Chapter 6

Assessing and Teaching Oral Language

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Learning Outcomes

6.1 Describe the components of language, including the main areas of language delays, as well as how they manifest in the development of content, form, and use of language.

6.2 Identify guidelines for teaching oral language, content, form, and use.

6.3 Detail the strategies and considerations on which teachers should focus when teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners.

6.4 Explain practices teachers can use for working with families to develop students' language skills.

6.5 List the procedures special education teachers might implement with language specialists to implement multi-tiered systems of supports (MTSS) or response to intervention (RTI).

Malik is a second grader who is good at sports—especially soccer. He seems like such a capable young boy until he talks. Whether he is having a conversation or trying to read, he has difficulty thinking of the right words. Yesterday he was trying to describe the work that he and his dad had done on his go-cart. He could not think of the words *screwdriver, hammer, sandpaper, wheels, axle, steering wheel*, and *engine*. Sometimes he tried to describe what he wanted to say; for example, when he could not think of *screwdriver*, he said, "It's the thing you

use to put in things that are kind of like nails." Sometimes he can only think of a word that is similar to the word he is trying to say; for example, he said, "I was using the hitter to hit some nails." Malik also has trouble remembering words when he reads. He does not remember simple sight words and consequently has to resort to attempting to sound out the words. Often, the words he cannot remember are not phonetic (e.g., *come, are, was, very*), so his strategy is only somewhat useful. Malik is in a second-grade classroom, but he receives speech and language therapy for his language problems, and in addition to his core reading program, he receives tutoring support for his reading difficulties.

Monica is in fifth grade. If you just listen to her, you would not necessarily recognize that she has a language problem. Her vocabulary is adequate for a student her age, and she uses fairly sophisticated sentences. But Monica's language frequently seems to get her in trouble. Monica is growing up in a tough neighborhood, but she goes to school in a middle-class neighborhood across town. She has difficulty switching her language style to match the new context of the school. She continues to use the language she uses with friends, resulting in the interpretation that she is both arrogant and disrespectful to teachers. Monica also has other problems using language effectively. She has difficulty determining when a listener is not understanding what she is trying to explain. Instead of restating her point in another way, she continues with her description or explanation. When the listener asks her to clarify a point, Monica implies that the listener is stupid. She also does not take turns easily during conversations. She either monopolizes the conversation or expects the other person to do all the talking while she gives little feedback to indicate that she is listening. Consequently, Monica is perceived as a student with behavior problems, although no indication of any serious emotional problems is present. She sees her counselor once a week. However, this is really not enough. She has difficulty with reading and writing, and this influences her learning in social studies and science as well. In the past several months, the speech-language pathologist has been consulting with the counselor and Monica's teachers. They are working with Monica to help her use language more effectively and to vary it across contexts. Perhaps with all professionals working together, they will be able to eliminate some of the learning and behavior problems Monica is currently experiencing.

Antoine is a third grader with language delays. He started talking at age 3½, and his language now seems more like that of a first grader. He began receiving speech and language therapy at age 4. Although he is currently in a class for students with mild-to-moderate disabilities, he receives speech and language therapy for 30 minutes, 4 days a week. Antoine is delayed in all aspects of language. His vocabulary is limited, he uses simple sentence patterns, and he uses language primarily to obtain information and attention and to inform others of his needs. He rarely initiates a conversation, but he will carry on a conversation if the other person takes the lead. Mrs. Borman, his teacher, works closely with the speech-language pathologist to help ensure that Antoine is receiving the structured language programming he needs throughout the school day. One of Mrs. Borman's roles in this programming is to provide Antoine with many opportunities to practice and receive feedback on the skills he is learning in speech-language therapy.

As teachers, we will undoubtedly work with students like Malik, Monica, and Antoine. To assist these students in developing effective language and communication skills, we need to understand the *content of language instruction* and *strategies for teaching language*.

Components of Language

We now know more about the importance of language development in facilitating access to learning than ever before. Did you know that language development is an excellent predictor of reading outcomes, particularly as they relate to reading comprehension? Furthermore, students who have underdeveloped language have difficulties in all areas of learning, including math, social studies, and science. Language is the foundation for learning, and ensuring that students have at minimum an adequate language foundation is essential. One of the ways teachers can promote students' language development is to improve their own knowledge about language and how to integrate principles and practice throughout the school day. The Common Core State Standards provide guidance about language standards that are necessary (**www.corestandards.org**). Figure 6.1 describes some common core oral language standards.

Within the Common Core State Standards is an overarching goal that represents the standards for language development from second through twelfth grade. That primary goal is to use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening. Even if you are a teacher in one of the many states that does not adhere to the Common Core State Standards, many of the components related to developing language are likely embedded in your state standards as well.

As an educator, facilitating language development for all of your students is a very big goal and difficult to consider with respect to the instructional implications at each grade level. The common core further specifies

goals for each grade level, starting at grade 2, that are summarized below:

- Compares formal and informal use of English (second grade).
- Chooses words and phrases for effect (third grade).

Figure 6.1 Common Core Standards for Language Progressive Skills

The following Language Progressive Skills were identified within the Common Core Standards for Language as likely to require instructional attention across grade levels (**www.corestandards.org**)

SOURCE: Common Core Standards, retrieved from **http://www.corestandards.org**

Standard	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grades 9–10	Grade 11–12
L.3.1f. Ensure subject-verb and pronoun-antecedent agreement.								
L.3.a. *Choose words and phrases for effect.*								
L.3.3a. *Produce complete sentences, recognizing and correcting inappropriate fragments and run-ons.*								
L.4.1g. Correctly use frequently confused words (e.g., *to/too/two; there/their*).								
L.4.3a. Choose words and phrases to convey ideas precisely.[1]								
L.4.3b. Choose punctuation for effect.								
L.5.1d. Recognize and correct inappropriate shifts in verb tense.								
L.5.2a. Use punctuation to separate items in a series.[2]								
L.6.1c. Recognize and correct inappropriate shifts in pronoun number and person.								
L.6.1d. Recognize and correct vague pronouns (i.e., ones with unclear or ambiguous antecedents).								
L.6.1e. Recognize variations from standard English in their own and others' writing and speaking, and identify and use strategies to improve expression in conventional language.								
L.6.2a. Use punctuation (commas, parentheses, dashes) to set off nonrestrictive/parenthetical elements.								
L.6.3a. Vary sentence patterns for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.[3]								
L.6.3b. Maintain consistency in style and tone.								
L.7.1c. Place phrases and clauses within a sentence, recognizing and correcting misplaced and dangling modifiers.								
L.7.3a. Choose language that expresses ideas precisely and concisely, recognizing and eliminating wordiness and redundancy.								
L.8.1d. Recognize and correct inappropriate shifts in verb voice and mood.								
L.9–10.1a. Use parallel structure.								

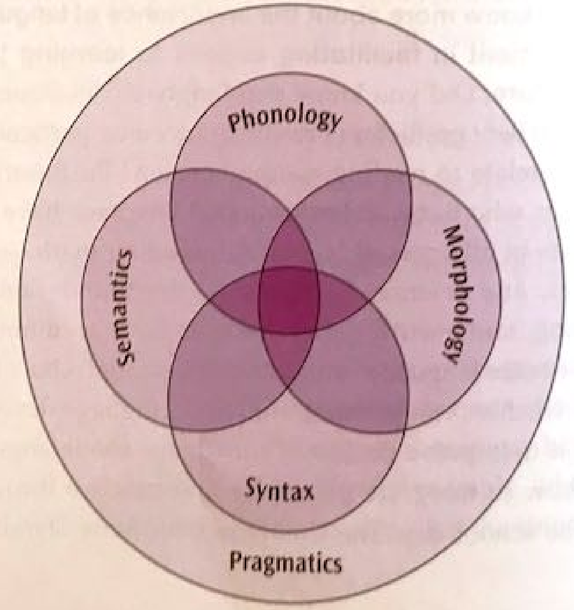
- Recognizes and observes differences between the conventions of spoken and written standard English (third grade).
- Chooses words and phrases to convey ideas precisely (fourth grade).
- Chooses punctuation for effect (fourth grade).
- Differentiates between contexts for formal English and informal discourse (fourth grade).
- Expands, combines, and reduces sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style (fifth grade).
- Compares and contrasts varieties of English in stories, dramas, or poems (fifth grade).
- Varies sentence patterns for meaning, interest, and style (sixth grade).
- Maintains consistency in style and tone (sixth grade.)
- Chooses language that expresses ideas precisely, consistently, recognizing and eliminating wordiness and redundancy (seventh grade).

The Content of Language Instruction

The content of language instruction for students with learning or language problems focuses on teaching the language code, the rules of the code, and how to use the code to communicate. To help us understand language so that we can more effectively plan the content of language instruction, we will consider several components of language (see Figure 6.2).

Content Content, also called *semantics*, refers to the ideas or concepts we are communicating. Keiko can communicate her desire for two chocolate-chip cookies in numerous ways. For example, she can say, "I want two chocolate-chip cookies," or "Me want choc-chip cookies" (while pointing

Figure 6.2 Components of Language from a Functionalist Perspective



to the cookie jar and then holding up two fingers). In both cases, the content or ideas are the same.

When we teach content, we are teaching concepts and helping students to learn the labels (vocabulary) for those concepts. When a young child asks such questions as "What's that?" or "What are you doing?" we often respond by giving the label for the object (e.g., spoon, blanket, shirt) or the action (i.e., stirring, making the bed, ironing). In this way, we are teaching the labels for the ideas or concepts.

Form *Form* refers to the structure and sound of language. Form is usually further divided into phonology, morphology, and syntax.

Phonology Phonemes are the actual sounds produced by speakers. Phonemes are the smallest linguistic units of sound that can signal a meaning difference. The English language has approximately 45 phonemes, or speech sounds, that are classified as either vowels or consonants (e.g., /a/, /k/, /ch/). Learning speech sounds and their relationships to the written letters can help students to identify unknown words when they read and spell (Blachman, 2013; Foorman, Arndt, & Crawford, 2011).

Phonology refers to the rules for combining and patterning phonemes within the language. Phonology also includes the control of vocal features (timing, frequency, duration) that influence the meaning we express when talking. Without changing any words, we can vary the underlying meaning of a sentence simply by the way we change our voice (e.g., intonation, pitch, and stress). For example, try saying, "I like that?" and "I like that." Depending on the intonation, stress, and pitch, the first statement can mean "I don't like that," and the second one can mean "I do like that."

Morphology Whereas phonology focuses on sounds, morphology focuses on the rule system that governs the structure of words and word forms. Whereas phonemes are the smallest sound units, morphemes are the smallest units of language that convey meaning. There are two different kinds of morphemes: root words, or words that can stand alone (e.g., *cat, run, pretty, small, form*), and affixes (prefixes, suffixes, and inflectional endings), which are added to words and change the meaning of the words (e.g., *cats, rerun, smallest, transformation*).

Helping elementary and secondary students learn the various affixes and their meanings can assist them in decoding words, determining the meaning of words, and spelling. For example, students who do not recognize or know the meaning of the word *predetermination* can break it into the root word *determine* (to decide), the prefix *pre-* (before), and the suffix *-tion* (denoting action in a noun). Then the students can decode or spell the word and generate the meaning of *predetermination* as a decision made in advance.

Developmentally, inflectional endings are the easiest to learn, followed by suffixes and then prefixes (Owens, 2016). The most frequently used prefixes in American English are un-, in-, dis-, and non-. Table 6.1 presents some common prefixes, suffixes, and inflectional endings, along with their meanings and several examples. As you can see from the table, definitions of prefixes and suffixes are sometimes vague. Although only one or two definitions

Table 6.1 Common Inflectional Endings, Prefixes, and Suffixes

Common Forms	Meanings	Examples
Inflectional Endings		
-ed	notes past tense on verbs	helped, studied
-ing	notes present progressive on verbs	helping, studying
-s/-es	notes third person singular on verbs	he helps, she studies
-s/-es	notes plurals on nouns	cats, parties
-'s	notes possessive	Juan's, cat's
Prefixes		
ante-	before, front	antecedent, anterior
anti-	against	antifreeze, antitoxin
bi-	two	bicycle, bisect
co-	with, together	coworker, cooperate
de-	down, remove, reduce	descent, dethrone, devalue
	do the opposite	deactivate
dis-	opposite	distrust, distaste
en-	to cover, to cause to be	encompass, enslave
ex-	former, from	expatriate, explain
hyper-	above, more, excessive	hyperactive, hyperventilate
hypo-	below, less	hypoactive, hypodermic
il-	not	illogical
im-	not, in, into	impatient

(continued)

Table 6.1 *(Continued)*

Common Forms	Meanings	Examples
in-	not, in, into	incomplete, inclusion
inter-	between, together	interact, intervene
ir-	not, into	irreversible
mis-	wrong	miscalculate
non-	not	nonstop
out-	beyond, exceeds	outlast, outside
pre-	before, in front of	preface, precaution
pro-	before, in front of, in favor of	proceed, proactive
re-	again, backward motion	repeat, rewind
semi-	half	semifinalist
sub-	under, less than	subordinate, subtitle
super-	above, superior	superordinate
trans-	across, beyond	transportation
un-	not	unlucky, unclear
Suffixes		
-able	capable of, tendency to	dependable
-age	result of action or place	breakage, orphanage
-al	pertaining to	personal
-ance	changing an action to a state	hindrance
-ation	changing an action to a state	determination
-ant	one who (occupation)	accountant, attendant
-en	noting action from an adjective	harden, loosen
-ence	changing an action to a state	dependence, reference
-er/or	notes occupation or type of person	lawyer, writer, sculptor
-er	notes comparative (between two)	larger, younger
-est	notes superlative (among more than two)	largest, youngest
-ful	full of	bountiful, joyful
-fy	to make	magnify, identify
-ible	capable of, tendency to	credible, collectible
-ion/-tion	changing an action to a state	confusion, transformation
-ish	belonging to, characteristic of	Finnish, greenish
-ist	one who (occupation)	artist, biologist
-ive	changes action to characteristic or tendency	creative, active
-less	unable to, without	harmless, thoughtless
-ly	denotes adverbs	loudly, friendly
-ment	result of an action (noun)	entertainment, excitement
-ness	quality, state of being	happiness, deafness
-ous	full of, having	victorious, harmonious
-some	quality or state	handsome, bothersome
-ward	turning to	homeward, wayward
-y	characterized by, inclined to	dirty, sleepy

are provided in the table, some affixes have four or more definitions (Gunning, 2018). Teaching this information (or a simplified list for elementary-age students) can assist students in understanding and learning new vocabulary and in decoding unknown words. To give students a sense of the meanings, provide experiences with several examples.

