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BUILDING COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN GERMAN AND FRENCH ON THE BASIS OF BUSINESS ENGLISH
ФОРМУВАННЯ НАВИЧОК СПІЛКУВАННЯ НІМЕЦЬКОЮ ТА ФРАНЦУЗЬКОЮ МОВАМИ НА БАЗІ ДІЛОВОЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

Part I
У двох частинах
Частина I
Навчально-методичний посібник
для практичної та самостійної роботи
з німецької та французької мов як другої іноземної

Для студентів 3 курсу напряму підготовки 6.030503 «Міжнародна економіка»

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE

"Building communication skills in German and French on the basis of business English" is aimed at absolute beginners and those learners who have good knowledge of English. It can be used on its own or in connection with any major German/French coursebook and it is suitable for self-study, class-based learning or reference purposes.

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

There are 2 parts (German and French), consisting of 16 units in the textbbok. Each unit covers one key grammar topic, which is contrasted with English structures where appropriate. Each topic starts out with an overview. This is followed by detailed explanation in an easy-to-follow step-by-step layout, breaking down complex aspects into simple segments. Examples in English and German/French illustrate each point and introduce relevant vocabulary.

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

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

PART I

INTRODUCING GERMAN

The German language

German (Deutsch) is a member of the western group of the Germanic languages. It is spoken primarily in Germany, Austria, the major part of Switzerland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, the South Tyrol region of Italy, the Opole Voivodship of Poland, parts of Belgium, parts of Romania, the Alsace (Elsass) region of France and parts of Denmark. Additionally, several former colonial possessions of these countries, such as Namibia in Africa, have sizable German-speaking populations. There are German-speaking minorities in several eastern European countries including Russia, and in the United States as well as countries in South America like Argentina. Over 120 million people speak German as their native language. German is the third most popular foreign language, taught worldwide, and the second most popular in Europe.

German and English

German and English are very close to each other. Here are some major similarities:

- Both languages use the Latin alphabet.
- Normally, sentences follow Subject-Verb order.
- Questions have Verb-Subject order or Adverb-Verb-Subject order.
- Both languages have prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, nouns, verbs, interjections, pronouns, and adjectives.
- The indirect object usually comes before the direct object.
- There are contractions in both German and English.
- Many words share the same roots, such as "*word*" and "*Wort*", or "*house*" and "*Haus*".
- Many words, such as "*Football*" and "*Sandwich*" are the same in English and German.

As you can see, German is very much like English. There are, however, differences:

- German has genders; every noun is masculine, feminine, or neuter.

- German has three different words for "you", while English has only one. There are even four if you count the impersonal "man".

- German has more verb forms than English.

- German has more letters than and different pronunciations from English.

- German is the only known written language where all nouns are capitalized, regardless of whether or not it is a proper noun.

- Sometimes in German the verb will be the last word of a sentence.

- There are no helping verbs in German.

- Adjectives will have different endings based on the noun they are modifying in German.

- German is more 'guttural'. In German, you talk in the back of your mouth.

- "I" (ich) is only capitalized if it is the first word of the sentence.

- In German, there are four cases; in English, there are three.

However, next to Dutch, German is one of the easiest languages for English speakers to learn.

If you are an English speaker unfamiliar with German, you may be surprised to learn that English and German are closely related languages and share many words that are very similar. This is particularly true for everyday words in English that are Anglo-Saxon (that is, Germanic) in origin. Consider the following list of English words followed by their German counterparts:

arm ~ der Arm

book ~ das Buch

cat ~ die Katze

father ~ der Vater

finger ~ der Finger

wagon ~ der Wagen

house ~ das House

hand ~ die Hand

June ~ der Juni

man ~ der Mann

mother ~ die Mutter

mouse ~ die Maus

name ~ der Name

son ~ der Sohn

garden ~ der Garten

lamp ~ die Lampe

bush ~ der Busch

    baker ~ der Bäcker

    net ~ das Netz

    storm ~ der Sturm

    hat ~ der Hut

    fire ~ das Feuer

    grass ~ das Gras

    fish ~ der Fisch

    kindergarten ~ der Kindergarten

Of course, even words whose spelling is no different in English and German may be pronounced quite differently. But in reading German, you will see the connections between these languages, even in many of the "small" words (the above examples are all nouns). For example:

This week, my father is with my brother in the city.

Diese Woche ist mein Vater mit meinem Bruder in der Stadt.

Note also the general similarity of sentence structure with English. The only real difference in the German is that the verb is moved forward in the sentence. However, there are many German sentences in which a verb form is the last word in the sentence.

Unfortunately, while German is perhaps the easiest "foreign" language for an English speaker to learn, meanings of words that are spelled similarly are not always identical. These "false friends" can be confusing for the beginner. Further, German is a more structured language than English, with a more complex grammar, and it will

become apparent as you learn German that you will also learn more about English language structure than you might ever recall from your English classes.

Vocabulary and Grammar

In learning to read or speak any language with which you have minimal acquaintance (that is, are not a native speaker of), the two aspects to be mastered are vocabulary and grammar. Acquiring vocabulary is a "simple" matter of memorization. For the language(s) we learn as children, this process is so transparent that we have trouble conceiving of the importance of having a large vocabulary. By the age of conscious recognition of our communicating with others through speech, we have already learned the meaning of thousands of words. Even words we have trouble defining, we readily understand their use in conversation. This process can be "reactivated," as it were, by immersion in a second language: a method of learning a new language by moving to a place where that language is spoken and having to get around and live without use of one's native tongue.

Being not a resident of a German-speaking area, the student of German must put forth substantial effort to learn words, including what they mean, how to pronounce them, and how they are used in sentences. Be sure to "learn"—commit to memory - all of the vocabulary words in each lesson as they are presented. Early lessons have simple sentences because it is assumed that the student's vocabulary is limited. But throughout the text, more complex discourses (often as photo captions) are included to introduce the student to regular German in use. It may be helpful to translate these using a German-English dictionary. Other sources of German, such as newspapers, magazines, web sites, etc., can also be useful in building vocabulary and developing a sense of how German words are put together.

German grammar is more complex than, but sufficiently similar to, English. Thus, "reading" German is possible with minimal vocabulary in the sense that the student should generally recognize the parts of a sentence. With a good dictionary, an English speaker can usually translate a German sentence close to correctly. However, to accurately speak and understand German, you must learn how each word functions

in a sentence. There are eight basic grammatical functions: **case, gender, number, tense, person, mood, voice, and comparison.** How words "signal" these functions is an important aspect of learning a new language. English speakers should know all of these functions and the signals used in English, but it is often the situation that you know perfectly well how to speak English, without understanding much about word-functions and signals. For this reason, this textbook incorporates considerable detail on grammar, including both English and German grammar. When we say German is more complex than English, what we really mean is that the signals used in German are different from and more numerous than those used by English.

Pronunciation

Alphabet

The German alphabet, like English, consists of 26 basic letters. However, there are also combined letters and four umlauted forms (an *umlaut* is the pair of dots placed over certain vowels). The following table includes a listing of all these letters and a guide their pronunciation. As in English, letter sounds can differ depending upon where within a word the letter occurs. The first pronunciation given below (second column) is that in English of the letter (or combination) itself. Reading down this column and pronouncing the "English" words will recite the alphabet *auf Deutsch* ("in German"). Note that letter order is exactly the same as in English, but pronunciation is not for many of the letters. In the list of pronunciation notes, no entry means essentially "pronounced as in English".

A (ah)	Long "a" as "a" in "*father*" (ah); short "a" as "o" in "*come*"
B (bay)	Pronounced as "p" when at the end of a word
C (tsay)	Without a following "h": before "e", "i", "y", "ä", "ö" like the German letter "z" else like "k"
D (day)	Pronounced like "t" when at the end of the word; slightly more "dental"
E (ay)	Long "e" as "a" in "*late*" (ay); there is no movement in the sound like in the English equivalent. Short "e" like "e" in "*pet*". In unstressed syllables like "a" *in* "*about*" *or* "e" in "*garden*"
F (ef)	Pronounced like "f" in "*five*"

G (gay)	Pronounced like "g" in "*get*"; pronounced like "k" when at the end of a word; pronounced like "ich" sound (see below) in the suffix "ig" at the end of words "a"
H (hah)	Like "h" in "*house*" only at the beginning of words or a syllable; else silent
I (ee)	Long "i" as "e" in "*seen*"; short "i" as "i" in "*pit*"
J (jot)	Pronounced like "y" in "*yard*"
K (kah)	Pronounced like "k" in "*kite*"
L (el)	Slightly more dental
M (em)	Pronounced like "m" in "*map*"
N (en)	Slightly more "dental"; in "ng" like in "*singing*"; like in "*finger*" before "a", "I", "o", "u", "y", "ä", "ö", "ü" (only if these vowels don't belong to a suffix)
O (oh)	Long "o" as "o" in "*open*" (oh), there is no movement in the sound as in the English equivalent. Short "o" as "o" in "*pot*"
P (pay)	Pronounced like "p" in "*pet*"
Q (koo)	Pronounced like "k"; only occurs in the combination "qu", which is pronounced like "kv" not "kw"
R (air)	trilled (see below)
S (ess)	In Germany, pronounced like "z"; pronounced like "s" in "*sound*" when at the end of a word, after consonants (except "l", "m", "n", "ng") and before consonants; in Austria, pronounced like "z" only when it appears between two vowels, pronounced like "s" otherwise. Pronounced like "sh" in the beginning of a word before "p" or "t"
T (tay)	Slightly more dental
U (oo)	Long "u" as "oo" in "*moon*"; short "u" as "u" in "*put*"
V (fow)	Pronounced like "f" when at the end of a word and in a few but often used words (in most cases in Germanic origin), in general at the beginning of German geographical and family names. In all other cases like "v"
W (vay)	Pronounced like "v"
X (iks)	Pronounced like "ks"
Y (oopsilon)	Pronounced like in English
Z (tset)	Pronounced like "ts"

Unique German letters

Umlaut letters

Note that umlauts were originally written as "ae", "oe", and "ue".

Ä (ah-umlaut)   Long **ä** pronounced similar to long **e** (ay)

Äu (ah-umlaut-oo)   Pronounced like "oi" in "*oil*"

Ö (oh-umlaut)   No English equivalent sound (see below)

Ü (oo-umlaut)   No English equivalent sound (see below)

7 facts you should know about the umlaut

1.   The word "umlaut" comes from one of the Brothers Grimm.

Jacob Grimm was not only a collector of fairy tales (along with his brother Wilhelm), but also one of the most famous linguists ever. In 1819 he described a sound-change process that affected the historical development of German. He called it *umlaut* from *um* (around) + *laut* (sound).

2. "Umlaut" is originally the name for a specific kind of vowel mutation.

Technically, "umlaut" doesn't refer to the dots, but to the process where, historically, a vowel got pulled into a different position because of influence from another, upcoming vowel.

3. English was also affected by the umlaut mutation.

Ever wonder why the plural of "mouse" is "mice"? Blame umlaut. Way, way back in a time before English had branched off from other Germanic languages, plurals were formed with an *–i* ending. So *mouse* was *mus*, and *mice* was *musi*. That plural *–i* pulled the *u* forward into umlaut. Later, the *–i* plural ending disappeared and a whole bunch of other sound changes happened, but we are left with the echo of that mutated vowel in mouse/mice, as well as in foot/feet, tooth/teeth, and other irregular pairs.

4. Umlauts weren't always written as dots above a vowel.

Since the Middle Ages, umlauted vowels have been indicated in various ways in German. Before the two-dot version became the standard in the 19th century, it was usually written as a tiny "e" above the vowel. It is still sometimes written with an **e** next to the vowel, for example, *Muenchen* for *München*, or *schoen* for *schön*.

5. Not all umlauts are umlauts.

We rather casually use "umlaut" to mean "two little dots above a letter," but not all little dots are umlauts. The mark that prevents two adjacent vowels from

combining into one syllable is called a "diaeresis" or "trema." You see it in French (*naïve*, *Chloë*, *Noël*) and in the pages of the *New Yorker* (coöperate, reëlection). In Spanish it indicates that the *u* should be pronounced in the combination *gu* which is usually pronounced as *g* alone. *Sigue* is "seegay" but *pingüe* is "pingway."

6. How do you alphabetize umlauted vowels? Depends on the language.

In German, the umlaut is ignored for alphabetization purposes, except when it comes to lists of names. Then, **ü, ö**, and **ä** are treated like **ue**, **oe**, and **ae**, respectively, so that variations on the same name (Müller, Mueller) will be grouped together. In Swedish and Finnish the umlauted vowels come at the end of the alphabet (…X,Y,Z,Å,Ä,Ö). In Hungarian and Turkish the umlauted vowels follow their non-umlauted counterparts.

7. In Germany, a Big Mac used to be a Big Mäc.

And the Filet-o-Fish was the Fishmäc. The spelling with the umlaut actually gets German speakers a little closer to the English pronunciation of "Mac." But in 2007 McDonald's took away the umlauts, and now Germans have Big Macs like the rest of us.

The former ligature ß

ß (ess-tset or sharfes ess) Pronounced like "s" in "*set*" or "c" in "*nice*"; see below for uses.

Deutsche Aussprache - German Pronunciation Guide

Vokale – Vowels

German vowels are either long or short, but never drawled as in some English dialects. A simple method of recognizing whether a vowel is likely to be long or short in a German word is called **the Rule of double consonants**. If a vowel is followed by a single consonant — as in "*haben*" (have), "*dir*" (you, dat.), "*Peter*" (Peter), and "*schon*" (already) — the vowel sound is usually long. If there are two or more consonants following the vowel — as in "*falsch*" (false), "*elf*" (eleven), "*immer*" (always), and "*noch*" (still) — the vowel sound is usually short. There are some German words that are exceptions to the double consonant rule: "*bin*", "*bis*", "*das*", "*es*", "*hat*", and "*was*" all have short vowel sounds. It is also the case that the silent

"h" does not count as a consonant and the preceding vowel is always long. *"Ihnen"* is an example.

This "rule" is applied to the use of "ss" vs. "ß" (see below), in that "ß" is treated as a single consonant. Thus, the vowel before "ß" in *"der Fuß"* (foot) is long, while that before "ss" in *"das Fass"* (cask) is short.

- **au** – "Ah-oo" is pronounced like "ow" in English *"cow"*. German examples are *"blau"* (blue) und *"auch"* (too).

- **äu** – "Ah-umlaut-oo" is pronounced like the German "**eu**" (ay-oo; see next). In written and printed German, "ae" can be an acceptable substitute for "ä" if the latter is unavailable.

- **eu** – "Ay-oo" is pronounced like "oi" in English word *"oil"*. German examples are *"neun"* (nine) and *"heute"* (today).

- **ie** and **ei** – "Ee-ay" has exactly the same sound as a German long "i"; that is, like the "ee" in *"seen"*. "Ay-ee" is pronounced like the "ei" in *"height"*. Note that this appears to be the opposite for these two vowel combinations in English, where the rule is that the first vowel is long and the second is silent. Consider this word: *"die"* – in German it is pronounced *"dee"*, in English like *"dye"*. The word *"mein"* in German is the English *"mine"*. In effect, "ie" follows the same rule as in English, with the first vowel long ("ee" in German) and the second vowel silent; "ei" is the equivalent sound in German to the English long "i" as in *"mine"*.

Konsonanten – Consonants

Most German consonants are pronounced similar to the way they are in English. Details of certain consonant sounds and uses are discussed further here:

- **ch** - pronounced like "k" in many words of Greek origin like *"Christ"* or *"Charakter"*, but like "sh" in words of French origin, and "tch" in words of English origin. The German *"sechs"* (six) is pronounced very much similar to the English *"sex"*. See also the discussion of "ich-sound" below. The pronunciation of words with an initial "ch" followed by a

vowel, as in *"China"* or *"Chemie"* varies: in High German the "ich-sound" is the standard pronunciation, but in South German dialect and Austrian German "k" is preferred.

- **d**, **t**, **l**, and **n** – these letters are pronounced similarly in English and German. However, in pronouncing these letters, the German extends his tongue up to the back of the base of the teeth, creating a more dental sound. As noted above, "d" is a "dental d" except at the end of a word, where it becomes a "dental t".

- **sch** – in German "Ess-tsay-hah" is pronounced like "sh", not "sk" as in English. German word example: *"Schüler"* (student).

