

APPENDIX A: GLOSSARY

Authentic Situations: These refer to real-life situations one would encounter in a German-speaking community (e.g., in a bakery, store, restaurant, etc.).

Cohesion and Coherence: Cohesion and coherence are two important elements of discourse. Cohesion in a discourse sequence is created by many words or phrases 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.

Content-Based Language Learning: In content-based language learning, students learn a second language while they are learning content from another subject area. This is the approach taken in bilingual programming.

Cornell Notes: “Cornell notes” is a form of note-taking that helps students organize their notes regarding a presentation or reading task, identify key words and concepts, and find important information quickly.

The Cornell note-taking technique simply divides a page into the following:

- Left column (approximately 1/3 of the page): main ideas
- Right column (approximately 2/3 of the page): details
- Bottom (approximately 1/5 of the bottom of the page): summary

This strategy may be used to:

- Outline an article, an entire text, or a chapter in a text.
- Take notes on a lecture or presentation.

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.”

Historical and contemporary elements of the culture may include historical and contemporary events, significant individuals, emblems or markers of national identity (myths, cultural products, significant sites, events in the collective memory), public institutions, geographical space (regions, landmarks, borders, frontiers), social distinctions, conventions of behaviour, beliefs, perceptions, and perspectives.

Discourse: Discourse is connected speech or writing that extends beyond a single sentence or utterance.

Discourse Features : The term “discourse” refers to the organization of language in units greater than the sentence. Although this is a complex topic involving many aspects of language, teachers need be concerned for the most part about only three kinds of discourse features: rhetorical organization, discourse markers, and theme-rheme structure.

Rhetorical organization refers to the way stretches of text larger than the sentence are constructed. The classic example is paragraph structure, often recommended to be the following: topic sentence → supporting details → concluding sentence. Other examples are textbook organization, the structure of friendly letters and business letters, the format of science experiment reports, and the organization of essays (descriptive, expository, etc.) and narratives.

Discourse markers are used to achieve textual cohesion. Terms like *nevertheless, in spite of, consequently, therefore, in contrast to, in comparison to, and on the other hand* are infrequent in every day communication, so students need to be taught their meanings and the proper grammatical usage.

Theme-rheme structure refers to the organization of information with sentences. From the point of view of information organization, most sentences consist of two distinct parts:

- a) the topic, or what is being talked about. Some linguists call this the theme of the sentence. It is followed by –
- b) the comment, or what is said about the theme. This is often called the rheme of the sentence.

For example, consider the following discourse. Mary: “Where’s your brother?” Bill: “He’s in the shower.” In Bill’s response, “he” is the theme (what is being talked about), while “(s) in the shower” is the rheme (what is said about “he”). Notice that in normal discourse the theme typically consists of “given” information, whereas the rheme is usually “new” information. In students’ answers to written questions like “What is a meteorologist?”, the response would be “A meteorologist (theme – given information – comes first) is a person who studies the weather (rheme – new information – follows theme).”

Diverse, Diversity: Within most cultures, there are groups of people who have cultural beliefs, values, and practices that are different from the majority or mainstream culture. These differences may be based on religion, national or ethnic origin, social class, race, or colour.

Exploratory Language: Exploratory language is language used to explore the thoughts, ideas, opinions, etc. of oneself or others. Examples of exploratory language include the following: What if...? How? I wonder...

I-Charts (Inquiry/Information Charts): *What Is An I-Chart?* An I-Chart is a note-taking strategy that guides students in selecting and organizing relevant information from reference material. I-Charts offer a planned framework for examining critical questions by integrating what is already known or thought about the topic with additional information found in several sources. The strengths of an I-Chart include the following:

- Organizes information from several sources easily
- Organizes subtopics based on student questions which were developed from their own prior knowledge
- Provides consistent organization
- Provides ongoing process of critical evaluation by the student

How Does It Work? In creating an I-Chart for a given topic, students will have several questions to explore. These are found at the top of each individual column of the chart. The rows are for recording, in summary form, the information students think they already know and the key ideas pulled from several different sources of information. The final row gives them a chance to pull together the ideas into a general summary. At this point students will also try to resolve competing ideas found in the separate sources and develop new questions to explore based on any conflicting or incomplete information.

How Does It Look, Generally? The I-Chart that appears below is a sample. Teachers and students can create for themselves I-Charts to help analyze several sources of information. Teachers and students should feel free to modify the charts to meet their needs.

	Question Area 1	Question Area 2	Question Area 3	Question Area 4
What I think/				
Source #1/				
Source #2/				
Source #3/				
Summary/				

Idiomatic Expression: An idiom or an idiomatic expression is a word or group of words that is used in a particular language that has a commonly accepted meaning that is not the literal meaning and does not follow regular grammatical usage. Some examples are *happy as a lark* (very happy), and *I'm fed up* (I've had enough, I'm disgusted, bored).

