dative case in more detail

The following prepositions always require the dative case:

aus	from, out of
außer	apart from
bei	at, near
gegenüber	opposite
mit	with, by (for means of transport)
nach	after, to
seit	since, for
von	from
zu	to

Endings in the dative case

Remember that the required endings for the dative case are **-em** for masculine and neuter nouns and **-er** for feminine nouns:

Sie fährt mit <i>dem</i> Zug. (m)	She goes by train.
Sie fährt mit <i>der</i> U-Bahn. (f)	She goes by tube.
Sie fährt mit <i>dem</i> Fahrrad. (nt)	She goes by bike.

Short forms

Note that in some instances the preposition and the definite article are joined together: **bei dem** often becomes **beim**, **von dem** becomes **vom**, **zu der** becomes **zur** and **zu dem** becomes **zum**.

Usage in both languages

Although many of the prepositions are very similar to English, there are quite a few instances where the usage of the German is very different:

- To say where somebody is *from*, you would use **aus** in German:
Sie kommen aus Berlin. They come from Berlin.
- The preposition **bei** can specify a location, and is also used to say that you were seeing, visiting or staying with another person:
Potsdam liegt bei Berlin. Potsdam is near Berlin.
Sie war beim Arzt. She was at the doctor's.
- When referring to means of transport, German uses **mit**:
Er fährt mit dem Auto. He is travelling by car.
- When asking for directions of places **zu** is used in German, but when referring to towns or most countries you need **nach**:
Wie komme ich zum Bahnhof? How do I get to the railway station?
Ich fahre nach New York. I am going to New York.

In all these examples, you have to learn the corresponding preposition in German.

Prepositions + accusative or dative in more detail

When to use the accusative and when to use the dative

Some prepositions in German take either the accusative or the dative case, depending on whether the emphasis is on movement or position. The one you will probably most frequently use at this level is **in**:

Sie geht ins (in das) Kino.

Indicates movement: 'going to the cinema'. **In** is followed by the *accusative* case.

Sie war im (in dem) Kino.

The emphasis is on position: 'being in the cinema'. **In** is followed by the *dative* case.

More prepositions using both cases

Apart from **in**, other prepositions in this category are:

an	at, on
auf	on
hinter	behind
neben	next to, beside
über	over, above, across
unter	under, among
vor	in front of, before
zwischen	between

Here are some more examples of this group of prepositions in use:

Ich lege das Buch <i>auf den</i> Tisch. (<i>accusative</i>)	I put the book on the table.
Das Buch liegt <i>auf dem</i> Tisch. (<i>dative</i>)	The book is on the table.
Er hängt das Poster <i>an die</i> Wand. (<i>accusative</i>)	He puts the poster on the wall.
Das Poster hängt <i>an der</i> Wand. (<i>dative</i>)	The poster is on the wall.
Sie legt die CDs <i>aufs</i> Regal. (<i>accusative</i>)	She puts the CDs on the shelves.
Die CDs sind <i>auf dem</i> Regal. (<i>dative</i>)	The CDs are on the shelves.

Short forms

Note that **in das** is often shortened to **ins** and **in dem** to **im**:

Er geht *ins* Kino. Er war *im* Kino.

It is also very common to say **aufs** instead of **auf das**:

Sie legt die CDs *aufs* Regal.

Prepositions + genitive case in more detail

There are also a few preposition which govern the genitive case. The most important are:

trotz	despite
während	during
wegen	because of
(an)statt	instead of

You will probably use them more frequently at an advanced level.

Während des Sommers lebt er in Italien.	During the summer he lives in Italy.
Trotz des schlechten Wetters fuhr er mit dem Auto.	Despite the bad weather he took the car.

Learning tip

Don't feel overwhelmed by the sheer number of prepositions. As a beginner you will not use all of them. In a good course book they will be introduced in groups so that it is easier for you to memorise them.

Also try to learn them in context, so that you will know when to use them, and make sure that you know which prepositions take which cases.

Summary

Here is a summary:

<i>accusative</i>	<i>dative</i>	<i>accusative or dative</i>	<i>genitive</i>
bis until	aus from, out of	an at, on	trotz despite
durch through	außer apart from	auf on	während during
für for	bei at, near	hinter behind	wegen <i>instead of</i>
gegen against, around	gegenüber opposite	in in, into	(an)statt <i>instead of</i>
ohne without	mit with, by	neben next to	
um around, at	(for means of transport)	über over, above, across	
	nach after, to	unter under, among	
	seit since, for	vor in front of, before	
	von from	zwischen between	
	zu to		

Exercise 24.1

Supply an appropriate preposition from the list below. The first one has been done for you.

nach zu mit ~~in~~ im zu ins bei gegenüber zum zur
für um in während ~~aus~~

- 1 Max Störzl kommt **aus** Österreich, aber lebt **in** München.
- 2 Sie wohnt ____ ihrer Tante.
- 3 Am Wochenende fährt sie ____ Hamburg ____ ihrem Sohn.
- 4 Meistens fährt er ____ dem Auto, manchmal geht er ____ Fuß.
- 5 Gehst du später ____ die Kneipe?
- 6 Kommst du heute Abend mit ____ Kino?
- 7 Ich war erst gestern ____ Kino.
- 8 Das Poster hängt ____ der Wand.
- 9 Treffen wir uns ____ acht Uhr?
- 10 Wie komme ich ____ Hauptbahnhof?
- 11 Ist das der Weg ____ Pauluskirche?
- 12 Der Club ist ____ dem Museum.
- 13 Ich bin ____ den Vorschlag.
- 14 Er ist ____ die Tür gelaufen.
- 15 ____ der Ferien habe ich gearbeitet.

Exercise 24.2

Now go through exercise 24.1 again. Place the prepositions in the relevant column below:

only accusative *only dative* *accusative or dative* *genitive*
für

Exercise 24.3

Fill in the correct endings.

Example: Kommst du mit i ____ Kino? (*nt*) → Kommst du mit **ins** Kino?

- 1 Er ist gegen d ____ Plan. (*m*)
- 2 Ohne sein ____ Telefon kann er nicht mehr leben. (*nt*)
- 3 Gehen wir durch d ____ Park? (*m*)
- 4 Nach d ____ Schule will er eine Weltreise machen. (*f*)
- 5 Mit d ____ Fahrrad bist du aber schneller. (*nt*)
- 6 Seit ein ____ Jahr raucht er nicht mehr. (*nt*)
- 7 Wie weit ist es bis z ____ Bahnhof? (*m*)
- 8 Von d ____ Haltestelle sind es nur noch fünf Minuten. (*f*)
- 9 Wir gehen heute i ____ Restaurant. (*nt*)
- 10 Wie isst man i ____ neuen Restaurant? (*nt*)

- 11 Am Wochenende war er bei sein ____ Eltern. (*pl*)
 12 Fährst du zu dein ____ Freunden? (*pl*)

Exercise 24.4

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 He is against the plan.
- 2 We're walking through the park.
- 3 I usually go by car.
- 4 We are going to a restaurant.
- 5 How do I get to the railway station?
- 6 Are you coming along to the cinema?
- 7 At the weekend I am going to Berlin.

Checklist	✓
1 Can you remember which prepositions use the accusative case and which ones use the dative?	
2 There are a number of prepositions which can use either the accusative or the dative case. What is the difference in meaning between the accusative and the dative?	
3 Can you remember what contracted forms such as beim , ans , im stand for? Can you give other examples of such contractions?	

UNIT TWENTY-FIVE

Adjective endings

What are adjectives?

Adjectives are words that provide more information about a noun: 'The computer is *new*.' 'The exhibition is *interesting*.' 'It is a *boring* book.'

Usage in English

As you can see from the examples, an adjective can either follow or precede a noun. In English this causes no problems, as the adjective does not change its form.

Adjective endings in German

In German, on the other hand, the position of the adjective makes a big difference.

Adjectives after nouns

If the adjective comes after the nouns it describes, it doesn't change:

Der Computer ist *neu*.

The computer is new.

Die Ausstellung ist *interessant*.

The exhibition is interesting.

Adjectives preceding a noun take specific endings

If the adjective is placed before the noun, you add an ending. Look at the following examples:

Der Computer ist *neu*.

Es ist ein *neuer* Computer.

Die Ausstellung ist *interessant*.
Das Buch ist *langweilig*.

Es ist eine *interessante* Ausstellung.
Es ist ein *langweiliges* Buch.

Points to consider

As you will probably detect, the required ending

- reflects the gender of the noun it describes.

But there are two other points to consider:

- the case
- whether the adjective is connected to the indefinite article (**ein, eine**) or the definite article (**der, die, das**) or stands before a noun without an article.

This may sound more complicated than it actually is. In practice many endings are identical and there are certain patterns you can apply.

Adjectives with the indefinite article

Nominative case

You have just seen how the adjective endings work in the nominative case:

Es ist ein <i>neuer</i> Computer.	It is a new computer.
Es ist eine <i>interessante</i> Ausstellung.	It is an interesting exhibition.
Es ist ein <i>langweiliges</i> Buch.	It is a boring book.

Note that in the absence of a definite article (**der, die, das**), the adjective takes the definite article endings (**-er, -e, -es**) and ‘marks’ the noun, i.e. indicates whether it is masculine, feminine or neuter.

Accusative case

The endings in the accusative case are like the ones in the nominative, with the exception of adjectives describing masculine nouns, which add **-en**:

Claudia hat <i>einen neuen</i> Computer.	Claudia has got a new computer.
Er besucht eine <i>interessante</i> Ausstellung.	He is going to an interesting exhibition.
Er liest ein <i>langweiliges</i> Buch.	He is reading a boring book.

Dative case

The adjective endings in the dative case are relatively easy – they all add **-en**. Don't forget to make the necessary changes to the articles:

Mit einem neuen Computer kann man schneller arbeiten.

With a new computer one can work faster.

Sie trafen sich auf einer interessanten Ausstellung.

They met at an interesting exhibition.

Mit einem langweiligen Buch kann er nichts anfangen.

He can't do much with a boring book. (He hasn't got much time for a boring book.)

Possessives and kein

Note that all these endings apply also when the adjective follows the *possessives* (**mein, dein, sein** etc.) and the negative **kein**:

Das ist mein neuer Computer.

This is my new computer.

Das ist keine gute Ausstellung.

This is not a good exhibition.

Plural forms

The indefinite article 'a' **ein** cannot refer to the plural. After the *possessives* and **kein**, all adjectives add **-en**. See the table below for more details.

Summary – adjective endings after the indefinite article

Here is an overview of all adjective endings after the indefinite article. We have added the endings for the genitive case, although you will probably use them only at a much later stage.

	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>nominative</i>	ein neuer Computer	eine interessante Ausstellung	ein lanweiliges Buch	meine alten CDs
<i>accusative</i>	einen neuen Computer	eine interessante Ausstellung	ein lanweiliges Buch	meine alten CDs
<i>dative</i>	einem neuen Computer	einer interessanten Ausstellung	einem lanweiligen Buch	meinen alten Freunden
<i>genitive</i>	eines neuen Computers	einer interessanten Ausstellung	eines lanweiligen Buches	meiner alten CDs

Adjectives with no article

Similar pattern to the indefinite article

Adjective endings where there is no article are very similar to the ones with the indefinite article. In fact, they are identical in the nominative and accusative singular, where the adjective functions as a ‘marker’ for the noun:

Nominative case

Here are some examples in the nominative case:

Deutscher Wein ist oft süß.	German wine is often sweet.
Italienische Pizza ist sehr populär.	Italian pizza is very popular.
Tschechisches Bier schmeckt gut.	Czech beer tastes nice.

Accusative case

In the accusative case, adjectives describing a masculine noun add **en**:

Er mag deutschen Wein.	He likes German wine.
-------------------------------	-----------------------

The feminine and neuter forms are the same as the nominative.

Sie liebt italienische Pizza.	She loves Italian pizza.
Er trinkt viel tschechisches Bier.	He drinks a lot of Czech beer.

Dative case

Endings in the dative case are a bit different. In the absence of an article, the adjective takes the typical dative endings (**-em, -er, -em**):

Fisch passt zu deutschem Wein.	Fish goes well with German wine.
Was hältst du von italienischer Pizza?	What do you think of Italian pizza?
Von tschechischem Bier bekommt man keinen Kater.	You won't get a hangover from Czech beer.

Plural forms

In the plural the nominative and accusative cases add **-e**, and the dative needs the **-en** ending. See the table below for more details.

Summary – adjective endings with no article

Here is a full list of adjective endings where there is no article. We have also added the endings in the genitive case.

	<i>masculine</i>	feminine	neuter	plural
<i>nominative</i>	deutscher Wein	italienische Pizza	tschechisches Bier	deutsche Touristen
<i>accusative</i>	deutschen Wein	italienische Pizza	tschechisches Bier	deutsche Touristen
<i>dative</i>	deutschem Wein	italienischer Pizza	tschechischem Bier	deutschen Touristen
<i>genitive</i>	deutschen Weins	italienischer Pizza	tschechischen Bieres	deutscher Touristen

Adjectives with the definite article

Nominative case

In the nominative case the definite articles (**der**, **die**, **das**) clearly ‘mark’ the gender of the noun. All adjectives add **-e**:

Der blaue Rock sieht gut aus.	The blue skirt looks great.
Die grüne Jacke steht ihr.	The green jacket suits her.
Das blaue Hemd kommt aus Italien.	The blue shirt is from Italy.

Accusative case

The endings are identical to the ones in the nominative, with the exception of masculine nouns, where **-en** is added:

Heute trägt sie <i>den blauen</i> Rock.	She is wearing the blue skirt today.
Sie mag <i>die grüne</i> Jacke.	She likes the green jacket.
Er kauft <i>das blaue</i> Hemd.	He is buying the blue shirt.