- **sp** and **st** – where the combinations "ess-pay" or "ess-tay" appear at the beginning of a word, the "ess" sound becomes an "sh" sound. German examples are *"spielen"* (play) and *"spät"* (late). An interesting "exception" is a word like *"Bleistift"* (pencil), where the inside "sti" is pronounced "shti"– however, this is a compound word from *"Blei"* (lead) and *"Stift"* (pen). Some local dialects however pronounce all occurances sharp" (with an "ess" sound -- typical for North German dialects, especially near Hamburg) or "soft" (with an "sh" sound -- typical for the Swabian dialect).

- **ß** – The former ligature (of "ss" or "sz"), "ess-tset" is widely used in German, but its use is somewhat more restricted in very modern German (always pronounced like "s" in *"sound"*). "ß" is used for the sound "s" in cases where "ss" or "s" can't be used: this is especially after long vowels and diphthongs (cf. the English usage of "c" like in *"vice"* or *"grocery"*). Thus, the vowel before "ß" in *"der Fuß"* (foot) is long, while that before "ss" in *"das Fass"* (cask) is short. "ß" appears after diphthongs ("au", "ei", "eu") because they are long. In written and printed German, "ss" can be an acceptable substitute for "ß" if the letter is unavailable. The Greek letter, β, is not to be used as a substitute for "ß". Note that in Switzerland, "ß" is always written as "ss".

German sounds not found in English

There are sounds in the German language that have no real equivalent in the English language. These are discussed here:

- **r** – German language has two pronunciations for **r**: The more common is similiar to the French **r**, a guttural sound resembling a fractionated **g**, as found in Arabic غ or some pronunciations of modern Greek γ. The second pronunciation is a "rolled" **r** as in Spanish or Scots. Its use is limited to Switzerland and parts of Southern Germany.

- **ö** (oh-umlaut) – The word "umlaut" means "change in sound" and an umlauted "o" changes to a sound with no equivalent in English. The "long ö" is made by first sounding "oo" as in "*moon*", then pursing the lips as if to whistle, and changing the sound to "a" as in "*late*". An example word is "*schön*" (beautiful). The "short ö" sound is made by first sounding "oo", pursing the lips, and changing the sound to "e" as in "*pet*". A "short ö" sounds actually very similar to the "i" in "*sir*". An example word is "*zwölf*" (twelve). If you have problems pronouncing "**ö**", do not replace it by "**o**" but by "**e**" (as in "*elf*") like in many German dialects. In written and printed German, "**oe**" can be an acceptable substitute for "**ö**" if the latter is unavailable.

- **ü** (oo-umlaut) – As with "ö", "oo-umlaut" is a rounded vowel sound with no English equivalent. The "long ü" is made by first sounding "oo" as in "*moon*", then pursing the lips as if to whistle, and changing the sound to "ee" as in "*seen*". An example word is "*früh*". The "short ü" sound is made by first sounding "oo", pursing the lips, and changing the sound to "i" as in "*pit*". An example word is "fünf" (five). If you have problems pronouncing **ü**, do not replace it by "u" but by "i" (as in "*fish*") like in many German dialects. In written and printed German, "ue" can be an acceptable substitute for "ü" if the latter is unavailable.

- **ach** – The letter combination "ch" as in "*auch*" (also) is called the "ach-sound" and resembles a throat-clearing (guttural) sound. It is used after "a", "o", "u", and "au". It is pronounced somewhat like "och" in "Loch *Ness*" ("lock", not "loke") in its original form. The Hebrew letter ח and the Arabic letter خ as well as continental Spanish **j** are pronounced the same as the "ach-sound".

- **ich** – The "ich-sound" in German is also somewhat guttural, like a more forceful "h" in English "*hue*", "*huge*". Another approach is to say "sh" while (almost) touching the palatine not with the tip but with the middle of your tongue. In the word "*richtig*" ("*correct*") both the "ich" and the final "ig" have this sound. It is used after "e", "i", "y", "ä", "ö", 'ü', "ei", "eu", "äu", after consonant-letters and sometimes at the beginning of words (especially before "e", "i", "y", "ä", "ö"). If you have problems pronouncing "ich", replace with the sound of "*hue*" or by "sh" but never by a hard "k" (never "ick")! In some parts of Germany "ich", as well as the final "ig", is pronounced "ish". In Austria and some local dialects of Germany the final "ig'" (as in "*richtig*") is simply pronounced as in English "*dig*".

Syllable Stress

The general rule in German is that words are stressed on the first syllable. However, there are exceptions. Almost all exceptions are of Latin, French, or Greek origin. Mostly these are words stressed on the last syllable, as shown by the following:

Vo=`kal*          *Kon=so=`nant   *Lek=ti=`on*

UNIT ONE

WHAT'S DIFFERENT IN GERMAN? BASIC TIPS AND PATTERNS

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

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

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

Spelling – capital letters and different characters

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

Capital letters for nouns

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

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

Der Mann und die Frau arbeiten jeden Tag am Computer.

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

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

Different characters

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

ß – the sharp 's'

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

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

heißen – *to be called*

Straße – *street*

groß – *big*

The umlauts – **ä, ö, ü**

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

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

Three genders

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

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

der **Tisch** – the table (*masculine*)

die **Tür** – the door (*feminine*)

das **Fenster** – the window (*neuter*)

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

Endings

One of the principal differences between English and German is that in German words take specific endings depending on their relationship to other parts of the sentence. This applies to verbs, articles and possessive adjectives and adjectives.

Verbs

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

Ich geh<u>e</u>. – I go.

Er geh<u>t</u>. – He goes.

Sie geh<u>en</u>. – They go.

Articles and possessive adjectives

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

Ist das *ein* Mann? – Is that a man?

Da drüben sehe ich *einen* Mann. – I can see a man over there.

Adjectives

These words, which describe the quality of a noun, such as a *'new'* computer, an *'intelligent'* woman, a *'beautiful'* house, follow a similar pattern when they appear in front of a noun. In German adjectives can have different endings when they are linked to a masculine noun (**ein neu<u>er</u> Computer**), a feminine noun (**eine intelligent<u>e</u> Frau**) or a neuter noun (**ein schön<u>es</u> Haus**).

Cases

One of the most important features of German is that you can tell what function a noun performs in a sentence by its ending and the form of the article. These show

its case. For example, a noun can be the subject of the sentence, i.e. the 'agent' of what is happening:

Der Hund **beißt den Mann.** – *The dog* bites the man.

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

Der Hund beißt *den Mann.* – *The dog* bites *the man.*

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

Word order

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

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

Er *hat* **zwei Brüder.** – He has two brothers.

Morgen *fahre* **ich nach Manchester.** – Tomorrow I'm going to Manchester.

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

Öffnet **das Fenster!** – Open the window, please.

Hast **Du morgen Zeit?** – Are you free tomorrow?

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

Ich kann morgen nicht kommen, weil ich nach Manchester *fahre.*

I can't come tomorrow because I'm going to Manchester.

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

Morgen muss ich nach Manchester *fahren.*

Tomorrow I have to go to Manchester.

Tenses

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

Ich *arbeite*. – I am working.

Ich *arbeite* bei Harrods. – I work at Harrods.

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

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

UNIT TWO
VERBS IN THE PRESENT TENSE

What is a verb?

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

Verbs in English

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

Verb Formation

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

infinitive	stem	translation
kommen	*komm*	*to come*
wohnen	*wohn*	*to live*
hören	*hör*	*to hear*

Verb endings – an overview

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

		komm-en	*wohn-en*	*hör-en*
ich (I)	**-e**	komm*e*	wohn*e*	hör*e*
du (you, informal)	**-st**	komm*st*	wohn*st*	hör*st*
Sie (you, formal)	**-en**	komm*en*	wohn*en*	hör*en*
er/sie/es (he/she/it)	**-t**	komm*t*	wohn*t*	hör*t*

wir (we)	**-en**	komm*en*	wohn*en*	hör*en*
ihr (you, plural, informal)	**-t**	komm*t*	wohn*t*	hör*t*
Sie (you, plural, formal)	**-en**	komm*en*	wohn*en*	hör*en*
sie (they)	**-en**	komm*en*	wohn*en*	hör*en*

A verb with its ending is called a *finite verb* (an opposed to the infinitive which does not have a meaningful ending). Pay attention that this is an important grammatical term.

Verb endings in more detail

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

ich ('I')

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

Ich wohn*e* **in Frankfurt.** – I live in Frankfurt.

Ich **spiel*e* Gitarre.** – I play the guitar.

du/Sie ('you', singular)

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

Woher komm*st* du? – Where do you come from? *(informal)*

Wo wohn*st* du? – Where do you live? *(informal)*

Woher komm*en* Sie? – Where do you come from? *(formal)*

Wo wohn*en* Sie? – Where do you live? *(formal)*

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

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

Er spielt Tennis. – He plays tennis.

Woher kommt sie? – Where does he come from?

Es schneit. – It is snowing.

wir ('we')

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

Wir wohnen in Köln. – We live in Cologne.

Wir lernen Deutsch. – We learn German.

ihr/Sie ('you', plural)

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

Wo wohnt ihr? – Where do you live? (plural, informal)

Was macht ihr hier? – What are you doing here? (plural, informal)

Wo wohnen Sie? – Where do you live? (plural, formal)

Was mach<u>en</u> <u>Sie</u> hier? – What are you doing here? (plural, formal)

sie ('they')

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

Und woher komm<u>en</u> <u>sie</u>? – And where do they come from?

Jutta und Bernd – was mach<u>en</u> <u>sie</u>? – Jutta und Bernd – what are they doing?

Uses of **sie/Sie**

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

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

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

One present tense in German

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

Er trinkt Bier. – He drinks beer. *or* He is drinking beer.

Sie spielt Fußball. – She plays football. *or* She is playing football.

Exceptions

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

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

Exercise 2.1

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

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

ich	**-e**
du	
Sie	
er/sie/es	

wir	
ihr	
Sie	
sie	

Exercise 2.2

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

Example: kommen → Woher _____du? – Ich _____ aus Frankfurt.

→ Woher *kommst* du? – Ich *komme* aus Frankfurt.

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

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

Exercise 2.3

Supply the missing endings.

Example: Anna komm _____ aus Wien.

      → Anna komm**t** aus Wien.

1. Ich heiß_____ Ulrike.

2. Komm_____ du wirklich aus London?

3. Peter wohn_____ im Stadtzentrum.

4. Das ist Pia. Sie geh_____ sehr gern ins Restaurant.

5. Wie heiß_____ Sie?

6. Ich heiß_____ Petra Schmidt.

7. Und was mach_____ Sie beruflich?

8. Ich studier_____ Physik.

9. Und woher komm_____ ihr?

10. Was mach_____ ihr hier?

11. Und wo wohn_____ ihr?

12. Wir komm_____ aus Süddeutschland.

13. Wir geh_____ zu einem Fußballspiel.

14. Wir bleib_____ drei Tage.

15. Sie (Pier und Jörg) lern_____ Englisch.

16. Basel lieg_____ in der Schweiz.

17. Komm_____ ihr aus Freiburg?

18. Und woher komm_____ du?

19. Ann und Tina spiel_____ gern Badminton.

20. Wir find_____ Berlin sehr interessant.

Exercise 2.4

Translate the following sentences:

1. I live in Berlin.

2. He drinks beer.

3. She plays tennis.

4. Carla and Sophia are playing football.

5. Where do you come from? (Use (*a*) the **du** and (*b*) the **Sie** form.)

6. Where do you live? (Use (*a*) the **du**, (*b*) the **Sie-**form and (*c*) the **ihr** form .)

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

UNIT THREE

VERB VARIATIONS AND IRREGULAR VERBS

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

Irregular forms in English

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

Spelling variations – an overview

Stem endings in -d or -t

There are some German verbs where the stem ends in **-d** or **-t**. It would be difficult to pronounce the **-st** endings for **du** and the **t** ending for **er/sie/es** and **ihr** if

-st or **-t** was directly added to the stem. This is why an **e** is put before these endings:

infinitive	stem	finite verb	meaning
arbeiten	**arbeit**	**du arbeitest**	to work
kosten	**kost**	**es kostet**	to cost
reden	**red**	**ihr redet**	to talk

Verbs such as atmen and regnen

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

infinitive	stem	finite verb	meaning
atmen	**atm**	**du atmest**	to breathe
regnen	**regn**	**es regnet**	to rain

Examples:

Du atmest sehr heftig. – You're breathing rather heavily.

Herr Maier arbeit<u>et</u> bei Siemens. – Mr. Maier works for Siemens.

Es regn<u>et</u> schon wieder! – It's raining again!

Das Buch kost<u>et</u> 5 Euro. – The book costs 5 euros.

Ihr red<u>et</u> zu viel. – You're talking too much.

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

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

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

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

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

infinitive	*finite verb*	*meaning*
reisen	**du reist**	to travel
küssen	**er küsst**	to kiss
heißen	**du heißt**	to be called

Examples:

Reist du wieder nach Italien? – Are you travelling to Italy again?

Du heißt doch Frank, oder? – You're called Frank, aren't you?

Susi küsst gern. – Susi likes kissing.

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

infinitive	*finite verb*	*meaning*
faxen	**du faxt**	to fax

tanzen	**du tanzt**	to dance
schwitzen	**du schwitzt**	to sweat

Irregular verbs with vowel changes

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

infinitive	*finite verb*	*meaning*
schlafen	**er schläft**	to sleep
essen	**sie isst**	to eat
sprechen	**du sprichst**	to speak
lesen	**du liest**	to read
sehen	**er sieht**	to see

Examples:

Liest du gern Harry Potter? – Do you like reading Harry Potter?

Er sieht ein Fußballspiel. – He is watching a football match.

Sie isst gern Pizza. – She likes eating pizza.

Sprichst du Deutsch? – Do you speak German?

Sie schläft bis elf Uhr. – She sleeps until eleven o'clock.

Looking out for patterns

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

Here they are in more detail.

*Changes from **a** to **ä***

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

fahren → du fährst, er/sie/es fährt (to drive)

halten → du hältst, er/sie/es hält (to hold, to stop)

tragen → du trägst, er/sie/es trägt (to carry)

waschen → du wäscht, er/sie/es wäscht (to wash)

Examples:

Du fährst morgen nach Hause. – You're going home tomorrow.

Gleich fällt es runter! – Any moment now it will fall (down)!

Er trägt ein neues T-Shirt. – He wears a new T-shirt.

Changes from e to i

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

geben → du gibst, er/sie/es gibt (to give)

helfen → du hilfst, er/sie/es hilft (to help)

treffen → du triffst, er/sie/es trifft (to meet)

werfen → du wirfst, er/sie/es wirft (to throw)

Examples:

Er hilft Frau Maier. – He helps Frau Maier.

Triffst du heute Angelika? – Are you meeting Angelika today?

Er wirft den Ball zu Beckham. – He throws the ball to Beckham.

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

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

Examples:

Nimmst du Kaffee oder Tee? – Do you take coffee or tea?

Er nimmt ein heißes Bad. – He is taking a hot bath.

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

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

s<u>e</u>hen → du s<u>ie</u>hst, er/sie/es s<u>ie</u>ht (to see)

l<u>e</u>sen → du l<u>ie</u>st, er/sie/es l<u>ie</u>st (to read)

Another important verb is **empfehlen**:

empf<u>e</u>hlen → du empf<u>ie</u>hlst, er/sie/es empf<u>ie</u>hlt (to recommend)

Examples:

Er s<u>ie</u>ht Jutta nicht. – He doesn't see Jutta.

Sie empf<u>ie</u>hlt Tee. – She recommends tea.

Where to look for irregular forms

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

Other irregular verbs

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

- ✓ the verbs **sein** ('to be') and **haben** ('to have');
- ✓ the modal verbs.

