German Grammar in English
for International Students

Version 2.6

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Contents:

Introduction:

The present volume is a companion to my book *The German Language – A Guide for Inquisitive Students.* Both can be used in tandem. The *Guide* is aimed toward the student (the German student as well) who wants to know how the awesome German language came to be the way it is. This grammar is mostly descriptive (if not strictly so) and is intended to introduce the structure of the German language to international students in the shortest possible time. A third volume – *Practical Exercises in German Grammar* is in preparation.

This trilogy is partially the result of necessity. International students at the University of Applied Sciences - Munich often have no more than one or two semesters to spend in Germany and wish to learn something of the German language. Others, who plan to complete a course of studies in Munich, arrive with good English, but in need of no-nonsense help in German so that they can quickly master their studies.

In addition, I had in mind my German students, who come from school with detailed knowledge about the surface of the moon, but no idea of what goes on in their mouths (let alone their minds) when they speak. Introducing them to the beauty of their own language was my special goal. Unfortunately, they have to put up with a book (and a lecture) in English since their international fellow students would not be able to follow the material in German.

I am acutely aware that the approach followed here is not in keeping with the modern *Zeitgeist* in language instruction, which holds that understanding the structure and development of the language to be learned is useless, detrimental or a potential cause of brain damage.

I can only agree with Horace Lunt, who wrote more than half a century ago (1958) in the preface to his *Fundamentals of Russian*:

> Mastery is to be most quickly achieved by facing the difficulties squarely and working at them constantly. These lessons are intended to take the student over the direct but rocky road ... giving him only the real necessities, without sugared pills or fun and games.

Prof. Dr. Russell Block
October 2012

Chapter 1: The Sound of German

1   Standard German
In this Chapter, we will explain the principles of phonetics (what happens in your mouth when you speak) and use these principles to illustrate the standard German pronunciation or "Hochlautung" as used on network television (ARD-ZDF-Deutsch). In addition, we will indicate important differences in regional speech (particularly Bavarian).

2   The standard dialect
The standard German dialect mentioned above is surprisingly not the pronunciation of any influential city or region (cf. Paris as the source of the French standard or Florence for Italian). Rather, the "official" pronunciation of German is based on the way speakers of Low German ('Plattdeutsch') pronounce the written literary standard based on the chancellery language developed in Upper Saxony (Meißen, Leipzig) during the fourteenth century. (See the companion volume, *The German Lanugage – A Guide for Inquisitive Students* for further details.)

3   Overview of the German consonants
In order to understand the sounds of German (or any other language), it is first necessary to explore the "geography" of the mouth and the workings of the speech organs. In our discussion, we will use the illustration below:
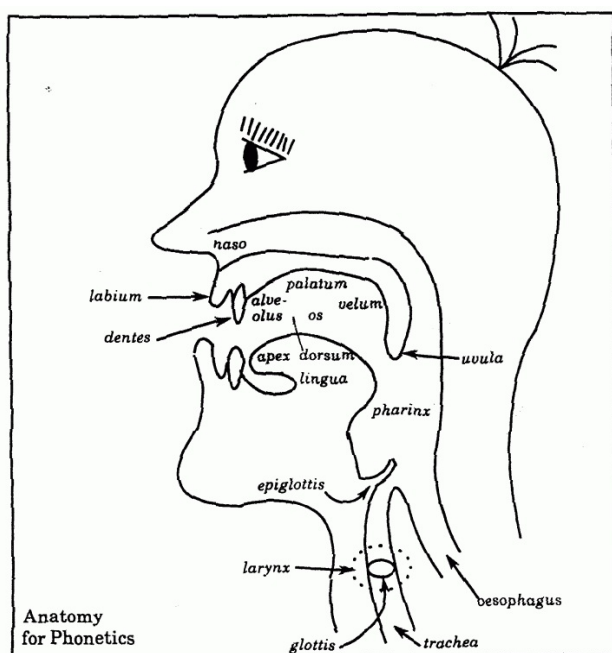
Our handsome friend, the "Illustrated Man," always looks to the west. More important, he provides a cutaway view of the portions of the head that are involved in speech production. The major players are labeled with their Latin names because the English and "international" names for them are based on the Latin.

The consonant sounds are described their **place of articulation** (where they are made in the mouth) and their **manner of articulation** (how they are made). **Stops** are sounds that completely close off the air stream in the mouth. **Fricatives**, on the other hand, result from forcing air through a narrow slit produced with tongue, lips and teeth. **Affricates** are a combination of a stop and a fricative produced at the same place in the mouth. Instead of a sudden release (as with the stops), the affricates are released slowly, producing a fricative.

You can see (or rather feel) how this works by contrasting the pronunciation of the *t* in *top,* the *s* in *sop* and the *ch* in *chop.* For the sound of *t*, the tip of the tongue (apex) is pressed against the gum (alveolar) ridge, completely closing off the air stream. The sound of *s* is produced with the tip of the tongue and the gum ridge just as is the case with *t,* but rather than stopping the airflow, the tongue forms a narrow passage with the gum ridge and the air is forced through producing friction. Finally, *ch* is produced by making a stop between the "blade" of the tongue and the palate just behind the gum ridge. This stop goes over slowly in to a fricative. The combined nature of this sound (stop + fricative) is reflected in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) symbol for it [tʃ], where [t] represents the stop and [ʃ] the fricative. Notice that this [ʃ] is identical to the sound *sh* in *she.*

The following chart gives an overview of the German consonants using the IPA transcription found in most modern dictionaries.

German Consonants							
voiceless	p t k	f s ʃ x	pf ts tʃ				h
voiced	b d g	v z ʒ	dʒ	l r	m n ŋ	j	
	stops	fricatives	affricates	liquids	nasals	glide	
	obstruents			sonorants			

Unfamiliar symbols:

ʃ   *Sch*iff   tʃ   Ma*tsch*   ts   *Z*eit

ʒ   *J*ournal   dʒ   *J*ungle   ŋ   si*ng*en   v   *w*as

Note that the true consonants or **obstruents** (consonants that involve *obstruction* of the air stream) can occur in **voiced** and **voiceless** pairs. This is mother nature's way of giving us two for the price of one. That is, pairs like /s/ and /z/ are pronounced the same way (air is forced through a narrow slit formed by the tip of the tongue and the gum ridge), but /z/ involves, in addition, vibration of the vocal cords, located in the larynx. German does not make full use of this distinction.

    Sonorants (also called **Resonants**) are consonant sounds that do not involve obstruction of the air stream. In German (and most other languages) they only occur as voiced sounds. **Liquids** are so called because the air flows by the tongue like a liquid without friction. The quality of the liquid is determined by the shape of the tongue – or, in the case of German, by the vibration of the uvula or the tongue tip (uvular-*r* or apical-*r*). **Nasals** are stops, that is, the air stream is closed off in the mouth, but released through the nose. To make this possible, Mother Nature designed the velum as flap that can be moved up and down, opening or closing off the passage to the nose. To see how this works, try saying *pit* and *pin* while holding your nose. You will feel the air trying to force its way out of your nose when you say *pin.* **Glides** are produced by the movement of the tongue and lips onto or off a neighboring vowel. When you pronounce

German *ja*, Your tongue starts in the position of the vowel in *see* and "glides" onto the following vowel.

Finally, /h/ is not produced in the mouth at all, but in the larynx. It is a voiceless fricative produced by creating a narrow slit between the vocal cords and forcing air through. This **glottal fricative** is nothing more than a breathy, voiceless copy of the following vowel or sonorant consonant.

3.1 Tense vs. lax

In the northern German standard pronunciation, there is an important distinction made between tense and lax consonants. The tense consonants (which are also voiceless) are pronounced with considerably more muscle tension in the vocal organs and more air pressure from the lungs. In the case of the stops, they are also aspirated, that is, followed by a puff of breath [p^h, t^h, k^h]. For native speakers of Romance and Slavic languages, where the distinction of voiced vs. voiceless is not accompanied by a corresponding difference in lax vs. tensed, this can pose a considerable problem.

3.2 The final devoicing rule

German has a final devoicing rule which makes all obstruents (consonants pronounced with obstruction of the air stream, i.e., stops, fricatives and affricates) voiceless at end of a word or before a suffix beginning in a consonant, cf.

Liebe   /liːbə/

lieb   /liːp/

lieblich   /liːplɪç/

Thus, in final position (as defined above) voiced and voiceless consonants never contrast (cf. English, where *said* and *set* are quite different words and the difference is based on the voicing of the final consonant). Strangely, most of the Slavic languages also have final devoicing. This is a problem for speakers of English and the Romance languages.

3.3 Comments on individual consonants

Compared to English, German spelling is quite rational. In the new orthography, it is almost always possible to correctly pronounce a word one sees written. However, because of the peculiarities of historical development, German has some rather strange features of spelling and pronunciation. We will note some of them here.

3.3.1 Vogel-V

A handful of words that begin with the sound /f/ are spelled with <v>, e.g., *Vogel, Vater, vier, ver-, vor.* Since there is no rational reason to spell the same sound two different ways, we must look for a historical explanation. Originally, <v> and <f> represented different sounds, which, over the course of time fell together into /f/. In most cases, the spelling was standardized, with <v> yielding to <f>. Thus MHG *veder* = NHG *Feder* 'feather'. The recent spelling reform did not succeed in removing the remaining <v> spellings since eliminating Vogel-V would have changed the general appearance of German texts beyond the limits of acceptability. Would you like to deal with: *Er wurde von fier fögeln im forraum foll angegriffen* 'He was frontally attacked by four birds in the anteroom'?

3.3.2   The origin of <w>

The sound still written <w> and pronounced /v/ was originally a glide like its English counterpart. Since medieval Latin did not have this sound, the monks were hard put to find a way to represent it. They noted that the glide resembled the vowel sound /u/ and wrote it <uu> to distinguish it from the vowel – hence, the name "double-u." Since they did not distinguish <u> from <v>, the modern form is derived from <vv> = <w>. In French, this letter is in fact called "double-v." In the early NHG period the glide <w> became a voiced fricative, the spelling remained, leaving <v> for the Vogel-V.

3.3.3   The problem of /h/

The sound /h/ is a glottal fricative formed by forcing air through a narrow slit between the vocal cords. Acoustically, it is nothing but a breathy, voiceless copy of the following vowel. Contrast the /h/ in *hit* with the /h/ in *hot*. Speakers of English have no problem here, but speakers of Slavic languages which have no /h/ tend to substitute some variety of /x/ (as in German *ach*). This is also the case for Speakers of Spanish who have a similar sound, cf. *j* in *junta.*

For speakers of the other Romance languages the problem is far worse. The sound /h/ disappeared from spoken Latin around the beginning of the Common Era and is foreign to these languages. Although it is easy enough to pronounce, it is difficult for speakers of Romance languages to remember where to put it. Overcorrection (putting in an /h/ where one does not belong) can lead to confusion or worse, cf. *Uhren* 'clocks' ~ *Huren* 'prostitutes'.

3.3.4   *Ach-Laut – ich-Laut*

Most languages have a stop /k/ which ranges from velar to palatal depending on the following sound. German also has fricatives in these positions. The best way to learn this sound is to pronounce the /k/ and ease the tongue off the palate until a fricative is produced.

The fricative /x/ comes in two flavors: [x] '*ach-Laut*' [ç] '*ich-Laut*'. The first occurs only after the back vowels /a, o, u/, the second everywhere else. Thus, there is a regular shift between [x] and [ç] in nouns that have umlaut (vowel fronting) in the plural:

[x]	[ç]
Bach 'brook"	Bäche
Loch 'hole'	Löcher
Buch 'book'	Bücher

Note that [ç] occurs initially, in the suffix -*chen,* and after liquids and nasals as in: *China, Mädchen* 'girl'*, durch* 'through'*, Milch* 'milk'*, Mönch* 'monk'. In initial position, many speakers substitute [k] for [ç]. The use of [x] after /r/ as in *durch* is a Bavarian peculiarity.

3.3.5   The pronunciation of final <g>

In north Germany, final <g> is pronounced as the voiceless fricative /x/ ([ç] or [x], depending on the preceding vowel). In south Germany, however, the corresponding voiceless stop /k/ is used (front or back variety depending on the preceding vowel). The official pronunciation splits

the difference, adopting the northern pronunciation after front vowels and the southern pronunciation after back vowels! Thus:

König 'king'   [kønɪç]

Tag 'day'   [tɑk]

3.3.6   The strange case of /s/

In south Germany, there is no contrast between /s/ ~ /z/. The letter <s> is pronounced /s/ in all positions. In north Germany and in the official "Hochlautung," <s> is pronounced voiced /z/ at the beginning of a word. Because of the final devoicing rule (see below), <s> is pronounced voiceless in final position. The only contrast between /z/ ~ /s/ occurs in the middle of a word after a long vowel. Compare: *Fliesen* 'tiles' ~ *fließen* 'flow'.

3.3.7   *r*-peculiarities

The German speaking territory is divided as to how to articulate the consonant /r/. The northern two-thirds (and national networks) pronounce /r/ as a uvular trill [ʁ]. The southern third including Switzerland and Austria use a tongue-trilled r [ʀ]. Both are officially recognized, but the uvular-*r* has been making steady head way over its rival since the end of World War II.

An additional peculiarity is the almost universal application of *r*-dropping as in British English. That is, /r/ is only pronounced if a vowel follows. Otherwise it is dropped entirely (after low vowels) or "vocalized" to [ʌ] , e.g., klar [klɑ], einer [aɪnʌ]. There is no "linking-*r*" in German (before a word beginning in a vowel) because no German words actually begin in a vowel. See below under "glottal stop."

In the official stage pronunciation, *r* can be pronounced after a short vowel followed by a consonant or the end of a word as in *Narr* 'fool' or *wird* 'becomes', but this rule is not followed in colloquial German.

3.3.8   Affricates

Affricates are double-sounds that start with a stop and go over into a fricative. These are common in the Slavic languages. Italian and Spanish have /tʃ/. The best way to learn them (assuming there is a problem) is to practice them backwards, i.e., start with the fricative and close it to a stop and then open the stop to the fricative: /ʃt/ ~ /tʃ/. The three German affricates are:

/**pf**/	/ts/	/tʃ/
Pfeffer 'pepper'	Zeit 'time'	tschüs 'bye'
Strumpf 'stocking'	Katze 'cat'	Quatsch 'nonsense'

3.3.9   Foreign sounds

Although we have taken /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ into our inventory, these are not native sounds and occur only in foreign words borrowed from French, e.g., *Journalist,* or English, e.g., *Dschungel.* There is a tendency to substitute the voiceless counterparts /ʃ/ and /tʃ/ in casual pronunciation.

3.3.10 The Glottal Stop /ʔ/

The glottal stop is not actually a speech sound in either English or German (in the same way that /b/ or /s/ is), but it nevertheless plays a significant role in German pronunciation because it is inserted at the beginning of a word starting with a vowel or after prefixes as in *Iss auch was* /ʔɪs ʔaʊx vas/ 'Eat something too' or *Ereignis* /ɛʀʔaɪgnɪs/ 'event'. This gives German its particularly "crisp" sound, which is extremely annoying when carried over to English.

4   Vowels

Vowel sounds are much more difficult to describe than consonants because they are not produced with stoppage or friction and are consequently difficult to "feel." In addition, vowels are not discrete sounds but points in a continuum.

You can try this yourself by pronouncing the vowel sound in Eng. *beat* or Germ, *biet(e)*. Notice that your lips are spread and your tongue is about as high and forward as it can go without causing friction in the air stream. Now, keeping your tongue forward, slowly open your mouth as wide as it will go. You will hear a unbroken continuum of sound from the vowel of Eng. *beat* to *bat.*

Now return to your starting point and pull your tongue back without opening your mouth. Your lips will automatically round and you will produce a vowel like Eng. *do* or Germ. *du.* Keeping your tongue back, you can once again open your mouth as wide as it will go, producing a spectrum of vowels between the starting point and the vowel of Eng. *father* or Germ. *Vater*.

Given the up ~ down, front ~ back mobility of the tongue, vowels can be placed at any point on the two dimensional surface bounded by the four corner points we have experimentally determined.

This is the basis of the Cardinal Vowel system devised by Daniel Jones at the beginning of the last century. Since the distance between the corner vowels is rather large, Jones added four arbitrary mid-points front and back to make a set of eight "cardinal vowels." These vowels act as universal points of orientation to facilitate the description of the real vowels of any given language.

The chart shows the cardinal vowels with the real vowels of modern German superimposed.
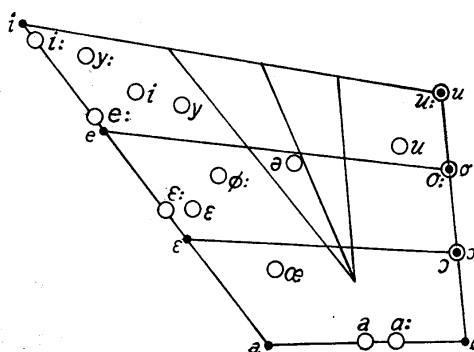
One additional parameter is necessary to indicate the quality of a given vowel – lip rounding. As indicated above, front vowels and the back vowel [ɑ] are normally pronounced with spread lips in most of the world's languages, while the back vowels [ɔ,o,u] have increasing lip rounding as you move the tongue up.

Some languages also have vowels with reverse lip rounding – front rounded, or back unrounded vowels. Jones provided a set of "secondary" cardinal vowels for this eventuality. For German, we only need the four front rounded vowels [y, ʏ, ø, œ]. These are like the "normal" vowels of the same height, but are pronounced with rounded lips. (See the table below.)

5 The German vowels
The following table gives the vowel sounds of standard German with keywords:

Vowel	Example	Spelling	Gloss
i	bitən	bieten	offer
ɪ	bɪtən	bitten	ask
y	bysən	büßen	atone for
ʏ	bʏfəl	Büffel	buffalo
e	bet	Beet	flower bed
ɛ	bɛt	Bett	bed
ø	bøzə	böse	evil
œ	gœtʌ	Götter	gods
u	busə	Buße	atonement
ʊ	bʊs	Bus	bus
o	boshaft	boshaft	evil
ɔ	bɔtɪç	Bottich	barrel
ɑ	bazə	Base	basis
a	bas	Bass	bass
ə	bɛstə	Bes**te**	best
ʌ	bɛsʌ	bess**er**	better
aɪ	baɪsən	beißen	bite
aʊ	baʊ	Bau	building
ɔʏ	bɔʏtə	Beute	prey

The vowels occur in tense/lax pairs, as in *bieten ~ bitten, Beet ~ Bett,* etc. In addition the front vowels occur in rounded/unrounded pairs as in *bieten ~ büßen, Besen ~ Bösen*, etc.

Speakers of English have to learn to pronounce the front rounded vowels and the pure long tense vowels. Speakers of Romance and Slavic languages must, in addition, learn to distinguish between tense and lax vowels, which is a considerable challenge.

5.1 Vowel length
In the chart above, vowel length has not been indicated. The reason for this is that the tense vowels are always long when accented and all other vowels are short. There is, however, one fly

in the ointment. In south German a distinction is made between the vowel of *nähmen* and *nehmen.* The former has a long lax vowel /ɛː/. This is probably a spelling pronunciation – in any case, a feature that disturbs the otherwise perfect symmetry of the modern German vowel system.

Note that German indicates a short vowel by writing a long (double) consonant as in *bitte* and a long vowel with a single consonant as in *Bote* 'messenger'.

6   Accentuation and rhythm

Both German and English share the same basic accent pattern alternating strong and weak syllables. However, a general vowel reduction in syllables adjoining the accented syllable as in English does not take place in German. Compare the pronunciation of *revolution*: In English /rɛvəˈluʃən/ with vowel reduction in the syllables preceding and following the main accent. In German /ʁevolutsiˈoːn/, the tense vowels are short except for the final accented vowel, but not reduced to /ə/.

The alternation in German can be observed by comparing the pronunciation of *Vórlèsúng* with *Háuptvòrlésùng* The strong-weak pattern is the same, but the placement of the strong accents is different.

In the modern language weak (originally verbal prefixes) like *ver-, be-, er-, ent-, ge-, zer-,* are never accented whether in verbs or noun derivatives: *vertréten ~ Vertrétung, begéhen ~ Begéhung, erzíehen ~ Erzíehung* 'to represent ~ a representative, to patrol ~ inspection, to educate ~ education'. These unaccented prefixes are also never separable from the verb stem. Contrast strong prefixes that can be either separable or inseparable depending on accentuation: *´übersetzten,*'ferry across' *ich setzte ihn (über den Fluss) über,* 'I ferried him across the river' vs. *übersétzen* 'translate' *er übersétzte den Text* 'he translated the text.' As can be seen from the examples, the separable prefixes tend to have a more literal meaning, while the inseparable prefixes are more abstract.

Unlike, some of the Slavic languages (e.g.,Russian), German does not change the accented syllable during inflection except for the plural of nouns in *-or: Dóktor ~ Doktóren*

6.1   Accentuation of foreign words

Foreign words with a derivational suffix ending in a consonant have the accent on the suffix. If there are several suffixes, the last foreign suffix is accented, e.g., *Fundamént, fundamentál, Fundamentalíst,fundamentalístisch* 'foundation, fundamental, fundamentalist, fundamentalistic'. The suffix *-isch* is not foreign and does not attract the accent. Other examples: *Komponíst* 'composer', *Praktikánt* 'student intern', *Soldát* 'soldier', etc. Also: *Braueréi, Partéi* 'brewery, party' although these are hardly felt to be foreign nowadays.

This rule also holds for "made-up words" like *Persíl* 'brand of detergent', *Ramapríl, Felodipín* ' brands of high blood pressure medicine'.

If two accented syllables occur back-to-back in the process of word formation, the first one becomes weak: *Fundamént + ál = fúndamentál.* This modifies the regular alternation of strong and weak syllables. Here we have a strong syllable followed by two weak syllables.

The suffix   *-or* is only accented if something follows: *Proféssor, Professóren, professórisch* 'professor, professors, professorial'.

Foreign words ending in vowels never accent the vowel: *Áuto* 'automobile', *Kónto* 'account'. Words from Greek that have derived forms in *-at*, always stress this suffix: *Dráma ~ dramátisch* 'drama, dramatic', *Prográmm ~ programmátisch* 'program ~ programatic'.

6.2 Accentuation and pitch

In German, as in English, the accented syllables are louder, accompanied by more air pressure. Accented syllables are also higher in pitch than the surrounding syllables. A few languages, such as Italian and Hungarian, combine stress accent with lower pitch. Ask a native Italian to say *buón giórno* and you will hear the difference.

6.3 Stress timing

German (like English) is a stress-timed language. That means that the time between stressed syllables is the same, independently of the number of syllables involved. The Romance languages, on the other hand, are syllable timed. Each syllable receives the same amount of time, producing a kind of machine-gun effect. Compare the following verses from Virgil (*Aeneid,* II, 792) in German and French translation:

> Dréimal versúcht' ich es nóch, um dem Háls ihr die Árme zu schlíngen,
> Dréimal entflóh mir, vergébens erháscht, die Gestált aus den Händen.

You can rap your knuckles on the table in regular rhythm while reciting these verses and you will see that the accented syllables occur at regular intervals. Where more syllables intervene between the accented syllables, you speed up, where fewer syllables intervene you slow down to maintain the basic metronome tempo.

In French, on the other hand, each syllable receives the same amount of time:

> Trois fois je tente de mettre mes bras autour de son cou,
> trois fois à mon étreinte vaine se dérobe son image.

Translation: 'Three times I tried to fling my arms around her neck; three times her shape escaped my vain embrace.'

Note that the translation is in iambic hexameter – that is six feet with the pattern: weak, strong. This is a slight deviation from the traditional five syllable line (cf. Shakespeare) known as "blank verse," but it sounds right for Virgil in English.

This is a **major** problem for speakers of syllable-timed languages. Many who completely master the grammar and the sounds of German stumble over stress timing.

Chapter 2: Noun phrase – Gender, Number, Case

1   The German noun phrase (NP)

The German noun phrase (NP) consists of the noun and its modifiers. We can identify determiners, adjectives, prepositional phrases, and relative (adjective) clauses as the modifiers. This is illustrated in (1):

(1)   [NP [Det Der] [Adj dicke] [N Mann] [PP mit dem gelben Fahrrad] [RC der immer zweimal klingelt] NP] bringt die Post. 'The fat man with the yellow bicycle who always rings twice delivers the mail'.

Clearly, the basic unit we have to deal with is *Det + Adj + N* since prepositional phrases and relative (adjective) clauses include these elements as well.

The only unfamiliar grammatical category in (1) is the **determiner.** Since we will have occasion to refer to it extensively in our discussion, a word of explanation is perhaps in order here. Determiners express the reference of a noun phrase rather than its attributes. Thus, in a noun phrase like *that fat man*, the adjective *fat* describes the man in question and the determiner *that* tells us which man we are talking about. Determiners include **articles** (*a, the*), **demonstratives** (pointing words like *this, that*) and **quantifiers** (words that tell us how many, e.g., *all, few, many*, etc.).

In Chapter 3, we will have a great deal more to say about determiners, but, for the moment, this explanation should suffice.

2   Gender, number and case

In German, as in most other languages in the Indo-European family, noun phrases are held together by "congruence," a system of endings that identify the elements as belonging to a single unit – the Noun Phrase. English has abandoned congruence (except for *this ~ these, that ~ those*) and relies on word order to identify the NP. Spanish and the other Romance languages, on the other hand, rely on both number and gender – while Russian and the Slavic languages agree with German in employing all three criteria for congruence:

(1)   **the** fat m**a**n ~ **the** fat m**e**n (English, no congruence).
(2)   **el** hombr**e** gord**o** ~ l**os** hombre**s** gord**os** (Spanish, gender and number congruence).
(3)   d**er** dick**e** Mann ~ d**ie** dick**en** Männ**er** (German, gender, number and case congruence).

In German, all three components of the noun phrase are **declined**, that is varied according to gender, number and case and locked together by congruence. There are three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter), two numbers (singular and plural) and four inflectional cases (nominative, genitive, dative and accusative). Thus for the German equivalent of *the fat man*, we have:

nominative	der	dicke	Mann
genitive	des	dicken	Mannes
dative	dem	dicken	Mann(e)
accusative	den	dicken	Mann

For the plural, *the fat men,* there are four more case forms:

nominative	die	dicken	Männer
genitive	der	dicken	Männer
dative	den	dicken	Männern
accusative	die	dicken	Männer

The feminine and the neuter singular have their own separate **declensions.** Mercifully, there is only one set of forms for the plural. We will discuss this in detail below.

The annoying thing about German congruence is that it carries very little "functional load," i.e., while the distinctions of gender, case and number must be strictly observed, the forms do not necessarily serve to identify any one particular constellation of the features. Consider that *der* is not only masc. sg. nom., but gen. and dat. sg. fem. as well as gen. pl. (the feminine forms, we have not met yet):

nom. sg. masc.	der	dicke	Mann
gen. sg. fem.	der	dicken	Frau
dat. sg. fem.	der	dicken	Frau
gen. pl. (all genders)	der	dicken	Männer ~ Frauen ~ Kinder

Notice that there is no distinction between fem. gen. and dat. sg. whatsoever and that the gen. pl. is only distinguished by the plural ending, while the masc. nom. sg. is distinguished by the lack of an *-n* on the adjective.

Clearly this is a complex and confusing matter. So let us approach it by first clarifying the categories involved.

3   Number

Number would seem to be the simplest of the three since it correlates well with practical things. That is, we can all distinguish between mass and count nouns. I have *one, two, three many friends*, but *not much money.* Similarly, the distinction between singular and plural is usually straightforward.

The realities are, of course, much more complex than one would think because languages do not always divide up the world in the same way. Consider the word *Information* borrowed from Latin by both English and German. In English it is a mass noun, but in German it is a count noun:

(1)   Can you give me **some** information?
(2)   Können Sie mir **einige** Information**en** (pl.) geben?

The same can be observed with *advice*:

(3)   Can you give **some** (**a piece of** advice)?
(4)   Können sie mir **einen** Rat geben?

and *hair:*

> (5)   He has grey **hair.**
> (6)   Er hat graue **Haare** 'hairs'**.**

And as we all know, *the police* are plural in English but *die Polizei* is singular in German. Similarly, *news* despite the *-s* ending is always singular in English, but German *Nachricht(en)* may be used as a singular or a plural. And let us not forget *die Vereinigten Staaten* 'The United States' – singular in English, but plural in German.

In addition, things that appear in pairs are generally treated as plurals in English, but singulars in German: *glasses ~ die Brille, scissors ~ die Schere; tongs, pliers ~ die Zange.*

German also treats distributive plurals (there are lots of them, but everybody has just one) as singular:

> (7)   We almost lost **our lives**.
> (8)   Wir haben beinahe **das Leben** verloren.

We will not pursue this further here. Suffice it to say that the student should be on guard against questions of number that defy the obvious.

An additional problem for German is, of course, that there are seven common ways of forming the plural of nouns, rather than just adding *-s* as in English, French or Spanish. This will be considered separately below.

4   Case

Case is more abstract (removed from practical things) than number and hence more problematic because it sometimes appear to correspond to reality and at other times seems totally arbitrary:

> (1)   Öffne **der** Dame (dat.) **die** Tür (acc.) 'Open the door (dir. obj.) **for** the lady (ind. obj.)
> (2)   Er schrieb einen Bericht **über** Albanien. 'He wrote a report **about** Albania'.

In (1), the verb takes a direct object in both German and English. The indirect object (the person concerned) is expressed by the dative in German and the preposition *for* in English). This seems to make some sort of sense, but there is no rational reason why in (2) German should select the preposition *über* 'above' with the accusative for the object of a communication, while English selects *about*.

Unfortunately, the discussion of case has been confounded by profound misunderstandings of just what case is. Charles Fillmore in a series of essays – in particular "The Case for Case" (1968) – helped clarify the issue. He pointed out that the concept "case" was confusingly used to refer to semantic or "deep case" as well as formal or "surface case." All languages have the same inventory of "deep cases": source, goal, agent, instrumental, etc., but each individual language has its own idiosyncratic way of projecting "deep case" onto "surface case." For languages like German, we have to add a third category: "inflectional case." To make this clear, consider the following examples:

Prepositional Phrase	Deep Case	Surface Case marker	Inflectional Case
in der Stadt 'in the city'	locative	in	dative
zu seinem Bruder 'to his brother'	directional	zu	dative
am nächsten Tag 'the next dat'	temporal	an	dative
gemacht von ihr 'made by her'	agent	von	dative
mit einem scharfen Messer 'with a sharp knife'	instrumental	mit	dative
mit größter Sorgfalt 'with great care'	manner	mit	dative
mit ihrem Freund 'with her friend'	sociative	mit	dative

The categories listed under "deep case" are indeed universal. Every language has means of indicating location, direction, time, etc. In all instances noted here, the "inflectional case" in German is the dative (most uninformative). The real "surface case" marker is, of course, the preposition, just as in English. Note that there is no one-to-one correspondence between deep and surface case. The preposition *mit* is used for several different deep cases: instrumental, manner and sociative.

In English, all prepositions take the objective case, except for *of*, which takes the objective or the genitive depending on meaning, cf. *a picture of me/ a picture of mine.*

As we have seen, surface case in German is made up of two elements: the case marker (usually a preposition) and inflectional case (usually marked by the determiner – *der, des, dem, den,* etc.). But what about syntactic constructions in which inflectional case is the sole marker of surface case? Consider: *Öffne der Dame die Tür* 'Open the door for the lady'.

Here, the accusative case *die Tür* clearly indicates the object of the action and the dative *der Dame* the beneficiary of the action. Prepositions are not necessary. This raises the question Was there ever a "golden age" in which inflection did the job alone and prepositions were superfluous? The answer is probably not. Surveying the world's languages, what we find is that some mostly employ prepositions as case markers (English and German), some (like Finnish and Turkish) postpositions that are closely joined to the noun, some (like Classical Latin) rely heavily on inflections. In all cases, we find a mixture of surface case markers and certainly no one-to-one correspondence between deep and surface case.

4.1   Physical case
By physical case we mean the use of case with location, where we can lay down concrete physical criteria. If I say *Meine Brille liegt auf **dem** Tisch* 'My glasses are on the table'*,* I am clearly talking about location of an object on a flat surface. On the other hand, if I say *Ich legte meine Brille auf **den** Tisch* 'I put my glasses on the table', I am clearly describing the goal of the action. The following table provides some useful information about physical case:

Category	Goal	Source	Location
Person	zu	von	bei
Flat surface	auf + acc.	von	auf + dat.
Vertical surface	an + acc.	von	an + dat.
Border	an + acc.	von	an + dat.
Enclosure	in + acc.	aus	in + dat.
Point	zu	von	an + dat.
Above	über + acc.	von über + dat.	über + dat.
Below	unter + acc.	von unter + dat.	unter + dat.
Front	vor + acc.	von vor + dat.	vor + dat.
Back	hinter + acc.	von hinter + dat.	hinter + dat.
Top	auf + acc.	von	auf + dat.

The table by no means exhausts the possibilities, nor does it explain all of the complexities, but does provide a rough guide for action. For example, *Ich ging **zu** meinem Bruder, Ich komme **von** meinem Bruder, Ich bin **bei** meinem Bruder,* etc.

Notice that we can define two categories of German prepositions – those that change inflectional case according to their deep case and those that always take the same inflectional case regardless of deep case. Thus, we have the contrast between goal-oriented activity: *Ich gehe in **den** Raum hinein* 'I go into the room' and location *Ich gehe in **dem** Raum herum* 'I walk around in the room'. Sometimes we encounter subtle differences. Is it *Ich pflanze Blumen vor **das/dem** Haus* 'I plant flowers in front of the house'. Both are possible. It just depends on how you look at it. Are we talking about the goal of the action (accusative) or the location (dative)?

Other prepositions take a specific surface case regardless of their deep case. Thus, *zu, von, bei* and *aus* are not marked for case in the table above because they always take the dative. Others always take the accusative. For example, *Wir saßen **um den** Tisch* 'we sat *around* the table'. The usage is clearly locative and should logically take the dative – but, it doesn't. Reason – *um* always takes the accusative regardless of its semantic (deep case) function. Compare *Wir saßen am (<an + dem) Tisch* 'we sat *at* the table'*,* which behaves as expected. Are you sorry you asked?

Verbs with separable prefixes are a particular problem. We have *in die Gruppe aufnehmen* 'accept into the group' (goal-oriented) and *im Körper aufnehmen* 'absorb' (already in your body).

There are also cases which defy all reason. For example, *Alle anonymen Briefe landen sofort **im** Briefkorb* 'all anonymous letters go straight into the wastepaper basket'. It is hard to imagine a more goal-oriented action, but *landen* always takes the dative.

English also makes a distinction between goal and location, but only for intransitive verbs. For example, *I went **into** the room/I sat **in** the room* (intransitive). But, *I put the cake **in** the oven/The cake is **in** the oven* (transitive). Transitive verbs use the *into/onto* form when confusion might arise as in *He kicked the ball on/onto the field.*

Sometimes surface case depends on "how you look at it." Consider:

     (1)   Ich habe **mir** (EXP) in **den** Finger (GOAL) geschnitten.

     (2)   Ich habe **mich** (EXP) in **den** Finger (GOAL) geschnitten.

              'I cut myself in the finger'.