Syntax *Syntax* refers to the order of words in sentences and the rules for determining that order. Just as phonemes combine to form words, words combine to form phrases and sentences. In the same way that rules determine how phonemes can be combined, rules also determine how words can be combined. The basic syntactical structure for English is subject + verb + object (e.g., "Mike eats cereal").

The rules for combining words vary across languages. For example, in English, adjectives almost always precede the noun they modify (e.g., a delicious apple), whereas in Spanish, adjectives generally follow the noun they modify (e.g., *una manzana deliciosa*—an apple delicious).

Use *Pragmatics* refers to the purposes or functions of communication, or how we use language to communicate (Owens, 2016). Language use, or pragmatics, grows significantly during the school years (Owens, 2016). During the later school years, students use language proficiently with multiple meanings, employing figurative language, sarcasm, and jokes. Students also learn to vary their communication style, or *register*, on the basis of a listener's characteristics and knowledge concerning the topic. By the age of 13, students can switch from peer register to adult register, depending on the person with whom they are talking, and from formal register to an informal register, depending on the setting and circumstances (Nippold & Sun, 2008; Owens, 2016). Pragmatics for students in middle grades is important for connecting well with peers.

The way a speaker uses language will also be influenced by the knowledge the speaker thinks the listener has about the topic being discussed. If you are describing how to hang a picture on a wall, the language you use will depend on whether you think the listener is familiar with a plastic anchor and screw. The manner in which a topic is introduced, maintained, and changes, as well as how we reference topics, is governed by rules of pragmatics. Students who are learning English as a second language and bilingual students with communication disorders may need explicit instruction in pragmatics.

School-Age Language Development and Difficulties

Knowing how language develops during the school years and what difficulties students with learning or language problems demonstrate during these years will help us make decisions concerning the content and focus of language instruction. Many students exhibit what might be considered "late-emerging language difficulties" that are not evident until students come to school (Snowling, Duff, Nash, & Hulme, 2016). These language problems are frequently associated with reading comprehension issues. Growing evidence suggests that many students with reading problems have mild-to-moderate language problems; the largest subgroup of students with learning disabilities are those who experience language difficulties (Catts, Bridges, Little, & Tomblin, 2008).

Let's examine the development of content, form, and use at the school-age level and the difficulties that students with learning or language problems demonstrate.

Content During the school years, children increase the size of their vocabularies and their ability to understand and talk about abstract concepts.

Vocabulary Growth During the school years, one of the areas in which students demonstrate the greatest amount of growth is vocabulary. When students enter school, their estimated speaking vocabulary is about 2500 words (Owens, 2016). School provides students with opportunities to listen, read, and learn, thus increasing their vocabularies. Even math, which is often considered less language based than social studies and science, contains a significant number of concepts and words to learn (e.g., *subtract, estimate, rational number, trapezoid*).

Schoolchildren also experience an increase in the breadth and specificity of meanings. For example, for a preschooler, the word *bird* may refer to any animal that flies. However, most children later learn a whole set of specific vocabulary that defines different types of birds and their characteristics.

During the school years, students improve considerably in their understanding and organization of abstract concepts. Some examples of this include students' organization of words and ability to group them by such features as animate or inanimate, spatial (location) or temporal (time) relationships, and real or imaginary. For example, in learning about fossils, students learn to simultaneously classify different types of fossils (e.g., trilobites, crinoids, brachiopods) according to plant/animal, extinct/not extinct, and location (e.g., sea, lake, or land).

As students become more proficient word and concept learners, they also learn the multiple meanings of many common words. For example, the word *bank* has several meanings and can function as a noun or a verb:

Lou sat on the *bank* fishing.

You can *bank* on him to be there.

Put your money in the *bank* for now.

He was able to *bank* the ball to make the basket.

Students with language problems generally have vocabularies that are more limited than average, and their word meanings are generally more concrete and less flexible (Catts & Kahmi, 2005; Owens, 2016). For example, students with learning disabilities may have difficulty understanding the multiple meanings and applications of key words such as *cell* and *factor*.

Many students with reading and language disabilities have greater difficulty understanding that words can have multiple meanings and knowing which meaning to apply. For example, in the question "Was the *fare* that you paid for your taxi ride to the *fair* a *fair* price?" students are required to know and use three different meanings for the word *fair/fare*.

Figurative Language During the school years, students also develop a greater understanding of, and ability to use, figurative language. Figurative language represents abstract concepts and usually requires an inferential rather than literal interpretation. Figurative language allows students to use language in truly creative ways (Owens, 2016).

The primary types of figurative language include the following:

- Idioms (e.g., "It's raining cats and dogs.")
- Metaphors (e.g., "She had her eagle-eye watching for him.")
- Similes (e.g., "He ran like a frightened rabbit.")
- Proverbs (e.g., "The early bird catches the worm.")

Students with language disorders and other disabilities and students who are from other cultures or who have English as their second language tend to have difficulty with figurative language. Yet figurative language, particularly idioms, is used frequently in the classroom. Discussing and using these idioms and adding to the list can assist students with language disorders and second-language learners in improving their understanding and use of the English language. Learning idioms can be particularly helpful to English language learners in better understanding English language. A website that provides a list of American English idioms in alphabetical order is **Learning English Feels Goods**. A sample of items includes:

- About time
- Act one's age
- Actions speak louder than words
- All set
- Add fuel to the fire
- Bark up the wrong tree
- Bank on something
- Be in one's element
- Be a fan of something
- Be up to no good
- Call it a day
- Die of boredom
- Downer
- Earful
- Face the music
- Fall flat
- Get carried away
- Get a move on
- Half-baked
- Hand me down
- Make a bundle
- Make a long story short
- Neck and neck
- Neither here nor there
- Pain in the butt
- Pass the buck
- Read between the lines
- Rain or shine

Word Retrieval Some students with learning or language problems also experience difficulties with word retrieval or word finding (Nippold, 1998; Owens, 2016). A word-retrieval problem is like having the word on the tip of your tongue but not quite being able to think of it. The following dialogue presents a conversation between two third-grade students—one with typical language and the other with word-retrieval problems:

Web Resources

For additional information on word-finding difficulties, check out Word Finding Difficulties at **http://www.wordfinding.com.**

Setting: Third-grade classroom
Topic: Discussion about how to make an Easter basket

Susan: Are you going to make, uh, make, uh . . . one of these things [pointing to the Easter basket on the bookshelf]?
Cori: Oh, you mean an Easter basket?
Susan: Yeah, an Easter basket.
Cori: Sure, I'd like to, but I'm not sure how to do it. Can you help me?
Susan: Yeah, first you'll need some, uh, some, uh, the things you cut with, you know . . .
Cori: Scissors.
Susan: Yeah, and some paper and the thing you use to stick things together with.
Cori: Tape?
Susan: No, uh, uh, sticky stuff.
Cori: Oh, well let's get the stuff we need.
Susan: Let's go to, uh, uh, the shelf, uh, where you get, you know, the stuff to cut up.
Cori: Yeah, the paper, and let's also get the glue.

It is obvious from the conversation that both students were frustrated by the communication process. Susan's language is filled with indefinite words (*thing, stuff*), circumlocutions ("The things you cut with"), and fillers ("Let's go to, uh, the shelf, um, where you get, you know, the stuff to cut up"). At first, students like Susan may seem very talkative because of their overuse of descriptions, circumlocutions, and fillers; however, after one listens to them for a while, their language seems empty of information.

Word-retrieval or word-finding problems can occur because students cannot recall the word although they know it or because they have an underdeveloped understanding of the meaning of the word. For example, when a student's semantic network for the concept *bird* is well

developed, it will be easier to retrieve the word than if the semantic network is limited and the word has been learned in isolation. Therefore, in assisting students, it is important to help them develop more elaborate understandings of concepts. A second source of word-finding problems is with the retrieval, or search and recovery of the word. In this case, teaching and providing cues (e.g., it's something you ride; peanut butter and ______; it's a type of bird) can assist in retrieval. The website **speech-language-therapy dot com** provides helpful activities to do with youngsters who have word-retrieval difficulties.

Form During the school years, students continue to learn more complex sentence structures. Although by age 5 most students understand and generate basic sentences, first graders do not consistently produce sentences that reflect the syntactical complexities of the English language. Table 6.2 presents the sequence for selected syntactical structures. Some of the most difficult structures require the use of complex sentences and cohesive devices such as causals (*because*), conditionals (*if*), and enabling relationships (*so that*).

As sentence complexity increases, so does the average length of sentences. Yet it is important to know that mature language still has some grammatical errors, false starts, hesitations, and revisions. Table 6.3 demonstrates the growth in the number of words per sentence or communication unit. As is evident in Table 6.3, spoken sentence length matches chronological age (i.e., an 8-year-old student's sentences are, on the average, eight words long) until the age of approximately 9 years, when the growth curve begins to slow. By high school, adolescents' conversational utterances average 10 to 12 words. Average sentence length, however, is consistently shorter in conversational discourse than in narrative discourse. Young people also continue to increase use of inflectional endings, suffixes, prefixes, and irregular verbs. Students with language problems are slower to develop advanced syntactic structures; these delays are most evident in the elementary grades (Owens, 2016). Table 6.4 lists the age ranges for the development of various word formations and irregular verb usages.

Use The area of most important linguistic growth during the school years is language use, or pragmatics, as discussed earlier in this chapter. Throughout the school years, students become more empathetic toward the listener and able to understand a variety of perspectives. Older children can vary their communication style, or register, as we discussed earlier.

Table 6.2 Developmental Sequence for Comprehension of Sentence Types

Syntactic Structure	Sentence	Age of Comprehension By 75%		By 90%
Simple imperative	Go!	4–6*	to	6–0 years
Negative imperative	Don't cross!	5–6	to	7–0+ years
Active declarative				
Regular noun and present progressive	The girl is jumping.	3–0	to	3–0 years
Irregular noun and present progressive	The sheep is eating.	6–6	to	7–0 years
Past tense	The man painted the house.	5–6	to	7–0+ years
Past participle	The lion has eaten.	6–0	to	7–0+ years
Future	He will hit the ball.	7–0	to	7–0+ years
Reversible	The car bumps the train.	6–6	to	7–0+ years
Perfective	The man has been cutting trees.	7–0+	to	7–0+ years
Interrogative				
Who . . .	Who is by the table?	3–0	to	3–0 years
What . . .	What do we eat?	3–6	to	5–0 years
When . . .	When do you sleep?	3–6	to	5–6 years
Negation				
Explicit	The girl isn't running.	5–6	to	7–0+ years
Inherent	These two are different.	6–6	to	7–0+ years
Reversible passive	The boy is chased by the dog.	5–6	to	6–0 years
Conjunction				
If . . .	If you're the teacher, point to the dog; if not, point to the bear.	7–0+	to	7–0+ years
. . . then	Look at the third picture; then point to the baby of this animal.	7–0+	to	7–0+ years
neither . . . nor	Find the one that is neither the ball nor the table.	7–0+	to	7–0+ years

Source: E. H. Wiig & E. Semel, *Language Assessment & Intervention for the Learning Disabled*, 2nd ed. (Columbus, OH: C. E. Merrill, 1984). Reprinted with permission of the senior author, Elizabeth H. Wiig, Ph.D., Knowledge Research Institute, Inc.

*4–6 = 4 years, 6 months.

Table 6.3 Average Number of Words per Communication Unit (mean)

Grade	High Group	Random Group	Low Group
1	7.91	6.88	5.91
2	8.10	7.56	6.65
3	8.38	7.62	7.08
4	9.28	9.00	7.55
5	9.59	8.82	7.90
6	10.32	9.82	8.57
7	11.14	9.75	9.01
8	11.59	10.71	9.52
9	11.73	10.96	9.26
10	12.34	10.68	9.41
11	13.00	11.17	10.18
12	12.84	11.70	10.65

Source: W. Loban, *Language Development: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*, Res. Report #18 (Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1976), p. 27. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Table 6.4 Development of Word Formation Rules and Irregular Verbs

Word Formation Rules and Irregular Verbs	Age Range (In Years–Months)
Regular noun plurals (balls, chairs)	3-6 to 7-0+
Present progressive tense (running)	3-0 to 3-6
Present progressive tense (going)	3-6 to 5-6
Adjective forms	
Comparative (smaller, taller)	4-0 to 5-0
Superlative (shortest, tallest)	3-0 to 3-6
Noun derivation	
-er (hitter, painter, farmer)	3-6 to 6-6
-man (fisherman)	5-6 to 6-0
-ist (artist, bicyclist)	6-6 to 7-0+
Adverbial derivation (easily, gently)	7-0+
Irregular verbs	
went	4-6 to 5-0
broke, fell, took, came, made, sat, threw	5-0 to 6-0
bit, cut, drive, fed, ran, wrote, read, rode	6-0 to 7-0
drank, drew, hid, rang, slept, swam	7-0 to 8-0
caught, hung, left, built, sent, shook	8-0 to 9-0

Source: Adapted from E. Carrow, *Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language* (San Antonio, TX: Pearson, 2009); K. Shipley, M. Maddox, & J. Driver (1991), Children's development of irregular past tense verb forms, *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 22, pp. 115–112; E. H. Wiig & E. Semel, *Language Assessment and Intervention for the Learning Disabled*, 2nd ed. (Columbus, OH: C. E. Merrill, 1984).

Young school-age children use language to, for example,

- Gain and hold attention in a socially acceptable manner.
- Use others, when appropriate, as resources for assistance or information.
- Express affection or hostility and anger appropriately.
- Direct and follow peers.
- Compete with peers in storytelling and boasts.
- Express pride in themselves and in personal accomplishments.
- Role-play.

