

CHAPTER

4



Spoken Language



OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this chapter, the reader should be able to:

1. Describe what language is and why it is important.
2. Describe how communication, language, literacy, and speech are related.
3. Understand the relationship between culture and language literacy.
4. Identify the six building blocks of language.
5. Identify the five primary stages of language development.
6. Learn how to distinguish between language differences arising from cultural variation from actual language disorders.
7. Define what constitutes language-based learning disabilities.
8. Understand standardized and nonstandardized approaches to assessing language, with particular emphasis on cultural diversity.
9. Identify a model for teaching spoken language within the framework of state academic learning standards.

WHAT IS LANGUAGE AND WHY IS IT IMPORTANT?

Every culture in the world has some kind of spoken language, and most have a corresponding written language system. There are approximately 5,000 languages in use today, almost a third of them African languages. The most spoken language in today's world is Chinese, followed by Hindi, English, and Spanish. The United States has 176 living languages, that is, languages that are still spoken by at least some native speakers (Ethnologue, n.d.). The most spoken language in the United States is English; the second most spoken is Spanish. Approximately 96% of the people in the United States claim to speak English well or very well (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011b), while Spanish speakers account for approximately 12% of the U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011a).

Most people use language without thinking about what it is, how it works, or how it influences their thinking, relationships, and values, among other things. For most, language is like water to a

fish—essential but not anything to talk about. It's just there, part of the fabric of life. Unlike fish, though, people can survive without language, but at great cost.

One way to think about language is that it is a technology, a system for organizing and expressing what we know (McLuhan, 1964). Language has evolved considerably in the 5,000 years since humans first began using actual speech rather than prearranged signals to communicate with each other. It has become more complex and varied and now functions as a powerful, complex system by which we categorize what we know and think, communicate with others, even develop the values we do.

Some scholars believe that language is the sole means by which we think symbolically, while others believe that language is one of many such symbolic systems, other instances being mathematics, music, formal logic, chess, bridge, digital computer codes, Braille, and various codes (e.g., Morse code), among others. Nonetheless, few people doubt the significance of language as a social tool, a shared code that allows people to communicate with each other. R. E. Owens (2008) suggested that language represents the collective thinking of a culture and that every culture is, in turn, influenced by its language. Facility with the language of one's culture serves as a primary means by which people participate in the relationships, experiences, events, rituals, politics, and learning that comprise everyday life.

People use language to communicate thoughts, ideas, desires, and needs to others. As with any system, language operates through several sets of rules that govern the arrangement of arbitrary symbols in relation to one another. The symbols are arbitrary in that, for instance, the word *chair* is not inherently related to the actual thing we refer to with that word. What is *chair* in English is *silla* in Spanish, *chaise* or *fauteuil* in French, and so on. Obviously, the thing referred to appears as different words in different languages, each an arbitrary designation for the same physical object. The rules of any given language determine how sounds, words and word parts, and phrases can be combined to make meaning. Because these rules, too, are arbitrary they can be used to describe almost anything. A person can use any allowable combination of these language parts to describe virtually any thing, idea, belief, experience, or feeling.

Because there is no inherent reason why a horse, for instance, is called a horse or why compassion is called compassion, the rules of language remain independent of the way the world works.

Further, because the forms and content of language are arbitrary, language can never be a complete description or explanation for anything. In other words, language *mediates* between the thing, experience, process, event, or feeling and the saying of it. The very act of saying something is one step (at least) removed from the actuality of what it represents. This arbitrariness and the meditational quality of language can be difficult for children to grasp and often poses special difficulties for students, as will be shown later in the chapter.

Besides being rule-governed, language is unique in another way: It is a generative system, meaning it is creative. Using the finite rules of language and a finite set of words (e.g., nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and so on), a person can generate an infinite number of meaningful utterances. How does this work? First, words can be used to refer to more than one thing, as in “That is some *sweet*-sounding music,” “I’d like *sweet* iced tea,” and “She has such a *sweet* nature.” Second, things can be called more than one name, as in *davenport* and *couch*, *curtains* and *drapes*, or *plate* and *dish*. Third, words can be combined in a variety of ways to mean the same thing, as in “May I have more gravy, please?” or “Is there more gravy?” or “Pass the gravy,” all of which have the same meaning: “I want gravy!”

Typically developing children do not learn all the possible word combinations. Rather, they learn the rules underlying their spoken language, which means that they can understand and create an infinite variety of word combinations, sentences, and phrases in order to communicate.