Independent Situations: This term is used to describe learning situations where students use specific linguistic elements in a variety of contexts with limited teacher guidance. Students in such situations will have consistent control of the linguistic elements and be able to apply them in a variety of contexts with limited teacher guidance. Fluency and confidence characterize student language.

K-W-L: K-W-L is the creation of is a 3-column chart that helps capture the Before, During, and After components of a particular learning event or task. It helps students to activate their prior knowledge, plan for or think about what knowledge they want to acquire, and reflect on what they have learned as a result of their engagement in the learning activity or task.

■ **K stands for Know**

What do I already know about this topic?

■ **W stands for Will or Want**

What do I think I will learn about this topic?

What do I want to know about this topic?

■ **L stands for Learned**

What have I learned about this topic?

How Does It Work?

1. On the chalkboard, on an overhead, on a handout, or on students' individual clean sheets, three columns should be drawn.
2. Label Column 1 K, Column 2 W, Column 3 L.
3. Before the task or learning activity, students fill in the Know column with everything they already know about the topic. This helps generate their background knowledge.
4. Then have students predict what they might learn about the topic, which might follow a quick glance at the resources or materials which they may be using for the activity/task. This helps set their purpose for reading and focuses their attention on key ideas.
5. Alternatively, you might have students put in the middle column what they want to learn about the topic.
6. After reading, students should fill in their new knowledge gained from the learning activity/task. They can also clear up misperceptions about the topic which might have shown up in the Know column before they actually engaged in the learning activity/task. This is the stage of metacognition: did they get it or not?

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 German.

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. The strategies in the curriculum are organized according to the three communicative modes: interaction, interpretation, and production.

Language use strategies can be seen as a sub-category 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.

Lexicon: Lexicon covers all kinds of words, both content words (e.g., *dog, run, happy*) and function words (e.g., *him, from, but*). It also includes lexical phrases, which are groups of words that function like a single word (e.g., *all of a sudden*).

Mechanical Features: These are the conventions used to make written text easier to read. They include such things as capitalization, punctuation, paragraphs, titles, or headings.

Modelled Situations: The term is used in the specific learning outcomes to describe distinct situations in which students may be supported to produce speech or use language. Modelled situations include the provision of a language model that can be directly imitated (such as “Hello!” “Hello!”) or situations in which a small part of the modelled phrase can be changed or manipulated following a pattern (such as “I like pizza.” “I like spaghetti.”).

Morphology: Morphology is the part of grammar that deals with changes in words that mark their function in the sentence (e.g., changes in verb endings or adjectives to mark agreement).

Non-verbal Communication: A large part of what we communicate is done without the use of words. Meaning can be communicated by gestures, eye contact, facial expressions, body language, physical distance, touching, as well as by sounds, noises, and silence.

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

Social Conventions: These are the customs that accompany speech 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; and appropriate amounts of silence before responding.

Structured Situations: This term is used in the specific learning outcomes to describe how teachers and other helpful conversational partners use methods tailored to help second language learners understand and produce language.

Oral language is more easily understood if speech is slow and clearly articulated with pauses to assimilate meaning and if it is accompanied by gestures, facial expressions, body language, or visuals, which help to express the meaning. Language learners will have less difficulty understanding a familiar speaker (one whose voice, accent, and speech habits are well-known to them) speaking about a topic that they know well and are interested in.

Written language is more easily understood if, for example, there are illustrations to support the text, titles and sub-titles to guide the reader, and the topic is a familiar one.

Both oral and written production can be structured by providing students with language models (e.g., sample sentence structures, text forms, patterns of social interaction) and a language-rich environment (e.g., illustrated thematic vocabulary lists on classroom walls, labels on classroom objects, correction guides, illustrated dictionaries). As students become more proficient, these supports can gradually be removed until the language they are exposed to closely resembles language in authentic situations.

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: Any connected piece of language, whether spoken utterance or a piece of writing, which language 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 letter, for example, has a different form or structure than a report or a poem. An oral interview is different from an announcement or an oral presentation. A sample list of text forms can be found in Appendix B.

Unstructured Situation: A situation in which vocabulary, grammatical structures, speed of delivery, and the like are not tailored for the second language learner; rather, the oral or written text is geared toward the German-speaking culture, as would be found on authentic radio or television and in authentic print materials.

Variations in Language: Within any language, there are variations in the way people speak and write. Language can vary with the age, gender, social class, level of education, and occupation of the speaker. It can also vary from region to region within a country. Variations include differences in accent, vocabulary, and sometimes syntax as well as different social conventions.

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