

DIFFERENT GERMAN EXPRESSION MODELS OF THE OBJECT IN SPEECH

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Summary

In this article, we have analyzed the different expression models of the object in the German language. The main theoretical issues of sentence constituents have remained a subject of discussion until now. One such issue is the determination of the object of the sentence and the means used to express it. We are already aware of the differences in grammatical categories in languages with different systems. In different grammatical sources, we witness various approaches to the grammatical subject. Sometimes, under this term, the subject is presented as the doer of the action or the one performing the attribute. Sometimes, under this term, the subject is presented as the doer of the action or the one performing the attribute. According to many linguists, the subject, called the nominative, indicates the active participant in the event.

A more refined analytical method was needed for the identification of sentence constituents, as well as for the analysis of the syntactic semantics of words, their interrelations, and the meaning of the sentence. In this process, the theory of verb valency plays a foundational role, and determining the different meanings of valencies is one of the challenging issues in linguistics. This analysis is a classification of the lexical meaning of nouns and verbs.

Key words: subject, object, phrase, valency, indirect object, direct object, transitive verbs, intransitive verbs.

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1. Introduction

Many scientific articles and presentations can be found regarding the description of sentence constituents in the German language. Nevertheless, the main theoretical issues of sentence constituents remain a topic of discussion to this day. One of such issues is the determination of the subject of a sentence. By subject, what is meant are the object and the means by which it is expressed (*Volmert, 2005 p. 134*). We are already aware of the differences in grammatical categories across languages with different systems. In different grammatical sources, we witness different approaches to the grammatical subject. Sometimes, under this term, the subject, the doer of the action, or the one performing the attribute is indicated. The subject is expressed with the help of a word or a word combination (phrase). Many authors believe that the term subject refers to the active participant in the event. In traditional grammar, the subject and the object are distinguished from each other based on formal and semantic criteria, independently of one another (*Volmert, 2005, p. 135*).

A noun in the nominative case is the subject. The object is a sentence constituent that is governed by the influence of the verb, dependent on the verb, and must have a specific categorical semantics as required by the verb. In the German language, two types of objects are specifically mentioned: direct and indirect. First, let's explain the functional and semantic difference between these two types of objects.

An indirect object is a noun expressed in cases other than the nominative, and it is considered an indirect object in the sentence. In distinguishing the subject from the object, the emphasis is primarily placed on formal features. However, if this comparison is related to adverbs, the emphasis is placed on the semantics of the words. As adverbs, nouns expressing place, cause, manner of action, time, and condition in the sentence explain the purpose of the verb. We would like to note that such a formal approach to signs is incorrect, the traditional formal approach in linguistics is considered simplistic and distorts linguistic reality (Sommerfeldt, 1974). A more advanced analytical method was needed for the identification of sentence constituents, as well as for the analysis of the syntactic semantics of words, the relationship between words and sentences, and the meaning of the sentence. In this process, the theory of verb valency plays a fundamental role. In general, valency controls the relationship between the semantics of words and sentences. In this scientific research, we primarily focus on ideas related to the semantic direction.

2. Main part

It should be noted that verb valency is complex and multi-faceted. Some of the important issues include the problems of valency theory, types of valency, classification of lexical meanings of verbs, and the analysis of the conditions for the realization of valency in a sentence. At the same time, we consider and analyze some aspects of verb valency on specific language material. According to the theory of valence, a verb is closely related to the word it is associated with. The content and formal valency in the sentence align with the creation of the formal complement through the repeated semantics of the predicate (Volmert, 2005, p. 128). For example:

1. *Das Leben leben – leben*
2. *Einen Traum träumen- träumen*
3. *Fische fangen- fischen*
4. *Sensen- mit der Sense arbeiten*
5. *Buttern- Butter herstellen*
6. *Antwort geben- antworten*
7. *Abschied nehmen- sich verabschieden*
8. *Freude machen- erfreuen*

Determining valencies with different meanings is also one of the challenging issues. This analysis is the classification of the lexical meanings of nouns and verbs. As we mentioned, depending on the verb's case, the word (noun, pronoun) that follows it is used in the imperative case. The object, which depends on the verb, is a secondary constituent in German and belongs to the predicate group. In German, the object is expressed with a noun, pronoun, infinitive, or infinitive construction. For example:

1. *Erika schreibt eine Übung. Erika writes an exercise.* In this sentence, the object is expressed with a noun.
2. *Diese Äpfel habe ich für meine Kinder gebracht. I brought these apples for my children.* The object of this sentence is expressed with a noun and a preposition.
3. *Ich habe von meiner neuen Arbeit erzählt. I talked about my new job.*
4. *Meine Eltern haben ihn nicht erkannt. My parents didn't recognize him.* In this sentence, the object is expressed with a personal pronoun.
5. *Er hat sich bei dir nicht entschuldigt. He didn't apologize to you..* In this sentence, the object is expressed with a personal pronoun and a preposition.