     (3)   Ich habe **mich/*mir** geschnitten (the * means its wrong).

In both cases, the deep case assignments are identical. The surface case projection seems to be a matter of emphasis. In (1), the emphasis seems to be on the goal and the experiencer (EXP) is relegated to the dative where it often expresses minor interest. In (2), the emphasis is on *I cut myself* the goal is secondary. If it is of any help, I might add that native speakers are often confused in cases like this and find it difficult to describe the subtleties. In any case, the accusative is necessary (3) if the verb has only one object.

4.2   Metaphoric case

By metaphoric case we mean all those instances in which case does not refer to physical location. Here we are, unfortunately, totally at sea. Is there a reason why German uses the preposition *über* + acc. to reflect the deep case topic, but English chooses *on/about*? Compare: *Er schrieb ein Buch über Fledermäuse ~ He wrote a book **on/about** bats.* Or even, *Er ist blind **auf** einem Auge ~ He is blind **in** one eye.*

Does topic reside upon or around the subject matter in the thinking of the English speaker, but hover over the subject matter in the mind of the German speaker? This is indeed a tempting conclusion given the German stylistic predilection for abstraction and the Anglo-American preference for concreteness, but any conclusions based on this would be at best far-fetched. As for blindness, it is hard to believe that German speakers conceive of it as lying on the surface of the eye, while English speakers believe that it resides within the eye. Possibly the metaphors once made sense, but now they are thoroughly conventionalized.

A simple example of conventionalization is a phrase like *ein Blick **auf** die Uhr* 'a glance at the clock'. This makes perfect (deep case) sense if you are looking at a pocket watch – generally held in the palm of the hand – or, for that matter a wrist watch, but makes no sense when applied to a cuckoo clock hanging on the wall or grandfather clock standing in the corner. Here we would expect *an* (used for vertical surfaces). Possibly the clock on the wall competed with the pocket watch for a time, but then the more modern invention won out. So, casting a glance at the clock has been conventionalized with *auf*. The physical orientation of the clock no longer matters.

Of course, the further we get from the physical situation, the more difficult it becomes to find or devise explanations.

4.3   Beginners guide to case and prepositions

We have mentioned a number of difficulties involved with the selection of the correct case with prepositions above. In this section, we will present a few practical tips for getting the case right. The task is, of course, easiest with prepositions that always take the same case. So we will start there.

4.3.1 Prepositions with the genitive

Prepositions with the genitive are mostly derived transparently from other parts of speech: nouns (*an **Hand** der Beweise* 'on the basis **of** the evidence', ***kraft** meines Amtes* 'by virtue **of** my office') or adjectives (*hinsichtlich ihrer Motive* 'concerning her motives'). Notice that the English glosses genrally have the objective genitive with *of.* These prepositions are largely confined to very formal written language. Some are also used with the dative. Here are some of the most common ones:

abzüglich	less, minus	*abzüglich Ihrer Auslagen* 'less your out of pocket expenses'
zuzüglich	plus	*zuzüglich Ihrer Auslagen* 'plus your expenses'
einschließlich	including	*einschließlich Ihrer Auslagen* 'including your expenses'
ausschließlich	excluding	*ausschließlich Ihrer Auslagen* 'excluding your expenses'
angesichts	in view of	*angesichts der Tatsache, dass* 'in view of the fact that'
an Hand (von), auf Grund	on the basis of	*an Hand der Beweise* 'on the basis **of** the evidence'
anlässlich	on the occasion of	*anlässlich des 50. Jubileums* 'on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary'
an Stelle, (an)statt	instead of	*anstatt eines Blumenstraußes* 'instead of a bouquet'
dank	thanks to	*dank seines Einflusses/ seinem Enfluss* 'thanks to his influence' (also with dat.)
halber (postposition)	for the sake of	*der Form halber* 'for the sake of appearances'
hinsichtlich	concerning	*hinsichtlich ihrer Motive* 'concerning her motives'
infolge (von)	as a result of	*infolge dessen* 'as a result of this'
inmitten	in the midst of	*inmitten der Menschenmenge* 'in the midst of the crowd'
kraft	by virtue of	*kraft meines Amtes* 'by virtue **of** my office'
laut	according to	*laut Ihrer Aussage* 'according to your statement'
mangels	for lack of	*mangels Beweise* 'for lack of evidence'
mit Hilfe (von) mittels	with the aid of	*mit Hilfe eines Brecheisens* 'with the aid of a crow bar'

seitens	on the part of	*seitens des Kunden* 'on the part of the customer'
trotz	despite	*trotz unserer/unseren Vorsichtsmaßnahmen* 'despite our precautions' (also with dat.)
um ... willen	for ... sake	*um Gottes willen* 'for Gods sake'
während	during	*während unserer Unterhaltung* 'during our conversation'
wegen (also postpos.)	because of	*wegen schlechten Wetters/schlechtem Wetter*, *des schlechten Wetters wegen* 'because of bad weather' (also with dat.)
zu Gunsten (von)	in favor of	*zugunsten des Angeklagten* 'in favor of the accused'
innerhalb	within	*innerhalb einer Stunde* 'within one hour'
außerhalb	outside of	*außerhalb der Stadtgrenze* 'outside the city limits'
jenseits (von)	beyond	*jenseits von Gut und Böse* 'beyond good and evil'
links, rechts (von)	to the right, left of	*rechts der Apotheke* 'to the right of the drug store'
(un)weit	(not) far from	*unweit des Zelts seines Oheims* 'not far from his uncle's tent'
nördlich, südlich, etc.	north, south of, etc.	*nördlich des Polarkreises* 'north of the Arctic Circle'

In the absence of a determiner or an adjective, the noun remains undeclined in the singular: *laut Aussage des Angeklagten* 'according to the testimony of the defendant', *laut Absatz 666 des Bürgerlichen Gesetzbuches* 'according to Paragraph 666 of the Civil Code'.

In the plural, the dative (with or without *von* where possible) is used if there is no possibility of marking the genitive: *innerhalb (von) fünf Tagen* 'within five days', *einer Woche* 'one week', *er brachte Gerüchte statt Beweisen* 'he presented rumors instead of evidence'. In popular speech, the dative is often substituted in the singular as well (examples above).

4.3.2 Prepositions with the Dative
A number of common prepositions, which need no further clarification, always take the dative. Remember the rhyme:

> *Ab, aus, bei, mit, von, nach, zu*
> Take the dative. Why don't you?

There are a number of less common prepositions which deserve mention:

außer	except for	*außer mir* 'except for me'
binnen	within	*binnen drei Tagen* 'within three days'
entgegen	against	*entgegen dem Uhrzeigesinn* 'counterclockwise'
entsprechend	considering	*den Umständen entsprechend* 'considering the circumstances' (almost always postposed)
gegenüber	across from	*gegenüber dem Bahnhof /dem Bahnhof gegenüber* 'across from the station' (also postposed), *mir gegenüber* 'towards me', (with pronouns only postposed)
gemäß	in accordance with	*gemäß den Richtlinien/den Richtlinien gemäß* 'in accordance with regulations' (also postposed)
zufolge	according to	*Berichten zufolge* 'according to reports' (postposed)
zuliebe	for ... sake	*mir zuliebe* 'for my sake' (postposed)

With expressions of opinion *nach* can also follow: *nach meiner Überzeugung/meiner Überzeugung nach* 'according to my convictions'.

4.3.3 Prepositions with the accusative
The following prepositions always take the accusative: *bis, durch, entlang, für, gegen, ohne, um, wider, pro, je.* Some of them require comment:

bis	till, by	*bis* covers two rather different prepositions in English. *Ich bin bis 17.00 Uhr da* 'I'll be here **till/until** five o'clock', *der Bericht muss bis Freitag fertig sein* 'the report has to be ready **by** Friday'. *Bis* is often used with a second preposition: *Ich begleite Dich bis zum Bahnhof* 'I'll accompany you to (as far as) the station'. In such cases the second preposition determines case.
durch	through	With passive verbs *durch* indicates means while *von* is used for the agent: *Er wurde* durch *eine Kugel getroffen* 'he was hit **by** a bullet' *Er wurde* von *seiner Frau ermordet* 'he was murdered **by** his wife'. With verbal nouns, only *durch* is used: *die Entdeckung Amerikas* durch *Columbus* 'the discovery of America **by** Columbus'.
entlang	along	*entlang* takes the dative when it precedes and the accusative when it follows: *entlang dem Fluss/den Fluss entlang* 'along the river'.
wider	against	*wider* is only used in very formal language and a few set expressions: *wider seinen Willen* 'against his will', *wider die Natur* 'contrary to nature'.

pro, je		usually no preposition in English: *5 € pro Stück* '5 € a piece'.
ohne	without	*ohne* can be followed by the infinitive: *ohne es zu wissen* 'without knowing it'.

4.3.4 Prepositions with dative or accusative

The following prepositions take either the dative or the accusative depending on context: *an, auf, hinter, neben, in, über, unter, vor, zwischen.*

The difficulty lies, as might be expected, in determining the context. In some cases, the choice is quite clear, in others nuances of interpretation are involved and usage is by no means fixed. There are also differences between physical and metaphoric use of the prepositions. We will take the simplest cases first.

4.3.4.1 Simple verbs indicating goal or location

Simple verbs indicating goal take the accusative, verbs indicating location take the dative: *Er legte seine Brille auf* den *Tisch* 'He put his glasses on the table' (goal), *seine Brille liegt auf* dem *Tisch* 'his glasses are on the table' (location). *Setzen Sie sich in den Sessel vor dem Fenster* 'sit down in the chair (goal) in front of the window (location)', *sie sitzt in dem Sessel vor dem Fenster* 'she is sitting in the armchair (location)'. The choice of preposition depends on the nature of the physical goal or location (see the table in the discussion of physical case above).

If the physical analogy is strong enough, this can be extended to metaphoric use: *Pastor Wright nimmt kein Blatt vor* den *Mund* 'Pastor Wright doesn't mince words', literally 'he doesn't take a leaf of paper and (put it) in front of his mouth', but *ich stehe vor einem Rätsel* 'I am mystified', literally 'I am standing in front of a riddle'.

Unfortunately, not all cases are this simple. Consider *klopfen + an* 'knock on'. Is it *er klopfte an* die *Tür* or *der Tür*? Sometimes we find both forms used within a few lines by the same author as this recent (2008) example illustrates:

> Da klopft ein Mann an **meine** Hotelzimmertür .... kaum im Hotel angekommen – freute ich mich sehr über das männliche Klopfen an **der** Tür 'Then there's a knock at the door . . . hardly arrived at the hotel – I was very pleased about this masculine kocking on the door' – Ulrike Klode

This has nothing to do with the noun *Klopfen* instead of the verb *klopfen* (see below).

According to Duden, the authority in such matters, both dative and accusative are possible. The guidelines for proper usage are subtle at best. Duden tells us that it's clearly dative if a choice is involved: *Du musst nicht an der Tür, sondern am Fenster klopfen!* 'you have to knock on the window, not the door'. Here the place, not the action is emphasized. On the other hand, if the purpose of the knocking is expressed, the accusative is required:

> Die Vorsitzende klopfte an *ihr* Glas, um für Ruhe zu sorgen 'the chairwoman tapped on her glass to request silence'.

Hmmm, are you sorry you asked?

4.3.4.2 Static and dynamic verbs
Verbs that take a prepositional phrase indicating goal are dynamic (show change of state or location): *Er stellte die Weinflasche auf den Tisch* 'he put the wine bottle on the table'. The position of the wine bottle has changed. The past perfect particple, however, indicates that the change has been completed: *Die Weinflasche war auf den Tisch gestellt* 'the wine bottle had been placed on the table'. Notice that *stellen auf* still governs the accusative (cf. *die Wein flasche stand auf* dem *Tisch* – dative with the static verb of location *stehen* 'stand').

This holds as well for the extended participle construction: *Er stoß die auf* den *Tisch gestellte Weinflasche um* 'he upset the wine bottle that had been placed on the table'.

This rule also applies to metaphoric use: *Er verliebte sich in einen Filmstar* 'he fell in love with a film star', dynamic with a "mental" goal, and *Er ist in einen Filmstar verliebt* 'he is in love with a film star', perfective, static. Dynamic verbs that take a goal object in the accusative, retain the accusative when they are used statically.

4.3.4.3 Ellipsis of the verb
Often, especially in conversation, the verb is elided, that is, simply left out, or vaguely implied. The rule: accusative of goal, dative of location still applies: *Ab ins Bett!* '(go) off to bed', *Hände auf den Kopf* (put) your hands on your head'; *Wir haben immer weniger Geld in der Tasche* 'we have less and less money in our pockets'(where we keep money), *Sie brauchen Brot auf dem Tisch* 'they need bread on the table' (where they sit to eat).

4.3.4.4 Prepositional case with adjectives and nouns
Adjectives and nouns derived from verbs take the same preposition and surface case assignment as the verbs they are derived from: *Ludolf freute sich über seinen Wahlsieg* 'Ludolf was pleased about his election victory', *Ludolf war froh über seinen Wahlsieg* 'Ludolf was pleased about his election victory', *Ludolfs Freude über seinen Wahlsieg* 'Ludolf's joy over his election victory'.

4.3.4.5 Perfective verbs with a prefix
Perfective verbs with a separable or inseparable prefix that indicate the completion of an action present a particular problem for choice between the dative and accusative. Consider the following contrasts:

(1) Wir kamen nach Mitternacht in die Stadt 'We entered the city after midnight' (goal with acc.).

(2) Wir kamen nach Mitternacht in der Stadt an 'We arrived in the city after midnight' (perfective verb with prefix).

(3) Ludolf brachte die unerwarteten Gäste in ein Hotel 'Ludolf brought the unexpected guests to a hotel'(goal with acc.).

(4) Ludolf brachte die unerwarteten Gäste in einem Hotel unter 'Ludolf put up the unexpected guests in a hotel'(perfective verb with prefix).

The simple verbs *kommen + in* + acc., *bringen in* + acc. are dynamic with a goal. The prefixed variants *unterbringen + in* + dat., *ankommen + in* + dat. indicate completed action. In cases like these, the choice of case seems fairly simple since the simple verbs answer the question *wohin*

(where did Ludolf take the unexpected guests *to*?), while the prefixed verbs answer the question *wo* (where did Ludolf put the unexpected guests?).

Notice too, that the perfective examples are complete without the prepositional phrase:

(5)   Wir kamen nach Mitternacht an 'We arrived after midnight'.

(6)   Ludolf brachte die unerwarteten Gäste unter 'Ludolf put the unexpected guests up'.

The prepositional phrase here can be regarded as optional extra information about location, like *nach Mitternacht,* the information about time .

If all instances were this clear cut, there would not be much difficulty here, but this is hardly the case. Consider:

(7)   Er wurde in *die* Gesellschaft aufgenommen 'He was accepted into the society'.

(8)   Er wurde in *der* Gesellschaft freundlich aufgenommen 'He was cordially accepted in the society'.

Curme (*Grammar of the German Language,* p. 379) tells us that in the first case he entered from outside (was elected into the group) and in the second he was already there [and found a friendly reception].

Similarly,

(9)   Renate verpackte die Gläser in eine Kiste 'Renate packed the glasses in a box' (to get them out of the way) – *wohin*.

(10)   Renate verpackte die Gläser in einer Kiste (to keep them from being broken) – *wo*.

But, there are numerous cases in which there does not seem to be any particular reason for the choice:

(11)   Ich trage Sie in die/der Liste ein 'I'll put you on the list' (mostly acc.)

(12)   Renate schließt sich in ihr/ihrem Zimmer ein 'Renate locks herself in her room' (when she is mad at Ludolf).

(13)   In unsere/unserer Firma ist eingebrochen worden 'There was a burglary at our company'.

(14)   Diebe haben sich in den/im Keller eingeschlichen 'Thieves crept into the cellar' (mostly acc.).

4.3.4.6 With expressions of time

Time expressions are not always marked by a preposition (see below). When a preposition is used, those that can govern the dative or accusative, *an, in* and *vor* take the dative when they

indicate a point in time (location).

an	am 20. März	on March 20
in	in sieben Tagen	in seven days
vor	vor einer Woche	one week ago

Of course, the accusative is used for goal: *er schrieb (bis) in die späte Nacht hinein* 'he wrote till late in the night'.

4.3.4.7 Beyond time and space

The prepositions *auf* and *über* govern the accusative when they express relations other than time or space. The other prepositions in this group(mostly) take the dative:

auf	auf keinen Fall	under no circumstances
über	über meine Leiche	over my dead body
an*	Interesse an ihr zeigen	show interest in her
in*	in großer Schwierigkeit	in great difficulty
neben	neben seinen Schulden	besides his debts
unter	Streit unter den Kandidaten	conflict among the candidates
vor	Angst vor dem Fliegen	fear of flying
zwischen	Streit zwischen den Kandidaten	conflict between the candidates

*Exceptions: *der Glaube an den Weihnachtsman* 'belief in Santa Claus' (but, *der Zweifel an dem Weichnachtsmann* 'doubt about Santa Claus'), *sich an die Regeln halten* 'to stick to the rules'(but, *sich an der Hand von jemandem fest halten* 'grasp someone's hand tightly'), *an mich denken* 'think of me', *sich an jemanden erinnern* 'to remember somone', *sich verblieben in sie* 'fall in love with her', *in bittere Tränen ausbrechen* 'burst into bitter tears', *jemandem vertrauen* 'to trust someone', but *das Vertrauen in jemanden setzen* 'to place trust in someone', etc. Here caution (and a quick internet search) is advised.

4.4   Case without prepositions

A complete grammar of German from deep case to surface (and inflectional) case would be a wondrous thing to behold and probably as extensive as this entire book. Here we wish only to provide a bit of insight into syntactic constructions involving inflectional case.

4.4.1   Nominative

The nominative? What's there to say about that? The nominative in both German and English is the case of the subject. It seems to be defined functionally (a noun phrase that serves as the subject of a sentence is in the nominative). Similarly, we can say that complement of a **copulative** verb is in the nominative:

(1)   Ludolf **ist** ein Held 'Ludolf is a hero'.

(2)   Ludolf **wurde** ein reicher Mann 'Ludolf became a rich man'.

(3)   Ludolf **scheint** ein glücklicher Mensch zu sein 'Ludolf seems to be a happy man'.

As the examples illustrate, **copulative** verbs state some kind of equivalence: $A = B, A > B$. A familiar mathematical symbol for more subtle equivalents like 'seem' is, unfortunately, not available, perhaps $A \cong B$ would be appropriate.

Here, there is at least one important difference between English and German. If an office or official post is the end point of the development, German uses *zu* instead of the nominative:

(4)   Nixon wurde *zum Präsidenten* gewählt 'Nixon was elected president'.

Perhaps more interesting is the relationship between underlying (deep) case and the syntactic subject. There are significant differences here between English and German. In general, English is much more flexible in what it can promote to subject position. In English, deep cases such as locative, temporal, instrumental, means, etc., can be promoted to subjects:

(5)   In diesem Zelt können vier Personen schlafen 'This tent sleeps four people' [locative].

(6)   Im Jahre 1939 begann der Zweite Weltkrieg 'Nineteen-thirty-nine saw the beginning of the Second World War' [temporal].

(7)   Mit einem Brecheisen kommt man leicht in die Wohnung hinein. 'A crow bar will assure easy entrance into the apartment' [instrument].

(8)   Mit 30.000 Dollar kann man heutzutage kein Haus bauen 'Thirty thousand dollars won't build a house these days' [means].

German is quite conservative here although it does not strictly limit the subject to agents. In particular, experiencers appear as both nominatives and datives:

(9)   Mir ist kalt 'I am cold' (physical sensation).

(10)   Ich habe Durst 'I am thirsty'.

In older German (up through the eighteenth century), we find the accusative as well:

(11)   Nach Dir, Herr, verlanget mich 'For thee, o Lord, I long' (BWV 150).

4.4.2   Genitive

It is no secret that the German genitive is not doing well. It is, of course, holding its own as a possessive *Ludolfs Fahrrad* 'Ludolf's bicycle' and partitive *die Rückenlehne des Stuhls* 'the back

of the chair' and with various other kinds of connection between nouns, that are often difficult to classify, Contrast *das Haus meines Vaters* 'my father's house' with *das Haus des Herrn* 'the Lord's house' (in the religious sense). Often, however, (especially in the spoken language) the genitive yields to prepositional constructions *das Haus **von** dem Herrn, die Rückenlehne vom Stuhl.*

      With verbs, the genitive is far vaguer than the accusative or dative and has mostly been replaced with prepositional constructions. In legal language (perhaps influenced by Latin) we still have: *Er wurde **des** Mordes angeklagt,* but also *Er wurde **wegen** Mord(es) angeklagt* 'He was charged with murder'. Note the presence of the article in the first example for the purpose of carrying the genitive case marker. After *wegen* either the genitive (formal) or the dative (informal) is used.

      As pointed out above, the genitive is a rich source of new prepositions derived from nouns and adjectives: *an Hand der Beweise* 'on the basis **of** the evidence' *nördlich des Polarkreises* 'north **of** the Arctic Circle'. The genitive is not likely to disappear unless it is completely replaced by *von* (cf. *of* in the English examples).

4.4.3 Dative

Most verbs with a dative object really have two objects: a personal benefactive object and a direct object of various deep case sources. Consider, *Ich helfe Dir* 'I'll help you'. Why *dir* and not *dich*? Now, consider *Ich helfe Dir, die Leiche zu verbergen* 'I'll help you hide the corpse'. Here it is clear that the direct object is the embedded clause *[hide the corpse]*. The benefactive object, *Dir,* is in the dative as is usual.

      In a great number of cases, the use of the personal dative (= benefactive) can be explained in this way. For example, *ich danke Dir, dass Du mir geholfen hast, die Leiche zu verbergen* 'I thank you for helping me hide the corpse', where both verbs *danken* and *helfen* have personal benefactives and clause objects. There are innumerable cases where the clause object is evident and often represented by es in the main clause. *Erlauben Sie (es) mir, Ihnen die Tür zu öffnen* 'Allow me to open the door for you', *Du kannst (es) mir glauben, O.J. hat es getan* 'You can believe me, O.J. did it'. (On the use of *es,* see also the chapter on syntax.)

      Even without a clausal object expressed or implied, a number of verbs prefer or demand the benefactive expressed as dative: *ich helfe Dir* 'I'll help you', *Ich danke Dir* 'Thank you', *Lesen beim schlechten Licht schadet die/den Augen* 'reading in poor light damages the eyes'.

      There are, however, some verbs where no direct object clause or benefactive is in sight: *Folgen sie **mir*** 'Follow me', *Ich begegnete **ihm** vor der Bank* 'I ran into him in front of the bank'. These seem to express the deep case locative or point of reference, which is likewise expressed by the surface case dative. Further examples with a point of reference: *Er ging an dem alten Bahnhof vorbei* 'He went past the old railway station', *Er näherte sich dem Kontrollpunkt* 'He approached the control point'.

      An important difference between English and German is the tendency to use of the dative to express experiencers rather than the nominative: *Mir ist kalt* 'I am cold' (cf. *Ich bin kalt* 'I have no feelings'), similarly *Mir geht es gut* 'I'm just fine', *Das schadet Dir nichts* 'That won't hurt you', but *Es ahnt mir nichts Gutes/Ich ahne nichts Gutes* 'I have a feeling that all is not well'.

      Thus, we must conclude that not all strange datives have the same origin. Some are benefactives, others locatives. This hardly exhausts the subject, but we must, nonetheless move on.

4.4.4 Accusative

The accusative is the case of the direct object as well as goal and extent in space, time or degree. The uses of the accusative to indicate goal have been considered above. Consider the following interesting contrast: *Karl aß den ganzen Käse* 'Karl ate the whole cheese' ~ *Karl aß den ganzen Tag* 'Karl ate all day (long)'. In the first example, we have a normal direct object, in the second an extent of time. Similarly, we say *Er blieb drei Tage zu Hause* 'he stayed home for three days', *Er kam einen Tag vor mir nach Hause* 'He came home one day earlier than I did'. With distance, we have *Fahren Sie drei Kilometer weiter* 'Drive another three kilometers'. With degree: *Er ist fünf Kilo schwerer als ich* 'He weighs five kilos more than I do'.

Closely related is the accusative of cost or amount: *Dieser Eisbergsalat kostet nur einen Euro* 'This head of lettuce costs only one Euro', *Er musste einen Monatslohn bezahlen* 'He had to pay a month's wages'.

The accusative is also used (without a preposition) to fix a specific point in time: *Ich sah ihn letzten Donnerstag* 'I saw him last Thursday'.

Indefinite time is expressed with the genitive: *Eines Tages kam Herr Meier früh nach Hause* 'one day Mr. Meier came home early'. With prepositions, the dative used: *An diesem Tag hatte seine Frau Besuch* 'on this day his wife had company'.

5 Gender

The most problematic of our three categories (number, case, gender) is certainly the last one and, once again, much of the difficulty is due to fundamental confusion as to what "gender" actually is. Let us begin our investigation of gender with a definition – **Gender is a relationship of dominance between a noun, its modifiers and substitutes.**

In English, this relationship is expressed solely by pronoun substitution, e.g., *Do you know my father*? *Yes, I spoke to **him** yesterday.* If we substitute *mother* for *father* in the previous exchange, the referring pronoun will be *her,* not *him.* Not all languages have this device.

An additional form of domination is found in languages like Spanish and German, where the noun determines the form of the article (and other determiners) and the adjective. This is clearer in Spanish because case is not involved: *la muchacha es fea ~ el muchacho es feo* 'the girl/boy is ugly'. Notice that the feminine ending *-a* demands the identical ending on the article and the adjective. In the masculine, the *o*-ending on the noun demands the same for the adjective and also determines the choice of *el* for the article.

5.1 Natural and grammatical gender

What we have seen above is an instance of natural gender. Natural gender corresponds to our notions about the practical world – fathers are male and mothers are female. Grammatical gender, on the other hand, is a purely formal device that has nothing to do with sex.

In our Spanish example above the two forms of gender overlap, e.g., the word *muchacho* refers to a male individual and has masculine gender. But, we also have: *el cuarto es feo ~ la habitación es fea* 'the room is ugly'. Now, there really is nothing about a room that qualifies it as male or female or, as we see from the example, both! The basis for the selection is purely formal: nouns that end in *-o* are grammatically masculine and take masculine articles and adjective endings. Similarly, nouns that end in *-ión* are always feminine and dominate accordingly.

Much suffering can be avoided by separating natural from grammatical gender and by giving each its due. Yes, *der Vater, die Mutter, das Kind* correspond to practical things in the world (masculine, feminine and neuter sex), but *der Löffel, die Gabel, das Messer* 'spoon, fork,

knife' have nothing to do with sex. Much mischief could have been avoided by simply calling the three classes: Type I, Type II and Type III rather than pinning labels on them that only cover a handful of words.

Probably, the best (and least confusing) approach to the question of gender is to consider natural and grammatical gender as two different categories that share common features like the selection of the article. For grammatical gender, we can retain the common designations: masculine, feminine and neuter – provided that we recognize that these terms have nothing to do with sex (or does your mom remind you of a fork die *Mutter* ~ *die Gabel* and your dad of a spoon *der Vater* ~ *der Löffel*). For natural gender, we can divide nouns into five categories, **male, female** and **neutral** (*Vater, Mutter, Kind*) and two additional categories: **epicene** and **unmarked.**

Epicene applies to the names of animals for which there is only one word, e.g., *Frosch* 'frog', *Kröte* 'toad'. *Frosch* is grammatically masculine (*der Frosch*) and *Kröte* feminine (*die Kröte*). But, there is no grammatical form for a female frog or a male toad. This contrasts with unmarked, where either the male or female term is used for the animal in general and a suffixed marked term is used for the other sex, e.g., *die Katze* 'cat' ~ *der Kater* 'tom cat', *der Hund* 'dog' ~ *die Hündin* 'female dog'. We can summarize this in the following chart:

Category	Gender	Example
male	masculine	Hahn 'rooster'
female	feminine	Henne 'hen'
neutral	neuter	Huhn 'chicken'
epicene	all	Giraffe 'giraff'
unmarked	male/female	Fuchs 'fox', Maus 'mouse'

Particularly for speakers of English and similar languages, which have only natural gender, applying to pronominal reference, the distinction is difficult. With humans, in German, grammatical gender prevails within a sentence, but natural gender is more general if the reference runs over two or more sentences. Thus, *Wo ist **das** Mädchen, **das** ihm die Blumen überreicht hat? **Sie/es** gibt gerade der Presse ein Interview* 'Where is the girl who handed him the flowers? **She/it** is giving the press an interview'.

With inanimate objects grammatical gender is used: *Wo ist **meine Bahnkarte? Sie** liegt auf dem Tisch* 'Where is my rail ticket? **She** is on the table'. *Wo ist **mein Füller? Er** liegt auf dem Tisch* 'Where is my fountain pen? **He** is on the table'. *Wo ist mein Glas? **Es** steht auf dem Tisch* 'Where is my glass? **It** is on the table.

5.2   Determining gender

Fortunately, we are not completely at sea in determining the gender of German words. Mark Twain in his essay "The Awful German Language" complained that *Mädchen* 'girl' is neuter while *Rübe* 'turnip' is feminine. Surely, an offence to natural gender, but, most of the time it is possible to guess the correct gender (and plural) on the basis of purely formal criteria. For example, *Mädchen* is neuter because all words that end in the suffix -*chen* are neuter and grammatical gender (as emphasized above) takes precedence over natural gender. *Rübe* is feminine because almost all inanimates that end in -*e* are feminine. We will note exceptions below.

In the following sections, we will outline practical rules for determining the gender of German nouns. It will be seen that some are more practical than others. That is, some rules are hard and fast. Nouns with the suffix *-chen* are neuter without exception and the suffix overrides all considerations of natural gender. Others admit a few exceptions that are easily noted, e.g., inanimates ending in *-e* are almost exclusively feminine (there are a few exceptions to remember: e.g., *das Ende* 'end', *der Käse* 'cheese', etc.). Some simply narrow the possibilities. For example, nouns ending in *-nis* are either feminine (*die Erkenntnis* 'insight') or neuter (*das Ergebnis* 'result') – at least masculine can be ruled out – and both groups take the plural *-nisse* (See the Appendix for a complist list of the feminines*.)* Some nouns can take more than one gender *der/das Teil* 'part' with subtle difference in meaning at best. Others have radically different meanings *die Steuer* 'tax', *das Steuer* 'rudder'. Semantic criteria also play a role, e.g., the days of the week are all masculine.

5.3   Semantic classes

Here we will be concerned with gender assignment according to semantic classes which do not fall under the category of natural gender. That is, it is hardly surprising that most nouns indicating female individuals are feminine, but there is no particular reason why most (but not all) river names should be feminine. Most European masculine river names are of Celtic origin: *der Rhein, Main, Neckar, Inn, Lech, Regen,* etc. To these we can add foreign rivers: *der Amazonas, Mississippi*, perhaps under the influence of *der Fluss* 'river'. But those that end in *-e* are feminine like most other words in *-e*, e.g., *die Themse,* as are those in *-a,* e.g., *die Wolga.*

Masculine:
1.   Days of the week of the week.   Expected as six of seven are compounded with *-tag. Mittwoch < Mitte + Woche* should really be (and once was) feminine, but has become masculine by analogy with the other six days.

2.   The months of the year (perhaps from *der Monat*).

3.   The seasons *der Winter, Frühling* (but *das Frühjahr,* from *das Jahr*).

4.   The points of the compass: *der Norden, Osten,* etc.

5.   Weather terms: *der Schnee, Regen, Nebel, Hagel.*

6.   Individual mountains: *der Mt. Everest, Mt. McKinnley* (but not mountain ranges, see below under collectives)

7.   Minerals: *der Quarz, Basalt, Granit.*

8.   Alcoholic beverages: *der Wein, Kognak, Vodka* (*Wein* altered from the Lat. neut. *vinum*), *Kognak* from French *le cognac*, *Vodka* by analogy to *der Schnaps.*) But, *das Bier.*

9.   Money: *der Dollar, Euro, Cent, Peso.* But feminine if in *-a, -e*: *die Lira, Drachme* and *das Pfund.*

Feminine:

1.   The names of ships and airplanes: *die Stockholm, Andrea Dorea, Boeing 707.*

2.   The names of trees and most flowers: *die Eiche* 'oak', *Buche* 'beech'; *die Rose, Tulpe, Nelke* 'carnation'.

3.   The names of numbers: *Er hat eine Eins, Zwei, Drei gekriegt* 'He got a one, two, three (= A,B,C).

4.   Most German river names: *die Elbe, Isar* as well as foreign river names ending in *-e* or *-a*: *die Wolga, Themse*. The rest are masculine: *der Rhein, Main* (Celtic origin), *Amazonas, Mississippi* (foreign).

Neuter:

1.   Most chemical elements: *das Kupfer, das Radium, das Chlor* (but those compounded with *der Stoff* are naturally masculine: *der Sauerstoff* 'oxygen', *Wasserstoff* 'hydrogen'. Also note *der Phosphor, Schwefel* 'sulfer'.

2.   Properly, metric terms: *das Liter, Meter* (in actual usage, mostly masculine because of the *-er* ending).

3.   Letters of the alphabet: *das A und O*.

4.   Names of languages (usually treated as substantivized adjectives): *Eine Übersetzung ins Englische, Französische* 'a translation into English, French'.

5.   Names of most countries: *das schöne Italien* 'lovely Italy'. Note that with neuter countries the article is not used unless an adjective is present: *Italien ist ein schönes Land.* Names in *-ei. –ie, -e* are feminine: *die Türkei, die Normandie, die Ukraiäne,* also *die Schweiz.* Masculine: *der Irak, Iran, Libanon.* Plural: *die Niederlande, Vereinigten Staaten, USA.*

6.   The names of the continents: *das alte Europa,* but *die Arktis, Antarktika.*

7.   The names of cities regardless of normal grammatical gender: *das schöne Hamburg* (despite *die Burg* 'fortress'), *das alte Frankfurt* (despite *die Furt* 'ford').

5.4   Formal criteria for gender
In the following section, we will consider rules for gender based on formal criteria (word ending). Note that the application of the criteria depend to a great extent on proper analysis of the form involved. Thus, agent nouns like *Lehrer* 'teacher, someone who teaches' are always masculine, but this does not mean that all nouns that end in *-er* are agent nouns and thus masculine, e.g. *die Kammer* < Lat. *camera* 'room', feminine in Latin, is feminine in German as well. With this in mind:

Masculine:
1   **-er:** Agent Nouns (words indicating the doer of an action) in *-er* always masculine: *der Arbeiter* 'worker', *Briefträger* 'letter carrier', *Straßenfeger* 'street sweeper'. Female

agents take the suffix *-in*: *die Briefträgerin.* Also most tools: *der Toaster* 'toaster' (see Appendix).

2   **-en:** Nouns in *-en* that are derived from infinitives are neuter (see below), most of the others are inanimate masculine *n*-stems. These form a genitive in *-s* (*des Gartens*). Some of these have umlaut in the plural: *die Gärten,* others do not: *der Bolzen ~ die Bolzen* 'bolt'. There are also a number of **neuters** not derived from infinitives: *das Becken* 'basin'*, Kissen* 'pillow, cushion'*, Laken* bed sheet'*, Zeichen* 'sign'*, Leben,* 'life' (see Appendix).

