

Selected Practical Problems of Didactical Grammars

— as Exemplified by German —

Abdurrahman GÜLBAYAZ

Selected Practical Problems of Didactical Grammars

— as Exemplified by German —

Abdurrahman GÜLBAYAZ

Abstract

In this paper, I will critically reflect on the grammatical terminology employed in the didactical grammar of German in the light of a case study from classroom practice. For the purpose of preparing the ground for the conveyance of the most essential differentiating features of the theoretical approach underlying this text, and thus pre-emptively securing a smooth access to both the pivotal arguments and the line of reasoning leading to them, historical and theoretical deliberations on foreign language acquisition and grammar will be undertaken in the first half of the text in a rather condensed form.

In the second half of the paper, I will – selectively and in a condensed manner – examine the current grammar related terminology in the foreign language textbooks for its internal integrity and consistency with the aim of pointing out the fact that it is sufficiently justified to bring the cohesion and compatibility of the grammatical terms into question and thus to cast doubt on the adequacy and pertinence of the way the individual theory modules are processed and presented. In this context, reference is made, among other things, to the common grammatical archaisms and the problems causally connected with them in teaching practice.

On the basis of – among other things – a concise critical analysis of the predominant way in which the declension of the adjectives is presented and taught in current textbooks, it is made clear that the features and characteristics which must necessarily be present in order to realise and ensure the adequacy and relevance of a didactical grammar for German as a foreign language are often hardly demonstrable.

Finally, for those terminological problems that are addressed here and for the treatment of the affected theoretical modules, alternative approaches, and procedures – that have already been tried and tested in classroom practice – are demonstrated and put up for debate.

Keywords: Grammar, Didactical Grammar, Language Acquisition & Teaching, German

Introductory Remarks on Foreign Language Acquisition

Today, on this earth of humans, certain people must yield to the homo-hegemony of dominant languages. They must learn the language of the masters, of capital and machines; they must lose their idiom in order to survive or live better.

– Derrida, Jacques, *Monolingualism of the Other; or, The Prosthesis of Origin*

There is no general, context-free, extra-temporal talk about grammar theories and models. Any reflection on grammar must be indexed and differentiated in terms of a number of aspects. On the one hand, it must be provided with a socio-historical signature. That is to say, such talk has a necessary relationship of dependency on the social space-time-continuum, whose counterpart in the field of linguistic research has been the 'diachronic axis' since Ferdinand de Saussure's *Cours de linguistique générale* at the latest¹. On the other hand, it must make known in advance which of the grammar varieties currently in question it refers to. In analogy to the socio-historical aspect mentioned above, this question could be understood in connection with de Saussure's concept of synchrony or von der Gabelentz's concept of the 'single language' component,² which von der Gabelentz contrasts with the 'genealogical-historical' and demarcates it from the latter.

The classification of grammar models can be designed differently depending on the main criterion employed and thus result in a number of differing paradigms. It is indeed the case that several more or less divergent classification models are in circulation, each with two, three or more types. It does not seem appropriate to me in the context of my main concern here to draw up a detailed inventory of the classification models in question. I would like to point out, however, that I do not make any distinction between didactical grammar and pedagogical grammar in the context of this work, so that the term didactical grammar in my usage can without reserve be read as pedagogical grammar as well.³

As far as the diachronic axis of the human language continuum is concerned, I believe that the entire social space-time in connection with language acquisition, language teaching and related phenomena, that is, also in terms of grammar, – the codifying, standardising and norming record of the operating principles and the kinematics of a language (the set of rules governing the structure, movement patterns of the sentence and the reactions and interactions of the components of the sentence to and with each other) – can be divided into two clearly delineable domains or phases.⁴

The first spans a practically incalculable period from the little-known beginnings of language to the mature stage of the last variety of the social mode of organisation of the human species. And the second is the very modernity, which – emerging from the previous one – encompasses the present day stand of so-called human civilisation.⁵ I think it would not be entirely out of place to point out in this connection that the dividing line between

these two phases is not a clearly definable spatiotemporally homogeneous borderline, but has rather the form of a broad, almost amorphous spatiotemporal belt with blurred transition regions. If I were to apply the usual, now commonly accepted periodisation of the history of civilisation, the said dividing belt would roughly correspond to the late modern period.

