Norwegian on the Web



Sissel Robbins, Birte Hillestad, Olaf Husby, Åsta Øvregaard

Text book grammar

Collected texts from NoW Chapters 1 -10



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This manuscript contains all grammar notes in the text book. Here all notes are organised according to word classes.

Nouns

NOUNS (Chapter 1)

Norwegian nouns have three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter. The indefinite articles are **en** (masculine), **ei** (feminine) and **et** (neuter). The corresponding indefinite articles in English are **a/an**.

en brus a sodaei jente a girlet kart a map

(Feminine nouns can have the article en instead of ei: ei/en jente)

Leaving out en/ei/et

Stating certain situations you can leave out en/ei/et:

Ken reiser med tog.

The same applies i.e. for occupations:

Jeg er **student**.

NOUNS (Chapter 2)

In chapter 1 we presented the indefinite articles **en**, **ei** and **et** which indicate the gender of the noun (i.e. **a/an**). Norwegian is unusual in that the definite article, i.e **the**, is formed by adding **-en** at the end of masculine words, **-a** at the end of feminine words and **-et** at the end of neuter words.

en brus	a soda	\rightarrow	brus en	the soda
ei avis	a newspaper	\rightarrow	avis a	the newspaper
et tog	a train	\rightarrow	toget	the train

If the noun already ends with an $-\mathbf{e}$, you just add the $-\mathbf{n}$ and the $-\mathbf{t}$ at the end of masculine and neuter words. When adding $-\mathbf{a}$ at the end of feminine words ending in $-\mathbf{e}$, you drop the $-\mathbf{e}$:

en pose	a plastic bag	\rightarrow	posen	the plastic bag
ei jente	a girl	\rightarrow	jent a	the girl
et frimerke	a stamp	\rightarrow	frimerk et	the stamp

Plural forms

The plural of indefinite nouns is normally formed by adding – er:

en bil a car \rightarrow to biler cars

ei avis a newspaper \rightarrow to aviser newspapers et frimerke a stamp \rightarrow to frimerker stamps

Exception:

Short one syllable **et-**words take no ending in the indefinite form plural:

et kart a map \rightarrow to **kart** maps et kort a card \rightarrow to **kort** cards

In the definite form of the plural, the ending is usually - **ene**:

biler cars \rightarrow bilene the cars

NOUNS (Chapter 3)

Genitive

To indicate who or what owns something you can:

a) add an -s to the owner: **Marias** rom (in Norwegian without the apostrophe)

<u>or</u>

b) use the preposition til. Note that what is owned is in the definite form:

gitaren til Maria.

Special plural forms

In chapter 2 we learnt that the indefinite and the definite plural form of the noun normally is formed by adding - (e) \mathbf{r} and - (e) \mathbf{ne} : biler (cars) and bilene (the cars).

Some nouns however do not follow the normal rule. Some of them are listed below:

1. Short, monosyllabic neuter words have no plural - (e) \mathbf{r} in the indefinite form:

et bord	bordet	bord	bordene
a table	the table	tables	the tables



2. Nouns ending in -er, mostly denoting persons, have the plural forms -e and -ne:

en italiener	italieneren	italienere	italienerne
an Italian	the Italian	Italians	the Italians

3. When the noun ends in $-\mathbf{el}$, one $-\mathbf{e}$ is dropped when adding $-\mathbf{er}$ and $-\mathbf{ene}$. Double consonant is reduced to one:

en nøkkel	nøkkelen	nøkler	nøklene
a key	the key	keys	the keys

Some nouns ending in - **er** also have reduced plural forms:

• ,	• ,		4	4
ei søster	a sister	søstera	søstre	søstrene

Some other irregular plural forms:

ei bok	a book	boka	bøker	bøkene
en bror	a brother	broren	brødre	brødrene
en far	a father	faren	fedre	fedrene
ei mor	a mother	mora	mødre	mødrene
en nordmann	a Norwegian	nordmannen	nordmenn	nordmennene

Verbs

VERB IN THE PRESENT TENSE (Chapter 1)

You add $-\mathbf{r}$ to the infinitive to form the present tense:

 Infinitive
 Present tense

 å komme
 to come
 → kommer

 å reise
 to travel
 → reiser

It does not matter who is carrying out the verb. You add **-r** after *I, you, he, she, it, we, you* and *they*:

Jeg kommer fra England.

I come from England.

Anna kommer fra Italia.

Anna comes from Italy.

Vi **kommer** fra Norge. We come from Norway.

Note that some verbs have irregular present tense forms:

å være to be \rightarrow er å gjøre to do \rightarrow gjør

VERBS (Chapter 2)

Auxiliary verbs + infinitive

skal will, am/are/is going to

vil want to/willkan can, be able tomå have to, must

are followed by the infinitive (without the infinitive marker å in front):

Ken skal sjekke adressa.

Han vil ta en taxi.

Anna kan betale med kort.

Hun må vente på neste buss.

Skal + infinitive is often used to express future time.

Imperative form

The imperative form of the verb is made by removing the final –e from the infinitive :

 \mathring{a} stoppe to stop \rightarrow stopp Stop! \mathring{a} vente to wait \rightarrow vent Wait!

When the infinitive form is short (consists of only one syllable) the infinitive and the imperative form is the same:

å dra to go \rightarrow dra Go! å gå to walk \rightarrow gå Go/Walk!

VERBS (Chapter 4)

Infinitive

Some expressions with prepositions and some verbs are followed by an infinitive, e.g.

for å in order to Anna går til kassen for å betale.

å ha lyst til want/would like to Hun har lyst til å kjøpe en norsk roman.

å begynne begin Hun begynner å lese i boka.

å like like Hun liker å lese.

Auxiliary verbs without the main verb (the infinitive)

In certain situations you can omit the main verb (the infinitive) after the auxiliary verb:

Ken vil (dra) hjem. \rightarrow Ken vil hjem. Ken wants to go home Anna skal (gå) ut \rightarrow Anna skal ut. Anna is going out

VERBS (Chapter 5)

Past tense

We use past tense when we want to describe something that has already happened at a certain time n the past (e.g. i g ar - y esterday)

Ken kjøpte ei jakke i går.

