Alphabet und Aussprache - alphabet and pronunciation

The German alphabet is essentially the same as the English one, yet the pronunciation resembles more that of Malay or Hindi:

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff Gg Hh Ii Jj Kk Ll Mm
Nn Oo Pp Qq Rr Ss Tt Uu Vv Ww Xx Yy Zz

There are three additional vowels or *Umlaute* : **Ä ä   Ö ö   Ü ü**

There is a additional consonant *Eszett* or *Scharfes S* : **ß**

Ä ä	is similar to the **e** sound in the English word *let* , but you keep your mouth a little more open.
Ö ö	to produce this sound, pucker your lips as if to create the impression of a kiss, form a perfect circle with your lips. Hold them in this position and say an oh sound that shifts up an octave.
Ü ü	to produce this sound, pucker your lips as if to whistle. It is the same sound as the vowel sound in the Chinese word *yu* (rain).
ß	this is like a double s, but slow and sharp in sound.

Spelling of the additional characters:

If your keyboard or your word processor does not support these letters, it is possible to use two vowels to represent them. The forms are:

Ä ä = Ae ae
Ö ö = Oe oe
Ü ü = Ue ue
ß   = ss

Special consonant sounds:

Overall all German aspirated and plosive consonants are harder than the ones in English. Moreover some sounds differ completely from the English ones:

V v	is either pronounced like the English **f** (the father / der Vater). or pronounced like a German **w** (the vase / die Vase).
W w	is almost pronounced like a **v** in English, just a little softer (the vehicle / der Wagen).
Y y	is pronounced as **j** (especially at the beginning of words) or as **i** or as **ü**
Z z	is pronounced like the English **ts** like in *hits*
Ch ch	**after the vowels a o u :** resembles a the guttural sound you would make after you have a fishbone stuck in your throat and try to get rid of it. ⊲║╟╢ **after the vowels i e :** it is pronounced similar to the **sh** in English, like in *she*
-ig	at the end of a word is pronounced just like a **ch** after **i** and **e**
st-/sp-	at the beginning of a word or a syllable the **s** followed by the consonant **p** or **t** is pronounced just like a **sh** in English,

Special vowel and diphthong sounds:

Ei ei **Ai ai**	is pronounced like **ai** , just as in the Chinese word for love (the egg / das Ei).
Ie ie **Ih ih**	is pronounced like a long German **i,** so it sounds like **ee** in English (four / vier).
eu	is pronounced like the English exclamation **oi** (the Euro / der Euro)
au	is a diphthong created by opening your mouth to say a German **a** and then half closing it to say the German **u** (also / auch)

Adverbien - adverbs

In German we commonly use adverbs. Adverbs (slot 3) provide more specific information about an action:

1	2	3	4
Susanne	*isst*	*gern*	*Müsli.*

Note that, in terms of their positioning within the sentence, all *Adverbien* behave like the adverb *gern* in our example, which means they are placed between the verb and the direct object.

Expressing preference with the adverb *gern*

In German you have to use *gern* to express your preference. You already know that *gern*, sometimes written as *gerne*, is used to express that you "like doing something".

For example, if you want to express in German the equivalent of the English utterance "I like reading", you have to use the adverb *gern* plus the verb for to read, which is *lesen*, e.g.:

Ich lese **gern**.

Thus, if you want to say that "Susanne likes to read books.", then you have to say:

Susanne liest **gern** *Bücher.*

Types of adverbs

There are many types of adverbs that can be used to indicate frequency, mode, preference, or time:

Adverbs that indicate time
bald – soon
früh – early
gleich – in a minute
heute – today
jetzt – now

morgen – tomorrow
sofort – immediately
später – later
übermorgen – the day after tomorrow
zurzeit – at the moment

Adverbs that indicate mode
gern – gladly
gut – good
langsam – slowly

normalerweise – normally
schlecht – badly
schnell – fast

Adverbs that indicate frequency
immer – always
manchmal – sometimes
meistens – most of the time
nie – never

oft – often
selten – seldom
täglich – daily
wöchentlich - weekly

Adverbs that indicate numbers or repeats
einmal - once
zweimal - twice
dreimal - ...
viermal
fünfmal

sechsmal
siebenmal
achtmal
neunmal
zehnmal ...

Adverbs that indicate frequency in relation to time of the day or day of the week
montags – (every) Monday
dienstags – (every) Tuesday
mittwochs – Wednesday
donnerstags – (every) Thursday
freitags – (every) Friday
samstags – (every) Saturday
sonntags – (every) Sunday

abends – evening (PM)
mittags – midday
morgens – morning (AM)
nachts – night
nachmittags – afternoon
vormittags – late morning

Fused adverbs

As we can fuse nouns in German, we can also fuse adverbs. It does not mean that you can fuse any two adverbs together, but there are some meaningful forms, commonly combining a day and a time or a specific time of the day:

frühmorgens – early in the morning
spätabends – late in the evening
montagmorgens – every Monday morning
dienstagvormittags – every Tuesday early morning
mittwochmittags – every Wednesday around midday
donnerstagnachmittags – every Thursday afternoon
usw.

Order of Components (TMP)

If you use **two adverbs in a sentence** they have to follow a specific order, namely Time-Mode-Place (TMP) or *Zeit-Modus-Ort (ZMO).* Under mode fall any kind of information that describe how something is done, thus adverbs of frequency usually fall under mode:

Subjekt	Verb	Adverb (Zeit)	Adverb (Modus)	Objekt
Wir	*essen*	*abends*	*immer*	*Gemüse.*
Frau Franke	*schreibt*	*montags*	*oft*	*Emails.*

Also remember that several time indicators always have to be listed from the largest du the smallest unit of time. Therefore, a day will have to be listed before the time of day, etc.:

Subjekt	Verb 1	Adverb (Zeit)	Adverb (Zeit)	Objekt
Wir	*essen*	*montagmorgens*	*um 10 Uhr*	*Müsli.*

Note that some elements can sometimes be classified differently, depending on the meaning of the sentence, i.e. repeats might appear before time.

Beispiele:

*Sie isst **dreimal täglich** Obst.*
*Sie isst **morgens immer** Obst.*
*Sie isst **frühmorgens** Obst.*
*Wir lernen **heute** Deutsch.*
*Wir lernen **montags normalerweise** Deutsch.*
*Wir haben **dienstagnachmittags** Deutschunterricht.*
*Wir haben **morgen** Deutschunterricht.*
*Sie trinkt **morgens immer** eine Tasse Kaffee.*
*Er trinkt **nie** Kaffee.*

Der Akkusativ – the accusative case

The accusative case (**der Akkusativ**) is the second case of the German language that you are introduced to. The **accusative case** is the grammatical treatment applied to the direct **object of the sentence**. Most verbs are accusative verbs that trigger the accusative case in the direct object, e.g.:

*Ich esse **eine** Pizza.*
*Meine Freundin kauft **ein** Brot.*
*Renate isst **einen** Apfel.*

The parts of the sentence that are directly affected by the actions of the actors/subject (*ich, meine Freundin,* and *Renate)* are the direct objects (*eine Pizza, ein Brot, and einen Apfel)*. These objects must be in the **accusative case**, because the verbs are accusative verbs. This means you need to identify and memorise accusative verbs.