This transition period, which roughly begins in the mid-18th century and ends around the mid-20th century, was marked by a series of interrelated and – in retrospect – fateful events and developments which transformed the intelligent earthlings of the Western European subcontinent together with their world view and self-image thoroughly. The thoroughness of this transformation is demonstrated, among other things, by the fact that the new civilisational course set in the initial stage of the transition reached its highest point⁶ within less than 2 centuries. Furthermore, it is important to remember in this respect that "between 1850 and 1911 the whole world was virtually conquered by the European empires."⁷ Along with an entire concatenation of mighty concepts – such as the modern subject, individual, identity, the new German concept of culture, science, race, ethnicity, nation, etc. – the modern concept of language and, with it, the modern science of language were invented in the first half of this passage.

On the economic level, these inventions corresponded, above all others, to the maturity stage of the first European colonization wave and Euro-American slave trade, on the one hand, and the industrial revolution, on the other hand. In socio-political terms the said inventions triggered the emergence of the first modern nation-state in France⁸ or – for my part also – in England.⁹ "Although the concept of the nation-state can be traced to the 1648 Treaty of Westphalia, most scholars don't date its historic appearance until the nineteenth century (with France viewed as the first modern-nation state)" (Morris 2014: 68). "Hegel sees the French Revolution as the world-historical upheaval that expresses the exploding force of the will's arbitrariness and individuality but also gives birth to the first modern nation state in world history" (Lauritsen and Thorup 2011: 77).

The advent of the concept and phenomenon of the so-called 'national language' and with it the dawn of the since then ongoing process of monolingualisation, both, needless to add, the absolutely necessary concomitants of the rise of nation-state, were the most conspicuous portents of what I called the 'second phase'.

The first phase can be grasped in the immediate context of the *conditio humana*, of the crucial strands and components of the process of the emergence and development of the human species. The accessible portions or areas of the human text-continuum are im-

bued with traces of the undeniably ubiquitous insight that the human being is, in the last instance, nothing other than its linguistic capacity, that the process of genesis and development of that which calls itself human correlates with the genesis and development of the linguistic capacity; that the two processes mutually fertilise and generate each other, so that it can be said with certainty that they are the two sides of one and the same coin.¹⁰

Consequently, the phenomenon of language learning or acquisition has to be understood as the basis, the matrix, the indispensable condition of all that is human, within the framework of the space-time period which I call here the first phase. It is the primary matter, the original substance, from which the differentially human is made.¹¹

Not unlike today, language learning has had two main functions from the beginnings of written history, which can best be staked out on the time axes of the space-time-continuum. The first main function could be called the 'diachronic function', and the second, correspondingly, the 'synchronic function'.¹²

The institutionalisation of guided language learning for the purpose of meeting synchronic language-related needs is a phenomenon of modern capitalist societies. Organised, guided foreign language learning in today's sense first appeared towards the end of the 19th century and only began to take root in normal social life in the middle of the 20th century. This development marks the beginning of the space-time period which I labelled as the 'second phase' above. Grammar in the context of so-called 'foreign language learning' belongs to this second phase; it is therefore a phenomenon of capitalist modernity.

Before moving on to the main topic of the discussion, we can take a quick look at the prevailing understandings of and approaches to the relation between the two central concepts here: language and grammar. Embracing the risk of an over-simplification, I argue that it would be sufficiently justifiable to classify the more or less divergent understandings and views of language in the narrower sense – that is, in connection with grammar – into two types depending on what is set or assumed as the core unit of the overall structure. One is the sentence-centred type and the other is the discourse-centred type.

Chomsky – who "consider(s) a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements."¹³ – and the numerous theoretical models that are built on generativist premises belong to the former type. From the point of view of linguists of this type "a grammar may be viewed as a set of instructions which generates the sentences of a language."¹⁴

Ronald W. Langacker, who is regarded as the founder of cognitive grammar and one of the leading representatives of cognitive linguistics, could certainly be declared to be the ar-

chetype of the discourse-centered typ. Because according to him and other cognitivists the all-dominating and all determining core unit of a natural language is not sentence but discourse, the grammar of a language has to be oriented towards discourse.