A. The regular verbs are divided into four groups:

Group 1: The verbs add the ending -et. In this group many verbs with two consonants in front of the infinitive -e and some verbs with t, g, and d:

Infinitive: å snakke speak/talk å vaske wash å lage make

Past tense: snakket vasket laget

Group 2: The verbs add the ending **-te**. Many verbs with one consonant and some with a double consonant belong in this group:

Infinitive: å kjøpe buy å spise eat begynne begin Past tense: kjøpte spiste begynte

Group 3: The verbs add the ending **–de**. Some verbs with **v** and **ei** belong in this group:

Infinitive: å prøve try å greie manage å leie rent Past tense: **prøvde greide leide**

Group 4: The verbs add the ending **–dde**. Many verbs ending in another vowel than –e belong in group 4:

Infinitive: å bety mean å bo live å ha have Past tense: **betydde bodde hadde**

B. The irregular verbs have other forms. In most cases they change vowel:

Infinitive: å dra go/travel å drikke drink å finne find

Past tense: dro drakk fant

Some other irregular verbs in chapter 5:

Infinitive:		Past tense
å bli	become	ble
å fortelle	tell	fortalte
å gå	walk	gikk
å hjelpe	help	hjalp
å møte	meet	møtte
å si	say	sa
å sitte	sit	satt
å spørre	ask	spurte
å stå	stand	sto(d)
å ta	take	tok
å treffe	meet	traff
å ville	want/wish	ville
å være	be	var

VERBS (Chapter 6)

Present perfect

The present perfect (icf. has bought) is formed with the verb $\mathring{\mathbf{a}}$ ha (to have) and the past participle of the verb: $\mathbf{har} + \mathbf{kj} \mathbf{opt} = \mathbf{har} \mathbf{kj} \mathbf{opt}$. The present perfect is used when we are focused on the consequences of an event and not the time when it happened:

Ken har kjøpt ei jakke.

Ken has bought a jacket.

The present perfect is also used when something started in the past and is still going on:

Peter har vært i Trondheim i ei uke.

Peter has been in Trondheim for one week (and he is still here)

A. The regular verbs:

Group 1: The verbs add the ending –t.

Infinitive: å snakke speak/talk å vaske wash å lage make
Past tense: snakket vasket laget
Present perfect: har snakket har vasket har laget

Group 2: The verbs add the ending –et.

Infinitive: å kjøpe buy å spise eat begynne begin
Past tense: kjøpte spiste begynte
Present perfect: har kjøpt har spist har begynt

Group 3: The verbs add the ending –d.

Infinitive: å prøve try å greie manage å leie rent
Past tense: prøvde greide leide
Present perfect: har prøvd har greid har leid

Group 4: The verbs add the ending –dd.

Infinitive: å bety mean å bo live å nå reach
Past tense: betydde bodde nådde
Present perfect: har betydd har bodd har nåd NB!

B. The irregular verbs have other forms:

Infinitive: å dra go/travel å drikke drink å finne find Past tense: dro drakk fant

Present perfect: har dratt har drukket har funnet

More irregular verbs:

å kunne

å måtte

å skulle

å ville

can

shall

will

must/have to må

Infinitive		Duagant tanga	Doct tongo	Dogt nauticiple
å bli	haaama	Present tense blir	Past tense	Past participle blitt
	become		ble	
å brenne	burn	brenner	brant	brent
å dra	go/travel	drar	dro	dratt
å drikke	drink	drikker	drakk	drukket
å dø ° c	die	dør	døde	dødd
å finne	find	finner	fant	funnet
å forstå	understand	forstår	forsto	forstått
å fortelle	tell	forteller	fortalte	fortalt
å fortsette	continue	fortsetter	fortsatte	fortsatt
å få	get/receive	får	fikk	fått
å gi	give	gir	ga(v)	gitt
å gjøre	do	gjør	gjorde	gjort
å gå	go/walk	går	gikk	gått
å hete	be called/	heter	het	hett
	named			
å hjelpe	help	hjelper	hjalp	hjulpet
å komme	come	kommer	kom	kommet
å le	laugh	ler	lo	ledd
å legge	lay/put	legger	la	lagt
å ligge	lie	ligger	lå	ligget
å møte	meet	møter	møtte	møtt
å se	see	ser	så	sett
å selge	sell	selger	solgte	solgt
å sette	set/put	setter	satte	satt
å si	say	sier	sa	sagt
å sitte	sit	sitter	satt	sittet
å skrive	write	skriver	skrev	skrevet
å sove	sleep	sover	sov	sovet
å spørre	ask	spør	spurte	spurt
å stå	stand	står	sto(d)	stått
å synge	sing	synger	sang	sunget
å ta	take	tar	tok	tatt
å treffe	meet	treffer	traff	truffet
å velge	choose	velger	valgte	valgt
å vite	know	vet	visste	visst
å være	be	er	var	vært
Auxiliary ve	rbs			
å burde	ought to	bør	burde	burdet
å launna	2012	lean	launna	launnat

kan

skal

vil

kunne

måtte

skulle

ville

kunnet

måttet

skullet

villet

Adjectives

ADJECTIVES (Chapter 3)

Main pattern: Most adjectives add $-\mathbf{t}$ in the neuter and $-\mathbf{e}$ in the plural. Below this is demonstrated with the adjective **brun** (brown).

Attributive form

Singular indefinite Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural indefinite
en brun stol	ei brun seng	et brunt bord	brune stoler
			brune senger
			brune bord
a brown chair	a brown bed	a brown table	brown chairs
			brown beds
			brown tables

Predicative form

Singular indefinite Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural indefinite
Stolen er brun	Senga er brun	Bordet er brunt	Stoler er brune Senger er brune Bord er brune
The chair is	The bed is	The table is	Chairs are brown
brown	brown	brown	Beds are brown Tables are brown
Singular indefinite			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	definite
Stolen er brun	Senga er brun	Bordet er brunt	Stolene er brune
	Ü		Sengene er brune Bordene er brune
The chair is	The bed is	The table is	The chairs are brown
brown	brown	brown	The beds are brown The tables are brown

ADJECTIVES (Chapter 4)

In *Chapter 3* we learnt the main pattern for adjectives: Most adjectives add -t in the neuter and -e in the plural.