Exercise 3.1

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

1. arbeiten

2. tanzen

3. heißen

4. reisen

Exercise 3.2

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

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

Exercise 3.3

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

1. Ich heiße Hans Homann. → Er heißt Hans Homann.

2. Ich komme aus Wien.

3. Ich arbeite für das Österreichische Fernsehen.

4. Ich spreche natürlich Deutsch, aber auch Englisch und Spanisch.

5. Ich lese gern Kriminalromane.

6. Ich fahre auch gern Ski und schwimme viel.

7. Ich sehe gern alte Filme mit Marlene Dietrich.

8. Ich schlafe oft lange.

9. Ich reise gern.

10. Und ich helfe am Wochenende alten Leuten.

Exercise 3.4
Translate the following sentences into German:

1. She reads a book.

2. Peter speaks German and English.

3. We speak German and Spanish.

4. Magda likes eating pizza.

5. I'll have a beer, please.

6. He has a beer.

7. She is wearing a T-shirt.

8. It is raining.

Exercise 3.5

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

UNIT FOUR

IRREGULAR VERB: *HABEN* AND *SEIN*

Different pattens

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

lesen → du l<u>ie</u>st, er/sie/es l<u>ie</u>st (to read)

essen → du <u>i</u>sst, er/sie/es <u>i</u>sst (to eat)

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

Haben and *sein* – an overview

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

	HABEN	*SEIN*
ich (I)	**habe**	**bin**
du (you, *informal*)	**hast**	**bist**
Sie (you, *formal*)	**haben**	**sind**
er/sie/es (he/she/it)	**hat**	**ist**
wir (we)	**haben**	**sind**
ihr (you, *plural*, *informal*)	**habt**	**seid**
Sie (you, *plural*, *formal*)	**haben**	**sind**
sie (they)	**haben**	**sind**

Here are both verbs in more detail.

Haben in more detail

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

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

The endings for **ich**, **wir**, **ihr** and **sie** are regular: you add them to the stem in the normal way: **ich hab-e**, **wir hab-en**, **ihr hab-t**, **sie hab-en**.

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

Examples:

Ich habe viel zu tun. – I have a lot to do.

Claus hat eine Schwester. – Claus has one sister.

Haben Sie Wechselgeld? – Do you have change?

Sie haben ein neues Auto. – They have a new car.

*Use of **haben***

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

Ich habe gesungen. – I have sung.

Useful phrases

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

Hunger haben	to be hungry	**Ich habe Hunger.**
Durst haben	to be thirsty	**Er hat Durst.**
Zeit haben	to be free/have time	**Du hast Zeit.**
Langweile haben	to be bored	**Wir haben Langeweile.**
Kopfschmerzen haben	to have a headache	**Sie hat Kopfschmerzen.**

***Sein** in more detail*

Completely irregular

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

Examples:

Ich bin aus Deutschland. – I'm from Germany.

Sind Sie Herr Schuhmacher? – Are you Mr. Schuhmacher?

Du bist sehr schön. – You're very beautiful.

Er ist Amerikaner. – He is an American.

Sie ist Lehrerin. – She is a teacher.

Es ist schwer. – It's difficult.

Entschuldigung, wir sind verspätet. – Apologies, we are late.

Seid Ihr verheiratet? – Are you married?

Wir sind aus Großbritannien. – We're from Great Britain.

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

*Use of **sein***

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

Reminder – only one present tense in German

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

Exercise 4.1

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

Example: Ich _____ eine Schwester.

         → Ich *habe* eine Schwester.

1. _____ du heute Abend Zeit?

2. Wir _____ neue Nachbarn.

3. Er _____ eine Schwester und einen Bruder.

4. _____ ihr etwas Geld?

5. Petra _____ ein neues Auto.

6. _____ Sie ein Zimmer frei?

7. Ich _____ Hunger.

8. Susanne und Frank _____ eine neue Wohnung.

Exercise 4.2

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

Example: Was _____ Carsten von Beruf? – Er _____ Student.

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

1. _____ Sie Engländer? – Nein, ich _____ aus Australien.

2. _____ du aus Deutschland? – Ja, ich komme aus der Nähe von Bonn.

3. _____ ihr aus München? – Nein, wir _____ aus Nürnberg.

4. Was machen denn Kathrin und Boris? – Beide _____ Studenten.

5. Was _____ Nele von Beruf? – Sie _____ Designerin.

Exercise 4.3

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

Exercise 4.4

Translate the following sentences into German.

1. We are from New York.

2. They are from Australia.

3. Mario is from Munich.

4. Are you Mr. Becker? (Use (*a*) the **du** and (*b*) the **Sie** form.)

5. He has one sister.

6. Do you have time? (Use (*a*) the **du** and (*b*) the **Sie** form.)

7. They are students.

8. Berlin is the capital of Germany.

9. I have a flat.

10. We are hungry.

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

UNIT 5

SEPARABLE VERBS IN THE PRESENT TENSE

What is a separable verb?

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

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

Comparison with English

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

abfahren	to depart
abholen	to pick up
abwaschen	to do the washing up
anfangen	to start
ankommen	to arrive
anrufen	to phone
aufhören	to stop
aufräumen	to tidy up
aufstehen	to get up
ausgehen	to go out
einkaufen	to go shopping
einladen	to invite
einschlafen	to fall asleep
fernsehen	to watch television
saubermachen	to clean
stattfinden	to take place
vorbereiten	to prepare
(sich) vorstellen	to introduce oneself

Prefixes go at the end

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

anrufen → Herr Nolte *ruft* seine Frau *an*.

41

Mr. Nolte rings his wife.

aufstehen → Bernhard *steht* um fünf Uhr morgens *auf*.

Bernhard gets up at five o'clock in the morning.

ausgehen → Corinna *geht* jeden Tag *aus*.

Corinna goes out every day.

fernsehen → Die kinder *sehen* jeden Abend *fern*.

The children watch television every evening.

einkaufen → Er *kauft* im Supermarkt *ein*.

He goes shopping in the supermarket.

stattfinden → Das Meeting *findet* am Montag *statt*.

The meeting takes place on Monday.

Separable verbs in two clauses

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

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

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

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

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

Verbs can have more than one prefix

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

*an*kommen   to arrive

*mit*kommen	to come along
*weiter*kommen	to get on
*herein*kommen	to come in
*heraus*kommen	to come out
*nach*kommen	to come later
*zurück*commen	to come back

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

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

How to find out whether a verb is separable

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

Common separable prefixes

The most common separable prefixes are:

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

Some inseparable prefixes

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

Er *be*zahlt mit seiner Kreditkarte.	He pays with his credit card.
Sie *ver*kauft ihren alten Computer.	She is selling her old computer.

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

More about separable verbs

As a beginner you will probably use separable verbs most often as explained above. However, separable verbs occur also in the imperative, in combination with modal verbs, and in the perfect and future tense. If you cannot find a separable verb

in a verb list or dictionary, look up the verbs without its prefix. So, for example, to find out the simple past tense form of "*abfahren*", look up "*fahren*" in the verb list.

Exercise 5.1

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

Example: *ausstellen*   Jens _____   den Wecker um sieben Uhr_____ .

                          → Jens *stellt* den Wecker um sieben Uhr *aus*.

1. Jens_____um halb acht Uhr_____   . (aufstehen)

2. Er _____ seine Arbeit um neun Uhr _____ . (anfangen)

3. Mittags _____ er seine Freundin _____ . (anrufen)

4. Um siebzehn Uhr _____ er mit seiner Arbeit _____ . (aufhören)

5. Nach der Arbeit _____ er im Supermarkt _____ . (einkaufen)

6. Abends _____ er _____ . (fernsehen)

7. Er _____ mit seiner Freundin_____ . (ausgehen)

8. Um Mitternacht _____ er meistens _____ . (ausgehen)

Exercise 5.2

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

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

Exercise 5.3

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

1. Herr und Frau Conradi **stehen** um sieben Uhr **auf**.

2. Die Kinder _____ ihr Zimmer _____ .

3. Er _____ immer im Supermarkt _____ .

4. Wir gehen ins Kino. _____ du _____ ?

5. Frau Schmidt _____ mit dem Rauchen_____ .

6. Wann _____ das Konzert _____ ?

7. Herr Claus liebt Seifenopern. Er _____ jeden Tag _____ .

8. Wann _____ der nächste Zug nach Hamburg _____ ?

9. Wir _____ viele Gäste zu unserer Party _____ .

10. Sie kauft eine Telefonkarte und _____ ihre Mutter _____ .

Exercise 5.4

Translate the following sentences:

1. I get up at six o'clock.

2. I start my work at 8 o'clock.

3. The meeting takes place on Monday.

4. When does the train depart?

5. When does the train arrive?

6. Michael is tidying up and his children are watching television.

7. Are you coming along to the cinema?

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

UNIT 6

IMPERATIVES

What is the imperative?

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

The imperative in English

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

Go home! *Open* your books! *Close* the window!

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

Four different forms in German

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

Imperatives – an overview

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

	singular		*plural*	
	du	**Sie**	**ihr**	**Sie**
kommen	komm!	kommen Sie!	kommt!	kommen Sie!
warten	warte!	warten Sie!	wart!	warten Sie!
sprechen	sprich leise!	sprechen Sie leise!	sprecht leise!	sprechen Sie leise!
anfangen	fang an!	fangen Sie an!	fangt an!	fangen Sie an!
haben	hab Geduld!	haben Sie Geduld!	habt Geduld!	haben Sie Geduld!
sein	sei vorsichtig!	Seien Sie vorsichtig!	Seid vorsichtig!	Seien Sie vorsichtig!

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

Imperatives in more detail

Here are the different forms in more detail.

Addressing one person informally (du form)

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

Formation

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

| **komm-en** | → | komm! | komm her! | come (here)! |
| **trink-en** | | trink! | trink weniger! | drink less! |

Irregular forms

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

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

| **warten** | → | wart (+-e) | warte! | wait! |
| **atmen** | | atm (+ -e) | atme schneller! | breathe faster! |

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

| **sprechen** | → | sprich | sprich leise! | talk quietly! |
| **lesen** | | lies | Lies die Zeitung! | Read the newspaper! |

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

| **fahren** | → | fahr | fahr rechts! | drive on the right! |
| **tragen** | | trag | trag das rote Kleid! | wear the red dress! |

Separable verbs

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

| **anfangen** | → | fang ... an | Fang an! | start! |
| **mitmachen** | | mach ... mit | mach mit! | join us! |

Haben and sein

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

| **hab-en** | → | hab | hab Geduld! | be patient! |

sei-n   sei   sei vorsichtig!   be careful!

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

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

Formation

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

kommen   →   kommen Sie, bitte!   Please come!

warten   warten Sie!   wait!

Separable verbs

Separable verbs split up again:

anfangen   →   fangen Sie bitte an!   Please start!

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

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

Formation

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

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

Separable verbs split off their prefix.

Examples:

kommen   →   kommt, bitte!   Please come!

warten   wartet auf uns!   wait for us!

aufhören   hört mit dem Reden auf!   stop talking!

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

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

kommen	→	kommen Sie, meine Herren!	Gentlemen, please come!
warten		warten Sie!	wait!
eintreten		Bitte treten Sie ein!	Please enter!

Verb in first position

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

Exclamation marks

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

Frequent use

The imperative is used quite frequently in German. It is not impolite or rude to do so. English tends to use more elaborate structures, often in question form, when asking somebody to do something: "Could you open the window, please?" Although German quite often uses similar phrases, be prepared for imperatives as well.

Exercise 6.1

Complete these commands by using the verbs in brackets.

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

1. _____ Sie mir noch ein Bier, bitte! (bringen)

2. _____ Sie bitte die Rechnung! (schreiben)

3. _____ Sie doch bitte von Ihrem Urlaub! (erzählen)

4. _____ Sie bitte noch fünf Minuten! (warten)

5. _____ Sie _____ ! (anfangen)

6. _____ Sie mit dem Rauchen _____ ! (aufhören)

7. _____ Sie bitte ruhig! (sein)

8. _____ Sie ein bisschen Geduld! (haben)

Exercise 6.2

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

Example: 1. Bring mir noch ein Bier, bitte.

Exercise 6.3

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

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

1. mehr Gemüse / essen

2. mehr mit dem Fahrrad / fahren

3. mit dem Rauchen / aufhören

4. weniger / fernsehen

5. weniger Tabletten / nehmen

6. mehr Bücher über Gesundheit / lesen

7. mehr / schlafen

8. relaxter / sein

Exercise 6.4

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

1. Please start.

2. Open the window.

3. Could you bring me the bill, please?

4. Be careful.

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

UNIT 7

QUESTIONS

Two types of questions

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

Similar use in English and German

Both types are frequently used in English and German:

Interrogative

| Where do you come from? | Woher kommen Sie? |
| Where do you live? | Wo wohnen Sie? |

Yes or no question

| Have you got brothers and sisters? | Haben Sie Geschwister? |
| Is this your mobile? | Ist das Ihr Handy? |

Here are both types in more detail.

Interrogative or 'w-questions' in detail

Frequently used question words

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

wer?	who?
was?	what?
wo?	where?
woher?	where ... from?
wohin?	where ... (to)?
wann?	when?
wie?	how? what?
wie lange?	how long?
wie viel?	how much?
wie viele?	how many?

wie oft?	how often?
warum?	why?

Examples

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

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

Useful points

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

Wie used for names and addresses

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

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

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

Use of *wo,* *wohin* **and** *woher*

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

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

How to ask about professions and where you work

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

Was sind Sie von Beruf?	What do you do for a living?
	lit. What are you by profession?

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

Wo arbeiten Sie?	Whom do you work for?
	lit. Where do you work?

Question words in first position

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

question word	finite verb	subject	other elements
Woher	**kommen**	**Sie?**	
Wohin	**fährt**	**Juliane**	**am Wochenende?**

Yes and no questions in detail

Formation

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

finite verb	subject	other elements
Kommt	**Peter**	**aus Berlin?**
Wohnen	**Sie**	**im Hotel „Zur Sonne"?**
Trinkst	**du**	**gern?**

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

statement	question
Peter kommt aus Berlin.	**Kommt Peter aus Berlin?**
Sie wohnen im Hotel „Zur Sonne".	**Wohnen Sie im Hotel „Zur Sonne"?**

Simpler structure than English

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

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

Sprechen Sie Deutsch?	Do you speak German?
Arbeitet er bei MTV Deutschland?	Does he work for MTV Germany?
Läuft sie wirklich jeden Tag 10 km?	Does she really run 10 km each day?

German is much simpler than English in this respect.

Exercise 7.1

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

wo   wie   wie   wann   wo   was   wie   wie   woher   wie

1. **Wie** heißen Sie?

2. _____ wohnen Sie?

3. _____ ist Ihre E-Mail-Adresse?

4. _____ arbeiten Sie?

5. _____ sind Sie von Beruf?

6. _____ kommen Sie eigentlich?

7. _____viel kostet das?

8. _____ beginnt das Konzert?

9. _____ viel Uhr ist es?

10._____viele Einwohner hat Deutschland?

Exercise 7.2

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

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

1. _____? → Mein Name ist Oliver Gehrs.

2. _____? → Ich bin Journalist.

3. _____? → Meine Arbeit beginnt meistens um 8.00 Uhr.

4. _____? → Ja, die Arbeit ist sehr interessant. Manchmal aber auch ein wenig stressig.

5. _____? → Ja, ich habe Kinder. Eine Tochter und zwei Söhne.

6. _____? → Ja, ich bin seit fast 15 Jahren verheiratet.

7. _____? → Ich lese gern, ich gehe gern ins Kino und ich schwimme auch viel.

8. _____? → Nein, ich spreche kein Spanisch. Ich spreche aber sehr gut Englisch.

Exercise 7.3

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

1. What is your name?

2. Where do you come from?

3. What is your e-mail address?

4. What is the time?

5. Are you married?

6. Do you have children?

7. Do you speak English?

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

UNIT EIGHT

NOUNS AND GENDER

What is a noun?

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

Biological gender in English

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

Three genders in German

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

Masculine – **der**	*der* **Mann,** *der* **Tisch**	the man, the table
Feminine – **die**	*die* **Frau,** *die* **Tür**	the woman, the door
Neuter – **das**	*das* **Kind,** *das* **Fenster**	the child, the window

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

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

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

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

How to find the gender of a noun

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

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

Clues for masculine nouns

Typical endings

The following endings usually indicate that a noun is masculine:

-er	**der Comput*er*, der Weck*er***	computer, alarm clock
-ig	**der Hon*ig*, der Käf*ig***	honey, cage
-ismus	**der Ideal*ismus*, der Kapital*ismus***	idealism, capitalism
-ling	**der Früh*ling*, der Schil*ling***	spring, shilling
-or	**der Mot*or*, der Reakt*or***	engine, reactor

Groups of nouns

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

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

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

Clues for feminine nouns

Typical feminine endings

The following endings usually indicate that a noun is feminine:

-ei	**die Bäck<u>ei</u>, die Türk<u>ei</u>**	bakery, Turkey
-enz	**die Intellig<u>enz</u>, die Differ<u>enz</u>**	intelligence, difference
-heit	**die Frei<u>heit</u>, die Dumm<u>heit</u>**	freedom, stupidity
-ie	**die Demokrat<u>ie</u>, die Phantas<u>ie</u>**	democracy, imagination
-ion	**die Nat<u>ion</u>, die Kommunikat<u>ion</u>**	nation, communication
-keit	**die Schwierig<u>keit</u>, die Möglich<u>keit</u>**	difficulty, possibility/ opportunity
-tät	**die Universi<u>tät</u>, die Fakul<u>tät</u>**	university, faculty
-schaft	**die Mann<u>schaft</u>, die Land<u>schaft</u>**	team, landscape
-ung	**die Wohn<u>ung</u>, die Zeit<u>ung</u>**	flat, newspaper
-ur	**die Kult<u>ur</u>, die Nat<u>ur</u>**	culture, nature

Note also that about ninety per cent of nouns ending in **-e** are feminine: **die Adresse** 'address', **die Flasche** 'bottle', **die Krawatte** 'tie'.