By adolescence, students can do the following:

- Express positive and negative feelings and reactions to others.
- Present, understand, and respond to information in spoken messages related to persons, objects, events, or processes that are not immediately visible.
- Take the role of another person.
- Understand and present complex messages.
- Adapt messages to the needs of others.
- On the basis of prior experience, approach verbal interactions with expectations of what to say and how to say it.
- Select different forms for their messages on the basis of the age, status, and reactions of the listeners.
- Use sarcasm and double meanings.
- Make deliberate use of metaphors.

Some students with learning or language problems also experience difficulties with language *use*, or pragmatics (Owens, 2016). The following dialogue demonstrates how Brice, an adolescent with behavior disorders and subsequent learning problems, has difficulty using language effectively in a conversation with a peer. He tends to switch topics (lack of topic maintenance), does not provide enough context for his listener, does not provide adequate referents for his pronouns, and does not respond to his listener's requests for clarification. In addition, Brice is unaware of his failure to communicate effectively and blames his conversational partner for communication breakdowns.

Setting: Computer lab
Topic: Brice is explaining to Reid how to play a computer game.

Brice: Did you get in trouble for last night?
Reid: What do you mean for last night?
Brice: You know, for what you did.
Reid: I'm not sure what you're talking about.
Brice: Want to learn how to play Chopperlifter?
Reid: Yeah, I guess, but what about last night?
Brice: Well, one thing you do is put it in the slot and turn on the computer.
Reid: What thing? Do you mean the CD?
Brice: Sure I do. Now watch. *Brice boots the CD and selects Chopperlifter from a game menu.* You got to take it and go pick up the men.
Reid: You mean the helicopter?
Brice: Yeah, aren't you listening?
Reid: Yeah, but you're not telling me enough about the game.

Brice: Yes I am. You're just like my brother, you don't listen.

Reid: I'm not going to put up with this. I'll see you around.

Although this is not reflected in the language sample, Brice also has difficulty varying his language for different audiences. He sometimes sounds disrespectful to adults because he does not vary his language to suit different speakers or contexts. Finally, Brice and other students with pragmatic language difficulties, including students with behavior disorders, tend to misinterpret emotions or meanings indicated by nonverbal communication, including facial expressions and body language, more frequently than their normal peers do. These students may not be classified as having speech and language problems because they have fluent, complex, and clear articulation.

It is important to remember that content, form, and use are related. Sometimes students who appear to have difficulties with language use have them because of limited content and form. For these students, it is important to focus instruction in the areas of content and form and find out whether language use automatically improves.

Guidelines for Teaching Language

What guidelines can assist in teaching oral language, content, form, and use? In teaching students with learning or language problems, teachers have traditionally focused on teaching academic skills and have placed less emphasis on the development of oral language skills. However, it is clear that language continues to develop during the school years and that students with reading problems show difficulties in oral language that affect oral as well as written communication (Catts, Compton, Tomblin, & Bridges, 2012). Let's look at some general principles and procedures for teaching oral language skills to these students.

General Guidelines for Teaching Oral Language

Opportunities for teaching oral language abound in the school setting. When we teach students new concepts and vocabulary in content-area subjects, we are teaching oral language. When students learn how to give oral reports or retell a story, how to introduce themselves, or how to use irregular verbs, they are learning language. A list of general procedures or guidelines for teaching language is presented in Apply the Concept 6.1 and discussed in this section. These principles not only are important for students with learning problems but also can benefit other students in the classroom. The speech-language pathologist is a good source for additional guidelines, techniques, and teaching ideas.

Teach Language in Purposeful Contexts Whether a teacher is teaching a student to use causal relationships (form), to categorize fossils (content), or how to use the telephone to request information (use), it is important to teach language in context. It is difficult to imagine teaching someone how to use a hammer, drill, or saw without using nails, boards, and probably the goal of making a simple wood project. The same should apply in teaching students to use

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Video Example 6.1

In this video, a teacher guides students in oral language skills in a purposeful instructional context. What methods does she use to support the children's oral language in purposeful, meaningful, and fun ways?

6.1 Apply the Concept

General Principles for Teaching Language

- Teach language in purposeful contexts.
- In most cases, follow the sequence of normal language development.
- Teach comprehension and production.
- Use conversations to promote language development.
- Adjust pacing, chunk information, and check for understanding to promote comprehension.
- Increase wait time to promote production.
- Use effective teaching strategies when presenting a new concept or skill.
- Use self-talk and parallel talk to describe what you and others are doing or thinking.
- Use modeling to demonstrate language.
- Use expansion and elaboration.
- Use structured language programs to provide intensive practice and feedback.
- Use language as an intrinsic motivator.
- Systematically plan and instruct for generalization.

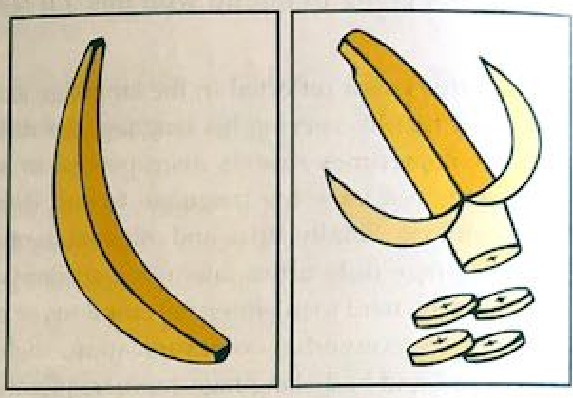
language. Rote practice of sentence structures or rehearsal of word definitions will teach the students little unless this is paired with how to use language.

To foster teaching language in context, the teacher should plan activities that highlight the language skill being taught. For example, Mr. Cardoni used the contexts of following a recipe for chocolate-chip cookies and of building bird feeders to teach the vocabulary related to fractions (e.g., half, one quarter, two thirds, part, whole, fraction). During the activities, the students measured and compared the different fractional parts (e.g., determining what fraction one teaspoon is of one tablespoon). This allowed Mr. Cardoni and his students to talk about the concepts of fractions in a situation in which fractions played an important role in the project and to demonstrate with concrete examples the differences between fractions.

In Most Cases, Follow the Sequence of Normal Language Development Determining the content of instruction is a major part of the teaching–learning process, whether in language, academics, content areas, or social areas. Students with language difficulties may need additional instruction in one of the areas of language development, such as content, form, or use. For example, Susan, the third grader with word-finding problems, has difficulty primarily in the area of content. On the other hand, Brice appears to have adequate content and form in his language but has difficulty with use. Therefore, in planning a language program, begin by determining what knowledge and skills a student has already acquired in the areas of content, form, and use, and then target the subsequent areas in the development process. For instance, if the student is already using past tense ("The boy ate the cake"), you might next focus on past participle ("The boy has eaten the cake") (see Table 6.2 earlier in the chapter). A speech-language pathologist can be an excellent resource for helping to determine what to teach next.

Teach Comprehension and Production Give students opportunities to develop both their understanding (comprehension) and their ability to express (production) the new knowledge or skill you are teaching. For example, when teaching students to comprehend the past participle, a teacher should label examples of events that have already happened (e.g., "Juan has sharpened his pencil" or "Kim has finished her math assignment"). When providing intensive practice and feedback, the teacher shows students picture-sequence cards (see Figure 6.3) and asks students to identify the picture that demonstrates that something "has happened." To teach production, ask students to explain what has happened by using the past participle form. For example, the teacher could ask, "What have you just done?" When teaching the concepts and vocabulary associated with a new unit or piece of literature, the teacher provides students with opportunities not only to listen to explanations

Figure 6.3 Sequence Cards to Help Students Comprehend and Produce Tenses



but also to discuss their knowledge of the concepts. Using the pause procedure (Ruhl & Suritsky, 1995), whereby the teacher pauses at logical breaks in the lecture so students can discuss what they are learning with a partner, provides such opportunities. Vaughn and colleagues used the pause procedure of asking students to turn and discuss key concepts and ideas during social studies instruction to enhance vocabulary and comprehension (Vaughn, Martinez, et al., 2009).

Use Conversations to Promote Language Development Students with language problems need opportunities to engage in conversations. Plan opportunities for students to engage in conversations with you and other students as they work, think, and play. Using discussion groups or promoting "turning and talking" with a peer rather than a question-answer format for reviewing a book or current event is an example of how conversations can be integrated into the classroom. These conversations need not be long, and in secondary settings, they can be accomplished as students enter the room. Apply the Concept 6.2 provides more ideas that you can use and share with teachers and parents about how to promote language through the use of conversations.

Adjust Pacing, Chunk Information, and Check for Understanding to Promote Comprehension Second-language learners and students with language problems often have difficulty comprehending what is being said during class, particularly in content-area classes. To promote language comprehension, preteach proper nouns to ensure understanding for all students. Also, use multiple opportunities including oral language, print, and pictures. Whenever possible, state key information in multiple ways.

It is also helpful if the amount of information provided in each segment is reduced. Consequently, information can be chunked or segmented into smaller amounts. For example, observing his students in Mr. Hunt's fifth-grade science class, Mr. Fong noticed that his students usually listened to Mr. Hunt present the first 5 of 15 vocabulary words for a new chapter and recorded about 3 of the words in their science notebooks. After Mr. Fong shared this information

6.2 Apply the Concept

Promoting Language Through Conversations

- Talk about things in which the child/adolescent is interested.
- Follow the child's lead in the conversation. Reply to the child's initiations and comments. Share the child's excitement.
- Don't ask too many questions. If you must, use questions such as how did/do . . . , why did/do . . . , and what happened . . . that result in longer explanatory answers.
- Encourage the child/adolescent to ask questions. Respond by using information the student has provided as well as integrating new information.
- Use a pleasant tone of voice. You can be light and humorous. Children love it when adults are a little silly.
- Don't be judgmental or make fun of a child's language. If you try to catch and correct all errors, the child will stop talking to you. Rather than correct language or state what is wrong, repeat the child's statements using correct language.
- Allow enough time for the child to respond.
- Treat the child with courtesy by not interrupting when the child is talking.
- Provide opportunities for the child to use language and to have that language work to accomplish his or her goals.
- Include the child in family and classroom discussions. Encourage participation and listen to the child's ideas.
- Be accepting of the child and of the child's language. Hugs and acceptance go a long way.

Source: Adapted from R. E. Owens, Jr., *Language Disorders: A Functional Approach to Assessment and Intervention* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 2016).

with Mr. Hunt, Mr. Hunt decided to chunk the vocabulary into groups of 3 to 5 words and introduce each group only when they were needed, rather than present all of them at the beginning of a new chapter.

Checking for understanding is also important for facilitating language comprehension. Having a student repeat directions, or telling another student what was just discussed, is a way to check for understanding other than by asking questions.

Increase Wait Time to Promote Production When Marilyn Fantell, a speech-language pathologist, talks about the most important principles for teachers to use when teaching students with language and learning problems, the first one she mentions is wait time. Some students need time to understand what has just been said and to construct a response. These students may have particular difficulty with form (e.g., syntax) and need the extra time to think about the form they should use in constructing their response. Therefore, when a response is required from these students, a teacher should allow them extra time to formulate their answer before giving an additional prompt or calling on another student.

Use Effective Teaching Strategies in Presenting a New Concept or Skill As students progress in school, the demands to learn new content and concepts increase exponentially. Particularly for older students, concept knowledge in math, science, and social studies represents a lot of their growth in concept development. Using effective teaching strategies helps students with language difficulties to gain the concepts and content they need for success in content-area classes. Based on the teaching–learning process, a number of effective teaching strategies should be incorporated

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Video Example 6.2

In this video, a teacher engages in conversation to encourage a student to use language to express his ideas. Compare the teacher's approach to the ideas identified in *6.2 Apply the Concept.*

into language instruction. Apply the Concept 6.3 lists key strategies that can be used in teaching a new concept.

Use Self-Talk and Parallel Talk to Describe What You and Others Are Doing or Thinking Using self-talk and parallel talk demonstrates how language is connected to activities. Self-talk describes what the teacher is doing or thinking; parallel talk describes what the student is doing or thinking. Ms. Baraka, a special education teacher who is coteaching in a first-grade classroom, uses parallel talk and self-talk when she joins the students at the different learning centers. She explains, "When I join a center, I try to sit down and join in the activities rather than asking students questions. I describe what I am doing and what other students in the group are doing. For example, I might say, 'Voytek is making a clay animal. It's blue, and right now he is putting a ferocious snarl on the animal's face. I wonder what kind of animal it is. I think I'll ask Voytek.'" In this way, the students get to hear how words can describe what someone is doing and thinking, and it focuses attention on the student and the ongoing activities.

Use Modeling to Demonstrate Language Modeling plays an important role in learning language. Whether for learning a new sentence structure, new vocabulary, or a new

6.3 Apply the Concept

Effective Teaching Strategies for Language Intervention

Gillam and Loeb (2010) identify principles for proving language intervention to school-age children:

1. ***Intensity.*** Intensive remediation is essential to progress for students with language impairments. If there is not adequate time during the day for highly focused language intervention, then summers and after-school time are needed.
2. ***Active Attention.*** Students are more likely to benefit from language interventions when they are interested and engaged in what they are being presented. Signaling students to make sure that they are attending and ready to learn, cueing them when they are paying attention, and providing them with feedback that is engaging about their learning will help ensure that the language intervention is effective.
3. ***Feedback.*** Receiving feedback about whether responses are correct and then elaborating on this feedback to enhance learning is essential to remediating language difficulties. Direct and not indirect feedback is needed. "That's right, you remembered to sequence your story" is an example of direct feedback.
4. ***Rewards.*** Supporting internal motivation and recognizing learning and achievement through rewards are essential features of effective language intervention programs.

Source: From "Insights from a Randomized Controlled Trial," by R. B. Gillam & D. F. Loeb, January 19, 2010. *American Speech-Language Association Leader.*

function or use for language, modeling is a powerful tool. For example, Ms. Simons and her eighth-grade students in resource English class were working on improving discussion skills during literature discussion groups. Ms. Simon was concerned about the number of students who did not clarify what they were saying when it was obvious that other students were not understanding.