3   **-e:** The animate *n*-stems with natural gender retain the old declension (*-e* in the nom. sing., *-n* in all other cases of the singular and plural): *der Junge, Bube* 'boy'*, Preuße* 'Prussian', *Russe* 'Russian'; also warm-blooded animals: *der Löwe* 'lion' (cf. *die Schnecke, Schlange* 'snail, snake').

4   **Verb stems:** Nouns formed from verbs by dropping the infinitive ending *-en* are masculine. *Springen ~ der Sprung* 'jump', *beißen ~ der Biss* 'bite', *fliegen ~ der Flug* 'fly'. As the examples illustrate, the noun can be derived from any form of the verb, not just the infinitive. The plural takes umlaut: *die Sprünge, Flüge.* Others have *a*: *Trank,* as well as *Trunk ~ trinken* 'drink', also *Dampf* 'steam', *Klang* 'sound', *(Ge)stank* 'stink', *Zank* 'strife'. These also have umlaut plurals: *Dämpfe* 'vapors'*, Klänge.*

5   **-ig, -ling:** Nouns with these suffixes of somewhat obscure origin are always masculine: *der König* 'king'*, Käfig* 'cage'*, Honig* 'honey'*; der Eindringling* 'intruder', *Findling* 'foundling', *Frühling* 'spring'. All of them take a plural in *-e: der König ~ die Könige.*

6   **-s:** A curious group in *-s*: *der Fuchs* 'fox', *Luchs* 'linx', *Knirps* 'little squirt', *Schnaps* 'liquor'. Mostly with umlaut in the plural (but *Luchs ~ Luchse*).

Feminine:

1.   **-e:** Inanimate nouns in *-e* are feminine and take the plural *-en*: *die Rübe* 'turnip', *Lampe* 'lamp', *Stube* 'room' (related to Eng. *stove* originally 'the heated room'). Collectives with the prefix *ge-* (e.g., *das Gemüse* 'vegetables') are neuter. (See below.)

2.   **-ung, -heit/-keit, -schaft:** These suffixes, corresponding to English (*-ing, -hood, -ship*) are all used to form abstract nouns from concrete nouns: *Kind ~ Kindheit* 'child ~ childhood', adjectives: *ähnlich ~ Ähnlichkeit* 'similar ~ similarity' or verbs: *lösen ~ Lösung* 'solve ~ solution'. They take the ususal feminine plural in *-en.* The suffix *-keit* follows *-ig, -ich, -isch, -m*: *Traurigkeit* 'sadness', *Fröhlichkeit* 'cheerfulness', *Linkischkeit* 'awkwardness', *Betriebsamkeit* 'activity, bustle'. After *-r,* we find both forms: *Bitterkeit* 'bitterness' and *Minderheit* 'minority'. Others take *-heit.*

[Note that, while German and English share the same set of suffixes, they do not necessary apply them to the same stems: *Bruderschaft ~ brotherhood, Mutterschaft ~ motherhood.* This is an additional indication that German and English are affectionate sisters. If the words had been borrowed in either direction, we would expect the same suffixes with each stem. Here we see that English and German have a common stock of roots and suffixes and can combine them in independent ways.]

3. **-t/-d:** Unlike those above, this suffix is no longer "productive" (i.e., we can't use it to make new abstract nouns out of verbs). The English equivalent is *-th*, which we find applied to a small group of verbs and adjectives from the earliest period of the language: *heal ~ health, wide ~ width, steal ~stealth.* In German these are much more numerous: *fliegen ~ Flucht* 'fly ~ flight', *suchen ~ Sucht* 'seek ~ addiction (!), *jagen ~ Jagd* 'hunt ~ the hunt', *stehen ~ die Stadt* 'stand ~ city'. Insofar as these abstract nouns are used in the plural at all, they generally take the normal feminine *-en*: *die Jagd ~ die Jagden*, but *die Stadt ~ die Städte*. A few of these nouns have changed gender: *das Gift* literally 'something you give to someone' means 'present' in English, but 'poison' in German! (cf. *die Mitgift* 'dowry'. As the old German saying goes: *An Mitgift ist noch keiner Gestorben* 'No one ever died from a dowery'). Also, *der Verdacht* 'suspicion', *Verlust* 'loss', both with *-e* in the plural. Also *der Saft* 'juice, sap' (pl. *die Säfte*), where the final *-t* is phonological, not an ending. For further discussion, see collective nouns in *ge-* below.For further feminines see gender of foreign words below.

Neuter:
1. **-chen, -lein:** These suffixes and numerous variants from the dialects: Low German *-kin,* Upper German *-le,* are usually classified as "diminutive" suffixes – ones that indicate a smaller version of the original. This is not to be taken literally. When applied to animals, the terms *Männchen* and *Weibchen* simply mean 'the male' and 'the female' and serve equally well for whales as for mice. Some times the meaning is affective: *Bübchen* is simply more affectionate than *Bube* 'little fellow'. Be this as it may, all nouns with this suffix are neuter and do not change in the plural. Note that the addition of the suffix causes umlaut: *Bube ~ Bübchen , Buch ~ Büchlein.*

2. **-nis:** Thus suffix (= Eng. *-ness*) forms abstract nouns from adjectives (*finster ~ Finsternis* 'dark ~ darkness'), participles (*gefangen ~ Gefängnis* 'captured ~ prison'), nouns (*Ärger ~ Ärgernis* 'trouble ~ nuisance') and verbs (*erlauben ~ Erlaubnis* 'permit ~ permission'). From earliest times, neuter competed with feminine gender. The neuter now prevails, but there are numerous exceptions. Some of the most common **feminines:** *die Finsternis* 'darkness', *Erlaubnis* 'permission', *(Er)kenntnis* 'knowledge', *Wildnis* 'wilderness', *Ersparnis* 'saving', *Verdamnis* 'damnation'. (There is a complete list in the Appendix.) All form their plural in *-nisse.*

3. **-sal, -sel:** This suffix, which appears with both full and reduced vowel, forms nouns out of verbs, e.g., *mitbringen ~ das Mitbringsel* 'bring along' ~ a small gift brought along when visiting'. Some of the most common with full vowel: *das Schicksal* 'fate', *Scheusal* 'monster', with reduced vowel: *Rätsel* 'riddle', *Überbleibsel* 'left over', *Streusel* (usually plural) 'crumbs strewn on a cake'. Here again there is some variation in gender, **feminine:** *die Trübsal* 'gloom', *Drangsal* 'distress', *Mühsal* 'drudgery' ; **masculine:** *der Stöpsel* 'stopper', *Wechsel* 'change' from the verbs *stöplseln, wechseln* do not belong here. They are verb stems like *der Dank.* The rest are neuter. Insofar as these are used in the plural, those in *-sal* take *-e.* Those in *-sel* remain unchanged.

4. **-tum:** This suffix was originally an independent word meaning "condition, state of affairs."In English it still exists as an independent word *doom*, as well as in the suffix *-dom* (cf. *freedom* 'state, condition of being free'). In German, the suffix is used in this

general sense *Reichtum* (state of being rich) or as a collective: *Bürgertum* 'the citizens of a place'. Except for *der Reichtum* and *der Irrtum* 'mistake', all are neuter. Insofar as they have plurals, these are formed with *-tümer.*

5. **Infinitives and other parts of speech:** Infinitives used as nouns are always neuter: *das Sehen und Hören* 'seeing and hearing'. Similarly, prepositions: *das Für und Wider* 'the pros and cons'. Adjectives can also be made into nouns: *das Gute und das Schlechte,* 'the good and the bad (aspects)'. These decline like adjectives. Notice the difference between *das Gute* 'the good aspect of something' and *die Güte* 'kindness, goodness'. Note too, that the construction with the neuter is "productive" – can be applied to virtually any adjective whereas the feminine abstract noun can only be made from a limited set of adjectives.

6. **Collective nouns in *ge-*:** As the name implies, collective nouns denote collections or sets of objects considered as a whole. Compare *der Berg* 'mountain' with the collective *das Gebirge* 'mountain range' or *das Hirn ~ das Gehirn* 'brain ~ brains', *der Schrei ~ das Geschrei* 'cry ~ tumult'. Some further examples: *das Gebiss* '(set of) teeth', *künstliches Gebiss* 'dentures', *die Gebrüder* (plural) *Karamasow* 'the brothers Karamazov'. In some cases the collective sense is not so clear: *das Gemüt* 'state of mind (dependent on many factors), *Gefängnis* 'prison – place where prisoners are collected', *Gebiet* 'territory'. There are a large number of these that end in *-e*: *das Gemüse* 'vegetables', *Getreide* 'grain', *Gewerbe* 'trade', etc.

7. **Sociative nouns in ge-:** All but one of the examples we have considered so far are **neuter** as are the vast majority of collectives. There are, however, a substantial number of nouns with the prefix *ge-* that are not collectives, but "sociatives," indicating association and referring to persons. These are **masculine:** *der Geselle* 'apprentice, originally roommate (< *Saal)*!', *Gefährte* 'traveling companion', *Genosse* 'comrade', originally 'cattle-sharer'. These are masculine *n*-stems (*der Genosse, des Genossen*) and form feminines with the suffix *-in*, hence the familiar SPD greeting at mass meetings: *Liebe Genossinnen und Genossen.*

8. **Nouns in *ge-* from verb stems:** There are other masculines that decline strong. Some are derived from verb stems: *brauchen ~ Brauch* 'custom' ~ *der Gebrauch* 'use, application', *gewinnen* 'win' ~ *der Gewinn* 'profits, winnings'. Others from nouns (themselves derived from verbs): *riechen* 'to smell' ~ *der Ruch* 'odor (figurative)' ~ *der Geruch* 'odor (sensory)'. *Der Stank (*also *Stunk)* 'strife' ~ *der Gestank* 'stench'. Sometimes there is no associated noun without the prefix *ge-*: *der Genuss* 'enjoyment' < *genießen, der Gefallen* 'favor' < *gefallen* 'to please', *der Gehalt* 'quantity' as in *Alkoholgehalt* 'quantity of alcohol in (a drink)' < *enthalten* 'contain', *der Geschmack* 'taste' < *schmecken.* And last, but not least, a very important word – *der Gehorsam* 'obedience'.

9. **Feminines in *ge-*:** There are also **feminines** in this group. These can generally be recognized by the *t/d(e)-* ending used to form abstract nouns as discussed above: *die Gemeinde* 'community' < *gemein* 'common', *die Gebärde* 'gesture', *die Geduld* 'patience' (the verb *dulden* 'tolerate' is derived from the noun), *die Geschichte* 'history', *die Geburt* 'birth', *die Gestalt* 'form', *die Gewalt* 'power, violence', *die Geschwulst* 'swelling.

Without suffix: *die Gefahr* 'danger' (not from *fahren*!), *die Gebühr* 'fee', *die Gewähr* 'guarantee'. (These originally ended in *-e*, *Gefahr < gevare*).

5.5   Gender of foreign words

We can divide foreign loan words into roughly two groups on the basis of gender: (1) Those which take their gender from the source language. These are usually more recent loan words and have a predictable gender on the basis of the word ending. For example, *die Diversität* 'diversity' is actually a loan from English (perhaps French), but, like all nouns of this origin, adopts the Latin stem seen in the genitive: *diversitas* (nom.), *diversitatis* (gen.) and the Latin gender (feminine). So, all German words in *-ität* are feminine and take the *-en* plural: *die Aktivität ~ die Aktivitäten*. (2) Ancient and modern loan words that do not follow their source in gender. For example, *das Fenster* 'window' (neuter) < Lat. *finestra* (feminine), or *das Layout* 'lay-out' from English, where no grammatical gender is available.

5.6   Gender from source language

In the following, plurals in *-e* indicate "strong" nouns with genitive singular in *-s*: *das Sekretariat, des Sekretariats, die Sekretariate*. Plurals in *-en* are generally "weak" (i.e., have the other forms of the singular in *-en*): *der Intendant, des Intendanten, die Intendanten* 'theater director'. The "mixed" declension (strong in the singular weak in the plural) is used with *-or*: *der Professor, des Professors, die Professoren* (gen. sg. *-s*, plural *-en*).

Masculine endings mostly referring to persons (predominantly French and Latin origin): **-ant, -ar, -är, -at, -ent, -et, -eur,- ist, -loge, -or, -us:** *der Demonstrant* 'demonstrator' (plural *-en), Kommissar* 'commissar' (plural *-e*) (see neuter below), *Aktionär* 'stock holder' (plural *-e*), *Soldat* 'soldier' (plural *-en*) also *Apparat* 'apparatus' (plural *-e*) , *Absolvent* 'graduate' (plural *-en*), *Athlet* 'athlete'(Greek, plural *-en), Ingenieur* 'engineer' (plural *-e*), *Pazifist* 'pacifist' (plural *-en*), *Astrologe* 'astrologer' (plural *-en*), *Doktor* 'doctor' (gen. sg. *-s,* plural *-en*), *Organismus* 'organism' (plural *-en*)'. Note that not everything that ends *-us* is a masculine *o*-stem. There are a number of neuter *s*-stems that retain their Latin plural: *das Tempus ~ die Tempora* 'time, tense', *Genus ~ Genera* 'gender'. Latin *campus* remains unchanged in the plural: *der Campus ~ die Campus*. Note also *das/der Virus, die Viren* (sing. mostly masc.).

Feminine endings (predominantly Late Latin and French, plurals in *-en*): **-age, -ät, -anz, -enz, -ie, -ik, -ion, -ur:** *die Courage* 'courage', *Diversität* 'diversity' (see discussion above), *Dominanz* 'dominance' (Lat. *dominantia, ti > z*). *Referenz* 'reference' (Lat. *referentia, ti > z*), *Industrie* (Lat. *industria*), *Ethik* 'ethics' (Greek), *Kondition* 'condition' (like Spanish, derived from Latin feminine *n*-stems,'condition').

Neuter endings (Latin, Greek, French, Italian): **-ar, -at, -ett, -il, -ma,-mm, -o, -(m)ent, -um:** *das Seminar* 'seminar' (Latin, plural *-e*), *Konsulat* 'consulate' (Latin, plural *-e,* but see above under masculine), *Duett* 'duet' (French diminutive, plural *-e), Exil* 'exile', *Thema* 'topic, theme' (Greek, gen. sg. *-s,* plural in *-en), Programm* 'program' (Greek via French, plural in *-e*), *Konto* 'account' (Italian, gen. sg. *-s*, plural *-en, -s), Argument* 'argument' (Latin, plural in *-e), Museum* 'museum' (Latin, gen. sg. *-s,* plural in *-en*), *Praktikum* (Latin, gen sg. *-s,* plural in *-a*).

5.7   Gender from other sources

Aside from the "learned" words considered above, introduced by scholars who were well aware of their origin and original gender, there is a considerable mass of popular words that have entered the German language. Many of these are from English (which provides no guidance as to grammatical gender) and other means are necessary in order to assign them to a gender and plural class.

One criterion is phonological, for example, words ending in *-e, -o* (mostly from Italian) are generally neuter and form their plurals mostly in *-s*: *das Tempo* (*Tempos ~ Tempi*), *Konto* (*Kontos ~ Konten*), *Andante* (*Andantes*), similarly *Motto, Foto, Ghetto, Auto* (*<Automobil*) all with plural *-s*.

The dominant principle, however, is gender analogy. The foreign word takes on the gender of a native German word of the same meaning. Thus, while *die Vendetta* carries over its original Italian gender (cf. *die Fehde* 'feud'), *der Vokda* (Russian feminine) takes its gender, by analogy, from *der Schnaps*. And it is not just *das Mädchen* that is neuter – *das Showgirl* follows suit, *die Mail-Order* has its gender from *Bestellung, der Lift* 'elevator' from *der Aufzug, das Internet,* from *das Netz.*

Sometimes there is more than one available analogy. *E-Mail*, for instance, could take its gender from *der Brief* or *die Post,* but there seems now to be general agreement on feminine gender from *die elektronische Post* as e-mail was first called. This principle extends to made-up, pseudo-English words like *der City-Call* (English *local call*) from *der Anruf,* and *das Handy* (English *cell phone*) from *das Telefon.*

Analogy also explains some of the differences between German gender and the gender of older loan words from Latin: *der Körper* (Lat. *corpus, -oris* neuter) from *der Leib* 'body', *die Nummer* (Lat. *numerus,* Ital. *numero* masculine) from *die Zahl* 'number', *der Anker* 'anchor' (Lat. *ancora* feminine) from *der Haken* 'hook'.

5.8 Words with two genders

Some words have two different genders. These can be divided into several groups: (1) Those with more than one gender in standard German, where no difference in meaning is involved. Sometimes one form is more common in the north and another in the south ,e.g.,, *der* or *das Bonbon* (in Austria only neuter). In addition, there is often specialization for one form or the other in compounds (see the table below). (2) Related words with different meanings depending on gender, e.g., *das Band* 'band, tie', *der Band* 'volume of a set of books'. (3) Homonyms (words that are not related, but sound alike and are differentiated by gender, e.g., *der Leiter* 'leader' < *leiten* 'to lead', but *die Leiter* 'ladder' from the root **klei-* 'to lean' (4) Words with slightly different form, different gender, same or different meaning, e.g., *die Ecke* 'corner', *das Dreieck* 'triangle'.

Extensive lists of these words are available in the standard grammars, so we will confine ourselves to a few examples of each type to illustrate the principles involved.

Varying Gender in Standard German – No Difference in Meaning	
Bereich, der/das 'area, field'	but: *der Fachbereich* 'university depart-ment'
Bonbon, der/das 'candy'	only *das* in Austria
Dschungel, der/das/die 'jungle'	now almost always *der* (*der Urwald*)
Gummi, das/der 'rubber'	*das Gummi* 'rubber band', *der (Radier)-gummi,* 'eraser', *der (Schutz)gummi* 'a rubber, condom'

Liter, Meter, etc. der/das	The metric measures should be neuter < Lat. *metrum*. Usually, masculine because of *-er*
Radar, das/der	Technical language, *das*
Mündel, das/der/die 'ward'	Diminutive *das,* natural gender *der/die*

Related Nouns – Different Meanings Distinguished by Gender

Band, das 'band, tie'	Band, der 'volume of a set of books'
Ekel, der 'loathing'	Ekel, das 'loathsome person'
Erbe, der 'inheritor'	Erbe, das 'inheritance'
Gehalt, der 'contents'	Gehalt, das 'wages'
Hut, der 'hat'	Hut, die 'protection, caution'
Kaffee, der 'coffee'	Kaffee, das 'café'
Maß, das 'measure, pl. dimensions'	Maß, die 'liter of beer'
See, der 'lake'	See, die 'sea, ocean'
Steuer, das 'rudder, steering wheel'	Steuer, die 'tax'
Weise, der 'wise man'	Weise, die 'way something is done, tune'

Unreleated Nouns – Different Meanings Distinguished by Gender

Kiefer, der 'jaw'	Kiefer, die 'pine tree'
Leiter, der 'leader'	Leiter, die 'ladder'
Mast, der 'mast of a ship'	Mast, die 'cattle feed'
Messer, der 'meter'	Messer, das 'knife'
Schild, der 'shield'	Schild, das 'sign'
Tor, das 'gate'	Tor, der 'fool'

Slightly Different Form, Different Gender, Same or Different Meaning

Backe, die 'cheek'	Backen, der 'cheek' (southern), different devlopment of masc. *n*-stem, OHG *backo*
Ecke, die 'corner'	Eck, das in Dreieck 'triangle', etc., MHG both genders

Rohr, das 'tube'	Röhre, die in Luftröhre 'wind pipe', Speise-röhre 'esophagus', Harnröhre, 'urethra', etc.
Scherbe, die 'piece of broken glass'	Scherben, der (southern), both have plural 'die Scherben' MHG has both forms.
Streife, die 'patrol, policeman's beat'	Steifen, der 'stripe, strip of paper, film' double development of *n*-stem
Zehe, die 'toe'	Zeh, der 'toe' MHG feminine, masculine analogy to 'der Finger'

5.9   Gender mobility

By gender mobility, we mean the addition of a suffix to turn a grammatically masculine noun into a feminine and vice versa in accordance with natural gender. The most commonly used device of this sort is the suffix **-in,** used to form female agent nouns from masculines ending in **-er:** *der Lehrer ~ die Lehrerin* 'teacher', *der Straßenfeger ~ die Straßenfegerin* 'street sweeper'. There are some prominent non-agent nouns here too *Göttin* 'goddess', *Herrin* 'lady, mistress', *Königin* 'queen'.)

The same extension can be used with agent nouns from Latin (see above): in **-ist:** *der Komponist ~ die Komponistin* 'composer', *der Christ ~ die Christin* 'Christian, someone who practices Christianity, **-ar:** *Refendar ~ Refendarin* 'intern', **-ent:** *Absolvent ~ Absolventin* 'graduate', etc.

It is also seen in some animal names: *der Hund ~ die Hündin,* 'dog ~ female dog', *Fuchs ~ Füchsin* 'fox ~ vixen' (*vixen* is the only remaining word with this suffix in English). Although we can always apply the *in*-suffix to agent nouns to form a feminine, this is not the case with animals. Some have only one form: *der Frosch* 'frog', *die Schildkröte* 'turtle'. Others have different words for male, female, young animal and general term:

Male	Female	Young	General
der Mann	die Frau	das Kind	der Mensch 'human'
der Bulle	die Kuh	das Kalb	das Rind 'cow'
der Hengst	die Stute	das Fohlen	das Pferd 'horse'
der Eber	die Sau	das Ferkel	das Schwein 'pig'
der Hahn	die Henne	das Küken	das Huhn 'chicken'
der Bock	die Ziege	das Zickel	die Ziege 'goat'
der Rehbock	die Ricke	das Kitz	das Reh 'deer'

In some cases, the general term is identical to the female and a suffix is used to derive the male:

Female/general	Male
die Hexe 'witch'	der Hexer
die Witwe 'widow'	der Witwer
die Katze 'cat'	der Kater
die Gans 'goose'	der Gänserich/Ganter
die Taube 'pigeon'	der Täuberich
die Ente 'duck'	der Enterich
die Maus 'mouse'	der Mäuserich

To be sure, there are other ways of making the distinction if necessary: *der weibliche Elefant* 'the female elephant' (adjective), *der Rehbock ~ die Rehkuh* 'roebuck ~ doe' (compound), but we will leave these to the game hunters .

Notice too, that the derivatives are not all of equal importance. In German culture the difference between *witch* and *warlock, widow* and *widower*, even *cat* and *tomcat* is important and the words are in common use. On the other hand, it is unlikely that anyone other than a pigeon breeder worries about the difference between *die Taube* and *der Täuberich.* Don't believe me – ask *Micky Mäuserich.*

5.10   Gender with specific vs. generic reference

The system of gender mobility described thus far applies only to specific reference (reference to a specific individual or individuals). It does not, however, apply to generic reference (reference to an entire class of individuals).

To make the distinction clear, consider first an example of specific reference: **der** *Student, der mich heute in meiner Sprechstunde besuchte, ~* **die** *Studentin, die mich heute in meiner Sprechstunde besuchte,* 'the student (m.vs. f.) who consulted me during my office hours today'. Here, I am referring to a specific individual and the masculine vs. feminine ending is certainly relevant. That is, *der Student* clearly indicates that I am referring to a male, while *die Studentin* indicates that I am referring to a female.

With generic reference, the same principle does not hold. Consider: *Heutzutage ist* **der** *Student viel fleißiger als damals, als ich studierte* 'These days, students work much harder than they did when I was a student'. No competent speaker of German could reasonably claim that this statement excludes women. The generic reference **der** *Student* includes all students of both sexes. If I were to substitute **die** *Studentin* in the above assertion, the group of female students (a subset of the whole excluding males) would be the natural referents.

A student pointed out to me that the German language is really unfair to men since there is a generic form that refers to all students, *der Student,* and one that refers only to female students, *die Studentin,* but no form that refers to the group of male students alone.

Perhaps, another example will help clarify this. Suppose I post a notice on the bulletin board that says: *Kein Student darf das Examen schreiben, ohne sich voranzumelden* 'No student may write the exam without registering first'. Could an unregistered woman demand the right to take the exam on the grounds that *kein Student* only applies to males?

So what is actually going on here? The operative principle involved is **markedness.** This principle says that in cases of generic reference where we have regular contrasts like male/female, one of the cases (usually the shorter form) is "unmarked" and refers to the entire set, while the other term is "marked" and refers to a subset. In our case, *der Student* is the unmarked term applying to the entire set of students (male and female) and *die Studentin* is the marked term (with the suffix *-in*) referring to a subset (the set of female students).

That this has nothing to do with sexual discrimination should be clear from the discussion of animal names above. Here, the unmarked term is often feminine and the masculine is marked – derived from the feminine with an additional suffix: *die Ente ~ der Enterich.* As before, if I were to use the unmarked term and say: *Am Sonntag habe ich die Enten im Park gefüttert,* 'Last Sunday I fed the ducks in the park' no competent speaker of German could reasonably assume that the drakes got nothing.

Thus, elaborate attempts to avoid generic references like *die Studenten* by substituting awkward and grammatically unmotivated terms like *die Studierenden* are both unwarranted and an affront to the "awesome German language."

5.11   Gender mobility through the adjective declension

The discussion of markedness above applies to agent nouns with nominal endings. There is, however, another class of forms accommodating gender mobility – substantivized participles. These follow the normal adjective declension, which we will discuss in Chapter 3.

Consider the verb *anstellen* 'to employ'. The past participle is *angestellt* 'employed'. The full noun phrase for a male employee would be *ein angestellter Mann, der angestellte Mann,* etc. The noun forms are derived from the adjective forms of the participle: *ein Angestellter, der Angestellte* (masculine), *eine Angestellte, die Angestellte* (feminine). The noun is simply left out and the adjective takes over its function. Similarly, *ein Beamter, der Beamte, die Beamte, eine Beamte* (also *die Beamtin*) 'someone who has been "(ver)beamtet" – appointed to a civil service position. There are a large number of these: *der/die Vorsitzende* 'chairman', *der/die Betrogene* 'person deceived', etc. In general, the participial constructions, while important, show no sign of replacing the agent nouns.

Simple adjectives also show mobility, mostly by virtue of ellipsis (i.e., dropping the noun they modify in context): *Er hat zwei **Töchter**. **Die große** (Tochter) studiert Kunstgeschichte, **die kleine** ist noch auf der Schule* 'He has two daughters. The older one is studying art history the younger one is still in school', but *Die Verantwortlichen werden bestraft* 'Those responsible will be punished', no ellipsis, but indefinite reference.

6   The noun declension

As pointed out at the beginning of our discussion, in German, nouns, pronouns, adjectives and determiners are declined – that is, they have different forms reflecting gender (**masucline, feminine, neuter**) surface case (**nominative, genitive, dative and accusative**) and number (**singular and plural**). This is a concept that may be familiar from Latin or Russian, where the matter is far more complicated than in German. For languages like French or Spanish, we generally don't talk about "declension" because, in these languages, nouns, adjectives and determiners do not change for case and it is easier, on the whole, just to say they add *-s* for the plural.

Here we will discuss the German noun declension. Adjectives, pronouns and determiners will be covered in Chapter 3.

6.1   Nouns – seven ways to form the plural

For those used to English, French and Spanish, where the plural is generally formed by adding *-s,* it comes as something of a shock to learn that there are seven different ways to form the plural in German. Perhaps, this is the reason for Mark Twain's quip that he would rather decline two drinks than one German noun. The possibilities are summarized in the following chart:

Group	Ending	Sing.	Plur.	English
1	- e	Arm	Arme	arm
2	¨ e	Gast	Gäste	guest
3a	- en	Bote	Boten	messenger
3b	- en	Klage	Klagen	complaint
4	-	Wagen	Wagen	wagon
5a	¨	Laden	Läden	store
5b	¨	Mutter	Mütter	mother
6	¨ er	Lamm	Lämmer	lamb
7	- s	Auto	Autos	auto

It is worth noting that the plural form (*-e, -en, -er,* etc.) does not correlate exclusively with any particular gender. For example, Group 1 includes both masculine and neuter nouns: *der Arm ~ die Arme, das Wort* 'word' *~ die Worte*. Group 7 includes all three genders: *der Uhu* 'owl' *~ die Uhus, die Oma* 'grandma' *~ die Omas, das Auto ~ die Autos.*

The historical reasons for this overabundance are explained in detail in *The German Language – A Guide for Inquisitive Students.* Here, we will confine ourselves to a discussion of the consequences.

6.2   Using the dictionary

Bertelsmann's *Die neue deutsche Rechtschreibung* lists 19 different declension tables for the German noun. (Say, where did Mr. Twain say he was going for that drink?) Fortunately, except for a handful of cases, it is possible to determine the entire declension of any noun from just three forms: the nominative singular, the genitive singular and the nominative plural. This is the system used in most German reference works. Thus, an entry like: *Tag, m., -s, -e* translates to:

nom.sg	der Tag
gen. sg.	des Tages
dat. sg.	dem Tag(e)
acc. sg.	den Tag

nom. pl.	die Tage
gen. pl.	der Tage
dat. pl.	den Tagen
acc. pl.	die Tage

The entry *m.* means the noun is masculine. This decides, among other things, the form of the determiner (article, demonstrative or quantifier) and the corresponding form of the adjective (about which more below).

The second entry *-s* gives the gen. sg. form. This is important since it indicates whether the noun belongs to the "strong" or "weak" declension. (The terms "strong" and "weak", which are also applied to adjectives and verbs, go back to Jacob Grimm of fairytale fame and are to be regarded simply as a convenient naming convention .) "Weak" masculine nouns take the ending *-n*, except in the nom. sg. "Strong" nouns are declined like *Tag*. Here is a "weak" noun *Junge* 'boy' for comparison:

nom. sg	der Junge
gen. sg.	des Jungen
dat. sg.	dem Jungen
acc. sg.	den Jungen
nom. pl.	die Jungen
gen. pl.	der Jungen
dat. pl.	den Jungen
acc. pl.	die Jungen

The dictionary entry here would be: *Junge, m., -n, -n,* indicating that the noun in question is masculine and takes *-n* in both the singular oblique (i.e., everything but the nominative) and throughout the plural. On the other hand, an entry like *Doktor, m., -s, -n* signals a noun with "mixed" declension, i.e., strong in the singular and weak in the plural:

nom. sg	der Doktor
gen. sg.	des Doktors
dat. sg.	dem Doktor
acc. sg.	den Doktor
nom. pl.	die Doktoren
gen. pl.	der Doktoren
dat. pl.	den Doktoren
acc. pl.	die Doktoren

This is a favorite pattern for agent nouns in *-or* borrowed from Latin. Hence, *Professor, Lektor, Inspektor,* etc. decline the same way.

6.3   The genitive singular -s
The genitive singular -s is also confined to the masculine and neuter singular. Unlike English, it is not carried over into the plural. (Only feminine proper names or words used as proper names have the *s*-genitive (see under feminine nouns below.)

6.4   The dative -e
The dative singular ending -e only appears on one-syllable masculines and neuters. It is mostly confined to set phrases like: *heutzutage* 'these days', *im Jahre 1944* 'in the year 1944', etc. This is worth mentioning so that the dative singular will not be confused with the plural *drei Tage, vierzig Jahre.*

6.5   The dative plural -n
The dative plural always adds -*n* unless the plural already has -*n* throughout as with *der Junge ~ die Jungen, der Doktor ~ die Doktoren* (see above) or ends in -*s* as in *das Auto ~ die Autos,* dat. pl. *den Autos.*

6.6   Masculines in -en, -el, -er
Infinitives used as nouns are always neuter: *das Sagen* 'say, authority'. With a few exceptions, e.g., *das Eisen* 'iron', *Kissen* 'pillow', *Laken* 'bed sheet' *Zeichen* 'sign', *Becken* 'sink', other words ending in -*en* are masculine. They are divided into two groups: those that take umlaut in the plural (Group 5a) *Laden ~ Läden* 'store' and those that do not (Group 4)*Wagen ~ Wagen* 'car'. In a few cases, the plural varies. In south Germany, one hears *Wägen* as well as *Wagen,* also *Bogen ~ Bögen* 'bows', *Kragen ~Krägen* 'collars'.
　　　Masculines in -*el, -er* do not change in the plural with the exception of *Vetter ~ Vettern* 'cousin', which is weak and originally had the tell-tale -*e* (cf. MHG *vetere*). *Vater* 'father', *Bruder* 'brother' (with umlaut in the plural) belong to Group 5b, (see below).

6.7   Masculines in -ter
The masculines in -*ter* (*Vater* 'father', *Bruder* 'brother') belong to a small intimate family (Group 5b) together with two feminines (*Mutter* 'mother', *Tochter* 'daughter'). All of these simply take umlaut in the plural. *Schwester* is excluded here (perhaps because she cannot umlaut) and follows the regular weak feminine declension (see below).

6.8   Neuters
 A large number of one-syllable neuters (Group 6) take the ending -*er* in the plural (with umlaut if possible), *Dach ~ Dächer* 'roof', *Buch ~ Bücher* 'book', *Loch ~ Löcher* 'hole', *Kind ~ Kinder* 'child'. A few masculines have joined the club: *Mann* 'man', *Geist* 'spirit', *Wald* 'forest', *Gott* 'god', *Wurm* 'worm', *Rand* 'edge', etc., (complete list in the Appendix).
　　　Others have joined the masculines in Group1 and add -*e* without umlaut: *der Arm ~ die Arme* 'arm', *das Bein ~ die Beine* 'leg'. Some have both plurals: *die Worte* 'connected speech', *die Wörter* 'list of words'.
　　　There are five that are weak in the plural: *Herz* 'heart', *Ohr* 'ear', *Auge* 'eye', *Bett* 'bed', *Hemd* 'shirt'. *Herz* is very irregular in the singular: *das Herz, des Herzens, dem Herz(en), das Herz.* Notice that the nominative and accusative are always identical in both the singular and plural of neuter nouns.

6.9   Feminine nouns

Feminine nouns also occur as strong or weak. Neither takes an ending in the singular. The strong plural belongs to Group 2 and takes -e (with umlaut of the stem vowel if possible). The weak plural (Group 3b) has -en in all cases:

	Weak	Strong
nom. sg	die Frau	die Kraft
gen. sg.	der Frau	der Kraft
dat. sg.	der Frau	der Kraft
acc. sg.	die Frau	die Kraft
nom. pl.	die Frauen	die Kräfte
gen. pl.	der Frauen	der Kräfte
dat. pl.	den Frauen	den Kräften
acc. pl.	die Frauen	die Kräfte

The dictionary entry for a typical weak feminine: *Frau, f., -, -n,* 'woman' for a strong feminine *Kraft, f., -, ¨ e* 'power'.

The weak feminines are generally identified by a final *-e* as in the inanimates *die Lampe* 'lamp', *die Brücke* 'bridge'. There are a handful of exceptions that end in *-e*, but are neuter: *das Ende* 'end', *Auge* 'eye', *Interesse* 'interest' (all with gen. *-s,* pl. *-n*), *Erbe* 'inheritance' (no pl.) as well as quite a few with the prefix *Ge-,* e.g., *das Gebäude* 'building', *Getreide,* 'grain'. (See discussion of collectives below.) There is one strong masculine: *der Käse, -s, -*.