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

Groups of nouns

Nouns which tend to be feminine are:

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

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

Clues for neuter nouns

Typical endings

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

-chen	**das Mäd<u>chen</u>, das Mär<u>chen</u>**	girl, fairy tale
-lein	**das Fräu<u>lein</u>, das Männ<u>lein</u>**	Miss, little man
-ma	**das Kli<u>ma</u>, das The<u>ma</u>**	climate, theme/topic
-ment	**das Doku<u>ment</u>, das Instru<u>ment</u>**	document, instrument
-o	**das Kin<u>o</u>, das Bür<u>o</u>**	cinema, office
-um	**das Alb<u>um</u>, das Zentr<u>um</u>**	album, centre

Important exceptions include: **die Firma** 'company'.

Groups of nouns

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

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

Compound nouns

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

der Wein + *die Flasche* → *die* **Wein***flasche* (wine bottle)

das Telefon + *die Nummer* → *die* **Telefon***nummer* (telephone number)

der Computer + *das Spiel* → *das* **Computer***spiel* (computer game)

Nouns take capital letters in German

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

Der Computer hat eine neue Tastatur. (The computer has a new keyboard).

Wie heißt das Kino? (What is the name of the cinema?)

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

Plural of articles

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

The indefinite articles

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

Masculine – **ein**	*ein* **Mann,** *ein* **Tisch**	a man, a table
Feminine – **eine**	*eine* **Frau,** *eine* **Tür**	a woman, a door
Neuter – **ein**	*ein* **Kind,** *ein* **Fenster**	a child, a window

Articles can change

In more complex structures the forms of both the definite and the indefinite articles can change slightly.

Summary of main pointers

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

Groups of nouns include:

masculine nouns (**der**)	*feminine nouns* (**die**)	*neuter nouns* (**das**)
Male persons, names of days and months, names of seasons, makes of cars, alcoholic drinks	Female persons, names of motorbikes and ships, names of trees and flowers	Young persons, infinitives used as nouns, names of hotels and cinemas, names of most metals, diminutives
Endings are:		
-er, -ig, -ismus, -ling, -or	-ei, -enz, -heit, -ie, -ion, -tät, -schaft, -ung, -ur	-chen, -lein, -ma, -ment, -o, -um

Exercise 8.1

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

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

1. ____ Montag, Dienstag, Mittwoch, Sonntag

2. ____ Audi, Ferrari, Mini, Ford

3. ____ Silber, Gold, Eisen, Kupfer

4. ____ Rose, Tulpe, Sonnenblume

5. ____ Tochter, Schwester, Mutter, Oma

6. ____ Sommer, Frühling, Herbst, Winter

7. ____ Wodka, Rum, Rotwein, Schnaps

8. ____ Schwimmen, Essen, Tanzen, Joggen

Exercise 8.2

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

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

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

Exercise 8.3

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

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

1. berlin ist eine fantastische stadt.

2. das hotel, wo wir wohnen, ist sehr komfortabel.

3. der service ist ausgezeichnet und das essen ist gut.

4. die woche geht so schnell vorbei.

5. die landschaft um berlin und besonders die seen sind sehr schön.

6. heute abend gehen wir in die kneipe und feiern unseren letzten tag in berlin.

Exercise 8.4

Translate the following sentences.

1. The Ferrari is very fast.

2. The table and the window are broken.

3. The daughter is called Marianna.

4. The newspaper is too expensive.

5. The rose is very beautiful.

6. The cinema is closed. (closed = **geschlossen**)

7. The football team is bad.

8. The beer costs 2 euros.

9. The town centre is very old.

10. Is the computer new?

11. The girl is five years old and the boy is seven.

12. The cheese is from France.

Checklist	✓
1. Why is gender so important for learners of German? What is meant by grammatical gender?	
2. Can you give the definite and indefinite articles for masculine, feminine, neuter nouns?	

3. What are the endings which indicate that a noun is masculine, feminine, neuter?	
4. Can you list the categories in which nouns are usually masculine, feminine, neuter?	
5. What is distinctive about the spelling of German nouns?	

UNIT 9

PLURAL OF NOUNS

Singular and plural

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

Plurals in English

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

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

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

Patterns in German

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

Clues for masculine nouns

Adding –e

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

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

Adding an umlaut + -e

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

singular		*plural*		*ending: umlaut + -e*
der Ball	ball	**die Bälle**	balls	umlaut + -e
der Zug	train	**die Züge**	trains	umlaut + -e

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

64

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

singular		*plural*		*no ending or just umlaut*
der Kuchen	cake	**die Kuchen**	cakes	–
der Apfel	apple	**die Äpfel**	apples	umlaut

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

Clues for feminine nouns

*Adding -**n** or –**en***

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

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

*Adding umlaut + -**e***

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

singular		*plural*		*ending -e + umlaut*
die Hand	hand	**die Hände**	hands	umlaut + -e
die Stadt	city	**die Städte**	cities	umlaut + -e

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

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

Clues for neuter nouns

*Adding –**e***

Most neuter nouns add -**e** but no umlaut:

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

*Adding umlaut + **er***

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

singular		*plural*		*ending: -er or umlaut + -er*
das Kind	child	**die Kinder**	children	-er
das Buch	book	**die Bücher**	books	umlaut + -er

*Nouns ending in -**chen** or –**lein***

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

singular		*plural*		*no ending*
das Mädchen	girl	**die Mädchen**	girls	–

Foreign words

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

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

How to find the plural from a dictionary

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

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

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

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

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

In some cases an umlaut plus another ending is required:

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

Points to remember

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

-e Most masculine nouns need an extra -e: **der Film → die Filme**

The same applies to neuter nouns: **das Bier → die Biere**

-e + umlaut Many masculine nouns also add an umlaut: **der Ball →die Bälle**

So do a number of feminine nouns: **die Hand→ die Hände**

-er (+umlaut) Many neuter nous add umlaut + **-er** when possible: **das Buch→ die Bücher**

A few masculine nouns also take the same changes: **der Wald → die Wälder**

-n or **-en** Around ninety per cent of feminine nouns follow this pattern:

die Sprache → die Sprachen

die Frau → die Frauen

-s Most foreign words in German take -**s**: **die Party→ die Partys**

no ending Nouns ending with -**chen** or -**lein**: **das Mädchen→ die Mädchen**

Nouns ending with **-el**, **-en**, **-er**: **der Spiegel→die Spiegel** Often they add an umlaut: **der Vater → die Väter**

Exercise 9.1

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

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

Exercise 9.2

Give the plural form of the following nouns.

Example: **die Flasche → die Flaschen**

1. der Tag   →   die _____

2. der Kurs   die _____

3. der Orangensaft   die _____

4. der Gast   die _____

5. der Schnaps   die _____

6. die Tasse   →   die _____

7. die Tomate   die _____

8. die Meinung   die _____

9. die Stadt   die _____

10. die Bratwurst   die _____

11. das Schiff   →   die _____

12. das Boot   die _____

13. das Haus   die _____

14. das Buch   die _____

15. das Land   die _____

16. das Hotel   →   die _____

17. die Cola   die _____

18. das Büro   die _____

19. der Tipp   die _____

20. der Club   die _____

Exercise 9.3

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

Exercise 9.4

Translate the following sentences.

1. I would like two bottles, please.

2. Two sausages, please.

3. The apples are very sweet.

4. He has got two sisters and three brothers.

5. She reads three newspapers.

6. The flat has four rooms.

7. She speaks five languages.

8. The parties are always interesting.

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

PART II

INTRODUCING FRENCH

WHY LEARN FRENCH?!

If you're looking to expand your horizons, then learning a foreign language is a great way to do so. But with 6,909 distinct languages spoken around the word, which language should you choose? French is certainly a popular choice; the thought of spending time in romantic Paris or the exclusive French Riviera and being able to speak the language is certainly appealing. But there are many other great reasons for choosing to speak French.

A world language

France has long played a leading role on the world stage, resulting in the French language's global status. Besides the spread of the language via the the French colonial empire, it was the preferred language of nobility across Europe for centuries – from medieval English kings to Russian czars. Today, an estimated 330 million people on five continents speak the language.

If you're going to pick any language, then it certainly makes sense to opt for one that is useful all around the world.

A business language

French is spoken in France, Belgium, Switzerland and throughout much of Africa so it's a good choice for those looking to make contacts overseas. This can be particularly useful for business networking, given that it is the first language in many of the emerging nations which are expected to be economic powerhouses of the future. French is also one of the 3 languages used to conduct all internal European Commission business.

Improving travel experiences

Learning to speak French will massively improve your travel experiences, even when simply for pleasure. There is nothing quite like visiting a traditional boulangerie in the morning and being able to have a conversation with the locals while you wait to collect your croissants. When you speak the local language, you aren't limited in the kinds of interactions you can have. Stepping off the tourist track

and becoming immersed in the culture completely transforms your experience in another country.

Although it's certainly true that many French speakers can also speak English, English proficiency in France is actually lower than in the rest of Europe. If you arrive in France expecting to get by in English, you'll be disappointed when most people just speak French to you anyway. But if you want to learn, it's the perfect opportunity to practice speaking their language.

Having a conversation in another language is not only thrilling; you will also impress the locals and earn a degree of respect. This is certainly true in France, where even trying to speak the language immediately puts you in good standing.

Helping with other languages

Those who speak French often find that it's easier to learn other languages, especially other Romance languages like Spanish, Portuguese and Italian. It's even estimated that 30% of English words come directly from French.

All of this means that learning to speak French can boost your broader language skills. It can also give you an insight into the way in which English words have come to be used.

Training your brain

Numerous studies have proven that speaking a second language improves memory, multi-tasking skills and decision making. It's also been shown to keep your brain more resilient in old age. Understanding more languages means having more connections in your brain; more connections mean a faster, stronger, better brain. Even if you never leave your country, learning another language can bolster your mind's overall performance.

So, why learn French? Ask them:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iGMKL5ZNd7s

UNIT 1

FACTS

French is one of the world's most popular languages as it is spoken by hundreds of millions of people. It is an official language in 29 countries, and French is spoken by many citizens in France, Canada, Belgium, Switzerland and Luxembourg. In Europe, more people speak French than any language other than English. Many people also communicate in French in the United Kingdom and the United States. The influence of the French language is strongest in these respective countries near France and Quebec. It is also spoken by many in Louisiana.

French is an official language in the following countries:

1. Belgium
2. Benin
3. Burkina
4. Burundi
5. Cameroon
6. Canada
7. Central African Republic
8. Chad
9. Comoros
10. Congo
11. Congo, Democratic Republic of
12. Cote d'Ivoire
13. Djibouti
14. France
15. Gabon
16. Guinea
17. Haiti
18. Luxembourg
19. Madagascar
20. Mali
21. Monaco
22. Niger
23. Rwanda
24. Senegal
25. Seychelles
26. Switzerland
27. Togo
28. Vanuatu
29. Vietnam

You can find more information about the French language and its status at http://www.axl.cefan.ulaval.ca/francophonie/OIF-statut-francais-membres.htm#Le_français,_seule_langue_officielle_: (the official site of *Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie*).

Le français, seule langue officielle : 14 membres	Le français, langue co-officielle : 18 membres
1. Bénin	1. Belgique
2. Burkina Faso	2. Burundi
3. Canada-Québec	3. Cameroun
4. Communauté française de Belgique	4. Canada
5. Congo-Brazzaville	5. Canada-Nouveau-Brunswick
6. Congo-Kinshasa	6. Centrafrique
7. Côte d'Ivoire	7. Comores
8. France	8. Djibouti
9. Gabon	9. Guinée-Conakry
10. Mali	10. Guinée équatoriale
11. Monaco	11. Haïti
12. Niger	12. Luxembourg
13. Sénégal	13. Madagascar
14. Togo	14. Rwanda
	15. Seychelles
	16. Suisse
	17. Tchad
	18. Vanuatu

Similarities between English and French Grammar

Fortunately for those fluent in English who are learning French, the languages share many grammatical features. English has historically been influenced by French; this dates to the 11th century and the Norman conquest of England as French words started entering the English language at this time. Several words that are usually easily understood by those fluent in English include *demander* (*ask*), *ignorer* (*to not know*) and *librairie* (*bookstore*).

Those who initially learn French are pleased when they discover that the French alphabet is very similar to the English one. In addition to the 26 English letters, accented letters are used in French grammar; these include *é, è, à, ù, ç, â, ê, î, ô, û, ë, ï and ü*. These letters use an *acute accent, grave accent, cedilla, circumflex and dieresis,* respectively.

French letter	Transcription
Aa	/a/
Bb	/be/
Cc	/se/
Dd	/de/
Ee	/ə/
Ff	/ɛf/
Gg	/ʒe/
Hh	/aʃ/
Ii	/i/
Jj	/ʒi/
Kk	/ka/
Ll	/ɛl/
Mm	/ɛm/
Nn	/ɛn/
Oo	/o/
Pp	/pe/
Qq	/ky/
Rr	/ɛʀ/
Ss	/ɛs/
Tt	/te/
Uu	/y/
Vv	/ve/
Ww	/dubləve/
Xx	/iks/
Yy	/igrək/
Zz	/zɛd/

✓ **Typing French Accents - Windows: French keyboard**

The layout of the French keyboard, known as AZERTY, is somewhat different than the layouts of other keyboards. You'll find - among other changes - that the A and Q have switched places, W and Z have switched, and M is where the semi-colon used to be. In addition, numbers require the shift key.

On the other hand, you can type the grave accent (à, è, ù) and acute accent (é) with a single key, and the other accented letters with a combination of two keys:

To type anything with a circumflex (â, ê, etc), type ^ then the vowel.

Differences between French and English Grammar

French grammar is also relatively easy to learn for English speakers due to both languages possessing a general format of a subject followed by a verb before finishing with an object. For example, *"Je vais à la banque,"* is translated into English as "*I am going to the bank.*"

One major difference between the languages that those who learn French may struggle with is the assigning of masculine or feminine forms to words. Unfortunately, there is no simple way to know which words are masculine and which are feminine. Even more confusing is the fact that the exact same word could have a very different meaning depending on the gender of the article used with it. For example, "le mari" means "husband," while "la mari" is "marijuana."

Capitalized words are also used much less often in the French language. Examples include je (I), mardi (Tuesday), janvier (January), l'anglais (English) and chrétien (Christian). Contractions are also used much more often in the French language, and they are required in all instances. In English, "do not" and "don't" have the same meaning. However, "d'accord" means "okay." There is no other way to write that particular French word or others that use contractions.

Before diving into French grammar it seems useful to study the experience of Natalia Arias (http://nataliearias.hubpages.com/), «a passionate learner and traveller», as she calls herself, from Montreal.

5 Tips for English Speakers on Learning French Grammar

Introduction

Learning another language is hard. This is a very cliché phrase that I'm sure any learner has heard ad naseaum and many I'm sure wish they could stop hearing this. I'm not here to discourage anyone from learning French, my goal is quite the opposite, I want to encourage you and for this reason I've come up with a series of tips that can make the process go smoother. As always if you feel I've missed anything, I'd be more than happy to read your insight in the comments below.

1. Don't translate English into French

I've spoken 2 languages since childhood, and one thing that has always been apparent to me was the fact that something that made sense in one language did not necessarily make sense in another. Basically just translating the words doesn't make the phrase grammatically correct, for each language has its own rules and in order to make sense in it you need to know those rules. As an example with French, the verb *Avoir- to have* is used in a variety of ways for which the equivalent verb in English to have is not used. If someone asks me how old I am, in English I would respond with "*I am ___ years old*". The literal French translation is "*Je suis____ans.*" But this is not correct for in French you use *Avoir* to indicate age, so the correct response would be "*J'ai _____ans.*" Now in English that would be translated as "*I have _____years old.*" Do you see how that doesn't make sense in English? This is why I say that knowing grammar rules is important because direct translation will never be correct.

