GLOSSARY

cohesion and coherence

Cohesion and coherence are two important elements of discourse competence (see below). Cohesion in a discourse sequence is created by many words or phrases (see discourse markers below) that link one part of the text to another. Coherence is more concerned with the large structure of texts: a single theme or topic, the sequencing or ordering of the sentences, the organizational pattern (temporal sequencing, cause and effect, condition and result, etc.). Texts that are cohesive and coherent are easier to interpret.

communicative competence

The model of communicative competence adopted in this document is roughly based on the models of Canale and Swain, and Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, but it includes insights from a number of other researchers including Byram, Bachman, and Cohen. It comprises the following components:

- **Grammatical competence** is defined by Savignon as "mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, *morphological*, [and] *syntactic* . . . features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences" (37). These elements of communicative competence are developed in the Language Competence component under the cluster heading "attend to form."

- **Discourse competence** "is the ability to interpret a series of concepts in order to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context" (Savignon 40). It involves understanding and being able to use the words and grammatical functions which are used to make connections between elements of a text so that it forms a meaningful whole. Some examples are noun-pronoun references, relative pronouns, conjunctions such as but, and, so, as well as many words and phrases such as *therefore, afterwards, on the other hand, besides,* and *for example*. Discourse competence is developed in the Language Competence component under the cluster heading "apply knowledge of how discourse is organized, structured, and sequenced."

- **Sociolinguistic or socio-cultural competence** has to do with the appropriateness of language in relation to the context or situation. It includes elements such as sensitivity to differences in register or variations in language, non-verbal communication, and idiomatic expressions. Socio-cultural competence is developed in the Language Competence component under the cluster heading "apply knowledge of the socio-cultural context."

- **Functional or actional competence** covers the purposes of language users, the contexts in which they can operate, and the functions that they can carry out using the language. This component is defined in the Applications component of the *Curriculum Framework*.

- **Intercultural competence** is a combination of knowledge, skills, and attitudes which enable individuals to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries. These include the skills of finding information about a culture, interpreting it in order to understand the beliefs, meanings, and behaviours of members of that culture, relating one's own culture to the target culture, and interacting with members of that culture. In the process of developing these skills, language learners will acquire knowledge of the other culture, a heightened awareness of their own, as well as knowledge of the processes of interaction between two cultures. A pre-condition for successful intercultural interaction is an attitude of openness and curiosity as well as a willingness to look at the world from the point of view of the other culture. Intercultural competence is developed in the Global Citizenship component of the *Curriculum Framework*.

- **Strategic competence** includes any strategies used to enhance communication, language learning, and general learning. See language learning strategies and language use strategies below. Strategic competence is developed in the Strategies component of the *Curriculum Framework*.

culture
> The members of the culture task force of the National Core French Study (LeBlanc) have defined culture as "the general context and way of life. It is the behaviors and beliefs of a community of people whose history, geography, institutions, and commonalities are distinct and distinguish them to a greater or lesser degree from all other groups" (44).
>
> **Historical and contemporary elements of the culture** may include historical and contemporary events, significant individuals, emblems, or markers of identity, public institutions, social distinctions, conventions of behaviour, values, beliefs, perceptions, and perspectives.

Deaf culture
> Deaf culture has its own unique cultural elements (e.g., a common heritage; common set of objectives, beliefs, values, heritage, and a unique language known as ASL; distinctive behavioural characteristics resulting from a need to have a clear field of vision; a sense of pride in being Deaf; a sense of humour that is characteristically Deaf; and a shared sense of what is important to Deaf/hard of hearing people collectively). Note that whereas Deaf culture exists worldwide, signed languages vary considerably just as spoken languages do. In Canada, the languages of the Deaf/hard of hearing are ASL and *langue des signes québécoise* (LSQ).

discourse
Discourse is connected text that extends beyond a single sentence or phrase.

discourse competence
See Communicative Competence.

functional competence
See Communicative Competence.

grammatical competence
See Communicative Competence.

intercultural competence
See Communicative Competence.

kinesthetic ability
This is the ability to use the body to express ideas and feelings, and the ability to use the hands to produce or transform things.

language learning strategies
These are actions taken by learners to enhance their learning.

Cognitive strategies operate directly on the language and include such things as using different techniques for remembering new words and phrases, deducing grammar rules or applying rules already learned, guessing at the meaning of unknown words, or using different ways to organize new information and link it to previously learned language.

Metacognitive strategies are higher order skills that students use to manage their own learning. They include planning for, monitoring, and evaluating the success of language learning.