Spoken language underlies most school-based learning in the early grades, and it predicts children’s success with reading, spelling, written language, and literacy in general (E. A. Polloway, Miller, & Smith, 2012). Many children diagnosed with learning disabilities have spoken language difficulties that interfere with their ability to succeed in reading, writing, and spelling, without which they cannot make the transition from learning language to using language to learn (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

HOW ARE COMMUNICATION, LANGUAGE, AND SPEECH RELATED?

Language is only one of the forms of communication people use. Communication can occur through various means, both verbal and nonverbal, including the ones shown in Box 4–1.

The list in Box 4–1 demonstrates that communication need not be solely linguistic, that is, comprised of words, word parts, phrases, or sentences. Much of communication occurs either through other codification systems (music, dance, mathematics, or codes) or through nonverbal, paralinguistic, or metalinguistic signals, discussed in the following text.

A large portion of communication occurs via nonverbal cues, including head, hand, and general body posture; gestures; facial expressions; head, body, and hand movements; eye contact; and physical distance (called proxemics). Most people are identifiable by the way they utilize nonverbal cues, for instance, arm waving, winking, standing too close, showing no facial expression at all, frowning, crossing their arms, and so on. For some students

BOX 4-1

Verbal and Nonverbal Means of Communicating

- Speaking
- Signing
- Alternative augmentative communication (AAC) systems
- Reading
- Writing (including electronic forms)
- Music
- Dance
- Mathematics
- Codes
- Games
- Runes (characters from one of the alphabets used by Germanic people between the 3rd and 13th centuries)
- Glyphs (symbols that convey information nonverbally, such as road signs)

with language disorders or learning disabilities, learning appropriate nonverbal cues is fraught with difficulty and often results in social rejection or outright ostracism.

Paralinguistic signals—intonation, emphasis (stress), speed or rate of delivery, pause or hesitation—are superimposed on speaking, writing, or signing to convey attitude or emotion. Consider, for example, how using either a rising or a falling intonation alters the meaning of this sentence: “Are you serious!” (falling intonation) compared with “Are you *serious*?” (rising intonation). Spoken with a rising intonation, the sentence becomes a sincere (or not so sincere) question of the listener, while using a falling intonation signals, not a question for the listener, but a comment on the speaker’s perception or feeling. Besides indicating emotion, asides, or emphasis, paralinguistic markers convey information about the speaker’s relationship to the listener(s), the importance of the information being communicated, and the status and role of the participants.

Metalinguistic skills include being able to reflect on and talk about language and all its aspects, being able to separate it from its content enough to manipulate and play with it. For children learning language, developing metalinguistic abilities allows them to define words; identify homonyms, antonyms, and synonyms; recognize homophones and the semantic ambiguity that results; identify various syntactic and morphological elements; and match sounds to letters (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012). An inability to see language in this way poses a serious disability for students learning to read, write, and use language to learn, a topic explored later in the chapter.

CULTURE AND LANGUAGE LITERACY

In the United States, cultural diversity is the norm, which means that anyone providing instruction in the schools must be aware of and responsive to a variety of cultural differences. Peña, Summers, and Resendiz (2007) reported that, in a typical school district in the United States, “thirty-seven percent of the students are from racial minorities (5% Asian, 15% Hispanic, and 17% African American)” (p. 1). Further, “up to 12% of the total population will be bilingual or in the process of becoming bilingual as they learn English as a second language” (p. 1). The most successful teachers for this diverse

group of students are those who appreciate cultural diversity and take steps to insure that cultural differences are seen, not as problems to be overcome, but as opportunities to assist all students in learning to the best of their ability (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

The word *literacy* has multiple connotations and is used in a broad range of contexts. More narrowly, though, *literacy* can be defined as “an individual’s ability to read, write, and speak . . . compute, and solve problems, at levels of proficiency necessary to function on the job, in the family of the individual, and in society” (Literacy Information and Communication System, n.d.). This definition includes not only abilities necessary to become proficient with language, but also a variety of other competencies. However, in this chapter the term *literacy* refers to the set of competencies children develop with both oral and printed language (including electronic forms): listening, speaking, reading, and writing, regardless of the medium. This definition includes the set of linguistic competencies that children must acquire to succeed in school, as well as in their lives outside school.

Mahendra, Bayles, Tomoeda, and Kim (2005) described the characteristics of teachers who are best able to appreciate and understand cultural and linguistic diversity:

1. They develop knowledge of the key parameters that characterize any given culture, shown in Table 4–1.
2. They learn a self-reflexivity through which they understand their own culture (or cultures, as everyone belongs to several cultures at once), their place in it, and the strength and limitations of what they have experienced and learned from cultures other than their own.
3. They become able to recognize how prejudices and stereotypes—both positive and negative—influence both their own and others’ behaviors.
4. They learn to become aware of their own biases and to separate them from their ability to offer professional instruction to their students.
5. They become adept at understanding cultural conflict, what causes such conflicts and how they escalate, and the different types of conflicts that may occur.
6. They know how to use strategies to reduce and resolve cultural conflict.