The application of the accusative will transform the article. Luckily, this only affects **articles of masculine nouns in the singular**, e.g.:

*Meine Schwester isst **ihren** Joghurt.*

In the above sentence, *ihren Yoghurt* is the accusative object. Therefore, the possessive article *ihr* has changed to *ihren*, since *Joghurt* is a singular masculine noun. This process is called declination (*Deklination*).

In short, the accusative case:
- is triggered by an accusative verb
- affects the direct object (accusative object) of a sentence
- is only visible in the article of the singular masculine noun
- adds a declination in the form of *-n* or *-en* to the article, possessive article, or negative article

The declination does not only change the form of the definite or indefinite article, but any kind of article used with singular masculine nouns, including negative and possessive articles:

Definite articles and the accusative case

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	
NOMINATIV	der	die	das	die
AKKUSATIV	**den**	die	das	die

Indefinite articles and the accusative case

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	
NOMINATIV	ein	eine	ein	--
AKKUSATIV	**einen**	eine	ein	--

Negative articles and the accusative case

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	
NOMINATIV	kein	keine	kein	keine
AKKUSATIV	**keinen**	keine	kein	keine

Possessive articles and the accusative case (here *mein* used as an example)

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	
NOMINATIV	mein	meine	mein	meine
AKKUSATIV	**meinen**	meine	mein	meine

Die Artikel und Der Genus– the articles and the grammatical gender

1. Der Genus der Nomen – the gender of nouns

Even though there are certain rules about the grammatical gender of a noun, bear in mind that the most effective way of remembering the grammatical gender is to learn it together with the noun! This means that when you learn a new noun, you should **memorise the noun together with its definite article**, e.g.:

der Hund – the dog
die Katze – the cat
das Pony – the pony

There are some guidelines that help to determine the *Genus* of a noun, but there are many exceptions. In some cases (but comparatively few) the biological characteristics determine the grammatical gender, e.g.:

der Mann – the man
die Frau – the woman

Yet, there are and equal number of oddities, that show that this system has many exceptions, e.g.:

das Mädchen – the girl
das Kind – the child (can be male or female)

Certain word endings often coincide with a specific grammatical gender. Yet, this also the most troublesome to remember and there are **exceptions** from the rules. Still, here is a choice of common endings:

Wortendungen					
maskulin		**neutral**		**feminin**	
-ling	*der Frühling*	**-chen**	*das Mädchen*	**-ei**	*die Bäckerei*
-or	*der Motor*	**-o**	*das Kino*	**-ie**	*die Sympathie*
-ismus	*der Journalismus*	**-um**	*das Studium*	**-heit**	*die Gesundheit*
-ner	*der Rentner*	-**lein**	*das Tierlein*	**-keit**	*die Höflichkeit*
-ich	*der Wellensittich*	**-a**	*das Sofa*	**-ion**	*die Information*
-ist	*der Pazifist*			**-schaft**	*die Freundschaft*
				-tät	*die Universität*

2. Die Artikel – the articles

Articles aid a speaker to identify objects in reality. The two big categories of articles are the indefinite articles and the definite articles. Consider the differences between:

*He adopted **a** dog from **a** shelter.*
*He adopted **the** dog from **the** shelter.*

Indefinite articles are used to refer to things in the world around us in a general manner, like the first sentence above illustrates. Here the speaker refers to some dog in some shelter.

Definite articles focus in on specific objects which are known by both, speaker and audience. Thus, the second statement refers to a specific dog in a specific shelter.

Functionally, the use of articles in German is similar to their use in English. Yet, German articles change form in relation to grammatical **gender**, **number** and **case** (position and function in the sentence).

Der bestimmte Artikel – the definite article

Definite articles are used in front of nouns to introduce a person, an animal, or an object which is familiar and clearly identifiable at the moment of speaking. Singular nouns have three different grammatical genders: *der* (maskulin), *das* (neutral), and *die* (feminine), e.g.:

Der Hund ist schön.
Die Katze ist klug.
Das Pony ist schnell.

Yet, if you talk about more than one object or person, you have to use the plural article: *die*, e.g.:

Die Hunde sind schön.
Die Katzen sind klug.
Die Ponys sind schnell.

Therefore, the different forms of the definite article are:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	
NOMINATIV	*der*	*die*	*das*	*die*
AKKUSATIV	*den*	*die*	*das*	*die*

* explanations to the formation of the *Akkusativ* are in the GN Accusative

Der unbestimmte Artikel – the indefinite article

The indefinite article is subject to the same influences as its definite counterpart. However, there are only two forms that we need to distinguish, namely, *ein* (maskulin & neutral) and *eine* (feminine), e.g.:

*Das ist **ein** Hund.*
*Das ist **eine** Katze.*
*Das ist **ein** Pony.*

As the indefinite articles refer to one single entity, there is no plural form for indefinite articles. This is called **Nullartikel** ø (the zero article.). Therefore, the forms of the indefinite article are:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	
NOMINATIV	*ein*	*eine*	*ein*	ø
AKKUSATIV	*einen*	*eine*	*ein*	ø

* explanations to the formation of the *Akkusativ* are in the GN Accusative

Der Negativartikel – the negative article

In order to express that there is no quantity of an entity (no entity), you should use the **negative article** *kein*. The negative articles are derived from the positive indefinite articles, and must adjust accordingly. Note, that the negative article possesses a plural form, e.g.:

*Das ist **kein** Hund.*
*Sie hat **keine** Zeit.*
*Das ist **kein** Pony.*
*Er hat **keine** Katzen.*

Therefore, the forms of the negative article are:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	
NOMINATIV	*kein*	*keine*	*kein*	*keine*
AKKUSATIV	*keinen*	*keine*	*kein*	*keine*

* explanations to the formation of the *Akkusativ* are in the GN Accusative

Formal or Informal - forms of address

In German exists a distinction between formal and informal forms of address. **Informal address** is represented by the pronoun *du* and the respective verb forms of the 2nd person singular (2PS), whereas **formal address** uses the pronoun *Sie* (always with a capitalised S) and the verb forms of the 3rd person plural (3PP – F).

To avoid any social faux pas, you have to learn when it is appropriate to use the formal or informal address. The choice of the appropriate pronoun depends on factors such as age or situation.