Attributive form

Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
en brun stol	ei brun seng	et brunt bord	brune stoler/senger/
			bord

Predicative form

Singular indefinite Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural indefinite
Stolen er brun	Senga er brun	Bordet er brunt	Stoler er brune
The chain is howen	The had is heaven	The table is however	Senger er brune Bord er brune
The chair is brown	The bed is brown	The table is brown	Chairs are brown Beds are brown The tables are brown

There are however some other patterns for adjectives as well:

Other patterns

Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Plural
1. en ny bil	ei ny veske	et nytt skjerf	nye biler
2. en billig bil	ei billig veske	et billig skjerf	billige biler
3. en tysk bil	ei tysk veske	et tysk skjerf	tyske biler
4. en praktisk bil	ei praktisk veske	et praktisk skjerf	praktiske biler
5. en moderne bil	ei moderne veske	et moderne skjerf	moderne biler
6. en grønn bil	ei grønn veske	et grønt skjerf	grønne biler

- 1. One-syllable adjectives ending in a stressed vowel take -tt in the neuter (ny new)
- 2. Adjectives ending in -ig take no -t in the neuter (billig cheap)
- 3. Adjectives denoting nationalities ending in -sk take no -t in the neuter (tysk German)
- 4. Foreign adjectives ending in **-isk** take no -t in the neuter (**praktisk** practical)
- 5. adjectives ending in e take no –t in the neuter (moderne modern)
- 6. Most adjectives with a double consonant drop one consonant before –t (grønn- green)

Two special adjectives:

Liten (small) and annen (other) are irregular adjectives:

Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
en liten bil	ei lita bok	et lite skjerf	små biler
		•	bøker
		små	skjerf
a small car	a small book	a small scarf	small cars
			small books
			small scarfs
Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
en annen bil	ei anna bok	et annet skjerf	andre biler
		andre bøker	
		andr	e skjerf
another car	another book	another scarf	other cars
			other books
			other scarfs
Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
Bilen er liten	Boka er lita	Skjerfet er lite	Bilene er små
		•	ene er små
		Skjer	rfene er små
The car is small	The book is small	The scarf is small	The cars are small
			The books are small
			The scarfs are small

Annen (other) is not used in predicative form.

ADJECTIVES (Chapter 5)

Other patterns

Adjectives ending in $-\mathbf{el}$ and $-\mathbf{en}$, like **gammel** (old) and **sulten** (hungry) do not follow the main pattern for adjectives. One $-\mathbf{e}$ disappears when adding the plural $-\mathbf{e}$. In addition, adjectives with a double consonant drop one consonant in the plural form:

Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
en gammel bil	ei gammel veske	et gammelt bord	gamle biler gamle vesker gamle bord
an old car	an old handbag	an old table	old cars old handbags old tables

en sulten gutt	ei sulten jente	et sultent barn	sultne guttersultne jentersultne barn
a hungry boy	a hungry girl	a hungry child	hungry boys hungry girls hungry children

Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
Bilen er gammel	Veska er gammel	Bordet er gammelt	Bilene er gamle Veskene er gamle Bordene er gamle
The car is old	The handbag is old	The table is old	The cars are old The handbags are old The tables are old
Gutten er sulten	Jenta er sulten	Barnet er sultent	Guttene er sultne Jentene er sultne Barna er sultne
The boy is hungry	The girl is hungry	The child is hungry	The boys are hungry The girls are hungry The children are hungry

Adjectives in combination with the verb to look

The expression **to look** + **adjective** (He looks old) is in Norwegian constructed by the verb å **se** + **adjective** + (the adverb) **ut**. The adjectives follow the pattern described under 1 in Chapter 3, 4 and 5. Below this is demonstrated with the adectives fin (here: nice) and (ny (new).

Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
Bilen ser fin ut	Boka ser fin ut	Huset ser fint ut	Bilene ser fine ut
The car looks nice	The book looks nice	The house looks nice	The cars look nice
Bilen ser ny ut The car looks new	Boka ser ny ut The book looks new	Huset ser nytt ut The house looks new	Bilene ser nye ut The cars look new

ADJECTIVES (Chapter 6)

The adjective appears, as we have seen in *Chapter 3* and 4, in the following positions:

as attributes (in front of) describing indefinite nouns:
 as predicatives after verbs like å være (to be):
 bilen er stor

I en stor bil the adjective is placed in front of a noun in indefinite form. However, attributive adjectives can also describe definite nouns (i.e. the big car). Then the adjectives end in -e (just like the plural form). In addition, the adjectives require the definite articles: **den**, **det** and **de** which agree in gender and number with the noun: **den** + **store** + bil**en** = **den store bilen** (the big car).

Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
en stor bil	ei stor veske	et stort bord	store biler store vesker store bord
a big car	a big handbag	a big table	big cars big handbags big tables
den store bilen	den store veska	det store bordet	de store bilene de store veskene de store bordene
the big car	the big handbag	the big table	the big cars the big handbags the big tables

Note the irregular form of **liten** (small):

Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
en liten bil	ei lita veske	et lite skjerf	små biler små vesker små skjerf
a small car	a small handbag	a small scarf	small cars small handbags small scarfs
den lille bilen	den lille veska	det lille skjerfet	de små bilene de små veskene de små skjerfene
the small car	the small handbag	the small scarf	the small cars the small handbags the small scarfs

ADJECTIVES (Chapter 8)

Comparison

a) Normally the adjectives are compared in the following way:

Absolute	Comparative (+ enn" (than))	Superlative	
fin	finere	finest	fine-finer-finest
kald	kaldere	kaldest	cold colder-coldest
varm	varm ere	varmest	warm-warmer-
			warmest

Example:

Vinteren er kald i Trondheim

The winter is cold in Trondheim.