Similarly, there is a general class of exceptions for humans and warm-blooded animals: *der Junge* 'boy', *Bote* 'messenger', *Löwe* 'lion', *Affe* 'ape' These are weak masculines. Two birds, *der Rabe* 'raven' and *der Falke,* 'falcon' also belong here. But, *Giraffe* 'giraf' and *Hyäne* 'hyena' (feminine loan words from Latin) are feminine. Cold-blooded animals *die Schnecke* 'snail', *Schlange* 'snake' are also feminine. *Der Schimpanse* 'chimpanzee' follows *Affe* (masculine).

A special difficulty is presented by the regular loss of the final *-e* in the third syllable, after sonorants, i.e, liquids (*r, l*), nasals (*m, n*) and glides (*j, w*). Thus, MHG *vrouwe* > NHG *Frau* 'woman', MHG *zale* > NHG *Zahl* 'number', etc. This means that there are many weak feminines that no longer carry the tell-tale *-e*.

A further problem is provided by a handful of masculines that have been unable to decide between 3a and 4. Thus, we have *der Glaube* 'belief', *des Glaubens, die Glauben*, *der Funke* 'spark', *des Funkens, die Funken* and most importantly, *der Wille* 'will', *des Willens, die Willen.*

Once one has eliminated the small number of masculine and neuter exceptions and has allowed for the unfortunate loss of *-e* after sonorants, the weak feminines form a reasonably well identifiable class.

The strong feminines and masculines agree completely in the plural, but differ in the genitive singular: *der Gast* 'guest', *des Gastes, die Gäste ~ die Kunst* 'art', *der Kunst, die Künste.* Except for proper names and words used as proper names, feminines never have the genitive *-s: Sabines neuer Freund* 'Sabine's new boyfriend', *Tantes neue Wohnung* 'Auntie's new apartment',

but *der neue Freund von/der Sabine, die neue Wohnung der Tante.*   There only two feminines in Group 5b: *Mutter, Tochter* 'mother, daughter'. These umlaut the stem vowel in the plural.

6.10   *s*-**Plural**

The *s*-plural (Group 7) is found in all three genders. It occurs with words that end in an unaccented full vowel: *das Auto ~ die Autos, die Oma ~ die Omas* 'grandma', *der Uhu ~ die Uhus* 'owl'. Foreign words that end in an accented vowel also take *-s*: das Komitee ~ *die Komitees* 'committee', *der Zoo ~ die Zoos* 'zoo', but feminines in *-ie, -ee, -ei* take *-n*: *die Allee ~ die Alleen* 'boulevard', *die Galerie ~die Galerien 'gallery', die Brauerei ~ die Brauereien* 'brewery' .

Loan words from English and French ending in a consonant also take an *s*-plural: *der Club ~ die Clubs* 'club', *die Bar ~ die Bars* 'bar', *das Hotel ~ die Hotels,* but not if they already end in and *s*-sound: *der Boss ~ die Bosse* 'boss'*, die Box ~ die Boxen* 'loudspeaker'.

And, of course, we cannot take leave of this topic without waving good-bye to *die Jungs und die Mädels* 'boys and girls'.

Chapter 3: The Noun Phrase II - The Rule of Clitics

1   Pronoun, determiner, adjective declension

In Latin, as reflected in the Romance languages, the declension of adjectives and determiners (articles, demonstratives, quantifiers – the distinctions will all be explained below) did not differ from the declension of the nouns. Thus, Lat. *illa mensa nova* 'that new table' = Span. *la mesa nueva* 'the new table'. All three elements of the noun phrase had the same set of endings. To be sure, there are certain complications which we will not go into here – but basically all three categories share the same system of declension. German is radically different. The determiners and adjectives follow the **pronominal,** not the nominal declension.

1.1   Pronouns and clitics

The key to understanding the seemingly formidable system is the **clitic**. Simply put, a clitic is a small word (usually a pronoun or particle) that "leans" on another word. A good example is the actual pronunciation of a sentence like: *Did he do it?* Notice that in normal conversation *did he* is contracted to *did-i.* The initial *h* is lost and the reduced form of the pronoun leans on the previous word. This is an example of an **enclitic** (attaches itself to the previous word). The modern German enclitics come in two flavors: strong and weak. The strong ones are accented and the weak ones are not. The weak clitics are reduced forms of the strong ones – reduced because they do not bear the accent in the word they occur in:

Strong and Weak Clitics				
Sing.	**Masc.**	**Neut.**	**Fem.**	**Plur.**
Nom.	-er	**-as/-es**	**-ie/-e**	**-ie/-e**
Gen.	-es	-es	-er	-er
Dat.	-em	-em	-er	-en
Acc.	-en	**-as/-es**	**-ie/-e**	**-ie/-e**

The differences between the strong and weak form are minimal and affect only - *as* (> -*es*)and - *ie* (> -*e*) . The clitic attaches itself to a **base** to form the **determiner**, e.g., *d + er = der, dies + er = dieser.*

Notice that all three genders have the same plural form. The masc. sing. and neut. sing. differ only in the nom. and acc. and the neuter always has the same form in the nom. and acc.

The clitics "lean on" various bases. The definite article with the base *d-* takes the strong clitic because it is accented:

Sing.	**Masc.**	**Neut.**	**Fem.**	**Plur.**
Nom.	d**er**	d**as**	d**ie**	d**ie**
Gen.	d**es**	d**es**	d**er**	d**er**
Dat.	d**em**	d**em**	d**er**	d**en**
Acc.	d**en**	d**as**	d**ie**	d**ie**

Most determiners (*dies-,jen-, welch-, manch-, solch-,* etc.) and all adjectives append the weak form as the accent does not fall on the clitic.

Sing.	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.	Plur.
Nom.	dies**er**	dies**es**	dies**e**	dies**e**
Gen.	dies**es**	dies**es**	dies**er**	dies**er**
Dat.	dies**em**	dies**em**	dies**er**	dies**en**
Acc.	dies**en**	dies**es**	dies**e**	dies**e**

The indefinite article *ein, kein* and the possessive pronouns *mein, dein, sein,* etc., have no ending in the masc. and neut. nom. sing. (and, of course, the neut. sing. acc.), but otherwise follow the clitic table above, e.g., *der Mann ~ kein Mann, das Haus ~ mein Haus.* When standing alone as pronouns, these are inflected: *Keiner darf mir sagen* 'no one can tell me', *Ein(e)s ist mir klar* 'one thing is clear to me'.

In the absence of a determiner (or where the determiner does not permit the clitic), the clitic simply attaches itself to an adjective: *groß**er** Lärm um nichts* 'much ado about nothing', *ein groß**es** Tier* 'a large animal' or 'important person', but *dieses groß**e** Tier,* where the clitic has attached itself to the base *dies-.* The adjective + clitic is generally referred to as a "strong" adjective.

The adjective + clitic is also complicated by a few irregularities: the masc. and neut. sing. gen. usually have the ending *-en* rather than the expected *-es.* Thus, we generally have *wegen schlecht**en** Wetters* 'due to bad weather' rather than the expected *wegen schlechtes Wetters.* In addition, the names of cities and decades always take an invariable *-er, in einem München**er** Vorort* 'in a Munich suburb', *in den siebziger Jahren* 'in the seventies'.

1.2   The anaphoric pronoun

The third person anaphoric pronoun (*er, sie, es*, etc.) also follows this schema, but with a more complex mix of bases.

Sing.	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.	Plur.
Nom.	er	es	sie	sie
Gen.	seiner	seiner	ihrer	ihrer
Dat.	ihm	ihm	ihr	ihnen
Acc.	ihn	es	sie	sie

For a discussion of the bases, see *The German Language – A Guide for Inquisitive Students.* For our purposes here, it should suffice to notice similarities to the clitics as well as the differences.

If you are annoyed by the term anaphoric pronoun, it just means a pronoun that refers back to something mentioned before and not always to me, like *ich,* or you, like *Du,* when I use them. The latter are called personal pronouns and we will discuss them below.

1.3   What to do without a clitic

The example cited above, *dieses große Tier,* raises an interesting question. The clitic *-es* is attached to the determiner *dies-*, so where does the adjective ending *-e* come from?

It turns out that the forms of the adjective, when the clitic is attached to a preceding determiner, (traditionally called the "weak" adjective endings) come in only two flavors *-e/-en.* The nom. sing. of all three genders has the ending *-e,* as do the neut. and fem. sg. Thus, the general principle can be summarized as:

The clitic attaches itself to the determiner (if possible); otherwise to the adjective. If the clitic can attach itself to the determiner, the adjective ending is *-en* except in the nominative singular and the feminine and neuter accusative singular where it is *-e.*

The following table illustrates the distribution of *-e* and *-en.*

	masc.	neut.	fem.	plur.
nom.	-e	-e	-e	-en
gen.	-en	-en	-en	-en
dat.	-en	-en	-en	-en
acc.	-en	-e	-e	-en

Notice that the genitive, dative and plural always have *-en.*

That is all there is to it. The calculation of the endings of determiner + adjective + noun seems rather complicated for the joy it brings us – but that is the way the awesome German language works.

If this has your head spinning just remember the rule: When the clitic is attached elsewhere, the adjective ending is *-en* except in the nominative singular of all three genders and the feminine and neuter accusative singular where it is *-e.* Adjectives that take the clitic ending are called **strong**, those that take the *-e(n)*-ending are called **weak.**

It is also important to note that all the adjectives in a noun phrase are strong in the absence of the determiner: *Großer, barmherziger Gott!* 'Great merciful God!'. And what if there is no determiner or adjective to support the clitic? *O Gott!* Sorry, then there is no clitic.

1.4   Comparison of adjectives

As we have pointed out above, adjectives and nouns have much in common. Adjectives, however, are subordinated to the gender, number and case of the noun they modify, which makes them a junior partner in the noun phrase.

Nevertheless, they have inflectional possibilities that are denied to nouns. Some adjectives can inflectionally indicate four grades: positive, comparative, superlative, elative. In modern German the comparative and elative take the suffix *-er-* plus the expected adjective ending: *Karl ist kahler als Kari* 'Karl ist balder than Kari'. Here, the predicate adjective has only the comparative suffix and (as is the case with other predicate adjectives) no inflectional ending. But, we have attributive forms like: *der stärkere Mann gewinnt nicht immer* 'the stronger man does not always win'.

The elative has the same forms as the comparative, but does not really imply comparison. Thus, there is a difference between: *New York ist eine größere Stadt als Chicago* 'New York is a larger city than Chicago' (comparison) and *White Plains ist eine größere Stadt im Vorort von New York* 'White Plains is **a fairly large** city in the suburbs of New York' (no specific comparison offered).

The superlative is formed with the suffix *-st* + adjective ending: *das höchste Gebäude in New York ist das Empire-State-Building* 'the tallest building in New York is the Empire State Building'. The superlative always follows the weak declension because it always is accompanied by a determiner.

Unlike English, the adjective can be of any length and still take the comparative or superlative suffix. That is, there is nothing like *fat ~ fatter* vs. *intelligent ~ more intelligent*. In German we have *dick ~ dicker* and *intelligent ~ intelligenter*.

The predicate adjective in the superlative is formed with *am*: *am intelligentisten*. Thus, we have: *Hans ist intelligent ~ Karl ist intelligenter ~ ich bin am intelligentesten* 'Hans is intelligent ~ Karl is more intelligent ~ I am the smartest one of all'.

The elative is also expressed with the "superlative" form of the adjective: *bei bester Gesundheit* 'in the best of health', *in tiefster Trauer* 'in deepest morning'.

Most one syllable adjectives with the stem vowels *a, o, u* take umlaut in the comparative and superlative, e.g., *stark ~ stärker ~ stärkste* 'strong'*, rot ~ röter ~ rötste* 'red'*, klug ~ klüger ~ klügste* 'wise'. There is a list of important exceptions in the Appendix.

Finally, negative comparison is expressed with *weniger* 'less', *am wenigsten* 'least': *Barbarella war weniger schön als Cinderella* 'Barbarella was less beautiful than Cinderella', *Brutarella war aber von den drei Schwestern am wenigsten schön* 'Brutarella was the least beautiful of the three sisters'.

2   Relative pronouns

The relative pronouns also follow the base + clitic analysis and are almost identical to the article. Compare, ***der** Mann, **der** mich besucht hat, soll ein gut**er** Freund von Dir sein* 'the man who visited me is supposed to be a good friend of yours'. The article and the relative pronoun are identical and have the same enclitic as the adjective. Evidently, we are dealing with the enclitic attached to identical bases in the case of the article and the relative pronoun. There are, however, a few departures from the article form:

There is a famous German proverb:

(1)   **Wes** Brot ich esse, **des** Lied ich singe 'Whose bread I eat, his song I sing'.

It is perhaps comforting to observe that some things never change – even if grammar does. The forms *w + es, d + es*, are just what we would expect from our base + clitic analysis. In modern German, however, we have forms with an "extra" *-en.*

(2)   Wess**en** Brot ich esse, dess**en** Lied singe ich.

To this, we can add the feminine and plural form *deren*:

(3)   Die Frau, der**en** Mann er beleidigte . . . . 'The woman **whose** husband he insulted'
(4)   Die Frauen, der**en** Kinder sie bestrafte . . . . 'The women **whose** children she punished'

And the dative plural *denen,* like *ihnen:*

(5)   Die Leute, den**en** ich geholfen habe . . . . 'The people who I helped'

(Note: There is also a pronoun *derer*, which means 'of those' and is used as the head of a following relative clause: *Das Schicksal derer, deren Söhne in den Krieg geschickt wurden* 'the fate of those whose sons were sent to war'.)

3   Interrogative pronouns

The interrogative pronouns (question words) are similar to English *who, which*, using the base *w-*:

Animate	**nom.**	wer
	gen.	wessen
	dat.	wem
	acc.	wen
Inanimate	**nom.**	was
	gen.	----
	dat.	----
	acc.	was

Note that the interrogatives have only two forms: animate and inanimate. There is no separate animate masculine-feminine distinction, which reflects an earlier stage of the language before a separate feminine had been formed. There is also no separate plural. The lack of a plural reflects, perhaps, a practical uncertainty. If there is knock at the door, I can hardly predict whether one or more persons are there. Hence, *Wer ist da?* 'who is there' without any contrast between singular or plural although the form is singular.

The inanimate *was* has no genitive or dative form. It is invariable after prepositions and is usually replaced with *wo- + prep. Nach was suchen Sie? ~ Wonach Suchen Sie* 'what are you looking for'.

Chapter 4: Personal Pronouns, Demonstratives, Quantifiers and Numbers

1   Personal pronouns
After the excitement occasioned by the third person anaphoric (referring) pronoun and the adjectives, the first and second person pronouns are relatively tame.   Here is a table of the forms:

Singular	First Person	Second Person	Reflexive
Nominative	ich	du	---------
Genitive	mein(er)	dein(er)	---------
Dative	mir	dir	sich
Accusative	mich	dich	sich
Plural			
Nominative	wir	ihr	----------
Genitive	uns(er)	euer	----------
Dative	uns	euch	sich
Accusative	uns	euch	sich

The genitive is quite obsolete. We still have it in the name of the flower *Vergissmeinnicht* 'forget me not', but in ordinary speech it has been replaced by the accusative: *vergiss mich nicht* 'don't forget me'.

1.1   Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns
Only the third person dative and accusative have a special form for the reflexive pronoun. The first and second persons use the ordinary dative and accusative forms. Thus, we have: *ich rasiere mich* 'I shave myself', but *er rasiert sich* 'he shaves himself'. *Er rasiert ihn* 'he shaves him' (i.e., someone else).

The form *sich* also serves as a reciprocal pronoun so that the sentence *Carl und Clotilde lieben sich* could mean 'Carl and Clotilde love each other' or Carl and Clotilde love themselves'! We can clarify things by adding *selbst* for the reflexive and substituting *einander* 'each other' for the reciprocal: *Carl und Clotilde lieben sich selbst* or *Carl und Clotilde lieben einander.*

An important difference between German and English is the use of *sich* with locatives. Compare: *He closed the door behind **him*** and *Er schließ die Tür hinter **sich.*** With metaphoric use of prepositions, both English and German use the reflexive: *He wrote a book about himself* and *Er schrieb ein Buch über sich (selbst).*

The ubiquitous *sich* has numerous other uses, which we will consider under our discussion of syntax.

1.2 Substitutes for the pronoun

German substitutes *da + preposition* for preposition + pronoun under certain conditions. Consider:

(1) Ein gewisser Herr Aboulafia möchte Sie sprechen. **Den** kenne ich nicht. **Mit ihm** will ich nichts zu tun haben. 'A certain Mr. Aboulafia would like to speak to you. I don't know **him**. I don't want anything to do **with him.'**

(2) Es gab einen Skandal in der Rechenabteilung. **Davon** weiß ich nichts. 'There was a scandal in the bookkeeping department. I don't know anything **about it.'**

(3) Wo ist mein Hausschlüssel? Du hast **mit ihm** gerade die Tür aufgemacht. 'Where is my house key. You just opened the door **with it**'.

(4) Wozu ist dieses Werkzeug gut? **Damit** kannst Du eine Nuss aufknacken. 'What is this tool good for. You can break open a nut **with it'.**

With people (1), we use the preposition + pronoun. With abstractions (2), the *da + preposition* construction and with inanimate objects (3-4) either one.

At the head of the sentence as in (1), the clitic with base *d-* is preferred. *Ihn kenne ich nicht* would be unusual, with the neuter impossible: **Es weiß ich nicht/Das weiß ich nicht.* (Can you explain why?)

1.3 The possessive pronoun

The possessive pronoun is used in the predicate as in *This book is mine.* There are four ways to express this in German: *Dieses Buch ist mein, meins, das Meine, das Meinige.* Note that possessive pronouns can be used with or without clitics in the nominative singular, e.g., *mein Buch*, but *das Buch ist mein/meins.* The form without clitic is rarely used with *ihr/Ihr.* The best advice is to take the form with the clitic. In the oblique cases the form with clitic is always used: *Er hat meinen Regenschirm genommen und ich seinen* 'He took my umbrella and I took his'.

In order to disambiguate the referent, the genitive pronouns *dessen, deren,* are used: *Der Vater setzte sich mit seinem Sohn hin, um dessen Meinenungen zu diskutieren* 'the father sat down with his son to discuss his (the son's) opinions'. The possessive *seine* would be ambiguous, referring to either the father or the son. With a daughter or a plural we would have *deren Meinungen.* The forms *dessen, deren,* mean someone other than the subject of the main clause.

1.4 *This, that, the former, the latter*

The German equivalent of first-person deixis (pointing to an object near the speaker) is *dies + clitic,* e.g., ***Dieses Buch hat mir oft geholfen*** 'This book has often helped me'. Second-person deixis (pointing to an object near the hearer) is indicated by the accented form of the definite article: ***Die Bücher interessieren mich nicht*** 'Those books do not interest me'. German also has a demonstrative for third person deixis (pointing to an object distant from both speaker and hearer), e.g, ***Jene*** *Bücher verführen die Jugend* 'those books mislead young people'. Like English *yonder*, this is rarely used. *Dieser* and *jener* are also used to mean 'the former' and 'the latter'. *Dieser*, however, means 'the latter' the closer one and *jener* 'the former' more distant one: *Zu meinem Gerburtstag bekam ich Bücher und Bilder. Diese (die Bilder) haben mir gefallen, jene (die Bücher) aber nicht* 'For my birthday, I received books and pictures. The latter (pictures) pleased me, but the former (books) did not'.

1.5   Determiners - articles, demonstratives and quantifiers
At the outset of our discussion of the noun phrase we offered a "functional" definition of the determiner:

> Determiners express the reference of a noun phrase rather than its attributes. Thus, in a noun phrase like *that fat man*, the adjective *fat* describes the man in question and the determiner *that* tells us which man we are talking about.

This definition is quite useful for giving the reader a sense of what a determiner is by telling how it functions, what it does. "The determiner tells us which man we are talking about." It is not particularly helpful for explaining the complexities of the noun phrase declension.

German is blessed with a host of determiners consisting of articles, demonstratives, possessive pronouns and quantifiers (words which tell us how many), each with its own peculiarities. The difficulty is that a word that meets the functional definition may be an *ein*-word, *der*-word, adjective, pronoun or indiclinable. Some determiners may even belong to more than one category!

Take for example the nominative singular masculine *mancher* 'many a':

der-**word**	Manch**er** gute Mann 'many a good man'
indeclinable	Manch gut**er** Mann 'many a good man'
ein-**word compound**	Manch ein gut**er** Mann 'many a good man'

In the first case, *manch* is a *der*-word and takes the clitic ending and the adjective is weak. In the second case, *manch* is indeclinable and the clitic attaches itself to the adjective. Similarly, in the third case, the compound *manch ein, manch* is indeclinable and *ein* cannot take the clitic in the nominative singular so the clitic must attach itself to the adjective. The iron law of clitics applies. The dative singular follows the same logic:

der-**word**	mit manch**em** guten Mann ' with many a good man'
indeclinable	mit manch gut**em** Mann 'with many a good man'
ein-**word compound**	mit manch ein**em** guten Mann 'with many a good man'

As a second example, let us take *viele* 'many'. Like others that express an indefinite quantity (see table below) it is treated as a plural adjective.

strong adjective	die Kinder viel**er** gut**er** Frauen 'the children of many good women'
weak adjective	die Kinder d**er** vielen guten Frauen 'the children of the many good women'

In the first example, there is no base to attract the clitic, hence the clitic attaches itself to all of adjectives in the noun phrase. In the second example, the clitic attaches itself to the base of the article *d-* and all of the following adjectives take the weak ending *-n.*

As a final example, let us consider *kein* 'no', which may be an *ein*-word or a pronoun:

***ein*-word**	kein gut**er** Lehrer 'no good teacher'
pronoun	kein**er** der guten Lehrer 'none of the good teachers'

As an *ein*-word, *kein* cannot take the clitic in the nominative singular, hence the clitic attaches itself to the adjective. As a pronoun, however, there is no such restriction and the clitic attaches itself to *kein.*

In some cases, usage varies, but the tables are a reliable guide. The first table summarizes the inflectional types, the second considers the individual peculiarities:

Determiners		
Articles		
ein	no clitic in masc. nom. sg., neut. nom. and acc. sg.	(*ein*-words)
der	all clitics	(*der*-words)
Possessive Pronouns	*ein*-words	mein, dein, sein, ihr, uns(e)r, eu(e)r, Ihr
Demonstratives	*der*-words	dieser, der, jener, solcher, mancher, welcher, (folgender)
	ein-word compounds	so ein, solch ein, welch ein, manch ein, irgendein
	indeclinable	solch, manch, welch, ein paar,
	adjectives	anderer, folgender
	compounds	irgend-
Quantifiers	adjectives	viele, einige, mehere, wenige, etliche, sämtliche, (beide)
	der-words	beide, alle, keine, jeder
	compounds	ein Paar (with apposition)

Pronouns		
	der-words	einer, keiner, jeder (+ gen.)

	indeclinable	etwas, nichts (+ gen.)
	other (see detailed table)	man, jemand, niemand

Here is the table with the details. "Strong" means the form in question takes the pronominal clitic, e.g., *dieser < dies + er.* "Weak" means the appropriate *-e(n)* form, e.g., *guten* in *alle guten Menschen* . "Determiner" means takes the clitic if possible:

Form	Meaning	Peculiarities
alle	all	Always plural, determiner, weak adjective follows: *Alle schlechten Menschen* 'all bad people'. Uninflected before another determiner: *All sein Geld* 'all his money', *mit all seinem Geld* 'with all his money', mass noun. With count nouns: *mit all(en) seinen Freunden* 'with all his friends'. For completeness *ganz* is used: *den ganzen Tag* 'all day', *das ganze Geld* 'all the money'.
kein	no	Determiner, like other "*ein*-words": *kein guter Mensch, keine guten Menschen*. As a pronoun see below.
viele	many	Adjective, plural, always strong, followed by strong adjective: *viele gute Menschen* 'many good people', *der Autor vieler guter Bücher* 'the author of many good books'. Not declined before mass or abstract nouns *mit viel Geld* 'with a lot of money', *mit viel Mühe* 'with great effort'. Weak when following a determiner: *die/diese vielen kleinen Fehler* 'the/these many small mistakes'.
einige	a few	Like *viele*: *einige gute Bürger* 'a few good citizens'
mehrere	several	Like *viele*: *mehrere gute Freunde* 'several good friends'
etliche	a number of	Like *viele*, but literary: *etliche Verspätungen wurden gemeldet* 'a number of delays were reported'.
wenige	few	Like *viele*: *wenige gute Ideen* 'few good ideas'
sämtliche	complete	Like *viele: sämtliche alte Handschriften wurden verbrannt* 'everyone of the old manuscripts was burned'. Also singular with collectives: *die sämtliche Belegschaft wurde entlassen* 'the entire staff was dismissed'.
andere	other	Like *viele,* but also singular: *anderes belastendes Material* 'other incriminating material'.
manch	some	Undeclined before *ein* or adjective: *manch ein Mann* 'many a man', *manch ehrlicher Bürger* 'many an honest citizen'. Other-wise determiner: *mancher gute Mann* 'many a good man'.

solch	such	Like *manch*: *solch ein herrlicher Tag* 'what a beautiful day', determiner: *solche herrlichen Tage* 'such beautiful days'. Also ajective after *ein*: *ein solcher herrlicher Tag.*
welch	what (a)	Like *manch*: *welch ein süßes Kind* 'what a sweet baby'. But, *welches süße Kind* 'what sweet child'.
so ein	such a	Inflected like *ein*: *mit so einem Messer* 'with such a knife (a knife like that)'.
irgendein	some (random)	Inflected like *ein: Irgendeinen Grund muss es geben* 'there must be some reason', also *irgendwer, irgendwas, irgendwie*.*
ein paar	a couple	Undeclined: *Gib mir ein paar Ednüsse* 'Give me a couple of peanuts'.
ein Paar	a pair	Declines like regular neuter (pl. *-e*) *mit einem Paar Stümpfe* 'with a pair of socks'. The following noun is in the genitive plural which looks just like the nominative, cf. the English construction. N.B. Many things that come in pairs in English do not in German: *die Hose* 'pair of pants', *die Schere* 'pair of scissors', *die Brille* 'pair of glasses'.
beide**	both	Declines like a determiner or weak adjective after another determiner. *Beide erwachsenen Töchter sind schlecht geraten, Die beiden Töchter sind schlecht geraten* 'both daughters turned out badly'. The sense here is all inclusive. He has only two daughters and both turned out badly. For a subset use *zwei.* (*Die*) *zwei Töchter sind schlecht geraten* 'two (of the) daughters turned out badly. There's still hope for the others. *Beides* (plur.) is used to indicate that one does not exclude the other: *Willst du Gerechtigkeit oder Rache? Beides.* 'Do you want justice or revenge? Both'.
folgender	following	Declines like a determiner or weak adjective after another determiner. *Folgendes wichtige Argument, das folgende wichtige* Argument *'the following important argument'.*
einer	one (pronoun)	All clitics with dependent genitive: *einer der Anwesenden ist der Mörder* 'one of those present is the murderer'.
keiner	none (pronoun)	All clitics with dependent genitive: *keiner der Anwesenden ist der Mörder* 'none of those present is the murderer'.
jeder	every, any, each	As pronoun, like *keiner*: *Jeder der Answenden kam in Verdacht* 'Each (every one of) those present was under suspicion.' As a quantifier like *dieser*: *Jeder gute Wein ist teuer* 'every good wine is expensive'.

etwas	some (thing)	Invariable, stands alone as a pronoun: *Ich möchte etwas sagen* 'there is something I want to say'. As a quantifier simply juxtaposed with a noun: *etwas Zucker* 'some suger', followed by an adjective in the genitive: *etwas Gutes* 'something good'.
nichts	nothing	Like *etwas*, but negative: *Ich habe nichts (Gutes) zu sagen* 'I have nothing (good) to say.
man	one	*Man sagt* 'they say'. Now, politically incorrect because of identification with *Mann* 'man'. Substitute *sie sagen* 'they say' rather than passive *es wird gesagt.*
jemand	someone	Inflected or not: *Ich sah jemand(en) im Garten* 'I saw someone in the garden'. Like *nichts* often takes the genitive: *Ich sah jemand anderen/anders* 'I saw someone else'. With the dative: *von jemand anderem/anders.*
niemand	no one	Like *jemand. Im Garten sah ich niemand(en)* 'I saw no one in the garden'.

*   The *irgend*-compounds follow their second part, e.g., *irgendwelcher* like *welcher.*
**   Duden insists on *alle beide* both declined strong, but *alle beiden* is very common.

2   Numerals
The numerals in German pretty much follow the English pattern, but offer a few surprises as well. Here is a basic table of the cardinals (the numbers used in simple counting):

1	ein(s)	21	einundzwanzig
2	zwei	22	zweiundzwanzig
3	drei	30	dreisig
4	vier	40	vierzig
5	fünf	50	fünfzig
6	sechs	60	sechszig
7	sieben	70	siebzig
8	acht	80	achtzig
9	neun	90	neunzig
10	zehn	100	hundert
11	elf	101	hundereins
12	zwölf	200	zweihundert
13	dreizehn	1.000	tausend
14	vierzehn	10.000	zehntausend
15	fünfzehn	100.000	hunderttausend
16	sechszehn	1.000.000	eine Million

17	siebzehn	10^9	eine Milliarde
18	achtzehn	10^{12}	eine Billion
19	neunzehn	10^{15}	eine Trillion
20	zwanzig	10^{18}	eine Quadrillion

Here are a number of comments on the cardinal number system:

1. *Eins* is used when no noun follows: *es ist schon eins, es ist schon ein Uhr* 'It is already one o'clock'. Notice *ein Uhr* 'one o'clock', *eine Uhr* 'a clock'. Also *eins nach dem anderen* 'one after another'. *Ein* can also be used as an adjective after another determiner: *das eine Kind ist faul* 'one of the children is lazy' (you figure out what the others are like). *Ein* is also used as a pronoun and declines as a determiner: *einer meiner Freunde* 'one of my friends'.

2. *Zwei* and *drei* can also be inflected in the genitive although this is somewhat old fashioned: *der Vater zweier Kinder ~ der Vater von zwei Kindern* 'the father of two children'. The use of *von* + dative is far more colloquial. After a determiner the numbers are unchanged: *der Vater von diesen zwei Kindern* 'the father of these two children'. The form *zwo* is used on the phone to prevent confusion with *drei*. The form *zwi(e)-* appears in many compounds: *Zwieback* 'twice-baked bread', *Zwillinge* 'twins'.

3. Decades are indicated by adding the ending *-er*: *in den sechziger Jahren* 'in the sixties'.

4. *Hundert* and *Tausend* can be used as nouns (neuter, pl. *-e*): *Er hat Tausende hingelegt.* 'he put up thousands'.

5. Million, Milliard, Billion, etc., are always nouns. Note that a German *Milliard* is the equivalent of an American *billion*. Hence, an American *trillion* is only a German *billion*. The thousands separator in German is the dot, not the comma: 1.000 = 1,000.

6. The numbers themselves are, as indicated above in the section on gender, feminine. Thus, *Er hat eine Eins gekriegt* 'He got a one (an A)'.

7. Notoriously, when reading the numbers, German puts the units before the tens: *vierundzwanzig* (like the "four and twenty blackbirds baked in a pie"). The secret is to write down the units number as soon as you hear it and leave space for the tens.

2.1   The ordinals
The ordinals for the first nineteen numbers are formed by adding *-te* to the cardinal with the exception of *der erste, der dritte, der siebte* e.g., *zwei ~ der zweite, neunzehn ~ der neunzehnte.* The others add *-ste*: *das zwanzigste Jahrhundert* 'the twentieth century'. 'Last' is *der letzte Zug*, 'next to last' *der vorletzte Zug,* 'second to last' *der zweitletzte Zug*, etc. The adverbs are formed with *-ens*: *erstens, zweitens* 'firstly, secondly'.

2.2   Fractions

For 'half' we have the adjective *halb* and the noun *die Hälfte.* The rest add *-tel,* reduced from *das Teil* and are neuter: *das Drittel, Viertel.* Those that end in *t* add *-stel*: *ein Hundertstel, ein Tausendstel.* These are invariable in the plural: *zwei Drittel* 'two thirds'. Note *anderthalb* 'one and a half'.

2.3   Multiplicatives

Multiplicatives are formed by adding *-mal*: *einmal, zweimal, dreimal* 'once, twice, three times' to the cardinals. For copies, use *-fach*, e.g., *in dreifacher Ausfertigung* 'original with two copies'. For multiple briths, we have *Zwillinge* 'twins', *Drillinge* 'triplets', *Vierlinge, Fünflinge,* etc. 'quadruplets, quintuplets'.

2.4   Time and date

The German-speaking countries are officially on 24-hour time, but colloquially on both 24- and 12- hour time. Thus, *Wir treffen uns um 15 Uhr, um drei (Uhr)* 'We will meet at 3 p.m.' Note that *Uhr* cannot be left out in the afternoon if the 24-hour system is used: *Wir treffen uns um 7 (Uhr) ~ um 15 Uhr.*

The quarter hours are as in English: *viertel nach vier* 'quarter after four', *viertel vor vier* 'quarter to four'. The quarters are only used with the twelve-hour clock. Otherwise: *16 Uhr 15, 16 Uhr 45.*

Thoroughly confusing is the expression *halb* + hour, e.g., *halb vier* which means 3:30. Once again this can only be used with the 12-hour clock, otherwise:*3 Uhr 30* or *15 Uhr 30.*

The date is given days first: *(den) 20. November 2005.* Notice it is in the accusative of definite time. One asks for the date by saying *Den Wievielten haben wir heute?* or *Der Wievielte ist heute?. Wieviel* means 'how many'.

Years are cited alone or after *im Jahr(e)*, never just with *in* as in English: *Mozart wurde 1756 ~ im Jahr(e) 1756 geboren* 'Mozart was born in 1756 '.

Expressions of time with prepositions that take the dative or accusative always select the dative for a point in time: *am Montag* 'on Monday'*, im Sommer vom 1944* 'in the summer of 1944'*, am 31. Oktober* 'on October 31'. Repeated time is (as in English) in the genitive: *montags* 'Mondays', *vormittags* 'mornings', by analogy also *nachts* 'nachts'.

Note the following expressions of relative time:

heute	today
heuer	this year
gestern	yesterday
vorgestern	day before yesterday
vorvorgestern	two days ago
vor zwei Tagen	two days ago
morgen	tomorrow
übermorgen	day after tomorrow
überübermorgen	in two days
heute in zwei Tagen	in two days
heute in *acht* Tagen	in three days(!)

nächste Woche	next week
letzte Woche	last week
heute abend	this evening
heute morgen	this morning
morgen früh	tomorrow morning
morgen vormittag	tomorrow morning
heute nacht	tonight ~ last night (!)

Chapter 5: Adverbs:

1   What is an adverb
Traditionally, adverbs are described as words that modify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs, for
example:

(1)   He walked **slowly** down the long corridor (modifies verb).

(2)   He walked slowly down the **very** long corridor (modifies adjective).

(3)   He walked **very** slowly down the long corridor (modifies adverb).

As can be seen from (2) and (3) above, adverbs that modify adjectives or other adverbs are mostly
intensifiers, words that make the following word stronger, as in *very long, very slowly, dazzlingly*
beautiful, disturbingly confused, etc.
        To these, we must add a fourth type of adverb which modifies an entire clause. Compare:

(4)   She sang *La Marseillaise* strangely.