Dative case

The dative case is relatively straightforward: all adjectives add **-en**:

Sie trägt ihren Mantel mit *dem blauen* Rock/*der grünen* Jacke/*dem blauen* Hemd.

Plural forms

As in the dative, all plural forms add **-en**. See the table below for more details.

Other modifiers

The modifiers **dieser** ‘this’, ‘these’, **jeder** ‘each’, ‘every’ and **welcher** ‘which’, ‘what’ follow the pattern of the definite article and require the same adjective endings.

**Dieser blaue Rock kostet nur
20 Euro.
Jedes neue Hemd kommt aus
London.**

This blue skirt costs only
20 euros.
Each new shirt comes from
London.

Summary – adjective endings after the definite article

Here is an overview of all adjective endings after the definite article. As before, we have included the genitive endings.

	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>nominative</i>	der blaue Rock	die grüne Jacke	das blaue Hemd	die neuen Schuhe
<i>accusative</i>	den blauen Rock	die grüne Jacke	das blaue Hemd	die neuen Schuhe
<i>dative</i>	dem blauen Rock	der grünen Jacke	dem blauen Hemd	den neuen Schuhen
<i>genitive</i>	des blauen Rockes	der grünen Jacke	des blauen Hemdes	der neuen Schuhe

Adjectives in the comparative and superlative

Adjectives in the comparative and superlative – when in front of a noun – change their endings accordingly:

**Sie haben ein größeres Haus gekauft.
Der beste Wein kommt aus Italien.
Sie produzieren den besten Wein.**

They bought a bigger house.
The best wine comes from Italy.
They produce the best wine.

Exercise 25.1

Fill in the correct adjective endings and any dative plural endings after the indefinite article or a possessive.

Example: Das ist ein gut ____ Buch. (*nt*) → Das ist ein gutes Buch.

- 1 Es ist ein schön ____ Tag. (*m*)
- 2 Das ist ein interessant ____ Buch. (*nt*)
- 3 Sie hat einen neu ____ Computer gekauft. (*m*)
- 4 Haben Sie eine neu ____ Wohnung? (*f*)
- 5 Anja telefoniert mit einer gut ____ Freundin. (*f*)
- 6 Ist er wirklich mit seinem alt ____ Auto nach Italien gefahren? (*nt*)
- 7 Zu seinem blau ____ Pullover trägt er eine sportlich ____ Jacke. (*mlf*)
- 8 Sind das seine neu ____ Schuhe? (*pl*)
- 9 Sie ist in ihren best ____ Jahre ____ . (*pl*)
- 10 Er trifft sich mit seinen ältest ____ Freunde ____ . (*pl*)

Exercise 25.2

Supply the correct endings for these commonly used expressions. Note that phrases marked with an asterisk take the accusative case. This affects masculine nouns such as **Abend**. 'Good evening' is therefore **Guten Abend**.

Example: Lieb ____ Freunde. → **Liebe** Freunde.

- 1 Lieb ____ Susanne.
- 2 Lieb ____ Carsten.
- 3 Lieb ____ Eltern.
- 4 Gut ____ Morgen.* (*m*)
- 5 Gut ____ Tag.* (*m*)
- 6 Gut ____ Nacht.* (*f*)
- 7 Mit freundlich ____ Gruß. (*m*)
- 8 In groß ____ Liebe. (*f*)
- 9 Mit viel ____ Küssen. (*pl*)
- 10 Mit freundlich ____ Grüßen. (*pl*)

Exercise 25.3

Fill in the correct endings.

Example: Der grün ____ Rock ist sehr modisch. → Der **grüne** Rock ist sehr modisch.

- 1 Das grün ____ Hemd gefällt mir.
- 2 Die blau ____ Jacke ist auch nicht schlecht.
- 3 Passt sie denn zu der weiß ____ Bluse?
- 4 Die weiß ____ Bluse trage ich nämlich am liebsten.
- 5 Der blau ____ Anzug war sehr teuer.

- 6 Ich ziehe den blau ____ Anzug fast jeden Tag an.
 7 Mit dem blau ____ Anzug trage ich am liebsten die gepunktet ____ Krawatte.
 8 Die italienisch ____ Schuhe sind einfach die besten.

Exercise 25.4

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 Good morning.
- 2 Good night.
- 3 It is a beautiful day.
- 4 He has bought an interesting book.
- 5 The new computer was too expensive.
- 6 I like the blue suit.
- 7 I wear the black shoes.

Checklist	✓
1 Adjectives can be placed before and after a noun. Which ones need to take an ending?	
2 Can you remember the adjective endings after the definite article?	
3 Can you remember the adjective endings after the indefinite article?	
4 Can you remember the adjective endings when no article is used?	

UNIT TWENTY-SIX

Numbers and dates

Numbers and dates in English and German

Numbers and dates are important in all languages. There are many similarities in the formation and usage of numbers in English and German, but ordinal numbers in German ('first', 'second' etc.) need endings like any other adjective.

Numbers

Numbers 0–20

These are the cardinal numbers from 0 to 20 in German:

0	null		
1	eins	11	elf
2	zwei	12	zwölf
3	drei	13	dreizehn
4	vier	14	vierzehn
5	fünf	15	fünfzehn
6	sechs	16	sechzehn
7	sieben	17	siebzehn
8	acht	18	achtzehn
9	neun	19	neunzehn
10	zehn	20	zwanzig

Similarly to English, in German **zehn** 'ten' is added to form the numbers 13 to 19. Note that the **s** is dropped in **sechzehn** and **siebzehn** drops the **en**.

Numbers 20–100

The tens

20 zwanzig	60 sechzig
30 dreißig	70 siebzig
40 vierzig	80 achtzig
50 fünfzig	90 neunzig

Note that **dreißig** is spelled with **ß** instead of **z**. Again the **s** is dropped in **sechzig** and the **en** in **siebzig**.

Numbers over 20

Numbers over 20 are formed by giving the unit number, then **und** and then the tens. This is different from English, where you first have the tens and then the single number: twenty-one. In German, it is (literally translated): one-and-twenty.

21 **einundzwanzig**
32 **zweiunddreißig**
44 **vierundvierzig**
56 **sechsfünfzig** etc.

Eins drops the **s** for numbers above 20 (**einunddreißig**, **einundvierzig**, etc.).

Numbers 100 and above

Start with the number of hundreds and then add the tens and units as explained above:

100 **(ein)hundert**
202 **zweihundertzwei**
310 **dreihundertzehn**
456 **vierhundertsechsfünfzig**
889 **achthundertneunundachtzig**

In modern German there is normally no **und** added after **hundert**. This also applies to numbers above 1000:

1020 **(ein)tausendzwanzig**
7455 **siebentausendvierhundertfünfzig**
450 000 **vierhundertfünfzigtausend**

Long words

You have probably noticed that all numbers in German are written as one word. Only numbers above a million are separated:

1 100 000 **eine Million einhunderttausend**

10 800 000 **zehn Millionen achthunderttausend**

Dates – ordinal numbers*Formation*

To say the dates in German ('the first', 'the second' etc.), add:

- **-te** for numbers up to 19 and
- **-ste** for numbers from 20 upwards.

These numbers ('first', 'second' etc.) are called *ordinal numbers*. Because ordinal numbers usually provide more information about a noun ('the first of February', for instance), they take the appropriate adjective ending.

This means that if an ordinal number is preceded by a preposition taking the dative case, it takes the dative ending, adding **-n**:

am vierzehnten Mai

on the fourteenth of May

am dreißigsten April

on the thirtieth of April

Here are all forms in more detail.

Ordinal numbers from 'first' to 'nineteenth'

For numbers up to and including the nineteenth add **-te**:

erste

zweite

dritte

vierte

fünfte

sechste

siebte

achte

zehnte

zwölfte

vierzehnte etc.

Heute ist der sechste Mai.

Today is the sixth of May.

Note the slightly irregular forms: **der erste** ('the first'), **der dritte** ('the third') and **der siebte** ('the seventh').

From 'twentieth' upwards

For all numbers from the twentieth upwards add **-ste**:

einundzwanzigste
einunddreißigste

Heute ist der fünfundzwanzigste Mai. Today is the twenty-fifth of May.

Ordinal numbers with dative endings

To indicate on which date something happens, use **am** in German.

Am takes the dative ending

As **am** (**an** + **dem**) is followed by the dative case, an extra **-n** needs to be added to the **-te** and **-ste** endings:

Ich fahre am ersten Juli nach Hamburg. On the first of July, I'm going to Hamburg.

Am fünfzehnten Mai beginnt mein Urlaub. My holidays start on the fifteenth of May.

Habt ihr am dreißigsten Zeit? Are you free on the thirtieth (of this month)?

More expressions

Other frequently used prepositions which require the dative case are **seit** 'since'/'from', **von** 'from' and **zu** 'until':

Er kennt sie seit dem ersten Juni. He has known her since the first of June.

Vom dritten bis zum zweiundzwanzigsten ist das Geschäft geschlossen. The shop is closed from the third to the twenty-second.

Years in German

When referring to years, German does not use the preposition 'in' as in English:

Die Berliner Mauer fiel 1989. The Berlin Wall came down in 1989.

(= neunzehnhundertneunundachtzig)

Goethe wurde 1749 geboren. Goethe was born in 1749.

(= siebzehnhundertneunundvierzig)

It is possible to say **im Jahre**, but this sounds rather pompous:

Goethe wurde *im Jahre 1749* geboren. Goethe was born in the year 1749.

- For more information on preposition and cases, see Unit 24.
- Adjectival endings are explained in Unit 25.

Exercise 26.1

Write out the following numbers.

Example: 435 → vierhundertfünfunddreißig

- 1 1
- 2 5
- 3 13
- 4 21
- 5 37
- 6 287
- 7 967
- 8 1451
- 9 6257
- 10 12327
- 11 55699
- 12 311422
- 13 519612
- 14 2 744329
- 15 5 654386

Exercise 26.2

Here are some important events and festivals in Germany. Write out the numbers using the structure **der erste**, **der zweite** etc. ('the first', 'the second')

etc.). Note that, when writing the date in figures, Germans add a full stop after the ordinal number.

Example: 1. Januar – Neujahr → Der erste Januar ist Neujahr.

- 1 20. März – Frühlingsanfang
- 2 7. Sonntag nach Ostern – Pfingsten
- 3 1. Mai – Maifeiertag
- 4 9. Mai – Muttertag
- 5 3. Oktober – Der Tag der Deutschen Einheit
- 6 11. November – Der Beginn der Faschingszeit
- 7 6. Dezember – Nikolaustag
- 8 24. Dezember – Heiligabend

Exercise 26.3

Write down in full when and where these well-known Austrians and Germans were born.

Example: Dürer, Albrecht, *21. Mai 1471 Nürnberg
→ Albrecht Dürer wurde am einundzwanzigsten Mai 1471 (vierzehnhunderteinundsiebzig) in Nürnberg geboren.

- 1 Luther, Martin, *10. November 1483 Eisleben
- 2 Goethe, Johann Wolfgang von, *28. August 1749 Frankfurt am Main
- 3 Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus, * 27. Januar 1756 Salzburg
- 4 Beethoven, Ludwig van, *17. Dezember 1770 Bonn
- 5 Freud, Siegmund, *6. Mai 1856 Freiburg/Mähren
- 6 Diesel, Rudolf Christian Karl, *18. März 1858 Paris
- 7 Dietrich, Marlene, *27. Dezember, 1901 Berlin
- 8 Wenders, Wim, * 5. September 1942 München

Exercise 26.4

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 Frankfurt has six hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. (Einwohner)
- 2 Berlin has three million four hundred and seventy-one thousand inhabitants. (Einwohner)
- 3 Today is the first of April.
- 4 Tomorrow is the twenty-third.
- 5 The sixteenth of June is a Friday.

- 6 She was born on the seventh of January.
- 7 On the twenty-eighth of February, I am going to Munich.
- 8 The Oktoberfest starts on the twentieth of September.

Checklist	✓
1 How do you form the numbers after twenty? What is different from English?	
2 How do you say what date it is?	
3 What changes about the date when you indicate on which day something happens?	
4 How is English different from German in referring to years?	

UNIT TWENTY-SEVEN

Conjunctions and clauses

What are conjunctions?

If you have more than one clause in a sentence, the clauses are usually connected by a linking word. These linking words are 'conjunctions'. They are words such as 'and', 'or', 'but', 'because'.

Here are some examples of how different conjunctions connect two clauses:

<i>Clause 1</i>	<i>Conjunction</i>	<i>Clause 2</i>
Er arbeitet bei Siemens He works for Siemens	und <i>and</i>	sie arbeitet bei Ford. she works for Ford.
Kommst du heute Abend um sechs Will you come at six tonight	oder <i>or</i>	kannst du dann nicht? aren't you free then?
Sie wohnen seit siebzehn Jahren in England, They've lived in England for seventeen years	aber <i>but</i>	sie sind erst seit einem Jahr in London. they've only been in London for a year.
Er hat nicht geantwortet, He hasn't answered	weil <i>because</i>	er kein Deutsch spricht. he doesn't speak German.

Conjunctions define relations between clauses

The different conjunctions indicate the relationship between these clauses. For example, you can simply add two (or more clauses) by using 'and', or the second clause can give the reason for what is said in the first clause by using 'because'.

Here is an overview of the most important types of relationship:

<i>adding</i>	→ and
<i>alternative</i>	or
<i>reason</i>	because
<i>condition</i>	if
<i>contrast</i>	but, however
<i>time</i>	when

Two main groups in German

In German there are two main groups into which conjunctions can be divided: co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

Co-ordinating conjunctions

The first group comprises conjunctions such as **aber** ‘but’ and **oder** ‘or’ which usually combine two main clauses and do not affect the word order. These are called co-ordinating conjunctions.