Vinteren er kaldere på Oppdal enn i Trondheim

The winter is colder in Oppdal than in Trondheim.

Vinteren er **kaldest** på Røros

The winter is coldest in Røros.

b) Exceptions:

1) Adjectives ending in -(1)ig and -som take only -st in the superlative form:

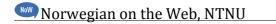
Absolute	Comparative (+ enn (than))	Superlative	
billig	billigere	billigst	cheap
hyggelig	hyggeligere	hyggeligst	nice
morsom	morsommere	morsom st	amusing/funny

2) An -e disappears in the comparative and superlative form when the adjectives end in -el, -en and -er:

Absolute	Comparative (+ enn (than))	Superlative	
enkel	enk lere	enklest	simple
moden	modnere	modnest	ripe, mature
vakker	vak rere	vak rest	beautiful

3) Many adjectives ending in -sk and adjectives ending in -e are compared with mer (more) and mest (most). Adjectives from the present perfect (example: berømt) and several long words and some foreign words are also compared in the same way:

Absolute	Comparative (+ enn (than))	Superlative



praktisk	mer praktisk	mest praktisk	practical
moderne	mer moderne	mest moderne	modern
berømt	mer berømt	mest berømt	famous
interessant	mer interessant	mest interessant	interesting
absurd	mer absurd	mest absurd	absurd

c) Some adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms:

Absolut	Comparative (+ enn = than)	Superlative	
dårlig	verre	verst	bad
god/bra	bedre	best	good
gammel	eldre	eldst	old
ung	yngre	yngst	young
stor	større	størst	big
liten	mindre	minst	small
lang	lengre	lengst	long
tung	tyngre	tyngst	heavy

Example:

Ken er ung .	Ken er yngre enn Peter.	Maria er yngst .
Ken is young.	Ken is younger than Peter.	Maria is (the) youngest.

Note the following:

1) The comparative form is invariable. The gender of the noun and the number (singular or plural) does not matter:

Ken er **yngre** enn Peter. Maria er **yngre** enn Ken. Maria og Ken er **yngre** enn Peter.

2) When the superlative form is placed in front of a definite noun the adjectives end in -e. In addition, the definite articles **den**, **det** and **de**, which agree in gender and number with the noun, are required (see also Adjectives, the double definite construction, chapter 6):

den yngste jenta	det fineste huset	de beste bøkene
the youngest girl	the nicest house	the best books

3) When the superlative form appears as predicate after verbs like *å være* (to be) we can use the indefinite or the definite form of the superlative:

Maria er **yngst** i klassen. Maria er **den yngste** i klassen. Maria is (the) youngest in her class.

4) We use the superlative form when we compare two items:

Hvem er eldst/den eldste, Peter eller Ken?

Who is older/the oldest, Peter or Ken?

Hvilken jakke er **billigst/den billigste**, den røde eller den svarte?

Which jacket is cheaper/the cheapest, the red or the black one?

Hvilken by er **størst/den største**, Trondheim eller Oslo?

Which city is bigger/the biggest, Trondheim or Oslo?

Adverbs

ADVERBS (Chapter 3)

Some adverbs have two forms, one indicating movement, the other for stationary situations:

Movement:		Stationary:	
Han går inn	in	Han er inne	in/inside
Han går ut	out	Han er ute	out/outside
Han går opp i andre etasje	up	Han er oppe	up/upstairs
Han går ned i første etasje	down	Han er nede	down/downstairs
Han går hjem	home	Han er hjemme	at home

Note that there are also two forms for "here" and "there".

Movement:		Stationary:	
Han kommer hit	here	Han er her	here
Han går dit	there	Han er der	there

Pronouns

PERSONAL PRONOUNS (Chapter 1)

Subject form

jeg Ι du (singular) you han he hun she det/den it vi we (plural) dere you de they

PERSONAL PRONOUNS - object form (Chapter 2)

Subject form		Object form	Object form		
jeg	I	meg	me	(singular)	
du	you	deg	you		
han	he	ham (han)	him		
hun	she	henne	her		
det/den	it	det/den	it		
vi	we	oss	us	(plural)	
dere	you	dere	you		
de	they	dem	them		

PERSONAL PRONOUNS (Chapter 3)

Den/det

Both **den** and **det** mean *it*. **Den** is used to replace masculine and feminine nouns, **det** replaces neuter nouns:

Ken har *en hybel*. **Den** er i første etasje.

Anna har *ei veske*. **Den** er fin. Hybelen har *et skap*. **Det** er stort.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS (Chapter 3)

Many Norwegian verbs need a reflexive pronoun. Reflexive erbs indicate that the subject is performing an action upon itself. The verb å vaske seg (to wash oneself) is reflexive, the verb å vaske noe/noen (to wash something/someone) is not:

Refelxive pronouns are identical to object pronouns (see *Chapter 2*) except for **ham**, **henne**, **dem** where the pronoun **seg** is used

Jeg	vasker meg.	myself
Du	vasker deg .	yourself
Han	vasker seg .	himself
Hun	vasker seg .	herself

Vi vasker oss. ourselves
Dere vasker dere. yourselves
De vasker seg. themselves

Some other reflexive verbs are:

å barbere seg to shave

å glede seg til to look forward to

å kle på seg to dress å sette seg to sit down å tørke seg to dry oneself

QUESTION WORDS (Chapter 1)

hva what Hva heter du? What is your name?

hvem who Hvem er det? Who is it?

hvor where (how) Hvor bor du? Where do you live?

Hvor gammel er du? How old are you?

hvordan how Hvordan går det? How are you?

QUESTION WORDS (Chapter 2)

question words in Norwegian. **Hvilken** (which) is in general used to single out one object among many. This question word agrees with the noun's gender and number.

Hvilken buss tar du?
Hvilken avis leser du?
Hvilket kart vil du ha?
Hvilke aviser leser du?
Hvilke aviser leser du?
hvilken in front of a feminine noun (ei avis)
hvilket in front of a neuter noun (et kart)
hvilke in front of plural nouns (aviser)

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS (Chapter 4)

Demonstrative pronouns specify objects as well as distinct to the objects. **Denne** and **den** is used with masculine and feminine nouns. **Dette** and **det** is used with neuter nouns. Note that the nouns following the demonstratives take the definite form: denne bilen etc..