There is no exaggeration in saying that all of grammar is shaped by discourse and only exists to make it possible. It is atypical for the structures examined in grammar—such as phrases, clauses, and even sentences—to be used in isolation. Normally they occur as integral parts of longer discourse sequences that provide the reason for their being assembled and assuming the form they do. (Langacker 2008: 3)

Basic remarks on grammar

Well, Grammar-land is a place every bit as real as Fairy-land, and much more important. The Fairy Queen is all very well, and a very great little queen in her way; but Judge Grammar! great, stern, old Judge Grammar, is far mightier than any Fairy Queen, for he rules over real kings and queens down here in Matter-of-fact-land.

– Nesbit, M. L., *Grammar-Land*

Those phenomena of the first phase which, at first sight, appear to find their exact counterparts in the modernity, the second phase, differentiate qualitatively from those of the modernity in almost every relevant respect. The institutionalised guided language study of the first phase served entirely different purposes. In the Mesopotamian schools, where only children of the aristocracy were taught, language instruction served, on the one hand, to teach literacy to the future members of ruling elite and the prospective state officials, and on the other hand, to preserve and cultivate the Sumerian language, which was no longer spoken as a lingua franca, and the later fellow sufferers of Sumerian such as Akkadian, etc which eventually had to face the same stroke of faith.

Pāṇini's¹⁵ grammar was not written to enable non-Sanskrit speakers inside and outside the Gandhara Empire to learn the language, but it was written for the sole purpose of preserving the sacred language and transmitting it without error.¹⁶ Moreover, as with the Mesopotamian schools, the study of Panini's grammar – and later other grammars based on Pāṇini's, such as Kātyāyana's *Vārttikakāra* in the 3rd century BC (300 BC¹⁷ or 250 BC¹⁸), Patanjali's *Mahābhāṣya* in the 2nd century BC (150 BC¹⁹) and Bhartṛhari's *Vākyapadīya* in the 5th century AD²⁰ – was the exclusive preserve of the upper classes. The situation was similar with the grammars of Ancient Greek and Latin.

Until the 17th century, grammar in the West meant nothing other than 'Latin gram-

mar'. It was not until the end of the 16th century or the beginning of the 17th century that people began to make friends with the idea that grammars of other languages could also be written. From this point on, the term 'grammar' gradually transformed into the generic term that is in common use today.

In summary, the phenomenon, and the term grammar that we currently use in connection with language learning and acquisition processes are phenomena of modern Western and Westernised societies, and they have, strictly speaking, nothing in common with the grammars of the first phase.

A didactical grammar emerges and stands in the historical context of the socio-economic transformations accompanying the rise of capitalist modernity – monetary economy, market economy, long-distance trade, industrialisation, etc. – and at the interface of, on the one hand, the increasing social mobility in Western Europe, the consequent rise in social demand for language services and the resulting new fields of gainful employment, and, on the other hand, the transforming or re-forming social power relations.

The first didactical grammar of English was published for speakers of Dutch under the title 'English Schoolmaster' in Amsterdam in 1646.²¹ Similar works for the speakers of other Western European languages followed with increasing frequency from the late 17th century onwards. The first English course books for Spanish and Portuguese speakers were published in 1662. Ten years thereafter the first English course books for French speakers appeared. Speakers of Danish and Swedish languages saw the first English textbook in 1678. And, finally, the first course book for German speakers came on the market in 1687.²²

Didactical grammar

"Our friends in Schoolroom-shire? By all means let them come," replied the Judge. "If we wish to have peace among the Parts-of-Speech it is most important that the people of Matter-of-fact-land should know how to use them well. And as the people of Matter-of-fact-land generally spend at least a part of their lives in Schoolroom-shire, we cannot do better than send our invitation there. [...]"

– Nesbit, M. L., Grammar-Land

Now that I believe to have clarified where a speech about didactical grammars is to be located on the diachronic axis, I would like to try to discuss its coordinates on the synchronic level. Practically, this endeavour could be put into words in the form of the follow-

ing question: How do didactical grammars differ from the other co-existing grammar types such as 'theoretical grammar', 'linguistic grammar', 'functional grammar' etc.?