To teach clarification skills, Ms. Simons initiated a discussion about clarifying ideas and then modeled how not clarifying ideas and not asking for clarification can lead to confusion. She exaggerated the examples, and the students seemed to enjoy this. Next, Ms. Simons modeled clarification skills as she participated with the students in their literature discussions. As individual students used effective clarifying skills, she commented on this, so that peers were also serving as models. Use of computers with speech recognition and synthetic speech capability also provides for language models and systematic practice, such as **Laureate Learning Systems.**

Use Expansion and Elaboration Language expansion is a technique used to facilitate the development of more complex language form and content. By repeating what students say in a slightly more complex manner, the teacher demonstrates how their thoughts can be more fully expressed. For example, Ms. Lee, an elementary teacher, is working to get Rob to connect his ideas and to use adverbs to describe his actions. As he finished several math problems, Rob reported, "I got the first one easy. The second one was hard." Ms. Lee replied, "Oh, you got the first one easily, but the second one was hard." The teacher does not want to imply that she is correcting the student; she is simply showing him a more complex way of expressing the thought. Also, the teacher should expand only one or two elements at once, or the expansion will be too complex for the student to profit from it.

Language elaboration is used to build on the content of a student's language and provide additional information on the topic. For example, Chris, a fourth-grade student with language disabilities, was explaining that snakes have smooth skin. Mr. Anderson elaborated on Chris's idea by commenting, "Snakes have smooth skin and so do lizards. Are there other animals in the desert that have smooth skin?"

Use Structured Language Programs to Provide Intensive Practice and Feedback Teaching in context is critical for learning and generalization. However, sometimes by teaching in context, we do not provide the students with adequate opportunities to practice a new skill. Students who have learning problems need the practice and feedback provided in many language programs and activities to gain mastery of the skill. For example, *Language for Learning* (Engelmann & Osborn, 2008), designed primarily for early elementary students, provides intensive practice in different language content and forms. However, these programs should not serve as the students' entire language program. Although they provide practice and feedback, they generally do not teach the skill within the relevant contexts that are needed for purposeful learning and generalization. Other examples of language development programs can be viewed at **Pro.Ed**, including programs addressing semantics, pragmatics, grammar, phonology, articulation, fluency, listening, and speech and language remediation.

Systematically Plan and Instruct for Generalization As is the case in teaching other skills, language instruction must incorporate into the instructional sequence a variety of contexts, settings, and people with which students interact so they can generalize language learning outside the instructional setting.

Because language is part of all of our instruction, generalizing principles of language development across

settings is possible. Ms. McDonald, a special education resource teacher; Mrs. Kim, the second-grade teacher; and Ms. Cortez, the speech-language pathologist, are working with Julie, a second-grade child with learning disabilities, on sequencing events and using sequence markers (e.g., *first, second, next, last*). When Julie goes to language and resource classes, Mrs. Kim sends a note that lists, in order, the activities Julie has participated in so far during the day. When Julie returns from language and resource class, Ms. Cortez sends back a note that lists her language activities. Each teacher then converses with Julie about what she did in the other teachers' classes, emphasizing sequence and sequence markers. Other activities also build generalization for Julie. Whenever a teacher or Julie's mother reads Julie a story, Julie retells the story and is asked sequence questions. During the weekly cooking activity, Julie and the other students tell the steps in making the food for the day, and the teacher writes these steps on large chart paper with numbers listed beside them. Julie also arranges picture-sequence cards and is then asked to describe them. With these activities, Julie receives numerous opportunities to generalize this language skill to a variety of contexts, persons, and settings. See Apply the Concept 6.4 for suggestions on identifying and treating language difficulties.

Teaching Language Development Through Content

We teach language content throughout the day. For example, one of the major goals in teaching a new unit in social studies and science is for the students to understand and use the new vocabulary. What are some of the basic vocabulary categories that we may want to teach? Table 6.5 lists some general categories of words and word relationships. Look at some strategies for teaching content or vocabulary, such as the more general vocabulary listed in Table 6.5 and the specific vocabulary found in content-area instruction.

Emphasize Critical Features When teaching new concepts, emphasize the features that are important to the meaning. For example, in teaching the concepts of *mountains* and *hills*, the distinguishing or critical features to emphasize are *size* and *height*. In comparison, the *texture of the land* is not important, because it is not a feature that usually helps us to distinguish between hills and mountains. Comparing and contrasting two concepts using a Venn diagram can help students to see the important characteristics (see Figure 6.4). Students remember vocabulary better if they think about how they can use it. Figure 6.5 presents one way in which students can think about a concept in multiple ways.

Vary Concept Introductions Teachers need to keep in mind that concepts should be introduced in a number of different ways. When teaching the concept of *precipitation*, for instance, the teacher may present pictures of different types of precipitation (e.g., snow, rain, sleet, hail, and mist) and have the students tell about a time when they remember each type of precipitation. The class can discuss what is happening to the water in the atmosphere when it is precipitating and what the weather is like when precipitation is present.

Present Examples and Nonexamples For example, in learning about cacti, students may generate two lists of plants: one that represents examples of cacti and one that represents

6.4 Apply the Concept

Identifying and Treating Language Difficulties

Common Problems of a Language Difficulty

- Difficulty finding and using the right word.
- Limited vocabulary. May explain what the item is or does rather than using the correct identifying word.
- Difficulty retelling a story in an organized manner.
- Challenges in understanding complex stories and retelling key ideas.
- Difficulties understanding word meanings.
- Typically uses short sentences rather than more complex ones.
- Provides limited information or incomplete information.
- Difficulty listening and demonstrating understanding.
- Relies heavily on visual information to understand.
- Challenges in following instruction at home and school.
- Challenges in understanding and using written language.
- Infrequently engages in meaningful peer communication.

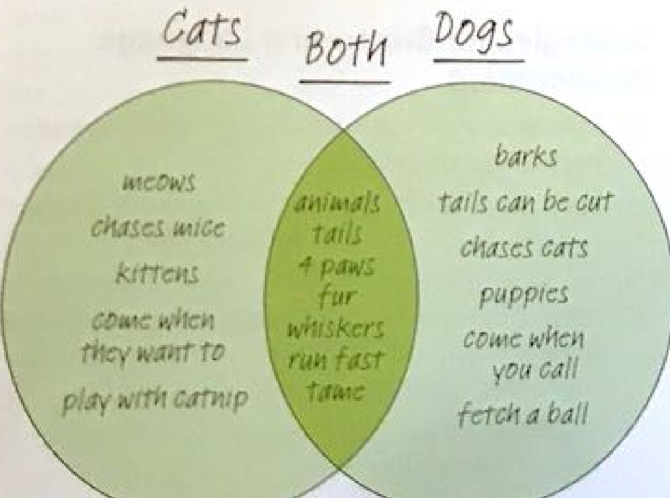
Strategies for Supporting Language Development

- Develop a plan for supporting language development and share with the child's family.
- Use a peer to provide opportunities throughout the day to turn and talk and practice communication skills.
- Provide the child with strategies to manage challenging communication situations, for example, using their hands to indicate difficulty, using cue cards, telling key words to an adult or peer, learning functional questions to apply.
- Use a visual system incorporating signs and pictures to help with following directions.

Table 6.5 Categories of Words and Word Relationships

<table>
<tr><th>Categories</th><th>School-Related Examples</th></tr>
<tr><td>Existence/nouns</td><td>science, math, reading, vowels, consonants, sentences, paragraphs</td></tr>
<tr><td>Actions/verbs</td><td>verbs often used in instruction—draw, write, circle, underline, discuss, compare, critique, defend</td></tr>
<tr><td>Attributes/adjectives</td><td>words that describe such attributes as size, shape, texture, weight, position (high/low, first/last), color, age, speed, affect, attractiveness</td></tr>
<tr><td>Attributes/adverbs</td><td>words that describe actions, such as easily, hurriedly, busily, willingly</td></tr>
<tr><td>Prepositions</td><td>locative (in, on, under, beside, in front of, ahead of, behind), directional (off, out of, away from, toward, around, through), temporal (before, after, between), for, from, at, of, to, with, without</td></tr>
<tr><td>Personal pronouns</td><td><table><tr><th>Subjective</th><th>Objective</th><th>Possessive</th></tr><tr><td>I</td><td>me</td><td>my, mine</td></tr><tr><td>you</td><td>you</td><td>your</td></tr><tr><td>she, he, it</td><td>her, him, it</td><td>her, his, its</td></tr><tr><td>we</td><td>us</td><td>our</td></tr><tr><td>they</td><td>them</td><td>their</td></tr></table></td></tr>
<tr><td>Demonstrative pronouns</td><td>this, that, these, those</td></tr>
<tr><td>Indefinite and negative pronouns</td><td>a/an, someone, somebody, something, somewhere, anyone, anybody, anything, anywhere, no one, nobody, nothing, nowhere, the</td></tr>
<tr><td>Antonyms</td><td>full/empty, boiling/freezing, easy/hard, soft/hard</td></tr>
<tr><td>Synonyms</td><td>pants/slacks/trousers/britches
laugh/giggle/chuckle
happy/glad/pleased/elated/tickled pink</td></tr>
<tr><td>Homonyms</td><td>sail/sale, bear/bare</td></tr>
<tr><td>Multiple-meaning words</td><td>run fast, run in your stockings, go for a run, in the long run</td></tr>
<tr><td>Comparative relationships</td><td>taller than, shorter than</td></tr>
<tr><td>Spatial relationships</td><td>see Prepositions</td></tr>
<tr><td>Temporal-sequential relationships</td><td>words connoting measurement, time (days of the week, minutes, seasons), temporal prepositions (first, last, next, then)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Conditional relationships</td><td>if . . . then</td></tr>
<tr><td>Causal relationships</td><td>because, therefore, since</td></tr>
<tr><td>Conjunctive relationships</td><td>and</td></tr>
<tr><td>Disjunctive relationships</td><td>either . . . or</td></tr>
<tr><td>Contrastive relationships</td><td>but, although</td></tr>
<tr><td>Enabling relationships</td><td>in order that, so that</td></tr>
<tr><td>Figurative language</td><td>Idioms: catch a plane; hit the road
Metaphors: her eagle eye
Similes: her eyes twinkled like stars; busy as a beaver
Proverbs: The early bird catches the worm.</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 6.4 Venn Diagram for Comparing Concepts



nonexamples. Then students can talk about and list the features that make the cacti different from the nonexamples.

Categorize New Concepts A valuable strategy is to categorize new concepts, to ensure students understand how the concepts relate to other concepts. If the concept of *melancholy* is being taught, the students should learn that this is an example of a feeling or emotion. Other feelings are gladness, relief, and hurt. Characteristics of people who are melancholy are "not happy," "quiet," "not talkative," and "somber." These ideas can be depicted in a visual diagram, such as a semantic map, which shows how the different concepts relate to one another (see Figure 6.6).

Present New Vocabulary Simply To help students understand the new material they are learning, present new

Figure 6.5 Thinking About a Concept in Multiple Ways

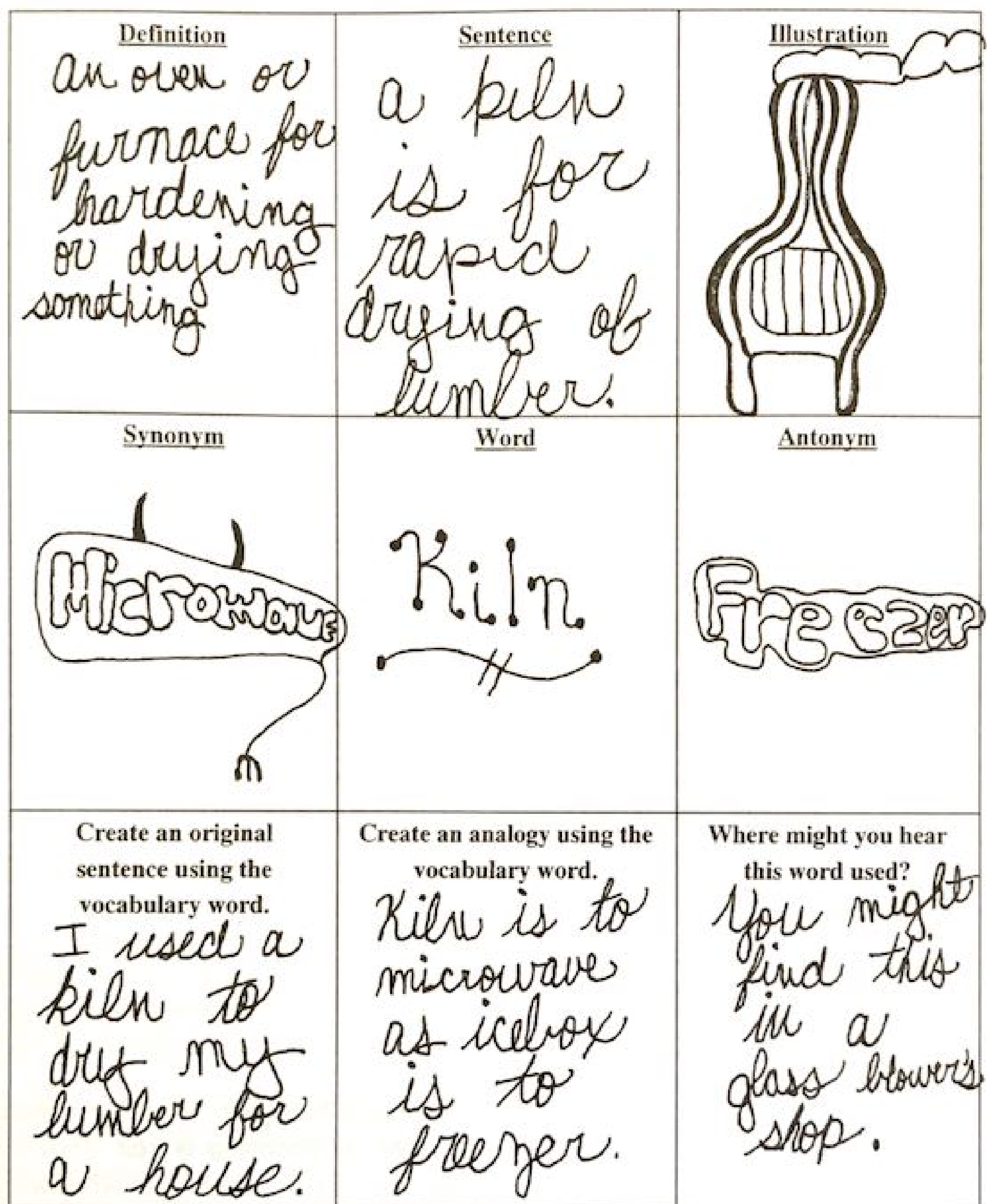


Figure 6.6 Semantic Map of the Concept of *Melancholy*

Feelings or Emotions

Types

Gladness | Relief | Melancholy | Hurt

Characteristics

Not happy
Quiet
Not talkative
Somber

vocabulary in simple sentences or phrases. It is harder to learn a new concept or idea if the teacher is using difficult language to explain what it means. The rule of thumb is to use simple sentences or phrases to introduce new concepts (i.e., four- to seven-word sentences and two- to four-word phrases).