TABLE 4-1 Primary attributes that characterize cultures

- More emphasis on the individual or on the group
- Importance of linguistic ability
- Importance of reading and writing
- How the culture defines the roles of individuals and groups
- Importance of class and class differences
- Status of different classes
- Primary rituals/superstitions
- Role of work, play, and people's attitudes toward it
- How the culture defines itself in relation to time and space
- Principal types of entertainment
- What is considered "smart"
- Attitudes toward learning and education
- Status of teachers

Source: From "Diversity and Learner-Centered Education," by N. Mahendra, K. A. Bayles, C. K. Tomoeda, and E. S. Kim, November 29, 2005, ASHA Leader, retrieved May 5, 2011, from <http://www.asha.org/Publications/leader/2005/051129/f051129c.htm>.

Cultural differences in language present several challenges for educators. One is that many educators have limited opportunities to learn the skills described by Mahendra et al. (2005). Unless they graduated recently, many teachers attended training programs that offered little, if any, coursework aimed at preparing them for the rapidly changing demographics of today's classrooms.

A second challenge is that the curriculum in most schools in the United States rests on the assumption that children will enter school with some metalinguistic abilities already developed (e.g., knowledge of the alphabet, how print works on the page, and that print represents spoken language). However, this assumption is true only of typically developing children from homes in which:

- The native language is the language of school
- Print is visible and valued
- The adults talk about language and provide opportunities for the children to demonstrate their own linguistic knowledge
- The adults tell stories and encourage their children to tell stories
- The children are read to
- The children have had multiple opportunities to interact with print and print artifacts (e.g., books, magazines, pencils, lists, menus, signs)

Children from these homes usually arrive at school able to understand and tell stories, respond to

adult questions in a way that demonstrates what they know, and, at least in basic ways, talk about language and its parts. For children from cultures outside white, middle-class America, such activities may be completely unfamiliar and result in them feeling overwhelmed and confused.

A third challenge is providing fair and accurate assessments of the language abilities of children whose predominant language is not English. One of the primary barriers to obtaining a truly representative assessment is that most general classroom teachers and educational diagnosticians frequently are unable to differentiate between language differences related to cultural factors and language differences that stem from a language disorder. In addition, many tests are biased against students from minority cultures because they contain items that represent values or knowledge different from those held by students from minority cultures; because they don't really test what they purport to test; or because they are unavailable in any language other than English (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

A fourth challenge is that, outside middle-class America, parents often face significant obstacles. For instance, the lack of access to adequate health care for their children can result in their missing school or having difficulty focusing when they are in school. Nutrition may be enough of a problem that a child's brain development is slowed, with potentially devastating effects on cognitive growth. They may not be able to provide access to books and writing materials, and funds may not be available to provide the child with the cultural activities and experiences that other children are exposed to. Parents may not know that language stimulation in the early years is a critical predictor of a child's academic success. Thus, they may believe it is unnecessary to talk to the child, or, if they do, they may use only directives (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2001).

However, many children who enter school from diverse backgrounds, including impoverished circumstances, learn and adapt quickly to the school environment and go on to perform as well as or better than their peers. Some who display differences in their language abilities may require individualized modifications in the classroom, whereas others may need intervention aimed specifically at a language disorder. Differentiating between language differences and language disorders is a topic we return to later in the chapter.

BUILDING BLOCKS OF LANGUAGE

The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) estimates that between 2 and 19% of preschool children have severe language difficulties (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association [ASHA], 2008). In school-age children an estimated 7% have an identifiable language disorder, which is often associated with later difficulties in learning to read, write, and learn; 61% of speech-language clinicians in schools reported that they provided services to children with language disorders (ASHA, 2008).

Because the favored method of providing services to students with language disorders is within the classroom setting, often in collaboration with the classroom teacher, teachers are highly likely to have one or more students with a language disorder in their classes.

To offer the most effective instruction, then, teachers would benefit from becoming proficient with the components of language and the terminology used to describe them. The most prevalent model used by language professionals comprises five parts: use, form, content, and literal and figurative language. In addition, any discussion of language must include a description of the literal and figurative levels of language use.

Language Use

Language use, or **pragmatics**, refers to how language is used to negotiate socially through the set of implicit rules people use in various communicative contexts. These rules govern how people change how they talk according to those to whom they are talking. In other words, people use these rules to guide what they choose to say, to whom, how, and under what circumstances (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012). Another way of saying this is that pragmatics is a description of the functions of language, or what people are trying to make happen through their language, especially in social situations.