Firstly, a didactical grammar should not be a compendium of the rules governing morphology and syntax, but a grammar in the broad sense.²³ Secondly, for self-evident existential reasons, a didactical grammar cannot afford to be a purely descriptive grammar. On the contrary, a grammar intended for use in foreign language teaching or learning must, willing or unwilling, be normative. It must be capable of making 'grammatical vs. ungrammatical' or 'correct vs. incorrect' judgements without ambiguity and serve as an efficient tool for learners to make such judgements themselves.

Didactical grammars have to be goal-oriented and pragmatic. In other words, "pedagogical grammar must embody the integration of grammatical rules and pragmatic principles" (Bouton 1987: 226). Consequently, they cannot afford the ambition, the luxury, of claiming theoretical purity and integrity. Didactical grammars are not subject to the purity requirement. They have to follow the principle of efficiency alone and may and should apply different theoretical approaches, theories, theory modules simultaneously, combine them with each other.

Of course, contradictions must be avoided. Without a doubt, a didactical grammar must be free of ambiguities and contradictions. But it can – or rather it must – certainly be eclectic. Eclecticism need not necessarily lead to ambiguities or contradictions.²⁴ Representatives of applied linguistics go further and emphasise the need for an eclectic approach in the context of language didactics:

I might add that, as well as taking ideas from other disciplines, applied linguists ideally ought to know more linguistics than "pure" linguists, because they have the responsibility of taking ideas from different linguistic theories, as required by the particular practical problems on which they are working. A discriminating eclecticism is desirable in applied linguistics, since no one linguistic theory is "the best" for all applications. (Catford 1998: 476-77)

Terminology

"Pray do not use such words, Dr. Verb," said Judge Grammar, "but tell us what you mean."

"Really, my lord," said Dr. Verb, "I did not mean any harm. Nominative is not such a very long word, that people should make such a fuss about it. I am sure the ladies and gentlemen of the jury will not be angry at my using it."

"That depends on how you explain it," said the Judge; "What does it mean?"

– Nesbit, M. L., Grammar-Land

The above mentioned phrase "Didactical grammars have to be goal-oriented and pragmatic" could indeed be paraphrased without much loss of content as follows: "The terminology in didactical grammars has to be goal-oriented and pragmatic".

Ideally, each term in a didactical grammar should contain a direct reference – as easily decipherable as possible by the respective learners – to at least one relevant component of the content or phenomenon it denotes, i.e., to the structure, functions, transformation processes, etc. of the indicated phenomenon. Ideally, the term should consist entirely in a pragmatic reference of this sort.

In a didactical grammar for use in foreign language teaching, all terms have to be such – again, ideally. But as we know, the term "ideal case" is one of those mysterious terms that point to their own non-existence. So, they are only there in order not to be there, or because they are not there. Consequently, the realistic goal would be to keep the number of magic words as low as possible.

For the sake of simplicity, I call those terms magic words that do not correspond to the type outlined above and favoured by me. Magic words are, in a mysterious way, fascinatingly charming words / formulas whose charm seems to be based primarily on their differential property that there is no relationship, no connection at all between them and the phenomena, categories, facts, things, functions, processes to be conjured up by them. The expression "abracadabra", for example, has nothing whatsoever to do with the content historically attributed to it: "May ague (feverish illness) vanish! May relief come!" just as the sign expressions *Konjunktive* or subjunctive have nothing at all to do with the intended sign content "irreal / hypothetical / hearsay" attributed to it.

In a didactical grammar, that is in a grammar that is employed in textbooks for foreign language teaching, such magic formulas, i.e., Latinisms, archaisms, anachronisms, scientificisms, are therefore out of place and must be used as little as possible if for some reason they cannot be avoided completely.

The author of a didactical grammar should resist the sweet temptation to produce science. For science is necessarily a re-semiosis,²⁵ it must, in order to be recognized as science, translate the quotidian into a jargon that is both inaccessible to the unauthorised or non-initiated and strictly monitored.

Suppose, for example, that the grammarian is required to use a term for the phenome-

non or the condition of difficult or reduced defecation and suppose that for this purpose the following options were available: "blockage, obstruction, constipation, obstipation, costiveness, confinement of the bowels, coprostasis, obstructio alvi". I would strongly advise the grammarian not to decide on "obstipation", "coprostasis", "costiveness" or "obstructio alvi". These are magic words and as such have no place in a didactical grammar.