Near		Far		
Masculine	denne bilen	this car	den bilen	that (car
Feminine	denne veska	this handbag	den veska	that handbag
Neuter	dette kartet)	this map	det kartet	that map
Plural	disse bilene	these cars	de bilene	those cars

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS (Chapter 7)

The possessive pronouns give information about ownership.

If the owner is **jeg** (I), you indicate possession by using either **min**, **mi** or **mitt** (my/mine) dependent on the gender of the "owned" noun. If the "owned" noun is in plural, you choose **mine**:

Faren min er lærer. My father is a teacher. Mora mi er også lærer. My mother is also a teacher.

Huset mitt er gammelt. My house is old.

Bøkene mine ligger i sekken. My books are in the bag.

The possessives **din** (your/yours) and **vår** (our/ours) also agree in number and gender with the noun while **hans** (his), **hennes** (her/hers) and **deres** (their/theirs) are invariable.

Owner	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
I	faren min	mora mi	huset mitt	bøkene mine
	my father	my mother	my house	my books
you	faren din	mora di	huset ditt	bøkene dine
	your father	your mother	your house	your books
he	faren hans	mora hans	huset hans	bøkene hans
	his father	his mother	his house	his books
she	faren hennes	mora hennes	huset hennes	bøkene hennes
	her father	her mother	her house	her books
we	faren vår	mora vår	huset vårt	bøkene våre
	our father	our mother	our house	our books
you	faren deres	mora deres	huset deres	bøkene deres
	your father	your mother	your house	your books
they	faren deres	mora deres	huset deres	bøkene deres
	their father	their mother	their house	their books

In Norwegian, the possessive pronouns can be placed either after the "owned object", like in the table above, or in front of the "owned object": faren **min** or **min** far.

Note that the noun takes the definite form in the first case while it takes the indefinite form in the latter:

faren min	but	min far
mora di	but	di mor
huset hennes	but	hennes hus
bøkene våre	but	våre bøker
faren deres	but	deres far

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS (Chapter 8)

sin - si - sitt - sine

In chapter 7 you were introduced to the possessive pronouns - the different forms of min (my/mine), din (your/yours singular) and vår (our/ours) and hans (his), hennes (her/hers) and deres (your/yours plural + their/theirs).

There is, however, a reflexive form of **hans/hennes** (3. person singular) and **deres** (3. person plural: their/theirs). The reflexive form is used when the subject of the sentence owns the object, and the other form is used when the subject does not own the object:

Peter tok bilen sin. Peter took his car.	\rightarrow	Peters bil
Peter tok bilen hans. Peter took his car.	\rightarrow	Franks bil

The form, **sin**, agrees in gender and number with the owned noun, where **sin** is the masculine singular form, **si** the feminine singular, **sitt** the neuter singular form and **sine** the plural form (see table).

	Owner	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
\mathbf{S}	I	faren min	mora mi	huset mitt	bøkene mine
		my father	my mother	my house	my books
JU	you	faren din	mora di	huset ditt	bøkene dine
SINGULAR		your father	your mother	your house	your books
R	he	faren hans	mora hans	huset hans	bøkene hans
		his father	his mother	his house	his books
		faren sin	mora si	huset sitt	bøkene sine
		his (own) father	his(own) mother	his (own) house	his (own) books
	she	faren hennes	mora hennes	huset hennes	bøkene hennes
		her father	her mother	her house	her books
		faren sin	mora si	huset sitt	bøkene sine
		her(own) father	her(own) mother	her(own) house	her(own) books

Pl	we	faren vår	mora vår	huset vårt	bøkene våre
LUR		our father	our mother	our house	our books
\mathbb{R}^{λ}	you	faren deres	mora deres	huset deres	bøkene deres
L		your father	your mother	your house	your books
	they	faren deres	mora deres	huset deres	bøkene deres
		their father	their mother	their house	their books
		faren sin	mora si	huset sitt	bøkene sine
		their (own) father	their (own) mother	their (own) house	their (own) books

Other examples:

Peter finner ikke <i>mobiltelefonen</i> sin . Peter can not find his cell phone.	\rightarrow	Peters mobiltelefor
Peter finner ikke <i>mobiltelefonen</i> hans . Peter can not find his cell phone.	\rightarrow	Kens mobiltelefon
Etterpå går Peter til <i>rommet</i> sitt . Afterwards, Peter goes to his room.	\rightarrow	Peters rom
Han (Peter) skriver en tekstmelding til <i>mora</i> si. He writes a text message to his mother.	\longrightarrow	Peters mor
Han (Peter) har gledet seg til turen sammen med de nye <i>vennene</i> sine på norskkurset. He has been looking forward to the trip with	\rightarrow	Peters venner

Note that **sin - si - sitt - sine** can not be used in the subject:

his new friends from the Norwegian course.

Subject

Mobiltelefonen hans er ny His cell phone is new

but:

Subject **Object**

mobiltelefonen sin Han finner ikke

He can not find his cell phone

Determinatives

Possessives, demonstratives and quantifiers (articles, numerals, indefinite pronouns) are not treated as belonging to the same word class in this short grammar. See the large grammar.

Possessives, demonstratives and quantifiers are discussed in the following chapters in the short grammar:

Possessives see *Pronouns chapter 7, 8*Demonstratives see *Pronouns chapter 4*

Quantifiers

Articles see Nouns Chapter 1
Numerals see Extras Chapter 1, 3
Indefinite articles see the large grammar

på NTNU, universitetet, Sintef

Prepositions

i

PREPOSITIONS (Chapter 3)

in

Which preposition with places? I or på?

på	in/on/at	+ inland cities, areas, institutions
i		på
i Euro	pa	på Røros, Lillehammer
i Norg	ge	på Gløshaugen, Dragvoll, Lade

+ continents, countries, counties, cities

i Sør-Trøndelag i Trondheim

PREPOSITIONS (Chapter 8)

Time expressions

A lot of time expressions are formed together with prepositions. Below you are presented with some of these expressions:

The preposition "I" is used

a) in front of years, months, holidays and other expressions regarding time:

```
i 2009, i oktober, i jula (for/during Christmas),(i) neste uke (next week), i kveld (tonight), i morgen (tomorrow).
```

b) in front of seasons. The season you refer to is a specific one, and the tense of the verb will indicate whether you refer to the present season, to the coming season or to the last season. Note that we use the indefinite form of the noun (the season):

Peter *går* på norskkurs **i høst**.