6. *Anna versucht gut zu lernen. Anna is trying to study well.* In this sentence, the object is expressed with an infinitive phrase.

7. *Mein Bruder beschloss gut zu arbeiten. My brother decided to work well.*

In German, the object expressed with a pronoun or a noun can appear in cases other than the nominative without a preposition. Such objects are called non-prepositional indirect objects in grammar. When used with a preposition, they are called prepositional indirect objects in grammar. In such cases, the case of the noun or pronoun changes depending on the preposition. The preposition, in turn, is related to the verb functioning as the predicate in the sentence (Volmert, 2005).

By direct object in German, we mean an object used in the accusative case without a preposition. Typically, these objects follow transitive verbs in a sentence. For ex.:

1. *Der Lehrer hat dem Mädchen gelobt. The teacher praised the girl.* – Direct object.

2. *Erika hat die Suppe gekocht. Erika cooked the soup.* – Direct object.

In German, an object in the dative case used without a preposition is also considered a non-prepositional indirect object, and this is frequently encountered in the language. For ex.:

1. *Anna hat ihrer Mutter eine schöne Tasche geschenkt. Anna gave her mother a beautiful bag as a gift.* – In this sentence, the object is expressed with a noun in the dative case, and it is a non-prepositional indirect object.

2. *Darüber hat sie uns bereits erzählt. She has already told us about this.* In this sentence, the object is expressed with a pronoun in the dative case, and it is a non-prepositional indirect object.

In German, complements in the genitive case used without a preposition are also considered non-prepositional indirect objects, though this is rarely encountered in the language. For example:

3. *Wir alle gedenken dieses Helden. We all remember this hero.* – In this sentence, the object is expressed with a noun in the genitive case, and it is a non-prepositional indirect object.

4. *Meine Arbeit bedarf deiner Hilfe. My work requires your help.* – In this sentence, the object is expressed with a noun in the dative case, and it is a non-prepositional indirect object.

Prepositional objects are also commonly used in speech. The preposition requires a specific case, and the noun or pronoun that follows it must be used in that case. E.g.:

1. *Diese Kinder kämpfen für ihre Freiheit. These children are fighting for their freedom.* In this sentence, the object is used with the preposition **für**, and according to the preposition's requirement, the object is in the accusative case.

2. *Ich habe aller außer ihm genannt. I named everyone except him.* In this sentence, the object is used with the preposition **außer**, and according to the preposition's requirement, the object is in the dative case.

3. *Du warst für diese Arbeit verantwortlich. You were responsible for this work.* In this sentence, the object is used with the preposition **für**, and according to the preposition's requirement, the object is in the accusative case.

4. *Meine Oma hofft auf meine Geduld. My grandma hopes for my patience.* In this sentence, the object is used with the preposition **auf**, and according to the preposition's requirement, the object is in the accusative case.

5. *Annas Mann denkt an seine Kinder nicht. Anna's husband does not think about his children.* In this sentence, the object is used with the preposition **an**, and according to the preposition's requirement, the object is in the accusative case.

6. *Das Bild hängt an der Wand rechts. The picture hangs on the wall on the right.* In this sentence, the object is used with the preposition **an**, and according to the preposition and the verb used in the sentence, the object is in the dative case.

In German, different questions can be asked about a prepositional object. If the question is directed to the person, then the question is asked with the question pronoun “wer”, and it is necessary to pay attention to the case and meaning of the preposition in which that word is used. If the question is directed to the item, then the question is asked with the question pronoun “was”. In the same order, it is necessary to pay attention to the case and meaning of the preposition in which the word is used. E.g.:

1. *Auf wen wartest du hier? Who are you waiting for here?* In this sentence, the question concerns the person.

2. *Worauf muss ich noch warten? What else do I have to wait for?* In this sentence, the question concerns the item.