Subordinating conjunctions

Examples of subordinating conjunctions are **dass** ‘that’ and **obwohl** ‘although’. Conjunctions of this group normally introduce a subordinate clause and send the finite verb to the end of the clause.

There is no logical reason why certain conjunctions introduce a main clause and others introduce a subordinate clause. You need to learn them by heart. Here are both categories in more detail.

Co-ordinating conjunctions in detail

The most important co-ordinating conjunctions are:

und	and
aber	but
oder	or
denn	because
sondern	but (after a negative statement)

All these conjunctions work in a similar way to English conjunctions. Their meaning and usage is explained in the following examples.

Co-ordinating conjunctions in use

Und

Und is used exactly like ‘and’ in English. It links clauses, ‘adding’ them on:

**John arbeitet bei Ford *und* Peter arbeitet bei Mercedes.
Susi kommt aus Deutschland *und* Renée ist aus Frankreich.**

If the subject is the same in the two clauses which are connected by **und** then you can (but do not need to) repeat it in the second clause:

John arbeitet bei Ford <i>und</i> er verdient gut.	John works for Ford and he earns good money.
John arbeitet bei Ford <i>und</i> verdient gut.	John works for Ford and earns good money.

Aber

Aber is used like the English ‘but’. The second clause contains information contrasting with the information in the first clause:

Ich möchte gern kommen, <i>aber</i> ich habe leider keine Zeit.	I would like to come but unfortunately I’m not free.
Müllers wohnen schon seit einem Jahr auf Mallorca, <i>aber</i> sie sprechen immer noch kein Spanisch.	The Müllers have now been living in Mallorca for a year, but they still don’t speak any Spanish.

Note that there is always a comma in front of **aber**.

Oder

Oder works like the English ‘or’. The second clause expresses an alternative:

Möchtest du fernsehen <i>oder</i> willst du lieber ins Kino gehen?	Would you like to watch television or would you prefer to go to the cinema?
Wir können uns eine Pizza machen <i>oder</i> möchtest du essen gehen?	We could make some pizza or would you like to go for a meal?

At this stage, you will most often use **oder** when you are making suggestions or when you are asking questions.

Denn

Denn works like the English ‘because’. It introduces the clause which gives a reason for the first clause:

**Er kann nicht kommen,
denn er ist noch nicht fertig.**

He can't come because he isn't ready yet.

**Frank möchte Ingenieur werden,
denn er interessiert sich für
Technik.**

Frank would like to become an engineer because he's interested in technical things.

Note that there is always a comma before **denn**.

Sondern

Sondern expresses the idea of ‘but’ after a negative:

**Zürich liegt nicht in Österreich,
sondern in der Schweiz.**

Zürich isn't in Austria but in Switzerland.

**Ich möchte keine Cola,
sondern ein Bier.**

I don't want a Coke but a beer.

Like **denn** and **aber**, **sondern** is preceded by a comma. **Sondern** is used in the sense of ‘but’ after a negative clause (contradicting that negative information).

Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions send the verb to the end

Subordinating conjunctions such as **dass** ‘that’, **obwohl** ‘although’ or **wenn** ‘when’ introduce a subordinate clause and send the finite verb to the end. Here are some examples:

**Meinst du, dass es morgen regnen
wird?**

Do you think that it will rain tomorrow?

**Er ging ins Bett, obwohl er noch
nicht müde war.**

He went to bed although he wasn't tired.

**Er hat nie Zeit, wenn seine
Freundin da ist.**

He's never free when his girlfriend is around.

The most important subordinating conjunctions in German include:

dass	that
obwohl	although
weil	because
als	when (<i>referring to past events</i>)
wenn	if, when, whenever
ob	whether
nachdem	after
während	during

The meaning and usage of the conjunctions you are most likely to use as a beginner are explained in the following examples.

Some subordinating conjunctions in use

Dass

Dass is used like the English ‘that’ after verbs such as **glauben** ‘believe’, **meinen** ‘be of the opinion’, **denken** think or with reported speech (after, for example, **sagen** ‘say’ or **berichten** report):

Glaubst du, dass es morgen schön sein wird?	Do you think that it will be nice tomorrow?
Er sagte, dass er leider keine Zeit hat.	He said that he didn’t have any time.

Obwohl

Obwohl is used to express a qualification, a contrast. The English equivalent is ‘although’:

Wir hatten viel Spaß, obwohl wir gar kein Geld hatten.	We had great fun although we had no money.
Ich muß noch arbeiten, obwohl ich überhaupt keine Lust mehr habe.	I’ve got to do some more work although I don’t really feel like it.

Weil

Weil is used for the English ‘because’. It is similar to **denn**, but is used more frequently in spoken German. However, the meaning of **denn** and **weil** is exactly the same.

Sie haben Max eingestellt, weil er der beste Kandidat ist.	They gave Max the job because he was the best candidate.
---	--

Wir können ihn nicht anrufen, weil ich seine Nummer vergessen habe.	We can't call him because I've forgotten his number.
--	---

Als

Als is used when referring to a single event or a longer period in the past:

Wir waren nicht da, als Jens seinen Unfall hatte.	We weren't there when Jens had his accident.
Ich lebte in Kanada, als ich ein Kind war.	I lived in Canada when I was a child.

Wenn

Wenn has two uses. One of them corresponds to the English 'if':

Wenn du Lust hast, können wir ins Kino gehen.	If you feel like it, we can go to the cinema.
Ich helf dir nicht, wenn du dich nicht anstrengst.	I won't help you if you won't make an effort.

The other use refers to things happening in the past *on a regular basis*:

Wenn er Zeit hatte, ging er immer ins Kino.	Whenever he had the time he went to the cinema.
Sie kamen nach Hause, wenn sie kein Geld mehr hatten.	They went home when they had run out of money.

- The easiest way of checking whether you use **wenn** or **als** in the past tense is to consider whether you can use 'whenever' in English. If you can, then you normally use **wenn** in German.

Here are some examples with **wenn** (regularly in the past or the present):

Er hat nie Zeit, wenn seine Freundin da ist.	He's never free when his girlfriend is visiting.
Wir bleiben zu Hause, wenn es regnet.	We stay at home when it's raining.
Wir hatten schulfrei, wenn es über 25 grad war.	We didn't go to school when it was hotter than 25 degrees Celsius.

Use of commas

You probably noticed in the above examples that every subordinating conjunction is preceded by a comma. This is mandatory in German.

Two verbs in a subordinate clause

If there is more than one verb form in a subordinate clause, the finite verb – the verb which changes its form – moves to the very last position:

Max muss heute leider absagen. → . . . , *weil* **Max absagen muss.**

Ich habe seine Nummer vergessen. → . . . , *weil* **ich seine Nummer vergessen habe.**

Often the finite verb is either a modal verb or an auxiliary verb (**haben** or **sein**).

Starting with a subordinate clause

It is also quite common in German to start a sentence with a subordinate clause. In this case the finite verb of the subordinate clause goes to the end and the finite verb of the main clause moves to the front of its clause:

Weil sie einen Freund aus Berlin hat, lernt sie Deutsch.

Als er ein Kind war, spielte er viel Fußball.

The two finite verbs stand next to each other, separated by a comma.

Conjunctions and clauses – the main points

Here are some points to remember about conjunctions and clauses:

- If you are linking two clauses with **und** and the subject is the same in both of them, you don't need to repeat it in the second clause.
- **Denn** and **weil** both mean 'because'.
- **Wenn** and **als** have a slightly different meaning in German, but English does not differentiate and uses only 'when'.
- In a subordinate clause, the finite verb is always at the end.
- There is always a comma before conjunctions introducing a subordinate clause and before **aber** and **denn**.

Exercise 27.1

Join the following sentences by using **und**, **aber**, **oder**, **sondern** or **denn**.

Example: Basel liegt nicht in Österreich. Es liegt in der Schweiz.
→ Basel liegt nicht in Österreich, sondern in der Schweiz.

- 1 Das ist nicht Sean Connery. Das ist Roger Moore.
- 2 Michael kann nicht kommen. Er muss arbeiten.
- 3 Matthias ist Student. Er arbeitet halbtags in einem Supermarkt.
- 4 Möchtest du zu Hause bleiben? Willst du ins Kino gehen?
- 5 Ulrike spricht nicht sehr viel Englisch. Sie spricht fließend Französisch und Italienisch.
- 6 Im Sommer fährt Familie Scholz nach Mallorca. Das Wetter dort ist sehr angenehm.

Exercise 27.2

Complete the sentences by using **dass**, **weil**, **obwohl**, **wenn** or **als**:

- 1 Er hat nie Zeit, ____ er zu viel arbeitet.
- 2 Glaubst du, ____ er noch kommt?
- 3 Peter ist immer glücklich, ____ es Freitag ist.
- 4 Er meint, ____ Deutschland ein wirklich interessantes Land ist.
- 5 Sie lernt Deutsch, ____ ihre Großeltern aus Hamburg stammen.
- 6 Sie gehen spazieren, ____ es regnet.
- 7 Wir können essen gehen, ____ du Zeit hast.
- 8 ____ sie ein Kind war, lebte sie im Ausland.
- 9 Immer ____ er Geburtstag hatte, machten sie einen Ausflug in den Zoo.
- 10 ____ Valentin sieben Jahre alt war, ist er nach Hannover gezogen.

Exercise 27.3

Link the two sentences by using the conjunction in brackets. Make any necessary changes to the word order.

Example: Viele lernen Deutsch. Die Sprache ist sehr wichtig. (weil)
→ Viele lernen Deutsch, **weil** die Sprache sehr wichtig ist.

- 1 Er mag Deutschland. Es gibt so viele Biersorten. (weil)
- 2 Sie lebt gern in Berlin. Die Stadt ist oft hektisch und anstrengend. (obwohl)

- 3 Die Leute machen sich Sorgen. Die Arbeitslosigkeit ist sehr hoch. (weil)
 4 Deutschland ist ein reiches Land. Es gibt auch wirtschaftliche Probleme.
 (obwohl)

Now rewrite the sentences, by starting with the **weil** or **obwohl** clause.

Example: → *Weil* die Sprache sehr wichtig ist, lernen viele Deutsch.

Exercise 27.4

Translate the following sentences into German:

- 1 He is an engineer and works for BMW.
- 2 I don't want a coffee but a tea.
- 3 I would like to come but I have to work.
- 4 She thinks that this is a very good idea.
- 5 I like Berlin, because it is an interesting city.
- 6 When I was a child, I lived in Oxford.
- 7 Although it is very cold, he is going for a walk.
- 8 We can go to the cinema, if you have time.

Checklist	✓
1 When can you drop the subject in the second clause?	
2 Which conjunctions introduce a subordinate clause?	
3 What happens to the finite verb in a subordinate clause?	
4 What are the different meanings of wenn and als ?	
5 What is the difference between denn and weil ?	

UNIT TWENTY-EIGHT

Word order

Word order in English

English has fairly rigid rules about the order of words in a sentence. The basic pattern is the order *subject – finite verb – object or other elements* (S–V–O).

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite verb</i>	<i>Object or other elements</i>
Peter	likes	music.
The dog	bites	the man.
We	are going	to Italy next week.

Principles in German

German word order is more flexible than English word order. However, there are still patterns and rules.

Position of the verb

The most important rules relate to the position of the verb:

- In most German sentences the finite verb has to be in the second position.
- If there are two verb forms in a sentence, one moves to the end of the clause (the infinitive or participle), while the other – the finite verb – remains the second item.
- In subordinating clauses the finite verb is sent to the end.

Time – Manner – Place

Another rule refers to the sequencing of various elements in a sentence. Expressions of *time* come before *manner* (how something is done) and the description of a *place* (Time – Manner – Place).

Here are all forms in more detail.

The verb in second position

Basic principle

The main rule for word order in German is that the verb must be in second position in statements:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>finite verb</i>	<i>object or other elements</i>
Er	arbeitet	bei Siemens in Berlin.
Die Kinder	schlafen	immer sehr lange in den Ferien.
Wir	fahren	nächste Woche mit meinen Eltern nach Italien.

You can see that often the basic pattern in German is just like the English one: *subject – finite verb – object or other elements*.

More flexibility in German

But German word order is much more flexible than English. You can put many other elements into the first position apart from the subject. It is very common to have descriptions of time or place in first position, for example. So the above sentences could just as well be phrased like this:

<i>Place or expression of time</i>	<i>finite verb</i>	<i>subject</i>	<i>object or other elements</i>
In Berlin	arbeitet	er	bei Siemens.
In den Ferien	schlafen	die Kinder	immer sehr lange.
Nächste Woche	fahren	wir	mit meinen Eltern nach Italien.

Subject–verb inversion

If the subject is not in first position, it is placed directly after the finite verb. This feature in German grammar is called *subject–verb inversion*. For English speakers it often causes problems, as in an English sentence the subject would still precede the verb: ‘Next week we go to Italy with my parents.’

Remember, in German the finite verb comes before the subject if you have the expression of time in first place.

Other words which start a sentence

Any other element can come before the finite verb, often implying special emphasis.

So, for example, if you want to stress that you are going to Italy with your parents and not somebody else, you would put that element in first place:

Mit meinen Eltern *fahren wir nächste Woche nach Italien.*

Other words or expressions frequently used as the first item in a sentence include:

danach	afterwards
dann	then
deswegen	therefore
glücklicherweise	fortunately
leider	unfortunately
manchmal	sometimes
zum Glück	fortunately

Remember to apply the *subject–verb* inversion in all these instances:

Deswegen *konnte ich nicht kommen.* Therefore I couldn't come.
Zum Glück *sprachen sie Deutsch.* Fortunately they spoke German.

Two verbs in a sentence

It is also common to have two verb forms in a sentence. If this happens, one verb form – the finite verb – goes into the second position, while the other verb form (the infinitive or the participle) is sent to the end of the clause.