(5)   Strangely, she sang *La Marseillaise* .

In (4), *strangely* refers to the way she sang the song, in (5) to the fact that she sang that song at
all.

2   Formation of adverbs
In English, most (but not all) adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the suffix *-ly,* e.g.,
slow ~ slowly, careful ~ carefully. In German, almost all adverbs have the same form as the
adjective: *Die langsame Schnecke kriecht langsam über den Rasen* 'the slow snail creeps slowly
over the lawn'. Like the predicate adjective: *Die Schnecke ist langsam* 'the snail is slow', the
adverb is, mercifully, uninflected for case and number.

A few common adjectives optionally add *-e.* Here we can mention *lang(e), fern(e), gern(e).* With
expressions of time, *lange* is far more common. Thus, *Es ist lange her* 'it's been a long time'.
Von fern(e) 'at a distance' with *-e* is rather old fashioned. *Gern(e)* 'gladly', as in *Kommen Sie*
mit? Ja, gern(e)! 'Would you like to come along? Yes, gladly!', is common with both forms.

Adverbs are also formed from the genitive singular of nouns, mostly related to time:

Noun	Adverb	Example
Morgen 'morning'	morgens 'in the morning, mornings'	Morgens stehe ich früh auf 'I get up early in the morning'.
Nachmittag 'afternoon'	nachmittags 'in the afternoon, afternoons'	Nachmittags mache ich gerne ein Nickerchen 'In the afternoon, I like to take a nap'.
Abend 'evening'	abends 'in the evening, evenings'	Abends lese ich die Zeitung 'In the evening, I read the newspaper'.
Nacht 'night'	nachts 'at night, nights'	Nachts schlaf ich wie ein Baby 'At night, I sleep like a baby'.

Note: In English the forms in -s are now felt to be plurals, but historically they are examples of the genitive of indefinite time as in German.

The genitive -s also occurs with adverbs of direction as in English: *forwärts* 'forwards', *rückwärts* 'backwards', *aufwärts* 'upwards', *seitwärts* 'sideways'.

There are even a few in -*lich* (= Eng. -*ly*): *neulich* 'recently', *gänzlich* 'entirely', *freilich* 'certainly', *bitterlich* 'bitterly'.

2.1 Comparison of adverbs

In English, the comparative and superlative of the adverb in -*ly* is made with *more, most*: *slowly, more slowly, most slowly*. In German, as might be expected, the comparative for is formed like the adjective with an -*er* suffix: *langsam ~ langsamer, lang(e) ~ länger*.

There are two superlative forms: a comparative form in *am Adv-sten,* as in *Sonntags schlafe ich am längsten* 'I sleep the longest [of all the days of the week] on Sundays' and an elative form in *aufs Adv-ste*: *Wir arbeiten aufs Beste zusammen* 'we work together excellently'.

As with English *well ~ better ~ best,* there are a number of common irregular comparatives:

bald, 'soon'	eher, 'sooner, rather'	am baldigsten
gern, 'gladly'	lieber, 'rather'	am liebsten 'prefer'
gut, 'well'	besser, 'better'	am besten 'best'
oft, 'often'	öfter, 'frequently' häufiger, 'more frequently'	am häufigsten , 'most frequently'
viel, 'much	mehr 'more'	am meisten 'most'
wenig, little	weniger, 'less'	am wenigsten, 'the least'

Note: *Ich gehe* gern *alleine in die Oper, aber* lieber *zusammen mit einem Freund und* am liebsten *mit einer ganzen Gruppe* 'I *like* to go to the opera alone, but *would rather* go with a friend and *prefer* to go with an entire group'. English *the least*, expressing the minimum amount of a positive quality, is rendered with *am wenigsten*: *Ich bin mit*

der Leistung von Tom wenig *zufrieden, aber mit der Leistung von Dick bin ich noch* weniger *zufrieden und mit der Leistung von Harry bin ich* am wenigsten *Zufrieden* 'I am *little* satisfied with Tom's performance, but *less* satisfied with Dick's performance and *the least* satisfied with Harry's performance'.

A few common adverbs are formed from the superlative plus the genitive *-s*: *wenigstens* 'at least' *Er ist wenigstens ehrlich* 'At least he is honest'; *mindestens,* expressing a necessary minimum *Ich brauche mindestens 50€, um die Getränke zu kaufen* 'I need at least 50€ to buy the drinks'; *höchstens* 'at most' expressing the upper limit *Wir haben höchstens 10€ in der Kasse* 'We have 10€ at most in the till'; *meistens* 'mostly, most of the time' *Die Arbeiter sind meistens betrunken* 'The workers are drunk most of the time'.

2.2   Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place follow deep-case schema: **location ~ goal ~ source** which we discussed above under physical case. Here are some of the most important ones:

Location	Goal	Source
oben 'above'	nach oben	von oben
unten 'below'	nach unten	von unten
innen 'inside'	nach innen	von innen
außen 'outside'	nach außen	von außen
vorne 'in front'	nach vorne	von vorne
hinten 'in back'	nach hinten	von hinten
nebenan 'next door to'	nach nebenan	von nebenan

The adverbial particles *hin-* 'away from the speaker' and *her-* 'towards the speaker' combine with the adverbs of place *wo* 'where', *da, dort* 'there', *hier* 'here' according to the same deep-case schema:

Location	Goal	Source
wo 'where'	wohin	woher
da 'there'	dahin	daher
dort 'there'	dorthin	dorther
hier 'here'	hierhin	hierher

Wo bist du? 'Where are you?'; *Wohin gehst du?* 'Where are you going'; *Woher kommst du?* 'Where are you coming from?

Note: The English equivalents of goal and source *whither, whence; thither, thence; hither, hence,* still current in

Shakespeare's time, have long since disappeared from both the spoken and the literary language, except, of course, for *hence*, which is used to introduce an inference.

In colloquial German, *'rein,* the shortened form of *herein*, is also used to mean *hinein.* Hence, *Du kannst 'reingehen* 'you can go in' for *hineingehen.* The particles *hin* and *her* can also be separated from their bases: *Wo gehst du hin?, Wo kommst du her?*

2.3   Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree express quantity or intensity. There is little of a systematic nature to say about them so we will simply list some important ones with explanation:

Adverb	Explanation	Example
sehr 'very'	general intensifier	Er fürchtete sich sehr 'He was very afraid', cf. Biblical 'He was *sore* afraid'.
zu 'too'	excess	Sie kam zu spät 'She arrived (too) late'.
ziemlich 'fairly'	more than a little, less than very	Er kam ziemlich spät 'He arrived fairly late'.
fast 'nearly'	nearly, but not completely	Sie kam fast zu spät 'She almost arrived too late'.
beinahe 'almost'	close, but not quite	Er kam beinahe zu spät 'He almost arrived too late'.
nur 'only'	not more than	Es kostet nur 50 Cent 'It costs only 50 cents'.
genug 'enough'	sufficient quantity	Er ist alt genug, um es besser zu wissen 'He's old enough to know better'. Er hat Geld genug/genug Geld 'He has enough money'.
erst 'just'	no more than	Sie ist erst 16 Jahre alt 'She's only 16 years old'.
ungefähr 'about'	approximate	Er war ungefähr 16 Jahre alt 'He was about 16 years old'.
etwa 'roughly'	more or less	Das wird etwa 70 Zloty kosten 'It will cost roughly 70 zlotys'.

Note: As indicated *zu spät* may mean either 'too late' (you missed the train) or just 'late' (you almost missed the train). The adverb *genug* follows the adjective it modifies *alt genug,* but may either precede or follow a noun which it quantifies *genug Geld/Geld genug.*

3   Getting negative

Arguably, the most important word to learn in any new language you approach is *no* since without *no* you have **no** control over the situation. So let us begin by revealing a fact well hidden by the

dictionaries: The most common word for *no* in colloquial German is not *nein,* but *nee* (also spelled *ne*)! In spoken German, *nee* tends to be lest emphatic than *nein*, but emphasis is largely expressed by intonation.

3.1   *Kein* and *nicht*

German *kein* (about which we have had a good deal to say earlier) is a negative quantifier or a pronoun: *Kein Mensch ist eine Insel* 'No man is an island' (quantifier), *Keiner weiß, wem die Stunde schlägt* 'No one knows for whom the bell tolls' (pronoun).

German *nicht,* on the other hand, is a negative adverb, the equivalent of English *not*: *I can not tell for whom the bell tolls* 'Ich kann *nicht* sagen, wem die Stunde schlägt'.

3.2   The position of *nicht* in the sentence

When *nicht* modifies the entire clause it is placed at the end of the clause unless the verb or the separable prefix is at the end of the clause (in which case it immediately precedes them):

(1)   Ich weiß es **nicht** 'I don't know'.

(2)   Ich sagte, dass ich es **nicht** weiß 'I said that I didn't know'.

(3)   Leider habe ich das **nicht** gewusst 'Unfortunately, I didn't know that'.

(4)   Er nahm seinen Hut **nicht** ab 'He didn't take off his hat'.

(5)   Er hat seinen Hut **nicht** abgenommen 'He didn't take off his hat'.

When *nicht* negates a particular phrase (or a constituent of a phrase) in the clause, it stands before that phrase:

(6)   **Nicht** Ludolf sondern Renate hat die Scheidung eingereicht 'Not Ludolf, but Renate filled for divorce'.

(7)   Das ist **nicht** wahr! 'That is not true'.

(8)   Er lief **nicht** schnell genug 'He didn't run fast enough'.

After a negation, as in (6), *but* is German *sondern* indicating a choice (not one, but the other).

Admittedly, it is often difficult to distinguish between clause and phrase negation. Consider:

(9)   Renate geht **nicht** ins Kino 'Renate isn't going to the movies'.

(10)   Renate geht ins Kino **nicht** 'Renate isn't going to the movies'.

Sentences (9) - (10) seem to mean the same thing. The difference becomes clearer with a compound verb:

(11)   Ludolf hat [die große Flasche Whisky] **nicht** gefunden 'It is not the fact that Ludolf found the large bottle of whisky' (clause negation).

(12)   * Ludolf hat **nicht** [die große Flasche Whisky] gefunden (phrase negation).

Sentence (11) with clause negation and *nicht* preceding the verb at the end is grammatical. On the other hand, (12), with *nicht* preceding the bracketed noun phrase, is not grammatical as it stands. I t implies that Ludolf found something, but what he found did not meet the description in the following phrase. It is incomplete. To make the sentence grammatical, we need to specify what he found:

(13)   Ludolf hat nicht [die große Flasche Whisky] gefunden, sondern {die kleine, den Flachmann, die Flasche Rum, das Fass Amontillado} 'Ludolf didn't find the large bottle of whisky, but {the small one, the hipflask, the bottle of rum, the cask of amontillado}.

Notice that *nicht* can negate any (or all) of the constituents of the bracketed phrase: *große, Flasche, Whisky*, *die große Flasche Whisky*. A simpler example:

(14)   Er hat Autofahren nicht gelernt 'He didn't learn to drive a car'.

(15)   Er hat nicht Autofahren gelernt, sondern Skifahren 'He learned to ski, not to drive a car'.

3.3   Never more
A number of negatives are compounded with *nie-, ni- or kein*:

nie	*never*	nirgendwo	*nowhere*
niemals	*never*	nirgends	*nowhere*
nie wieder	*never again*	nichts	*nothing*
nimmermehr	*never more*	keineswegs	*by no means*
niemand	*no one*	keinmal	*not even once*

3.4   Double negatives
Double negatives are handled in standard German as they are in standard English. Only one negative is allowed in a clause when it effects the entire clause:

(1)   Ich habe **niemals** etwas gesagt 'I never said anything'.

(2)   Ich habe **keinen** Menschen irgendwo gesehen 'I saw no one anywhere'.

(3)   * Ich habe **keinen** Menschen **nirgendwo** gesehen 'I saw no one nowhere'.

As in English, double negatives are allowed when only the following word or phrase is negated:

> (4)   Ich habe **niemals nichts** gesagt 'I never said nothing (i.e., I always said something).

> (5)   Er war mir gegenüber **nicht un**freundlich 'He wasn't unfriendly towards me.

3.5   Tag questions

In English, we ask the hearer to confirm the truth of what we have said with an unusual device, the so-called tag question as in (1) - (2):

> (1)   She left the party early, didn't she?

> (2)   She didn't leave the party early, did she?

> (3)   So he's the murderer, is he?

In (1) - (2), where a positive statement takes a negative tag and a negative statement a positive tag, German uses *nicht wahr*, *nein* or *oder*: *Sie hat die Fete früh verlassen, nicht wahr/oder? Nicht wahr* is common in written German. In northern colloquial German, it is usually shortened to *nich(t)*. Similarly, *nein* may be shortened to *ne* (pronounced like the final syllable in *eine*). *Oder* is more common in the south of the German-speaking area. In the north, it challenges the hearer to deny the truth of the statement. Also south German is the particle *gell* (cf. Canadian *eh?*), which is considered provincial.

Sentence (3) is an example of a tag question with two positive verbs. The tag here indicates that the speaker has drawn an inference from what has been said. (So, I conclude from what you have been telling me that he is the murderer although you did not say so in so many words.) Here, German uses *also*: *Er ist also der Mörder.*

3.6   Negating the negation

To end on a positive note, let us consider the problem of correcting a negative assertion. Consider the following exchange:

> Mother: You didn't do your homework again!
> Child: I did so!
> Mother: You did not!
> Child: I did so!

In German there is a simple one-word reply:

> Mutter: Du hast wieder deine Hausaufgaben nicht gemacht!
> Kind: Doch!
> Mutter: Hast du nicht!
> Kind: Doch!

Similarly:

Mother:	You hit your sister again!
Child:	I did not!
Mother:	You did so!

Mutter:	Du hast deine Schwester wieder geschlagen!
Kind:	Habe ich nicht!
Mutter:	Doch!

Chapter 6: The Verbs

1   The German verb system

The good news is that the German verb system has very few irregularities (cf. the English irregular verb disaster). The bad news is that the regular system is awesome, but complex. Once again, the German fossil language shows itself at its best.

1.1   The primary and secondary verbs

Besides some historical relicts – broken pottery sticking out of the earth, German (like English) has two basic kinds of verbs: primary (strong) verbs and secondary (weak) verbs. The primary verbs are, as the name suggests, verbs in the first place. The secondary verbs are derived from other verbs, nouns or adjectives:

Verb	sitzen 'to sit'	setzten 'to set'
Noun	die Planze 'plant'	pflanzen 'to plant'
Adjective	voll 'full'	füllen 'to fill'

1.2   The primary (strong) verbs

The strong verbs (Jacob Grimm's term) form their past and past participle through alternation of the stem vowel (full details in *The German Language – A Guide for Inquisitive Students*). They are traditionally divided into seven classes:

The following table summarizes the seven groups of the strong verb in German:

Group I: i-group	beißen	biss	gebissen
Group II: o-group	fliegen	flog	geflogen
Group IIIa: liquid + consonant group	helfen werfen	half warf	geholfen geworfen
Group IIIb: nasal + consonant group	finden singen	fand sang	gefunden gesungen
Group IV: liquid or nasal group	stehlen nehmen	stahl nahm	gestohlen genommen
Group V: obstruent group	geben sitzen	gab saß	gegeben gesessen
Group VI: a-group	fahren	fuhr	gefahren
Group VII: ie-group	heißen rufen	hieß rief	geheißen gerufen

The names are based on the most obvious characteristic of each group. Here, briefly, are remarks on each group.

1.2.1 Group I

The short *i* of the past is lengthened in the open syllable before voiced consonants as in *schrieben* 'wrote', *mieden* 'avoided', *schwiegen* 'remained silent', etc., but remains short before voiceless consonants as in *schritten* 'strode', *pfiffen* 'whistled', *schmissen* 'tossed', etc. The verb *heißen* 'call', rhymes with *beißen* 'bite', but belongs to Group VII.

1.2.2 Group II

The vowel of the past is short when followed by a voiceless consonant and long when followed by a voiced consonant or *t*: *kriechen ~ kroch ~ gekrochen* 'creep' vs. *fliegen ~ flog ~ geflogen* 'fly', *bieten ~ bot ~ geboten*. Note the two irregular presents *lügen* 'to lie' from the noun *die Lüge* 'the lie' and *(be)trügen* 'cheat' by association with *lügen* 'lie' and *Betrüger* 'swindler'. Older German has the expected *liegen, triegen*. Note *ziehen ~ zog ~ gezogen*. The verbs *saugen* and *saufen* also belong here.

1.2.3 Group III

Group III is divided into two subgroups: Group IIIa, where the stem vowel is *e* followed by a liquid plus a consonant as in *helfen* 'help' and Group IIIb, where the stem vowel is *i* followed by a nasal plus a consonant as in *binden* 'bind'. Sometimes *r* precedes as in *sprechen* 'speak', *erschrecken* 'frighten', *brechen* 'break', *dreschen* (past *drosch*) 'thresh'. There are three common irregular verbs: *fechten* 'duel' (past *foch*), *flechten* 'plait' (past *floch*), *erlöschen* 'extinguish' (past *erlosch*). As indicated all three have *o* in the past and past part. Note the regular vowel mutation *e ~ i* in the second and third person singular: *er hilft mir* 'he helps me', *die Kerze erlischt* 'the candle burns out'.

1.2.4 Group IV

Here the stem vowel is followed by a simple liquid or nasal as in *nehmen* 'take' and *stehlen* 'steal'. The verb *kommen* 'come' also belongs here. Vowel mutation as in Group III: *ich nehme ~ du nimmst ~ er nimmt* (with shortening of the stem vowel). In addition, *nehmen* has shortening in the past participle: *genommen*. With rounding in the present and past: *schwören ~ schwor ~ geschworen* 'swear'.

1.2.5 Group V

In this group the stem vowel *e* is followed by an obstruent. The obsolete verb *wesen* 'be', which gives us *war* and *gewesen* also belongs here. See below for a discussion of this essential verb. Vowel mutation as in Group III: *ich gebe ~ du gibst ~ er gibt*. Also *treten ~ trittst ~ tritt* 'step, kick' with shortening of the stem vowel. The verbs *bitten, sitzen, liegen* also belong here. For the vowel of the present, see the *Guide for Inquisitive Students*.

1.2.6 Group VI

This group is quite different from the first five as it is based on the alternation: *a ~ u ~ a,* as in *tragen ~ trug ~ getragen* 'carry'. The verb *fragen* 'ask' once belonged here, but has become weak: *fragen ~ fragte ~ gefragt*. The verb *stehen ~ stand ~ gestanden* is formed from two OHG verbs: *stēn* and *standan* (cf. Eng. *stand ~ stood* with an *n*-infix in the pres.). The verb *heben* 'lift' also belongs here, but has gone over to Group II in the past: *heben ~ hob ~gehoben*, but note the adjective *erhaben* 'exaulted'. Vowel mutation as in Group III: *ich trage ~ du trägst ~ er trägt.*

1.2.7 Group VII

Group VII is characterized by the past-tense vowel *ie.* The present and past participle are always

the same: *rufen ~ rief ~ gerufen* 'call', *heißen ~ hieß ~ geheißen* 'call', *laufen ~ lief ~gelaufen* 'go on foot'. Before *ng* the past tense vowel is shortened as in *fangen ~ fing ~ gefangen* 'catch'. The verb *gehen* 'go' also belongs here with a past and past participle from the obsolete verb *gangan.* Thus, *gehen ~ ging ~ gegangen.* Vowel mutation with *au* and *a*: *du läufst, er fängt.*

1.2.8   The preterite presents
In older German (as in English) the past singular and the past plural had different vowels. Over time these were leveled out, which accounts for the difference between English *found,* where the past plural prevailed and German *fand,* where the past singular was standardized, cf. the Middle High German forms: *finden ~ fand ~ funden ~gefunden.* This would be of no importance to the modern language were it not for the past subjunctive (see below) and a group of verbs which are past tense in form and present tense in meaning and preserve the old alternation of vowels between past singular and plural. These are called **preterite present** verbs – preterite (past) in form, but present in meaning.

The clearest example is the verb *wissen* 'know', which is related to Lat. *video* 'I see'. The idea is that what I have seen, I know. Here is the conjugation with the singular derived from the old past singular and the plural from the old past plural (for details see *The German Language – A Guide for Inquisitive Students*).

Singular	Plural
ich weiß	wir wissen
du weißt	ihr wisst
er weiß	sie wissen

Notice that the first and third singular are identical just as in the past of regular strong verbs, cf. *ich gab ~ er gab* 'I gave ~ he gave'. This verb belongs to Group I and the present plural is just like the past plural of *beißen* 'bite'. The old past singular, preserved in *wissen,* has been leveled in the regular verbs of Group I and the vowel of the plural has been generalized to the singular.

Singular	Plural
ich biss	wir bissen
du bisst	ihr bisst
er biss	sie bissen

Thus, only the preterite present preserves the original difference between the past singular and the past plural.

In addition to *wissen ,* the modal auxiliaries are mostly preterite presents although the details of form and meaning are not quite so obvious. All of these have built a weak past like *ich wusste* 'I knew' and use the present first and third plural form (*wir ~ sie wissen*) for the infinitive:

Infinitive	Pres. Sing.	Pres. Plur.	Past
können 'can'	kann	können	konnte
müssen 'must'	muss	müssen	musste
dürfen 'may'	darf	dürfen	durfte
mögen 'like'	mag	mögen	mochte
wollen 'want'	will	wollen	wollte
sollen 'should'	soll	sollen	sollte

2 Weak verbs

The weak or secondary verbs, as mentioned above, are derived from other verbs, nouns or adjectives. (Table repeated from above for convenience. Details, once again, in *The German Language - A Guide for Inquisitive Students.)*

Verb	sitzen 'to sit'	setzen 'to set'
Noun	die Pflanze 'plant'	pflanzen 'to plant'
Adjective	voll 'full'	füllen 'to fill'

The past tense of these verbs is formed with the suffix *-t-* plus the personal endings. The past participle is also formed with *-t* and the prefix *ge-* if no other inseparable prefix is present: *pflanzen ~ pflanzte ~ gepflanzt.* This class is "productive," which means that new verbs that enter the language, e.g., *telefonieren, mailen,* etc. fit here. It is very unlikely that any new strong verbs will be created.

2.1 Rückumlaut verbs

The term Rückumlaut comes from Jacob Grimm. These are verbs with an umlauted present (written *e*) which seems to revert to the original *a* of the stem in the past and past participle. Hence, they seem to "give back" their umlaut. These were once very numerous, but have been reduced to a handful: *brennen* 'burn', *kennen* 'know', *nennen* 'name', *rennen* 'run', *senden* 'send', *wenden* 'turn'. As a model: *brennen ~ brannte ~ gebrannt.* The verb *senden* has the forms *sendete ~ gesendet* when it means 'broadcast': *Das Programm wird morgen um 3 gesendet*: 'the program will be broadcast tomorrow at three'. The verbs that lose their internal *n* also belong here: *denken ~ dachte ~ gedacht* 'think', *bringen, brachte, gebracht* 'bring'.

3 Tense

German has only two tenses: past and non-past. The past is also called the preterit (from Lat. *praeteritum* 'what has gone by') and the non-past is usually called the present although it does duty for the future and timeless events as well. Additional tenses are formed with the auxiliaries: *haben, sein, werden.* They also have but two tenses plus the subjunctive (see below).

4 The subjunctive

Like English, German has a present and past subjunctive. The German grammarians refer to these as "Konjunktiv I" and "Konjunktiv II" because they really have nothing to do with present or past

time. The present subjunctive is so-called because it is formed from the present tense of the verb and the past subjunctive accordingly from the old past plural (with umlaut if possible).

MHG	pres.	past. sg.	past pl.	past part.
	helfen	half	hulfen	geholfen
NHG	pres.	past	past subj.	past part.
	helfen	half(en)	hülfe(n)	geholfen

The past subjunctive ("Konjuktiv II") is hardly used anymore. Instead, the form is paraphrased with the subjunctive of the verb *werden*. Thus, instead of *wenn ich hülfe* we have *wenn ich helfen würde* 'if I helped'. With weak verbs there is no difference in form between the past indicative and the past subjunctive. Hence, the form with *würde* is almost always used: *wenn ich diesen Wein kaufte/kaufen würde* 'if I bought this wine'. It is worth noting that English and German are radically different here. English uses the old past subjunctive although it has fallen together in form with the past indicative (except with the past of *be*: *I was ~ if I were*). Hence, *if I bought this wine.*

The present subject never mutates the vowel: *ich helfe ~ du helf(e)st ~ er helfe.* The past subjunctive mutates the vowel throughout if possible: *ich würde ~ du würdest ~ er würde*, etc. The past subjunctive of *werden* is particularly important because it is used to form the conditional: *ich würde gehen* 'I would go'. (See below.)

5   The verb endings
The verb endings can be summarized in the following table. The category "other" covers both the weak past and the subjunctive:

Verb Endings		
Present	**Strong Past**	**Other**
Singular		
-e	-	-e
-st	-st	-est
-t	-	-e
Plural		
-en	-en	-en
-t	-t	-et
-en	-en	-en

Here is an example of a strong verb with past subjunctive:

Strong Verb		
Present	**Strong Past**	**Past Subj.**
Singular		
ich gehe	ging	ginge
du gehst	gingst	gingest
er geht	ging	ginge
Plural		
wir gehen	gingen	gingen
ihr geht	gingt	ginget
sie gehen	gingen	gingen

Verbs with stems that end in *t* or *d* retain an *e* before the ending *-t*: *er redet* 'he speaks'. Before the second person singular *-st*, the *e* is optional: *du redest* or *du redst*. Verbs with consonant + nasal also retain the *e*: *du atmest, er atmet* 'you breathe, he breathes', *du trocknest, er trocknet* 'you dry, he dries'.

The same rule applies for the past tense: *ich trocknete, atmete, redete* 'I dried, breathed, spoke'. Here, the *t* is always present as a past tense marker.

Here is an example of a weak verb in the present, the past and the present subjunctive:

Weak Verb		
Present	**Weak Past**	**Pres. Subj.**
Singular		
ich liebe	liebte	liebe
du liebst	liebtest	leibest
er liebt	liebte	liebe
Plural		
wir lieben	liebten	lieben
ihr liebt	liebtet	liebet
sie lieben	liebten	lieben

The same endings as those of the weak past (other) are attached to the present stem without the past suffix *-t-* to form the present subjunctive: *wenn ich liebe, du liebest, er liebe*, etc.

6   The imperative

The imperative consists of the verb stem plus an optional *-e* in the singular and a *-t* in the plural: *setz(e) Dich, setzt Euch* 'sit down'. In the singular, only the vowel *e>i* is mutated: *helfen ~ du hilfst ~ Hilfe!*, but *laufen ~ du läufst ~ Lauf!*. For the third person singular, either the present subjunctive or paraphrase with *sollen* is used: *Lobe er den Herrn, er soll den Herrn loben* 'let him praise the lord', *Es lebe der König* 'Long live the king!' In the plural: *lobet den Herrn, sie sollen den Herrn loben.* The third person plural is used for the polite form: *Setzen Sie sich* 'sit down'.

7   The compound tenses

The compound tenses are formed with the auxiliaries (helping verbs) *haben, sein, werden.* The passive with *werden* will be considered in detail under the chapter on syntax. In this section we will briefly consider the future and the perfect.

7.1   The future with *werden*

English has at least ten ways of expressing the future (see my *Problems of English Grammar*), German thankfully only two. For the most part, German simply uses the present form for present future and timeless events:

Present	Ich gehe zum Laden.	I'm going to the store.
Future	Ich fahre morgen nach Hause.	I'm going home tomorrow
Timeless	Ich esse jeden Mittwoch in der Mensa.	I eat in the dining hall every Wednesday.

German does not distinguish between the simple and continuous as English does. The future with *werden* is approximately the equivalent of the English indefinite future with *will*: *Morgen wird es wahrscheinlich regnen* 'It *will* probably rain tomorrow'. *Werden* is also used for suppositions: *Er wird schon zu Hause sein* 'He must be home by now'. In addition, German has a "near future" like the Romance languages: *Ich gehe jetzt schlafen ~ je vais me coucher maintenant* 'I'm gong to sleep now'.

7.2   Preterite and present perfect

The German present perfect is used pretty much like its English equivalent: *So was **habe ich nie gesehen*** '**I have never seen** anything like that before'. The difficulty is that it also is used to replace the preterite: *Ich **sah** ihn gestern ~ Ich **habe** ihn gestern **gesehen*** 'I saw him yesterday', which is quite impossible in English. More about this under our discussion of the use of the verb tenses. First, we must consider an additional complication.

7.2.1   Present perfect with *sein* and *haben*

In English, all past perfect forms are constructed with the auxiliary *have*. In German, *haben* shares this duty with *sein,* e.g., *Ich **habe** es gesehen* 'I have seen it', but *Ich **bin** dorthin gegangen* 'I went/have gone there'. Hence, we are confronted with the decision: *Haben oder Sein?* Fortunately, we can provide a number of guidelines:

1.   All transitive verbs (those with a direct object) take *haben*. Compare, *ich **bin** nach Hamburg gefahren* 'I drove to Hamburg' with *Ich **habe** seinen neuen Wagen gefahren* 'I drove his new car'.

2.   All reflexive verbs take *haben*: *Ich **habe** mich in den Finger geschnitten* 'I cut my finger'. *Die Tür hat **sich** geöffnet 'The door opened.'*

3.   Verbs indicating a state of rest tend to take *haben* in the north and *sein* in the south: *Ich **habe/bin** den ganzen Tag im Bett gelegen* 'I lay in bed the whole day'. Similarly, *Ich **habe/bin** dort eine ganze Stunde gesessen* 'I sat there for a full hour'. In literary German *haben* is preferred. With *sein* 'be', *werden* 'become' and *bleiben* 'stay' there is general agreement in favor of the auxiliary *sein*: *Ich **bin** dort gewesen/geblieben* 'I was/stayed there'. *Sie ist Ärztin geworden* 'she became a doctor' and in the passive *Er **ist** von einem Auto überfahren worden* 'he was run over by an automobile'. Note: *worden* not *geworden* with passive.

4.   Intransitive verbs that focus on the beginning or the end of an action take *sein*: *Er ist eingeschlafen* 'he fell asleep'. *Der Schläfer ist erwacht* 'the sleeper has awoken', *Der Brief ist angekommen* 'the letter has arrived'. *Er ist gestorben, verhungert* 'he has died, starved to death'. These often have perfectivizing prefixes (*ent-, er-, ge-, ver-, zer-*). Additional examples: *Er ist erwachsen* 'he has (is) grown up', *Das Tier ist im Wald verschwunden* 'the animal disappeared in the forest'. *Der Krug ist plötzlich zerbrochen* 'the pitcher suddenly shattered'.

5.   Verbs of motion towards a goal take *sein*: *Ich bin nach Hause gegangen, gefahren, gelaufen, geschwommen* 'I went, drove, walked, swam home', etc. Those expressing aimless motion take *haben* if the duration of the activity is emphasized: *Sie hat eine Stunde geschwommen* 'she swam for an hour', *Die Polizei hat in seiner Wohnung herumgeschnüffelt* 'The police snooped around in his apartment'. Notice that in these cases the dative of location is used. But, there is a definite tendency to use *sein* even for aimless motion. In the following examples with *sein*, the emphasis is on motion even if it is not goal oriented: *Er ist den ganzen Tag in der Stadt herumgeirrt* 'he wandered around in the city all day', *Er ist ein paar Stunden ziellos herumgefahren* 'he drove around aimlessly for a couple of hours'.

6.   Verbs indicating change of state also take *sein*: *Er ist gewachsen* 'he has grown', *Sein Bein ist angeschwollen* 'his leg has swollen up', *Er ist schlank geworden* 'he has become thin'. With slow gradual processes, *haben* also occurs: *Die Wäsche ist/hat nur langsam getrocknet* 'the laundry dried slowly'.

7.3   The forms of the auxiliaries *haben* und *sein*

The auxiliaries *haben* and *sein* (along with *werden*) are used to form the compound tenses of the verb. While the tenses of *werden* are quite straightforward, *haben* and *sein* display various irregularities. The forms are summarized in the following chart:

Present				
	Indic.	**Subj.**	**Indic.**	**Subj.**
ich	bin	sei	habe	habe
du	bist	seist	hast	habest
er	ist	sei	hat	habe
wir	sind	seien	haben	haben
ihr	seit	seit	habt	habet
sie	sind	seien	haben	haben
Preterite				
ich	war	wäre	hatte	hätte
du	warst	wärest	hattest	hättest
er	war	wäre	hatte	hätte
wir	waren	wären	hatten	hätten
ihr	wart	wärt	hattet	hättet
sie	waren	wären	hatten	hätten
Imperative				
	sei (du)		habe (du)	
	seit (ihr)		habt (ihr)	
	seien Sie		haben Sie	
Participles				
Present	seiend		habend	
Past	gewesen		gehabt	

The present tense of *sein* is somewhat problematic because it is put together from two different verbs exemplified in *bin ~ ist (sind)*. The past is quite regular although based on a third verb *wesen* (also seen in the past participle *gewesen*). The present subjunctive is based on infinitive *sein* and the past on *war*. The verb *haben* has contracted forms without the *b* in *hast, hat* and *hatte*. The subjunctive follows the rules.

7.4 The conditional
The "conditional" with *würde* is, like its English counterpart in *would*, slightly misnamed. To be sure, both usually appear in unreal conditions: *Wenn ich reich wäre, würde ich mir ein Schloss am Rhein kaufen* 'if I were rich, I would buy myself a castle on the Rhein'. But, both can be used

as a "hypothetical" future without an expressed condition: *Ich würde heute zur Bibliothek gehen, aber sie ist geschlossen* 'I would go to the library today, but it is closed'.

Since English and German behave identically here, this should not be much of a problem. The real difficulty lies with the use of the German "conditional" as a substitute for the past subjunctive, which, as noted above, has largely passed out of use. Compare: *His wife **would be** very angry if he **forgot** her birthday* and *Seine Frau wäre ganz böse, wenn er ihren Geburtstag **vergessen würde.*** In English, the hypothetical future is used in the main clause and in German the past subjunctive. In the conditional clause, on the other hand, English uses the past subjunctive (which is identical in form to the past indicative) and German substitutes the conditional.

In general, we can describe the conditionals using three time parameters: past, present (actually timeless) and future, combined with two "moods" real and unreal.

Real		
Future	Wenn ich das Geld habe, trinken wir echten Champagner. Also: werden wir ... trinken.	If I have the money, we will drink real champagne.
Timeless	Wenn ich Geld habe, trinke ich echten Champagner.	If I have the money, I drink real champagne.
Past	Wenn ich das Geld hatte, trank ich echten Champagner.	If I had the money, I drank real champagne.
Unreal		
Future	Wenn ich reich (werden) würde, würde ich das ganze Geld für echten Champagner ausgeben.	If I got rich, I would spend all the money on real champagne.
Timeless	Wenn ich das Geld hätte, würde ich echten Champagner trinken.	If I had the money, I would drink real champagne.
Past	Wenn ich das Geld gehabt hätte, hätte ich echten Champagner getrunken.	If I had had the money, I would have drunk real champagne.

In general, the German forms parallel the English ones, except in the past unreal, where the past conditonal *würde getrunken haben* 'would have drunk' is rarely used.