An Example

*Once a grammarian stepped into a boat
And turned towards the oarsman just to gloat:
'Have you learned any grammar?' He said, 'No.'
'Then half your life's been wasted just to row!'
Although this made the oarsman burn with pain
From answering back he opted to refrain.
Wind steered the boat towards a whirlpool there—
The oarsman shouted to him, once aware,
'Have you learned how to swim and keep afloat?'
'I've never learned, skilled captain of my boat.'
'Grammarian, your whole life has been in vain:
We're sinking fast—what good now is your brain!'*

— Rumi, Jalal Al-Din, *the Masnavi*

Almost all didactical grammars of German deal with the module "adjective declension" using the following grammatical terms: attributive adjective, predicative adjective, grammatical congruence between noun and attributive adjective, genus of the noun, masculine / feminine / neuter, numerus of the noun, singular / plural, case of the noun, nominative / dative / accusative / genitive, Type I / the adjective without the article / strong, pronominal or determinative declension of the adjective, endless numeral adjectives, Type II / the adjective after the definite article / weak, nominal or attributive declension of the adjective, Type III / the adjective after the indefinite pronoun *kein* (no, not, any, none etc.) / mixed declension etc..

This magnificent complex of magic formulas is accompanied by pages of tables. If you consider that adjective declension ideally has to be learnt already at language level A1 (the first level of language learning process in the Common European Framework of Reference "CEFR"), at the very latest, however, at the level of A2, you can understand why this module embodies one of the eternal sources of error. A possible alternative treatment of the module could be as follows.

We assume, or ensure, that learners have already cognitively or intuitively grasped that the basic form or dictionary form of the noun in German has an article with it, that they must learn each noun together with its associated article, that the genus of the noun is the core of the German language determining case assignment process and thus all other modules and processes. It is repeatedly and systematically impressed on the learners that without a secure knowledge of the genus of the nouns they cannot do anything, but absolutely nothing, right in the German language.

In the next stage, we make sure that they understand cognitively or intuitively that these original articles or article words transform according to syntactic function of the respective nouns, and that these transformations are regular. The learners understand, with the help of countless example phrases and sentences, that, for example, the original forms – that are conventionally called 'nominative' but could and, if need arises, should be renamed matter-of-factly or even expediently – are used to mark the subject and in case of feminine and neuter nouns also the direct object of sentences and sentence-equivalent structures, and so forth. In order for them to develop an acute awareness of the importance and centrality of the case assignment mechanism, learners are emphatically and repeatedly told and practically shown that no meaningful sentence is possible without case signals, that case stands above and dominates all other grammatical modules. Case has absolute priority, case rules!

Their attention is drawn to the fact that the transformation takes place almost exclusively at the end of the article words. With the active participation of the learners, a minimalist table – the only table at all – of case signals is developed through gradual reduction (see table 1). Learners are subsequently taught two simple terms: original & deviation or even a single term in the affirmative and negative: original & non-original.

Table 1. Case Signals

(bold: original, bold und italic: non-original)					
		nominative	accusative	dative	genitive
sg.	maskulin	der / ein	den	dem	des __ s
	feminin	die / eine	die	der	der
	neutral	das / ein	das	dem	des __ s
pl.		die / ø	die	den __ n	der

The First Reduction Stage exposes the irreducible case signals. The invariable segments are erased. The i/e or a/e blur is deliberately left untouched (see table 2).

Table 2. *Case Signals after the first reduction*

(bold: original, bold und italic: non-original)					
		nominative	accusative	dative	genitive
sg.	m.	-r	<i>-n</i>	<i>-m</i>	<i>-s -s</i>
	f.	-e	-e	<i>-r</i>	<i>-r</i>
	n.	-s	-s	<i>-m</i>	<i>-s -s</i>
pl.		-e	-e	<i>-n -n</i>	<i>-r</i>

In the second reduction stage, the original signals are eliminated (see table 3). Since the learners must already have been made aware that the originals, i.e., the secure knowledge of the genus of the respective noun, must be acquired a priori and before anything else. It must already have been ensured that the learners have actively understood that the knowledge of the original signals (-*r* for masculine nouns, -*e* for feminine nouns, -*s* for neutral nouns and -*e* for plural nouns) has no business in the table developed here, or indeed in any table at all.