3. *An wen hat er sich oft erinnert? Who does he often remember?* In this sentence, the question concerns the person.

4. *Woran hast du teil genommen? What did you take part in?* In this sentence, the question concerns the item.

5. *Für wen hast du dich deine Stimme abgeben? Who did you vote for?* In this sentence, the question concerns the person.

6. *Wofür hat er sich interessiert? What was he interested in?* In this sentence, the question concerns the item.

The position of the object in a sentence depends on whether it is new information or already given information. If the object reflects new information in the sentence, it is usually placed towards the end of the sentence and is used with an indefinite article. The object, which is known to both the speaker and the listener, is expressed in the sentence with a definite article. For ex.:

1. *Erika hat mir einen Mantel gegeben. Erika gave me a coat.*

2. *Erika hat den alten Mantel schon verkauft. Erika has already sold the old coat.*

In German, some verbs are followed by complex objects. By complex objects, we usually mean constructions that consist of a noun or pronoun in the accusative case and an infinitive. These combinations are typically used after certain verbs in German. Typically, when translating this type of complex object into Azerbaijani, an infinitive or an infinitive phrase is used. For example:

1. *Peter sah seinen Bruder lachen. Peter saw his brother laugh.*

2. *Sie hörten niemanden sprechen. They didn't hear anyone talking.*

3. *Ich fühlte sie zittern. I felt her trembling.*

Now, let's take a look at the cases of the object in German.

In a sentence, the noun or pronoun that functions as the subject is in the nominative case. In the nominative case, a noun or pronoun answers the questions “wer?” (who?), “was?” (what?). A group of verbs in German requires the noun that follows them to be in the nominative case. For example:

1. *Der Student heißt Niko.*

2. *Niko ist ein Wunderkind.*

3. *Niko wird ein Popstar.*

In the sentences, *der Student* and *Niko* are the subjects, *heißt*, *ist*, and *wird* are the predicates, and *Niko*, *Wunderkind*, and *ein Popstar* are the predicate nominatives.

In German, a group of verbs requires a specific form of the noun to define or specify it. This refers to the noun being used in the accusative case according to the verb's requirement. These verbs are also called transitive verbs. After transitive verbs, the noun comes in the accusative case and answers the questions *wen?* and *was?*. In this case, the object used after the verb is called the direct object (4; 148).

Examples of this group of verbs are the following:

1. Essen, trinken, kaufen, lesen, hören, sehen, besuchen, etc. For example:
2. *Wen hört Anna? Anna hört den Lehrer. Who is Anna listening to? Anna is listening to the teacher.*
3. *Wen sieht Peter? Peter sieht das Mädchen. Who does Peter see? Peter sees the girl.*
4. *Wen besucht der Junge? Der Junge besucht den Opa. Who is the boy visiting? The boy is visiting his grandfather.*
5. *Was kauft das Mädchen? Das Mädchen kauft das Buch. What does the girl buy? The girl buys the book.*
6. *Was trinkt Erika? Erika trinkt den Tee. What is Erika drinking? Erika is drinking the tea.*
7. *Was liest der Schüler? Der Schüler liest den Text. What is the student reading? The student is reading the text.*
8. *Was isst du? Ich esse die Pizza. What are you eating? I'm eating the pizza.*
9. In the sentence *Das Mädchen kauft das Buch*, *Das Mädchen* is the subject, *kauft* is the predicate, *das Buch* is the object.

Unlike these verbs, verbs that do not necessarily require a complement word after them are called intransitive verbs. In German dictionaries, the symbols vt. (*transitive verbs*) and vi. (*intransitive verbs*) are typically used to indicate whether verbs are transitive (having an effect) or intransitive (without an effect). A group of verbs can be both transitive and intransitive, depending on their usage. Whether they function as transitive or intransitive verbs is determined by the context or through translation. For example: *fahren*

Peter fährt. Peter is driving

Peter fährt das Auto. Peter is driving the car.

Sometimes, the same object or person can act as the direct object in different contexts.

For example:

1. *Peter wäscht Peter. Peter washes Peter.*

2. *Peter wäscht sich. Peter washes himself.*

3. *Peter zieht sich an. Peter is getting dressed.*

The word *sich* in these sentences is a reflexive pronoun, and verbs used with this particle belong to the group of reflexive verbs in German. Reflexive verbs indicate that the action is performed by the subject upon itself. In German, some verbs change their meaning when used with *sich*.