And, of course, English never routinely substitutes the conditional for the past subjunctive. Hence, we have *I could do it if you **helped** me* 'ich könnte es machen, wenn Du mir **helfen würdest'.** English only uses the construction with *would* in requests: *If you would listen to me, I could explain it to you* 'wenn Du mir zuhören würdest, könnte ich es Dir erklären'. I t is also worth noting that with the verb *sein*, German generally uses the subjunctive *wäre* instead of the

conditional *würde sein*. Thus in the example above: *His wife would be angry ~ seine Frau wäre böse,* but *seine Frau würde ganz böse sein* is also possible.

7.5   Colloquial use of the tenses
Spoken German tends to "simplify" the use of the tenses. Although German, like English, has a future perfect, it is little used. Hence, for *Next March, I will have been working here for ten years,* we generally have *Nächsten März arbeite ich hier schon seit zehn Jahren* instead of *Nächsten März werde ich schon zehn Jahre hier gearbeitet haben.*

The verbs of subordinate clauses favor the present. Thus, for *I knew you **would come***, we have *Ich wüsste, dass Du **kommst*** rather than ***kommen würdest*** or ***kämest*** (!).

7.6   The subjunctive
In addition to representing counterfactual conditions (things that aren't true) as explained above, the subjunctive is used to indicate doubt as to intention: *Ich wusste nicht, ob er es ernst meinte, oder ob er nur so getan **hätte*** 'I don't know if he really meant it or whether he was only pretending'. If I am rather inclined to believe that he was faking, I would say: *ob er nur so getan **hat.***

The subjunctive is also used to express wishes: *Wenn Elvis nur am Leben wäre!* 'If Elvis were still alive!'. This is an unfulfillable wish and is expressed with the past subjunctive. Fulfillable wishes use the present subjunctive: *Es lebe der König!* 'Long live the King'.

Similarly, the subjunctive is used after negations or questions to express doubt: *Ich kenne niemand, der sowas tut/täte* 'I don't know anyone who would do such a thing'. The fine distinction between indicative and subjunctive is lost in English. Similarly, in question: *Wo ist der Mann, der sowas tut/täte?* 'where is the man who would do such a thing?'. (Of course, *ich kenne niemand, der sowas **tut*** 'I don't know anyone who **does** something like that' would be appropriate if someone asked you to recommend an elephant trainer.)

7.7   Indirect discourse
As we have seen above, the subjunctive is used to express doubt or uncertainty. This principle is reflected in indirect discourse – reporting others' words.

In German (as opposed to English), it is always possible to distinguish between reported speech that I believe (or for which I am willing to take the responsibility) and reported speech for which I take no responsibility. This is a principle that is anchored in German law. You can be sued for reported speech in the indicative, but not for statements in the subjunctive.

Thus, there is a big difference between the verb forms in: *Die Polizei sagt, dass er durch ein Fenster in die Wohnung eingedrungen **ist/sei*** 'the police say that he entered the apartment through a window'. In English there is often no way to express this important distinction grammatically (details in my *Problems of English Grammar*). In German, *ist* is actionable (can be challenged in a court of law) and *sei* is not.

For this reason, it is always important to distinguish clearly between indicative and subjunctive. In case of doubt, use the subjunctive, otherwise the indicative. The choice of auxiliary in *Er sagt, dass er das Geld gefunden **hat//habe/hätte*** 'he said that he found the money' depends on whether I wish to support or distance myself from his statement. Which form of the subjunctive I choose to express doubt makes no difference as long as the difference is clear. Thus, doubt is adequately expressed in the sentence above with *habe* or *hätte.* Certainty is expressed with *hat.*

The substitution of the "conditional" for the indicative works here as well. Thus, *Er sagte dass er den Wein kauft//kaufe/kaufen würde* 'he said that he **will/would** buy the wine'. The past subjunctive *kaufte* would not do here since it could be confused with the past indicative: *Er sagte, dass er den Wein kaufte* 'he said that he bought the wine'.

In questions, the same principle applies: *Sie fragte, ob er kommt//komme/käme/kommen würde* 'she asked if he would come'. Here, once again, German has a number of ways of indicating doubt that are not available in English. In colloquial German only the first *kommt* and last *kommen würde* are used. This is in keeping with the tendency to replace the subjunctive by the "conditional' or to use the indicative in subordinate clauses where no doubt is involved.

7.8   Overview: the use of the German tenses
In this section, you will find an informal contrastive guide to the use of the German tenses.

7.8.1   The present
As in English, the German present has three separate functions: present, future, timeless. Thus, a sentence like *Hansi spielt im Garten* is an appropriate answer to three different questions:

Hansi spielt im Garten	
Present	Wo ist Hansi? 'Where is Hansi'.
Timeless	Wo spielt Hansi (für gewöhlich)? 'Where does Hansi (usually) play.'
Future	Was macht Hansi morgen, während Sie beim Zahnartzt sind? 'What is Hansi going to do tomorrow while you are at the dentist's.'

The future with *werden* is only used in case of uncertainty: *Es **wird** morgen wahrscheinlich regnen.* 'It will probably rain tomorrow'. The immediate future is indicated by *gehen*: *Ich gehe jetzt spaztieren. Möchtest du mitkommen?* 'I'm going to take a walk. Would you like to come along?' (Note that the English use of *going to* does not indicate a near future, cf. *I am going to be a cowboy when I grow up.*)

This basic system, which German and English share, has been enormously complicated in English by the introduction of the continuous aspect and ten different forms of the future. It is worth noting that other languages do not necessarily bundle these three functions into one tense. The Romance languages, for example, use the "present" for present and timeless, but have separate tenses for the future.

7.8.2   The past or preterite
As mentioned above, the past tense is often called the preterite (Ger. Praeteritum) from Lat. *praeteritum* 'vorbeigegangen'. This is one of the few instances in which traditional terminology hits the nail right on the head. The preterite covers single actions, repeated actions and states in both English and German. What they all have in common is that they are things that have gone by, are over with, finished, done.

Compare the following questions, which all have the same answer: *Sepp pflückte Blumen* 'Sepp picked flowers':

Sepp pflückte Blumen	
Past one time	Was machte Sepp heute vormittag? 'What did Sepp do this morning?'
Past repeated	Was machte Sepp jeden Sonntag vormittag? 'What did Sepp do every Sunday morning?'
Past durative	Was machte Sepp bevor er in den Ruhestand ging? 'What did Sepp do before he retired?

Here the implication is that Sepp is no longer picking flowers (that was this morning), no longer picks flowers on Sunday mornings, no longer works as a flower picker. (Naturally, the present perfect could be substituted for the simple past in the examples above - *Sepp hat Blumen gepflückt*.) See below.

Once again there is no particular reason why these three functions should be represented by a single tense and other languages differ.

Lacking a past continuous, the preterite also serves for the background to a past event: *Ich spielte (eben) Gitarre, als es an die Tür klopfte* 'I **was playing** my guitar when there was a knock at the door'.

The difficulty with this most serviceable tense is that it is passing out of use! See the next section.

7.8.3   The present perfect
The present perfect, which developed independently in German and English, is used identically in both languages with two very important exceptions.

At bottom, the present perfect is a *present* tense which expresses a present state which results from past experience. Thus, if you are applying for a job as an English teacher and are expected to have three years experience, your perspective employer would ask: *Have you taught English for three years?* That is, *Do you have the required three years experience?* The question applies only to your present state of experience. It does not ask whether you are still teaching English or not. The German equivalent *Haben Sie drei Jahre Englischunterricht gegeben?* is identical in meaning.

One important difference here, is that German has a way of indicating that the activity is still going on: *Ich **gebe** Englischunterricht **seit** drei Jahren.* There is no single tense in English that can do this.

The crucial difference, however, is that the German present perfect is ousting the preterite while the two forms are kept strictly apart in English. In most German dialects, the process is already complete. Thus, in Bavarian, there is no equivalent of the preterite *ich sah* 'I saw', only one form covers the functions of the present perfect and the preterite: *i hob ksehn* 'ich habe gesehen' ~ 'I have seen'. In spoken French, this is also the case. The present perfect has completely replaced the old preterite in the spoken language.

It is important to note that the preterite and present perfect in standard German cannot be used interchangeably. For the past function either can be used, but for the present perfect function only the present perfect is possible:

(1) a.   Ich sah Paris letzten Sommer (past event).

    b.   Ich habe letzten Sommer Paris gesehen (past event) .

          'I saw Paris last summer'.

(2) a.   Ich habe Paris im Frühling gesehen (present state).

          'I've seen Paris in the spring time'.

7.8.4   The past and future perfect

German has a past and future perfect constructed like English. The future perfect is little used, the present acting as a substitute. Sentence (1b) is vastly preferred over (1a):

(1) a.   Nächstes Jahr wird er (schon) fünfzig Jahre lang dort gewohnt haben.

          'Next year, he will have lived there for fifty years'

    b.   Nächstes Jahr wohnt er (schon) fünfzig Jahre dort.

The past perfect has fared somewhat better, but a new "super past perfect" is common in colloquial German as illustrated in (2b-c). The construction appears with transitive verbs and consists of the present or past perfect of the auxiliary *haben* with the past participle of the full verb preceding the past participle of the auxiliary. This is not to be imitated:

(2) a.   Ich hatte den Zettel gelesen 'I had read the note'.

    b.   Ich **habe** den Zettel **gelesen gehabt**.

    c.   Ich **hatte** den Zettel **gelesen gehabt**.

There is more about the verb in the following Chapter on syntax.

Chapter 7: Syntax

1   The vastness of syntax
Most likely syntax in general and German syntax in particular is not vast at all – just a bit difficult
to pin down. The nature of the problem is clear. In dealing with the sounds of German, we were
confronted with some forty-odd discrete distinctive sounds. The forms of German (nouns,
pronouns, adjectives, verbs) are more numerous, but still confined to a rather small number of
elements. Here, we were able to reduce memory work by discovering certain governing principles
(base + clitic), verb conjugations, etc.

When it comes to syntax, however, there are no discrete elements to list. There is no way
we could list all the German sentence patterns that occur as we can distinctive sounds or word
inflections. The only meaningful approach to German syntax is to look at the underlying
principles which determine how a sentence may be put together.

In what follows, I will try to give you an idea of how this might work. Unfortunately, a
"complete" German syntax would be far beyond the scope of this book (even if I or anyone else
had one to offer). So we will content ourselves here with a few important principles of modern
German syntax that are likely to surprise speakers of English and other civilized languages.

2   The V-II rule
Perhaps a good place to start is with the V-II rule, a basic rule of German constituent order that
says that the finite (inflected) verb in a declarative main clause is in the second position (V-II =
verb second. If you don't get the joke – just as well). Consider the following variants of *I saw
him yesterday*:

(1)   a.   Ich habe ihn gestern gesehen.

       b.   Gestern habe ich ihn gesehen.

       c.   Ihn habe ich gestern gesehen.

       d.   Gesehen habe ich ihn gestern.

(2)   a.   Ich sah ihn gestern.

       b.   Gestern sah ich ihn.

       c.   Ihn sah ich gestern.

This small illustration should serve to make the point that listing the possible patterns a German
sentence might take is a futile task. By taking (1a) and (2a) as "basic," we can, however, easily
generate the seven variants with two reordering rules.

Rule 1:   **Topicalization** – A verb phrase constituent (i.e., the verb or one of its
                objects or modifiers: *ihn, gestern, gesehen*) can optionally be moved to the
                front of the clause.

Rule 2:   **Verb-Subject Inversion** – In case of Topicalization, the verb and subject
                must be inverted to keep the verb in second position as required by the V-II
                rule.

Note that these two rules also interact with **Question Formation.** Fronting the verb in (1d) is fine, but the verb cannot be fronted in (2) without creating confusion between a question and a topicalization: *Sah ich ihn gestern.*

3 Brackets

Another basic principle of German syntax, which interacts with those mentioned above is the bracket rule. This rule simply says that the rest of the content of the sentence is squeezed in between the auxiliary and the main verb:

(1) Ich **werde** es ihr morgen auf der Sitzung der Kommission **sagen.** 'I will tell her tomorrow at the meeting of the commission.'

(2) Ich **habe** meinen Freund gestern auf dem Bahnhof **gesehen.** 'I saw my friend yesterday at the station'.

Within the brackets, German constituent order is much freer than is the case in English. The three constituents within the brackets (*meinen Freund, gestern, auf dem Bahnhof*) can appear in any order at all depending on stylistic emphasis:

(3) a. Ich **habe** meinen Freund gestern auf dem Bahnhof **gesehen.**

b. Ich **habe** gestern meinen Freund auf dem Bahnhof **gesehen.**

c. Ich **habe** auf dem Bahnhof meinen Freund gestern **gesehen.**

d. Ich **habe** gestern auf dem Bahnhof meinen Freund **gesehen.**

e. Ich **habe** meinen Freund auf dem Bahnhof gestern **gesehen**.

f. Ich **habe** auf dem Bahnhof gestestern meinen Freund **gesehen.**

etc. This is **Verb Phrase Inversion.** The Verb Phrase (VP) contains the verb (here *gesehen*) and all its objects and modifiers. This operation involves reordering of adjacent VP constituents.

Since even seasoned native speakers of German can forget the verb if too much intervenes after the auxiliary, German syntax allows **Right Dislocation** of unnecessary elements:

(4) a. Ich **habe** meinen Freund gestern **gesehen** – auf dem Bahnhof.

b. Ich **habe** meinen Freund auf dem Bahnhof **gesehen** – gestern.

Necessary elements (e.g., the verb *sehen* as used here demands a direct object) cannot be placed outside the brackets:

(5) * Ich **habe** auf dem Bahnhof gestern **gesehen** – meinen Freund.

Further confirmation for this principle can be seen in the verb *stellen* 'put', which, like its English counterpart requires two necessary elements: the direct object and an adverbial of location, *I put the chair in the corner:*

(6) a.   Ich **habe** [den Stuhl]$_{DO}$ [in die Ecke]$_{ADV}$ **gestellt.**

    b.   * Ich **habe** in die Ecke **gestellt** – den Stuhl.

    c.   * Ich **habe** den Stuhl **gestellt** – in die Ecke

4   Scrambling

The individual principles we have considered above collectively lead to the phenomenon sometimes termed "scrambling" – the impression that in German "word order" anything goes. Nothing could be farther from the truth. Given a sentence with six constituents, 6! = 720 combinations would be possible, but only 20 are in fact "legal" sentences of German (assuming Right Dislocation is applied only once). Consider the following set of sentences:

(1)   Ich habe meinen Freund gestern auf dem Bahnhof gesehen.

(2)   Meinen Freund habe ich gestern auf dem Bahnhof gesehen.

(3)   Gestern habe ich meinen Freund auf dem Bahnhof gesehen.

(4)   Auf dem Bahnhof habe ich meinen Freund gestern gesehen.

(5)   Gesehen habe ich meinen Freund gestern auf dem Bahnhof.

(6)   Ich habe gestern meinen Freund auf dem Bahnhof gesehen.

(7)   Ich habe gestern auf dem Bahnhof meinen Freund gesehen.

(8)   Meinen Freund habe ich auf dem Bahnhof gestern gesehen

(9)   Gestern habe ich auf dem Bahnhof meinen Freund gesehen.

(10)   Auf dem Bahnhof habe ich gestern meinen Freund gesehen.

(11)   Gesehen habe ich gestern meinen Freund auf dem Bahnhof.

(12)   Gesehen habe ich gestern auf dem Bahnhof meinen Freund.

(13)   Ich habe meinen Freund gestern gesehen auf dem Bahnhof.

(14)   Ich habe meinen Freund gesehen gestern auf dem Bahnhof.

(15)   Meinen Freund habe ich gestern gesehen auf dem Bahnhof.

(16)   Meinen Freund habe ich gesehen gestern auf dem Bahnhof.

(17)   Gestern habe ich meinen Freund gesehen auf dem Bahnhof.

(18)   Auf dem Bahnhof habe ich meinen Freund gesehen gestern.

(19)   Gestern auf dem Bahnhof habe ich meinen Freund gesehen.

(20)   Auf dem Bahnhof gestern habe ich meinen Freund gesehen.

(21)   * Meinen Freund ich habe gestern auf dem Bahnhof gesehen.

(22)   * Ich habe gestern gesehen meinen Freund auf dem Bahnhof.

The first twenty variations of sentence (1) are obtained by applying the transformations cataloged above: Topicalization, Verb-Subject Inversion, Verb-Phrase Inversion, Right Dislocation.

The "illegal" starred sentences (21) - (22) simply cannot be produced by application of the rules to the initial form (1). In (21), Verb-Subject Inversion has failed to apply, in (22), an essential element (the direct object) has been moved to the right of the bracket. (For more discussion, see the Appendix of my *Problems of English Grammar*.)

4.1   Lessons to be learned

It should be clear from the data above that the "vastness of syntax" can only be explained as the result of an interaction of rules. Memorizing the twenty "legal" patterns above would be a formidable task for native and foreign speakers alike. Even if we could assume that every one exposed to the German language could have learned from experience that sentences (1) - (20) are legal, this would not explain how we know that (21) - (22) are "illegal." Having been exposed to and memorized twenty patterns, how would we know that (21) and (22) are not just further patterns we have not yet encountered? Clearly, we eliminate the seven hundred "illegal" possibilities because they do not fit the rules, not because we have never heard them before. The rules themselves can, of course, be distilled from the simplest sentences we are confronted with by experience.

5   Verb at the end of subordinate clauses

If the V-II rule reigns in main clauses, it is nonetheless confounded in subordinate clauses, where the finite verb appears at the end of the clause as the last element in a string with an infinitive or a participle:

(1)   Der Mann, dem er die Blutwurst **gegeben hat,** . . . . 'the man whom he gave the blood sausage. . . .'

(2)   Renate hofft, dass Ludolf den Buchpreis **gewinnen wird.** 'Renate hopes that Ludolf will win the book prize'.

If two or more infinitives are involved, the finite verb precedes them:

(3)   Wenn Du Deinen Job **hättest behalten wollen,** . . . . 'If you had wanted to keep your job . . . .'

This principle seems rather bizarre at first, but is, in fact, far less so than the agonizing English construction with periphrastic construction of the modals (e.g., *to be able* for *can*). Consider the following example with Bracketing in the main clause:

(4)   Wenn Du Deinen Job **hättest behalten wollen, hättest** Du Tee **machen können müssen.** 'If you had wanted to keep your job, you would have had to have been able to make tea.'

In a subordinate clause, we can get up to four verbs in a row:

(5)   Dass Jenny Tee **hätte machen wollen müssen,** war natürlich eine
        Zumutung. 'That Jenny should have had to want to make tea was, of
        course, an unreasonable demand'.

Admittedly, we are pushing both languages to their syntactic limits here. But, the differences are not so profound. Both languages string out a series of modals or substitute constructions in accordance with basic word order.

Interestingly, German seems to set the limit at one finite verb plus three infinitives. Native speakers of German reject sequences with four infinitives like *hätte machen wollen können müssen*. Either *wollen* or *können* has to go. Competent speakers of German, who are native speakers of English have, however, no problems with sentences like: *Dass Jennie Tee* **hätte machen wollen können müssen,** *war natürlich eine Zumutung*. It is unlikely that this is a matter of grammar.   Rather it would seem that English native speakers use a different parsing strategy than native speakers of German. The native German parser overloads on four infinitives, but the English-German parser does not.

6   Prefixes separable and inseparable

In both German and English we have verbs that are combined with particles in both separable and inseparable constructions. In both languages, we have the inseparable prefixes *be-, for-/ver-*: *begin ~ beginnen, forget ~ vergessen*. These prefixes are now permanently fused with the verb. Their meaning is somewhat obscure. The prefix *be-*, for example, makes transitive verbs: *gehen* 'go', *begehen* 'commit (a mistake), celebrate (a festival), examine by walking around, etc.' The basic meaning seems to be to set something in motion or to walk over something. The prefix *ver-* has three different origins (Goth. *fair-, for-, fra-*). Thus, we have a variety of meanings as in *Die Zeit vergeht* 'Time flies'; *Die Liebe vergeht* 'Love fades', *sich an jemandem vergehen* 'to indecently assault some one'.

Less seriously, we can combine *ver-* with any number of verbs used reflexively to indicate some sort of negative outcome: *sich verschlafen* 'to oversleep', *sich versprechen* 'to make a slip of the tongue', *sich verspäten* (from the adjective *spät*) 'to be late'.

The separable prefixes are more transparent in meaning. We have *ab-* 'off, away' and *reisen* 'travel' yielding *abreisen* 'depart' or *ab- + brechen* 'break' = *abrechen* 'to break off'. As the glosses indicate, English either uses prefixed verbs of Latin origin like *depart* or verb plus particle constructions like *break off*. In German, the prefixes precede the verb (that's why they are called prefixes) in infinitive and participial constructions: *abzubrechen* 'to break off', *abgebrochen* 'broken off'.

In English, the particle can either precede or follow a complex object, but must follow a pronominal object:

(1) a.   Ludolf **set up** the tent.

    b.   Ludolf **set** the tent **up**.

    c.   Ludolf **set** it **up**.

    d.   * Ludolf **set up** it.

In German, the particle must always follow:

(2)   Ludolf **stellte** das Zelt/es **auf**.

Another important difference is the treatment of Extraposition of a Relative Clause from the noun phrase object of a verb with separable prefix:

(3) a.   Ludolf **stellte** das Zelt, [das seine geliebte Clotilde ihm geschenkt hat], **auf**. 'Ludolf set up the tent that his beloved Clotilde had given him'.

     b.   Ludolf **stellte** das Zelt **auf**, [das seine geliebte Clotilde ihm geschenkt hat] 'Ludolf set up the tent that his beloved Clotilde had given him'.

In (3a) above, the relative clause (in brackets) stands right after the noun it modifies and the separable prefix **auf** stands at the end after the complete object. Normally, however, the relative clause and any other intervening material is Extraposed, shifted to the end of the sentence to improve comprehensibility as in (3b).

Mark Twain in his essay "The Awful German Language" gives an example in translation of a sentence with 77 words between the verb and the particle!

> The trunks being now ready, he DE- after kissing his mother and sisters, and once more pressing to his bosom his adored Gretchen, who, dressed in simple white muslin, with a single tuberose in the ample folds of her rich brown hair, had tottered feebly down the stairs, still pale from the terror and excitement of the past evening, but longing to lay her poor aching head yet once again upon the breast of him whom she loved more dearly than life itself, PARTED.

> Die Koffer waren gepackt, und er reiste, nachdem er seine Mutter und seine Schwestern geküsst und noch ein letztes Mal sein angebetetes Gretchen an sich gedrückt hatte, das, in schlichten weißen Musselin gekleidet und mit einer einzelnen Nachthyazinthe im üppigen braunen Haar, kraftlos die Treppe herabgetaumelt war, immer noch blass von dem Entsetzen und der Aufregung des vorangegangenen Abends, aber voller Sehnsucht, ihren armen schmerzenden Kopf noch einmal an die Brust des Mannes zu legen, den sie mehr als ihr eigenes Leben liebte, ab [trans. Michael Schneider].

7   Preposed participial constructions

Both English and German have reduced, participial relative clauses. In English, the source of the construction is quite transparent. The relative pronoun (*who, which*) is deleted along with the form of the verb *be.* This is the case for both the continuous verb form (*is falling*) and the passive (*was printed*). See the examples below. In English, however, only simple participles can be preposed, extended participles remain behind the nouns they modify:

(1) a.   Snow [(which is) falling] is lovely to watch.

     b.   [Falling] snow is lovely to watch. (Relative Clause Reduction with preposing)

(2) a.   The man [(who is) standing at the door] is Ludolf's father-in-law.

     b.   The man [standing at the door] is Ludolf's father-in-law. (Relative Clause Reduction)

In German, all participial constructions are preposed whether simple or extended:

(3) a.   Schnee, [der fällt], ist schön zu betrachten.

b.   [Fallender] Schnee ist schön zu betrachten.

(4) a.   Der Mann, [der an der Tür steht], ist Ludolfs Schwiegervater.

b.   [Der an der Tür stehende] Mann ist Ludolfs Schwiegervater.

The passive construction with Relative Clause Reduction is illustrated by:

(5) a.   A Bible [(which was) printed by Gutenberg] was presented to the library.

b.   [Eine von Gutenberg gedruckte] Bibel wurde der Bibliothek überreicht.

To be sure, the preposed extended participle is rarely used in conversational German. It does, however, occur in literary, particularly in newspaper, texts. In "The Awful German Language," Mark Twain gives us this wonderful nineteenth-century example (old spelling):

(6)   Wenn er aber auf der Straße der in Samt und Seide gehüllten jetzt sehr ungeniert nach der neusten Mode gekleideten Regierungsrätin begegnete. . . . 'But when he, upon the street, the (in-satin-and-silk-covered-now-very-unconstrained-after-the-newest-fashion-dressed) government counselor's wife met . . .' [from *The Old Mamselle's Secret*, by Mrs. Marlitt]

8   Stranding

In the discussion of adjectives and pronouns, we showed that relative pronouns in German are formed from the base *da-* plus a pronoun that is moved forward and forms an enclitic:

(1) a.   Der Mann, [**da-** Sie **ihn** gesehen haben], 'The man **who-** you saw **him**'

b.   Der Mann, [**da+ihn** Sie gesehen haben], 'The man **who+him** you saw' (Fronting)

c.   Der Mann, [**den** Sie gesehen haben], 'The man **who(m)** you saw' (Clitic Formation)

A special problem arises when the relative pronoun is the object of a preposition. In this case, the entire prepositional phrase may be moved to the front in English:

(2) a.   The man [**who-** you spoke **with him**]

b.   The man [**with whom**] you spoke

Normally, however, the pronoun is simply deleted "stranding" the preposition without an object:

(3)   The man [**who** you spoke **with** Ø]

In German, preposition stranding is not possible. The only possibility here is:

(4)   Der Mann, [**mit dem** Sie gesprochen haben]

8.1   Preposition attraction
With inanimate objects or abstractions (those that allow *da* + preposition) , the relative clause can begin with the base *wo* + preposition:

(5) a.   Das Brecheisen, **womit/mit dem** Igor den Sarg geöffnet hat, 'the crow bar that Igor opened the coffin with'

b.   Die Probleme, **worüber/über die** wir gesprochen haben, 'the problems that we talked about'

Here, German, like English , allows relativization by deleting the clitic in the relative clause, but the preposition must be fronted and cannot be stranded as in English.

9   Long distance movement
Long distance movement refers to the possibility of moving clitics out of their home clauses over other clauses to the head of the sentence. Once again, English can do this and German cannot.

(1) a.   The chauffeur drove **Regie** to the station.

b.   **WH-** the chauffeur drove **him** to the station?

With fronting of the clitic, this is resolved as:

(2)   **Who(m)** did the chauffeur drive to the station?

The situation in a single clause sentence is no different in German:

(3) a.   Der Fahrer hat **Regie** zum Bahnhof gebracht.

b.   **W-** der Fahrer hat **ihn** zum Bahnhof gebracht?

c.   **Wen** hat der Fahrer zum Bahnhof gebracht?

The difference first becomes apparent when the question is in an embedded clause:

(4) a.   Lady Farnsworth told the chauffeur [to drive **him** to the station]

b.   **Wh**- did Lady Farnsworth tell the chauffeur [to drive **him** to the station]?

     c.   **Who(m)** did Lady Farnsworth tell the chauffeur [to drive Ø to the station]?

In German the first sentence works as expected. In the second sentence, the attempt to remove the interrogative from the imbedded clause (in brackets) fails:

    (5) a.   Lady Farnsworth sagte dem Fahrer, [er sollte **ihn** zum Bahnhof bringen]?

         b.   * **Wen** sagte Lady Farnsworth . . . .

This discrepancy can lead to odd results. Consider:

    (6)   **Why** do you think [that O.J. did it]?

This sentence has two readings since the interrogative *why* could originate in either the main clause (questioning *think*) or in the subordinate clause (questioning *did*), i.e., 'What is your reason for thinking that O.J. did it?' or 'What do you think was O.J.'s reason for doing it?'
      The German equivalent only has one reading:

    (7)   **Warum** glaubst du, [dass O.J. es getan hat]? 'What is your reason for thinking that O.J. did it?'

This follows from the fact that the interrogative can only stand in the clause in which it originated. Hence, *warum* can only question *glaubst du.* In order to express the other reading, colloquial German uses a rather odd construction that nevertheless overcomes the difficulty by leaving *warum* in the embedded clause:

    (8)   **Was** glaubst du [**warum** O.J. es getan hat]?

There is another way of doing this with a parenthetical *glaubst du*:

    (i) Warum hat O.J. es getan?
    (ii) Warum (glaubst du) hat O.J. es getan?

There is no movement out of a dependent clause here.

10   Ellipsis and "shadow pronouns"
One feature of connected speech is that we tend not to repeat elements that have been mentioned before and can be filled in from context. This is called ellipsis. Consider the following examples in English and German. In each of these parallel cases the element in parentheses is normally left out:

    (1) a.   Susi is dumb and I am (dumb) too.

         b.   Susi ist doof und ich bin **es** (doof) auch.

(2) a.   Ludolf is for Bush and Renate is (for Bush) too.

     b.   Ludolf ist für Bush und Renate ist **es** (für Bush) auch.

(3) a.   He is taller than I am (tall).

     b.   Er ist größer als ich **es** (groß) bin.

(4) a.   Renate often exaggerates and Ludolf does (exaggerate) too.

     b.   Renate übertreibt oft und Ludolf (tut **es**) auch.

(5) a.   I am drunk and you are (drunk) too.

     b.   Ich bin betrunken und Du bist **es** (betrunken) auch.

The striking difference is that German, when eliding a constituent, must leave a marker behind – the "shadow pronoun" *es*. Like Lamont Cranston, the hero of the famous 1940s radio series (revived in a 1994 feature film) sometimes you see the shadow and sometimes you don't, but it is nevertheless there. Eliding adjectives as in (1) and (3), prepositional phrases as in (2), infinitives as in (4) or participles as in (5) leaves behind a visible shadow in German. In English an invisible shadow pronoun becomes an enclitic leaning on the first word of the second sentence.

     To see that this is so, consider the following odd data:

(6) a.   I am taller than he is.

     b.   *I'm* taller than he is.

     c.   He is taller than I am.

     d.   *He's* taller than I am.

Evidently, the pronoun and the auxiliary can contract: *I am → I'm, he is → he's,* but notice that they cannot contract after *than* in the comparative construction:

(7) a.   * I am taller than *he's.*

     b.   * He is taller than *I'm*.

Assuming the derivation is:

(8) a.   I am taller than he is tall.

     b.   I am taller than he is *s* (Ellipsis - Shadow Pronoun Formation).

     c.   I am taller than he *s* is (Cliticization).

the shadow pronoun (*s*) intervening between *he* and *is* would explain the failure of subject and auxiliary to contract as they do freely in the first clause where no deletion and no shadow pronoun is involved.

The tendency of clitics to attach themselves to the first word in the clause was pointed out by by J. Wackernagel in 1892 and is usually called "Wackernagel's Law." The term "shadow pronoun" was used by David Perlmutter (1972) to explain various phenomena in French. The failure of comparatives to contract was pointed out by Robert Stockwell around the same time. This explanation goes back to Block (1984:235).

The same principle can be used to explain the familiar, but puzzling *Ich bin es.*

(9) a.   Who's there?

b.   I am./ *I'm.

(10) a.   Wer ist da?

b.   Ich bin es/ Ich bin's.

The shadow pronoun *es* is the representative of *da*, in *ich bin(da)* 'I am (there)'. In both languages, the adverb *da/there* is reduced to a shadow pronoun. In English, contraction is impossible because the shadow pronoun is cliticized and intervenes between *I* and *am*. In German, where the shadow pronoun is overt and stays put, it can contract with the verb. Thus, the equivalent of Germ. *Ich bin es* really is *I am it*, only the *it* is invisible and stands between subject and verb!

It is worth noting that cliticization and blocking of contraction in English does not occur in negative contexts: *Who is there? He is/*He's,* but *Who is there? He is not/He's not.*

10.1   Cross-linguistic syntax

The above analysis is a good of example of cross-linguistic syntax – using English data to clarify German syntax and German data to clarify English syntax. Purists will certainly not be pleased with this approach. Why? Well, most child learners of German know nothing about English, and few child learners of English are ever exposed to German. So how can English data have a bearing on German structure (what Germans know about their language) and vice versa?

The answer is quite simple. We are not comparing the language-learning experience of German- and English-speaking children. We are comparing what they learn. German and English are "affectionate sisters" with strong family similarities – not just in their sound systems and verb inflection, but in their syntax as well. In some cases, the details in one language may be dark and obscure, while in the other language clear and obvious. Why not let the light shine in?

11   What about *me* – disjunctive pronouns

In addition to *I am,* we may also answer *It's me* or simply *me* to the question *Who's there?* This informal use of *me* has long been condemned by the school grammars as a false use of the "objective" case (cf. *me* in *She hit me*). Nothing could be further from the truth – which explains the inability of school teachers to stamp out this form.

In fact, *me* in this construction is the equivalent of the French disjunctive pronoun *moi* as in *C'est moi* 'it's me', or, in the same context, simply *Moi* 'Me'. To be sure, the object forms and the disjunctive forms are identical in English (*me ~ me*) while French has different forms for the objective and disjunctive: *me ~ moi*. The identity of English forms should not, however, obscure the identity of construction between French and English. A further example is offered by conjoined subjects:

(1)   Him and me went to the movies.

(2)   Lui et moi, (nous) sommes allés au cinema.

Notice that traditional French requires the resumptive pronoun *nous*, where English does not.

In the 1960s Klima worked out a rule for English, which we can make more precise here:

A single pronoun standing before a verb must be in the nominative case. Single objects of verbs or prepositions take the objective case. Conjoined objects may take nominative or disjunctive in the second element. Conjoined subjects are free as to choice of case, except that *I* must stand immediately before the verb.

This illustrated in the following as well as the above examples:

(3) a.   I went to the movies.

     b.   * Me went to the movies. (single subject)

(4) a.   She sent a message to him and me.

     b.   She sent a message to him and I (but hardly *I and him* since *I* directly follows the preposition.

(5) a.   Me and him finished the pizza.

     b.   * I and him/he finished the pizza (*I* does not stand immediately before verb).

In any case, *German does not have disjunctive pronouns*. The choice of pronoun is determined entirely by the case role of the noun or pronoun before ellipsis:

(6)   Wer ist da? Ich (bin da).

(7)   Sie und ich sind ins Kino gegangen (subject forms).

(8)   Sie schickte ihm und mir eine Nachricht (indirect object forms).

12   As easy as 1,2,3 - Relational Grammar

For most of the points that follow, we will have to make reference to Relational Grammar. The concepts involved are quite elementary – if unusual from the standpoint of school grammar.

To begin with, we have to distinguish between three fundamental grammatical relations **(terms)**, which we will number for simplicity: subject =1, direct object = 2, indirect object = 3. For example:

(1)   Renate [1] gave a hunting rifle [2] to Ludolf [3].

Naturally, any number of additional relations are possible – these are called **oblique relations:**

(2)   Renate gave a hunting rifle to Ludolf for his birthday [reason] at the
            Golden Anchor [location] last week [temporal].