Peter takes a Norwegian course this autumn.

Ken skal studere psykologi i høst.

Ken is going to study psychology this autumn.

I høst dro studentene på hyttetur.

This autumn the students went on a cabin trip.

c) in front of periods of time:

Anna har bodd i Trondheim i tre måneder.

Anna has lived in Trondheim for three months

Hun skal være her i to år.

She is going to stay here for two years.

The preposition "OM" is used

a) in front of seasons and other periods of time when the periods are repeated. Note the definite form of the noun:

Marinela liker å bade om sommeren.

Marinela likes to go for a swim in the summer.

Om kvelden ser Ken på TV.

In the evening, Ken watches TV.

b) to express future:

Studentene skal reise på tur om to dager.

The students are going for a trip in two days.

Kurset begynner om 15 minutter.

The course starts in 15 minutes.

The discontinuous preposition FOR - SIDEN

We use the discontinuous preposition for - siden to express ago:

Anna kom til Trondheim for tre måneder siden.

Anna came to Trondheim three months ago.

The preposition "PÅ"

Together with weekdays we use på:

Bussen drar klokka 16.00 på søndag.

The bus leaves at 4 pm on Sunday.

Maria er på Dragvoll **på fredager**.

Maria is at Dragvoll on Fridays.

PREPOSITIONS (Chapter 10)

More about prepositions in connection with place

Bak (behind), foran (in front of), i (in), på (on), over (over), under (under) and ved siden av (next to) are typical prepositions in connection with place.

In the following we will have a closer look at the difference between **i** and **på** and in addition explain the use of two other prepositions; **til** (to) and **hos** (at).

I

I is used when something is placed inside something, within borders or walls:

Peter har vondt i halsen.

Peter has a sore throat.

Jakka ligger i kofferten.

The jacket is in the suitcase.

Koppene står i skapet.

The cups are in the cupboard.

Studentene sitter i klasserommet.

The students are in the classroom.

I is also used together with

continents: i Europa, i Asia

countries and states: i Norge, i Kina, i Texas

counties: i Sør-Trøndelag, i Nord-Trøndelag

the following Norwegian regions i Nord-Norge, i Midt-Norge

municipalities i Trondheim, i Malvik

cities: i Trondheim, i Oslo, i Beijing

street names/addresses: i Prinsens gate, i Herman Kragsvei 22

På

På is often used to indicate that something is on top of something else:

Boka ligger på bordet.

The book is on the table.

På is also used in the following connections:

på skolen at school

på kino, teater at the cinema, theatre på restaurant, kafé in/at a restaurant, café

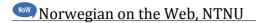
på biblioteketpå jobb/arbeidat the libraryat work

på (ved) universitetet at the university

In the following connections **i** is also used:

på/i butikken in/at the shop

på/i kjøkkenet, stua in the kitchen, living room



På is also used together with

- islands: på Grønland (When the island is a state we use i: i Irland. Sometimes we can use both: på/i Sri Lanka.)
- the following Norwegian regions: på Vestlandet, på Sørlandet, på Østlandet
- many inland cities in Norway: på Røros, på Lillehammer
- many names of places: på Lade, på Moholt, på Dragvoll

It is often difficult to explain the use of **i** and **på** together with Norwegian names of places. The topography or even the name itself often decides the preposition, but there are lots of exceptions and also local differences.

Til

Til is the most frequent preposition when there is some kind of movement:

Peter skal reise til Tyskland snart.

Peter is going to Germany soon.

Skal du dra til Dragvoll i dag?

Are you going to Dragvoll today?

Hos

We use **hos** in front of names and occupational groups.

Peter skal på fest hjemme hos Eva.

Peter is going to a party at Eva's place.

Peter er hos politiet for å hente passet sitt.

Peter is at the police to pick up his passport.

When involving movement, we use **til**:

Peter må dra til legen.

Peter has to go to the doctor's.

Han skal gå **til** politiet og hente passet sitt.

He is going to the police to pick up his passport.

Conjunctions and subjunctions

CONJUNCTIONS (Chapter 1)

The conjunctions og (and) and men (but) connect sentences (main clauses):

Jeg heter Anna, **og** jeg kommer fra Italia.

My name is Anna, and iI come from Italy.

Jeg snakker italiensk, men jeg snakker ikke tysk.

I speak Italian, but I do not speak German.

CONJUNCTIONS (Chapter 7)

Subordinating conjunctions

Som = who/which/(that)

Who/which/(that) - which mostly refers to a noun in front - is simply **som** in Norwegian, regardless of whether it is referring to people, animals or objects:

Jeg har en bror. Han er 30 år gammel.

I have a brother. He is 30 years old.

Jeg har en katt. Den er søt.

I have a cat. It is cute.

Jeg har en bil. Den er ny. I have a car. It is new.

I have a brother who is 30 years old.

 \rightarrow Jeg har en bror som er 30 år gammel.

 \rightarrow Jeg har en katt som er søt.

I have a cat which is cute.

→ Jeg har en bil som er ny.
I have a car which is new.

Da - nar = when

Both da and når mean when.

We use **da** about a single happening or period of time in the past:

Jeg danset ballett **da** jeg var lita.

I used to dance ballet when I was little.

We use **når** for customary or repeated actions, even for repeated actions in the past:

Jeg liker å slappe av **når** jeg kommer hjem fra universitetet.

I like to relax when I come home from the university.

Jeg likte alltid å slappe av når jeg kom hjem fra universitetet.