Reinforce with Games Use games and other activities to reinforce newly introduced concepts. For example, Twenty Questions is a good game to encourage students to think about the characteristics of a concept and the categories in which the concept falls.

Name That Category is a game that can be played similarly to Name That Tune, except that the object of the game is to earn points by naming the category when examples of a category are given. The sooner the category is named, the more points the player receives.

Oral or written *cloze* passages, like that shown in Figure 6.7, can be used to highlight a particular set of concepts being taught.

Figure 6.7 Sample Cloze Emphasizing Prepositions

Cloze passages can be used either as an oral or written activity, or combined with the oral activity reinforcing the written.

More than anything else, Robert wanted ________ climb ________ the top ________ the mountain. Every day ________ his way home ________ school he looked up ________ the mountain. It was so high that the few trees ________ the top looked very small. He had heard that it would take a day ________ climb ________ the summit, and a day to get back ________ the mountain. One evening when he was looking ________ his window, he saw a campfire burning ________ the top of the mountain. He knew ________ only he practiced hiking, he could make it.
Well, this spring he would start practicing. He and his friend Jim could join the Young Hikers' Club and ________ early summer they would be ready ________ the climb. Robert could hardly wait ________ spring ________ come.

Idioms, metaphors, similes, and proverbs can be used when playing Charades, with the students acting out the literal meanings of the phrases (e.g., *catch a plane, blow your stack*).

A number of language materials and programs are available for teaching concepts to school-age students. The Instructional Activities feature in this chapter provides selected programs and materials.

Additional ideas for teaching new concepts and the relationships among those concepts, particularly as they relate to teaching content-area subjects (i.e., science, social studies, vocational areas), are discussed in Chapter 10.

Teach Students to Classify and Categorize Words Teaching students to classify and categorize words should improve their long-term memory and thus help them to recall and retrieve specific words. When learning new concepts, students should be encouraged to name the category and then rapidly name the vocabulary in the category. Pictures, written words, and graphic representations such as a semantic map (see Figure 6.6) may help with this activity. When students are having difficulty retrieving a word, provide information about the word to help them retrieve it. For example, if a student is having trouble thinking of the word *eraser*, say "it has 3 syllables and begins with this sound, 'e'."

Teach Students to Use Visual Imagery Getting students to "see" in their minds the objects they are trying to retrieve can sometimes help them think of words. To help students develop these mental images, encourage them to picture new words. For example, when students are trying to learn the parts of a flower, have them visualize a flower in their minds, with the labels for the parts written directly on the different parts. Have them talk about the kind of flower they pictured, discussing the parts as they describe the flower.

Teach Students to Use Word-association Clues to Help in Retrieving Words Activities in which students learn and practice word associations (e.g., peanut butter and _____; red, white, and _____) can facilitate word retrieval. These activities may be as broad as asking students to name as many things as they can think of in a given amount of time. But generally, the teacher will want to focus the associations.

Teach Students to Use Synonyms and Antonyms When students cannot recall the precise word they want, they can use an alternative word. Students may be taught to state that the desired word "is the opposite of _____" or "is almost like _____." For example, when struggling to find the word *joyful*, a student can be encouraged to say "It's when you're really happy" or "It's the opposite of feeling sad."

Use Sound, Semantic, or Multiple-choice Cues to Assist Students in Recalling Words Providing students with cues can assist them in retrieving words. For example, teachers might cue, "It starts with a /k/" (sound cue); "It's not a peach, it's a _____" (semantic cue); or "It's either a banana, a cat, or a bowl" (multiple-choice cue).

Increase Elaboration in Language Some students with learning disabilities use language that is not very elaborate. When asked to retell stories or events or to give descriptions, these students provide only the most basic information. Teachers can:

1. *Model elaboration by introducing familiar objects or pictured objects and by demonstrating verbal descriptions of their attributes and functions:* In this step, the teacher describes the object, noting its attributes and functions. In some instances, the teacher may want to contrast it to similar or related objects—for example, describing a cactus and comparing it to a rosebush.

2. *Have students elaborate in response to direct questions:* After modeling, the teacher asks students direct questions

about the object that require them to focus on its attributes and functions. For example, the teacher may ask, "What kind of stem does a cactus have? Why does it have such a chunky stem?"

3. *Have students spontaneously describe the object or pictured object:* The teacher asks students to describe the object, using such cues as "Tell me about the cactus. What else can you tell me about it? Are there any other things about it that are important? In what way is a cactus like a rosebush?"

Teaching Form

Form refers to the structure of language. Tables 6.2 and 6.3 (earlier in the chapter) present syntactical and morphological forms that are relevant in teaching school-age students with language and learning problems. This section presents some procedures and activities for teaching these language forms.

Use Developmental Sequences An effective approach to instruction is to teach new sentence structures or prefixes, suffixes, and inflectional endings according to developmental sequences or the order of difficulty. Language programs and activities designed to teach form (see Instructional Activities later in this chapter) can assist teachers in deciding the order in which to teach the various sentence and morphological forms.

Use Familiar Examples When teaching a new structure or form, use familiar, concrete examples and vocabulary. For example, Mrs. Ogbu wants to have her students work on passive sentences. She begins by having her students act out simple events (e.g., Julio tagged Maria during a relay race). Then she asks the students to tell her a sentence about the event. She writes it on the board ("Julio tagged Maria"). Next she shows the students how she can say what had happened in a different way ("Maria was tagged by Julio"). Then the students act out other events and give sentences in the passive voice. In this way, Mrs. Ogbu starts with concrete experiences and uses familiar, simple vocabulary to teach the new sentence structure.

Use Simple Sentences Simplify your language when teaching a new sentence or morphological form. When Mrs. Ogbu initially taught her students passive voice sentences, she used very simple sentences. She could have said, "Julio chased Maria while playing tag," but this sentence would have been much more difficult for the students to put in the passive voice.

Encourage Extension Once students have learned the new form, have them extend it to situations that need more elaborated and complex sentences and less familiar vocabulary. For example, when teaching the morphological ending -er, move from familiar vocabulary such as *teacher, reader*, and *writer* to less familiar vocabulary such as *painter, plumber, framer*, and *landscaper* in the context of house construction and to the exceptions in this area, such as *mason* and *electrician*.

Use Concrete Objects To make lessons more concrete for learners, use actual objects and events or pictures of them when initially teaching a new structure or form, and pair oral communication with written. Mrs. Ogbu uses the event of playing tag to teach passive voice sentences. She also pairs the oral sentences with the written sentences by writing them on the board. Word and sentence boundaries are clarified by written language, and pictures or actual experiences can assist the students in focusing on the target language pattern. Figure 6.8 demonstrates how pictures and written words can demonstrate possessives.

Vary Introductions New sentence or word forms should be introduced in a variety of ways. For example, when teaching comparative and superlative forms of adjectives during a measuring activity, Ms. Kamulu has the students determine who has the "long/longer/longest" pencils, pens, scissors, shoelaces, hair, and so on. Numerous comparisons can be made by using items found in a classroom, and the various comparisons may be depicted on a chart such as the one shown in Table 6.6. Students can then use the examples and the chart to discuss the comparisons and to practice the targeted language skills.

Figure 6.8 Visual Representation Depicting Possessive Marker

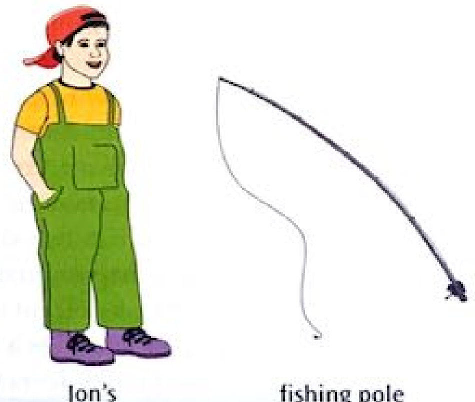


Table 6.6 Comparison Chart

Item	Long	Longer	Longest
Red pencils	Susan	Kim	Danny
Blue pencils	Susan	Cori	Ken
Yellow pencils	Kim	Danny	Ken
White shoelaces	Kim	Danny	Ken
Black shoelaces	Cori	Susan	Kim
Brown hair	Cori	Kim	Susan
Blond hair	Danny	Ken	Stefan

Teaching Use

According to the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA; **www.asha.org**), pragmatics involves three major communication skills:

1. Using language for different *purposes*
   - Greetings (e.g., "Hello.")
   - Informing (e.g., "I am going to school now.")
   - Demanding (e.g., "I won't go to school.")
   - Promising (e.g., "I am going to school in 10 minutes.")
   - Requesting (e.g., "Would you take me to school?")
   - Asking questions that promote interaction (e.g., "What happened next?" "How did you respond?")
2. Using language *responsively* to *adjust* to the needs of the listener or situation
   - Using different language with friends and parents
   - Providing appropriate background information so listeners can understand what you are saying
3. *Using the rules* for conversations and storytelling that are appropriate for the context and culture
   - Being an effective conversational partner by taking turns, listening, asking questions
   - Interpreting the expressions and facial signals of the other person
   - Providing appropriate cues verbally and nonverbally so your communication is understandable

What do students do who have difficulties with pragmatics, and what can you do to assist them? Students who have pragmatic problems are likely to say inappropriate or unrelated things. For example, another student may be telling a story about a movie she saw, and the student with pragmatic problems may interrupt with an unrelated comment. Sometimes students with pragmatic difficulties do not pick up on social cues and are perceived as inappropriate, making these students less popular and perhaps isolated by peers.

What are some of the things you can do as a teacher to improve the language development of students who have difficulties with pragmatics?

Use Role-Play Consider role-playing to simulate different situations in which the targeted pragmatic skills are required. Ms. Peterson uses role-playing in her class so that students will have some idea what it will feel like when they are in a situation that requires them to communicate in a certain way or for a specific purpose. Last week the students had to ask each other for directions to their houses during pretend telephone conversations. This week students are practicing how to ask questions during a simulated science lesson.

Use Pictures or Simulations Some students have difficulty discriminating different nonverbal and verbal communication that accompanies various feelings. By using pantomime or pictures, students can determine what feelings are being expressed and can discuss the cues that helped them determine the feelings. Encourage students to attend to other students' feelings by using such statements as "You look like you're feeling . . . " or "I bet you feel really . . . " or "I can't tell how you're feeling."

Use Conversations Conversations work well as a framework for teaching functional language. Conversations about topics that are familiar to the students or about common experiences can serve as ideal situations for building students' pragmatic skills. Teachers can serve as facilitators by assisting students in using the following conversational skills:

Desired Language Function	Suggested Question or Comment
Comment	"What did you do?"
	"Tell me about . . ."
Request	"Tell your friend . . ."
	"What do you want?"
Question	"Ask me"

Planning Instruction for Students Who Are Culturally and Linguistically Diverse

What are the strategies and considerations on which teachers should focus when teaching culturally and linguistically diverse learners? As a teacher, you will have students from many different cultures and students who are in the process of acquiring English as a second language or second dialect. You may or may not be familiar with the culture and language of these students. Still, it will be important for these students to feel comfortable in your class.

MyLab Education
Video Example 6.3

In this video, students from different cultural backgrounds share their experiences about learning to speak English and adapt to a new school when they arrived in the United States. What strategies and considerations should guide teachers as they plan instruction for students who are culturally and linguistically diverse?

Diversity

Francisco is a good example of a culturally and linguistically diverse student. He emigrated from Costa Rica to Nebraska at the age of 4 with his parents and siblings. Francisco and his family now live in a Spanish-speaking

community within Omaha. Francisco entered school at age 5 with Spanish as his first language and only limited knowledge of English. This situation is common for children who emigrate from countries in Central and South America, Asia and the Pacific Islands, and Eastern Europe. Teachers' knowledge of second-language acquisition and general instructional guidelines can help to make school a success for students like Francisco by helping them view their home language and culture as assets while also learning English (Goldenberg, Reese, & Rezaei, 2011; Temple. Ogle, Crawford, & Freppon, 2018). Effective teachers do the following:

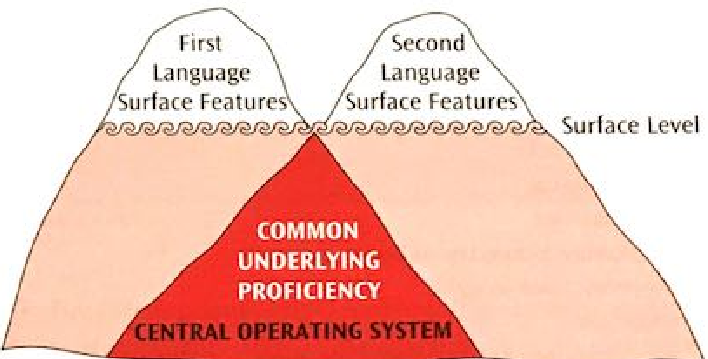
- Have high expectations of their students, and believe that all students are capable of academic success.
- See themselves as members of the community, and see teaching as a way to give back to the community.
- Believe in diversity, meeting individual student needs, and interacting with other teachers to support shared decision making.
- Display a sense of confidence in their ability to succeed with students who are culturally and linguistically diverse.
- Honor the languages of the students in their class by recognizing these languages as valuable and acquiring even a few words from each language.
- Communicate directions clearly, pace lessons appropriately, involve the students in decisions, monitor students' progress, and provide feedback.