For example:

Sich umziehen – Changing clothes

Ich ziehe mich um. I'm changing my clothes.

Umziehen – to move

Er zieht nach Berlin um. He is moving to Berlin.

In German, reflexive pronouns do not always directly follow the verb they are associated with. Sometimes, the reflexive pronoun is separated from the verb, allowing other words to come between them. This situation mainly changes when the object is expressed with a noun or pronoun, as the placement of the reflexive pronoun can vary (*Haider, 2010*). In German, there is a group of verbs that must always be used with a reflexive pronoun. For example:

sich irren – Anna irrt sich immer. Anna is always wrong.

In German, reflexive verbs may not always have a reflexive equivalent in other languages. It should also be noted that the reflexive pronoun for the third person singular and plural is expressed with *sich*. In other persons, the pronoun changes accordingly.

In German, a simple sentence consists of two parts: the subject and the predicate. The subject, which is the main part of the sentence, helps determine the conjugation of the verb. These two main parts of a simple sentence must agree with each other. For example:

Das Auto (Subject) kommt (Verb).

The car (subject) comes (predicate).

The object, which is a secondary clause constituent, is primarily found in a simple, extended sentence. As we mentioned, the object in a sentence depends on the verb and is governed by its case requirements. In German, there is a group of verbs that start with the prefix *be* and are transitive verbs. E.g.: *besuchen, bekommen, beantworten, beachten, beenden, bedrohen*.

As an exception, the verb *begegnen* is an intransitive verb.

Ich beachte (Akkusativ) meine Aussprache.

I pay attention to my pronunciation.

Er ist (Dativ) dem Onkel begegnet.

He met the grandfather.

It should be noted that the translation of sentences in Azerbaijani does not reflect the German language.

Rarely, in German, there are verbs that require the genitive case for their objects. For example: *anklagen*.

Der alte Mann ist des Mordes angeklagt.

The old man is accused of murder.

Another group of verbs in German are prepositional verbs. This group of verbs is used with a preposition to control the word that follows them. In German, such verbs are also called controlled verbs. For example:

Anna wartet auf ihren neuen Freund.

Anna is waiting for her new friend.

Anna wartet auf mich vor dem Kino seit 2 Stunden.

Anna has been waiting for me in front of the cinema for two hours.

Erika hat auf die schwere Frage geantwortet.

Erika answered the hard question.

Die Mutter sorgt für ihre kleinen Kinder.

The mother takes care of her babies.

Er achtet auf den deutschen Lehrer.

He pays attention to the German language teacher.

Ich fange mit der leichten Übersetzung an.

I start with an easy translation.

Sie hört mit der Arbeit um 17. Uhr auf.

He finishes work at 5 p.m.

Der Lehrer passt auf die kleinen Kinder auf.

The teacher pays attention to the younger children.

In the sentences provided, the verb's case control is facilitated by prepositions, which govern the case of the object. In these sentences, the objects following the verbs are prepositional objects. As it appears, these objects are used in the accusative and dative cases. In some sentences, the object can also be in the nominative case. Such an object is also called a nominative object. For example:

Peter ist ein fauler Schüler. Peter is a lazy student.

In German, a simple extended sentence does not consist only of the main constituents and the object.

In a sentence, secondary constituents such as adverbs and adjectives, which expand the meaning, are also used. For example:

Erika fährt heute (temporal Angabe) wegen ihrer Arbeit (kausale Angabe) mit dem Zug (modale Angabe) nach Dresden (lokale Angabe).

Erika is traveling to Dresden (place) by train (modal) today (time) for work (reason).

As shown in the example, the word order can change depending on the precedence of the given information.