The table below presents some general guidelines:

use the informal address *du*	use the formal address *Sie*
people of roughly the same age as you or younger	people that are obviously more senior than you
friends	strangers
peers	people of higher social status
to signal solidarity	to show respect or deference
for sports and many activities related to hobbies	in shops, at work, and in work related situations
equals	superordinates

If you have agreed with your conversational partner to use the **informal address**, you should also address that person by his or her **first name**, e.g.:

*Hallo **Peter**, wie geht es dir?*
*Danke, gut. Und wie geht es dir, **Sonja**?*

On the other hand, if you choose the **formal address**, make sure that you use the person's **family name with *Herr*** or ***Frau*** respectively, e.g.:

*Guten Tag **Herr Becker**, wie geht es Ihnen?*
*Danke, gut. Und wie geht es Ihnen **Frau Maier**?*

With regard to the use of informal and formal forms of address, remember the following:

Singular (talking to one person)	informal address	*du* or *dir*
	formal address	*Sie* or *Ihnen*
Plural (talking to a group)	informal address	*ihr* or *euch*
	formal address	*Sie* or *Ihnen*

As mentioned above, you need to be aware of the difference between informal and formal address and use it in the appropriate situations. All of the pronouns below are translated into the personal pronoun "you" in English:

- *du* (used to address one individual informally, i.e. a friend, a family member, a child, etc.)
  Sie (used to address one individual formally, i.e. a colleague, your dentist, a shop assistant, someone on the street whom you ask for help etc.).

- *ihr* (used to address one group of persons informally, i.e. teammates, fellow students, etc.)
  Sie (used to address one group of persons formally, i.e. strangers, colleagues at work, etc.).

Beispiele: Formal/informal questions and answers

Take note that the formal questions use the person pronoun *Sie* and *Ihnen* and the matching possessive articles *Ihr* and *Ihre.* The informal questions use the person pronoun *du* and *dir* and the matching possessive articles *dein* and *deine.* Below are a few examples of typical questions and answers in the formal and informal address, e.g.:

FRAGEN	ANTWORTEN
Wie geht es Ihnen? Wie geht es dir?	Gut, danke. Nicht so gut.
Wie heißen Sie? Wer bist du?	Ich heiße Dieter Hirt. Ich bin Dilka.
Wie ist Ihr Nachname? Wie ist dein Vorname?	Mein Nachname ist Hirt. Mein Vorname ist Dilka.
Wie alt sind Sie? Wie alt bist du?	Ich bin neununddreißig Jahre alt. Ich bin einundzwanzig Jahre alt.
Wie heißt Ihre Frau? Wie heißt deine Freundin?	Meine Frau heißt Steffi. Meine Freundin heißt Petra.

Beispiele: Begrüßung - Greetings

Depending on the **time of the day** and the type of **relationship**, the greeting will vary. We have a number of greetings that are only suitable for informal conversations, while others are used in formal conversations.

There are also regional variations, especially in Bavaria, Austria, and Switzerland. Some of the common local expressions are listed below.

Formal Greetings	Informal Greetings
Guten Morgen!	*Hallo!*
Guten Tag!	*Grüß dich!*
Guten Abend!	*Servus!* (Österreich)
Grüß Gott! (Süddeutschland/Österreich)	*Grüezi!* (Schweiz)

Beispiele: Abschied - Farewells

Similar to greetings, the type of farewell you should use depends on the degree of formality in the relationship between you and your interlocutor. Generally, the time of the day does not influence the form of the greeting; with one exception.

Formal Farewells	Informal Farewells
Auf Wiedersehen! (for all face-to-face situations)	*Tschüs!/Tschüss!/Tschüß!*
Auf Wiederhören! (exclusively in telephone talk)	*Bis bald!*
Gute Nacht! (only **before you go to sleep**)	*Mach's gut!*

Konjugation der Verben im Präsens – verb conjugation in the present tense

In general, **conjugation** means that you modify the infinitive of a verb and adjust its form according to the subject person pronouns. The infinitive is identified in English by adding a *to* before the verb, and in German by the ending –**en**, e.g.:

kommen - to come

When you conjugate a verb, you remove the infinitive marker -en at the end of the verb to create the stem. You then add the appropriate ending that belongs to the person pronoun you are using. The endings remain the same across all verbs in the present tense. In addition, notice that the core of the verb (stem) does not change in regular verbs, but changes in some verbs. We have three conjugation types:

Type 1:   **regular verbs**: the verb stem never changes
Type 2:   **verbs with vowel change**: there are some adjustments to the vowel in the in the verb stem
Type 3:   **irregular verbs**: there are major changes in the verb

1. Regular Verbs

As already indicated above, to arrive at the appropriate form simply cut of the infinitive marker to create the **stem** of the verb and add the corresponding ending for each pronoun, e.g. *kommen*:

	Personal Pronouns	Stem	Endings
1PS	ich	komm	**-e**
2PS	du	komm	**-st**
3PS	er sie es	komm	**-t**
1PP	wir	komm	**-en**
2PP	ihr	komm	**-t**
3PP	sie	komm	**-en**
F	Sie	komm	**-en**

There are a few exceptions in the conjugation pattern of regular verbs:

Adjustment 1: If the verb stem ends in –t or -d, the vowel -e- is inserted, e.g. *antworten*:

	Personal Pronouns	Stem	Endings
1PS	ich	antwort	**-e**
2PS	du	antwort	**-est**
3PS	er sie es	antwort	**-et**
1PP	wir	antwort	**-en**
2PP	ihr	antwort	**-et**
3PP	sie	antwort	**-en**
F	Sie	antwort	**-en**

Adjustment 2: If the verb stem ends in -ß or -z, the -s- in the 2nd person singular is omitted, e.g. *heißen:*

	Personal Pronouns	Stem	Endings
1PS	ich	heiß	**-e**
2PS	du	heiß	**-t**
3PS	er sie es	heiß	**-t**
1PP	wir	heiß	**-en**
2PP	ihr	heiß	**-t**
3PP	sie	heiß	**-en**
F	Sie	heiß	**-en**

2. Verbs With Vowel Change

These verbs exhibit changes inside the verb stem during the conjugation process. These changes affect the vowel in the verb stem, but they only appear in the 2nd and 3rd person singular.