2. Learn the bones of the language.

When I think about learning a language I really consider it as something that can be a fill in the blanks process. What I mean by this is that by learning the basics of the language, which includes verbs, grammar rules, sentence structure and articles, I can then fill in the rest of the information as I go along. Gradually I will add more complicated things to my sentences but at least from the beginning I was familiar with the structure. I've studied several indo European languages including Latin and Ancient Greek and from this I learned that there is a pattern to this language group that extends into every language within it. Some languages in this group are more

77

complicated than others (Russian), some are easier (English) and some are in between (French), but the basic grammatical structure for all of them is the same. To begin learning French you first need to understand what the structure is and from there you can fill in what you don't know. As a hint I will say that French is a language where word order is important (subject + object + verb) but it is more complicated than English because it has more grammatical tenses and genders.

3. Study the Verbs.

Verbs are words that indicate action, when you want to say something in a sentence there is almost always going to be a verb there. For this reason I would say begin learning the verbs first, in French verbs conjugate but nouns do not decline, so learning nouns, adjectives, adverbs etc…. can be an easier process than learning verbs. So I would recommend beginning with the hard stuff and studying verbs. With French there are 3 categories of verbs (*er, ir, re*) and a ton of irregular verbs. I would recommend purchasing a Bescherelle to help you. Start with the basics and learn the various conjugations for *Avoir, Être, Faire* and *Aller*, and then go from there.

4. Learn the little bits of speech.

Think of the English words "a", "the", "it", and others like them. These small words exist to link other words together, without them English wouldn't make sense. French is no different, there are a lot of small words that fall into various categories of meaning without which the language would not make sense. Think of someone for whom English is a second language who makes mistakes in the use of these small words. To avoid sounding like a novice, master these elements of grammar as much as you can. Some examples of these link words are: *le, la, les, l', des. du, de la, d', cet, cette, c'est, ce sont, un, une, ma, mon, mes*, etc…

5. Don't forget Gender

French is a language for which gender is important, words have gender and gender and the gender usually matches in a sentence or phrase. English does not have this concept in the same way. In English the word "the" is neutral and so are the nouns and adjectives. In French the equivalent of "the" is *"le", "la", "l'"*, and you use the one that matches the gender of the noun. For example *"la chaise" = " the chair"* it is

feminine. When learning the concepts of French grammar, always remember gender and take it into consideration when writing anything.

UNIT 2
FRENCH PRONUNCIATION
VOWELS (VOYELLES)

- **Pure Vowels**

Vowels in French are pure vowels, i.e. they are not diphthongs as in American English. Americans pronounce *a* and *e* with an extra *yuh* sound at the end, and *o* and *u* with an extra *wuh* sound at the end. You must not do this in French. The distinction between long and short vowels exists in French, but a few American short vowels do not exist *([i]* as in *did* and *[u]* as in *put*) so make sure to never pronounce these vowels when speaking (European) French. Also notice that the *[æ]* sound in *cat* does not exist in French either.

On the other hand, French has three front rounded vowels that do not exist in English, which may take a while to get used to since English only has back rounded vowels. However, they are the rounded counterpart of vowels that do exist in English, so you simply need to round your lips when pronouncing these vowels.

Many English speakers tend to say *[u]* instead of *[y]* and *[ə]* instead of *[ø]* or *[œ]*.

Vowels are pronounced slightly longer when they are in the final closed syllable (a consonant follows the vowels in the same syllable). For example, the vowel *[i]* in *tir* is longer than the vowel *[i]* in tirer because *tir* is a closed syllable, while *ti* is an open syllable (and *rer* is a closed syllable).

The vowel [e] can only occur in open syllables (no consonant follows it in the same syllable) in French. In closed syllables, [ɛ] is used; however, [ɛ] can also be found in open syllables. (This is a major difference with English as [ɛ] can never be found in open syllables at the end of a word.)

In stressed open syllables, only [ø] is possible. In stressed, closed syllables, only [œ] is possible, unless the syllable ends in [t], [tR], or [z] - in which case, [ø] can occur. In unstressed syllables, whether open or closed, either vowel can occur.

Generally, [o] always occurs in stressed open syllables, and [ɔ] occurs in stressed closed syllables. Nevertheless, *[o] can also occur in stressed closed syllables, depending on the spelling of the word:* when the letter *o* is followed by *[m], [n], [z]*; when the letters au are not followed by *[R]*; and by the letter *ô*.

Here are the examples of **pure vowels** (*voyelles orales*):

	Comme dans…	Autres exemples et graphèmes
[a]	lac	à, phare
[ɛ]	frère	seize, être, mais, jouet, merci, rayon
[e]	été	maison, parler, parlez
[i]	fille	stylo, île, maïs
[y]	lunettes	dune
[ø]	jeu	voeu, bleu
[œ]	cœur	lueur, accueil, moeurs, sœur
[ə]	deux	le
[ʋ]	poule	où, goût, route
[o]	gâteau	beau, métro, vélo, landau
[)]	homme	album
[α]	pâte	bal , chatte, cactus, mât

- **Semi -Vowels (semi - voyelles)**

Semi-vowels can also be called glides or approximants.

	Comme dans…	Autres exemples et graphèmes
[j]	fille	crayon, iule, lion, liane, pied, soleil
[w]	louise	ouate, oui, ouest, loin (correspond au son « what » en anglais)
[ɣ]	huit	sueur, suave, lui

Some words ending in *-ille(r)* pronounce the *l*, however: *ville, mille, tranquille, distiller, osciller*, etc.

Notice that words ending in *-eil* or *-eille* are pronounced *[ej]*, while words ending in *-ail* or *-aille* are pronounced *[aj]*.

- **Nasal Vowels (voyelles nasales)**

Nasal vowels can be a bit tricky to understand in everyday speech, but learning how to pronounce them correctly isn't too difficult.

	Comme dans…	Autres exemples et graphèmes
[oɛ̃]	un emprunt	junte, parfum

[ɛ]	p<u>ain</u>	d<u>aim</u>, moy<u>en</u>, <u>im</u>pur, p<u>ein</u>ture, s<u>ym</u>bole, s<u>ein</u>, s<u>yn</u>thèse, th<u>ym</u>
[ã]	g<u>an</u>ts	bl<u>an</u>c, j<u>am</u>be, d<u>en</u>t, <u>em</u>pereur, pa<u>on</u>, fa<u>on</u>
[õ]	gal<u>on</u>	s<u>om</u>bre

A phrase with all nasal vowels is: *un bon vin blanc.*

CONSONANTS (CONSONNES)

	Comme dans…	Autres exemples et graphèmes
[p]	pile	appartement
[b]	bol	abbaye
[m]	mur	flamme
[t]	table	datte, thé
[d]	dé	addition
[n]	nœud	anniversaire
[ŋ]	ligne	manière, ignare
[k]	cadeau	acquis, occasion, képi, orchestre, quoi, coq
[g]	gâteau	langue, toboggan, gadoue
[f]	flûte	buffet, phare
[v]	valise	wagon
[s]	citron	poisson, garçon, démocratie, penser, scie
[z]	zéro	Aise, zoo, deuxième
ζ	chien	schéma, fasciste
[ĵ]	jupe	girafe, rangement, sauvageon
[l]	lampe	elle
[ʁ]	roue	terre
~~h []~~	-	-

Many of the consonants in French are very similar to the consonants in English. A few differences include:

- *[p], [t]* and *[k]* are NOT aspirated in French so try not to let that extra puff of air escape from your lips.

- Consonants that are alveolar in English are generally dental in French. Try to rest your tongue just behind your teeth instead of on the alveolar ridge for *[t], [d], [s], [z], [l]* and *[n]*.

- The letter *h* is NEVER pronounced, but you need to remember to distinguish the *h* non-aspiré from the *h* aspiré. Most words belong to the first group, but for the words that have an *h* aspiré, there are two characteristics that make them different: the definite article does not reduce to *l'* (called elision) but remains *le* or *la* and word boundaries are maintained so that sounds do not link. Most words with an *h* aspiré are of Germanic origin. E. g.:

h non -aspiré	h aspiré
l'habitude	la hache
l'herbe	le hall
l'heure	le haricot
l'histoire	le hasard
l'homme	le hibou
l'honneur	le homard
l'huile	le hockey

- *[R]* is articulated further back in the throat (with the back of the tongue) and is usually the hardest French consonant for English speakers to pronounce correctly. It is a voiced uvular fricative sound and does not have an effect on preceding vowels the way that American English *r* does. It must remain consistent in all positions, regardless of the other vowels and consonants that may be adjacent to it.

Initial	After consonant	Between vowels	Before consonant	Final
rusé	droit	arrêt	partout	mer
rang	gris	courir	merle	pire
rose	trou	pleurer	corde	sourd

In the majority of words with the grapheme ch, the pronunciation is [ʃ], but it is also pronounced [k] in words of Greek origin. It is silent, however, in the word almanach.

ch = [ʃ]	ch = [k]
chercher	archéologie
réchauffer	chaos
chérubin	chrétien
architecte	écho
catéchisme	orchestre
Achille	chœur

- The graphemes *gu* and *qu* can be pronounced three different ways: [g], [gw], [gɥ] and [k], [kw], [kɥ], respectively. The majority of words are pronounced with simply [g] and [k], but the spelling will not tell you which sound to pronounce, so you'll just have to learn them individually.

[g]	[gw]	[gɥ]	[k]	[kw]	[kɥ]
anguille	jaguar	aiguille	question	adéquat	quiescent
fatigue	iguane	ambiguïté	qualité	aquarium	équilatéral
guérilla	lingual	linguiste	équivalent	square	ubiquité
distinguer	Guadeloupe		quartier	équateur	équidistant

- Even though most final consonants are not pronounced in French, there are a few exceptions, especially with words ending in -*s*. In words ending in a *consonant + s* or -*es*, the *s* is silent. However, if a word ends in -*as, -ès, -is, -os,* or -*us*, then the *s* is sometimes pronounced.

final *s* silent	final *s* pronounced
cadenas	atla**s**
débarras	pancréa**s**
accès	aloè**s**
exprès	palmarè**s**
logis	oasi**s**
clos	vi**s**

dessous	albatro**s**
confus	sinu**s**
dehors	our**s**

- **Silent Letters.** French, like English, is not written phonetically. Vowels can be represented by several different letter combinations and many letters are actually not pronounced. (You can thank early "linguists" who changed the spelling of many French words, with complete disregard to pronunciation, so that it was closer to Latin orthography). The final consonant of many words is silent. Sometimes a final *c, f, l* or *r* are pronounced though.

Final c, f, l, r silent

blanc	cléf	outil	parler
franc	cerf	sourcil	chercher
tabac	nerf	gentil	habiter
estomac		persil	fermer

Final c, f, l, r pronounced

bouc	œuf	fil	car
lac	sauf	avril	mer
avec	veuf	civil	pour
donc	actif	col	hiver

- Similar to English, final -e in most words is not pronounced. For feminine adjectives and nouns, this generally means that the final consonant of the masculine form will now be pronounced.

Masculine	Feminine
vert	ver**t**e
grand	gran**d**e
canadien	canadie**nn**e
boulanger	boulang**è**re
chat	cha**tt**e

- As mentioned above, a few silent letters were placed in French orthography for the prestige of being more similar to Latin. Other letters are now silent for other historical reasons (i.e. perhaps the pronunciation changed, but the spelling did not.) The following words all have silent letters:

se**pt**	ran**g**	fi**ls**	tro**p**
rom**pt**	san**g**	pou**ls**	cam**p**
aspe**ct**	œi**l**	saou**l**	chocola**t**
instin**ct**	fauteui**l**	cu**l**	crédi**t**
pie**d**	ai**l**	Renau**lt**	ri**z**
ni**d**	dra**p**	siro**p**	ne**z**

- A few plural nouns change their pronunciations to include silent letters, whereas these consonants are pronounced in the singular form:

un œuf	des œu**fs**
un bœuf	des bœu**fs**
un os	des o**s**

- **Disappearing *e* (*e* caduc).** La loi des trois consonnes states that *[ə]* may be omitted in pronunciation as long as it would not cause three consonants to be together. Of course there are exceptions to this rule, and some dialects of French do not delete it anyway (such as in the south of France.) However, this is extremely common in everyday French and English speakers need to be able to comprehend words with dropped syllables.

Phrase-final *e* is always dropped, except in *-le* in the imperative. It is also dropped at the end of nouns, articles and verbs. One exception to the three consonant rule is in the case of consonant clusters, such as *br, fr, gr, pr, tr*, etc. If the *e* precedes these clusters, and the *e* itself is preceded by a consonant, then it can be dropped: *un refrain = un r'frain.*

samedi / lentement / sauvetage	=	sam'di / lent'ment / sauv'tage
sous le bureau / chez le docteur	=	sous l'bureau / chez l'docteur
il y a de / pas de / plus de	=	il y a d' / pas d' / plus d'
je ne / de ne / tu ne	=	je n' / de n' / tu n'
je te / ce que / ce qui	=	j'te / c'que / c'qui

Notice that dropping *e* in *je* also results in [ʒ] to become [ʃ] whenever it is found before voiceless consonants, such as [p], [t], [k], etc.

- **Liaison.** A loss of word boundaries in French makes it difficult to comprehend the spoken language for beginning learners. All of the words seem to be linked together without any clear divisions because the syllable boundaries do not correspond to the word boundaries. In many cases, the last consonant from one syllable (which is usually silent) will become the first consonant of the next syllable (therefore, it is no longer silent). This linking between syllables is called liaison, and it may or may not be required and the pronunciation of the consonant may or may not change. Liaison leads to many homonymous phrases, which can hinder comprehension. You must pay attention to the liaisons in verb conjugations as well or you may mistake one verb for another.

The written consonants involved in liaison generally include *d, s, x* and *p*. However, the pronunciation of *d, s*, and *x* is changed so that they become *[t], [z]* and *[z],* respectively. The letter *n* that is written after nasal vowels becomes the nasal consonant *[n]*. Peculiarly, the *f* of *neuf* is pronounced *[v]* only before *ans* and *heures* and in all other cases, it remains *[f]*. Remember that h aspiré prevents liaison from happening, i.e. there is no *[z]* sound between *des* and *haricots*.

elle**s a**rrivent	mo**n a**mour
il**s o**nt	le**s o**urs
vieu**x a**rbres	dan**s u**n sac
di**x h**eures	trè**s a**imable
atten**d-il** ?	plu**s o**uvert

gran**d a**mi   il es**t a**llé

There are a few instances when you should always use liaison (liaison obligatoire):

1. after determiners: *un, les, des, ces, mon, ton, quels*, etc.
2. before or after pronouns: *nous, vous, ils, elles, les*, etc.
3. after preceding adjectives: *bon, mauvais, petit, grand, gros*, etc.
4. after monosyllabic prepositions: *chez, dans, sous, en*, etc.
5. after some monosyllabic adverbs: *très, plus, bien*, etc. (optional after *pas, trop, fort*)
6. after *est* (optional after all other forms of *être*)

- **Stress.** French is a syllable-timed language, so equal emphasis is given to each syllable. This is quite unlike English, which is a stress-timed language, and which gives emphasis to one syllable in each word - the stressed syllable - and reduces the vowels in the rest of the syllables (usually to [ə] or [ɪ]). All vowels in French must be pronounced fully, and each syllable must be pronounced with equal stress, though the final syllable of each word is generally considered the "stressed syllable."

English -   French

pho**to**graphy   -   photogra**phie**

au**tho**rity   -   autori**té**

natio**nal**ity   -   nationali**té**

passion   -   pa**ssion**

edu**ca**tion   -   éduca**tion**

regiment   -   régi**ment**

monument   -   monu**ment**

melodra**ma**tic   -   mélodrama**tique**

- **Intonation.** Intonation in French is slightly different from English. In general, the intonation rises only for a yes/no question, and the rest of the time, the intonation falls. French intonation starts at a higher pitch

and falls continuously throughout the sentence, whereas in English, the stressed syllable has a higher pitch that what precedes and follows it.

Bold marks the higher pitch. Notice that even if the intonation pattern seems similar, the syllables with higher pitches are often in different locations. The numbers below refer to the pitch: 1) low, 2) medium, 3) high, 4) extra high.