Table 3. *Case Signals after the second (and final) reduction*

(bold und italic: non-original)					
		nominative	accusative	dative	genitive
sg.	m.		<i>-n</i>	<i>-m</i>	<i>-s -s</i>
	f.			<i>-r</i>	<i>-r</i>
	n.			<i>-m</i>	<i>-s -s</i>
pl.				<i>-n -n</i>	<i>-r</i>

Provided that the noun is learnt with the associated genus – or in plainer words, with the corresponding article – i.e., the active knowledge of the originals is given in advance, the learners only need to acquire the deviating case signals, that is, the non-originals.

On the basis of this preparation, one can treat or teach adjective declension in a didactical grammar using three terms – case signal (or case marker), original, non-original – and three simple rules without tables. The threshold question is: Is the case signal visibly present or not?

A. If the case marker is visibly present:

A1. In the case of an original, the adjective gets an **-e** appended to it.

A2. In the case of a non-original, the ending is **-n**.

If the adjective ends in a consonant, an **-e-** is inserted before the declension suffix **-n**. (This -e- is – at least for the purposes of the present study – nothing more or less than an epenthetic, i.e. euphonic²⁶ element.)

B. If the case marker is not visibly present:

The adjective gets the respective **case marker** – which is either one of the originals (-*r* for masculine nouns, -*e* for feminine nouns, -*s* for neutral nouns and -*e* for plural nouns) or a non-original from the reduced table developed above – appended to it. If the adjective ends in a consonant, an **-e-** is inserted before a consonantal case marker (see footnote 26).

C. If the noun is plural definite:

The adjective receives the suffix **-n**. If the adjective ends in a consonant, an **-e-** is inserted before the declension suffix **-n** (see footnote 26).

If it is deemed necessary or expedient, this simple 3-rule model can also be visualized for the sake of further clarity (see table 4).

Table 4. *ABC of Adjective Declension*

A		B	C
(case signal is visibly present)		(case signal is not visibly present)	(plural definite)
A1 (original)	A2 (non-original)		
-e	-(e)n	case signal	-(e)n

Closing remarks

The model developed above could – and should – be put through a case-based further refinement and streamlining procedure before the practical use. The specific composition of the target group, the number of participants, the average participant profile, etc. and other pedagogically relevant parameters of the respective teaching / learning event would act as binding reference points and orientation variables in such further processing.

A possible practical or – in more down-to-earth words – end-user-oriented modification would be, as already mentioned in the main part, the renaming of the case types. Depending on the composition and the ingredients of the existing language repertoire of the target group, the case types can and should be named more comprehensibly. In any case, it must be ensured that the grammatical terms do not represent an additional comprehension hurdle for the learners. Furthermore, it must be endeavoured to ensure that the choice and use of the technical terms serve to promote and facilitate the learning process.

Notes

¹ Or 'the genealogical-historical component' of linguistics divided into three organic parts by Georg von der Gabelentz: „Halten wir uns an die drei Bedeutungen des Wortes Sprache, S. 3-4, so dürfen wir nunmehr sagen: Die einzelsprachliche Forschung erklärt die Rede aus dem Wesen der Einzelsprache. Die genealogisch historische Forschung erklärt die Einzelsprache, wie sie sich nach Raum und Zeit gespalten und gewandelt hat. Die allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft endlich will die vielen Sprachen als ebenso-viele Erscheinungsformen des einen gemein menschlichen Vermögens, und somit dieses Vermögen selbst erklären. (Von der Gabelentz 1901: 37)

² "Im Übrigen ist auch schon die Unterscheidung zwischen deskriptiver und historischer Sprachwissenschaft bei Gabelentz sehr viel kohärenter als bei de Saussure. Bei Gabelentz ergibt sie sich, wie schon gesehen, aus der grundlegenden Unterscheidung von Rede und Einzelsprache, so daß die deskriptive Sprachwissenschaft mit Notwendigkeit synchronisch und "monosystematisch" zugleich sein muß. Für Gabelentz handelt es sich dabei um eine Verschiedenheit der Standpunkte, d. h. um eine methodische Unterscheidung, die nur die Sprachwissenschaft, nicht aber die Sprache selbst betrifft." (Eugenio Coseriu in Ezawa et al. 2014: 28)

³ In this context, it should be pointed out that there are contemporary theoretical approaches, especially in the German-speaking world, in which a clear systemic distinction is made between pedagogical and didactic grammar. Cf. the following passage by Dieter Mindt:

The didactic grammar is based on the analysis of the corpus according to questions which have their origin in the needs of foreign language teaching. The didactic grammar is designed to give a descriptive account of the morphological, syntactic, semantic and, where necessary, pragmatic features of the corpus along with distributional statements about these features.