Vowel Change 1: The vowel -e- changes to -i- , e.g. *sprechen (*also *essen* and *nehmen)*:

	Personal Pronouns	Stem	Endings
1PS	ich	sprech	**-e**
2PS	du	sprich	**-st**
3PS	er sie es	sprich	**-t**
1PP	wir	sprech	**-en**
2PP	ihr	sprech	**-t**
3PP	sie	sprech	**-en**
F	Sie	sprech	**-en**

Vowel Change 2: The vowel -e- changes to -ie-, e.g. *lesen (*also *sehen)*:

	Personal Pronouns	Stem	Endings
1PS	ich	les	**-e**
2PS	du	lies	**-t**
3PS	er sie es	lies	**-t**
1PP	wir	les	**-en**
2PP	ihr	les	**-t**
3PP	sie	les	**-en**
F	Sie	les	**-en**

Vowel Change 3: The vowel -a- changes to -ä- , e.g. *schlafen (*also *fahren* and *laufen):*

	Personal Pronouns	Stem	Endings
1PS	ich	schlaf	**-e**
2PS	du	schläf	**-st**
3PS	er sie es	schläf	**-t**
1PP	wir	schlaf	**-en**
2PP	ihr	schlaf	**-t**
3PP	sie	schlaf	**-en**
F	Sie	schlaf	**-en**

3. Irregular Verbs

The two most irregular verbs are also the two most commonly used verbs: *sein* and *haben*:

	Personal Pronouns	sein	haben
1PS	ich	**bin**	**habe**
2PS	du	**bist**	**hast**
3PS	er sie es	**ist**	**hat**
1PP	wir	**sind**	**haben**
2PP	ihr	**seid**	**habt**
3PP	sie	**sind**	**haben**
F	Sie	**sind**	**haben**

Länder, Nationalitäten und Sprachen – countries, nationalities, and languages

Most countries (*das Land/die Länder*) and continents (*der Kontinent/die Kontinente*) are not accompanied by any article. Their grammatical gender, however, is neuter, e.g.

Sie kommt aus Deutschland.
Deutschland ist in Europa.

There are only a few but important exceptions:

Die Schweiz ist in Europa.
Die Philippinen sind in Südostasien.
Die Türkei ist in Europa und Asien.

The following table provides you with the names of countries, the adjectives referring to the country, and their inhabitants. You will discover a pattern easily (despite a couple of exceptions). Note, that the adjectives can only be used like any other adjectives, namely in their base from after the verb *sein* in the object position of the sentence.

Das Land	Adjektiv	NATIONALITÄT	
		Der Mann	Die Frau
Australien	australisch	Australier	Australierin
Burma	burmesisch	Burmese	Burmesin
China	chinesisch	Chinese	Chinesin
Deutschland	deutsch	Deutscher	Deutsche
die Schweiz	schweizerisch	Schweizer	Schweizerin
England	englisch	Engländer	Engländerin
Indien	indisch	Inder	Inderin
Indonesien	indonesisch	Indonesier	Indonesierin
Japan	japanisch	Japaner	Japanerin
Malaysia	malaysisch	Malaysier	Malaysierin
Österreich	österreichisch	Österreicher	Österreicherin
die Philippinen	philippinisch	Filipino	Filipina
Singapur	singapurisch	Singapurer	Singapurerin
Thailand	thailändisch	Thailänder	Thailänderin
Vietnam	vietnamesisch	Vietnamese	Vietnamesin

Fragen und Antworten zu Ländern und Nationalitäten

Fragen	Antworten
Was ist deine Nationalität?	*Ich bin Deutsche/Österreicher/Schweizerin/singapurisch.*
Wo lebst du?	*Ich lebe in Deutschland/der Schweiz/den Philippinen/Singapur.*
Wo wohnst du?	*Ich wohne in Bremen/Zürich/Jurong.*
Woher kommst du?	*Ich komme aus Bremen/Deutschland/der Schweiz/Europa.*
Wohin reist du?	*Ich reise nach Deutschland/in die Schweiz/Europa.*

Sprachen - languages

Languages are nouns and need to be capitalised. There are five countries in which German is spoken as a main language, namely Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Lichtenstein, and Luxemburg. The region comprising the three main German speaking countries are also labelled as DACH; Germany (D), Austria (A), and Switzerland (CH).

The name of languages often follow the country name or the adjective, but in many they differ. Here are some examples:

Das Land	Die Sprachen
Australien	Englisch
Burma	Burmesisch
China	Chinesisch
Deutschland	Deutsch
die Schweiz	Deutsch/Französisch/Italienisch/Rätoromanisch
England	Englisch
Indien	Hindi/Tamilisch/Bengalisch/Telegu/usw.
Indonesien	Indonesisch
Japan	Japanisch
Malaysia	Malayisch/Malaiisch
Österreich	Deutsch
die Philippinen	Tagalog
Singapur	Englisch/Chinesisch/Malayisch/Tamilisch
Thailand	Thai
Vietnam	Vietnamesisch

Mengenangaben - quantifiers

1. General reference to food

There is no need to use the article together with the food item, if you refer to it in a general manner. In these cases you use the *Nullartikel* (zero article - ∅), e.g.:

Herr Kaiser isst gern Brot.
Sie trinkt gern Kaffee.
Trinkt Cornelia Saft?
Er kauft Kartoffeln.

Yet, if you speak about food in a specific manner and in reference to any quantity, you need to differentiate between countable and uncountable nouns.

2. Countable Nouns

For countable nouns, one can use the singular indefinite article (watch out for the accusative form) for a quantity of one. For more than one, you simply use the number and the plural form of the noun, e.g.:

Sie isst einen Apfel.
Mein Bruder kauft zwei Bananen.

3. Uncountable Nouns

If you want to refer to a specific quantity of a food item that cannot be counted directly (like liquids, grain, cereals, etc.), you can express it by referring to quantifiers, such as a container or weight. The most common ones are:

Container/Gewichte	Containers/Weight	Examples
der Becher (--)	*the cup/tub*	Sahne,
der Beutel (--)	*the bag*	Lebensmittel,
die Dose (-n)	*the can*	Bier,
die Flasche (-n)	*the bottle*	Wein,
das Glas (-¨er)	*the glass*	Saft,
das Gramm (--)	*the gram*	Zucker,
das Kilo (-s)	*the kilogram*	Tomaten,
die Kiste (-n)	*the box*	Mineralwasser,
der Liter (--)	*the litre*	Wasser,
die Packung (-en)	*the packet*	Mehl,
das Päckchen (--)	*the packet*	Kaffee,
das Pfund (-e)	*the pound*	Butter,
die Scheibe (-en)	*the slice*	Bread,
das Stück (-e)	*the piece*	Kuchen,
die Tafel (-n)	*the bar*	Schokolade
die Tasse (-n)	*the cup*	Tee,
die Tube (-n)	*the tube*	Senf,
die Tüte (-n)	*the (plastic/paper) bag*	Pilze,

In an expression linking a container or a weight measurement with an uncountable noun, the latter simply combines with the former, without any article or preposition in between. Note that the article for this construction always follows the quantifier, e.g.:

*Herr Kaiser trinkt mittags gern ein **Glas Saft**.*
*Sie frühstückt gern einen **Becher Joghurt** und eine **Tasse Tee**.*

Note that masculine and neuter containers or quantities, even when preceded by a plural number, are often left in the singular. Yet, you are now allowed to use both forms, the singular or the plural form. However, with feminine containers or quantifiers, the plural form needs to be used, e.g.:

*Wir möchten zwei **Stück** Kuchen.*
*Sie trinkt zwei **Glas** Saft.*
*Sie braucht zwei **Kisten** Bier.*

In German you always need to use quantifiers when you provide specific information about food items that are uncountable. Yet, **in spoken language,** if containers are self-explanatory, such as in the cases of drinks in a restaurant, no quantifier needs to be used, e.g.:

*Ich trinke **ein Bier***
*Mark möchte **einen Tee**.*

Please note that even though you will hear people saying this, such expressions are considered grammatically incorrect, so please **never use them in writing**.

