# 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 Ga Hh Ιi Ji Kk LI Mm Tt Vν Nn 00 Pp Qq Rr Ss Uu Ww Xx Υv Zz

There are three additional vowels or *Umlaute*: Ää Öö Üü

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

Ää is similar to the **e** sound in the English word *let*, but you keep your mouth a little more open.

Öö 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.

 $\ddot{\mathbf{U}}$   $\ddot{\mathbf{u}}$  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).

**B** 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:

Ää = Ae ae

Öö = Oe oe

Üü = Ue ue

 $\beta = ss$ 

#### **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** is pronounced like **ai** , just as in the Chinese word for love (the egg / das Ei).

Ai ai

**Ie ie** is pronounced like a long German i, so it sounds like ee in English (four / vier).

Ih ih

**eu** is pronounced like the English exclamation **oi** (the Euro / der Euro)

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 – soonmorgen – tomorrowfrüh – earlysofort – immediatelygleich – in a minutespäter – later

*heute* – today *übermorgen* – the day after tomorrow

*jetzt* – now *zurzeit* – at the moment

Adverbs that indicate mode

gern – gladlynormalerweise – normallygut – goodschlecht – badlylangsam – slowlyschnell – fast

Adverbs that indicate frequency

immer – alwaysoft – oftenmanchmal – sometimesselten – seldommeistens – most of the timetäglich – dailynie – neverwöchentlich - weekly

Adverbs that indicate numbers or repeats

einmal - oncesechsmalzweimal - twicesiebenmaldreimal - ...achtmalviermalneunmalfünfmalzehnmal ...

Adverbs that indicate frequency in relation to time of the day or day of the week

montags – (every) Mondayabends – evening (PM)dienstags – (every) Tuesdaymittags – middaymittwochs – Wednesdaymorgens – morning (AM)donnerstags – (every) Thursdaynachts – nightfreitags – (every) Fridaynachmittags – afternoon

samstags – (every) Saturday

sonntags – (every) Saturday

vormittags – late morning

sonntags – (every) Sunday

#### **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	PLUKAL
NOMINATIV	der	die	das	die
AKKUSATIV	den	die	das	die

#### Indefinite articles and the accusative case

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	maskulin	feminin	neutral	PLUKAL
NOMINATIV	ein	eine	ein	
AKKUSATIV	einen	eine	ein	

## Negative articles and the accusative case

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

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

	SINGULAR			DILIDAI
	maskulin	feminin	neutral	PLURAL
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	-о	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	LOKAL
NOMINATIV	der	die	das	die
AKKUSATIV	den	die	das	die

<sup>\*</sup> 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**  $\emptyset$  (the zero article.). Therefore, the forms of the indefinite article are:

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

<sup>\*</sup> 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.q.:

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	. 20.0.2
NOMINATIV	kein	keine	kein	keine
AKKUSATIV	keinen	keine	kein	keine

<sup>\*</sup> 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  $2^{nd}$  person singular (2PS), whereas **formal address** uses the pronoun Sie (always with a capitalised S) and the verb forms of the  $3^{rd}$  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	informal address	<i>du</i> or <i>dir</i>
(talking to one person)	formal address	Sie or Ihnen
Plural	informal address	<i>ihr</i> or <i>euch</i>
(talking to a group)	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?	Gut, danke.
Wie geht es dir?	Nicht so gut.
Wie heißen Sie?	Ich heiße Dieter Hirt.
Wer bist du?	Ich bin Dilka.
Wie ist Ihr Nachname?	Mein Nachname ist Hirt.
Wie ist dein Vorname?	Mein Vorname ist Dilka.
Wie alt sind Sie?	Ich bin neununddreißig Jahre alt.
Wie alt bist du?	Ich bin einundzwanzig Jahre alt.
Wie heißt Ihre Frau?	Meine Frau heißt Steffi.
Wie heißt deine Freundin?	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 <b>before you go to sleep</b> )	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	-е
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	-е
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 -B or -z, the -s- in the  $2^{nd}$  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	-е
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	-е
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	-е
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.