The pedagogic grammar is prescriptive. It is based on the didactic grammar and selects those features from the didactic grammar which are central, recurring and invariant. In addition, the selection is determined by the objectives of specific courses, the age of the learners, their development, their cognitive capabilities and their affective dispositions as well as their sociocultural backgrounds. (Wichmann et al. 2013: 42)

⁴ Cf. Gülbeyaz 2013: 2922.

⁵ Cf. *ibid.*

⁶ "diese quantitative Steigerung oder – wie sie von Menschen genannt wird – die Zivilisation fand ihren Höhepunkt in Auschwitz." (Gülbeyaz 2015: 28)

⁷ Varela 2021: 1. See also Levene 2005 and Mazower 2000: *passim*.

⁸ "Although the concept of the nation-state can be traced to the 1648 Treaty of Westphalia, most scholars don't date its historic appearance until the nineteenth century (with France viewed as the first modern-nation state)" (Morris 2014: 68). "Hegel sees the French Revolution as the world-historical upheaval that expresses the exploding force of the will's arbitrariness and individuality but also gives birth to the first modern nation state in world history" (Lauritsen and Thorup 2011: 77).

⁹ "To speak of colonialism emanating from the British domestic scene may superficially seem like something of a contradiction in terms, particularly when one considers that the common usage of the term 'British' stems from an attempt to forge a hybrid but inclusive national unity, in the wake of the 1707 Act of Union between England and Scotland. This union also comprised the Celtic Welsh (and Cornish) – just about – as well as the English and Lowland Scots, and arguably laid the foundations for the first modern nation-state" (Levene 2005: 48)

¹⁰ Cf. Gülbeyaz 2013: 2922-2923.

¹¹ Cf. Gülbeyaz 2013: 2923.

¹² Cf. Gülbeyaz 2014: 2892.

¹³ Chomsky 2002: 13.

¹⁴ Cf. Harris 1970: 140.

¹⁵ "It could be more plausible to suppose, therefore, that Panini lived and wrote before the time of the Greek invasion – sometime between the sixth and fifth centuries of the pre-Christian era." (Sarmadee, Shahab cited in Beck 2012: 70)

¹⁶ For a rather extreme viewpoint concerning the aim and utility of grammar see "The Critics of Sanskrit Grammar" (Chatteerji, Kshitish Chandra 1934) in Staal 1972: 294 ff.

¹⁷ Cf. Staal 1972: xxiv

¹⁸ Cf. Falk 1993: 267.

¹⁹ Cf. Staal 1972: xxiv and Herzberger 1986: 9.

²⁰ Cf. Houben 1996: 11 and Staal 1972: xxiv.

²¹ Cf. Howatt 1997: 61.

²² Cf. Howatt 1997: 63.

²³ Cf. Helbig et al. 2001: 24.

²⁴ Cf. Helbig et al. 2001: 189

²⁵ For the definition of the term "re-semiosis" see: Gülbeyaz 2016: 63 ff.

²⁶ Needless to say, the use of such terms as 'epenthesis' or 'euphony' in teaching practice will depend on whether or not the term presents a barrier to understanding. In case of the slightest doubt, it should be either replaced by more understandable ones or paraphrased in an appropriate manner.