Personalpronomen und Possessivartikel – pronouns and possessives

1. Personalpronomen – personal pronouns

Personal pronouns come in two broad categories, depending on the number of persons they refer to: singular and plural. Each category has three subcategories which represent the different points of views or stances that a speaker adopts towards his audience in a conversation.

German and English follow the same system or set of personal pronouns. The only addition to the system in German is the formal address, the pronoun *Sie*. This pronounal can be used to address a single person or a group of people in a formal and respectful manner.

	Personalpronomen	**Person Pronouns**
1. Person Singular (1PS)	*ich*	I
2. Person Singular (2PS)	*du*	you
3. Person Singular (3PS)	*er*	he - or masculine noun
	sie	she - or feminine noun
	es	it - or a neuter noun
1. Person Plural (1PP)	*wir*	we
2. Person Plural (2PP)	*ihr*	you (plural)
3. Person Plural (3PP)	*sie*	they
Formal - singular & plural (F)	*Sie*	you (sir, madam, ladies, etc.)

The words in the table above are called personal pronouns, because they:

- represent the subject of a sentence and thus control the conjugation of the verb, e.g.:

  Daniela und Rosa *sind Österreicherinnen und* **sie** *sprechen Deutsch.*

- often refer to a person, but also animals and other objects, e.g.:

  Der Hund *ist sehr schön, denn* **er** *ist ein Mischling.*

- replace or stand for a name or a noun used previously in the text or the conversation, e.g.:

  Rosalie hat **eine Freundin aus Singapur** *und* **sie** *heißt Yen Nee.*

Looking at the table above you will see that certain pronouns are identical or similar:

3PS feminine - *sie*
3PP - *sie*
F - *Sie*

However, all it takes is to look at verbs forms and/or spelling to tell them apart. The 3rd person singular feminine pronoun (3PS) and the 3rd person plural (3PP) trigger **different verb forms**, e.g.:

Sie **hat** *Katzen.* – She has cats.
Sie **haben** *Katzen.* – They have cats.

The 3rd person plural (3PP) and the formal address (F) have the same verb forms, but **the formal address form is always capitalised**, e.g.:

Haben **sie** *Katzen?* – Do they have cats?
Haben **Sie** *Katzen?* – Do you have cats?

Also, always remember that **the polite address is only used to address the person directly**, because it is a polite form of *you*. It's not possible to use *Sie* when talking about a person. If you want to do talk about a person in the formal way, you have to use the person's last name plus *Herr* or *Frau*, e.g.:

Frau Müller *hat Katzen, aber* **sie** *hat keine Hunde.*
Herr Hintermeyer *kommt aus Österreich, aber* **er** *lebt in Deutschland.*

2. Possessivartikel - Possessive determiners

Possessive determiners always precede a noun to indicate whom something or someone belongs to, e.g.:

mein Mann – my husband
*mein**e** Frau* – my wife
mein Hund – my dog
*mein**e** Katzen* – my cats

As can be seen from the examples above, the form of the possessive determiner depends on the gender and number (singular/plural) of the noun. To feminine nouns in the singular and all plural nouns the letter *-e* is added to the core form of the possessive determiner. This is what we call the nominative case, which is the normal case, which is used in a noun in the subject position or after a nominative verb, such as *sein*.

Possessivartikel im Nominativ - possessive pronouns in the nominative case

Take note that the possessive determiners in front of masculine and neuter nouns are identical. The same counts for those possessive determiners in front of feminine and plural nouns. Only one form has a unique pattern. The possessive determiner of the 2PP *eure* is missing an *-e-* in the feminine and plural form, because the word would be very difficult to pronounce, if it had the *-e-*.

The following table lists all the forms of the possessive determiners in the nominative case.

		maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	**plural**	
1PS	ich	**mein** Opa	**meine** Oma	**mein** Kind	**meine** Geschwister	my
2PS	du	**dein** Opa	**deine** Oma	**dein** Kind	**deine** Geschwister	your
3PS	er	**sein** Opa	**seine** Oma	**sein** Kind	**seine** Geschwister	his
3PS	sie	**ihr** Opa	**ihre** Oma	**ihr** Kind	**ihre** Geschwister	her
3PS	es	**sein** Opa	**seine** Oma	**sein** Kind	**seine** Geschwister	its
1PP	wir	**unser** Opa	**unsere** Oma	**unser** Kind	**unsere** Geschwister	our
2PP	ihr	**euer** Opa	**eure** Oma	**euer** Kind	**eure** Geschwister	your
3PP	sie	**ihr** Opa	**ihre** Oma	**ihr** Kind	**ihre** Geschwister	their
F	Sie	**Ihr** Opa	**Ihre** Oma	**Ihr** Kind	**Ihre** Geschwister	your

Possessivartikel im Akkusativ - possessive determiners in the accusative case

The accusative case affects the article of the masculine singular noun, and therefore it also affects the possessive determiner. Thus, the masculine nouns in the singular will have an *-en* added to the core form. This is what we call the accusative case, which is used after an accusative verb in the direct object position.

The following table lists all the forms of the possessive determiner in the accusative case.

		maskulin	**feminin**	**neutral**	**plural**	
1PS	ich	**meinen** Opa	**meine** Oma	**mein** Kind	**meine** Geschwister	my
2PS	du	**deinen** Opa	**deine** Oma	**dein** Kind	**deine** Geschwister	your
3PS	er	**seinen** Opa	**seine** Oma	**sein** Kind	**seine** Geschwister	his
3PS	sie	**ihren** Opa	**ihre** Oma	**ihr** Kind	**ihre** Geschwister	her
3PS	es	**seinen** Opa	**seine** Oma	**sein** Kind	**seine** Geschwister	its
1PP	wir	**unseren** Opa	**unsere** Oma	**unser** Kind	**unsere** Geschwister	our
2PP	ihr	**euren** Opa	**eure** Oma	**euer** Kind	**eure** Geschwister	your
3PP	sie	**ihren** Opa	**ihre** Oma	**ihr** Kind	**ihre** Geschwister	their
F	Sie	**Ihren** Opa	**Ihre** Oma	**Ihr** Kind	**Ihre** Geschwister	your

Note that the possessive determiner of the masculine second person plural *euren* is also missing an *-e-*.