I always liked to relax when I came home from the university.

We also use **når** for actions in the future:

Jeg skal ta eksamen når kurset er ferdig.

I will take the exam when the course is finished.

Interjections

Interjections are not introduced as such in the grammatical sections in the grammar section of the text book. See the large grammar.

Sentences

WORD ORDER (Chapter 1)

Main clauses (sentences)

In a main clause the verb is the second element:

Jeg snakker norsk.

I speak Norwegian.

Negation

In a narrative clause the negation **ikke** (not), which is an adverb, usually comes after the verb:

Jeg snakker ikke spansk.

I do not speak Spanish.

Adverbs like også (also/too) comes after the verb as well:

Jeg snakker også spansk.

I also speak Spanish.

Questions

In questions with question words the verb is also the second element:

Hva heter du?

What is your name?

Hvor **kommer** du fra?

Where do you come from?

In questions without a question word the sentence starts with the verb:

Snakker du norsk?

Do you speak Norwegian?

WORD ORDER (Chapter 2)

As mentioned in *Chapter 1* the verb is the second element when the person(s) is carrying out the action:

Jeg snakker norsk.

The verb is also the second element when the sentence starts e.g. with words for time or place:

Nå (now)kommerbussen.Der (there)liggerresepsjonen.

Note that we by verb mean **finite verb** when describing word order. A finite verb is a verb in present or past tense (preterite). In the following examples the finite verb (the auxiliary verbs **vil** and **skal**) is placed in the second position of the sentences while the main verb comes later.

Ken vil gjerne ta (main verb) en taxi

Nå **skal** han *dra* (main verb) Der **vil** han *bo* (main verb)

WORD ORDER (Chapter 6)

There are two types of clauses in Norwegian: main clauses and subordiante clauses.

Main clauses

A main clause is an independent sentence. The verb is the second element except from questions without a question word where the verb is in initial position.

Peter **bor** på Moholt. Hva **studerer** han? **Studerer** han på NTNU?

Adverbs like **ikke** (not) are placed after the verb:

Peter **kommer ikke** fra England. Maria **studerer ikke** på Gløshaugen. Ken **snakker ikke** tysk.

The conjunctions og (and) and men (but) start main clauses:

Peter bor på Moholt, **og** han studerer på NTNU. Peter like ikke te, **men** han drikker kaffe.

2. Subordinate clause

A subordinate clause is not independent. Normally it goes together with a main clause.

A subordinate clause starts with a subordinating conjunction. In chapter 6 you are presented to three of them: **fordi** (because), **at** (that) and **om** (if).

When there is no adverb in the subordinate clause, it has the same word order as the main clause:

Peter: Jeg har lært litt norsk **fordi**Anna: Jeg hørte **at**Læreren spør **du fortalte det til læreren**.

Peter har gått på norskkurs før.

WORD ORDER (Chapter 9)

Main clause

A main clause is an independent sentence. It contains a subject (the person or thing that carries out the action) and a verb. Often there are other grammatical units in the sentence, such as an object and an adverb.

In a narrative clause the finite verb (= verb in present or past tense) is the second element. Different elements can be placed in the front field such as the subject (sentence 1), adverbs indicating time or place (sentence 2), question words (sentence 3) and other elements.

In sentences like 2 and 3, the subject has to move to its assigned place after the verb. In questions without a question word (**hva** (what), **hvem** (who) etc.) the front field is empty and the sentence starts with the verb (sentence 4).

Adverbs like ikke (not) are normally placed after the finite verb.

	Front	verb	subject	adverb	verb	object	adverb
1.	Han	vil	-	ikke	spise	kake	i kantina i dag
2.	I dag	vil	han	ikke	spise	kake	i kantina
3.	Hvorfor	vil	han	ikke	spise	kake	i kantina i dag?
4.		Vil	han	ikke	spise	kake	i kantina i dag?

- 1. He does not want to eat cake in the canteen today.
- 2. Today, he does not want to eat cake in the canteen.
- 3. Why doesn't he want to eat cake in the canteen today?
- 4. Doesn't he want to eat cake in the canteen today?

Note that the subject (here: Peter) is placed after **ikke** in inverted sentences when it is a noun:

 Front	verb	adverb	subject	verb	object	adverb
I dag	vil	ikke	Peter	spise	kake	i kantina

Today, Peter does not want to eat cake in the canteen.

Subordinate clause

A subordinate clause also contains a subject and a verb, but it is not an independent sentence. It goes together with a main clause. A subordinate clause normally starts with a subordinating conjunction. Some frequent subordinating conjunctions are: **fordi** (because), **at** (that), **hvis** (if), **om** (if – together with the verb å **spørre** (to ask), **da** (when), **når** (when).

In subordinate clauses the word order is fixed. The subordinating conjunction is followed by the subject of the sentence. Other elements can not be moved to the front field.

Adverbs like **ikke** are placed in front of the verb:

		conjunc -tion	front (subject)	adverb	verb	object	adverb
1.	Peter er stresset	fordi	foreldrene		kommer		
2.	Peter sier	at	han	ikke	kan ta	en pause	
3.	Peter blir glad	hvis	Eva		hjelper	ham	
4.	Eva spør Peter	om	han	ikke	liker	kake	

- 1. Peter is stressed because his parents are coming.
- 2. Peter says that he can not take a break.
- 3. Peter will be happy if Eva helps him.
- 4. Eva asks Peter if he does not like cake.

The subordinate clause may also be placed in the front field of the main clause. As for main clauses, the subject then moves to its assigned place after the verb:

Front	verb	subject	
1. Hvis Eva hjelper ham,	blir	Peter	glad
2. Fordi foreldrene hans kommer,	er	Peter	stresset

- 1. If Eva helps him, Peter will be happy.
- 2. Because his parents are coming, Peter is stressed.

FORDI - DERFOR

The use of **fordi** and **derfor** might seem a bit confusing.

Fordi

Fordi (because) indicates reason. It is a subordinating conjunction and starts a subordinate clause:

Han er stresset **fordi** foreldrene hans kommer på besøk.