In German this principle is called the **Satzklammer** 'sentence bracket'. This literally means that the two verb forms 'bracket' the clause. Note that the verb in the second position – the finite verb – needs to agree with the subject and change its endings. Here are examples of this principle.

- modal verbs used with another verb:

Hier *darf man nicht rauchen.* You must not smoke here.
Ich *muss jetzt unbedingt Jens anrufen.* I absolutely have to phone Jens now.

- The future tense formed with **werden**:

Was *wirst du machen?* What will you do? (What are you going to do?)

Petra wird nächstes Jahr nach Australien gehen. Petra is going to move to Australia next year.

- The present perfect tense:

Gestern sind wir ins Kino gegangen. Yesterday we went to the cinema.

Sie haben mich um acht Uhr angerufen. They phoned me at eight o'clock.

Separable verbs

- These also follow the **Satzklammer** principle: in a main clause the finite verb form is in the second position while the prefix goes to the end of the clause:

Die Kinder sehen in den Ferien lange fern. The children watch a lot of television during the holidays.

Yes or no questions and the imperative

There are instances where the finite verb is not in second position but comes first.

- Yes or no questions:

Kommst du morgen mit mir ins Kino? Are you coming with me to the cinema tomorrow?

Kaufst du mir ein Eis? Will you buy me an ice cream?

- The imperative:

Gib mir bitte das Buch! Give me the book.

Öffnen Sie die Tür! Open the door.

- Subordinate clause before main clause:

Wenn du morgen kommst, kannst du mir ja helfen. If you come tomorrow, you can help me.

Weil er keine Lust hatte, ist er nicht ins Kino gegangen. Because he didn't feel like it, he didn't go to the cinema.

In all of these, the word order is verb – subject – other elements.

Subordinating clauses

The finite verb goes last

In subordinate clauses the finite verb also goes at the end of the clause. But here the rule is slightly different. In subordinate clauses the rule that the finite verb must be in second position does not apply. Instead, it goes to the end of the clause. Subordinate clauses are introduced by conjunctions such as **weil**, **wenn**, **dass**, etc.

Ich ruf dich an, wenn ich fertig bin. I'll call you when I am ready.

Ich hab' doch gesagt, dass er ein I said that he is an idiot.

Idiot ist.

More than one verb in subordinating clauses

One of the best-known rules in German is the stacking-up of verb forms at the end of the clause. This happens in subordinate clauses when you are using the perfect tense or a modal verb:

**Ich habe es meinem Freund
versprochen.**

Ich muss jetzt nach Hause gehen, weil ich es meinem Freund versprochen habe.

Wir sind nach Italien gefahren.

Wir konnten dich leider nicht besuchen, weil wir nach Italien gefahren sind.

The rule for the order of verbs at the end of the clause is quite simple: place the verb with the verb ending – the finite verb – right at the end of the clause.

Starting a sentence with a subordinating clause

It is also possible to start a sentence with a subordinate clause. As you would expect, the finite verb of the subordinate clause goes to the end of its clause, but the finite verb in the main clause moves up to the front of its clause:

Weil es heute regnet, bleibe ich zu Hause.

Because it is raining today, I'll stay at home.

Obwohl sein Vater Deutscher ist, spricht er kein Deutsch.

Although his father is German, he doesn't speak German.

The two finite verbs stand next to each other, separated by a comma.

Time, manner, place

Basic principles

As we saw earlier, expressions of time or place or any other element can quite easily occur in the first position of a sentence if you want to put more emphasis on a particular item.

However, there are a number of guidelines for elements which appear after the verb. Normally they follow the order

- Time (*when?*)
- Manner (*how?*)
- Place (*where/where to?*)

Following the Time – Manner – Place rule, a description of time should come before the other two:

	<i>Time (when?)</i>	<i>Manner (how?)</i>	<i>Place (where/where to?)</i>	
Ich fahre	am Wochenende	mit dem Bus	nach Paris.	
Peter kauft	nach der Arbeit	noch schnell	im Supermarkt	ein.

Other combinations

Often not all three elements are present. However, the order of the remaining items should follow the Time – Manner – Place rule:

	<i>Time (when?)</i>	<i>Manner (how?)</i>	<i>Place (where/where to?)</i>
Ich fahre		mit dem Auto	nach Deutschland.
Sie gehen	heute Abend		ins Kino.

Subject–verb inversion

If one of the elements comes in first position, don't forget to apply the subject–verb inversion (the subject comes after the finite verb):

Ins Kino **gehen** **sie** **heute Abend.**

Exercise 28.1

Start these sentences with the word or phrase in italics and make any other necessary changes in the word order.

Example: Sie fahren *in den Ferien* immer nach Italien.
 → In den Ferien fahren sie immer nach Italien.

- 1 Er fängt seine Arbeit *normalerweise* um acht Uhr an.
- 2 Jörg geht *danach* noch ins Fitnesscenter und spielt Badminton.
- 3 Ich muss den Termin *leider* absagen.
- 4 Am Wochenende besuchen sie *meistens* ihre Eltern.
- 5 Kathrin hat sich *deswegen* so gefreut.
- 6 Er hat *zum Glück* noch eine Kopie gemacht.

Exercise 28.2

Put the phrases in parentheses into the appropriate position. Remember to follow the Time–Manner–Place rule.

- 1 Sie gehen in das neue italienische Restaurant. (am Wochenende)
- 2 Robert fährt am Wochenende zu seinen Eltern. (mit dem Auto)
- 3 Ich habe gestern mit Angela Tennis gespielt. (im Park)
- 4 Ich muss meinen Sohn in Italien anrufen. (noch schnell)
- 5 Er trifft sich heute Abend mit Freunden. (in der Kneipe)
- 6 Ich bin das erste Mal mit dem Zug nach Paris gefahren. (Weihnachten)

Exercise 28.3

The sentences are all mixed up. Put the words in the correct order. Start with the word in italics.

Examples: ist / gestern / gefahren / *er* / in den Urlaub
 → Er ist gestern in den Urlaub gefahren.
 am Wochenende / besuchen? / *willst* / du / uns
 → Willst du uns am Wochenende besuchen?

- 1 Sie / mir / *können* / helfen?
- 2 tanzen / Tango / kann / *er* / sehr gut
- 3 eine Weltreise / Michael / *nächstes Jahr* / möchte / machen
- 4 im Januar / die Schule / abschließen / wird / *sie*
- 5 im Sommer / fahren? / *wirst* / du / wieder nach Mallorca
- 6 sein Abitur / *er* / gemacht / hat / letztes Jahr
- 7 *die Kinder* / fern / sehen / den ganzen Tag
- 8 haben / einen Ausflug / *gestern* / gemacht / wir / an die See
- 9 Sie / nicht / dürfen / rauchen / *hier*

- 10 schon um fünf Uhr / *heute Morgen* / ist / aufgestanden / sie
 11 *die Leute* / gefreut / haben / sich / sehr über unsere Geschenke
 12 *er* / bereitet / auf ein wichtiges Meeting / vor / sich /
 13 bekommen / hat / einen neuen Chef / *die Deutsche Bahn*
 14 in den letzten Jahren / *die Bevölkerung Berlins* / gewachsen / ist / nicht stark
 15 weiterhin / haben / wird / eine wichtige Rolle / *Deutschland* / in Europa

Exercise 28.4

Translate the following sentences:

- 1 I'll call you when I am ready.
- 2 He has to go home because it is late.
- 3 London is a fascinating city although it is very expensive.
- 4 I wanted to go by bus because it is cheaper.
- 5 Although his mother comes from Germany, he doesn't speak any German.
- 6 Because Munich is very beautiful, many people want to live there.
- 7 When I have more time I will spend a year in Austria or Germany.

Checklist	✓
1 German word order is quite flexible, but what do you usually find in second position?	
2 Give five conjunctions which can introduce a subordinate clause.	
3 When do you have a subject-verb inversion?	
4 Which rule applies in subordinate clauses?	
5 Is there a typical order in which you describe where, how or when something happens?	
6 In which instances do you find two or more finite verbs next to each other?	

KEY TO EXERCISES AND CHECKLISTS

UNIT 1

Checklist

1 You use capital letters at the beginning of sentences and for all nouns. 2 You use the letter **ß** after **ei** and **ie** and after **a**, **o** and **u** if these vowels are pronounced long. 3 Umlauts are important because they change the pronunciation and the meaning of words. 4 English gender is biological (persons are masculine or feminine, and things, concepts and ideas are neuter). German gender is grammatical (things can be masculine, feminine or neuter). 5 Verbs change: **ich gehe** or **sie gehen**. Articles change, for example when the noun is the object of the sentence. Adjectives change according to the noun. 6 The position of the verb. 7 No, there is only one tense.

UNIT 2

Exercise 2.1

ich -e, du -st, Sie -en, er -t, wir -en, ihr -t, Sie -en, sie -en

Exercise 2.2

1 wohnst, wohne; 2 studierst, studiere; 3 hörst, höre; 4 lernst, lerne; 5 trinkst, trinke

1 Wo wohnen Sie? 2 Was studieren Sie? 3 Welche Musik hören Sie gern? 4 Welche Sprache lernen Sie im Moment? 5 Was trinken Sie gern?

Exercise 2.3

1 heiße; 2 Kommst; 3 wohnt; 4 geht; 5 heißen; 6 heiße; 7 machen; 8 studiere; 9 kommt; 10 macht; 11 wohnt; 12 kommen; 13 gehen;

14 bleiben; 15 lernen; 16 liegt; 17 Kommt; 18 kommst; 19 spielen; 20 finden.

Exercise 2.4

1 Ich wohne in Berlin. 2 Er trinkt Bier. 3 Sie spielt Tennis. 4 Carla und Sophia spielen Fußball. 5 (a) Woher kommst du? (b) Woher kommen Sie? 6 (a) Wo wohnst du? (b) Wo wohnen Sie? (c) Wo wohnt ihr?

Checklist

1 Take off the ending **-en**. 2 **-e, -st, -en, -t**. 3 **-en, -t, -en, -en**. 4 There is only one. 5 A finite verb is the verb with the personal ending.

UNIT 3

Exercise 3.1

1 ich arbeite, du arbeitest, Sie arbeiten, er/sie/es arbeitet, wir arbeiten, ihr arbeitet, Sie arbeiten, sie arbeiten; 2 ich tanze, du tanzt, Sie tanzen, er/sie/es tanzt, wir tanzen, ihr tanzt, Sie tanzen, sie tanzen; 3 ich heiße, du heißt, Sie heißen, er/sie/es heißt, wir heißen, ihr heißt, Sie heißen, sie heißen; 4 ich reise, du reist, Sie reisen, er/sie/es reist, wir reisen, ihr reist, Sie reisen, sie reisen.

Exercise 3.2

bleiben	✗	helfen	✓	schreiben	✗	stehen	✗
essen	✓	kommen	✗	schwimmen	✗	tragen	✓
fahren	✓	nehmen	✓	sehen	✓	treffen	✓
geben	✓	lesen	✓	singen	✗	trinken	✗
gehen	✗	schlafen	✓	sprechen	✓	waschen	✓

Exercise 3.3

1 Er heißt Hans Homann. 2 Er kommt aus Wien. 3 Er arbeitet für das Österreichische Fernsehen. 4 Er spricht natürlich Deutsch, aber auch Englisch und Spanisch. 5 Er liest gern Kriminalromane. 6 Er fährt auch

gern Ski und schwimmt viel. 7 Er sieht gern alte Filme mit Marlene Dietrich. 8 Er schläft oft lange. 9 Er reist gern. 10 Und er hilft am Wochenende alten Leuten.

Exercise 3.4

1 Sie liest ein Buch. 2 Peter spricht Deutsch und Englisch. 3 Wir sprechen Deutsch und Spanisch. 4 Magda isst gern Pizza. 5 Ich nehme ein Bier, bitte. 6 Er nimmt ein Bier. 7 Sie trägt ein T-Shirt. 8 Es regnet.

Checklist

1 **du** and **er/sie/es**. 2 Stems ending in **d** or **t**. 3 The ending for **du** is **t**. 4 **a** → **ä**, **e** → **i**, **e** → **ie**

UNIT 4

Exercise 4.1

1 Hast; 2 haben; 3 hat; 4 Habt; 5 hat; 6 Haben; 7 habe; 8 haben

Exercise 4.2

1 Sind, bin; 2 Bist; 3 Seid, sind; 4 sind; 5 ist, ist

Exercise 4.3

1 ich habe, du hast, Sie haben, er/sie/es hat, wir haben, ihr habt, Sie haben, sie haben. 2 ich bin, du bist, Sie sind, er/sie/es ist, wir sind, ihr seid, Sie sind, sie sind

Exercise 4.4

1 Wir sind aus New York. 2 Sie sind aus Australien. 3 Mario ist aus München. 4 (a) Bist du Herr Becker? (b) Sind Sie Herr Becker? 5 Er hat eine Schwester. 6 (a) Hast du Zeit? (b) Haben Sie Zeit? 7 Sie sind Studenten. 8 Berlin ist die Hauptstadt von Deutschland. 9 Ich habe eine Wohnung. 10 Wir haben Hunger.