Pinker (2007) described ongoing conversation as a sort of unfolding diplomacy between participants. They continually modify their language through reading each other's verbal and nonverbal cues, thus saving face, offering each other easy "outs," and figuring out how to maintain plausible ways to deny what they're saying to each other. Thus, conversation is a negotiation of "the mix of power, sex,

intimacy, and fairness that makes up their relationships" (p. 23).

In general, pragmatics is a way of describing how people get things done through their language through an informal conversational "code of conduct" (first described by Bates, 1976) that includes the following:

- Tell the truth when you're communicating.
- Cooperate with your conversational partner.
- Offer only information you believe to be new and relevant.
- Ask only for information you truly want to have.
- Give your listener neither too much nor too little background information to make your point.
- Be unambiguous.
- Alter your language to fit each social setting.

Of course, no one strictly adheres to these rules. In fact, violations of the rules are themselves conventionalized and carry separate meanings. For instance, the use of satire or irony in storytelling or journalism is, strictly speaking, a violation of the truth principle. Similarly, idioms violate the truth principle because, though they say one thing, they actually mean something different. For instance, when someone asks us how we are and we reply that we're fine even if we don't feel fine, that reply violates the truth principle in favor of the politeness required. Overall, polite forms offer people a way to navigate through a wide range of the social situations in which they find themselves. Using polite forms—all the tacit rules, really—allows people to get their message across without insulting others or treating them as subordinates.

Learning the conventions for violating the rules comprises an important aspect of children's language acquisition and frequently appears as one aspect of some language disorders. In addition, because cultural and dialectal variations of these rules exist, students communicating across dialects or from culturally different communities can suffer communication breakdowns or misunderstandings.

Another aspect of language use is **discourse**, which is defined as a linguistic unit (e.g., a conversation, story, speech) larger than a sentence. People use a variety of discourse types, shown in Table 4-2.

In almost all cultures, children are first exposed to **conversational discourse**, which, though it varies in form and content across cultures, functions primarily as a way to communicate within social-interactive contexts. As children's language develops,

TABLE 4-2 Discourse types

Conversational	Classroom
Narrative	Poetic (including songs)
Dramatic	Expository (descriptive, explanatory, argumentative/persuasive)

they become more proficient with the nuances of both conversational partners and conversational contexts. In the early stages of language development, children generally adhere to the rules of pragmatics and take them at face value. Only gradually do they learn that there are sanctioned ways to violate those rules, including the notion of polite forms and how they are used within their culture.

Almost all cultures utilize **narrative discourse** in the telling of stories. As a consequence, children hear narrative discourse in the stories told within their cultural group. In many cultures, children are routinely included in oral storytelling activities and are expected to become proficient storytellers as soon as their language skills allow. In other cultures, only specific elders are allowed to tell the stories, and children are expected to remain silent. In cultures with a strong tradition of oral storytelling, narrative discourse often includes poetic and dramatic discourse, which function to highlight certain aspects of the story, create dramatic tension, or to complicate the action.

Cazden's (2001) classic definition of **classroom discourse** remains the most prevalent among students of language development. According to Cazden, classroom discourse comprises the content, forms, and functions of the language used in teaching and learning. The primary characteristics of classroom discourse are shown in Table 4-3.

Adults in **language literate households** frequently converse with their children using classroom discourse, particularly in their efforts to teach their children about the world and how to display their knowledge about it to adults. However, children from homes that are less language literate may not be exposed to classroom discourse until they enter school and, therefore, have little experience demonstrating their knowledge in ways that are expected in the classroom.

Narrative discourse refers to the language used to tell stories and relate experiences in story form. This type of discourse involves characters, some sort of motivation (plot), setting, and resolution.

TABLE 4-3 Characteristics of classroom discourse

- The teacher does most of the talking and takes most of the turns.
- The teacher usually determines the topic.
- The teacher usually decides when students will talk, for how long, and when to stop or relinquish a turn.
- The teacher evaluates students' responses and corrects or redirects them.
- Language is often decontextualized (i.e., the context is not immediately apparent).
- Students are often required to talk about language or the components of language (a metalinguistic skill).

In stories, the characters are usually fictional and their motivations are driven by a problem (usually some sort of conflict, quest, or reversal) that the character then goes about trying to resolve. The character's efforts toward resolution constitute the plot, which may involve various conflicts (episodes) that alternately increase and release tension until the problem is resolved in some sort of final way (except, of course, in postmodern fiction, in which problems are often left unresolved).