In German, a sentence can begin with any part of sentence. Primarily, the part of speech that does not change its position is the verb. Its position in the sentence is second. The position of the verb does not change in either a narrative or interrogative sentence. For example:

1. *Lena geht am Montag aus Langweile ins Kino. Lena goes to the cinema on Monday because she is bored.*

2. *Am Montag geht Lena aus Langweile ins Kino. On Monday, Lena goes to the cinema because she is bored.*

3. *Aus Langweile geht Lena am Montag ins Kino. Out of boredom, Lena goes to the cinema on Monday.*

4. *Ins Kino geht Lena am Montag aus Langweile.*

Lena goes to the cinema on Monday because she is bored. If, in a German sentence, one of the secondary constituents comes first, the subject follows the predicate (verb). That is, it takes third place in the sentence. In a sentence, the elements that follow the subject and predicate are the objects in the dative (indirect object) and accusative (direct object) cases. The object in the dative case (indirect object) usually comes before the object in the accusative case (direct object). For example:

Am Montag hat Herr Meier (Subjekt) den Kollegen (Dativobyekt) neue Bilder und alte Bücher (Akkusativobyekt). On Monday, Mr. Mayer (subject) sold the new paintings and old books (accusative objects) to his colleagues (dative object).

The object in the genitive case, unlike the others, is typically placed near the end of the sentence. For ex.:

1) *Meine Methoden ermangeln bei der Betrachtung des Praktikums. My methods suffer from a lack of experience.*

2) *Sie dankten dem Lehrer mit vielen Worten für seine nützliche Vorlesung. We thanked the teacher for his useful lecture.*

It should also be noted that the object in the nominative case comes at the end of the sentence as a constituent. For example:

1) *Peter wurde drei Jahre später aufgrund seiner guten Arbeit der neue Direktor. Peter became the new director three years later due to his good work.*

The order of objects in the dative and accusative cases in a sentence depends on the degree of importance of the information being conveyed. Information that is already known to the speaker is conveyed with the definite article, personal pronoun, possessive pronoun, and demonstrative pronoun. For example:

2) *Anna liest die neue Nouvelle. Sie liest sie gern. Sie liest diese neue Nouvelle mit Peter. Anna is reading a new novella (definite). She is reading it (pronoun) with enthusiasm. She is reading this novella (demonstrative pronoun) with Peter.*

In German, the positions of the dative and accusative objects in a sentence can be swapped. For example:

1) *Ich gebe meinem Freund den Kuli.*

2) *Ich gebe den Kuli meinem Freund.*

3) *Ich gebe dir den Kuli.*

4) *Ich gebe ihn meinem Freund.*

The objects in the dative and accusative cases expand the sentence to convey new information. If a constituent is used with an indefinite article or without an article, it indicates that the information is new. For example:

1) *Ich lese ein Buch. I read a book.*

2) *Ich lese Bücher. I read books.*

When the dative and accusative objects convey new information in a sentence, they come before the other secondary sentence constituents. And sometimes they come after the words denoting time, reason, modality, and before the word denoting space. For instance:

1. *Er ist mir seit 2 Jahren in Berlin begegnet. I met him two years ago in Berlin.*

2. *Ich habe gestern meinen alten Freund im Kino gesehen. I saw my old friend at the cinema yesterday.*

In German, changing the positions of the objects in a sentence is not always correct. The object in the dative case comes before the object in the accusative case that is used with an indefinite article. For example:

1. *Er gibt dem Mädchen eine Tasche. He gives the girl a bag.* In this sentence, the positions of the objects cannot be changed.

If both objects in this sentence are expressed with personal pronouns, their positions can be swapped. For example:

2. *Er gibt sie ihm.*

3. *Ich schenke sie dir.*

If there is a noun-verb construction in the sentence, this combination appears at the end of the sentence. For ex.: *Er gibt uns morgen Mittag im Büro Bescheid.* He will inform us about this tomorrow.

We have looked at the position of separate dative and accusative objects in the sentence. Now, let's look at the position of the object in a simple expanded sentence with verbs that govern two cases.

In German, there is a group of verbs that govern two cases. Examples of such verbs include *geben, liefern, überlassen, bringen, bewissen, empfehlen.*

Verbs with two accusative objects include the following examples: *kosten, nennen, schelten, schimpfen, lehren.* For example:

1. *Dieses Haus hat mich eine Menge Geld gekostet.*

2. *Der Lehrer lehrt mich nicht nur Lesen, sondern auch Tanzen und Singen.*

Very rarely, there are verbs that require the genitive case (possessive). The following verbs can be attributed to this group: *bedürfen, sich bedienen, sich erfreuen, sich entsinnen, sich bemächtigen.*

1. *Der König bediente sich nur seiner silbernen Tasse. The king only used his silver cup.*

2. *Das Mädchen entsinnt sich meiner nicht. The girl doesn't remember me.*

In addition to the effect of the object on word order in a simple expanded sentence, it would also be useful to look at the sequence in the inverse word order.