Checklist

1 ich bin, du bist, Sie sind, er/sie/es ist, wir sind, ihr seid, Sie sind, sie sind. 2 hast and hat 3 Hunger haben, Durst haben, Zeit haben, Langeweile haben, Kopfschmerzen haben

UNIT 5*Exercise 5.1*

1 steht ... auf; 2 fängt ... an; 3 ruft ... an; 4 hört ... auf; 5 kauft ... ein; 6 sieht ... fern; 7 geht ... aus; 8 schläft ... ein

Exercise 5.2

aufstehen	✓	verlieren		abfahren	✓	anrufen	✓
verstehen		fernsehen	✓	aufhören	✓	stattfinden	✓
einladen	✓	mitkommen	✓	bezahlen		erzählen	
aufräumen	✓	frühstücken		einkaufen	✓	benutzen	

Exercise 5.3

1 stehen ... auf; 2 räumen ... auf; 3 kauft ... ein; 4 Kommst ... mit; 5 hört ... auf; 6 findet ... statt; 7 sieht ... fern; 8 fährt ... ab; 9 laden ... ein; 10 ruft ... an

Exercise 5.4

1 Ich stehe um sechs Uhr auf. 2 Ich fange meine Arbeit um acht Uhr an. 3 Das Meeting findet am Montag statt. 4 Wann fährt der Zug ab? 5 Wann kommt der Zug an? 6 Michael räumt auf und seine Kinder sehen fern. 7 Kommen Sie/Kommst du mit ins Kino?

Checklist

1 The first syllable, the prefix. 2 It goes right at the end. 3 Each prefix goes to the end of its clause. 4 Check in the dictionary. If the verb is separable, it will have *sep* after the main entry. 5 Non-separable prefixes include **be-**, **er-**, **ge-** and **ver-**.

UNIT 6*Exercise 6.1*

1 Bringen; 2 Schreiben; 3 Erzählen; 4 Warten; 5 Fangen ... an; 6 Hören ... auf; 7 Seien; 8 Haben

Exercise 6.2

1 Bring; 2 Schreib; 3 Erzähl; 4 Warte; 5 Fang ... an; 6 Hör ... auf; 7 Sei; 8 Hab

Exercise 6.3

1 Iss mehr Gemüse. 2 Fahr mehr mit dem Fahrrad. 3 Hör mit dem Rauchen auf. 4 Sieh weniger fern. 5 Nimm weniger Tabletten. 6 Lies mehr Bücher. 7 Schlaf mehr. 8 Relax mehr.

Exercise 6.4

(a) 1 Bitte fangen Sie an. 2 Öffnen Sie das Fenster. 3 Bringen Sie mir die Rechnung, bitte. 4 Seien Sie vorsichtig. (b) 1 Bitte fang an. 2 Öffne das Fenster. 3 Bring mir die Rechnung, bitte. 4 Sei vorsichtig. (c) 1 Fangt an. 2 Öffnet das Fenster. 3 Bringt mir die Rechnung. 4 Seid vorsichtig.

Checklist

1 There are three. 2 Use the stem of the verb without an ending. 3 Yes. 4 The verb is in first position.

UNIT 7*Exercise 7.1*

1 Wie; 2 Wo; 3 Wie; 4 Wo; 5 Was; 6 Woher; 7 Wie; 8 Wann; 9 Wie; 10 Wie.

Exercise 7.2

1 Wie ist Ihr Name? 2 Was sind Sie von Beruf? 3 Wann beginnt Ihre Arbeit? 4 Ist Ihre Arbeit interessant? 5 Haben Sie Kinder? 6 Sind Sie verheiratet? 7 Was machen Sie in Ihrer Freizeit? 8 Sprechen Sie Spanisch?

Exercise 7.3

1 Wie ist dein/Ihr Name? 2 Woher kommst du/kommen Sie? 3 Wie ist deine/Ihre E-Mail-Adresse? 4 Wie viel Uhr ist es? 5 Bist du/Sind Sie verheiratet? 6 Hast du/Haben Sie Kinder? 7 Sprichst du/Sprechen Sie Englisch?

Checklist

1 **Wie** 2 At the beginning. 3 After the question word. 4 **woher** and **wohin**

UNIT 8*Exercise 8.1*

1 der; 2 der; 3 das; 4 die; 5 die; 6 der; 7 der; 8 das.

Exercise 8.2

Konditorei	<i>f</i>	Auto	<i>nt</i>	Tasse	<i>f</i>	Computer	<i>m</i>
Lampe	<i>f</i>	Märchen	<i>nt</i>	Metzgerei	<i>f</i>	Museum	<i>nt</i>
Kirche	<i>f</i>	Emigration	<i>f</i>	Zentrum	<i>nt</i>	Religion	<i>f</i>
Liberalismus	<i>m</i>	Nation	<i>f</i>	Demokratie	<i>f</i>	Instrument	<i>nt</i>
Zeitung	<i>f</i>	Kino	<i>nt</i>	Büro	<i>nt</i>	Terror	<i>m</i>
Meinung	<i>f</i>	Universität	<i>f</i>	Solidarität	<i>f</i>	Motor	<i>m</i>
Flasche	<i>f</i>	Modernismus	<i>m</i>	Märchen	<i>nt</i>	Kultur	<i>f</i>

1 -ismus; -er; -or 2 -ei; -e; -ung; -ion; -ie; tät; ur 3 -o; -chen; -um

Exercise 8.3

1 *Berlin* ist eine fantastische Stadt. 2 *Das Hotel*, wo wir wohnen, ist sehr komfortabel. 3 *Der Service* ist ausgezeichnet und *das Essen* ist gut. 4 *Die Woche* geht so schnell vorbei. 5 *Die Landschaft* um *Berlin* und besonders die *Seen* sind sehr schön. 6 *Heute Abend* gehen wir in die *Kneipe* und feiern unseren letzten *Tag* in *Berlin*.

Exercise 8.4

1 *Der Ferrari* ist sehr schnell. 2 *Der Tisch* und *das Fenster* sind kaputt. 3 *Die Tochter* heißt *Marianna*. 4 *Die Zeitung* ist zu teuer. 5 *Die Rose* ist sehr schön. 6 *Das Kino* ist geschlossen. 7 *Die Fußballmannschaft* ist schlecht. 8 *Das Bier* kostet zwei Euro. 9 *Das Stadtzentrum* ist sehr alt. 10 *Ist der Computer* neu? 11 *Das Mädchen* ist fünf und *der Junge* ist sieben Jahre alt. 12 *Der Käse* ist aus *Frankreich*.

Checklist

1 Nouns, including objects, can be masculine, feminine or neuter. Grammatical gender requires no inherent logical relationship between a noun and its 'sex'. 2 **der/ein, die/eine, das/ein**. 3 Masculine: **-er, -ig, -ismus, -ist, -ling, -or**. Feminine: **-ei, -enz, -heit, -ie, -ion, -tät, -schaft, -ung, -ur**. Neuter: **-chen, -lein, -ma, -ment, -o, -um**. 4 They are spelled with an initial capital letter.

UNIT 9*Exercise 9.1*

2 die Blumentöpfe; 3 die Bücher; 4 die Kühlschränke; 5 die Gläser; 6 die Mütter; 7 die Mäntel; 8 die Regale; 9 die Tassen; 10 die Teppiche; 11 die Zeitungen; 12 die Zimmer

Exercise 9.2

1 Tage; 2 Kurse; 3 Orangensäfte; 4 Gäste; 5 Schnäpse; 6 Tassen; 7 Tomaten; 8 Meinungen; 9 die Städte; 10 Bratwürste; 11 Schiffe; 12 Boote; 13 Häuser; 14 Bücher; 15 Länder; 16 Hotels; 17 Colas; 18 Büros; 19 Tipps; 20 Clubs

Exercise 9.3

(1) masculine: **-e**; umlaut + **-e** (2) neuter: **-e**; umlaut + **-er** (3) feminine: **-e**; **-en**; umlaut + **-e**

Exercise 9.4

1 Ich möchte zwei Flaschen, bitte. 2 Zwei Bratwürste, bitte. 3 Die Äpfel sind sehr süß. 4 Sie hat zwei Schwestern und zwei Brüder. 5 Sie liest drei Zeitungen. 6 Die Wohnung hat vier Zimmer. 7 Sie spricht fünf Sprachen. 8 Die Party sind immer interessant.

Checklist

1 They add **-e**. For other changes see p. 51. 2 They add **-n** or **-en**. For other changes see pp. 51–2. 3 They add **-e** (and no umlaut). For other changes see p. 52. 4 They add **-s**. 5 The plural form is usually given in third place following the *gender* and the *genitive ending*.

UNIT 10*Exercise 10.1*

1 Der Mann geht ins Kino. 2 Das Kind spielt mit den Autos. 3 Nach dem Essen trinken die Leute noch Kaffee. 4 Die Katze heißt Cassandra. 5 In der Garage steht das Auto. 6 Um acht Uhr verlässt die Nachbarin das Haus.

Exercise 10.2

1 Ich schenke *der Frau* (1) (*dative*) *ein Buch* (2) (*accusative*). 2 Er kauft *dem Mädchen* (1) (*dative*) *ein Eis* (2) (*accusative*). 3 Herr Schulz zeigt *dem Gast* (1) (*dative*) *seinen Garten* (2) (*accusative*). 4 Der Kellner bringt *dem Mann* (1) (*dative*) *das Essen* (2) (*accusative*).

Exercise 10.3

The indefinite article:

	<i>accusative</i>		<i>dative</i>		<i>genitive</i>	
<i>masculine</i>	einen	✓	einem	✓	eines	✓
<i>feminine</i>	eine		einer	✓	einer	✓
<i>neuter</i>	ein		einem	✓	eines	✓

The definite article:

	<i>accusative</i>		<i>dative</i>		<i>genitive</i>	
<i>masculine</i>	den	✓	dem	✓	des	✓
<i>feminine</i>	die		der	✓	der	✓
<i>neuter</i>	das		dem	✓	des	✓

Checklist

1 There are three principles. 2 First, the position or function of the verb (is it the subject, object or indirect object?). Second, the verb (does it require

the direct object, dative case or genitive case?). Third the preposition determines which case follows. 3 You use the nominative case. 4 You normally use the accusative case. 5 You normally use the dative case. 6 The endings of words linked with nouns such as definite and indefinite articles change. 7 An 'indirect' object is in the accusative case if it is preceded by a preposition which takes the accusative. 8 A 'direct' object is in the dative case if it follows a verb which takes the dative.

UNIT 11

Exercise 11.1

1 ein, Der; 2 ein, Das; 3 eine, Die; 4 eine, Die; 5 ein, Das; 6 ein, Der; 7 Die; 8 Die

Exercise 11.2

1 Morgen fahren wir nach Italien. 2 Meine Mutter heißt Karin. 3 Hast du heute Zeit? 4 Im Sommer wohnen wir in Berlin. 5 Trinkt er gerne Bier?

Exercise 11.3

1 Das ist ein Haus. 2 Das Haus ist sehr alt. 3 Der Mann heißt Mario. 4 Er ist Ingenieur. 5 Die Zeitung ist sehr interessant. 6 Aldi ist ein Supermarkt in Deutschland. 7 Wo sind die Kinder?

Checklist

1 It is the subject of the sentence. 2 You also use the nominative after **werden** and after **sein**. 3 You ask the question 'Who or what is doing the action?'

UNIT 12

Exercise 12.1

1 Ich brauche eine Lampe. 2 Ich brauche eine Waschmaschine. 3 Ich brauche einen CD-Spieler. 4 Ich brauche einen Videorekorder. 5 Ich brauche ein Handy. 6 Ich brauche ein Sofa. 7 Ich brauche einen Kühlschrank. 8 Ich brauche einen Küchentisch. 9 Ich brauche ein Bücherregal. 10 Ich brauche eine Blumenvase. 11 Ich brauche einen Teppich. 12 Ich brauche eine Mikrowelle.

Exercise 12.2

1 einen; 2 eine; 3 meine; 4 meinen; 5 das; 6 die; 7 den; 8 die

Exercise 12.3

1 Ich nehme einen Kaffee und einen Tee. 2 Ich nehme eine Flasche Bier.
3 Sie isst eine Wurst/ein Würstchen. 4 Der Mann kauft den Computer. 5
Die Frau kauft den Videorekorder. 6 Das Kind liest das Buch. 7 Das Buch
ist für meine Schwester. 8 Die CD ist für meinen Bruder. 9 Wir gehen
durch den Park. 10 Ich bin für die Idee.

Checklist

1 As the 'direct' object, after verbs taking the accusative case and after prepositions taking the accusative. 2 No, only for masculine nouns. 3 It has 'vtr' listed after the main entry. 4 Verbs: **sehen** 'to see', **essen** 'to eat', **kaufen** 'to buy', **trinken** 'to drink', **möchten** 'would like'. Prepositions: **bis** 'until', **durch** through, **für** 'for', **ohne** 'without'.

UNIT 13

Exercise 13.1

1 Sie gibt dem Großvater ein Buch über Churchill. 2 Sie gibt der Mutter einen Strauß Blumen. 3 Sie gibt dem Vater eine Flasche Wein. 4 Sie gibt dem Sohn eine CD von Fatboy Slim. 5 Sie gibt der Tochter ein T-Shirt. 6 Sie gibt dem Baby einen Ball.

Exercise 13.2

1 dem 2 dem 3 der 4 einem 5 zum 6 zur 7 der 8 einer 9 der 10 dem 11 den Leuten 12 den Mitarbeitern

Exercise 13.3

1 Sie gibt dem Baby ein Buch. 2 Paulina gibt dem Kind die CD. 3 Er gibt dem Großvater eine Flasche Wein. 4 Er folgt dem Mann. 5 Das Telefon gehört dem Fahrer. 6 Peter hilft dem Mädchen. 7 Er gibt den Kindern einen Fußball.