Second-Language Acquisition

When students are acquiring a second language, an important variable is the degree of acquisition or proficiency in the first language. A review of research concluded that the better developed the students' first-language proficiency and conceptual foundation, the more likely they were to develop similarly high levels of proficiency and conceptual ability in the second language (August, Shanahan, & Escamilla, 2009; Cummins, 2017).

Figure 6.9 Iceberg Analogy of Language Proficiency

SOURCE: Adapted from J. Cummins, *Bilingualism and Minority Language Children* (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1980). Reprinted with permission of University of Toronto Press. For more information, see Jim Cummins' Second Language Learning and Literacy Development Web (**http://www.iteachilearn.com/cummins**).



As can be seen in Figure 6.9, both languages have separate surface features, represented by two different icebergs. However, less visible below the surface is the underlying proficiency that is common to both languages. For example, Table 6.7 compares the phonological, morphological, and syntactical features in Spanish and English, and Table 6.8 highlights some of the grammatical contrasts in African American Vernacular English and Standard American English (SAE). Regardless of the language a person is using, the thoughts that accompany the talking, reading, writing, and listening come from the same language core.

Teachers may assume that students who can converse easily in their second language are ready to learn new concepts, strategies, and skills in that language, but this is not necessarily the case. For example, when Jong Hoon entered Ms. Dembrow's third-grade class, she immediately noticed that he conversed easily with the other students in the class and with her. Jong Hoon had emigrated from Korea 2 years earlier and had begun learning English through the school's English as a second language (ESL) program. His parents are also studying English in a night course and feel

Table 6.7 Comparison of Spanish and English Languages

Phonological	Morphological	Syntactical
Fewer vowel sounds: no short *a* (hat), short *i* (fish), short *u* (up), short double *o* (took), or schwa (sofa)	*de* (of) used to show possession: *Joe's pen* becomes *the pen of Joe*	Use of *no* for *not:* He no do his homework.
Fewer consonant sounds: no /j/ (jump), /v/ (vase), /z/ (zipper), /sh/ (shoe), /Γ/ (sing), /hw/ (when), /zh/ (beige)	*más* (more) used to show comparison: *faster* becomes *more fast*	No auxiliary verbs: She no play soccer.
Some possible confusions:		Adjectives after nouns: the car blue
/b/ pronounced /p/: *cab* becomes *cap*		Agreement of adjectives: the elephants bigs
/j/ pronounced /y/: *jet* becomes *yet*		No inversion of question: Anna is here?
/Γ/ pronounced as /n/: *thing* becomes *thin*		Articles with professional titles: I went to the Dr. Rodriguez.
/v/ pronounced as /b/: *vote* becomes *boat*		
/y/ pronounced as /j/: *yes* becomes *jes*		
/sk/, /sp/, /st/ pronounced as /esk/, /esp/, /est/: *speak* becomes *espeak*		
/a/ pronounced as /e/: *bat* becomes *bet*		
/i/ pronounced as /ē/: *hit* becomes *heat*		
/ē/ pronounced as /i/: *heal* becomes *hill*		
/u/ pronounced as /o/: *hut* becomes *hot*		
/o͝o/ pronounced as /o͞o/: *look* becomes *Luke*		

Source: Adapted from C. A. O'Brien, *Teaching the Language-Different Child to Read* (Columbus, OH: C. E. Merrill, 1973).

Table 6.8 Grammatical Contrasts Between African American English and Standard American English (SAE)

African American English Grammatical Structure	SAE Grammatical Structure
Possessive -'s	
Nonobligatory word where word position expresses possession	Obligatory regardless of position
Get *mother* coat.	Get *mother's* coat.
It be mother's.	It's mother's.
Plural -s	
Nonobligatory with numerical quantifier	Obligatory regardless of numerical quantifier
He got ten *dollar*.	He has ten *dollars*.
Look at the cat.	Look at the cats.
Regular past -ed	
Nonobligatory; reduced as consonant cluster	Obligatory
Yesterday, I *walk* to school.	Yesterday, I *walked* to school.
Irregular past	
Case by case, some verbs inflected, others not	All irregular verbs inflected
I see him last week.	I *saw* him last week.
Regular present-tense, third-person singular -s	
Nonobligatory	Obligatory
She *eat* too much.	She *eats* too much.
Irregular present-tense, third-person singular -s	
Nonobligatory	Obligatory
He *do* my job.	He *does* my job.
Indefinite an	
Use of indefinite a [change "a" to italics]	Use of *an* before nouns beginning with a vowel
He ride in a airplane.	He rode in *an* airplane.
Pronouns	
Pronominal apposition: pronoun immediately follows noun	Pronoun used elsewhere in sentence or in other sentence; not in apposition
Momma *she* mad. She . . .	Momma is mad. *She* . . .
Future tense	
More frequent use of *be going to* (gonna)	More frequent use of *will*
I *be going to* dance tonight.	I *will* dance tonight.
I gonna dance tonight.	I *am going to* dance tonight.
Omit *will* preceding *be*	Obligatory use of *will*
I *be* home later.	I *will* (I'll) *be* home later.
Negation	
Triple negative	Absence of triple negative
Nobody don't never like me.	*No one ever* likes me.
Use of *ain't*.	*Ain't* is unacceptable form
I *ain't* going.	*I'm not* going.
Modals	
Double modals for such forms as *might*, *could*, and *should*	Single modal use
I *might could* go.	I *might be able to* go.
Questions	
Same form for direct and indirect	Different forms for direct and indirect
What *it is?*	What *is it?*
Do you know what *it is?*	*Do you know* what *it is?*
Relative pronouns	
Nonobligatory in most cases	Nonobligatory with *that* only
He the one stole it.	He's the one *who* stole it.
It the one you like.	It's the one (that) you like.
Conditional if	
Use of *do* for conditional *if*	Use of *if*
I ask *did* she go.	I asked *if* she went.

African American English Grammatical Structure	SAE Grammatical Structure
Perfect construction	
Been used for action in the distant past	*Been* not used
He *been* gone.	He left a long time ago.
Copula	
Nonobligatory when contractible	Obligatory in contractible and noncontractible forms
He sick.	He's sick.
Habitual or general state	
Marked with uninflected *be*	Nonuse of *be*; verb inflected
She *be* workin'.	She's *working* now.

Source: Robert E. Owens, Jr., *Language Disorders: A Functional Approach to Assessment and Intervention* (Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon, 2010). Copyright © 2017 by Pearson Education. Reprinted by permission of the publisher. Data drawn from Baratz (1968); Fasold & Wolfram (1970); R. Williams & Wolfram (1977).

that learning English is important for their economic and personal success in America. Still, Korean is the language that the family speaks primarily in the home. Jong Hoon's language acquisition experiences illustrate the four components described by Ovando and Collier (1998): language development, academic development, cognitive development, and sociocultural processes.

Other teaching strategies and accommodations include the following:

- Simplify your language, but continue to use more complex language as the students' understanding progresses.
- Repeat important phrases, and emphasize key vocabulary.
- Demonstrate concepts; use manipulatives.
- Adapt the materials; don't water down the content.
- Include both language development and content vocabulary development.
- Brainstorm with the whole group.
- Provide direct experiences (e.g., read sources, watch videos).
- Increase wait time.
- Respond to the *message*, not to the correctness of the pronunciation or grammar.
- Don't force reluctant students to speak.
- Pair or group native speakers together.
- Use cooperative learning and peer-group strategies.
- Learn as much as you can about your students' languages and cultures.
- Build on the students' prior knowledge.
- Bring the students' home languages and cultures into the classroom and curriculum.
- Use photos, pictures, and videos to illustrate key ideas and concepts.
- Provide advanced organizers of the "big ideas" of what you are teaching—review these ideas.
- Provide language objectives for every lesson.
- Provide students with opportunities to turn and talk with a partner to express their ideas with one other student.
- Allow students to provide key word answers rather than complete sentences.
- Teach key vocabulary and concepts.
- Monitor students' progress to ensure success.

For example, as Ms. Dembrow became familiar with Jong Hoon, she realized that while his conversational skills made him a comfortable member of the classroom community (*language development*), he was not proficient in academic tasks such as reading and writing in English (*academic development*). She also found that in social studies and science, it was important for her to provide lots of context for teaching new concepts (*cognitive development*). When Ms. Dembrow referred Jong Hoon for possible special education services because of his difficulty with academics, she was not aware of typical patterns of second-language acquisition difficulties. But in problem-solving discussions with the bilingual speech-language pathologist and ESL teacher, she learned that different timelines for developing academic knowledge and skills are to be expected and should not be confused with reading disabilities (*sociocultural processes*).

Web Resources

For additional information on ESL students, check out the following websites:

- The Institute for Education Sciences publishes a practice guide with videos on English language learners: **www.ies.ed.gov**.
- The Center for Research on Educational Achievement and Teaching of English Language Learners provides materials and resources: **www.cal.org/create**.
- The Association of Supervisors and Curriculum Development provides information on English language learners: **www.ascd.org**.

Working with Families to Extend Language Concepts

How can teachers work with families to develop students' language skills? Children are more likely to learn new vocabulary and language structures when they are active participants in their learning and can practice new concepts in different contexts (home and school). Keep all language activities short and fun so that parents/guardians do not view communication as homework. In planning language activities, it is also important to be aware of cultural and linguistic differences in the home. If a family does not speak English, encourage the student to complete these activities in the language used at home. The following are some suggestions for using newly learned language concepts in a variety of environments:

- Send home a short description or picture of a recent classroom activity or field trip. Encourage parents/guardians to ask open-ended rather than closed questions about the activity. For example, a parent might say, "I understand that you made a papier-mâché vase today. How did you do that?"
- Inform parents/guardians of new vocabulary that children are learning. Have children write a note to their families about what they learned. A child might say, "I learned the word *notorious* today."
- Have children remember new words they hear and bring them to class. Create a word "treasure chest," and encourage the children to be vocabulary "hunters."
- Inform parents of new social language concepts that their children have practiced in class. Have children describe the concept to their families. For instance, a child might say, "I learned what to say if someone is bullying me." Encourage families to practice similar role-plays with the child at home.
- When possible, have students ask their parents questions about topics that they are learning in class. For example, if the class is discussing the food pyramid, have the children ask their families about favorite foods, and set aside a time for them to report to the class on their findings.
- To practice figurative language, have children tell jokes or word puns to their families at home.
- To practice asking questions and listening skills, have students ask their families about hypothetical situations discussed in class. Themes may come from journal topics such as "What would you do if you had a million dollars?"
- Encourage families to discuss books that they read with their children. Send home some tips to encourage discussion around a book (e.g., talk about the pictures, relate the story to the child's own experiences).

Response to Intervention: Working with the Speech-Language Teacher

How can special education teachers work with language specialists to implement RTI? The role of the school-based speech-language teacher has changed significantly in the past decades because of legislative changes in special education. Traditionally, the speech-language teacher has used a clinical/medical model of assessment and intervention, treating students individually or in small groups in a separate resource room. However, educational reforms have increased participation of students with disabilities in the general education classroom. In particular, RTI has provided opportunities for increasing interaction among classroom teachers, special education teachers, and speech-language personnel.

MyLab Education
Video Example 6.4
In this video, the teacher describes the process of reaching out to families of students who have limited language skill. How did this process promote Pablo's progress?

RTI models have provided many speech-language teachers opportunities to work closely with other school professionals and parents in a team model, using a combination of direct and indirect service methods to promote language development and assist students with communication disorders. In addition to providing individual or group therapy, these teachers may also collaborate with classroom teachers to develop modifications and strategies for students within the classroom. The role of the speech-language teacher may vary owing to differences in caseload, state or district regulations, and staffing needs. ASHA (**www.asha.org**) recognizes that RTI provides interesting and valuable new roles and responsibilities for the speech-language educator, in addition to new challenges. With respect to assessment, as districts move from more formal models of assessment to ongoing assessments, speech-language therapists will need to shift their assessment procedures as well so that they think about assessment as it contributes to decision making about student progress. This will require educators to administer more instructionally relevant assessments more frequently.

Assessment and Intervention

Speech-language therapists may also engage in expanded roles related to prevention and intervention. For example,

they may assist in schoolwide screening to identify students with early literacy and oral language problems, may assist in developing and/or delivering appropriate prevention practices schoolwide, and may provide interventions to students with communication difficulties.

Speech-language teachers may help students with language difficulties within the school setting in a variety of ways. For students with literacy and language difficulties, they may

- Collaborate with classroom teachers to implement developmentally appropriate language arts and literacy programs.
- Assist in modifying and selecting language and instructional strategies that integrate oral and written communication skills.
- Provide information and training to school personnel regarding the linguistic bases of reading and writing.
- Provide information and support for parents of at-risk children regarding language and literacy activities in the home environment.
- Collaborate with reading professionals and classroom teachers to augment the success of students with language and reading impairments.

For students having difficulties with social-emotional communication skills, speech-language teachers may

- Provide information regarding the link between social-emotional problems and social communication skills (pragmatics).
- Assist in training school staff to use effective verbal and nonverbal communication strategies in conflict resolution.
- Demonstrate lessons to enhance pragmatic communication skills (problem solving, social communication).

What can speech and language therapists do to promote RTI in their schools? Several suggestions include (Carta et al., 2014; Ehren, Montgomery, Rudebusch, & Whitmire, 2006; Fletcher & Vaughn, 2009):

- Explain the role of language in curriculum and instruction.
- Provide research-based knowledge on language screening and assessment.
- Provide research-based knowledge on effective language interventions.
- Assist in identifying screening measures.
- Provide professional development on language.
- Interpret the school-level progress in addressing intervention needs of students.
- Participate in the development and implementation of progress monitoring.
- Consult with teachers on issues related to RTI and language intervention.
- Provide supportive language instruction in both Tier 1 (classroom) and Tier 2 (intervention) groupings.
- Help families understand the language basis of literacy and learning.

Involving speech-language therapists in the RTI model implemented schoolwide involves communication and collaboration, but the benefits for teachers, students, and parents are significant.

Instructional Activities

This section provides instructional activities related to oral language. Some of the activities teach new skills; others are best suited for practice and reinforcement of already acquired skills. For each activity, the objective, materials, and teaching procedures are described. When possible, use these activities to reinforce the oral language within the curriculum content (current vocabulary or class topic). See Figure 6.10 for a description of selected materials addressing critical components of language development.