		NATION	IALITÄT
Das Land	Adjektiv	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  $- \varnothing$ ), 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.q.:

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. 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
	er	he - or masculine noun
3. Person Singular (3PS)	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:

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

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

The 3<sup>rd</sup> 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 husbandmeine Frau – my wifemein Hund – my dogmeine 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	<b>mein</b> Opa	meine Oma	mein Kind	meine Geschwister	my
2PS	du	<b>dein</b> Opa	<b>deine</b> Oma	<b>dein</b> Kind	deine Geschwister	your
3PS	er	<b>sein</b> Opa	<b>seine</b> Oma	<b>sein</b> Kind	seine Geschwister	his
3PS	sie	<b>ihr</b> Opa	<b>ihre</b> Oma	ihr Kind	ihre Geschwister	her
3PS	es	<b>sein</b> Opa	<b>seine</b> 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	<b>ihr</b> Opa	<b>ihre</b> Oma	<b>ihr</b> 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	<b>meinen</b> Opa	meine Oma	mein Kind	meine Geschwister	my
2PS	du	<b>deinen</b> Opa	<b>deine</b> Oma	<b>dein</b> Kind	deine Geschwister	your
3PS	er	<b>seinen</b> Opa	seine Oma	<b>sein</b> Kind	seine Geschwister	his
3PS	sie	<b>ihren</b> Opa	<b>ihre</b> Oma	ihr Kind	ihre Geschwister	her
3PS	es	<b>seinen</b> Opa	<b>seine</b> Oma	sein Kind	seine Geschwister	its
1PP	wir	<b>unseren</b> Opa	unsere Oma	unser Kind	unsere Geschwister	our
2PP	ihr	euren Opa	eure Oma	euer Kind	eure Geschwister	your
3PP	sie	<b>ihren</b> Opa	<b>ihre</b> Oma	<b>ihr</b> Kind	<b>ihre</b> 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 <b>ü</b> 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 <b>e</b>	
+ UMLAUT		
der Sohn	die S <b>ö</b> hn <b>e</b>	

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 <b>er</b>	
+ UMLAUT		
der Mann	die M <b>ä</b> nn <b>er</b>	

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 <b>n</b>		
+ -en			
die Frau	die Frau <b>en</b>		
+ -nen			
die Freundin	die Freundi <b>nen</b>		

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 <b>s</b>
das Handy	die Handy <b>s</b>

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 <b>gefallen mir nicht so gut</b> .
Wie <b>gefällt dir</b> die Musik?	Die Musik <b>gefällt mir gar nicht</b> .
Wie <b>gefallen dir</b> meine Katzen?	Deine Katzen <b>gefallen mir gut</b> .

#### 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 <b>schmeckt mir sehr gut</b> .
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 <b>Lieblingsessen</b> ?	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	2	3
Subjekt	Prädikat/Verb	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	2	3	4
Subjekt	Prädikat/Verb	Adverb	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	2	3	4
Adverb	Prädikat/Verb	Subjekt	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  $\mathbf{w}$ . 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	2	3
Fragewort	Prädikat/Verb	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	2	3	4
Fragewort	Prädikat/Verb	Adverb	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	2	3	4
Fragewort	Prädikat/Verb	Subjekt	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	2	3
Prädikat/Verb	Subjekt	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	2	3	4
Prädikat/Verb	Subjekt	Adverb	Objekt
Hat	Dieter	jetzt	

### 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	2	3	Conjunktion	1	2	3
Subjekt	Verb	Objekt		Subjekt	Verb	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 or		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	2	3	4
Subjekt	Verb 1	Objekt	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	Subjekt Verb		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:

kein, keine and keinen nicht

#### 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  $\varnothing$ ), e.g.:

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

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

#### 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

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

2. an adjective

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

3. a modifier to an adjective

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

4. a prepositional phrase

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

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

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

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.:

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

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:

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

7. nouns carrying the definite article in the accusative object

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

8. nouns carrying the possessive article in the accusative object

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

#### 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 -Big in 30) in German. Overall, there are only a few exceptions where endings are omitted when numbers are combined, e.g.:

eins - einundzwanzig sechs - sechzehn sieben - siebzig

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 - einunddreißig

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 (*dreiundvierzig, achtundsechzig, usw.*), yet never in higher numbers (*fünfhundertsiebzehn, neunhunderdertachtundsechzig, 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*).