Checklist

1 The dative is used for the 'indirect' object, after verbs taking the dative case and after prepositions taking the dative. 2 Yes. 3 The endings for the most common modifiers are:

<i>modifier</i>	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
	<i>der Mann</i>	<i>die Frau</i>	<i>das Kind</i>	<i>die Gäste</i>
<i>definite article</i>	<i>dem Mann</i>	<i>der Frau</i>	<i>dem Kind</i>	<i>den Gästen</i>
<i>indefinite article</i>	<i>einem Mann</i>	<i>einer Frau</i>	<i>einem Kind</i>	<i>– Gästen</i>
<i>negative article</i>	<i>keinem Mann</i>	<i>keiner Frau</i>	<i>keinem Kind</i>	<i>keinen Gästen</i>
<i>possessives</i>	<i>meinem Mann</i>	<i>deiner Frau</i>	<i>seinem Kind</i>	<i>unseren Gästen</i>

4 Yes, in the plural.

UNIT 14

Exercise 14.1

1 Das ist die Gitarre von meinem Bruder. 2 Das ist der Sportwagen von meiner Frau. 3 Das ist das Spielzeug von meinem Kind. 4 Das ist die Frau von meinem Chef. 5 Da vorne steht die Freundin von meinem Sohn. 6 Die Mutter von meinem Freund ist Zahnärztin. 7 Der Manager von meiner Bank ist nicht sehr freundlich. 8 Die Meinung von meinen Freunden ist mir sehr wichtig.

Exercise 14.2

1 *meines* Sohnes; 2 *der* Sängerin; 3 *des* Buches; 4 *meines* Yoga-Lehrers; 5 *meiner* Chefin; 6 *meines* neuen Computers 7 *des* schlechten Wetters; 8 *ihrer* Mittagspause

Exercise 14.3

1 Das ist das Buch meines Bruders. 2 Das ist das Auto meiner Schwester. 3 Dies sind die Freunde meines Kindes. 4 Das ist Paulas Tasche. 5 Es war Boris Beckers Fehler.

Checklist

1 The genitive is determined by its role in a sentence or clause (indicating possession or ownership), and a number of prepositions require the genitive case. 2 Yes. 3 The endings for the most common modifiers are:

<i>modifier</i>	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>definite</i>	<i>des Mannes</i>	<i>der Frau</i>	<i>des Kindes</i>	<i>der Gäste</i>
<i>indefinite</i>	<i>eines Mannes</i>	<i>einer Frau</i>	<i>eines Kindes</i>	<i>–</i>
<i>possessive</i>	<i>meines Mannes</i>	<i>meiner Frau</i>	<i>meines Kindes</i>	<i>meiner Gäste</i>

4 Yes, masculine and neuter nouns add **-es**.

UNIT 15

Exercise 15.1

1 Er; 2 Sie; 3 Sie; 4 Es; 5 Sie; 6 Sie; 7 Es; 8 Sie; 9 Es; 10 Er

Exercise 15.2

1 Ja, ich kaufe es. 2 Ja, ich kenne ihn. 3 Ja, ich kenne sie. 4 Ja, ich habe es. 5 Ja, ich trinke ihn. 6 Ja, ich möchte sie. 7 Ja, ich mag sie. 8 Ja, ich besuche dich. 9 Ja, ich besuche euch. 10 Ja, ich liebe dich.

Exercise 15.3

1 ihr; 2 mir; 3 ihm; 4 ihnen; 5 dir; 6 Ihnen; 7 mir; 8 ihnen; 9 uns 10 euch.

Exercise 15.4

1 Ruf mich an/Rufen Sie mich an. 2 Die Blumen sind für dich./Die Blumen sind für Sie. 3 Besuchst du uns?/Besuchen Sie mich? 4 Wie geht es dir?/Wie geht es Ihnen? 5 Mir geht es gut. 6 Kannst du mir helfen?/ Können Sie mir helfen? 7 Es tut mir Leid.

Checklist

1 ich, mich, dich, Sie, ihn, sie, es, uns, euch, Sie, sie. 2 mir, dir, Ihnen, ihm, ihr, ihm, uns, euch, Ihnen, ihnen. 3 It means that many objects, concepts and things in German can be masculine, feminine or neuter. This means that a masculine object has 'he' as personal pronoun and a feminine one has 'she'. 4 It depends on whether the noun it replaces is in the accusative or dative case, i.e. whether it follows a verb or preposition taking the accusative or the dative.

UNIT 16

Exercise 16.1

my: **mein**; your (singular, informal): **dein**; your (singular, formal): **Ihr**; his: **sein**; her: **ihr**; its: **sein**; our: **unser**; your (plural, informal): **euer**; your (plural, formal): **Ihr**; their: **ihr**.

Exercise 16.2

1 dein, Mein; 2 deine, Meine; 3 sein, ihr; 4 Ihre, Meine; 5 eure, Unsere

Exercise 16.3

1 Thomas sucht seine Brille. 2 Britta sucht ihr Geld. 3 Maria sucht ihre Kreditkarte. 4 Manfred sucht seinen Schal. 5 Klaus sucht seine Schuhe. 6 Peter sucht seine Papiere. 7 Paula und Pia suchen ihre CDs.

Exercise 16.4

1 Das ist mein Vater. 2 Das ist meine Mutter. 3 Jörg sucht seine Kreditkarte. 4 Susanne sucht ihren Führerschein. 5 Wir treffen unsere Freunde. 6 Sebastian spricht mit seiner Mutter. 7 Arianne spricht mit ihrem Bruder. 8 Die Kinder sprechen mit ihren Großeltern.

Checklist

1 **mein, dein, Ihr, sein, ihr, sein, unser, euer, Ihr, ihr.** 2 They must agree in gender, number and case with the noun that they are linked to. 3 **Euer.**

UNIT 17*Exercise 17.1*

amüsieren	✓	beeilen	✓	entscheiden	✓	spielen	
anziehen	✓	bezahlen		entschuldigen	✓	tanzen	
ausgehen		duschen	✓	fahren		treffen	✓
ausziehen	✓	denken		kämmen	✓	waschen	✓

Exercise 17.2

1 Ich amüsiere mich heute Abend. 2 Er entschuldigt sich bei seiner Freundin. 3 Das Kind kämmt sich nicht gern. 4 Der Clown schminkt sich vor dem Auftritt. 5 Ich ziehe mich um. 6 Sie zieht sich ihr neues Kleid an. 7 Die Kinder waschen sich. 8 Die Fußballspieler duschen sich nach dem Spiel. 9 Wir beeilen uns. 10 Wir treffen uns um acht Uhr.

Exercise 17.3

1 mir; 2 dir; 3 dir; 4 mir

Exercise 17.4

1 Ich dusche mich. 2 Ich putze mir die Zähne. 3 Ich ziehe mich an. 4 Ich kämme mich./Ich kämme mir die Haare. 5 Ich ziehe eine Jacke an./Ich ziehe mir eine Jacke an. 6 Ich beeile mich.

Checklist

1 A reflexive pronoun. 2 Activities from your daily routine such as washing, brushing teeth, dressing. 3 Accusative case. 4 The reflexive pronoun is in the dative case.

UNIT 18

Exercise 18.1

1 Marco raucht nicht. 2 Er tanzt nicht gern. 3 Nadine geht nicht gern ins Kino. 4 Monica kommt nicht aus Österreich. 5 Sie trinkt nicht viel Weizenbier. 6 Sie glaubt nicht an Gott. 7 Oskar ist nicht charmant. 8 Der Film ist nicht interessant. 9 Das Wetter in England ist nicht gut. 10 Das Auto fährt nicht schnell. 11 Der Urlaub war nicht billig. 12 Viel Kaffee ist nicht gesund. 13 Er fährt nicht mit seinem Auto. 14 Linz liegt nicht in der Schweiz. 15 Frankfurt war nicht die Hauptstadt von Deutschland.

Exercise 18.2

1 Nein, das ist kein Park. 2 Nein, das ist keine Kneipe. 3 Nein, Jörg hat kein Auto. 4 Nein, ich möchte keinen Kaffee. 5 Nein, ich nehme keinen Nachttisch. 6 Nein, er hat keine Schwester. 7 Nein, Familie Schmidt hat kein neues Haus. 8 Nein, das Hotel hat keinen Swimmingpool. 9 Nein, ich brauche keine neue Kamera. 10 Nein, Freiburg hat keine U-Bahn. 11 Nein, ich habe keine Geschwister. 12 Nein, ich möchte keine Kartoffeln. 13 Nein, das ist keine gute Idee. 14 Nein, ich habe keine Zeit. 15 Nein, ich habe kein Geld.

Exercise 18.3

1 Luke trinkt nicht. 2 Die Stadt ist nicht schön. 3 Der Computer ist nicht billig. 4 Das ist nicht weit. 5 Paul hat kein Fahrrad. 6 Sie haben kein Auto. 7 Er hat keine Zeit. 8 Arnd hat kein Geld. 9 Das ist keine gute Idee. 10 Ich spreche nicht/kein Französisch.

Checklist

1 **Nicht** is normally used in connection with *adjectives* and *verbs*. 2 **Kein** is normally linked to *nouns*. 3 It must agree with the noun in gender (*mascu-*

line, feminine, neuter), number (*singular, plural*) and case (*nominative, accusative, dative, genitive*). 4 Ich spreche nicht/kein Deutsch. Er ist nicht/kein Ingenieur. Ich fahre nicht/kein Auto.

UNIT 19

Exercise 19.1

	<i>comparative</i>	<i>superlative</i>
klein	kleiner	am kleinsten
langweilig	langweiliger	am langweiligsten
alt	älter	am ältesten
groß	größer	am größten
hoch	höher	am höchsten
gut	besser	am besten
gern	lieber	am liebsten
viel	mehr	am meisten

Exercise 19.2

1 Die Donau ist lang. Die Elbe ist länger als die Donau. Aber der Rhein ist am längsten. 2 München ist groß. Hamburg ist größer als München. Aber Berlin ist am größten. 3 Jazz ist laut. Rock ist lauter als Jazz. Aber Techno ist am lautesten. 4 Carsten ist alt. Theo ist älter als Carsten. Aber Franz ist am ältesten. 5 Nordrhein-Westfalen ist flach. Niedersachsen ist flacher als Nordrhein-Westfalen. Aber Schleswig-Holstein ist am flachsten. 6 Großbritannien ist weit. Nigeria ist weiter als Großbritannien. Aber Australien ist am weitesten. 7 Das Buch ist teuer. Die CD ist teurer als das Buch. Aber das Parfum ist am teuersten. 8 Der Brocken ist hoch. Der Watzmann ist höher als der Brocken. Aber die Zugspitze ist am höchsten. 9 Wandern ist gut. Joggen ist besser. Aber Faulenzen ist am besten. 10 Portugiesisch ist kompliziert. Ungarisch ist komplizierter als Deutsch. Aber Chinesisch ist am kompliziertesten. 11 Peter ist langweilig. Michael ist langweiliger als Peter.

Aber Bernd ist am langweiligsten. 12 London ist interessant. Paris ist interessanter als London. Aber New York ist am interessantesten.

Exercise 19.3

1 Ich trinke gern Tee. Ich trinke lieber Kaffee, aber am liebsten trinke ich Wein. 2 Salat schmeckt gut. Pasta schmeckt besser, aber Pizza schmeckt am besten. 3 Der Ford fährt schnell. Der BMW fährt schneller, aber der Ferrari fährt am schnellsten. 4 Clara spricht klar. Gerd spricht klarer, aber Anna spricht am klarsten. 5 Susanne treibt viel Sport. Nele treibt mehr Sport, aber Anke treibt am meisten Sport.

Exercise 19.4

1 London ist größer als Paris. 2 Der Rhein ist länger als die Donau. 3 Jens ist älter als Susanne. 4 Boris ist intelligenter als Claus. 5 Gabriella ist am intelligentesten. 6 Das Flugzeug ist teurer als der Zug. 7 Ralf fährt langsamer als Michael. 8 Das Buch ist besser als der Film.

Checklist

1 It is formed by adding **-er** to the basic form. 2 When the adjective comes after the noun you simply add **-sten** and use the word **am**. 3 No. 4 In most monosyllabic adjectives. 5 To make them easier to pronounce, adjectives ending in **-er** and **-el** drop the **e** in the comparative.

UNIT 20

Exercise 20.1

	<i>dürfen</i>	<i>können</i>	<i>müssen</i>	<i>sollen</i>	<i>wollen</i>	<i>mögen</i>
<i>ich</i>	<i>darf</i>	<i>kann</i>	<i>muss</i>	<i>soll</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>mag</i>
<i>du</i>	<i>darfst</i>	<i>kannst</i>	<i>musst</i>	<i>sollst</i>	<i>willst</i>	<i>magst</i>
<i>Sie</i>	<i>dürfen</i>	<i>können</i>	<i>müssen</i>	<i>sollen</i>	<i>wollen</i>	<i>mögen</i>
<i>er/sie/es</i>	<i>darf</i>	<i>kann</i>	<i>muss</i>	<i>soll</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>mag</i>
<i>wir</i>	<i>dürfen</i>	<i>können</i>	<i>müssen</i>	<i>sollen</i>	<i>wollen</i>	<i>mögen</i>
<i>ihr</i>	<i>dürft</i>	<i>könnt</i>	<i>müsst</i>	<i>sollt</i>	<i>wollt</i>	<i>mögt</i>
<i>Sie</i>	<i>dürfen</i>	<i>können</i>	<i>müssen</i>	<i>sollen</i>	<i>wollen</i>	<i>mögen</i>
<i>sie</i>	<i>dürfen</i>	<i>können</i>	<i>müssen</i>	<i>sollen</i>	<i>wollen</i>	<i>mögen</i>

Exercise 20.2

1 kann; 2 Kannst; 3 kann; 4 Könnt; 5 können.

Exercise 20.3

1 dürfen; 2 darf; 3 Darf; 4 soll; 5 Musst; 6 möchte; 7 will; 8 Wollt; 9 Kann; 10 wollen; 11 Möchtet; 12 soll; 13 Können; 14 Sollst; 15 müssen; 16 Kannst.