Cited Works

- Ammon, Ulrich & Dittmar, Norbert et al. *Sociolinguistics/Soziolinguistik, An International Handbook of the Science of Language and Society/Ein internationales Handbuch zur Wissenschaft von Sprache und Gesellschaft*. 2., vollständig neu bearbeitete und erweiterte Auflage. Volume 3 / 3. Teilband. Walter de Gruyter, 2006.
- Beck, Guy L. *Sonic Liturgy: Ritual and Music in Hindu Tradition*. The University of South Carolina Press, 2012.
- Bouton, Lawrence F. "Pedagogical Grammar: on the Interface of Syntax and Pragmatics." *World Englishes*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 217-226, 1987.
- Catford, J. C. "Language Learning and Applied Linguistics: A Historical Sketch." *Language Learning* 48: 4, December 1998, pp. 465-496
- Chomsky, Noam. *Syntactic Structures*. Second Edition with an Introduction by David W. Lightfoot. Mouton de Gruyter, 2002.
- Derrida, Jacques. *Monolingualism of the Other; or, The Prosthesis of Origin*. Translated by Patrick Menah. Stanford University Press, 1996.
- Ezawa, Kennosuke & Hundsnurscher, Franz & von Vogel, Annemete (Eds.) *Beiträge zur Gabelentz-Forschung*. Narr Francke Attempto Verlag, 2014.
- Falk, Harry. *Schrift im alten Indien: Ein Forschungsbericht mit Anmerkungen*. Gunter Narr Verlag, 1993.
- Gülbeyaz, Abdurrahman (Ed.). *Sprache und Conditio Humana: Sprachhandlung und Mehrsprachigkeit in Konfliktgesellschaften / 言語と人間性 – コンフリクト社会に見る言語行為と多言語*. Bilingual Edition (German and Japanese). MATSUMOTOKOBO, 2015.
- Gülbeyaz, Abdurrahman. "A Reconceptualization of Language Acquisition and Learning with Practice-Related Considerations". *Iceri 2013 Proceedings CD*. Editor: International Association of Technology, Education and Development (IATED); Seville 2013.
- Gülbeyaz, Abdurrahman. "Guided Language Learning and the Myth of 'Native Speaker'". *Inted 2014 Proceedings CD*. Editor: International Association of Technology, Education and Development (IATED); Valencia 2014.
- Gülbeyaz, Abdurrahman. *Meaning in Language and Music: Sign and Slaughter*. Matsumotokobo, 2016.
- Harris, Zellig S. *Papers in Structural and Transformational Linguistics*. Springer Science+Business Me-

- dia, 1970.
- Helbig, Gerhard & Götze, Lutz & Henrici, Gert. *Deutsch als Fremdsprache, Ein internationales Handbuch. 1. Halbband.* Walter de Gruyter, 2001
- Herzberger, Radhika. *Bhartrhari and the Buddhists: An Essay in the Development of Fifth and Sixth Century Indian Thought.* D. Reidel Publishing Company A Member of The Kluwer Academic Publishers Group, 1986.
- Houben, Jan E.M. (Ed.). *Ideology and Status of Sanskrit: Contributions to The History of the Sanskrit Language.* E. J . Brill, 1996.
- Howatt, A. P. R. *A History of English Language Teaching.* Oxford University Press, 1997.
- Langacker, Ronald W. *Cognitive Grammar: A Basic Introduction.* Oxford University Press: Oxford New York 2008
- Lauritsen, Holger Ross & Thorup, Mikkel (Eds.). *Rousseau and Revolution.* Continuum International Publishing Group, 2011.
- Levene, Mark. *Genocide in the Age of the Nation–State Volume II: The Rise of the West and the Coming of Genocide.* I.B. Tauris & Co. Ltd, 2005.
- Mazower, Mark. *Dark Continent: Europe’s Twentieth Century.* Vintage, 2000.
- Morris, Kenneth E. *On American Freedom: A Critique of the Country’s Core Value with a Reform Agenda.* Palgrave Macmillan, 2014.
- Nesbit, M. L.: *Grammar-Land.* Houlston and Sons, 1877.
- Rumi, Jalal Al-Din. *The Masnavi.* Book One. Translated with an Introduction and Notes by Jawid Mojaddedi. Oxford University Press Inc, 2004.
- Staal, Johan Frederik (Ed.). *A Reader on the Sanskrit Grammarians.* The MIT Press, 1972.
- Varela, Raquel. *A People’s History of Europe: From World War I to Today.* Foreword by Kevin Murphy, Translated by António Simões do Paço. Pluto Press, 2021.
- Von Der Gabelentz, Georg. *Die Sprachwissenschaft, ihre Aufgaben, Methoden und Bisherigen Ergebnisse.* Chr. Herm. Tauchnitz, 1901.
- Wichmann, A., Fligelstone, S., McEnery, T., & Knowles, G. (Eds.). *Teaching and Language Corpora.* Routledge, 2013.