Relational Grammar pays special attention to promotions and demotions of arguments. For example, in the passive version of (1):
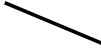
(3)   A hunting rifle [1] was given to Ludolf [3] by Renate [chô]

Original [2] has been promoted to [1] and original [1] has been demoted to [chô]. The relation [chô] is from French *chômeur* 'an unemployed worker'.

For the moment, this will suffice. We will develop other principles of Relational Grammar as necessary for the analysis.

13   Freezing

One notable difference between German and English is that German does not allow a noun phrase that has been demoted to be promoted again – which is unproblematic in English. Consider the following parallel derivations in English and German:

(1)   The witness saw it

                        he drop the gun

(2)   The witness saw [that he dropped the gun]

(3)   The witness saw him [drop the gun] (Raising to Object, 1 ⇒ 2)

(4)   He was seen by the witness [to drop the gun] (Passive 2 ⇒ 1)

The basic structure of the sentence is illustrated in (1). It consists of a main clause and a subordinate object clause. If no changes in relations take place, the result is (2). In (3), however the subject of the subordinate clause *he* [1] has been raised to the object of the main clause [2]. Notice that the verb of the lower clause, having lost its subject, becomes an infinitive. In (4), the object of the main clause has been passivized (2 ⇒ 1). Thus, *he* the subject of the subordinate clause goes through a demotion followed by a promotion: (1 ⇒ 2 ⇒ 1). The original subject *the witness* becomes a chômeur.

The derivation in German is quite parallel to a point:
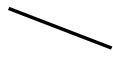
(4)   Der Zeuge sah es

er lässt die Pistole fallen

(5)   Der Zeuge sah, dass er die Pistole fallen ließ.

(6)   Der Zeuge sah ihn, die Pistole fallen lassen. (Raising to Object, 1 ⇒ 2)

(7)   * Er wurde (vom Zeugen) gesehen, die Pistole fallen (zu) lassen.

In the German derivation, 1 ⇒ 2 through Raising to Object just as in English, but is then "frozen." A subsequent promotion 2 ⇒ 1 (as in English) is quite impossible so that (7) is ungrammatical.

Note that Freezing is not a general prohibition on more than one movement of a noun phrase. Insofar as demotion is not followed by promotion, multiple movements are allowed:

(8)   Es scheint

dass jemand ermordete **ihn**

(9)   Es scheint, dass jemand **ihn** ermordete. (normal word order)

(10)   Es scheint, dass **er** (von jemandem) ermordet wurde. (Passive 2 ⇒ 1)

(11)   **Er** scheint, (von jemandem) ermordet worden zu sein. (Raising to Subject 1 ⇒ 1)

Here the original object of the subordinate clause undergoes two movements (2 ⇒ 1 ⇒ 1). This is parallel to English *It seems that someone murdered him ⇒ It seems that he was murdered (by someone) ⇒ He seems to have been murdered (by someone).*

14   Passive
We have had occasion to refer to the Passive a number of times above and have perhaps created the impression that German and English behave identically in their treatment of this operation. Despite many apparent parallels, this is not the case. For one thing, English has two passives:

(1) a.   Siegfried [1] gave the Mongolian tiger salve [2] to Roy [3].

     b.   The Mongolian tiger salve [1] was given to Roy [3] by Siegfried [chô].

(2) a.   Siegfried [1] gave Roy [3] the Mongolian tiger salve [2].

     b.   Roy [1] was given the Mongolian tiger salve [2] by Siegfried [chô].

In constructions like those above, English has two ways of expressing a [3], either with a preposition as in (1) or without as in (2). In any case, the noun phrase directly following the verb is promoted to [1] whether it be an original [2] or an original [3]. In German, on the other hand, only an initial [2] can be promoted:

(3) a.   (Der) Siegfried [1] gab (dem) Roy [3] die mongolische Tigersalbe [2].

    b.   Die mongolische Tigersalbe [1] wurde (dem) Roy [3] von (dem) Siegfried [chô] gegeben.

The closest equivalent of (2) in German is:

(4)   (Dem) Roy wurde die mongolische Tigersalbe von (dem) Siegfried gegeben.

Here, the indirect object [3] has simply been topicalized (moved to the front). The grammatical relations remain the same. This often leads to "interference" errors like *Her was given the book* for *She was given the book.*

    In addition, German has a so-called impersonal passive which does not involve advancement to 1 at all:

(5) a.   Jemand [1] tanzte gestern abend auf der Brücke. 'Someone danced on the bridge yesterday evening.

    b.   **Es** wurde gestern abend auf der Brücke getanzt (von jemandem [chô]).

Here, the chômeur is almost always omitted. (For the explanation of *es*, see below.)

    Evidently, what is usually termed "passive marking" on the verb (the insertion of the auxiliary *werden*) simply marks the demotion of the subject [1] to *chômage*. With a corresponding promotion of the direct object [2] to subject [1] we have a passive construction. In English, the demotion of the subject to chômage has to be accompanied by the promotion of an initial [2] or [3]. There is no "impersonal passive."

15   *Es*
We considered one of the uses of the ubiquitous pronoun *es* in our discussion of ellipsis above. There remains a good deal to be said about this "Jack of all trades."

15.1   *Es* **the door keeper**
One remarkable use of *es* is to guard the beginning of a declarative sentence. Perlmutter (1971) pointed out an interesting typological distinction between languages. There are what he termed "Type A" languages that require a subject pronoun and "Type B" languages that do not. This is clear from "weather verbs":

(1) a.   Lat.   pluit

    b.   Sp.   llueve

    c.   Fr.   il pleut

    d.   Germ.   es regnet

    e.   Eng.   it's raining

Latin and Spanish have no subject for *rain*, while French, German and English require a subject. This has nothing to do with fantasies about who causes the rain, but rather with the subject requirement of "Type A" languages. This is also seen in impersonal expressions:

(2) a. Lat. necesse est

b. Sp. hace falta

c. Fr. il faut

d. Germ. es ist notwendig

e. Eng. it is necessary

In both English and German, this dummy subject *it/es* also marks the subject position in case a subject clause has been extraposed (moved to the end of the sentence):

(3) a. **Es** ist notwendig, [das Geschirr abzuwaschen].

b. **It** is necessary [to do the dishes].

In this case, however, the German dummy subject is persistent. Moving another constituent to the front triggers Verb-Subject-Inversion:

(4) Gestern war **es** notwendig, das Geschirr endlich abzuwaschen. 'Yester-day, it was necessary to finally wash the dishes'.

In the case of the impersonal passives discussed above, the dummy is not persistent, but disappears if some other constituent is available to play door keeper:

(5) a. **Es** wurde gestern auf der Brücke getanzt.

b. Gestern wurde auf der Brücke getanzt.

c. Auf der Brücke wurde gestern getanzt.

d. * Wurde gestern auf der Brücke getanzt.

As Barry Blake (*Relational Grammar,* 1990:80) points out "In German ... *es* seems to be used to preserve the verb-second requirement in main clauses where there is no motivation to front another constituent."

15.2 *Es* with extraposition from the object position

In order to ease sentence processing, German often moves heavy clause objects to the end of the sentence. Once again, an *es* is left behind to mark the position from which the object was extraposed:

(1) a.   Ich weiß **es** zu schätzen, [dass Du meine Katze gehütet hast]. 'I appreciate **it** that you looked after my cat.'

    b.   Zu schätzen weiß ich (es), [dass Du meine Katze gehütet hast].

In (1 b) the object clause follows directly and the *es* is usually omitted. In English, verbs of affection (emotion) have the place holder *it* although the object immediately follows:

(2) a.   I hate **it** [that Renate criticizes Ludolf in public].

    b.   I love **it** [that you rub my back with Mongolian tiger salve].

German follows suit here with *ich hasse es, dass; ich liebe es, dass,* but unlike English, also retains the *es* with infinitive clauses:

(3) a.   Professoren lieben **es,** sich reden zu hören.

    b.   Professors love to hear themselves talk.

and also as the place holder in other cases where Extraposition takes place. With an accusative object:

(4) a.   Ich sah **es** ein, [dass Mutti Santa Claus unter dem Weihnachtsbaum küssen musste]. 'I understood that Mommy had to kiss Santa Claus under the Christmas tree'.

    b.   Ich habe **es** einfach erfunden, [dass der Osterhase die Eier gelegt hat]. 'I simply invented the story that the Easter Bunny laid the eggs'.

    c.   Ich kann **es** mir nicht vorstellen, [was passiert ist]. I can't imagine what happened'.

In the case of a genitive object, an optional *dessen* is left behind:

(5) a.   Ich bin mir (dessen) nicht sicher, [ob Mutti Santa Claus unter dem Weihnachtsbaum geküsst hat]. 'I am not sure whether Mommy kissed Santa Claus under the Xmas tree'.

    b.   Ich bin mir (dessen) nicht bewusst, [dass ich Ihren Hund beleidigt habe]. 'I am not aware that I insulted your dog'.

With a prepositional object, German uses *da(r) + preposition*, where English uses the inflected infinitive:

(6) a.   Ludolf freute sich **darauf,** sonntags Golf zu spielen.

b.   Ludolf looked forward to [playing golf on Sundays].

(7) a.   Ludolf freute sich **darauf,** dass sie seine Mutter endlich kennen lernt.

b.   Ludolf looked forward to her finally meeting his mother.

With identical subjects in both clauses as in (6), the subject of the dependent clauses is deleted. The verb having no subject to agree with, appears as an infinitive. In English, however, the infinitive is the object of the preposition *to* and appears in the inflected long form.

In Old English the infinitive generally ended in *-an*, e.g., *drinkan* 'to drink'. As the object of a preposition, it was inflected: *to drinkanne*. This inflected infinitive fell together with a number of other forms in the modern multipurpose *-ing*-form.

In English, the infinitive construction is used even if the subject of the dependent clause is different from that of the subordinate clause. The logical subject of the infinitive is a disjunct pronoun as in (7 b), while German has an object clause introduced by *darauf, dass.*
We can derive these strange forms with *da + prep.* as follows:

(1) a.   Da freue ich mich auf es [dass du ein bayrisches Bier trinkst]

b.   Darauf freue ich mich [dass du ein bayrisches Bier trinkst] (*es* deleted, *auf* fronted).

c.   Ich freue mich darauf [dass du ein bayrisches Bier trinkst] (da auf ⇒ darauf).

The basic structure with all of its parts present is (1a). The preposition (*auf*) and its object (*es*) are in the main clause. The subordinate clause (which hangs from the object *es*) is introduced by the particle *dass.*
In (1b), *es* is deleted before the *dass* clause and the stranded preposition *auf* is moved to the front. Between vowels, *r* is inserted (cf. *damit* – where the prepositions starts with a consonant). (This is similar to relative clauses – *der Stein, **worüber** wir stolpern, tragen wir immer bei uns* 'We always carry with us the stone over which we stumble'.) Finally, in (1d), *darauf* is moved to the clause boundary. Support for the underlying structure introduced by *da* is given by colloquial north German constructions like: *Da wirst du nicht dick von* 'You won't get fat from that', *Da bin ich ein Fan von* 'I'm a fan of that'.
With identical subjects in the two clauses, the derivation proceeds in the same way, only the subject of the second clause is usually deleted when it is the same as the subject of the main clause as in (2d). Since the verb of the second clause has no subject to agree with, it appears as an infinitive:

(2) a.   Da freue ich mich auf es [dass ich ein bayrisches Bier trinke]

b.   Darauf freue ich mich [dass ich ein bayrisches Bier trinke]

c.   Ich freue mich darauf [dass ich ein bayrisches Bier trinke]

d.   Ich freue mich darauf [ein bayrisches Bier zu trinken] (Same-Subject-Deletion)

Thus, many or perhaps most adverbial clauses are derived from constructions with clause prepositions. We will consider some other ways of forming adverbial clauses below.

16   Clause prepositions and subordinating conjunctions

The analysis of the *darauf dass*-construction in the preceding section gives us an insight into how subordinating conjunctions work.

There is good reason to break down the traditional category "subordinating conjunction" into two different kinds of words – **clause prepositions** with their objects and **clause-introducing particles**. How this works is best illustrated by example. Consider the "subordinate conjunction" meaning 'because' in a number of ancient and modern European languages:

Language	Prep.	Obj.	Part.	Construction
Old English	for	þæm	þe	for þæm þe
Gothic	du	þamma	ei	du þamma ei
Old High German	bi	thiu	thaz	bi thiu thaz
Yiddish	far	dem	az	far dem az
Icelandic	af	þvi	að	af þvi að
French	par	ce	que	parce que
Spanish	por	—	que	porque
Italian	per	—	che	perche
Russian	po	tomu	što	potomu što

O.E., Goth.,Ice. <þ, <ð> = <th>.

Notice that the complete construction consists of three parts: a preposition, its pronominal object and the particle that introduces the subordinate clause. One or more parts of the construction can be missing (cf., Spanish and Italian, where the object pronoun is missing although present in the sister language French).

English *because* can be analyzed as *by + cause + (that)*. The particle *that* is almost always left out in the modern language, but there are abundant examples of *because that* from the King James Bible to Emily Dickenson.

    (i)   **Because that** he had been often bound with fetter and chains . . . . [Mk 5,4 KJV]
    (ii)   **Because that** you are going and never coming back . . . . [Emily Dickenson]

The object *cause* has not (yet) been reduced to a pronoun.

In modern German, we still have many instances of preposition plus object: *nachdem, indem, trotzdem, auf dass*. With *seitdem (dass)* 'since', *indem (dass)* 'as', *trotzdem (dass)* 'despite', the particle appears as well – although mostly it is left out. Literary examples are not hard to find.

The forms cited above have an inflected form of the pronoun, e.g., *seit + dem,* but there are also many that have no case marking: *damit* (OHG *mit diu*), *dadurch, darauf* (also *auf das*). This seems to follow the analogy of relative clauses with preposition attraction: *womit, worauf.* But, note that not all repositions can take case neutral *da(r)*: **darohne, *daseit,* etc., never occur!

16.1 Clause-introducing particles

The most general clause-introducing particle is *dass* (and its equivalents in the other languages). This particle (often called a complementizer in modern grammar) does not mean anything. It simply introduces a clause with a finite (conjugated) verb and indicates that it is a subordinate clause acting as a subject or object. Similarly, *ob* 'if, whether' has a purely syntactic role introducing an indirect questions: ***Ob** der Weihnachtsman heuer kommt, ist nicht sicher* 'It is not certain whether Santa Clause will come this year'.

Other clause-particles have now taken on a more specific meaning, e.g., *da* 'since, when', *wo* 'where, when':

(1) a. **Da** sie zu spät gekommen ist, hat sie den Zug verpasst 'Since she came too late, she missed the train'.

   b. Es gab Zeiten, **da** viele nichts zu essen hatten 'There were times when many had nothing to eat'.

(2) a. Wir besuchten den Ort, **wo** er geboren wurde 'We visited the place where he was born'.

   b. Heute leben wir in einer Zeit, **wo** die Ausbildung teuer wird 'Today, we are living at a time when education is becoming expensive'.

The purely syntactic role of *da* and *wo* is still seen in *damit, womit.* and Baviarian *wo* introducing relative clauses:

(3) a. Du kannst **damit** Nüsse knacken 'You can crack nuts with it'.

   b. Das Messer, **womit** sie das Brot scheidet 'The knife with which she slices the bread'.

(4)   Der Mann, **wo** die Post austrägt 'The man that delivers the mail' (Bavarian).

16.2 Development of clause-preposition plus object

Just as prepositions themselves develop from i.a. nouns: *Dank* 'thanks' ⇒ ***dank** seinem Einfluss* '**thanks to** his influence', the clause-preposition plus object develops over time to a specialized clause-introducing particle with a specific meaning. Compare:

(1) a. Seit dem, **dass** es passierte, ist Ludolf ein völlig veränderter Mensch 'Since it happened, Ludolf is a completely different person'.

b.   **Seitdem** es passierte, ist Ludolf ein völlig veränderter Mensch 'Since it hap-
     pened, Ludolf is a completely different person'.

    In (1a), *dass* introduces the subordinate clause, in (1b) *seitdem* has taken over this role. This is often reflected in the written form. In (1a) we have two words: *seit dem,* in (1b) one word: *seitdem.* This sensible distinction is, however, not always maintained.

If *seitdem, dass* (or, if you insist, *seit dem, dass*) has managed to hold out despite the pressure to simplify matters, eliminate *dass* and have *seitdem* take over its syntactic role as clause introducer, *trotz dem, dass* has not fared so well. At least as late as 1973, the official Duden grammar defended this construction, but the 2006 edition has, alas, forgotten it.

16.3   Common subordinating conjunctions
Subordinating conjunctions are very numerous. There are far too many to be conveniently listed here. In the following table we will consider some of the most important ones:

Function	Conjunction	Remarks
Temporal		
simultaneous	während 'while'	während wir mit einander redeten 'while we were talking'
prior	bevor 'before'	bevor wir auseinander gehen 'before we part'
subsequent	nachdem 'after'	nachdem sie weggegangen ist 'after she left'
point in time	wenn, als 'when'	wenn ich ihn sehe/sah 'when I see/saw him' (refers to past or future); als ich jung war, als ich ihn kennenlernte 'when I was young, when I met him (refers to state in the past or one time in the past)
Modal		
restriction	insofern 'as far as'	insofern ich mich daran erinnern kann 'as far as I can remember'
exclusion	ohne dass 'without'	ohne dass er sich daran erinnern konnte, without him being able to remember it
comparison	als ob 'as if'	als ob der der Boss wäre 'as if he were the boss'
proportion	je . . . desto 'the more . . . the more	Je mehr du arbeitest, desto müder wirst du 'The more you work the more tired you get'.
causal	weil 'because'	weil du es bist 'because it is you'
result	so dass 'so that'	Wir hatten ein Zelt, so dass wir nicht nass geworden sind 'We had a tent so that we didn't get wet'.

Function	Conjunction	Remarks
purpose	damit 'so that, in order to'	Wir hatten ein Zelt, damit wir nicht nass werden 'We had a tent in order not to get wet'.
condition	wenn, falls 'if'	wenn/falls es regnet 'if it rains'
concession	obwohl 'although'	obwohl er tapfer ist 'although he is brave'
means	indem 'by'	Er löschte das Feuer, indem er Wasser darauf goss 'He extinguisted the fire by pouring water on it.
manner	wie 'how'	Wie Santa durch den Schonstein kommt, ist mir rätselhaft 'How Santa comes through the chimney is a mystery to me'.

17   *Das Ding an sich* – the problem with *sich*

The pronoun *sich*, which is completely lacking in English, is usually called "reflexive," which does, in fact, identify one of its uses:

(1)   Ludolf rasiert **sich** jeden morgen. 'Ludolf shaves **himself** every morning'.

Here Ludolf is both subject and object of the verb *rasieren* or, seen from the semantic point of view, agent and experiencer of the shaving act. In older German, the form *sich* was only used for the accusative (like *mich, dich*). Later, it was generalized to the dative as well:

(2) a.   Er verspricht **sich** [dat.] zu viel davon. 'He promises **himself** too much from it'. = 'He expects too much from the matter'.

    b.   Du versprichtst **Dir** [dat.] zu viel davon. 'You expect too much from it'.

There are, however, at least four other uses of *sich* in German that do not involve the subject acting on the object. The most obvious is use of *sich* as a reciprocal pronoun:

(3)   Ludolf und Renate lieben **sich.** 'Ludolf and Renate love **each other**'.

This form is ambiguous and could just as well mean: 'Ludolf loves Ludolf and Renate loves Renate'.
        Perhaps more interesting are the forms where the English speaker feels no need for a reflexive or reciprocal at all. Some of these are ambiguous:

(4)   Renate erinnerte Ludolf an sein Versprechen. 'Renate reminded Ludolf of his promise.'

(5)   Ludolf erinnerte **sich** an Renates Geburtstag. 'Ludolf reminded him-
           self of [remembered] Renate's birthday.

The verb *remember* in German is analyzable as 'remind oneself', it is a minor annoyance that
there is no separate verb for *remember*.
        More interesting are the cases where the "reflexive" seems totally unmotivated. Consider:

(6)   Die Tür öffnete **sich.** 'The door opened'.

Clearly, doors do not open themselves. Syntax is playing a trick on us here. To understand what
is actually behind this consider:

(7) a.   Renate [agent] [1] opened the door [object] [2].

     b.   Renate [agent] [1] öffnete die Tür [object] [2].

In this configuration, Passive can apply yielding:

(8) a.   The door [1] was opened by Renate [chô].

     b.   Die Tür [1] wurde von Renate [chô] geöffnet.

There is, however, a parallel construction where *the door* is a direct object [2] and the subject [1]
is simply unspecified:

(9) a.   Ø opened the door [2].

     b.   Ø öffnete die Tür [2].

The object relations are the same as in (8), but the subject [1] is missing. The promotion 2 ⇒ 1
leaves no marker in English, but requires *sich* in German.

(10) a.   The door [1] opened [2 ⇒ 1].

     b.   Die Tür [1] öffnete **sich** [2 ⇒ 1].

This promotion of 2 ⇒ 1 is called **Unaccusative.** The relict pronoun *sich* simply indicates that a
2 ⇒ 1 transition has taken place. Usually, this also involves moving the new [1] to the subject
position as in (10 b). This is, however, not obligatory. The subject position can remain open –
in which case the dummy subject *es* must be inserted to fulfill the requirement that a declarative
sentence cannot begin with a verb:

(11)   **Es** öffnete **sich** die Tür [1] 'The door opened'.

Here again, the dummy *es* can be replaced by another constituent:

(12)   **Gestern** öffnete **sich** die Tür von alleine. 'Yesterday, the door opened
        by itself'.

Promotion from 3 ⇒ 1, on the other hand, always involves movement of the new [1] to the front.
A dative marker of the original [3] is left behind:

(13) a.   Ø habe es [2] mir [3] anders überlegt. [3 ⇒ 1]

      b.   Ich [1] habe es [2] mir [3] anders überlegt. 'I have changed my mind'.

Note that the underlying [3] (*mir*) is promoted to [1] (*ich*), but leaves behind a copy of itself, once
again *mir*!
        Thus, both English and German mark the demotion [1 ⇒ cho] with so-called passive
marking on the verb, but only German leaves behind a pronominal marker at the site of an original
[2] or [3] in case of promotion. Note that [3 ⇒ 1] is possible with Unaccusative, but not Passive
(see above.)
        To complete or discussion of *sich*, let's consider the application of Unaccusative to
intransitive verbs. At first this seems bewildering. Aren't intransitive verbs precisely those like
sleep, awake, go, come, which have no [2] object?!
        A detailed justification for Unaccusative with intransitive verbs would go beyond the
scope of this presentation so let us just like at one of the simpler arguments. Consider:

(14) a.   Martians [1] exist.

      b.   Martians [1] dream.

On the surface, these intransitive sentences seem identical in structure: [1] + intransitive verb.
But, note that only (14a) has a paraphrase with the dummy subject *there*:

(15) a.   There exist Martians.

      b. * There dream Martians.

We can account for this if we posit different underlying structures for the sentences:

(16) a.   Ø exist Martians [2].

      b.   Martians [1] dream.

Thus, (14a) is the result of [2 ⇒ 1] advancement. If advancement does not take place, the empty
[1] slot is filled with the dummy pronoun *there* as in (15a). On the other hand, (14b) has the
underlying structure (16b), with the subject already in place in the initial structure. There is no
advancement involved and no empty space for *there* to be inserted into. Hence, (15b) is not
possible.

It is worth mentioning here that there are a large number of languages(called **ergative** languages) which do, in fact, have a single surface form for the object of transitive verbs and the subject of intransitive verbs rather than a single form for subjects of both kinds of verbs and a different form for the objects of transitive verbs. So this application of Unaccusative is well-grounded in empirical evidence, not simply theoretical slight of hand.

Now to the German construction. Consider:

(17) a. Es tanzt **sich** gut hier 'This is a good place for dancing'.

 b. Es schläft **sich** hier am besten 'This is the best place to sleep'.

 c. Es lebt **sich** hier besser als auf dem Dach 'This is a better place to live than on the roof'.

 d. Es ruht **sich** hier herrlich aus 'This is a wonderful place to rest up'.

Here, German has reflexive *sich* with intransitive verbs and the dummy subject *es*. Notice what happens when we move another constituent (*gut, hier*) to the front as before:

(18) a. Hier tanzt es **sich** gut. 'This is a good place for dancing'.

 b. Hier schläft es **sich** am besten 'This is the best place to sleep'.

 c. Hier lebt es **sich** besser als auf dem Dach 'This is a better place to live than on the roof'.

 d. Hier ruht es **sich** herrlich aus 'This is a wonderful place to rest up'.

Yes, in this construction, the dummy subject *es* is persistent! It does not yield its place to a fronted constituent as in:

(19) a. Hier wird gut getanzt 'This is a good place for dancing'.

 b. Hier wird am besten geschlafen 'This is the best place to sleep'.

 c. Hier wird besser gelebt als auf dem Dach 'This is a better place to live than on the roof'.

 d. Hier wird herrlich ausgeruht 'This is a wonderful place to rest up'.

The derivation of sentences like (18a-d) is quite simple:

(20) a. Ø [1] tanzt PRO [2] hier gut

 b. PRO [1] tanzt **sich** [2] hier gut

 c. Es [1] tanzt **sich** [2] hier gut

In (20a), Ø is the empty [1] slot in the underlying structure. PRO is an indefinite pronoun with no

realization (unlike the indefinite *man* 'man'). In (20b), PRO [2] is advanced to [1] living behind a copy of itself, *sich* [2]. Finally, the empty PRO is replaced by the dummy *es* as in (20c).

We can make the derivation less abstract by substituting *man* for the empty indefinite PRO.

(21) a.　　Ø [1] tanzt man [2] hier gut

b.　　Man [1] tanzt **sich** [2] hier gut 'This is a good place for dancing'.

A likely explanation for the "persistent" *es* in (18a-d) is that here *es* is a term [1], whereas the "replaceable" *es* in (19a-d) (*Es wird hier getanzt* ⇒ *Hier wird getanzt*) is only inserted to keep the sentence from starting with a verb.

Appendix:

The Gender of German Nouns According to Form

Native Nouns: purals in [], exceptions in parentheses ()		
Endings that always determine a particular gender	**Feminine:** -heit/keit [-en] -schaft -ung -ei	after -ig, -lich, -el; -keit: Eifrigkeit, Ehrlichkeit, Eitelkeit after -r, mixed: Minderheit, Bitterkeit Brennerei (Papagei, m.)
	Neuter: -chen [-] -lein	Mädchen, Fräulein
	Masculine: -ling [-e] -ig, -ich, -eich, -rich	Frühling, Käfig, Teppich, Deich, Bereich, Enterich (Reich, n.)
Endings mostly neuter:	-tum ["er] -nis [-isse] -sal [-e], ["e] -sel [-]	Bürgertum, Christentum (Irrtum, Reichtum, m.)[1] Bedürfnis, Ereignis (Erlaubnis, Finsternis, Kenntnis, etc.,f.) Schicksal, Scheusal, Rätsel (Mühsal, Trübsal, Drangsal, f.) (Stopsel, Wechsel, m.)
The ending -er Masculine:	Agent nouns from verbs [-] with fem. -in [-innen]	arbeiten: der Arbeiter, die Arbeiterin
	Agent nouns from other [-] sources	gegen: der Gegner, Geige: der Geiger, Linkshänder
	Tools and utensils [-]	Toaster, Eimer, Trichter, Hammer, Becher (Klammer, Leiter, f. [-n])
	Nouns of affiliation [-]	Römer, Italiener, Neger, Amerikaner with fem. -in
	Animals [-]	Tiger, Käfer (Auster, Elster, f .[-n])

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[1] *Irrtum, Reichtum* are the only words in *-tum* that are masculine.

The ending -e: (not including those with Ge-, see below)	Inanimate feminine: [-n]	Rübe, Lampe, Ecke (Käse, m.) (Auge [-n], Ende [-n], Erbe [npl], n.)
	Abstract nouns [-n], [npl]	Güte, Tiefe, Breite
	cold-blooded animals and birds are feminine [-n]	Schlange, Schnecke, Ente, Eule (Rabe, Falke, m.)
	warm-blooded animals and humans are masculine	Junge, Bote, Löwe, Bulle [-n,-n][2]
	nationalities are masculine [-n]	Franzose, Russe, Grieche with fem. -in: Französin
Stem in -r, -l:	Feminine earlier in -e MHG zale > Zahl [-en]	Wahl, Zahl, Qual, Tür, Uhr (Feuer)wehr, Feder, Spur
The ending -en:	Infinitives are **neuter** [npl]	Singen, Tanzen, Fressen
	Also a few non-infinitives [-]	Becken, Kissen, Zeichen
	Others are **masculine**, [-] or ["]	Laden, Garten ["],Wagen [-]
	Also a few masc. where -n is usually lacking in the nom. sg. [-n]	Friede, Glaube, Wille, Funke, Glaube, Gedanke
Verb stems with various vowels:	masculine [-e], ["e]	Schrei, Flug, Fluss, Band, Sprung, Befehl, Spruch, Fall, Ruf, (Be)trug; note: Salz, Schmalz,[-e] Malz [npl], Band, Bad, n., [" er]
Ending -t/-d(e): plural -en also with Ge- (see below)	feminine [-e], ["e], [-n]	Fahrt, Sicht, Kunst, Haft, Jagd, Magd, Beichte, Bürde
Ending -st:	feminine ["e]	Angst, Kunst (Dienst, Verdienst, Verlust [-e], Frost ["e], m.)
With prefix Ge-:	neuter collectives [-e], [-]	Gebiss, Gefängnis, Gebirge, Gemüse, Getreide, Gesicht

[2] Some have feminines in *-in: Botin, Löwin*; *Giraffe, Hyäne* are feminines in *-e.*

	masculine sociatives [-n], [-]	Geselle, Gefährte, Gebrüder (pl.) fem. -in
	masculine abstract from verb stems [¨e]	Geruch, Gestank, Genuss, Gefallen
	feminine abstract in -t/d(e) [-(e)n]	Geburt, Gemeinde, Gewalt, Geschwülst, Geschichte
Foreign Nouns		
Masculine mostly *n*-declension (-n,-n), some mixed (-s, -n) or strong (-s, -e). Feminine -in.	Persons: -ant, -ar, -är, -at, ent, -et, -eur, -ist, -loge, -or, -us (fem. -in)	Demonstrant Kommissar (-s, -e) Aktionär (-s, -e) Soldat[3] Absolvent Athlet Ingenieur (-s, -e) Pazifist Philologe Doktor (-s, -n)
	Nonpersons: -at, -us,	Apparat (-s, -e) Organismus (-, en) Campus (-, -)
Neuter plurals mostly strong but note exceptions	Nonpersons: -ar, -at, -ett, -il, -ma, -mm, -o, -(m)ent, -um, -us, -ing (Eng.)	Seminar (-s, -e) Konsulat (-s, -e) Lazarett (-s, -e) Exil (-s, -e) Thema (-s, -en) Praktika (-s, -s) Programm (-s, -e) Konto (-s, -s/-en) Argument (-s, -e) Museum (-s, -en) Tempus (-, -ora) Training

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[3] Persons are masculine with feminine in *-in.* Agencies are neuter: *Konsulat, Sekretariat,* etc.

Feminine plurals in *-en*	Abstract nouns: -age, -ät, -anz, -enz, ,-ie, -ik, -ion, -ur	Courage Universität Toleranz Referenz Industrie Panik Kooperation Agentur

Useful Word Lists:
(Compiled from various sources. Extensive, but not exhaustive unless noted.)

One-syllable masculines that do not modify:
Most one-syllable masculines modify the stem vowels (*a, o, u, au*), in the plural, e.g., *der Bach ~ die Bäche,* 'brook', *der Strom ~ die Ströme,* 'stream', *der Zug ~ die Züge* 'train', *der Baum ~ die Bäume*, 'tree'. The following common words do not modify, e.g., *der Aal ~ die Aale* 'eel'.

Aal 'eel'	**Hund** 'dog'	**Pol** 'pole'
Aar 'eagle'	**Lachs** 'salmon'	**Puls** 'pulse'
Arm 'arm'	**Lack** 'varnish'	**Punkt** 'point'
Docht 'wick'	**Laut** 'sound'	**Schuft** 'scoundrel'
Dolch 'dagger'	**Luchs** 'lynx'	**Schuh** 'shoe'
Dom 'cathedral'	**Molch** 'salamander'	**Stoff** 'material'
Druck 'print'*	**Mond** 'moon'	**Sund** 'bay sound'
Grad 'degree'	**Mord** 'murder'	**Tag** 'day'
Gurt 'belt'	**Ort** 'place'	**Takt** 'bar of music'
Halm 'blade of grass'	**Park** 'park'	**Tron** 'throne'
Hauch 'breath'	**Pfad** 'path'	**Zoll** 'inch' (no -*e* in plural)
Huf 'hoof'	**Pfau** 'peacock'	

* Note *die alten Drucke* 'the old prints', but in compounds with umlaut, *seine Fingerabdrücke* 'his finger prints'. Neuters in -*e* do not modify, e.g., *das Wort ~ die Worte* 'connected speech' with one exception: *das Floß* 'raft' (note: *das Rohr* 'tube', *die Röhre* 'vacuum tube', 'oven').

Two syllable masculines with umlaut:
Two syllable masculines generally do not umlaut the stem vowel except for the following:

Acker 'field'	**Garten** 'garden'	**Hammel** 'wether'
Bruder 'brother'	**Graben** 'ditch'	**Handel** 'quarrel'
Hammer 'hammer'	**Hafen** 'harbor'	**Mantel** 'coat'
Schwager 'brother-in-law'	**Laden** 'shop'	**Nabel** 'navel'
Vater 'father'	**Ofen** 'stove'	**Nagel** 'nail'
Boden 'bottom'	**Schaden** 'damage'	**Sattel** 'saddle'
Faden 'thread'	**Apfel** 'apple'	**Schnabel** 'beak'
Vogel 'bird'		

Bogen 'bow', *Kragen* 'collar' and *Wagen* 'wagon' sometimes with umlaut, particularly in the south. Here we can also list two feminines: *die Mutter* 'mother' and *die Tochter* 'daughter' and one neuter: *das Kloster* 'cloister'.