Exercise 20.4

1 Ich kann Salsa tanzen. 2 Er will mit dem Auto fahren. 3 Sie soll mehr Sport treiben. 4 Wir möchten bezahlen. 5 Kannst du mir helfen?/Können Sie mir helfen? 6 Darf ich dich etwas fragen?/Darf ich Sie etwas fragen? 7 Hier darfst du nicht rauchen./Hier dürfen Sie nicht rauchen. 8 Hier darfst du nicht fotografieren./Hier dürfen Sie nicht fotografieren.

Checklist

1 There is no verb ending for **ich** and **er/sie/es** forms. The stem vowel changes for **ich, du, er/sie/es**. 2 It is the second idea. 3 It is most often used in its subjunctive form, where it means 'would like to'. 4 It means 'to be supposed' to or 'should'. 5 You would translate it as **nicht dürfen**.

UNIT 21*Exercise 21.1*

arbeiten		hören		nehmen	✓	sprechen	✓
bleiben	✓*	kaufen		schreiben	✓	stehen	✓*
essen	✓	kommen	✓*	schwimmen	✓*	treffen	✓
fahren	✓*	lesen	✓	sehen	✓	trinken	✓
gehen	✓*	machen		spielen		wohnen	

Exercise 21.2

1 hat, gearbeitet; 2 habe, gehört; 3 hat, gekauft; 4 haben, gesagt; 5 haben, gewartet. 6 haben, gewohnt; 7 hast, gemacht; 8 hat, eingekauft; 9 haben, studiert. 10 hat, bezahlt.

Exercise 21.3

1 Ich habe ein Croissant gegessen. 2 Ich habe die Zeitung gelesen. 3 Ich bin mit dem Fahrrad zur Arbeit gefahren. 4 Ich habe am Computer geschrieben. 5 Ich habe mit einem alten Freund gesprochen. 6 Um halb sieben habe ich einen Freund getroffen. 7 Um zwanzig Uhr sind wir ins Kino gegangen. 9 Wir haben einen Film mit Julia Roberts gesehen. 10 Danach haben wir noch etwas getrunken. 11 Um halb zwölf bin ich zu Hause gewesen./Um halb zwölf war ich zu Hause. 12 Ich habe noch ein bisschen ferngesehen.

Exercise 21.4

1 Herr Witte hat bis neun Uhr gearbeitet. 2 Sie hat eine neue CD gekauft. 3 Michael hat in Berlin studiert. 4 Sie haben mit Kreditkarte bezahlt. 5 Er ist ins Kino gegangen. 6 Sie haben ferngesehen. 7 Wann bist du aufgestanden?/ Wann sind Sie aufgestanden?/Wann seid ihr aufgestanden. 8 Was hast du gestern gemacht?/Was haben Sie gestern gemacht?/ Was habt iht gestern gemacht?

Checklist

1 The present perfect. 2 With either **haben** or **sein** and the past participle of the verb. 3 With verbs of motion or verbs indicating a change in status. 4 Regular verbs: **ge** + stem + **t**; irregular verbs: **ge** + stem + **en**. 5 To the end of the clause.

UNIT 22

Exercise 22.1

Nun war das arme Kind in dem großen Wald ganz allein. Da hatte es große Angst. Es wusste nicht, wo es war und ging an zu laufen, bis es bald Abend wurde. Da sah es ein kleines Häuschen und ging hinein. In dem Haus war alles klein: da stand ein Tisch mit sieben kleinen Tellern. Außerdem gab es sieben Messer und Gabeln und sieben Becher. An der Wand standen sieben Betten. Schneewittchen, weil es so hungrig und durstig war, aß von jedem Teller ein wenig Gemüse und Brot und trank aus jedem Becher einen Tropfen Wein. Dann, weil es so müde war, legte es sich in ein Bett, aber keins passte; das eine war zu lang, das andere zu kurz, bis endlich das siebente recht war: und darin blieb es liegen, dachte an den lieben Gott und schief ein.

regular verbs: legte → legen, passte → passte.

irregular verbs: war → sein, hatte → haben, fing an → anfangen, wurde → werden, sah → sehen, ging → gehen, stand → stehen, gab → geben, aß →

essen, trank → trinken, blieb → bleiben, schlief ein → einschlafen.
mixed verbs: wusste → wissen, dachte → denken.

Exercise 22.2

(1) ich spielte, du spieltest, Sie spielten, er/sie/es spielte, wir spielten, ihr spieltet, Sie spielten, sie spielten. (2) ich kaufte, du kauftest, Sie kauften, er/sie/es kaufte, wir kauften, ihr kauftet, Sie kauften, sie kauften. (3) ich wohnte, du wohntest, Sie wohnten, er/sie/es wohnte, wir wohnten, ihr wohntet, Sie wohnten, sie wohnten.

Exercise 22.3

1 blieb; 2 Sahst; 3 ging; 4 tranken; 5 fuhr; 6 schrieb; 7 wusste; 8 brachte

Exercise 22.4

1 Gestern spielte ich Tennis. 2 Ich kaufte eine Tasse Kaffee. 3 Als Kind lebte ich in Frankfurt. 4 Ich ging ins Kino. 5 Ich blieb für eine Woche in Deutschland. 6 Es war letztes Jahr.

Checklist

1 In written German and when you are telling a story. 2 **Haben, sein** and the modal verbs. 3 -, **-st, -en, -, -en, -t, -en, -en**. 4 Take the stem and add the appropriate endings. Modal verbs do not have a stem vowel change.

UNIT 23

Exercise 23.1

1 Morgen fahre ich zu meinen Eltern. 2 Bitte rufen Sie in einer halben Stunde wieder an. 3 Nächsten Monat habe ich wieder mehr Zeit. 4 Das Fußballspiel findet am Freitag statt. 5 Wir wollen heute Abend noch ins Kino gehen. 6 Sehen wir uns später?; 7 Habt ihr bald Zeit? 8 Wohin fahrt ihr denn in den Sommerferien?

Exercise 23.2

1 Frauke wird einen Kriminalroman lesen. 2 Jörg wird ins Kino gehen. 3 Peter und Anna werden zu Hause bleiben. 4 Ich werde Freunde besuchen. 5 Du wirst viel fernsehen. 6 Die Nachbarn werden eine Party machen. 7 Anja wird im Supermarkt arbeiten. 8 Opa wird ein Fußballspiel sehen.

Exercise 23.3

1 (a) Am Abend besuche ich Freunde. (b) Am Abend werde ich Freunde besuchen. 2 (a) Morgen gehe ich ins Kino. (b) Morgen werde ich ins Kino gehen. 3 (a) Am Freitag arbeite ich lange. (b) Am Freitag werde ich lange arbeiten. 4 (a) Am Wochenende bleibe ich zu Hause. (b) Am Wochenende werde ich zu Hause bleiben. 5 (a) Ich komme später. (b) Ich werde später kommen. 6 (a) Was machst du später?/Was machen Sie später?/Was macht ihr später?/ (b) Was wirst du später machen?/Was werden Sie später machen?/Was werdet ihr später machen? 7 Was machst du in den Sommerferien?/Was machen Sie in den Sommerferien?/Was macht ihr in den Sommerferien? (b) Was wirst du in den Sommerferien machen?/Was werden Sie in den Sommerferien machen?/Was werdet ihr in den Sommerferien machen? 8 (a) Ich verbringe meine Ferien in Spanien. (b) Ich werde meine Ferien in Spanien verbringen.

Checklist

1 When there is information in the sentence which indicates the future. 2 You use a form of **werden** plus the infinitive of the main verb. 3 There is a stem vowel change for **du, er/sie/es**; there is no ending for **er/sie/es** and the form for **du** is **wirst** (dropping the **d** at the end of the stem). 4 It is in the infinitive and goes to the end of the clause.

UNIT 24*Exercise 24.1*

1 aus, in; 2 bei; 3 nach, zu; 4 mit, zu; 5 in; 6 ins; 7 im; 8 an; 9 um; 10 zum; 11 zur; 12 gegenüber; 13 für; 14 gegen; 15 Während

Exercise 24.2

Only accusative: um, für, gegen

Only dative: aus, bei, nach, zu, mit, gegenüber

Accusative or dative: in, an

Genitive: während

Exercise 24.3

1 den; 2 sein; 3 den; 4 der; 5 dem; 6 einem; 7 zum; 8 der; 9 ins; 10 im; 11 seinen; 12 deinen.

Exercise 24.4

1 Er ist gegen den Plan. 2 Wir gehen durch den Park. 3 Normalerweise fahre ich mit dem Auto. 4 Wir gehen ins Restaurant. 5 Wie komme ich zum Bahnhof? 6 Kommst du/Kommen Sie mit ins Kino? 7 Am Wochenende fahre ich nach Berlin.

Checklist

1 *Accusative*: **bis, durch, für, gegen, ohne, um**. *Dative*: **aus, außer, bei, gegenüber, mit, nach, seit, von, zu**. 2 The accusative refers to a motion towards something; the dative refers to a position. 3 They stand for **bei dem, an das, in dem**. Other examples are: **zum, im, vorm, ins**.

UNIT 25*Exercise 25.1*

1 schöner; 2 interessantes; 3 neuen; 4 neue; 5 guten; 6 alten; 7 blauen, sportliche; 8 neuen; 9 besten Jahren; 10 ältesten Freunden.

Exercise 25.2

1 Liebe Susanne. 2 Lieber Carsten. 3 Liebe Eltern. 4 Guten Morgen. 5 Guten Tag. 6 Gute Nacht. 7 Mit freundlichem Gruß. 8 In großer Liebe. 9 Mit vielen Küssen. 10 Mit freundlichen Grüßen.

Exercise 25.3

1 grüne; 2 blaue; 3 weißen; 4 weiße; 5 blaue; 6 blauen; 7 blauen, gepunktete; 8 italienischen.

Exercise 25.4

1 Guten Morgen. 2 Gute Nacht. 3 Es ist ein schöner Tag. 4 Er hat ein interessantes Buch gekauft. 5 Der neue Computer war zu teuer. 6 Ich mag den blauen Anzug. 7 Ich trage die schwarzen Schuhe.

Checklist

1 Adjectives before the noun. 2 **-e** and **-en**. 3 *Masculine*: **-er, -en, -en, -en**. *Feminine*: **-e, -e, -en, -en**. *Neuter*: **-es, -es, -en, -en**. *Plural*: **-en, -en, -en, -en**. 4 *Masculine*: **-er, -en, -en, -en**. *Feminine*: **-e, -e, -er, -en**. *Neuter*: **-es, -es, -em, -en**. *Plural*: **-e, -e, -en, -en**.

UNIT 26*Exercise 26.1*

1 eins; 2 fünf; 3 dreizehn; 4 einundzwanzig; 5 siebenunddreissig; 6 zweihundertsiebenundachtzig; 7 neunhundertsiebenundsechzig; 8 eintausendvierhunderteinundfünfzig; 9 sechstausendzweihundertsiebenundfünfzig; 10 zwölftausenddreihundertsiebenundzwanzig; 11 fünfundfünfzigtausendsechshundertneunundneunzig; 12 dreihundertelftausendvierhundertzweiundzwanzig; 13 fünfhundertneunzehntausendsechshundertzwölf; 14 zwei Millionen siebenhundertvierundvierzigtausenddreihundertneunundzwanzig; 15 fünf Millionen sechshundertvierundfünfzigtausend dreihundertsechsendachtzig

Exercise 26.2

1 Der zwanzigste März ist Frühlingsanfang. 2 Der siebte Sonntag nach Ostern ist Pfingsten. 3 Der erste Mai ist Maifeiertag. 4 Der neunte Mai ist Muttertag. 5 Der dritte Oktober ist der Tag der Deutschen Einheit. 6 Der elfte November ist der Beginn der Faschingszeit. 7 Der sechste Dezember ist Nikolaustag. 8 Der vierundzwanzigste Dezember ist Heiligabend.

Exercise 26.3

1 Martin Luther wurde am zehnten November 1483 (vierzehnhundertdreiundachtzig) in Eisleben geboren. 2 Johann Wolfgang von Goethe wurde am achtundzwanzigsten August 1749 (siebzehnhundertneunundvierzig) in Frankfurt am Main geboren. 3 Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart wurde am siebenundzwanzigsten Januar 1756 (siebzehnhundertsechsendfünfzig) in Salzburg geboren. 4 Ludwig van Beethoven wurde am siebzehnten Dezember 1770 (siebzehnhundertsiebzig) in Bonn geboren. 5 Sigmund Freud wurde am sechsten Mai 1856 (achtzehnhundertsechsendfünfzig) in Freiburg/Mähren geboren. 6 Rudolf Christian Karl Diesel wurde am achtzehnten März 1858 (achtzehnhundertachtundfünfzig) in Paris geboren. 7 Marlene Dietrich wurde am siebenundzwanzigsten Dezember 1901 (neunzehnhunderteins) in Berlin geboren. 8 Wim Wenders wurde am fünften September 1942 (neunzehnhundertzweiundvierzig) in München geboren.

Exercise 26.4

1 Frankfurt hat sechshundertfünfzigtausend Einwohner. 2 Berlin hat drei Millionen vierhunderteinundsiebzigtausend Einwohner. 3 Heute ist der erste April. 4 Morgen ist der dreiundzwanzigste. 5 Der sechzehnte Juni ist ein Freitag. 6 Sie wurde am siebten Januar geboren. 7 Am achtundzwan-

zigsten Februar fahre ich nach München. 8 Das Oktoberfest beginnt am zwanzigsten September.

Checklist

1 You give the single number, then **und** and then the tens. In English, you have the tens before the single number. 2 Heute ist der ___te/___ste. You add **-te** for numbers up to 19 and **-ste** for numbers from 20 upwards. 3 You use **am** before the date and you add **-ten** or **-sten** to the number. 4 You do not use 'in' before the year in German.