English Intonation vs. French Intonation

Sentence Type	English	Intonation	French	Intonation
Yes/No Question	Are you **leaving**?	2 - 3	Est-ce que vous par**tez** ?	2 - 3
Information Question	Where are you **go**ing?	2 - 3 - 1	**Où** est-ce que vous allez ?	4 - 2 - 1
Imperative	**Do** it. / Don't **do** it.	(2) - 3 - 1	**Fais**-le. / **Ne le** fais pas.	4 - 2 - 1
Exclamation	What a sur**pri**se!	2 - 3 - 1	**Quelle** surprise !	4 - 2 - 1
Declarative	I bought a **dre**ss.	2 - 3 - 1	**J'ai** acheté une robe.	3 - 2 - 1

- **Informal Reductions.** In everyday speech, there are other reductions in addition to e caduc. Many of these reductions are made for ease of pronunciation and are considered informal. The most common ones are reducing tu to t' before a vowel and omitting the final syllable of words ending in -re. Listen to these reductions in careful speech and everyday speech:

Informal Reductions in Spoken French

Careful Speech *Everyday Speech*

tu es   t'es

tu as   t'as

tu étais   t'étais

tu avais   t'avais

mettre   mett'

notre   not'

autre   aut'

il   y

il y a   y a

ils + vowel   y'z

elle	è
elles + vowel	è'z
parce que	pasq'
quelque	quèq'
puis	pis

UNIT 3

FRENCH GRAMMAR

French Parts of Speech

- **Articles (Les Articles)**

- Definite Articles (Les Articles Définis)

In French, nouns (substantives *m.*) are either masculine (*m.*) or feminine (*f.*). Each gender has its own article.

le jour *m.*	*the day*
la nuit *f.*	*the night*

Les is the plural article for both masculine and feminine nouns.

les hommes *m. plural*	*the men*
les femmes *f. plural*	*the women*

When the noun begins with a vowel or a silent 'h', the *le* or *la* simply becomes *l'*.

l'ombre *m.*	*the shade*
l'abeille *f.*	*the bee*
l'hôtel *m.*	*the hotel*

- **Indefinite Articles (Les Articles Indéfinis)**

un bâtiment m.   a building

une maison   f.a house

des choix m.   some choices

des filles f.   some girls/daughters

- ✓ **Gender (Le Genre)**

Guessing the gender of people nouns is easy. If you're referring to a male, it's masculine, otherwise it's feminine.

le gosse the kid (male)

la gosse the kid (female)

Many people (job title) nouns have both masculine and femine forms.

le fermier   farmer (male)

la fermière farmer (female)

le vendeur salesperson (male)

la vendeuse salesperson (female)

Some people nouns are always either masculine or feminine, regardless of whether it refers to a guy or a girl.

la vedette star

le savant wise person

le pilote pilot

le professeur teacher (high school or university)

Guessing the gender of inanimate nouns can be a bit tricky. Consonant ending nouns are usually masculine and *e* ending nouns are usually feminine but there are tons of exceptions. There are some rather complicated rules that can be used. A lot of nouns that refer to men form their feminine forms simply by adding an *–e*, as in *ami>amie "friend,"* or in *employé>employée "employee."* Of course, if the word already ends in an *–e,* there is no need to add an extra one. For example, *élève "student"* can be either masculine or feminine.

Sometimes the masculine and feminine forms of nouns are very different from each other. Here are some examples:

Homme>femme – "man, woman"

Taureau>vache – "bull, cow"

Neveu>nièce – "nephew, niece"

Other patterns of change include:

- f > -ve (veuf>veuve – "widower, widow")

-x > -se (époux>épouse – "husband, wife")

-eur>-euse (danseur>danseuse – "male dancer, female dancer")

-an>-anne (paysan>paysanne – "male farmer, female farmer")

-ion>-ionne (lion>lionne – "lion, lionness")

When the same word is used to refer to men and women, its gender changes according to the sex of the person to whom it refers. Examples: *un collègue/une collègue – "a colleague"; un Belge / une Belge – "a Belgian man/woman."*

Some words have only one possible gender, regardless if they refer to a man or a woman, a boy or a girl. Thus *bébé "baby"* is always masculine, even if the word is used to refer to a baby girl. Here is a list of words that behave in the same way:

Une vedette "a star" is always feminine.

Un guide "a guide" is always masculine.

Une personne "a person" is always feminine.

Une victime "a victim" is always feminine.

Sometimes, gender makes total sense. For example, just like in English, *fille "girl,"* *vache "cow,"* and *reine "queen"* are feminine. But most of the time, gender seems arbitrary. For instance, *table "table"* is feminine, while *avion "plane"* is masculine.

Gender is purely a grammatical matter in these cases. Fortunately, there are patterns that help us distinguish between feminine and masculine words.

There are many exceptions to most patterns. Check in a dictionary to be sure of a noun's gender.

• Subject Pronouns (Les Pronoms Personnels Sujets)

<u>Je</u> suis le professeur.   <u>I</u> am the teacher.

<u>Tu</u> es un élève.   <u>You</u> are a student.

<u>Il</u> est Français.   <u>He</u> is French.

<u>Elle</u> est Française.   <u>She</u> is French.

<u>Nous</u> sommes des élèves. <u>We</u> are students.

<u>Ils</u> sont de France.   <u>They</u> are from France.

<u>Elles</u> sont de Paris.   <u>They</u> (women) are from Paris.

   When *je* is followed by a word that begins with a vowel, it becomes simply *j'*.
J'arrive !I'm coming!

   Vous is the formal *'you'* form. Using it shows respect and social distance. It should always be used when addressing strangers except for in certain environments like school where students normally use tu with each other. Permission should be asked before using tu, but you normally shouldn't ask if someone is significantly older than you. It should always be employed when addressing people of authority like your teachers or the police.

Excusez-moi. Vous parlez francais ?

Excuse me.   Do you speak French?

   Vous is also used for plural you.

Vous êtes fous.   You (all) are crazy.

Vous êtes des élèves.   You (all) are students..

- **Adjectives (Adjectifs)**

An adjective is a word that modifies a noun by describing it in some way: shape, color, size, nationality, etc. French adjectives are very different from English adjectives in two ways:

1. French adjectives change to agree in gender and number with the nouns that they modify, which means there can be up to four forms of each adjective:

Adjective: joli (pretty)

Masculine singular   joli

Feminine singular   jolie

Masculine plural   jolis

Feminine plural   jolies

2. In English, adjectives are always found in front of the noun, but most French adjectives follow the noun they modify:

  un livre vert - green book

  un professeur intelligent - smart teacher

But there are some French adjectives that precede the noun:

  un beau garçon - handsome boy

  un petit verre - small glass

French adjectives change to agree in gender and number with the nouns that they modify, which means there can be up to four forms of each adjective. The different forms for adjectives depend mostly on the final letter(s) of the default form of the adjective, which is the masculine singular.

Most French adjectives add *E* for feminine and *S* for plural. This rule applies to adjectives that end in most consonants as well as all vowels except the unaccented *E*. It also includes all regular and most irregular present participles and past participles:

Adjective: vert (green)

  Masculine singular   - vert

  Feminine singular   - verte

  Masculine plural   - verts

  Feminine plural   - vertes

✓ While most French adjectives fit into one of the above categories, there are still quite a few that have irregular feminine and/or plural forms.

- Adjectives that end in a vowel plus *L* or *N* usually become feminine by doubling the consonant before adding E.

Ending: *el > elle*   Adjective: *personnel (personal)*

Masculine singular   personnel

Feminine singular   personnelle

Masculine plural   personnels

Feminine plural   personnelles

Ending: *on > onne*   Adjective: *bon (good)*

Masculine singular   bon

Feminine singular   bonne

Masculine plural   bons

Feminine plural   bonnes

- Adjectives that end in er or et need a grave accent:

Ending: *er > ère*   Adjective: *cher (expensive)*

Masculine singular   cher

Feminine singular   chère

Masculine plural   chers

Feminine plural   chères

Ending: *et > ète*   Adjective: *complet (full)*

Masculine singular   complet

Feminine singular   complète

Masculine plural   complets

Feminine plural   complètes

- Other final letters lead to very irregular feminine endings:

Ending: *c > che*   Adjective: *blanc (white)*

Masculine singular   blanc

Feminine singular   blanche

Masculine plural   blancs

Feminine plural   blanches

Ending: *eur > euse* Adjective: *flatteur (flattering)*

    Masculine singular   flatteur

    Feminine singular   flatteuse

    Masculine plural   flatteurs

    Feminine plural   flatteuses

Ending: *eux > euse* Adjective: *heureux (happy)*

    Masculine singular   heureux

    Feminine singular   heureuse

    Masculine plural   heureux

    Feminine plural   heureuses

Ending: *f > ve* Adjective: *neuf (new)*

    Masculine singular   neuf

    Feminine singular   neuve

    Masculine plural   neufs

    Feminine plural   neuves

Irregular plurals: The ending *al* changes to *aux* in the plural: adjective: *idéal (ideal)*

    Masculine singular   idéal

    Feminine singular   idéale

    Masculine plural   idéaux

    Feminine plural   idéales

Note: Most of the above rules are the same for making nouns feminine and plural.

   - **Irregular French adjectives**

   There are several French adjectives which have irregular feminine and plural forms, as well as a special form when they are placed in front of a masculine noun that begins with a vowel or a mute *H*:

    un bel homme - a handsome man

    un vieil ami - an old friend

Singular		**Plural**			
Adjective	***masc***	***vowel/H***	***fem***	**masc**	**fem**
beautiful	*beau*	*bel*	*belle*	beaux	belles
new	*nouveau*	*nouvel*	*nouvelle*	nouveaux	nouvelles
crazy	*fou*	*fol*	*folle*	fous	folles
soft	*mou*	*mol*	*molle*	mous	molles
old	*vieux*	*vieil*	*vieille*	vieux	vieilles

- **Numbers (Les nombres)**

French numbers just like their English counterparts come in two flavors: cardinal (e.g. *un, deux, trois… / one, two, three…*) and ordinal (e.g. *premier, deuxième, troisième… / first, second, third…*). The good thing is that, apart from premier / first, ordinal numbers use their cardinal cousins as roots, in most cases merely adding a *-ième* ending to them.

1. **Cardinal Numbers (Les nombres cardinaux):**

As in English, cardinal French numbers can be divided in two: numbers which are unique words and numbers which are a combination of other numbers.

Unique Numbers: from 0 to sixteen, all numbers are unique words. So are the tens from 20 to 60. After that, hundreds use the unique base *cent*, thousands use *mille*, millions use *million* like English and billions use *milliard*.

Unique Cardinal Numbers (0-16)

zéro	0	six	6	douze	12
un	1	sept	7	treize	13
deux	2	huit	8	quatorze	14
trois	3	neuf	9	quinze	15
quatre	4	dix	10	seize	16
cinq	5	onze	11		

Other Unique Cardinal Numbers

vingt	20	cinquante	50	mille	1000
trente	30	* soixante	60	million	million
quarante	40	cent	100	milliard	billion

Note that even though 40, 50 and 60 are unique words, their roots are still quite recognizable (e.g. *quatre* for *quarante*, *cinq* for c*inquante* and *six* for *soixante*).

* Here the **x** in **soixante** is pronounced like the **s** in the word **s**ound.

Numbers built on Combinations of other Numbers: the words for the remaining French numbers, at least up to 999 billion, use different combinations of the 26 numbers above.

First combination: 17, 18 and 19 use the words for ten (e.g. *dix*) and the words for seven, eight and nine (e.g. *sept, huit and neuf*).

dix-*sept*   17   ten-seven

dix-*huit*   18   ten-eight

dix-*neuf*   19   ten-nine

Second combination: numbers from 21 to 69, except those ending with a 1 (e.g. 21, 31, 41, 51 and 61), use a combination of the words for the corresponding   tens and units (e.g. *vingt – deux / twenty-two, trente – trois / thirty-three,quarante – quatre / forty-four*, etc…). This is the same construction as English (e.g. *twenty – two, thirty – three, forty – four*, etc…). For the 5 numbers ending with a 1, it is necessary to add *-et- / -and-* between the two words. This addition of *-et-* also holds for 71 – but not 81 and 91— even though the rules governing it are different.

Combination Numbers (21, 31, 41, 51, 61)

vingt-*et*-un 21

trente-*et*-un 31

quarante-*et*-un 41

cinquante-*et*-un 51

soixante-*et*-un 61

Other Combination Numbers (22 to 69)

vingt-deux 22

quarante-six 46

trente-trois 33

cinquante-sept 57

trente-quatre 34

cinquante-huit 58

quarante –cinq 45

soixante-neuf 69

Third combination: numbers from 70 to 79 behave as if you'd started counting again at sixty. 70 is *soixante-dix / sixty-ten*, 71*soixante-et-onze / sixty-eleven, 72 soixante-douze / sixty-twelve*, etc…

Combination Numbers (70 … 79)

| soixante-dix | 70 | soixante-*quinze* | 75 |

soixante-<u>et</u>-*onze*	71	soixante-*seize*	76
soixante-*douze*	72	soixante-*dix-sept*	77
soixante-*treize*	73	soixante-*dix-huit*	78
soixante-*quatorze*	74	soixante-*dix-neuf*	79

<u>Fourth combination</u>: 80 doesn't follow on from 70. Instead, 80 uses a figurative *multiplication*: *quatre-vingts*, literally four-twenties (or *four times twenty*). As with the 70's, the 80's behave as if the counter was reset, this time at 80. 80 is *quatre-vingts / four-twenties*, 81 *quatre-vingts-un / four-twenties-one,* 82 *quatre-vingts-deux / four-twenties-two*, etc…

Combination Numbers (80 … 89)

quatre-vingts	80	quatre-vingts-cinq	85
quatre-vingts-un	81	quatre-vingts-six	86
quatre-vingts-deux	82	quatre-vingts-sept	87
quatre-vingts-trois	83	quatre-vingts-huit	88
quatre-vingts-quatre	84	quatre-vingts-neuf	89

The 90's follow on from the 80's in the same way the 70's continued on from the 60's; this time the counter continues from 80:

Combination Numbers (90 … 99)

quatre-vingts-dix	90	quatre-vingts-quinze	95
quatre-vingts-onze	91	quatre-vingts-seize	96
quatre-vingts-douze	92	quatre-vingts-dix-sept	97
quatre-vingts-treize	93	quatre-vingts-dix-huit	98
quatre-vingts-quatorze	94	quatre-vingts-dix-neuf	99

<u>Fifth combination</u>: hundreds are built around cent. From 100 to 199, numbers use the following formula: cent + number withnumber being drawn from the 100 numbers we've already seen.

Combination Numbers (100 … 199)

cent	100	cent onze	111
cent un	101	cent vingt deux	122
cent deux	102	cent trente trois	133
cent trois	103	cent cinquante quatre	154
cent quatre	104	cent soixante-quinze	175
cent cinq	105	cent quatre-vingts-seize	196

From 200 to 999, the formula is number1 + *cent* + number2 with number1 going from 2 to 9 and number2 from 1 to 99.

Combination Numbers (200 … 999)

deux cent<u>s</u>	200	deux cent onze	111
trois cent<u>s</u>	300	trois cent vingt deux	322
quatre cent<u>s</u>	400	quatre cent trente trois	433
cinq cent<u>s</u>	500	cinq cent cinquante quatre	554
six cent<u>s</u>	600	six cent soixante-cinq	665
sept cent<u>s</u>	700	sept cent soixante-seize	776
huit cent<u>s</u>	800	huit cent quatre-vingts-sept	887
neuf cent<u>s</u>	900	neuf cent quatre-vingts-dix-neuf	999

Note that when *cent* is not followed by another number, it takes an *-s* ending to reflect the plural.

2. Ordinal Numbers (Les nombres ordinaux)

Ordinal numbers build on the root of their cardinal cousins by adding a *–ième* ending. The only exception is *premier / first* which doesn't follow the rule at all. Beyond this, you need to keep track of only three things:

a)   when a cardinal number ends in *-e*, the corresponding ordinal number drops the *e* before adding the *-ième* (e.g. *quatre/four è quatrième/fourth, onze/eleven è onzième/eleventh*).

b)   the number *cinq/five* adds a *-u* before adding the *-ième*: *cinquième*.

c)   the number *neuf/nine* transforms the final *-f* into a *-v* before adding the *-ième: neuvième*

Ordinal Numbers

premier	first
deux*ième*	second
trois*ième*	third
quatr*ième*	fourth
cinqu*ième*	fifth

Ordinal Numbers

six*ième*	sixth
sept*ième*	seventh

huit*ième*	eighth
neuv*ième*	ninth
dix*ième*	tenth

Ordinal Numbers

onz*ième*	Eleventh
douz*ième*	Twelfth
vingt*ième*	twentieth
cinquant*ième*	fiftieth
cent*ième*	hundredth

Verb (Verbe)

Just like in English, the French verb provides the action in a sentence. Verbs are the core element of a sentence because they provide essential information. They take many different forms to do so. They indicate:

- What action is being performed, through the choice of the infinitive.
- Who performs it, through the choice of the subject.
- When it is performed, through the choice of the tense.