Foreign nouns with umlaut:
Foreign masculine nouns do not umlaut in the plural with the exception of:

Abt 'abbot'	**Kaplan** 'chaplain'	**Papst** 'pope'
Altar 'altar'	**Kardinal** 'cardinal'	**Probst** 'prebendary'
Bischof 'bishop'	**Marsch** 'march'	**Spital** 'hospital', n. -*er*
Chor 'choir'	**Morast** 'morass'	
Kanal 'canal'	**Palast** 'palace'	

All of these take the ending -*e* (e.g., *der Papst, die Päpste*) except for *Spital.*

Masculine nouns with plural in -*er*
Originally, only one-syllable neuters took the -*er* plural with umlaut. The following masculines have joined the club:

Bösewicht 'villain'	**Leib** 'body'	**Vormund** 'guardian'
Dorn 'thorn' (also -*en*)	**Mann** 'man'	**Wald** 'forest'
Geist 'spirit'	**Mund** 'mouth'	**Wurm** 'worm'
Gott 'god'	**Rand** 'edge'	
Irrtum 'error'	**Reichtum** 'riches'	

Complete list of feminines in -*nis:*

Bedrängnis 'distress'	**Erkenntinis** 'awareness'
Befugnis 'authority'	**Erlaubnis** 'permission'
Bekümmernis 'grief'	**Fäulnis** 'rot'
Besorgnis 'care'	**Finsternis** 'darkness'
Betrübnis 'sadness'	**Kenntnis** 'knowledge'
Bewandtnis 'explanation'	**Verdammnis** 'damnation'
Empfängnis 'conception'	**Wildnis** 'wilderness'

Strong feminines
Most feminines have joined the feminine declension with -*(e)n* in the plural. Only a few have remained strong, e.g., *die Angst ~ die Ängste* 'fear':

Angst 'fear'	**Geschwulst** 'swelling	**Magd** 'maid'	**Wurst** 'sausage'
Ankunft 'arrival'	**Gruft** 'grave'	**Maus** 'mouse'	**Zunft** 'guild'
Axt 'ax'	**Hand** 'hand'	**Nacht** 'night'	

Bank 'bench'	**Haut** 'skin'	**Naht** 'seam'
Braut 'bride'	**Kluft** 'chasm'	**Not** 'need'
Brust 'breast'	**Kraft** 'power'	**Nuss** 'nut'
Fahrt 'trip'	**Kuh** 'cow'	**Sau** 'sow'
Faust 'fist'	**Kunst** 'art'	**Schnur** 'string'
Flucht 'flight'	**Laus** 'lice'	**Stadt** 'city'
Frucht 'fruit'	**Luft** 'air'	**Sucht** 'addiction'
Furcht 'fear'	**Lust** 'desire'	**Wand** 'wall'
Gans 'goose'	**Macht** 'power'	**Wollust** 'lust'

To these we can add all those feminines that end in *-nis*, e.g., *die Wildnis* 'wilderness'. There are also a number of compounds, e.g., *Zusammenkunft* 'meeting', *Hauptstadt* 'capital'. Note *die Vollmacht* 'power of attorney' with plural *die Vollmachten,* also *Ohnmachten* 'fainting spells'.

Pluralia tantum (nouns only used in the plural):
There are a number of common words that only are used in the plural. Many of these are used similarly in English, e.g., *die Alpen* 'the Alps', other are constructed differently.

Alpen 'Alps'	**Geschwister** 'siblings'	**Pfingsten** 'Pentecost'*
Hosen 'pants'	**(Un)kosten** 'expenses'	**Trümmer** 'wreckage'
Einkünfte 'income'	**Leute** 'people'	**Weihnachten** 'Christmas'*
Eltern 'parents'	**Masern** 'measles'	
Ferien 'vacation'	**Ostern** 'Easter'*	

* The holidays *Weihnachten, Ostern, Pfingsten* are all officially neuter singular. In holiday greetings, however, we have the plural form: *fröhliche Weichnachten, frohe Ostern, Pfingsten. Hose(n)* is also used in the singular: *Er kaufte sich eine neue Hose/ ein Paar neue Hosen* 'he bought a new pair of pants', but *Sie trägt die Hosen* 'she wares the pants'. The singular of *Eltern* is *ein Elternteil.*

Masculine nouns with missing *-n* nominative singular:
There some common masculines that decline like *der Wagen* 'wagen' with no umlaut in the plural, but have not regularized the *-n* to the nominative singular. Thus, *der Funke, des Funkens, die Funken* 'spark'. Complete list:

Buchstabe 'letter'	**Gedanke** 'thought'	**Wille** 'will'
Friede 'peace'	**Glaube** 'faith'	
Funke 'spark'	**Name** 'name'	

Mixed declension:

Some masculines and neuters follow the "mixed declension" strong in the singular and weak in the plural, e.g., *der Bauer, des Bauers, die Bauern* 'farmer'. The table contains only "native" words. Foreign words in *-or, -a, -um*, e.g., *Doktor, Thema, Museum* are also declined mixed.

Masculine

Ahn 'ancestor'	**Pantoffel** 'slipper'	**Strahl** 'ray'
Bauer 'farmer'	**Pfau** 'peacock'	**Untertan** 'subject'
Dorn 'thorn'	**Schmerz** 'pain'	**Vetter** 'cousin'
Forst 'forest'	**See** 'lake'	**Zierat** 'ornament'
Gau 'district'	**Sporn** 'spur'	**Zins** 'bank interest'
Lorbeer 'laurel'	**Staat** 'state'	
Mast 'ships mast'	**Stachel** 'sting'	
Nachbar 'neighbor'	**Stiefel** 'boot'	

Neuter

Auge 'eye'	**Ende** 'end'	**Ohr** 'ear'
Bett 'bed'	**Hemd** 'shirt'	

Two plurals – different meanings:

A few words have different plurals according to their meaning or function. Here are the most important ones:

die Bank 'bank, bench'	**Bänke** 'benches'	**Banken** 'commercial banks'
das Land 'land'	**Länder** 'separate countries'	**Lande** 'parts of a country'
das Stück 'piece'	**Stücke** 'pieces'	**Stück** 'pieces' with numeral
das Wort 'word'	**Worte** 'connected speech'	**Wörter** 'individual words'
der Zoll 'toll, inch'	**Zölle** 'duties'	**Zoll** 'inches'

Examples: *die Länder Europas* 'the countries of Europe', *die Niederlande* 'the Netherlands', but *die deutschen Länder* 'the German states (of the FRG)', *in Stücke reißen* 'tear to pieces', *drei Stück Kuchen* 'three pieces of cake', *hohe Zölle* 'high tariffs', *zwölf Zoll* 'twelve inches'.

Nouns in *-en* that are neuter:

Except for infinitives, which are always neuter, nouns in *-en* are masculine. Here is a list of the exceptions. These are all neuter:

Becken 'basin'	**Leben** 'life'	**Zeichen** 'sign'
Kissen 'pillow'	**Lehen** 'fiefdom'	
Laken 'sheet'	**Wappen** 'coat of arms'	

Feminine and neuter nouns in *-er*:

The vast majority of nouns in *-er* (including all agent nouns and 'nomina civitatis', e.g., *Amerikaner*) are masculine. Here is a list of exceptions:

Feminine:

body parts		tools	
Ader	*vein*	Klammer	*clamp*
Leber	*liver*	Klapper	*rattle*
Schulter	*shoulder*	Leiter	*ladder*
Wimper	*eyebrow*	Schleuder	*slingshot*
other			
Blatter(n)	*smallpox*	Klafter	*fathom*
Dauer	*duration*	Lauer	*look-out*
Faser	*fiber*	Scheuer	*barn*
Feder	*feather*	Trauer	*mourning*
Kiefer	*pine*		

Neuter:

Alter	*age*	Leder	*leather*
Euter	*udder*	Polster	*cushon*
Feuer	*fire*	Ruder	*oar*
Futter	*feed*	Steuer	*rudder*
Gatter	*gate (elec.)*	Ufer	*shore*
Gitter	*grate*	Wasser	water
Lager	*camp*	Wetter	weather
Laster	*vice*	Wunder	*miracle*
		Zimmer	*room*

Nouns in *-el* that are feminine or neuter:

Most nouns in *-el* are masculine: *Löffel* 'spoon', *Nagel* 'nail', but there are a substantial number of feminines: *Gabel* 'fork', *Nadel* 'needle', and smaller number of neuters: *Segel* 'sail', *Siegel* 'seal'. These are listed by category:

Feminine Words in -el:

German	English	German	English	German	English
Analogy		Floskel	*cliché*	Hantel	*barbell*
Murmel	*marbel (Kugel, f.)*	Formel	*formula*	Klingel	*bell*
Birds		Insel	*island*	Kordel	*cord*
Drossel	*thrush*	Kanzel	*pulpit*	Kugel	*ball, bullet*
Wachtel	*quail*	Kapsel	*capsule*	Kurbel	*crank*
Body parts		Klausel	*clause*	Mangel	*mangle*
Achsel	*shoulder*	Kuppel	*copula (arch.)*	Nadel	*needle*
Gurgel	*throat*	Partikel	*particle (gram.)*	Orgel	*organ (music)*
Diminutives[1]		Regel	*rule*	Schachtel	*box*
Eichel	*acorn*	Stoppel	*stubble*	Schauffel	*shovel*
Runzel	*wrinkle*	Insel	*island*	Schaukel	*swing*
Wurzel	*root*	**Rivers**		Schindel	*shingle*
Food		Memel	*Memel*	Schüssel	*bowl*
Bretzel	*pretzel*	Mosel	*Moselle*	Sichel	*sickle*
Dattel	*date*	Weichsel	*Vistuala*	Spindel	*spindle*
Kartoffel	*potato*	**Tools and Implements**[2]		Tafel	*table*
Mandel	*almond*	Ampel	*traffic light*	Trommel	*drum*
Morchel	*morel (bot.)*	Angel	*hinge*	Wendel	*coil*
Muschel	*clam, mussel*	Drossel	*choke (tech.)*	**Others**	
Nudel	*noodle*	Fackel	*torch*	Geisel	*hostage*
Semmel	*roll*	Fuchtel	*bushel basket*	Staffel	*staff*
Waffel	*waffel*	Gabel	*fork*		
Latin		Geißel	*whip*		
Fistel	*fistula (med.)*	Gondel	*gondola*		

1.   Most diminutives in *-l* are now neuter (e.g., *Mädl, Büschel*), older words retain the gender of the word they are derived from, hence *Eichel < Eiche, f.* This is also seen in Lat. *filius* 'son', *filia* 'daughter'

2.   Both Germanic and Latin used the suffix *-il* to form the names of tools and implements. These could be either masculine or feminine. The feminines are listed here, the others are masculine with the exception of a few modern borrowing that are neuter (q.v.).

Neuter Words in *-el*:

German	English	German	English	German	English
Analogy		Seidel	*beer glass*	Getüschel	whispering
Hotel, -s	*hotel (Gasthaus, n.)*	Pendel	*pendulum*	Gewackel	*wobbling*
		Vehikel	*vehicle*	Gewimmel	*swarming*
Motel, -s	*motel (Hotel,n.)*	Siegel	*seal*	Gezappel	*wriggling*
		Segel	*sail*	**Latin**	
Partikel	*particle (Teil[chen])*	Takel	*tackle*	Exempel	*example*
Adjectives		**Collectives**		Kapitel	*chapter*
Dunkel	*darkness*	Gebimmel	*tinkling*	**English**	
Mittel	*means*	Gefasel	*drivel*	Barrel (oil)	*barrel*
Diminutives		Gekritzel	*scribbling*	Pixel	*pixel*
Aschenbrödel	*Cinderella*	Gemetzel	*massacre*	**Fraction**	
Dirndl	*costume*	Gemunkel	*whispering*	Viertel (-tel)	*quarter*
Mädel -, (-s)	*girl*	Gerangel	*jockeying*	**Other**	
Madel, -n	*girl (Bav.)*	Gerassel	*rattling*	Mitbringsel	*gift*
Mündel (das der, die)	*ward*	Geriesel	*trinkling*	Rätsel	*riddle*
		Gerinnsel	*clot, trickle*	Doppel	*double (sport)*
Büschel	*bushel*	Gerumpel	*junk*	Techtelmech-tel	*hanky-panky*
Karnickel	*rabbit*	Gerümpel	*junk*		
Schnitzel	*cutlet*	Geschmunzel	*grinning*	Wiesel	*weasle*
Tools and Implements		Geschreibsel	*scribbling*	Nickel (metal)	*nickel*
Kabel	*cable*	Getümmel	*turmoil*		
Ritzel	*pinion*				

These lists of feminine and neuter words ending in *-el* are based on an on-line word list containing ca. 160,000 entries and may be considered reasonably complete. Source: <ftp://ftp.ox.ac.uk/pub/wordlists/>.

1.   The words are divided into groups for ease of learning rather than on strict etymological principles. Thus, *Pendel* and *Vehikel* are classified as "Tools and Implements" while the designation "Latin" is reserved for words like *Exempel* and *Kapitel*, which are also recent Latin loan words, but do not fit into any other convenient category.

2.   All other words in *-el* are masculine.

A special note on the word *Teil*:
Throughout its history the word *Teil* has had difficulty deciding whether it is masculine or neuter. At present, it is mostly masculine, but sometimes neuter. We can give the following guide to its usage:

1.   *Teil* is masculine when it is used to indicate part of a whole: *er stieg in den vorderen Teil des Zuges ein* 'he boarded the front part of the train', *wir haben nur den ersten Teil des Romans gelesen* 'we have only read the first part of the novel'.

2. *Teil* is neuter when the part in question is viewed as separate from the whole: *er ersetzte das defekte Teil* 'he replaced the defective part', *Sie müssen jedes einzelne Teil überprüfen* 'you must check each individual part'.

3. The distinction is illustrated nicely by the following excerpt describing the sighting of a whale off the coast of New Zealand:

    > Wenn überhaupt, bekommt man also immer nur einen Teil dieses riesigen Kolosses zu sehen. Mal ein Teil des Kopfes, dann ein Teil des Rückens . . . . 'If at all, you only get to see *one part of this giant colossus.* At times, *part of the head,* then *part of the back. . . .*'

    The first sentence emphasizes parts of the whole, the second focuses on the separate parts one sees detached from the whale as a whole.

4. Some compounds also vary in gender according to the same principle. Compare:

    > *der Oberteil [des Rocks] ist mit Perlen verziert* 'the top of the dress is decorated with pearls', *weicher Single-Jersey -Baumwolle für das Oberteil [des Pyjamas], für die Hose. . . .* 'soft single-Jersey cotton for the pyjama top, for the pants . . . .'

    Here the top seen as part of the dress is *der Oberteil,* but as a separate t-shirt forming part of the pyjamas, it is *das Oberteil.*

    The compounds in this group indicate specific parts: *Hinter-, Kopf- , Ober-, Unter-, Vorderteil,* 'back, head, top, bottom, front part'. (Note: When used to mean 'buttocks' it is always *das Hinterteil.*)

5. Most other compounds are masculine, but the following are always neuter:

Erbteil[*]	'inheritance'	**Urteil**	'judgment'
Ersatzteil	'replacement part'	**Vorurteil**	'prejudice'
Gegenteil	'opposite'	**Zubehörteil**	'accessory'

    *But, *der Erbteil* in the *Bundesgesetzbuch (BGB).*

6. *Teil* is also neuter when it means 'share': *ich habe mein Teil beigebracht* 'I did my part'. Also in the expression *für mein Teil* 'for my part'.

7. *Teil* meaning 'thing' is also neuter: *Wieviel hat das Teil gekostet?* 'How much did that thing cost?

Compounds with *Mut*

Words compound with *Mut,* which is masculine, are either masculine or feminine. Interestingly, the gender assignment seems to follow male-female stereotypes:

Masculine:

Mut	'courage'	**Missmut**	'displeasure'
Edelmut	'nobility'	**Übermut**	'cockiness'
Freimut	'frankness'	**Unmut**	'resentment'
Hochmut	'arrogance'	**Wagemut**	'daring'
Kleinmut	'faintheartedness'		

Feminine:

Anmut	'grace'	**Langmut**	'patience'
Armut	'poverty'	**Sanftmut**	'gentleness'
Demut	'humility'	**Schwermut**	'dejection'
Großmut	'magnanimity'	**Wehmut**	'melancholy'

Adjectives that do not modify in the comparative:

Most one-syllable adjectives with stem vowels (*a, o, u* – but not *au*) take umlaut in the comparative and superlative, e.g., *rot ~ röter ~ am rötesten* 'red, redder, reddest'. The following are common exceptions:

barsch, 'harsh'	**karg,** 'meager'	**sacht,** 'gentle'
brav, 'well-behaved'	**knapp,** 'scanty'	**sanft,** 'gentle'
bunt, 'brightly colored'	**lahm,** 'lame'	**satt,** 'full'
dumpf, 'mufled sound'	**lasch,** 'lax'	**schlaff,** 'limp'
falb, 'fallow'	**matt,** 'weary'	**schlank,** 'slender'
falsch, 'false'	**morsch,** 'rotten'	**schroff,** 'steep'
flach, 'flat'	**nackt,** 'naked'	**starr,** 'steep'
froh, 'joyful'	**platt,** 'flat'	**stolz,** 'proud'
glatt, 'smooth'*	**plump,** 'crude'	**straff,** 'stretched'
hohl, 'hollow'	**rasch,** 'hasty'	**stumpf,** 'blunt'
hold, 'favorable'	**roh,** 'raw'	**toll,** 'mad'
kahl, bald	**rund,** 'round'	**wahr,** 'true'
		zahm, 'tame'

*Less frequently: *glätter*

Uses of the genitive:

Uses of the Genitive			
Use	**German**	**English**	**Notes**
Adnominal:			
Possessive	das Haus seines Vaters	his father's house	Genitive usually follows in German
Domain	das Haus des Herrn	the house of the Lord	Not actual possession!
Patronymic	der Sohn des Herrn, Fischers Fritz (= Fritz Fischer)	the son of the Lord, Fritz Fischer	Family relation, not possession
Authorship	Goethes Gedichte (die Gedichte Goethes)	Goethe's poems (the poems of Goethe)	Indicates creator of a work of art
Location	die Stadt New York, die Schlacht bei Hastings	the City of New York, the Battle of Hastings	German apposition or preposition
Quality	eine Frau von großer Intelligenz	a woman of great intelligence	Usually with *von* rather than genitive
Quantity	ein Glas kaltes Wasser (kalten Wassers)	a glass of cold water	Usually appositive even with adjective
Extent	der dreißigjährige Krieg, eine Reise von drei Tagen	The Thirty-Years War, a three-day journey	German with adjective or *von*
Specification	die Tugend der Bescheidenheit	the virtue of modesty	Tells which one (here which virtue)
Material	ein Messingknopf, Knopf aus (blankem) Messing, ein Ring von Gold	a brass button, bright brass button, a gold(en) ring	Usually *aus, von* or compound
Partitive	die Rücklehne des Stuhls, die Vorhut des Heeres	the back of the chair, the vanguard of the army	Indicates part of the whole
Subject	der Anführer der Rebellen	the leader of the rebels	Compare: He leads the rebels.
Object	die Vernichtung der Beweise	the destruction of the evidence	Compare: Someone destroyed the evidence.

Use	German	English	Notes
Goal	der Zweck der Übung, das Ziel der Reise	the purpose of the exercise, destination of the journey	End, goal or purpose
With Adjectives:			
Value	(nicht) der Rede wert, keinen Pfennig wert	(not) worth mentioning, not worth a penny	Genitive with feminine, otherwise accusative
Quantity	etwas, nichts Neues, ein Saal voll aufgeregter Menschen, voll von Menschen	something, nothing new, a room full of (excited) people	Adjective always capitalized after *etwas, nichts.* If no genitive marker, *von* is used.
Adverbial:			
Indefinite time	eines Tages, Nachts(!), tags(über), mittwochs	one day (once upon a time), one night, days, Wednesdays	The English is now interpreted as a plural.
Judicial	des Mordes (wegen Mord) beschuldigen, anklagen	to accuse someone of murder, charge with murder	Preposition more common
Manner	frohen Herzens, eilenden Schrittes	happy at heart, with hurrying steps	Old fashioned! Replaced by *mit frohem Herzen,* etc.
Prepositional:			
	trotz, wegen, dank, (an)statt, innerhalb. während, etc.	despite, because of, thanks to, instead of, within, during, etc.	Used with prepositions derived from other parts of speech. Often with dative: *trotz dem Regen (des Regens).*

Review Questions:

Chapter 1: The Sound of German

1.   What is the basis of the standard pronunciation of German (as heard on the radio). How does this differ from other standards such as French or British English?

2.   Explain the following terms: stops, fricatives, affricates, obstruents, sonorants, liquids, nasals, glides.

3.   What is the difference between tense and lax consonants? How does this correlate with voicing?

4.   What is the German final devoicing rule?

5.   Why is the sound /h/ difficult for speakers of French or Italian?

6.   What difficulties are presented by the German fricative /x/?

7.   How is final <g> pronounced in words like *Tag, König,* etc.

8.   Explain the pronunciation of the *s*-sound (written <s> and <ß>) in German.

9.   Are the sounds /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ native sounds of German?

10.   Explain the relationship between vowel pairs in German like: /i/ and /ɪ/.

11.   What kind of vowels do we find in German that are not present in English?

12.   What is the rule for German vowel length?

13.   What common feature of accentuation and rhythm does German share with American English? How do the two languages differ in their treatment of weak syllables?

14.   What is the accentuation rule for foreign words like *Fundament, Professor*?

15.   What makes German word accent easier that English or Russian accent?

16.   What is the difference between stress timing and syllable timing?

Chapter 2: Noun phrase – Gender, Number, Case

17.   What is congruence? How do English, Spanish and German differ here?

18.   What is annoying about German congruence?

19. What is the difference between count nouns and mass nouns? Do German and English always agree here? Give examples.

20. What is the difference between deep case, surface case and inflectional case? Make this clear with a German example.

21. Compare case marking in German and English.

22. What is the difference between "physical" and "metaphoric" case?

23. Explain the German case marking for the following:

   a. location on a flat surface
   b. motion toward a vertical surface.
   c. instrumental
   d. sociative (person with whom you do something)
   e. motion towards a person

24. Why is metaphoric case far more difficult than physical case. Give English and German examples.

25. Where do prepositions with the genitive come from?

26. *Ab, aus, bei, mit, von, nach, zu . . . .* Why don't you?

27. List the prepositions that always take the accusative.

28. Is it *Er kopft an die* or *der Tür*? Explain.

29. We say *Er hat sich in sie verliebt,* bad enough, but *Er ist in . . . verliebt.* Explain both forms.

30. We say *sich freuen über* + case? and *er ist froh über* + case? Explain.

31. Explain the difference in case between *Ludolf brachte die unerwarteten Gäste* in ein Hotel *'Ludolf brought the unexpected guests to a hotel'* and *Ludolf brachte die unerwarteten Gäste* in einem Hotel *unter* 'Ludolf put up the unexpected guests in a hotel'.

32. Which prepositions that take the dative or the accusative with space and time always take the accusative with other functions?

33. The prepositions *an, in, vor* always take which case with time?

34. How is the dative used without a preposition?

35. What is the current state of the genitive?

36.   Give an example to illustrate the following uses of the accusative:

        a. accusative of extent
        b. accusative of definite time
        c. accusative of cost

37.   What case is used with indefinite time? Give an example.

38.   What case is used with time expressions involving a preposition? Give some examples.

39.   What is gender?

40.   What is the difference between natural and grammatical gender?

41.   Where do the traditional terms: masculine, feminine, neuter come from? Are these well-chosen?

42.   Use semantic classes to explain the following gender assignments:

        a. *die Isar, der Mississippi.*
        b. *der Mittwoch* (cf. *die Woche*)
        c. *der Vodka* (Russ. feminine)
        d. *das A und O* 'the alpha and omega'
        e. *Er hat eine Eins gekriegt* 'a got a one (A).

43.   Explain how German forms agent nouns like *worker, teacher*, etc.

44.   What can we say about the gender of nouns that end in *-en*?

45.   What can we say about the gender of nouns that end in *-e*?

46.   What is the usual gender of verb stems with the vowels *a, i, u* (e.g., *Dampf* 'steam', *Biss* 'bite', *Sprung* 'jump'.

47.   All nouns in *-ung, heit/keit, schaft* are of which gender?

48.   All nouns in *-chen, -lein, -el* ,e.g., *Mädchen* 'girl', *Fräulein* 'girl', *Mädel* 'girl' are of what gender?

49.   Except for *Kenntnis* 'knowledge', *Erlaubnis* 'permission', *Wildnis* 'wilderness', words in *-nis* are of what gender? All of them form their plural in?

50.   Only two words in *-tum* are masculine. They are? All the rest are of what gender? All form their plural in?

51.   Explain the classification of nouns beginning in *Ge-*.

52.   Where do foreign loan words get their gender in German?

53. Explain the difference in meaning between the following pairs of words:

   a. *der/die Hut*
   b. *die/das Steuer*
   c. *die/der Kiefer*
   d. *der/die See*

54. How do we make the feminine of agent nouns like *Lehrer* 'teach' or *Student* 'student'?

55. Explain the difference in the meaning of *der Student* in the following:

   a. Der Student, der mich heute besuchte, ist sehr fleißig.
   b. Der Student ist heutzutage viel fleißiger als damals, als ich studierte.

56. How can we show that this usage does not discriminate against women?

57. How many common ways are there to form the plural in German? Give an example of each.

58. How many forms of the noun do we need to know to decline the noun correctly? Which are they? Give some examples.

59. What is the mixed declension?

60. What is peculiar about the declension of nouns referring to warm-blood male animals?

61. All dative plurals take which ending (if possible)?

62. The feminines have two ways of forming their plural. Give an example of each, e.g., *die Frau, die Kraft.*

63. Most nouns in *-en* are masculine. Name at least three exceptions.

64. Masculines in *-en* form their plural in two ways. Give an example of each.

65. Infinitives also end in *-en*, but they are always of which gender?

66. The plural *-er* always takes umlaut and is generally confined to what group of nouns? Give at least three prominent exceptions.

67. Five neuters are weak in the plural. They are?

Chapter 3: The Noun Phrase II - The Rule of Clitics

68. What is a clitic? Give an example from English, from German.

69. What is a base? What three classes of words can serve as bases?

70.   State the rule of clitics. Explain how it applies to the German equivalents of the following:
a. a vicious dog (vicious = *böse*)
b. the vicious dog
c. Attention! Vicious Dog

71.   What peculiarity do we find in the declension of the determiners that rhyme with *ein*? How is this reflected in the declension of *a lazy professor*?

72.   What important difference do we find between the comparative formation of German and English adjectives.

73.   What special problem do one syllable adjectives in German present in the comparative and superlative.

74.   What is the elative form of the adjective? Give an example in English and German.

75.   In general, the forms of the relative pronoun are the same as those of what determiner? What are the irregularities.

76.   What is the base for the interrogative pronoun? What peculiarities do we find in this pronoun?

77.   What are reflexive and reciprocal pronouns? Give an example in English and German.

78.   What are the two interpretations of *Renate und Ludolf lieben sich.*

79.   What is the German equivalent of *He shut the door behind him? He did it for himself.* What is the difference between German and English in these constructions.

80.   What is the rule for the use of the pronoun substitute *da + preposition* in German? Give examples.

81.   Give the German equivalent of *That umbrella is mine.*

82.   Both German and English have three person deixis (the object near the speaker, near the hearer, remote from both). Give the German equivalents of *This baseball belongs to me, That baseball belongs to me, That baseball over there belongs to me* (*baseball = der Baseball*).

83.   The definite plurals *alle, beide* and *keine* are always followed by what kind of adjective? Give examples.

84.   Give the German equivalent of *something new, nothing new.* Explain the form of the adjective.

85. The vague plural quantifiers (*viele, einige, mehrere*, etc.) are followed by what kind of adjective? Give examples.

86. How do the quantifiers *manch, solch, welch* combine with the clitics? Give examples.

87. What is the difference between *ein paar* and *ein Paar*?

88. Give the equivalent of *I saw someone/no one kissing Mommy under the Xmas tree.*

Numerals

89. What difficulty do the German decades (numbers between 20 and 99) present for speakers of language like English, French or Spanish.

90. What is the difference between an American *billion* and a German *Billion*?

91. Which German numbers can be declined?

92. How are German fractions formed (e.g., *one third, three sevenths,* etc.)?

93. What are the German equivalents of *three fold, four times*?

94. Give the various German equivalents of 2:30 p.m.

95. What is the German equivalent of *February 21, 1944*? What feature of case grammar does this illustrate.

96. What is the German equivalent of *Never on Sundays*? What feature of case grammar does this illustrate.

97. What is the English equivalent of *heute nacht*?

Chapter 5: Adverbs and negation

98. What is an adverb?

99. How are adverbs formed in English? In German?

100. Give the regular comparative and superlative forms of *schnell.*

101. What is the difference between *am wenigsten* and *wenigstens*?

102. How does German express *less satisfied, the least satisfied*?

103. What is the difference between German *wo, wohin, woher*?

104. How does German express *you are late ~ you are too late*?

105. What is the difference between *kein* and *nicht*?

106. What is the difference between clause and phrase negation?

107. What are the two rules for the placement of *nicht*? Give examples.

108. How does German treat double negation?

109. What is the German equivalent of English tag questions?

110. How does German deny a negative assertion?

Chapter 6: The Verbs

111. What do we mean by primary and secondary, strong and weak verbs?

112. What principle determines the tense formation of the strong verbs?

113. How can we identify the different groups of strong verbs?

114. What does the present singular of Groups III - VI have in common?

115. What determines the length of the vowel in the past and past participle of Groups I -II? Compare verbs like *schreiben ~ reiten, fliegen ~ kriechen.*

116. Why do *lügen* 'lie' and *betrügen* 'deceive' belong in Group II?

117. What is the identifying characteristic of Group VI, Group VII?

118. Why does the verb *wissen* 'know' have two different vowels in *ich weiß, wir wissen*?

119. What other verbs have this characteristic?

120. How do the weak verbs form their past tense and past participle?

121. What do we mean by Rückumlaut verbs? Give examples.

122. How many tenses does a German verb have?

123. How is the subjunctive formed in German?

124. What major difference do we find between the forms of the German and English subjunctive?

125. How many sets of verb endings are there in German? How are they used?

126. How is the imperative expressed in German?

127. What does the German future with *werden* indicate? This is the rough equivalent of which English construction?

128.   German and English often disagree violently in the expression of past tense. Where does the problem lie. Compare with French (if you know French).

129.   Explain the choice of the auxiliaries *haben* und *sein* in the following.

   a. Ich bin nach Hause gefahren ~ Ich habe seinen neuen Wagen gefahren.
   b. Ich bin in den Garten hineingegangen ~ Ich habe im Garten herumspaziert.
   c. Er ist gewachsen.
   d. Er hat/ist zwölf Stunden geschlafen.

130.   What form does German usually substitute for the past subjunctive? Give an example.

131.   What are the six basic forms of the conditional. In which one, do we find a significant difference between English and German.

132.   What are the basic functions of the subjunctive?

133.   What is the difference between the following two instances of reported speech?

   a. Er sagt, dass er das Geld gefunden *hat*.
   b. Er sagt, dass er das Geld gefunden *habe/hätte.*

134.   Can distinctions like the one above always be maintained by grammatical means in English?

135.   What three functions does the German present tense have? How does this compare to English?

136.   Contrast the English and German future.

137.   What three functions does the German preterite have? How do these compare with English?

138.   How does German general handle the future perfect, e.g., *I will have lived here. . . ?*

139.   Explain *Ein Gedicht,* ('poem'), *das der Lehrer gemacht gehabt hat.* Give the standard form.

140.   Are the past (preterite) and the present perfect always interchangeable in German? Explain.

Chapter 7: Syntax

141.   Why is the description of the syntax of a language more difficult than the description of the sounds or forms?

142.   What is the V-II Rule? Give examples.

143. Explain Topicalizaton and Verb-Subject Inversion. How do they cooperate to maintain the V-II Rule?

144. What is the Bracket Principle? Give examples?

145. Explain Verb-Phrase Inversion and Right Dislocation. Give Examples.

146. How do these principles and movement rules (113-116) account for Scrambling.

147. Is it possible that speakers of German have learned the 20 "legal" patterns in the Scrambling sentences by experience? Justify you answer.

148. What is the position of the finite (inflected) verb in subordinate clauses?

149. What is the position of the finite verb in subordinate clauses involving two or three infinitives?

150. What are separable and inseparable prefixes?

151. What is the English equivalent of the separable prefix? Give examples.

152. How does the position of the inseparable prefix differ between English and German?

153. What difference do we notice between the position of extended participial modifiers in English and German?

154. What is Preposition Stranding? How do German and English differ?

155. What is long distance movement? How do German and English differ?

156. What is a shadow pronoun? What is the difference between English and German shadow pronouns?

157. What is "cross-linguistic" syntax? Is it scientifically justifiable? Explain your answer.

158. What are "disjunctive" pronouns in English? Does German have disjunctive pronouns? How does German treat the constructions where English has disjunctive pronouns?

159. What are the term relationships in Relational Grammar? Give an example.

160. What is a chômeur? How does a chômeur originate?

161. What is the Freezing Parameter? How do German and English differ with respect to freezing? Give an example.

162. How do English and German passive differ? Give an example.

163. What is the so-called "impersonal" passive in German?

164. What is the difference between Perlmutter's Type A and Type B languages? Give an example.

165. What is the difference between "persistent" *es* and "nonpersistent" *es* in German. Give an example.

166. What is Extraposition? Give German examples involving the subject and the object position.

167. What is the difference between the syntax of sentential objects of prepositions in German and English (e.g., [I am looking forward to [I drink a cold beer]]).

168. Explain the basic structure of the subordinate clause. Take *Seitdem, dass ich ihn kenne* as a starting point.

169. The pronoun *sich* is usually called a reflexive pronoun in German grammars. Why is this inadequate?

170. Compare the use of *sich* as a true reflexive pronoun in German with its English equivalents.

171. Compare *sich* as a reciprocal pronoun with its English equivalents.

172. Explain *sich* in *Die Tür öffnete **sich.*** Do doors really open themselves?

My favorite reference works:

Block, Russell (2010) *The German Language - A Guide for Inquisitive Students,* (online where you found this book). The historical background to the modern German language.

Diekhoff, Tobias (1914) *The German Language – Outlines of Its Development*, New York: Oxford University Press. An excellent treatment of modern German in its historical context.

Eggeling, H.F. (1961) *Modern German Prose Usage,* Oxford: Oxford University Press. Yes, even Goethe and Schiller had their problems with German grammar. Excellent clarification of problems with historical examples.

Engelien, A. (1883) *Grammatik der neuhochdeutschen Sprache,* Berlin: Wilhelm Schultze. Superb source of detailed information. Very helpful in the preparation of this volume.

Grebe, Paul (1973) *Duden - die Grammatik,* Mannheim: Bibliographisches Institut. My favorite edition of the official grammar, very much influenced by valence grammar. A huge source of useful information. Every new edition of the Duden grammar is based on a new theory. Never throw one away. The 7. ed. (2006) contains a wealth of material on colloquial German based on Internet sources.

Helbig, Gerhard and Joachim Buscha (1972) *Deutsche Grammatik – Ein Handbuch für den Ausländerunterricht,* Leipzig: VEB Verlag Enzykopädie. The traditional DDR grammar. Excellent practical guide to DaF (Deutsch als Fremdsprache).

Jørgensen, Peter (1959) *German Grammar,* 3 Vols. trans. G. Kolisko. Excellent, but rather detailed grammar in the Dano-Norwegian tradition.

Paul, Hermann and Heinz Stolte (1962) *Kurze Deutsche Grammatik,* Tübingen: Max Niemeyer. This short grammar (522 pp.) is a condensation of Hermann Paul's five volume *Deutsche Grammatik* (1916-1920) based on historical principles.

Ten Cate, Abraham, Hans G. Lodder, André Kootte (1998) *Deutsche Grammatik – Eine kontrastiv deutsch-niederländische Beschreibung für den Zweitspracherwerb,* Bussum: Coutinho. This book was written primarily for Dutch students of German. Despite its limited intended audience, it contains a wealth of useful information.

Wilson, P.G. (1950) *German Grammar,* London: English Universities Press. My favorite small reference grammar.