UNIT 27

Exercise 27.1

1 Das ist nicht Sean Connery, sondern Roger Moore. 2 Michael kann nicht kommen, denn er muss arbeiten. 3 Matthias ist Student und (er) arbeitet halbtags in einem Supermarkt. 4 Möchtest zu Hause bleiben oder willst du ins Kino gehen? 5 Ulrike spricht nicht sehr viel Englisch, aber (sie spricht) fließend Französisch und Italienisch. 6 Im Sommer fährt Familie Scholz nach Mallorca, denn das Wetter dort ist sehr angenehm.

Exercise 27.2

1 weil; 2 dass; 3 wenn; 4 dass; 5 weil; 6 obwohl; 7 wenn; 8 Als; 9 wenn; 10 Als.

Exercise 27.3

1 Er mag Deutschland, weil es so viele Biersorten gibt. 2 Sie lebt gern in Berlin, obwohl die Stadt oft hektisch und anstrengend ist. 3 Die Leute machen sich Sorgen, weil die Arbeitslosigkeit sehr hoch ist. 4 Deutschland ist ein reiches Land, obwohl es auch wirtschaftliche Probleme gibt.

1 Weil es so viele Biersorten gibt, mag er Deutschland. 2 Obwohl die Stadt oft hektisch und anstrengend ist, lebt sie gern in Berlin. 3 Weil die Arbeitslosigkeit sehr hoch ist, machen sich die Leute Sorgen. 4 Obwohl es auch wirtschaftliche Probleme gibt, ist Deutschland ein reiches Land.

Exercise 27.4

1 Er ist Ingenieur und arbeitet für BMW. 2 Ich möchte keinen Kaffee, sondern einen Tee. 3 Ich möchte gern kommen, aber ich muss arbeiten. 4 Sie denkt, dass es eine gute Idee ist. 5 Ich mag Berlin, weil es eine interessante Stadt ist. 6 Als ich ein Kind war, lebte ich in Oxford. 7 Obwohl es

sehr kalt ist, geht er spazieren. 8 Wir können ins Kino gehen, wenn du/Sie Zeit hast/haben.

Checklist

1 When the subject is the same in both of them. 2 Possible answers: **als**, **dass**, **ob**, **obwohl**, **nachdem**, **weil** and **wenn**. 3 It goes to the end of the clause. 4 **Wenn** can mean 'if' or 'when' referring to regular events in the past. **Als** refers to a single event in the past. 5 They both mean 'because' but the word order is different. In a clause starting with **weil** the verb goes to the end.

UNIT 28

Exercise 28.1

1 Normalerweise fängt er seine Arbeit um acht Uhr an. 2 Danach geht Jörg noch ins Fitnesscenter und spielt Badminton. 3 Leider muss ich den Termin absagen. 4 Meistens besuchen sie am Wochenende ihre Eltern. 5 Deswegen hat sich Kathrin so gefreut. 6 Zum Glück hat er noch eine Kopie gemacht.

Exercise 28.2

1 Sie gehen am Wochenende in das neue italienische Restaurant. 2 Robert fährt am Wochenende mit dem Auto zu seinen Eltern. 3 Ich habe gestern mit Angela im Park Tennis gespielt. 4 Ich muss noch schnell meinen Sohn in Italien anrufen. 5 Er trifft sich heute Abend mit Freunden in der Kneipe. 6 Ich bin das erste Mal Weihnachten mit dem Zug nach Paris gefahren.

Exercise 28.3

1 Können Sie mir helfen? 2 Er kann sehr gut Tango tanzen. 3 Nächstes Jahr möchte Michael eine Weltreise machen. 4 Sie wird im Januar die Schule abschließen. 5 Wirst du im Sommer wieder nach Mallorca fahren? 6 Er hat letztes Jahr sein Abitur gemacht. 7 Die Kinder sehen den ganzen Tag fern. 8 Gestern haben wir einen Ausflug an die See gemacht. 9 Hier dürfen Sie nicht rauchen. 10 Heute Morgen ist sie schon um fünf Uhr aufgestanden. 11 Die Leute haben sich sehr über unsere Geschenke gefreut. 12 Er bereitet sich auf ein wichtiges Meeting vor. 13 Die Deutsche Bahn hat einen neuen Chef bekommen. 14 Die Bevölkerung Berlins ist in den letzten Jahren nicht stark gewachsen. 15 Deutschland wird weiterhin eine wichtige Rolle in Europa haben.

Exercise 28.4

Ich rufe dich an/Sie an, wenn ich fertig bin. 2 Er muss nach Hause gehen/fahren, weil es spät ist. 3 London ist eine faszinierende Stadt, obwohl sie sehr teuer ist. 4 Ich wollte mit dem Bus fahren, weil es billiger ist. 5 Obwohl seine Mutter aus Deutschland kommt, spricht er kein Deutsch. 6 Weil München sehr schön ist, wollen viele Leute/Menschen hier wohnen. 7 Wenn ich mehr Zeit habe, werde ich ein Jahr in Österreich oder Deutschland verbringen.

Checklist

1 The verb. 2 They are: **und, aber, oder, denn** and **sondern**. 3 In the formal imperative, in yes or no questions and if part of the sentence other than the subject is in first position. 4 The verb goes to the end. 5 The order is Time – Manner – Place. 6 If a subordinate clause precedes the main clause, the two main verbs are next to each other, separated by a comma.

GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

adjectives Words that provide more information about a noun: ‘The computer is *new*.’ ‘The exhibition is *interesting*.’ ‘It is a *boring* book.’

adverbs Words that provide more information about a verb: ‘She sings *beautifully*.’ ‘The child plays *happily*.’

articles Words that tell you whether a noun is *definite* (‘the ball’) or *indefinite* (‘a ball’).

auxiliary verbs Verbs such as **haben** or **sein** which are used to form tenses.

cases The case signals what function a noun plays in a sentence. Cases are also determined by certain verbs and by prepositions. There are four cases in German: *nominative*, *accusative*, *dative* and *genitive*.

clauses Units of words which contain at least a subject and a finite verb: ‘I go.’ ‘They work.’ There are two types: *main clauses* and *subordinate clauses*. Any sentence must contain at least one main clause. A sentence can be made up of several clauses.

comparative Form of an adjective or adverb used to describe something that is ‘more than’ another: ‘bigger than’, ‘smaller than’ . . .

compound nouns Nouns made up of more than one word. Combinations can be, for example, noun + noun (**Bierflasche** ‘beer bottle’) or noun + verb (**Gleitzeit** ‘flexitime’).

conjunctions Words that link clauses: ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘because’, etc.

finite verbs Forms of the verb with the personal ending linked to the subject: **ich gehe**, **der Mann arbeitet**.

future tense Verb form used to refer to events in the future.

gender Gender indicates whether a noun is *masculine*, *feminine* or *neuter*. In German, gender is grammatical; objects can be masculine or feminine as well as neuter: **der Hut** ‘the hat’ (masculine), **die Sonne** ‘the sun’ (feminine). Persons can be neuter: **das Kind** ‘the child’ (neuter).

imperatives Verb forms used for instructions or orders: ‘*Open* the window, please!’

indirect object Object indirectly linked to verbs. In English, it is often introduced by ‘to’ or ‘for’: ‘This book is for John.’

infinitives Basic verb form as listed in the dictionary.

- inseparable verbs** Verbs with a prefix such as **be-**, **ver-** or **ent-**. The prefix is not split off from the finite verb. See also **separable verbs**.
- intransitive verbs** Verbs that do not take a direct object. They are often verbs of motion or a change of state: 'arrive', 'leave'. In German, intransitive verbs form the present perfect tense with **sein**.
- modal verbs** Verbs that modify an action, such as 'must', 'can' or 'may'.
- modifiers** General term to describe all words which link to the noun such as 'a', 'the', 'my'.
- negatives** Words used to negate a sentence or an idea. In German, there are two ways of doing this: **nicht** (with verbs and adjectives) or **kein** (with nouns).
- nouns** Words that refer to persons, concepts or objects. All nouns in German are spelled with an initial capital letter.
- object** Part of the sentence referring to the receiver of the action, e.g. 'the ball' in the sentence 'I kick the ball'.
- past participle** One of the principal forms of the verb. It is used to form tenses such as the perfect tense. In English, the past participle of 'to go' is 'gone'; in German the infinitive is **gehen** and the past participle is **gegangen**. In English, the past participle of 'to work' is 'worked'; in German the infinitive is **arbeiten** and the past participle is **gearbeitet**.
- plural** Nouns can be one (singular) or more than one (plural).
- possessives** Words that provide information about relationships between things or people or ideas – what or who 'belongs' to what or whom: 'This is *my* hat.' 'This is *her* car.'
- prefixes** See **verbal prefixes**
- prepositions** Words providing information about relationships in space or time, such as 'under', 'during', 'by'.
- present perfect tense** Tense referring to past events. In English, these events have some link with the present. In German the present perfect is normally used in spoken language.
- present tense** Tense referring to events in the present. In English, there are two forms: 'I am going' and 'I go'. In German, there is only one form: **ich gehe**.
- pronouns** Words that can stand in for a noun, a pronoun or a noun phrase: 'The man is tall. *He* is tall.' 'That car is beautiful. *It* is beautiful.'
- reflexive verbs** Verbs that take a pronoun referring back to the subject: 'I hurt myself.' In German, many verbs which refer to daily activities such as washing, combing one's hair etc. are reflexive.
- separable verbs** Verbs with a prefix such as **auf**, **unter**, **mit** which is split off from the finite verb and goes to the end of the clause: **aufstehen** → **Er steht um fünf Uhr auf**. See also **inseparable verbs**.
- simple past tense** Tense indicating that an action takes place in the past. In English, it is used to refer to an action in the past which happens on a regular basis: 'She *worked* at Harrods.' In German, it is used in writing and when telling a story or recounting an event.

singular Nouns can be one (singular) or more than one (plural).

stem The part of the verb without an ending. The stem of the verb is given by taking away **-en** from the infinitive: **geh** is the stem of the verb **gehen**.

subject Part of the sentence which is the 'agent' of what is happening: '*The dog* bites the postman.'

tenses Forms of the verb indicating whether the action is taking place in present, past or future time.

transitive verbs Verbs that can take a direct object: 'I buy a hat.' In German, transitive verbs form the present perfect tense with **haben**.

umlaut Accent found on letters **ä, ö, ü**.

verbal prefixes Syllabic forms that often cannot stand by themselves and that are attached to the front of a verb. **Auf** is the prefix in the verb **aufstehen** 'to get up'; **ver** is the prefix in the verb **verzeihen** 'to forgive'. In German, prefixes can be separable (they are split off from the finite verb) or inseparable (they remain fixed to the verb).

verbs Words describing 'actions', such as 'to see', 'to work', 'to think', 'to love'.

COMMON IRREGULAR VERBS

Here is a list of the most commonly used irregular verbs.

- The first column gives the infinitive, which is the form listed in a dictionary.
- The second column gives the finite form in the present tense only for those verbs which have an irregularity: verbs with a vowel change and verbs where there is a variation in the spelling of the stem or the ending.
- The third column gives the finite form of the simple past tense. Here you can see which verbs are irregular and which are mixed in the way they form the simple past tense.
- The last column gives the past participle form. Verbs that form the present perfect tense with **sein** are indicated by an asterisk.
- All separable verbs are shown with their prefix split off from the finite verb form in columns two and three.

<i>Infinitive</i>		<i>Present tense – vowel change 2nd, 3rd person singular</i>	<i>Simple past tense</i>	<i>Past participle</i>
anfangen	to start, begin	fängst an, fängt an	fang an	angefangen
anrufen	to call up		rief an	angerufen
aufstehen	to get up		stand auf	aufgestanden*
beginnen	to begin		begann	begonnen
bleiben	to start		blieb	geblieben*
bringen	to bring		brachte	gebracht
denken	to think		dachte	gedacht
einladen	to invite	lädst ein, lädt ein	lud ein	eingeladen
empfehlen	to recommend	empfehlst, empfiehlt	empfahl	empfohlen
essen	to eat	isst, isst	aß	gegessen
fahren	to go (by vehicle)	fährst, fährt	fuhr	gefahren*
finden	to find		fand	gefunden
fliegen	to fly		flog	geflogen*

geben	to give	gibst, gibt	gab	gegeben
gefallen	to be pleasing	gefällst, gefällt	gefiel	gefallen
haben	to have	hast, hat	hatte	gehabt
halten	to hold; to stop	hältst, hält	hielt	gehalten
heißen	to be called		hieß	geheißen
helfen	to help	hilfst, hilft	half	geholfen
kennen	to know, be acquainted with		kannte	gekannt
lesen	to read	liest, liest	las	gelesen
nehmen	to take	nimmst, nimmt	nahm	genommen
raten	to advise; to guess	rätst, rät	riet	geraten
schlafen	to sleep	schläfst, schläft	schief	geschlafen
schreiben	to write		schrieb	geschrieben
schwimmen	to swim		schwamm	geschwommen*
sehen	to see	siehst, sieht	sah	gesehen
sein	to be	bist, ist	war	gewesen*
singen	to sing		sang	gesungen
sitzen	to sit		saß	gesessen
sprechen	to speak	sprichst, spricht	sprach	gesprochen
tragen	to carry; to wear	trägst, trägt	trug	getragen
treffen	to meet	triffst, trifft	traf	getroffen
trinken	to drink		trank	getrunken
tun	to do		tat	getan
umsteigen	to change		stieg um	umgestiegen*
verbinden	to connect		verband	verbunden
vergessen	to forget	vergisst, vergisst	vergaß	vergessen
verlassen	to leave	verlässt, verlässt	verließ	verlassen
verlieren	to lose		verlor	verloren
verstehen	to understand		verstand	verstanden
waschen	to wash	wäschst, wäscht	wusch	gewaschen
werden	to become	wirst, wird	wurde	geworden*
wissen	to know (a fact)	weißt, weiß	wusste	gewusst
ziehen	to pull		zog	gezogen

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