He is stressed because his parents are coming for a visit.

Han vil gjerne utsette møtet **fordi** han skal til legen.

He would like to postpone the meeting because he is going to the doctor's.

or:

Fordi foreldrene hans kommer på besøk, er han stresset.

Because his parents are coming for a visit, he is stressed.

Fordi han skal til legen, vil han gjerne utsette møtet.

Because he is going to the doctor's, he would like to postpone the meeting.

Derfor

Derfor (therefore) indicates consequence and is an adverb. **Derfor** is followed by the verb:

Foreldrene hans kommer på besøk. **Derfor** er han stresset.

His parents are coming for a visit. Therefore he is stressed.

Han skal til legen. **Derfor** vil han gjerne utsette møtet.

He is going to the doctor's. Therefore, he would like to postpone the meeting.

SHORT ANSWERS (Chapter 9)

In English you might give short answer to questions like: Yes, I have. Yes, I do. No, I haven't. No, I don't etc.

In Norwegian you make short answers in the following ways:

1) To answer questions starting with **har** (has/have) og **er** (am/is/are) you use **har** and **er** in the answer:

Har du et kart? Ja, det har jeg. Nei, det har jeg ikke.

Do you have a map? Yes, I have. No, I haven't.

Er du norsk? Ja, det er jeg. Nei, det er jeg ikke.

Are you Norwegian? Yes, I am. No, I'm not.

2) To answer questions starting with **modal verbs** you use the modal verb in the answer:

Kan du snakke norsk? Ja, det **kan** jeg. Nei, det **kan** jeg ikke.

Can you speak Norwegian? Yes, I can. No, I can't.

Skal du dra på konferanse? Ja, det **skal** jeg. Nei, det **skal** jeg ikke.

Are you going to a conference? Yes, I am. No, I'm not.

Vil du se byen? Ja, det vil jeg. Nei, det vil jeg ikke.

Do you want to see the city? Yes, I do. No, I don't.

Må du sjekke e-posten? Ja, det må jeg. Nei, det må jeg ikke.

Do you have to check the e-mail? Yes, I do. No, I don't.

3) When the questions contain other verbs than the ones mentioned in 1) and 2) you use **gjør** (do/does) in your answer:

Skriver du et essay? Ja, det gjør jeg. Nei, det gjør jeg ikke.

Are you writing an essay? Yes, I am. No, I'm not.

Leser du tekstboka? Ja, det gjør jeg. Nei, det gjør jeg ikke.

Are you reading the textbook? Yes, I am. No, I'm not.

Snakker du norsk? Ja, det gjør jeg. Nei, det gjør jeg ikke.

Do you speak Norwegian? Yes, I do. No, I don't.

Note the following:

When the subject in the questions is **det** (it) or **den** (it) the verb in the short answer is followed by **det** or **den**:

Er **det** kaldt? Ja, det er **det**. Nei, det er **det** ikke.

Is it cold? Yes, it is. No, it isn't.

Er den ny? Ja, det er den. Nei, det er den ikke.

Is it new? Yes, it is. No, it isn't.

When the questions contain a negation you use **jo** instead of **ja** if your answer is positive:

Kommer du ikke fra England? Jo, det gjør jeg.

Are you not from England? Yes, I am.

SÅ (10)

Different types of words sometimes have the same form and are therefore a bit confusing. The form så is one of these:

1) $\mathbf{S}\mathbf{\mathring{a}} = \text{then}$, afterwards This type of $\mathbf{s}\mathbf{\mathring{a}}$ is an adverb.

Etter lunsj dro vi til Akershus festning. Så gikk vi til Rådhuset.

After lunch we went to Akershus fortress. Then we went to the City Hall.

2) $\mathbf{S}\mathbf{\mathring{a}} = \mathbf{so}$, very This type of $\mathbf{s}\mathbf{\mathring{a}}$ is also an adverb. It is normally placed in front of adjectives:

Det var så interessant på Vikingskipshuset.

It was so interesting at the Viking Ship Museum.

3) Så = so, for that reason This type of så is a conjunction. The conjunction is followed by a main clause:

Peter har ikke møtt Evas familie før, så han er litt nervøs.

Peter has not met Eva's family before, so he is a bit nervous.

4) $\mathbf{S}\mathbf{\mathring{a}} = \mathbf{saw} \ \mathbf{S}\mathbf{\mathring{a}} \ \mathbf{can} \ \mathbf{also} \ \mathbf{be} \ \mathbf{the} \ \mathbf{past} \ \mathbf{tense} \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{the} \ \mathbf{verb} \ \mathbf{\mathring{a}} \ \mathbf{se} \ (\mathbf{to} \ \mathbf{see})$:

Vi **så** et stykke av Henrik Ibsen.

We saw a piece by Henrik Ibsen.

ORTHOGRAPHY

COMMA RULES (Chapter 10)

1) We always use a comma in front of **men** (but):

Anna bor i Trondheim, men hun kommer fra Italia.

Anna lives in Trondheim, but she comes from Italy.

2) We use a comma in front of the conjunctions **og** (and), **for** (because) and **så** (so) when the following sentence is a complete main clause:

Han har bodd i Norge i tre måneder, og han jobber på NTNU.

He has lived in Trondheim for three months, and he works at NTNU.

But:

Han har bodd i Norge i tre måneder og jobber ved NTNU.

He has lived in Trondheim for three months and works at NTNU.

3) We use a comma before and after a parenthetical clause:

Peter, som kommer fra Tyskland, jobber på NTNU.

Peter, who comes from Germany, works at NTNU.

4) We always use commas by enumeration:

Ken spiser vanligvis kylling, laks, pasta, ris og grønnsaker til middag.

Ken usually has chicken, salmon, pasta, rice and vegetables for dinner.

5) We use a comma after the subordinate clause when it is placed in front of the main clause:

Hvis Eva hjelper ham, blir Peter glad.

If Eva helps him, Peter will be happy.

6) We use a comma after direct speech:

"Vil du ha hjelp", spør Eva.

"Would you like some help", Eva asks.