Social strategies are actions learners take in order to interact with other learners or with speakers of the target language.

Affective strategies are methods learners use to regulate their emotions, motivation, and attitudes to make them more conducive to learning.

language use strategies
These are actions taken to enhance communication. In early conceptual models of communicative competence (Canale and Swain), strategic competence was one component. It was defined as the strategies used "to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (30). Subsequent models have broadened the definition to include non-compensatory strategies. The term *language use strategies* is being used, rather than *communication strategies* to reflect this broader range. The strategies in the *Common Curriculum Framework* and this curriculum are organized according to the three communicative modes: interaction, interpretation, and production.

Language use strategies can be seen as a subcategory of language learning strategies since any action taken to enhance communication or to avoid communication breakdown can be seen as increasing the chances that language learning will take place. Language use strategies can, however, be used with no intention of trying to learn the language better.

langue des signes québécoise

The Canadian Hearing Society says *la langue des signes québécoise* (LSQ) or Quebec Sign Language "is a visual language with its own grammar and syntax, distinct from French [and ASL], used by Deaf people primarily in Quebec and other French Canadian communities [except in Manitoba, where ASL is used]. Meaning is conveyed through signs that are comprised of specific movements and shapes of the hand and arms, eyes, face, head and body posture. In Canada, there are two main sign languages: LSQ and American Sign Language (ASL)."

linguistic competence

See Communicative Competence.

non-manual features

ASL has ways of showing relationships between symbols through non-manual signals. Non-manual signals, and not signs, often determine the sentence type in ASL. They are important in all areas of ASL structure: morphology, syntax, semantics, and discourse.

The facial expressions (signals) include the following: raising or frowning eyebrows, tilting head, nodding or shaking head, protruding or pouting lips, positioning tongue, gazing or shifting eyes, and other signals, such as shifting shoulders. The non-manual signals are incorporated with signs to produce different aspects of ASL grammar: topicalization, rhetorical questions, variety in sentence type, temporal inflection, auxiliary verbs, and different types of questions.

For example, the two signs HOME YOU can occur in four different sentence types. The signs themselves are the same; the non-manuals are different.

Declarative: You are home.

Yes-No Question: Are you going home?

Negation: You weren't home.

Command: Go home.

non-verbal communication

A large part of what we communicate is done in conjunction with or without the use of signs. Meaning can also be communicated by gestures, eye contact, facial expressions, body language, physical distance, touching, as well as vibrations, sounds, noises, and silence.

patterns of social interaction

Social interaction often follows fairly predictable patterns. Very simple patterns are made up of two or three exchanges (e.g., greeting-response). More complex patterns may have some compulsory elements and some optional elements that depend on the situation (e.g., express an apology, accept responsibility, offer an explanation, offer repair, promise non-recurrence). Lengthy interactions and transactions can be carried out by combining simpler ones to suit the situation.

proficiency

The *Canadian Language Benchmarks: English as a Second Language for Adults, English as a Second Language for Literacy Learners* (Citizenship and Immigration Canada) defines proficiency as "communicative competence, demonstrated through the ability to communicate and negotiate meaning and through the ability to interact meaningfully with other speakers, discourse, texts and the environment in a variety of situations" (10).

register

Register is the level of formality of communication based on the social context in which the language is used. Casual conversation uses an informal register while situations like a public presentation demand a more formal register. The language used in a personal communication to a good friend or a close family member differs considerably from a formal interaction in the business world.

social conventions

These are the customs that accompany language in social situations. They include actions such as bowing, shaking hands, or kissing; topics that are taboo in conversation; conventions for turn taking and interrupting or refusing politely; appropriate amounts of silence before responding.

socio-cultural competence

See Communicative Competence.

sociolinguistic competence

See Communicative Competence.

spatial ability

This is the ability to perceive the visual-spatial world accurately and to work with these perceptions. It includes sensitivity to colour, line, shape, form, space, and the relationships among them.

strategic competence

See Language Use Strategies.

syntax

Syntax is the part of grammar that deals with language at the sentence level, for example, word order, types of sentences, and the way sentences are constructed.

task-based language learning

In task-based language learning, classes are structured around meaningful tasks rather than around elements of the language itself, such as grammar structures, vocabulary themes, or language functions.

text

In ASL, text is any connected piece of signed communication that ASL users/learners interpret, produce, or exchange. There can thus be no act of communication through language without a text.

text forms

Different kinds of texts have typical structures. A story, for example, has a different form or structure than a report or a poem. An interview is different from an announcement or a presentation. A sample list of text forms can be found in Appendix C.