Partner Talk

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to produce and orally share ideas and thoughts about a topic (including responses to comprehension questions).

Grades: Primary

Materials: Two or three questions for discussion prepared beforehand by the teacher. These may be comprehension questions (literal and interpretive) or any type of questions for discussion.

Teaching Procedures: Have all students find a partner and sit knee to knee, facing each other. Tell the students you would like them to respond to the question you are going to ask. Ask the question, then allow 2 to 3 minutes for students to think of their individual responses. Instruct each member of the pair to take a turn responding to the question, and then to discuss their responses together. For example, if using story comprehension questions, students might discuss what each student thinks will happen next in the story, what each thinks is the story problem, or what each might have done differently if he or she were the main character. After 3 to 5 minutes, ask students to return to the larger group, and invite them to share their responses.

Adaptations: This activity can be adapted for older students by having them write responses or new endings to stories together.

Chef for a Day

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to offer a detailed explanation while using ordinal words (*first*, *second*, *next*, etc.).

Grades: Primary

Materials: 8½ × 11-inch card stock, about five sheets per student

Teaching Procedures: Tell students that they will be explaining to their classmates how to make their favorite meal or snack. Students should draw pictures of the ingredients and steps in the process on separate sheets of card stock (ingredients on one sheet, each step in the process on a separate, additional sheet) and should number their sheets of paper to correspond to the order of steps in the process. Students then share their recipes with their classmates.

Younger students may only provide two or three steps in the process, whereas older students may have more than five steps. Monitor student progress, and suggest adding or combining steps on the sheets of paper as needed. Encourage the students to use specific vocabulary (e.g., *mix*, *stir*, *pour*, *combine*, and *spread*) rather than general vocabulary (e.g., *put*) in their explanations. The recipes should not be too simple (with too few steps to adequately create the snack) or too complicated (so many details that the process is not well understood).

Adaptations: Have students work in pairs or groups to create the recipe. Have students write some or all of the words in their recipe (this is a good activity for practicing the command form of verbs). If more than one student chooses the same snack, have them compare their recipes to notice similarities and differences in the ways each makes the same snack. Try to make the food item following one of the student's directions.

Creature from Outer Space

Objective: To provide students with opportunities for elaboration in response to "wh-" questions regarding concrete, everyday objects and actions (not in response to a story).

Grades: 2 to 5

Materials: Everyday classroom objects

Teaching Procedures: Tell the class that you are a space creature who has just landed on planet Earth. You are trying to gather information about life on Earth to take back to share with scientists on your planet. Then ask about anything in the room, and follow up student responses with additional questions that require further elaboration or definition. For example:

Teacher: What is this?
Student: It's a pair of scissors.
Teacher: What are scissors?
Student: You use them to cut paper.
Teacher: What is paper?
Student: It's something you write on.
Teacher: What is writing?
Student: It's making words on paper.
Teacher: Why do you make words on paper?

Figure 6.10 Selected Materials for Teaching Language

Programs and Games for Global Language Development

HELP (2004) by Andrea M. Lazzari and Patricia M. Peters. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.

Activities include practice on linguistic concepts, paraphrasing activities, thinking and problem-solving tasks, and pragmatic skills as well as language in daily life. Exercises include describing objects and defining words, reading and listening, and applying language skills.

Language Lessons in the Classroom (2003) by Susan Diamond. Phoenix, AZ: ECL Publications.

This book contains over 140 reproducible language activities designed for use in the classroom or by parents at home and designed to stimulate language development and facilitate effective communication skills.

Each language lesson includes: language objectives, materials needed (if any), appropriate grade levels, activity procedure, and consultation ideas. Focuses primarily on students in grades K–5.

Peabody Language Development Kits (copyright 2009) by L. M. Dunn, J. O. Smith, K. B. Horton, and D. D. Smith. San Antonio, TX: Pearson.

This program consists of lessons and materials in a kit that includes lesson manuals, picture cards grouped by categories, puppets to demonstrate concepts, posters depicting scenes and stories, sound books of sound and song activities, and colored chips for manipulation activities such as counting, sequencing, and grouping.

Programs for Auditory Processing

Listen My Children, and You Shall Hear (3rd ed.; 2008) by Betty Lou Kratoville. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

This revision of classic stories addresses listening comprehension, vocabulary development, and auditory memory. The third edition improves on the previous edition by combining all of the activities into a single, comprehensive volume. Stories have been updated and a reproducible tracking form for tracking progress is provided at the end of the book.

50 Quick-Play Listening Games (2005) by Kelly Malone, Karen Stontz, and Paul F. Johnson. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.

This book contains ready-to-copy games that reflect classroom listening demands, including phonological awareness, identifying the main idea and details, and following directions. The games are easy to play and may be used individually or in small groups. Intended for grades K–5.

100% Listening 2-Book Set (2002) by LinguiSystems, Inc. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.

This two-book set targets classroom listening skills necessary at both the primary and intermediate levels. Skills are presented sequentially and mirror daily classroom situations. The books are also sold separately. Targets grades K–5.

Programs and Games for Vocabulary Development and Word Retrieval

Library of Vocabulary Photographs (2010). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

One of the essential tools for building vocabulary is to have a collection of pictures to use to demonstrate key words. The complete kit contains more than 600 photographs with the key words on the back. These photographs represent clothing items, community members, appliances, fruits and nuts, parts of the house and the body, tools, toys, recreation, sports, etc. Kits representing each of the areas (e.g., community members), can be purchased separately.

50 Quick-Play Vocabulary Games (2004) by Paul F. Johnson and Patti Halfman. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.

The games included in this resource target thematic vocabulary (such as animals, transportation, and space) and vocabulary skills (such as figurative language, context clues, and abbreviations). The path and card games will help engage your students target vocabulary needs. Intended for grades 1–6.

125 Vocabulary Builders (2000) by Linda Bowers, Rosemary Huisingh, Carolyn LoGiudice, Jane Orman, and Paul F. Johnson. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.

A book of paper-and-pencil tasks for students aged 10–15. These tasks are designed to provide practice with newly acquired vocabulary words.

Concept Builders (2008) by C. Weiner, J. Creighton, and T. S. Lyons. Pearson, Oxford, UK.

These materials are designed to help children explore 43 basic language concepts through active participation in fun activities and conversations. A concept board and pictures for each language concept (e.g., wet/dry) can be copied. Students respond to your questions, such as "Water is ___?" The child chooses which side of the board to place the pictures by asking questions for each picture, for example, "Is this object wet or dry?" Materials are designed to provide interactive dialogue and questioning in conversations with parents, teachers, and/or speech-language teachers.

10 Quick-Play Folder Games: Associations (2005) by Lauri Whiskeyman and Barb Truman. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.

One in a series of folder games (targeting skills such as categories, rhyming, and concepts), this kit contains five double-sided game boards that are ready to play. Targeted skills include describing functions, assigning categories, and reviewing words with multiple meanings. Also available in Spanish. Intended for grades PreK–4.

The Word Book (2010) by E. H. Wiig and E. Freedman. Knowledge Research Institute.

A book of activities designed for teachers or other personnel interested in promoting word and concept learning with youngsters.

(continued)

igure 6.10 *(Continued)*

Rocky's Mountain: A Word-Finding Game (1999) by Gina V. Williamson and Susan S. Shields. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.
A board game that assists children ages 4–9 with acquiring one of four word-finding strategies. The four strategies are visual imagery, word association, sound/letter cueing, and categorization.
10 Quick-Play Folder Games: Vocabulary (2007) by LinguiSystems. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.
The games in the set address many skills necessary for vocabulary acquisition. Stimulus items are presented in both Spanish and English. Intended for ages 9–13.

Programs and Games for Grammar

Connect-A-Card (2008). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.
Students use cards to build oral sentences, including complex and compound sentences. Using two picture phrase cards and a conjunction card representing 15 of the most commonly used conjunctions including *and, but, although, because.* Designed for all ages; primarily used for ages 6–12.
Teaching Morphology Developmentally (Revised) (2008) by Kenneth G. Shipley and Carolyn J. Banis. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.
This program is designed for students aged 2.5 to 10. Activities for teaching bound morphemes include present progressive, plurals, possessives, past tenses, third-person singulars, and superlatives. Includes 552 stimulus cards, a manual, and a reproducible worksheet manual.
Grammar Scramble: A Grammar and Sentence-Building Game (1998) by Rick and Linda Bowers. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.
A board game with a crossword puzzle format in which students have to intersect sentences. Appropriate for students ages 8 to adult, this program is useful for developing carryover skills for grammar.
100% Grammar (1997) by Mike and Carolyn LoGiudice. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.
A series of paper-and-pencil activities designed to teach essential grammar components for students aged 9–14. The program includes pretests and posttests for each concept, making it helpful for charting progress. Also available in a "LITE" edition with practice items that have fewer contextual demands than the items in the regular edition.
Scissors, Glue, and Grammar, Too! (1996) by Susan Boegler and Debbie Abruzzini. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.
Cut-and-paste activities for students aged 4–9. Engaging activities to reinforce regular and irregular verbs, comparatives and superlatives, possessive pronouns, "wh-" questions, and more.
Gram's Cracker: A Grammar Game (2000) by Julie Cole. East Moline, IL: LinguiSystems, Inc.
Students "help" the mouse get to his hole by practicing grammar concepts such as use of pronouns, possessives, past-tense verbs, comparatives, superlatives, copulas, present progressive verbs, and negatives. This game has four levels of difficulty (identification, multiple-choice, sentence completion, and sentence formulation). It is designed for students aged 4–9.

Programs for Pragmatics

Exploring Pragmatic Language (2008) by M. B. Bernarding. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.
Two game boards provide opportunities to develop and use pragmatic-language skills with thematic game activities. More than 50 activity-barrier games addressing inferences, guessing, storytelling, and question-and-answer. Designed for students aged 6–14.
Pragmatic Activities for Language Intervention (2008) by Rhea Paul. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.
Lessons involve conversational language in a variety of activities including crafts, role-playing, and puppetry. Lessons address developing early words, semantic relations, and word combinations with young children; teaching preschoolers syntax, vocabulary, and concepts needed for communication and school readiness; and assisting older children with the transition from oral language to literacy with metalinguistic activities and complex language forms and concepts.
Conversations: A Framework for Language Intervention (1996) by Barbara Hoskins. Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.
Offers professionals a framework for facilitating conversational interaction with individuals aged 9 and up who are having difficulty with communication skills. This resource provides the facilitator with plans for helping groups of individuals work together to become more effective conversational partners. Conversations provide many specific activities and suggestions. Professionals may also use them to generate, adapt, and develop other productive ways of working with these varying age groups.
Who? What? When? . . . And More (1999) by Pro-Ed, Inc. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed, Inc.
This board game requires players to answer a mix of "wh-" questions. Intended for ages 6–12.

At some point (before students become frustrated), you an tell them you understand and then move on to the next bject (or continue the next day).

daptations: For younger children, use a puppet to repesent the alien creature. This activity can be made more difficult by asking more *how* and *why* questions and by selecting things in the classroom that will require higher levels of thought and explanation (e.g., asking about a poem on the wall or about a science experiment). This is also a great activity to check understanding of new vocabulary.

What Did You Say?

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to practice saying things in different ways for different purposes.

Grades: 1 to 5

Materials: None

Teaching Procedures: This activity helps students understand how the same thing can be said in very different ways (intonation and wording), depending on the context of the situation and the person being spoken to. Have students say the following words, phrases, and sentences using different intonations, given the contexts that follow each:

"Hello"

- To the principal
- To their best friend
- To a baby
- To a person they don't like
- When answering the phone

"Good-bye"

- To their best friend at the end of the day
- To their teacher
- To a friend who is moving away
- To their mom on the phone
- To someone they don't know on the phone

"How are you?"

- As if they were a teacher asking a student at the beginning of the day
- To a friend who is sick
- To a classmate who seems sad
- To someone they just met

Adaptations: Have students think of different words or expressions they could use instead of the preceding words in quotations. For example, a student may say "Hi!" or "Hey!" to his best friend instead of "Hello." Use simple puppets (e.g., pictures on popsicle sticks) to assist the students in adopting different roles. Have older students practice more complex language tasks in different contexts (making requests, asking for advice, describing a past event).

Which One Doesn't Belong?

Objective: To have students identify specific relationships among vocabulary words that they have learned.

Grades: 1 to 5

Materials: Weekly vocabulary words as a foundation for a list of four words, three of which are related according to a specific dimension and one is not. (They do not necessarily need to be written for students.) You may need to use other, related words in the activity to provide relationships to your target vocabulary words. This will vary according to the idea or concept and the students' ability level.

Teaching Procedures: Tell students that you are going to play a game that will help them think about the main idea you are stressing, for example, colors, animal groups, or important events in state history. You will tell them four words or phrases, and they are to tell you which one of the four does not belong with the others and why. Tell the students the four items. Next have the students tell you which are related and why. Then have them tell you why the fourth is not related to the other three. For example, if one of the weekly vocabulary words is *valley*, the teacher may write *valley, mountain, river,* and *desert* on the board. Students explain why *valley, mountain,* and *desert* are similar and why *river* is different. You may also ask them to generate other words in the same category.

Adaptations: Have younger students choose from items that can be visualized, such as colors, animals, or objects. The difficulty of the task can be reduced by having the actual objects or pictures of the objects for the students to see or by having the students visualize the objects. Older students can choose more successfully from the idea and concept level, although visuals to trigger knowledge may be helpful.

It's for Sale!

Objective: To have students use language to elaborate and persuade.

Grades: 3 to 6 or above (maybe grade 2 at a much simpler level)

Materials: Slips of paper with various products on each one, either written or as pictures from a magazine (e.g., camera, soccer ball, car, perfume or makeup, specific shoes, etc.)

Teaching Procedures: This can be done in small- or large-group format on one day or with a few students a day across many days. Students should be familiar with skills used in persuasion before undertaking this activity.

Ask students to draw a slip of paper or an item from a jar or hat. Allow them a short but sufficient amount of time to gather their initial thoughts about the item; then give each student 5 minutes to try to "sell" the product to the class or small group. The goal is for students to convince their classmates that they really need or want this product.