Der Plural - the plural form

German possesses five different plural markers, which mostly have two types. This means German has nine different plural forms. It is difficult to tell to which category a noun belongs. This means you simply need to **learn nouns together with their respective plural forms**. The various different plural markers and forms are listed below:

Plural Marker − Ø (ZERO)

SINGULAR	PLURAL
das Mädchen	die Mädchen
+ UMLAUT	
die Mutter	die M**ü**tter

Notice that there is no addition to the singular form, yet some change the core vowel into an Umlaut vowel.

Note that **all masculine nouns** that end in -er have identical singular and plural forms.

Plural Marker – e

SINGULAR	PLURAL
das Brot	die Brot**e**
+ UMLAUT	
der Sohn	die S**ö**hn**e**

Note that in some forms of the -e plural marker the internal vowel changes to Umlaut.

Plural Marker – er

SINGULAR	PLURAL
das Kind	die Kind**er**
+ UMLAUT	
der Mann	die M**ä**nn**er**

Note that some forms of the −er plural marker show a change to Umlaut in the stem vowel.

Plural Marker – n

SINGULAR	PLURAL
die Tante	die Tante**n**
+ −en	
die Frau	die Frau**en**
+ −nen	
die Freundin	die Freundi**nen**

The plural marker here is -n for nouns that already end in -e . Note that for this category **feminine nouns** that end in -e always add an -n in the plural and that feminine nouns which end in -in add -nen in the plural.

Plural Marker - s

SINGULAR	PLURAL
das Sofa	die Sofa**s**
das Handy	die Handy**s**

Most of the nouns with the plural marker -s possess a singular form that ends in a vowel or are loan words from foreign languages.

Präferenzen - preferences

In German you have different ways to express preferences. The most common words used to express preferences are: *gern, finden, gefallen, schmecken und Lieblings-*.

Adverb *gern*

One of the most commonly used forms of expressing a preference is through the adverb *gern*, which means that you **like doing something** (*gern + Verb*). Remember that you always have to use *gern* when you want to express a preference in the sense of doing something. The use of *gern* in the sentence follows the rules of all other adverbs, e.g.:

FRAGEN	ANTWORTEN
Was isst du gern?	*Ich esse gern Obst.*
Isst du gern Reis?	*Nein, ich esse nicht so gern Reis.*
Lernt ihr gern Deutsch?	*Ja, wir lernen sehr gern Deutsch.*
Reisen Sie gern?	*Ja, wir reisen sehr gern.*

Verb *finden*

Expressions of preference with the verb *finden* can be used to express a preference in the sense of **how you like/find something**. It is therefore used to express opinions on something that you can touch, see, or hear, but also for philosophical and abstract concepts. Remember that *finden* is an accusative verb and therefore affects the accusative object of the sentence. The opinion in the answer can be expressed with a wide range of adjectives, e.g.:

FRAGEN	ANTWORTEN
Wie findet ihr den Deutschunterricht?	*Wir finden den Deutschunterricht toll!*
Wie finden Sie meine Wohnung?	*Ich finde Ihre Wohnung sehr gemütlich.*
Wie findest du den Balkon?	*Ich finde den Balkon klein.*
Wie findet ihr die Möbel?	*Wir finden die Möbel nicht so schön.*

Verb *gefallen*

Expressions of preference with the verb *gefallen* can be used to express a preference in the sense of **how you like something**. It is therefore also used to express opinions on something, but it can only be used in the **visual** or **auditory** sense. Thus, only when you are talking about something that can see or hear.

The verb *gefallen* can be used with the informal and formal form of address and of course in singular and plural. Yet, the form of the verb *gefallen* changes according to the number of the noun (singular or plural) it is used with, because the noun is the grammatical subject of the sentence. Therefore, the pronouns, and the sentence structure of the answer are slightly different. Also, note that the **answer** to a question with *gefallen* can only use expressions **gut** and **nicht** and variations thereof, e.g.:

FRAGEN	ANTWORTEN
*Wie **gefällt Ihnen** Deutschland?*	*Deutschland **gefällt mir sehr gut**.*
*Wie **gefallen Ihnen** die Bilder?*	*Die Bilder **gefallen mir nicht so gut**.*
*Wie **gefällt dir** die Musik?*	*Die Musik **gefällt mir gar nicht**.*
*Wie **gefallen dir** meine Katzen?*	*Deine Katzen **gefallen mir gut**.*

↳ dativ

Verb *schmecken*

When you are talking about **food** and **drink** you need to use the verb *schmecken* to express a preference. Note that the form of the verb *schmecken* also changes according to the number of the noun (singular or plural) it is used with, because the noun is the grammatical subject of the sentence. It therefore creates the same sentence structure as the verb *gefallen* and can only be used with *gut* or *nicht* in the answer, e.g.:

FRAGEN	ANTWORTEN
Wie **schmeckt Ihnen** der Wein?	Der Wein **schmeckt mir gut**.
Wie **schmecken Ihnen** die Nudeln?	Die Nudeln **schmecken mir nicht**.
Wie **schmeckt dir** das Bier?	Das Bier **schmeckt mir sehr gut**.
Wie **schmecken dir** die Trauben?	Die Trauben **schmecken mir nicht so gut**.

Noun *Lieblings-*

Another popular form of expressing a preference is through a composite noun with *Lieblings-*, which means **favourite**. Therefore you can only have one *Lieblings-* of any kind. Yet, you can use *Lieblings-* in front of pretty much any noun that expresses a concrete object or idea. Remember that in composite nouns the grammatical gender always follows the second part, e.g.:

FRAGEN	ANTWORTEN
Was ist dein **Lieblingsbuch**?	Mein Lieblingsbuch ist „Der Alchemist".
Was sind deine **Lieblingstiere**?	Meine Lieblingstiere sind Katzen.
Hast du ein **Lieblingsessen**?	Ja, ich habe ein Lieblingsessen.
Woher kommt deine **Lieblingsoma**?	Meine Lieblingsoma kommt aus Ostdeutschland.

Satzbau - sentence structure

Word order in a German sentence can be regarded as both rigid and flexible. The most important part of the sentences structure, in both statements (Aussagesätze) and questions (Fragen), is the placement of the verb, which is crucial in the construction of a correct sentence.

A. Aussagesätze - Statements

The **conjugated verb always** occupies **the second slot** in the structure of the statement. The subject is usually in position 1, followed by the verb in position 2, and then the object. This is the regular sentence structure in German:

1 Subjekt	2 Prädikat/Verb	3 Objekt
Dieter	*hat*	*eine Katze.*

If we want to add an adverb (of time, frequency, etc.) we position this before the object in position 3:

1 Subjekt	2 Prädikat/Verb	3 Adverb	4 Objekt
Dieter	*hat*	*jetzt*	*eine Katze.*

However, if a speaker intends to highlight a certain piece of information, specifically a time indicator, it is possible to shift this element into position 1. In such a case, **the verb must remain in position 2:**

1 Adverb	2 Prädikat/Verb	3 Subjekt	4 Objekt
Jetzt	*hat*	*Dieter*	*eine Katze.*

Remember that **verbs** are the holy cows of the German language; thus, the position of the conjugated verb is dominant and the it must always remain in **position 2**.