In German, sentence constituents have a specific position in the sentence. The position of words in the sentence depends on which sentence constituent they belong to. This refers to a fixed word order. But let's also note that the position of words in a sentence depends on the importance of the information being conveyed. In this case, their position does not depend on the members of the sentence. In this type of sentence, we are talking about the free word order. Free word order allows you to transmit different shades of meaning in a sentence (*Volmert,*

2005, p. 148). It serves to express the communicative load of the sentence and its constituents. In a normal word order, the new idea is a continuation of the old one. From this perspective, German has both a fixed and independent word order. In German, the fixed second position is occupied by the predicate. The principle of free word order applies to the subject, object, and adverbial. We would like to note that, in some cases, the position of the predicate can also change. violation of the framework, preposition of the predicate in subordinate complex sentences, and in narrative sentences. The nominal part of the predicate is usually placed at the end of the sentence in a simple sentence. In a subordinate clause of a complex sentence, the verbal part of the predicate is usually placed at the end of the clause. This is the case in nominal predicates. The nominal part of the predicate is expressed with other parts of speech (Bittner, 2010). If we look at the word order of a simple sentence in German, it is possible to observe the characteristics of frame theory in this language. For example:

– Ich bin geboren im letzten Jahre dieses Jahrhunderts in Berlin.

In this sentence, it is possible to observe a unique case of norm deviation. That is, the preposition of the predicate is clearly evident. Such cases are so common in German that they are no longer considered deviations from the norm. For example:

– Von kleinem Problem ist auch seine Meinung.

As for the preposition of secondary constituents, the object, attribute, and adverbial can be used in two positions. This occurs in emphatic word order. Unlike other languages, this type of word order is more commonly found in German.

As we mentioned, in German, the case of the objects depends on the verb's governance. The number of objects used in a sentence depends on the verb's valency. In some cases, the same verb does not always govern the same number of objects. Such a relationship between the object and the predicate can be found in Tesnière's theory. He refers to verb governances as the verb's actants. In German, verbs without actants are categorized as verbs of natural phenomena. For example:

Es regnet – It's raining. Regnet – it is a verb that reflects an event and has no actant.

In sentences with verbs with a single actant, there is a person or a subject. For example:

– Peter fällt. In this sentence, the one performing the action of the verb 'to fall' is Peter.

Two-actant verbs indicate that two persons or objects are involved in the action.

– Peter schlägt Anna. – Peter beats Anna. The absence of a single actant in this sentence leads to an incomplete thought. In sentences with three-actant verbs, three persons or objects are involved in the action. For example:

– Peter gibt Anna das Buch. – Peter gives Anna the book.

The sentence would be incomplete if we did not show the three actants of the three-actant verb *geben*. The actants of verbs are determined by their place in the sentence. Different actants perform different functions in relation to the verb. For example: just as it is impossible for a verb without any actant to control any verb, it is impossible for a single-actant verb to control a two-actant verb. The first actant of the verb is usually the subject, meaning the one who performs the action. For example:

– Peter gibt Anna das Buch.

The second actant of the sentence is the book, and the third actant is the person who receives the book.

In these examples, the second and third actants are the objects. More specifically, they are the direct and indirect objects.

It should be noted that semantically, a contrast can be made between the subject and the object. In this case, we consider the first actant as the subject.

Semantically, the second actant in the sentence can be considered as the object in the passive voice, while the third actant is semantically referred to as the indirect object.

In a sentence, object can be expressed not only with nouns but also with pronouns. The indirect object is usually expressed with nouns and pronouns. The indirect object usually reflects the object affected by the action in an indirect manner, expressed through prepositions in the accusative case. In German, pronouns are usually used to avoid repeating nouns. In German, a pronoun is used in addition to a noun to use the indirect object. All types of pronouns, together with prepositions, denote the object. The subject of the sentence is a noun in the nominative case. The dative and accusative cases of nouns mainly reflect the objects. In German, there is a regularity in the sequence of the use of indirect and direct objects (*Sommerfeldt, 1974*).

3. Conclusions

As a result, it can be noted that in German, the object is one of the secondary sentence constituents. In German, the object, as a sentence constituent, is primarily related to the verb and reflects the appropriate case depending on the verb's case rules. It can be concluded from this that the object is used depending on the verb's control and occurs when required by the verb and its control rules.

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