After the student is finished, allow classmates 5 minutes to ask the student questions about the product; the "salesperson" will have to come up with answers to support

her case and/or further descriptions of the product (these, of course, may be invented).

Adaptations: Students can be given extra points for including recent idioms or vocabulary in their presentation. After students ask questions of the "salesperson," have them raise their hands to show whether they would want to buy the product. Whoever "sells" the most wins. Students can also work in groups rather than individually to present the product. Have older students try to sell an idea rather than a product. For example, if you have been studying the food pyramid and nutrition, you could write on a piece of paper: "It's important to eat vegetables." The student who draws this paper has to give a persuasive argument for eating vegetables.

Scavenger Hunt

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to consider and state relationships between two objects.

Grades: Kindergarten to grade 2 (see the Adaptations section for a similar activity for students in grades 3 to 5)

Materials: Different items from around the classroom or ones typically found in a house (e.g., envelope, ruler, paintbrush, book, spatula, sponge, cookie cutter)

TEACHING PROCEDURE: Prepare a list of pairs of seemingly unrelated items in advance (e.g., book and paintbrush). Tell each student the pair of items he or she is to find (or have pictures of the items for younger students; for older students, write the names of the objects). Direct students to look for the items. When they find them, have students talk about the two objects—how they are alike, how they are different, how they are used, and how they might go together. In the example of book and paintbrush, a child might be able to relate the two objects by saying that the illustrator used a paintbrush to make the pictures in the book. For an example, such as pencil and paintbrush, they are alike because both are used to write or draw, but they are different because a paintbrush also needs paint in order to write or draw. For kindergarten students, the comparisons will need to be simpler and more concrete than for older students.

Adaptations: Adapt this game for students in grades 3 to 5 by having them compare two nouns (or any other types of words or parts of grammar that are being studied). Prepare 30 to 40 word cards with nouns on them (this is great for reviewing and practicing new vocabulary). Divide the class into two groups. Give the first two students in each group a word card each. Direct the two students from each group to work together to create a sentence comparing the two nouns. The first pair to create a sentence wins a point for their team. Continue until one of the teams reaches a predetermined goal and wins the game.

Daydream Chair

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to generate ideas about and elaborate on concepts or future story events.

Grades: 1 to 4

Materials: A special chair in the classroom (e.g., a rocking chair or a director's chair)

Teaching Procedures: Ask a few students each day to take turns sitting in the "Daydream Chair," describing what they each would do if they were a certain person or object (or, for older students, in a certain situation).

Adaptations: Ask younger students what they would do if they were a famous person, a tree, a book, a paintbrush, or a similar object. Vary the object or person by student so that each is describing something different. This can also be done in relation to occupations, by having students discuss what people in different occupations do as part of their jobs. To assist the students in portraying their character, have them hold a picture of the person or object in front of them as they are speaking in the first person (e.g., "I am an astronaut . . . "). Older students can be asked similar questions about what they would do, would have done, or might do in the future if they were a particular character from a story. Vary characters by student.

Find the Way

Objective: To provide students with practice in giving and interpreting directions.

Grades: All grades

Materials: (1) Maps of different areas. For example, use a map of the school for younger students, and use a map of the local area, the state, or the area you are studying in social studies for older students. The map should be labeled. (2) Put the names of places on the map and on small cards so that the cards can be drawn during the game.

Teaching Procedures: One student is designated as "It." This student is given a map and draws a card that gives the name of the place she is to find. The student draws the route on her map. The other students are given the same map, but they do not know the destination or the route. Without showing the map to the other students, the student who is "It" must describe, by using words only, how to get to the destination. The other students are allowed to ask three questions to help clarify the directions.

To modify this exercise into a game format, the student can receive a point for each time she is successful in directing the other students to the location. After a student has finished, discuss how she was effective in giving directions, and make recommendations to improve her language abilities.

Adaptations: A similar format can be used with one student directing the other students on a treasure hunt.

Many Meanings

Objective: To give students practice with using homonyms and words with multiple meanings.

Grades: Intermediate and secondary

Materials: (1) Any generic game board with a die or spinner and pieces to serve as players. (2) A variety of meaning cards and homonyms or words that have multiple meanings (e.g., *heal/heel, meet/meat*) written on one side.

Teaching Procedures: Have the students set up the game, and clarify the rules. For each turn, a student rolls the die or spins the spinner. The student then picks a card and uses each homonym in a separate sentence to show the difference between the meanings of the words or the multiple meanings. If the student's sentences reflect correct meanings, he moves the marker the number of spaces shown on the die or spinner. If the student is unable to make a sentence, other students may help him, but the student cannot move the marker. The first student to reach the finish line wins.

Adaptations: Have the students work in teams, or have the students give definitions of the words rather than using them in sentences.

Surprise Pouches

Objective: To give students practice in describing objects.

Grades: Primary

Materials: (1) A cloth pouch with a drawstring. (2) Small objects that will fit in the pouch.

Teaching Procedures: Place a small object in the pouch, and have one student in the group feel the object without looking in the pouch. The student cannot give the name of the object but must describe it. The student describes what she feels while the rest of the students in the group try to guess what is in the pouch. When the student who is feeling the object thinks the other students have guessed correctly, she takes the object out to see whether the students are right. Have the students discuss how the descriptive words helped them guess the object. For example, "Smooth and round made me think it was a ball."

Put a new object in the pouch, and have another student describe the object. Each student should get several turns at describing the objects.

I Spy

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to practice and develop descriptive vocabulary.

Grades: Elementary

Materials: Objects in the surrounding environment or vocabulary words

Teaching Procedures: Locate an object in the environment. Provide the students with clues that describe the object, using the stem "I spy . . . ." Examples might be "I spy something that has green, narrow leaves" or "I spy something that has rough bark." After each clue, the students try to guess what you are spying. The first person to identify the object becomes the next person to select an object and describe it.

Adaptations: For some students, you may need to assist in picking an object and giving "I spy" clues. If your weekly vocabulary list includes adjectives, give the students extra points for using those words in their descriptions. For older children, place a written list of vocabulary words on the board, and ask them to describe words from that list in the game.

The Add-On Game

Objective: To provide students with practice in listening to each other while categorizing and making associations between words within a topic.

Grades: Primary

Materials: Starter phrases that allow students to develop a list. For example:

- I went to the desert, and I saw . . .
- I went up in space, and I saw . . .
- I went back in time, and I saw . . .

Teaching Procedures: The students and teacher sit in a circle. Use a topic from social studies, language arts, or science to start your discussion. For example, if you have been studying animals in the rain forest, a student can begin the game by saying, "I went to the rain forest and saw . . . ." This student names one thing that he might see in the rain forest. The next student in the circle then repeats the sentence, listing the first item and adding another item. The next student repeats both items and adds a third, and so on. This game can be played in two ways. To play competitively, the student is eliminated from the game when he cannot list all the items. The last student to remain in the game wins. To play cooperatively, the object of the game is for the group to beat the number of items remembered in previous games. To keep all students in the game, each student may be allowed two assists from a friend during the game (students are not "out" when incorrect). If a student has already used the two assists, then the number of items the group has correctly remembered is determined and compared to see whether the group beat previous scores.

Adaptations: This can be adapted to current events or holidays (e.g., gifts for holidays or treats received for Halloween).

Round-Robin Stories

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to develop story grammar.

Grades: Elementary

Materials: None required, though a picture of a scene or setting may help students to start the story

Teaching Procedures: To get students ready to start round-robin stories, tell them that they are going to be telling a story as a group and that each student is to build on the story. Using a picture (if available and needed), tell what the story is going to be about. For example, "This story is about a group of friends who want to earn money to buy something." Have the students identify basic components of the story (names of the characters, setting), and begin telling the story. After several sentences, start a sentence, and have one student in the group finish the sentence. Model a variety of sentence starters. For example:

Subordinate Clauses

- When Jimmy went into the store, he . . .
- After Rita saw the dog in the window, she . . .

Direct Quotations

- Then the father said, " . . . "
- Suddenly, Raul screamed, " . . . "

Causal and Conditional Complex Sentences

- She didn't want to buy the brown dog because . . .
- He felt sad because . . .
- If she spent all of her money, she . . .

On the basis of their ending, start another sentence, and have another student finish it. As students become accustomed to this storytelling process, they should be able to build directly on each other's sentences without your having to start each sentence.

Adaptations: Use the same procedure, but use wordless picture books to guide students in telling the story.

Barrier Game

Objective: To provide students with practice in describing how to make something and to provide practice in listening to directions.

Grades: Elementary

Materials: (1) Colored blocks for building objects or crayons for drawing objects. (2) Some type of barrier to block the view between the two students or the student and the teacher.

Teaching Procedures: Divide the class into pairs, and explain the directions to the students. Have the students sit so that the barrier is between them. One student draws a simple picture or builds a simple block design. During or after the building or drawing, the student describes to the other student how to make the design. The other student attempts to duplicate the work and can ask questions to get help. When the second student has finished, remove the barrier and have the students compare their work.

Adaptations: After the students become successful at the activity, the number of questions that can be asked can be limited.

Category Sort

Objective: To provide students with practice in sorting objects or word cards by categories.

Grades: Primary

Materials: (1) Objects or word cards that can be sorted by one or more categories (e.g., colored bears, colored blocks, colored buttons, colored marbles, types of animals, types of food). (2) Word cards that represent categories. (3) Sorting boxes (i.e., small boxes in which the students can sort objects or cards).

Teaching Procedures: Put a category word card next to each box. Demonstrate how to name each object or word card, and then put all the like objects or cards in the same box. Once the student has sorted the objects or cards, she names each category and the objects or cards in each category. The student then talks about what is alike about all the objects or cards in one category. Give older students vocabulary or spelling words to sort. Model how to sort the words in different ways (by meaning, spelling, part of speech, etc.).

Create a Comic

Objective: To provide students with practice in using dialogue and telling stories.

Grades: Intermediate and junior high

Materials: Familiar comic strips or sequences in comic books. Blank out the words in the balloons.

Teaching Procedures: Present the comic strip to the students, and discuss with them what they know about the comic-strip characters, what is happening, and what could be written in each of the balloons. Have the students write in the different balloons. Take turns reading the comic strip, with different students reading what different characters

say. The different comic strips can be put into a comic book that can be shared with other students.

Adaptations: After students are comfortable with this activity, they can illustrate and dictate their own comic strips.

Play the Part

Objective: To provide students with practice in using language during simulations of typical interactions.

Grades: Intermediate and secondary

Materials: Simulation cards. Each card should describe the situation, the characters, and the goal of the language interaction. Some examples follow:

Situation 1: Two friends meet a third person who is an old friend and known to only one of them. *Characters:* New friend, old friend, person making the introductions. *Goal:* Introduce new friend to old friend and get a conversation started among the three of you.

Situation 2: One person approaches another and asks how to find a store about 10 blocks away. *Characters:* Stranger, person giving directions. *Goal:* Give directions that will allow the stranger to find the store.

Situation 3: Two friends are in a store. One tells the other that he intends to steal a small item from the store. *Characters:* Friend, person persuading. *Goal:* Convince the friend not to shoplift.

Teaching Procedures: Explain that each person is to assume the described role and participate as if this were a real situation.

Have the students assume the various characters and discuss what they are going to say in their roles. The students then carry out the role-play. Have the students discuss how effective each person was in using language to accomplish the goal.

Fun with Figurative Language

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to enhance proverb and/or idiom understanding.

Grades: Intermediate and junior high

Materials: Text from class that contains proverbs (e.g., "The early bird catches the worm.") or idioms (e.g., "Keep your head above water.")

Teaching Procedures: Select a proverb or idiom that is easily explained (e.g., "One rotten apple spoils the barrel."), and model how to interpret the meaning. First, examine the literal meaning, and draw a rough picture if necessary. Then examine the context of the proverb, and consider the character's motivations and feelings. Divide students into small groups. Each group may discuss one or two proverbs within the story, using the modeled techniques. In addition, relate the proverb to students' lives and experiences. Discuss when and why a person may use a particular proverb or idiom.

MyLab Education Self-Check 6.1
MyLab Education Self-Check 6.2
MyLab Education Self-Check 6.3
MyLab Education Self-Check 6.4
MyLab Education Self-Check 6.5
MyLab Education Application Exercise 6.1: Components of Language

MyLab Education Application Exercise 6.2: Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students

MyLab Education Application Exercise 6.3: Working with Families to Develop Students' Language Skills

Summary

- Language delays occur either in receptive language (e.g., following directions) or in expressive language (e.g., word finding). Difficulties in either area commonly influence the production and understanding of the content aspect of language, which may lead to difficulty with creative aspects of language, such as understanding and using figurative language. The *form* of language refers to its structure and sound, so for students with language delays, sentences are often shorter and do not progress to contain the same complexity as do the sentences of their peers. *Use*, or pragmatics, is perhaps the most important aspect of language growth. Some students with language difficulties tend to misinterpret meanings and emotions expressed by others and may not be able to express themselves effectively.
- One strategy that promotes *oral* language development includes providing opportunities for students to engage in meaningful conversations. *Content* teaching involves vocabulary development and understanding and applying new concepts. Teaching *form* requires teaching and practicing specific language structures such as prefixes and suffixes. To develop pragmatics, use role-plays or pictures to simulate situations such as greetings, question asking, and expressing emotions.
- Effective instruction for culturally and linguistically diverse learners incorporates two key components. Teachers must both develop the student's English language acquisition and incorporate the student's first language and culture into learning experiences.
- Children are more likely to learn new vocabulary and language structures when they can practice new concepts in different contexts, including home and school. Examples of home activities include informing families of the vocabulary the student is learning at school and encouraging them to discuss these new words with their children; having families ask open-ended questions about activities, books they are reading at home, or current events; and inviting families and children to play with language by telling jokes or making puns.
- Within RTI frameworks, special education teachers can work with language specialists to promote language and literacy development with at-risk students as well as students with special needs by (1) collaborating and coteaching with the general education teacher to promote appropriate language and literacy activities, including modifying and adjusting typical instruction; (2) providing professional development to school personnel regarding the linguistic bases of reading and writing; (3) providing information and support for parents of at-risk children regarding language and literacy activities in the home environment; and (4) demonstrating lessons that promote language and literacy outcomes for at-risk students and students with disabilities.