B. Fragen - Questions

There are two types of questions in German:
1.   *W-Frage* - questions with question words
2.   *Ja/Nein-Frage* - yes/no-question

1. W-Frage - question with question word

These questions aim at retrieving precise pieces of information. They start with a question word (Fragewort) and just like in English, all question words (even the equivalent of *how*) start with the letter **w**. However, German w-questions do not require the use of an auxiliary verb like "to do". Instead, the conjugated verb simply follows the question word, because the verb has to remain in the second position:

1 Fragewort	2 Prädikat/Verb	3 Objekt
Wer	*hat*	*eine Katze?*

If ask the same w-question and add an adverbial, the latter is added in position 3, just like in a statement:

1 Fragewort	2 Prädikat/Verb	3 Adverb	4 Objekt
Wer	*hat*	*jetzt*	*eine Katze?*

Yet if we ask a w-question that asks for the grammatical object, and add an adverbial, the latter moves into fourth position. This is because the verb has to stay in second position, which means the subject and the verb have to swap place, which is then followed by the adverb:

1 Fragewort	2 Prädikat/Verb	3 Subjekt	4 Adverb
Was	*hat*	*Dieter*	*jetzt?*

Important question words in German are:

Wann?	When?
Warum?	Why?
Was?	What?
Wen?	Whom?
Wer?	Who?
Wie?	How?
Wie viel (+ mass noun)?	How much (+ mass noun/uncountable)?
Wie viele (+ plural noun)?	How many (+ plural noun/countable)?
Wo?	Where?
Woher?	Where from?
Wohin?	Where to?

2. Ja/Nein-Frage - yes/no-question

These questions have no question word and the answers to such questions start either with *Ja, …* or *Nein, …* The sentence structure of these questions is the same as for questions with question words, but without the latter. This makes the yes/no question the only exception to the dominant grammar rule, because here **the conjugated verb** will occupy the **first position** and the subject the second. The conjugated verb and subject simply change position, in comparison to the statement:

1 Prädikat/Verb	2 Subjekt	3 Objekt
Hat	*Dieter*	*eine Katze?*

If we add an adverb to the question then it will simply be placed in position 3, before the object:

1 Prädikat/Verb	2 Subjekt	3 Adverb	4 Objekt
Hat	*Dieter*	*jetzt*	*eine Katze.*

Beispiele:

FRAGEN	ANTWORTEN
Wie geht es Ihnen?	Es geht mir gut.
Wie ist Ihr Nachname?	Mein Nachname ist Hirt.
Wie viele Katzen hast du?	Ich habe zwei Katzen.
Woher kommen Sie?	Ich komme aus der Schweiz.
Wo lebst du?	Ich lebe in Singapur.
Sprichst du Deutsch?	Ja, ich spreche Deutsch und Englisch
Sind Sie verheiratet?	Nein, ich bin ledig.

C. Conjunctions

If you intend **to fuse two statements** to create a compound sentence, you simply combine two main clauses into one sentence, which means that the sentence structure of each clause is not affects:

1 Subjekt	2 Verb	3 Objekt	Conjunktion	1 Subjekt	2 Verb	3 Objekt
Dieter	hat	eine Katze	und	Barbara	hat	ein Pony.

The example shows, that the same rules apply, because the words that are used to connect statements (conjunctions) are not regarded as part of the sentence matrix of either statement. **Conjunctions** that can be used this way are:

German	English	Use and Meaning
und	and	list/order/addition
oder	or	alternative
, denn	because	reason
, aber	but	contrast
, sondern	but (for negative clauses only)	contrast

Note that *oder* is mostly used in questions and that *sondern* can only be used in negative clauses. Also note that *aber*, *denn*, and *sondern* are always preceded by a comma, while *und* and *oder* are used without a comma:

1 Subjekt	2 Verb	3 Objekt	Conjunktion	1 Subjekt	2 Verb	3 Objekt
Dieter	hat	eine Katze	, aber	Beate	hat	ein Pony.
Dieter	hat	eine Katze	und	Beate	hat	ein Pony.

From the two examples above you see that the only part of the sentence that changes is the conjunction. Yet, this changes the overall meaning of the sentence, because conjunctions indicate how the information provided in the two main clauses relates to each other.

As mentioned before, *sondern* can only be used with negative statements (*nicht/kein*). Also, the second statement has to have the same subject and verb, which means they are omitted in the clause following the conjunction. Thus, *sondern* is followed only by a second object, adverb, or number, e.g.:

1 Subjekt	2 Verb	3 Negation	4 Objekt	Conjunktion	1 Angabe
Dieter	hat	kein	Pony	, sondern	eine Katze.
Dieter	hat	nicht	eine Katze	, sondern	zwei.

D. Two Verbs

If you intend to use **two verbs** in a sentence the second verb needs to go to the end of the sentence. All the other parts of the sentence are then in between the two verbs. We call this sentence structure *Satzklammer* (sentence bracket):

1 Subjekt	2 Verb 1	3 Objekt	4 Verb 2
Wir	möchten	Gemüse	essen.

Note also that elements, such as adverbs go into the *Satzklammer*. These the order of the elements follows the normal rules of sentence structure, with the adverbs following the verb and the direct object just before the second verb.

Trennbare Verben – separable verbs

Separable verbs are types of verbs that consist of a verb plus a particle that precedes it, a prefix. They are equivalent to composite verbs in English, which consist of a verb and a preposition that modifies the meaning of the verb, such as *hang on* or *switch off*. In German the verb part also carries the same meaning as the single verb, while the prefix modifies that meaning, e.g.:

*auf***stehen**
*an***fangen**

Separable Verbs and Sentence Structure

As you can see above, the infinitive is always written together as a single word. Thus, if you look up a separable verb in a dictionary, it looks like a regular verb. When conjugated however, the core part of the verb occupies the regular position of the verb in the sentence and carries the conjugation. The prefix is separated and placed at the end of the sentence, e.g.:

*Ich **stehe** montags um halb sieben **auf**.*
*Wir **kaufen** am Sonntag **ein**.*
*Der Film **fängt** um 14.30 Uhr **an**.*
***Räumst** du gern dein Zimmer **auf**?*

Examples of Common Separable Verbs:

Infinitiv	3. Person Singular	Übersetzung
anfangen	*er fängt … an*	to start, to begin
anhalten	*er hält … an*	to stop (walk/drive)
anmachen + Akk	*er macht (das Licht) an*	to switch something on
ausmachen + Akk	*er macht (das Licht) aus*	to turn something off
aufhören	*er hört … auf*	to stop (activity/speaking)
aufmachen +Akk	*er macht … auf*	to open something
aufschreiben + Akk	*er schreibt … auf*	to write something down
einladen + Akk	*er lädt … ein*	to invite someone
einziehen in +Akk	*er zieht … ein*	to move in somewhere
mitbringen + Akk	*er bringt .. mit*	to bring along something
mitkommen	*er kommt … mit*	to come along
mitmachen	*er macht … mit*	to join in, participate
mitnehmen + Akk	*er nimmt … mit*	to take something away
mitschreiben	*er schreibt … mit*	to take notes
weggehen	*er geht … weg*	to leave, go away
zuhören	*er hört … zu*	to listen to
zumachen	*er macht … zu*	to close

Satzklammer and Order of Components (TMP)

You have seen that the sentence structure of separable verbs follows the rules of two verbs in a sentence, where the prefix goes to the end of the sentence building a *Satzklammer*:

Subjekt	Verb	Objekt	Prefix
Wir	*bringen*	*Nudelsalat*	*mit.*

As such adverbs and other elements go into the *Satzklammer*, following the normal rules of sentence structure, with the adverbs following the verb and the direct object just before the prefix:

Subjekt	Verb	Adverb	Objekt	Prefix
Wir	*bringen*	*heute*	*Nudelsalat*	*mit.*

If you intend to use two adverbs or several pieces of information in the sentence, they have to follow a specific order, which is Time-Mode-Place (TMP) or Zeit-Modus-Ort (ZMO):

Subjekt	Verb	Adverb (Zeit)	Adverb (Modus)	Objekt	Prefix
Wir	*bringen*	*heute*	*gern*	*Nudelsalat*	*mit.*

Also remember that several time indicators always have to be listed from the largest du the smallest unit of time. Therefore, a day will have to be listed before the time of day, etc.:

Subjekt	Verb	Adverb (Zeit)	Adverb (Zeit)	Objekt	Prefix
Wir	*bringen*	*heute*	*um 8 Uhr*	*Nudelsalat*	*mit.*

Verneinung mit *nicht* und *kein* – negation with *nicht* and *kein*

In German we do not negate a sentence, but specific parts of the sentence. Therefore, German makes use of two different types of forms for expressing the lack of something:

<div align="center">

kein, keine and *keinen*
nicht

</div>

I. Use of *kein*, *keine*, and *keinen*

The negative article *kein, keine* or *keinen* is used to negate a **noun** which in its positive from would be preceded by the **indefinite article** (*ein, eine,* or *einen*) or the **Nullartikel** (zero article ∅), e.g.:

<div align="center">

*Ist das **ein** Hund?*
*Nein, das ist **kein** Hund.*

Hast du heute Zeit?
*Nein, ich habe heute **keine** Zeit.*

</div>

II. Use of *nicht*

When you want to negate any other words or expressions, you use *nicht*. As the negation in German is a matter of focus, *nicht* goes with the sentences element that you want to negate and you usually place it directly **in front** of those words or expressions that you want to negate, e.g.:

1. an adverb

<div align="center">

Isst du gern Trauben?
*Nein, ich esse **nicht gern** Trauben.*

</div>

2. an adjective

<div align="center">

Das Haus ist groß.
*Nein, das Haus ist **nicht groß**.*

</div>

3. a modifier to an adjective

<div align="center">

Der Schrank ist sehr teuer.
*Nein, der Schrank ist **nicht sehr** teuer.*

</div>

4. a prepositional phrase

<div align="center">

Kommst du aus der Schweiz?
*Nein, ich komme **nicht aus der Schweiz.***

</div>

5. a noun carrying the definite or possessive articles in the nominative object

<div align="center">

Ist das dein Hund?
*Nein, das ist **nicht mein Hund.***

</div>

When there are several elements the meaning changes depending on where you place the *nicht*. Also when you specifically negate an element that indicates time or numbers you need to add *sondern*, e.g.:

<div align="center">

*Wir lernen **nicht heute** Deutsch**, sondern** morgen.*
*Sie hat **nicht zwei** Katzen**, sondern** vier.*

</div>

Yet, there are a few cases in which the *nicht* has to be placed **after** the element that we want to negate.

6. verbs: yet we only negate the verb if there is **no other element** in the sentence:

<div align="center">

Schläft Herr Müller?
*Nein, er **schläft nicht**.*

</div>

7. nouns carrying the definite article in the accusative object

<div align="center">

Kaufst du das Deutschbuch?
*Nein, ich kaufe **das Deutschbuch nicht**.*

</div>

8. nouns carrying the possessive article in the accusative object

<div align="center">

Fütterst du meine Katze?
*Nein! Ich füttere **deine Katze nicht**.*

</div>

Zahlen – numbers

The German numbers are very easy to learn. They follow a very logical system and this system is very similar to the English way of counting. Thus, German also has the system of the -*teen* and -*ty* endings, which are called -*zehn* and -*zig* (or -*ßig* in 30) in German. Overall, there are only a few exceptions where endings are omitted when numbers are combined, e.g.:

eins - **ein**undzwanzig
sechs - **sech**zehn
sieben - **sieb**zig

The numbers above twenty follow a system that is identical with the old English system. If you have every read books by Jane Austin, you will have read numbers such as *one-and-twenty*, which is the old way of saying *twenty-one*. The same system is used in German, thus, for numbers above twenty you say the second digit first, then *und* and then the second number. The only difference is that we write the entire number in lower case and in one word, e.g.:

31 - **ein***und***dreißig**

Die Zahlen:

0	null	21	einundzwanzig
1	eins	22	zweiundzwanzig
2	zwei	26	sechsundzwanzig
3	drei	27	siebenundzwanzig
4	vier	30	dreißig
5	fünf	40	vierzig
6	sechs	50	fünfzig
7	sieben	60	sechzig
8	acht	70	siebzig
9	neun	80	achtzig
10	zehn	90	neunzig
11	elf	100	(ein)hundert
12	zwölf	101	(ein)hunderteins
13	dreizehn	110	(ein)hundertzehn
14	vierzehn	120	(ein)hundertzwanzig
15	fünfzehn	200	zweihundert
16	sechzehn	300	dreihundert
17	siebzehn	1000	(ein)tausend
18	achtzehn	1001	(ein)tausendeins
19	neunzehn	10000	zehntausend
20	zwanzig	100000	hunderttausend

Note that the *und* only appears between the tens and the single digits (*drei**und**vierzig, acht**und**sechzig, usw.*), yet never in higher numbers (*fünfhundertsiebzehn, neunhunderdertacht**und**sechzig, usw*).

The list above illustrates the concept of counting in German. So now you are already able to say the German numbers from 0 (*null)* to 999999 (*neunhundertneunundneunzigtausendneunhundertneunundneunzig).*