French infinitive verb forms

The infinitive is like the name of the verb. It also tells you the type of a verb: regular verbs are grouped into three types, according to the ending of their infinitive. They are:

1. Verbs ending in -er, like parler (to talk)
2. Verbs ending in -ir, like finir (to finish)
3. Verbs ending in -re, like vendre (to sell)

And then there are the **irregular** verbs, like *avoir (to have), aller (to go), faire (to do, to make)*, and *être (to be)*, to name only a few. These verbs follow different patterns when they're -conjugated (changed to reflect the subject and tense).

French subject-verb agreement

To start putting a verb into action (to conjugate it) you need a subject (who or what is doing the action). In French, you always say who the subject is, except in commands (English is the same way).

Each subject corresponds to a matching form of the verb. These differences in the forms happen at the end of the verb itself. For example, you say *tu chantes (you [singular informal] sing)* but *nous chantons (we sing)*, changing the form of the verb on the ending, according to the subject.

French verb tenses

An action can be expressed in a variety of tenses, such as the past tense, future tense, conditional tense, and many more. Here are some examples of different tenses for parler (to speak):

Present (le présent): *nous parlons (we speak/are speaking)*

Imperfect (imparfait): nous parlions (we used to speak)

Future (future simple): *nous parlerons (we will speak)*

Tenses come in two types: simple tenses and compound tenses.

A simple tense is a one-word verb form, like *vous parlez (you speak).*

A compound tense involves two words, like *tu as parlé (you spoke).*

And now have a look at all the tenses and their placement on the time line according to the present moment:
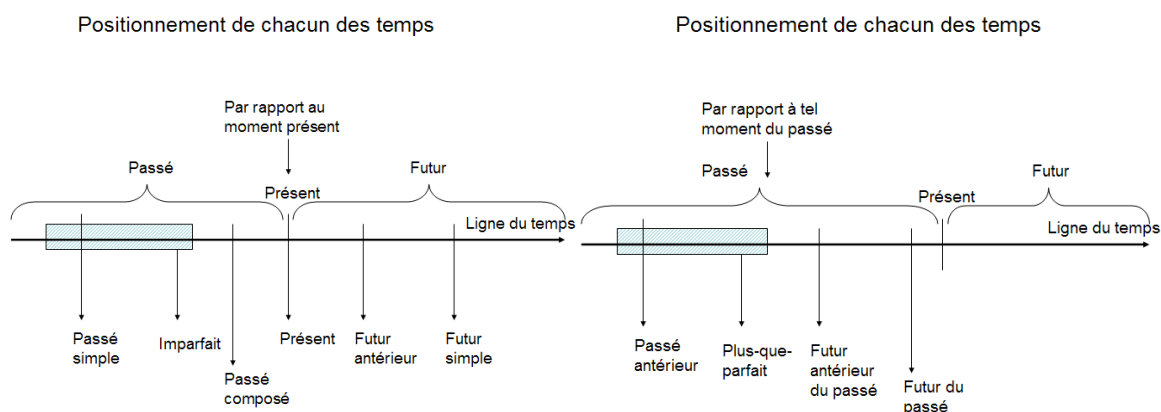
To use the correct form of a French verb, you have to use the right tense. The indicative mood, which deals with objectivity — things really happening — includes many time aspects called tenses. A tense defines the time frame in which the action of the verb takes place: past, present, or future.

The following French verb tenses chart explains when to use each tense. It shows how compound tenses build off simpler ones and conjugates two example verbs for each tense: *chanter (to sing)* and *se laver (to wash oneself).*

Time Frame	French Tense	How to Build from Other Tenses	Examples
What happens, is happening, or does	Present indicative/**présent de**		**je chante** **je me lave**

Time Frame	French Tense	How to Build from Other Tenses	Examples
happen	**l'indicatif**		
What just happened	Near past/**passé récent**	Present **venir**+ **de** + infinitive	**je viens de chanter je viens de me laver**
What is going to happen	Near future/**futur proche**	Present **aller**+ infinitive	**je vais chanter je vais me laver**
What [has] happened precisely and completely	**Passé composé**	Present**avoir/être** + past participle	**j'ai chanté je me suis lavé(e)**
What was happening or used to happen or just was a certain way	Imperfect/**Imparfait**		**je chantais je me lavais**
What had happened	Pluperfect/**plus-que-parfait**	**Imparfait**avoir/être + past participle	**j'avais chanté je m'étais lavé(e)**
What will happen	Simple future/**futur simple**		**je chanterai je me laverai**
What will have happened	Future perfect/**futur antérieur**	Simple future**avoir/être** + past participle	**j'aurai chanté je me serai lavé(e)**

✓ There are two future tenses in French, the simple future and the near future (**le futur proche**). The **futur proche** is usually translated into English as

going + infinitive (e.g., *going to eat, going to drink, going to talk*). The futur proche is characteristic of spoken French but may be used in informal writing. It is formed with the verb aller (to go) conjugated in the present tense followed by an infinitive.

<center>nager = 'to swim'</center>

je vais nager, I am going to swim   nous allons nager, we are going to swim

tu vas nager, you are going to swim   vous allez nager, you are going to swim

il, elle / on va nager, he, she (it) / one is going to swim   ils / elles vont nager, they are going to swim

   ✓ **Passé récent** a verb construction used to express something that just happened.

Il vient d'arriver. He just arrived.

   ✓ When you want to insist on the current, ongoing nature of an action in French, you can use the expression être en train de:

Je suis en train de parler.   I am (in the process of) speaking (right now).

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Here are the rules of sentence structure. Since there are different rules for every kind of clause, we'll be looking at each of these separately.

Declarative Sentences

Declarative sentences usually consist of a subject, a verb, and an object. In French, as in English, the subject has to come at the beginning of the sentence.

- Word Order

Normal word order in main clauses and dependent clauses is as follows: subject-predicate-object. If one clause has both a direct object and an indirect object, the direct object usually comes before the indirect object.

subject   predicate   direct object   indirect object

Sandrine   a montré   le chemin   à ses amis.

However, if the direct object has additional information attached to it (e.g. by way of a relative clause), then the indirect object usually comes first.

subject   predicate   indirect object   direct object   additional information

Elle   a montré   à ses amis   le chemin   qui mène à sa maison.

If the objects are replaced with pronouns, the object pronouns come before the verb. (direct object, indirect object)

Elle <u>me</u> l'a montré.

Elle <u>le</u> <u>leur</u> a montré.

- Emphasis (la mise en relief)

We can use certain expressions to emphasise the most important part of a sentence in French:

1. C'est … qui … :

Alex a mangé la dernière part de gâteau.

→ <u>C'est</u> Alex <u>qui</u> a mangé la dernière part de gâteau.

2. Ce qui/ce que … c'est/ce sont …

Ces chaussures plaisent beaucoup à Julie.

<u>Ce qui</u> plaît beaucoup à Julie, ce sont ces chaussures.

3. Using a pronoun to repeat the subject:

Françoise aime beaucoup nager.

Françoise, <u>elle</u> aime beaucoup nager.

- Adverbial Modifier (le complément circonstanciel)

Adverbial modifiers can come at the beginning of a sentence, in the middle, or at the end.

<u>Demain</u>, Charles ira faire du vélo.

Charles ira <u>demain</u> faire du vélo.

Charles ira faire du vélo <u>demain</u>.

Adverbial modifiers are placed in a sentence according to their importance. If they are put at the end of a sentence, their importance is stressed.

Elle n'a pas pu aller au parc d'attraction <u>à cause de sa jambe cassée.</u>

<u>À cause de sa jambe cassée</u>, elle n'a pas pu aller au parc d'attraction.

<u>To Note :</u> sentence structure can change in some circumstances. If the sentence begins with *aussi, à peine, peut-être*, or *sans doute*, the verb comes before the subject.

Sans doute ne pleuvra-t-il pas demain.

Negative Sentences

Negation is most commonly shown in French by using the *ne ... pas* construction. In between the two parts comes the conjugated verb.

subject	*ne* conjugated verb	*pas*	participle	direct object	indirect object
Elle	<u>ne</u> montre	<u>pas</u>		le chemin	à ses amis.
Elle	<u>n'</u> a	<u>pas</u>	montré	le chemin	à ses amis.

If the objects are replaced by pronouns, the same rule applies as with declarative sentences:

- the object pronouns come before the verb;

- word order depends on pronouns .

Elle ne me l'a pas montré.

<u>To Note</u> : before vowels (*a, e, i, o, u*) or a mute *h*, *ne* becomes *n'*.

Il n'a pas vu le ballon.

Nous n'entendons rien ici!

N'habitue pas les enfants au sucre!

✓ Other Forms of Negation

There are other forms of negation that also have two parts.

1. ne … personne (no one, not anyone)

Je ne vois personne dans la rue.

2. ne … rien (nothing, not anything)

Il n'y a rien de plus beau.

3. ne … jamais (never, not ever)

Il n'y a jamais de fumée sans feu.

4. ne … plus (no longer, not anymore)

Léa n'habite plus à Strasbourg.

5. ne … aucun (not any, no)

Je ne connais aucun bon dentiste.

To Note: when *any* is used in the negative sense (*not any, no*), it's translated into French as either *aucun* or *pas de* (*de* = partitive article). As an adjective, aucun agrees with the noun it is modifying (*aucun, aucune, aucuns, aucunes*). *Aucun* makes the negation stronger.

Malheureusement, Pierre n'a pas d'amis.

Malheureusement, Pierre n'a aucun ami.

Questions

With questions, we differentiate between intonation questions, questions with est-ce que, yes-no questions, question-word questions and indirect questions.

- Bonjour Julie! Comment vas-tu?

- Bien, merci! Je vais au cinéma.

- Qu'est-ce que tu vas voir?

- Un film d'action. Tu aimes aller au cinéma?

- Beaucoup! Est-ce que je peux venir avec toi?

- Si tu veux. Veux-tu acheter du pop-corn?

- Oui.

- Intonation Questions

The simplest kind of question is an intonation question. Word order doesn't change – it's exactly the same as a declarative sentence. The only difference is the rising intonation, which shows that it's a question.

Tu aimes aller au cinéma. → Tu aimes aller au cinéma?

- Questions with est-ce que

Questions with *est-ce que* are mostly used in spoken language. After *est-ce que*, the sentence keeps its regular form (subject-predicate-object). These kinds of questions can be constructed with or without question-words.

Without a question-word:

Est-ce que je peux venir avec toi?

With a question-word

preposition	question word	est-ce que	subject	verb	additional information
	Où	est-ce que	tu	vas?	
De	quoi	est-ce que	le film	parle?	
Avec	qui	est-ce que	tu	vas	au cinéma?
	Comment	est-ce que	vous	trouvez	le film?

To Note: when the question is asking for the subject of the sentence (using *qui* or *que*), we have to add *est-ce qui* after the question-word.

Qui est-ce qui t'accompagne au cinéma?

Qu'est-ce qui t'a plu dans ce film?

- Indirect Questions

Indirect questions are used as a dependent clause within another sentence.

Tu me demandes pourquoi je pleure devant les films romantiques.

- Yes-No Questions

Questions without question-words are those we can answer with yes or no.

The subject and the conjugated verb switch positions and are connected using a hyphen. All other parts of the sentence (object, time, place, etc.) remain in the same position as in a declarative sentence (see Declarative Sentences).

Tu veux acheter du pop-corn. → Veux-tu acheter du pop-corn?

If the conjugated verb ends with a vowel and the subject begins with a vowel, we put a t in between.

Viendra-t-elle avec nous?

Éric aime-t-il les films romantiques?

If the subject is a noun, it comes before the verb in the main clause. The accompanying subject pronoun comes after the verb.

Vont-ils au cinéma? → Les enfants vont-ils au cinéma?

- Question-Word Questions

In French, the question-word comes right at the beginning of the sentence. The part of the sentence that we are asking about is replaced by the question-word.

In questions that ask about the object with a preposition, the preposition comes before the question-word.

Avec qui vas-tu au cinéma?

Pour qui est le pop-corn?

The subject and conjugated verb switch positions.

Où se trouve le cinéma?

Quand commence le film?

Qui as-tu invité?

If the subject is a noun, it comes before the verb. The accompanying subject pronoun is added after the verb.

Pourquoi va-t-elle seule au cinéma? → Pourquoi Juliette va-t-elle seule au cinéma?

Où sont-ils allés? → Où les enfants sont-ils allés?

If the question-word is que or qu', the subject pronoun is not additionally included.

Que veut voir Juliette en premier?

Qu'a vu ton amie au cinéma?

If we're asking about the subject, word order remains the same as in a main clause, and the subject is simply replaced with the question-word qui (for people) or que (for things). In this case, the verb has to be in the third-person singular.

Qui joue dans ce film?

Typical Question-Words and -Phrases

Question word	Translation	Usage (asking about...)	Example
qui	▪ who ▪ whom	▪ subject ▪ accusative object, direct object (person)	▪ Qui t'a donné le livre? – L'instituteur. ▪ Qui avez-vous vu? – Notre entraîneur.
à qui	▪ whom, to whom	▪ dative object, indirect object (person)	▪ À qui as-tu donné le livre? – À mon amie.
que/qu'	▪ what	▪ subject or object, when it's not a person ▪ action	▪ Qu'est-ce? – Un téléphone portable. ▪ Qu'avez-vous vu? – Un arc-en-ciel. ▪ Que fais-tu là? – Je lis.
quoi	▪ what	▪ in a sentence without a conjugated verb	▪ Quoi faire?
▪ *à quoi* ▪ *de quoi* ▪ *avec quoi* ▪ *sur quoi* ▪ *...*	▪ what ▪ from where ▪ with what ▪ about what ▪ …	▪ after a preposition in questions about an inanimate object	▪ À quoi penses-tu? ▪ De quoi parles-tu? ▪ Avec quoi plantes-tu tes clous? ▪ Sur quoi est-il monté pour réparer la lampe?
où	▪ where ▪ to where	▪ place (position) ▪ place (direction)	▪ Où est la gare? – Tout près d'ici. ▪ Où allez-vous? – Nous allons à la gare.
d'où	▪ from where	▪ place (origin)	▪ D'où viens-tu? – Je viens d'Allemagne.
quand	▪ when	▪ point in time	▪ Quand avez-vous petit-déjeuné? – A 7 heures.
comment	▪ how	▪ manner	▪ Comment vas-tu? – Bien.
pourquoi	▪ why ▪ for what reason	▪ reason for an action ▪ purpose of an action	▪ Pourquoi arrives-tu si tard? – Parce que le train a eu du retard. ▪ Pourquoi veux-tu apprendre le karaté? – Pour me défendre.
quel (quelle, quels…)	▪ which	▪ selection (accompanying a noun) ▪ see Interrogative Pronouns	▪ Quelle voiture te plaît? – La rouge.

Question word	Translation	Usage (asking about...)	Example
lequel	▪ which one	▪ selection (replacing a noun) see Interrogative Pronouns	▪ Voici deux trousses. Laquelle veux-tu?
combien	▪ how many, how much	▪ number/amount	▪ Combien de bougies as-tu sur ton gâteau?

UNIT 4

ENGLISH-FRENCH FALSE FRIENDS (FAUX AMIS)

False friends or *faux amis* are words in a foreign language bearing a deceptive resemblance to words in one's own language. For example the word actually means really in English. In French actuellement has a diffrent meaning; it means at present. This is a list of English-French *faux amis* (false friends).

English word	French Equivalent
to abuse	*insulter* and not *abuser* (which means in English *take advantage of*)
to accommodate	*loger* and not *accommoder* (which means in English *prepare*)
to achieve	*réaliser* and not *achever* (which means in English *complete*)
actually	*en fait* and not *actuellement* (which means in English *at present*)
caution	*prudence* and not *caution* (which means in English *guarantee*)
character	*personnage* and not *caractère* (which means in English *nature*)
to charge	*faire payer* and not charger (which means in English *load*)
check	*contrôle* and not *chèque* (which means in English *cheque*)
close	*proche, serré* and not *clos* (which means in English *closed*)
commodity	*marchandise* and not *commodité* (which means in English *convenience*)
comprehensive	*complet* and not *compréhensif* (which means in English *understanding*)
conductor	*contrôleur* and not *conducteur* (which means in English *driver*)
confection	*friandise* and not *confection* (which means in English *ready-made clothes*)
consistent	*cohérent* and not *consistant* (which means in English *solid, thick*)
contemplate	One of its meanings is *envisager* and not *contempler* (which means in English *gaze at*)
countenance	*expression (visage)* and not *contenance* (which means in English *capacity*)
to deceive	*tromper* and not *décevoir* (which means in English *disappoint*)
delay	*retard* and not *délai* (which means in English *time limit*)
to dispose	*se débarrasser* and not *disposer* (which means in English *arrange*)
dispute	*conflit* and not *dispute* (which means in English *quarrel, argument*)
engaged	*occupé* and *not engagé* (which means in English *committed*)
estate	*domaine* and not *état* (which means in English *state, condition*)
eventually	*finalement* and not *éventuellement* (which means in English *possibly*)
expertise	*compétence* and not *expertise* (which means in English *expert's report*)
extra	*supplémentaire* and *extra* (which means in English *first-rate*)
fortunate	chanceux and not fortuné (which means in English *wealthy, well-off*)

gentle	*aimable, doux* and not *gentil* (which means in English *nice, kind*)
grand	*grandiose* and not *grand* (which means in English *tall, big*)
grapes	*raisin* and not *grappe* (which means in English *bunch of grapes*)
habit	*habitude* and not *habit* (which means in English *dress, clothes*)
hazard	*danger* and not *hasard* (which means in English *chance*)
inconvenient	*inopportun* and not *inconvenant* (which means in English improper)
indulge	*laisser aller* and not *indulgence* (which means in English *leniency*)
invaluable	*inestimable* and not *non valable* (which means in English *invalid, not valid*)
lecture	*conférence* and not *lecture* (which means in English *reading*)
location	*emplacement* and not *location* (which means in English *renting, lease*)
mechanic	*mécanicien* and not *mécanique* (which means in English *engineering*)
medicine	*médicament* and not *médecin* (which means in English *doctor*)
mercy	*miséricorde* and not *merci* (which means in English *thanks*)
notice	*avis, préavis* and not *notice* (which means in English *note, instructions*)
partition	*séparation* and not *partition* (which means in English *(musical) score*)
petrol	*essence* and not *pétrole* (which means in English *oil, petroleum*)
photograph	*photographie* and not *photographe* (which means in English *photographer*)
phrase	*expression* and not *phrase* (which means in English *sentence*)
to prevent	*empêcher* and not *prévenir* (which means in English *warn*)
proper	*adéquat* and not *propre* (which means in English *clean, decent*)
to recover	*se rétablir* and not *recouvrir* (which means in English *cover*)
to regard	*considérer* and not *regarder* (which means in English *look at*)
relieve	*soulager* and not *relever* (which means in English *raise*)
to resume	*recommencer* and not *résumer* (which means in English *sum up*)
route	*itinéraire* and *route* (which means in English *road*)
rude	*grossier* and not *rude* (which means in English *rough, hard*)
sensible	*raisonnable* and not *sensible* (which means in English *sensitive*)
socket	*douille* and not *socquette* (which means in English *sock*)
store	*grand magasin* and not *store* (which means in English *blind, shade*)
suit	*costume* and not *suite* (which means in English *rest*)
to supply	*fournir* and not *supplier* (which means in English *implore*)
to survey	*examiner* and not *surveiller* (which means in English *supervise*)
sympathetic	*compatissant* and not *sympathique* (which means in English *nice, friendly*)
wagon	chariot and not wagon (which means in English *carriage, car*)

✓ Do not confuse the following:

1. *nuit* and *soirée*

«J'ai pâssé la soirée avec lui» doesn't mean *«J'ai passé la nuit avec lui».*

Nuit (night) – time from 23:00 until the morning,

Soirée (evening) – time from 19: 00 to 23:00;

2. *chambre (a bedroom)* and *pièce (a room);*

3. *librairie (a bookstore)* and *bibliothèque (a library);*

4. *injure (offending words)* and *blessure (a wound);*

5. *position (opinion, location), place (a job,a square* or *a place*) and *poste (a job);*

6. *caractère (personality)* and *personnage (a film or a book character);*

7. *humeur (mood)* and *humour (sense of humour);*

8. *monnaie (loose change or currency)* and *argent (money).*

✓ A number of French nouns look like their English equivalents, but their spelling is different:

- *une adresse (address),*

- *un appartement (apartment),*

- *un comité (commitee),*

- *le confort (comfort),*

- *un correspondant (correspondent),*

- *un ennemi (enemy),*

- *un exemple (example),*

- *le gouvernement (government),*

- *un héros (hero),*

- *le langage (language),*

- *la littérature (literature),*

- *des progrès (progress).*

UNIT 5

CHECK YOURSELF

1. Match French polite expressions with their English equivalents.

Français		English
1. s'il vous plait	...	a. please
2. pardon	...	b. thank you
3. merci	...	c. thank you very much
4. excusez moi	...	d. you're welcome
5. merci beaucoup	...	e. it was my pleasure
6. je suis désolé(e)	...	f. don't mention it
7. de rien	...	g. pardon me, I beg your pardon
8. pas de quoi	...	h. excuse me
9. je vous en prie	...	i. I'm sorry
10. bon appétit !	...	j. cheers
11. à votre santé	...	k. enjoy your meal

2. Put the facts about France into the correct place.

1. Capitale	...	a. Paris
2. Principales métropoles	...	b. Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité
3. Langue	...	c. 632 834 km2, dont 551 695 km2 en France métropolitaine
4. Régime politique	...	d. Euro
5. Président	...	e. Bordeaux, Lille, Lyon, Marseille, Nice, Nantes, Strasbourg, Toulon, Toulouse
6. Drapeau	...	f. La Marseillaise
7. Hymne national	...	g. français

8. Devise nationale	...	h. République
9. Monnaie	...	i. 65 821 000 habitants (janv. 2014)
10. PIB	...	j. 2 121 milliards d'euros (5e rang mondial) k. 33 152 €/ hab. (oct. 2013)
11. Population	...	l. Trois bandes verticales bleu, blanc, rouge
12. Superficie	...	m. François Hollande

3. Read and compare English and French proverbs. Can you find the equivalents in your language ?

A

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush / Un « tiens » vaut mieux que deux « tu l'auras » / Il vaut mieux tenir que courir

A carpenter is known by his chips / À l'œuvre on reconnaît l'ouvrier

A cat has nine lives / Un chat a neuf vies

A cat may look at a king / Un chien regarde bien un évêque

A debt paid is a friend kept / Les bons comptes font les bons amis

A drowning man will catch at a straw / Un homme qui se noie se raccroche à un fêtu

A friend in need is a friend indeed / C'est dans le besoin qu'on reconnaît ses amis / Amitié dans la peine, amitié certaine

A good deed is never lost / Une bonne action n'est jamais perdue

A good name is better than riches / Bonne renommée vaut mieux que ceinture dorée

A man is known by the company he keeps / Dis-moi qui tu fréquentes, je te dirai qui tu es

A penny saved is a penny earned / Il n'y a pas de petit profit

A rolling stone gathers no moss / Pierre qui roule n'amasse pas mousse

A stitch in time saves nine / Un pas fait à temps en vaut cent / Mieux vaut prévenir que guérir

Actions speak louder than words / Les actions en disent plus que les mots / Bien faire vaut mieux que bien dire / Mieux vaut faire que dire

All cats are grey in the dark / La nuit, tous les chats sont gris

All roads lead to Rome / Tous les chemins mènent à Rome

All's fair in love and war / En amour comme à la guerre, tous les coups sont permis

All's well that ends well / Tout est bien qui finit bien

All that glitters is not gold / Tout ce qui brille n'est pas or

All things are difficult before they are easy / Toutes les choses sont difficiles avant d'être faciles

All things come to those who wait / Tout vient à point à qui sait attendre

All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy / On s'abrutit à toujours travailler

An apple a day keeps the doctor away / La pomme du matin tue le médecin / Une pomme par jour, en forme toujours

An Englishman's home is his castle / Chacun est roi en sa maison / Charbonnier est maître chez soi.

B

Barking dogs seldom bite / Chien qui aboie ne mord pas / Les chiens aboient, la caravane passe

Beauty is but skin deep / La beauté n'est pas tout

Beauty is in the eye of the beholder / La beauté est affaire de goût / Il n'y a pas de laides amours

Better late than never   / Mieux vaut tard que jamais

Better safe than sorry / Mieux vaut sauf que désolé / Prudence est mère de sécurité / Mieux vaut prévenir que guérir

Birds of a feather flock together / Qui se ressemble s'assemble / Chacun aime son semblable

Blessed is he who expects nothing, for he shall never be disappointed / Bienheureux celui qui n'attend rien, car il ne sera point déçu

Blood is thicker than water / La voix du sang parle toujours plus fort que les autres

C

Catch your bear before you sell its skin / Il ne faut pas vendre la peau de l'ours avant de l'avoir tué

Charity begins at home / Charité bien ordonnée commence par soi-même / La charité commence chez soi

Christmas comes but once a year / Ce n'est pas tous les jours fête

Clothes do not make the man / L'habit ne fait pas le moine

Curiosity killed the cat / La curiosité est un vilain défaut

D

Diamond cuts diamond / Le diamant taille le diamant / Fin contre fin n'est pas bon à faire doublure

Do as you would be done by / Ne fais pas aux autres ce que tu ne voudrais pas qu'ils te fassent

Do not halloo you are out of the wood / Il ne faut pas se moquer des chiens avant qu'on ne soit hors du village / Il ne faut pas crier victoire trop tôt

Don't change horses in mid-stream / Il ne faut pas changer de cheval au milieu du gué

Don't judge a book by its cover / La couverture ne fait pas le livre / Il ne faut pas se fier aux apparences

E

Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise / Se coucher tôt, se lever tôt, c'est amasser santé, richesse et sagesse

Easy come, easy go / Ce qui vient facilement, s'en va de même / Ce qui vient de la flûte s'en retourne au tambour

Every cloud has a silver lining / Après la pluie, le beau temps

Every Jack has his Jill / A chacun sa chacune / À chaque pot son couvercle

Every thing has its time / Chaque chose a son temps

F

Fine feathers make fine birds / La belle plume fait le bel oiseau

First come, first served / Premier arrivé, premier servi

Fortune lost, nothing lost / Plaie d'argent n'est pas mortelle

G

Give credit where credit is due / Il faut rendre à César ce qui est à César et à Dieu ce qui est à Dieu

Good neighbours are hard to find / Les bons voisins sont difficiles à trouver

Good words break no bones / Douce parole n'écorche pas langue

Grasp all, lose all / Qui trop embrasse, mal étreint

H

Heaven helps those who help themselves / Aide-toi, le ciel t'aidera

Haste makes waste / Souvent tout gâte qui trop se hâte

Hell is paved with good intentions / L'enfer est pavé de bonnes intentions

He who laughs last laughs best / Rira bien qui rira le dernier

He who pays the piper calls the tune / Qui paie les pipeaux, commande la musique

Honesty is the best policy / L'honnêteté est la meilleure des recettes

I

Ill gotten seldom prosper / Bien mal acquis ne profite jamais

In for a penny, in for a pound / Quand le vin est tiré, il faut le boire

It's never too late to mend / Il n'est jamais trop tard pour bien faire

J

Jack of all trades, master of none / Bon à tout, bon à rien

K

Kill not the goose that lays the golden eggs / Il ne faut pas tuer la poule aux œufs d'or

L

Laughter is the best medicine / Mieux vaut rire que pleurrer

Let sleeping dogs lie / Il ne faut pas réveiller le chat qui dort

Life is not all beer and skittles / La vie n'est pas un long fleuve tranquille

Like father, like son / Tel père, tel fils

Live and let live / Il faut que tout le monde vive

Love is blind / L'amour est aveugle

M

Man does not live by bread alone / L'homme ne vit pas que d'eau fraiche

Man lives by hope / L'espoir fait vivre

Manners maketh the man / Un homme n'est rien sans les manières

Money does not grow on trees / L'argent ne tombe pas du ciel / L'argent ne se trouve pas sous le sabot d'un cheval

N

Never put off till tomorrow what you can do today / Il ne faut jamais remettre au lendemain ce qu'on peut faire le jour même

Never say never / Il ne faut jamais dire : Fontaine, je ne boirai pas de ton eau

Nothing ventured, nothing gained / Qui ne tente rien, n'a rien

O

Old habits die hard / L'habitude est une seconde nature

Once bitten, twice shy / Chat échaudé craint l'eau froide

One swallow does not make a summer / Une hirondelle ne fait pas le printemps

Out of sight, out of mind / Loin des yeux, loin du cœur

P

Patience brings all things about / Tout vient à point à qui sait attendre

Practice makes perfect / C'est en forgeant qu'on devient forgeron

Prevention is better than cure / Mieux vaut prévenir que guérir

Q, R

Rome was not built in one day / Rome ne s'est pas faite en un jour

S

Seek and you shall find / Qui cherche trouve

Silence gives consent / Qui ne dit mot consent

Sleep on it / La nuit porte conseil

Sleeping dogs don't bite / Il ne faut pas éveiller le chat qui dort

Sow the wind, reap the whirlwind / He who sows the wind shall reap the whirlwind / Qui sème le vent, récolte la tempête

Speech is silver, silence is golden / La parole est d'arent mais le silence est d'or

T

Take care of the pennies and the pounds will take care of themselves / Il n'y a pas de petites économies / Les petits ruisseaux font les grandes rivières / Si l'on fait attention à chaque centime, notre fortune est faite

The darkest hour is just before dawn / La nuit porte conseil

The devil is not so black as he is painted / Le diable n'est pas toujours aussi noir qu'il en a l'air

The early bird catches the worm / L'avenir appartient à ceux qui se lèvent tôt

The more the merrier / Plus on est de fous, plus on rit

There is no place like home / Rien ne vaut son chez soi

There is no rose without a thorn / Pas de rose sans épine

There's no smoke without fire / Il n'y a pas de fumée sans feu

There's none as deaf as those who will not hear / Il n'est pire sourd que celui qui ne veut pas entendre

Tide and time wait for no man / Le temps perdu ne se rattrape jamais

Time brings all things to light / Tout se découvre avec le temps

Time is money / Le temps, c'est de l'argent

U

Unity is strength / United we stand, divided we fall / L'union fait la force

V, W

Waste not want not / Qui ne tente rien n'a rien

We must walk before we run / Il ne faut pas voler avant d'avoir des ailes

What cannot be cured must be endured / Il faut souffrir ce qu'on ne saurait empêcher

When one door shuts, another opens / Là ou une porte se ferme, une autre s'ouvre

Where there is a will there is a way / Vouloir c'est pouvoir / Quand on veut, on peut

While the cat is away, the mice will play / Quand le chat n'est pas là, les souris dansent

While there is life, there is hope / Tant qu'il y a de la vie, il y a de l'espoir

X, Y, Z

You can't have your cake and eat it / On ne peut pas avoir le beurre et l'argent du beurre

4. *Choose the correct gender.*

a. Je suis fatiqué, je vais faire [un/ une] somme.

b. Le vent se lève, les marins hissent [le/la] voile.

c. J'ai lu [un/une] critique très [positif/positive].

d. Je ne peux pas me server de cet appareil, j'ai perdu [le/la] mode d'emploi.

e. Quand je fai [le/la] somme de tout ce que j'ai acheté à Noël, je suis effaré!

f. Il a obtenu [un/ une] très [bon/bonne] poste à l'ambassade.

g. J'aimerais bien faire [le/la] tour de la ville.

5. *Test your reading skills. This is a so - called calligramme by G. Apollinaire, a famous French poet.*

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              S
              A
             LUT
              M
           O     N
           D     E
            DONT
           JE SUIS
           LA LAN
         GUE    É
          LOQUEN
        TE  QUESA
         BOUCHE
       O    PARIS
        TIRE ET TIRERA
      T O U        JOURS
     AUX           A   L
  LEM              ANDS
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Calligramme de la Tour Eiffel de Guillaume Apollinaire

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