In most cultures, children learn to relate experiences using the story format (i.e., narrative discourse). They themselves are the main character, and what they do and what happens along the way become the plot, usually resulting in a happy ending. As children become more adept with stories, their ideas, vocabulary, and grammar become more complex, they include dialogue, and they exhibit an increasing amount of creativity. Children who are read to and become readers themselves are able to incorporate into their stories more and more complexity and ingenuity, as well as showing increasing mastery of mechanics characteristic of the narrative form.

Dramatic discourse is used whenever a scene, story, or play is portrayed by actors (amateur and professional) conveyed to an audience either live or through radio, film, television, or via the Internet. Children acting out scenarios or playacting stories utilize dramatic discourse by describing or showing the set (the scene), utilizing lighting effects such as darkness or bright light (or, with more advanced students, colors and light changes), what the characters look like and what they're wearing, and how the actors talk to each other and use interruptions, silence, ignoring someone, and speaking simultaneously. Often, young children playing together will construct make believe scenarios in which they

first negotiate who the character is (e.g., "I'll be Batman") and how to portray the character. They may even have to negotiate over two chairs to sit on, or how many costumes to wear, or how to make the character talk like the character (e.g., "Now you say, 'I'm Batman.'")

Poetic discourse is often used in songs arranged to create a specific mood through meaning, sound, and rhythm (Webster.com, 2011). Poetic discourse when they are playing games, or when they are singing songs to them. Narrative discourse is often used at an early age to tell stories. Poetic discourse. Films create a mood with music with lyrics that have characteristics of poetic discourse. Poetic discourse seem to be drawn to movie *Beauty and the Beast* partial to songs from the movie. Lyrics that manipulate the listener to convey meaning is a characteristic of poetic discourse.

Expository discourse is used in editorials, and some expository discourse for depending on the circumstances. Poetic discourse them in presentation. Poetic discourse most common types of discourse.

- Descriptive (describing an experience, or idea)
- Explanatory (explaining how to do something)
- Argumentative/persuasive (to convince or persuade someone to do something)

Although some children use expository text (either orally or in writing) at school, they are usually not aware of the structure or function of expository discourses until they are older.

Language Form

Language form is typically divided into three basic categories: phonology (the study of phonology), morphology (the study of morphology), and syntax (the study of syntax).

first negotiate who is going to be which character (e.g., “I’ll be Batman and you be the Joker”), how to portray the setting (e.g., throwing a blanket over two chairs to simulate a cave), and what sort of costumes to wear. In addition, they will negotiate what the characters should say (e.g., “You have to talk like the Joker”) and how they should say it (e.g., “Now you say, ‘You can’t do that!’”).

Poetic discourse utilizes language “chosen and arranged to create a specific emotional response through meaning, sound, and rhythm” (*Merriam-Webster.com*, 2011). Children are exposed to poetic discourse when they hear song lyrics or play rhyming games, or when adults read (or sing) poetry or songs to them. Nursery rhymes expose children at an early age to the most basic form of poetic discourse. Films created for children often contain music with lyrics that also exhibit some of the characteristics of poetic discourse. For instance, girls seem to be drawn to the lyrics from the animated movie *Beauty and the Beast*, while boys are more partial to songs from *Cars*. Both contain songs with lyrics that manipulate rhythm, pacing, and sound to convey meaning in a particular way, one of the characteristics of poetic discourse.

Expository discourse includes the non-narrative discourses common to textbooks, articles, essays, editorials, and some online blogs. Usually the expository discourse forms are seen in print; however, depending on the circumstances, speakers may use them in presentations, speeches, or lectures. The most common types of expository discourse are:

- Descriptive (describes a thing, process, event, experience, or idea)
- Explanatory (explains how something works or how to do something)
- Argumentative/persuasive (attempts to convince or persuade the audience or reader of something)

Although some children are exposed to expository text (either orally or in print) before they enter school, they are usually not expected to understand the structure or function of print-based expository discourses until they have learned to read.

Language Form

Language form is typically described using three basic categories: phonology (or in sign language, **cherology**), morphology, and syntax.

Phonology comprises the set of rules governing which sounds in any given language are pronounceable and used to make meaning, as well as how they can be combined to make meaning. Different languages have varying rules for how this works. For instance, although in English /t/ and /l/ cannot be combined at the beginning of a word to make meaning, in Tlingit (a native Alaskan language), /t/ and /l/ at the beginning of a word are pronounced “kl.” Another example is from languages that use few vowels but include combinations of dental, lateral, alveolar, or palatal clicks as phonemes. Nelson Mandela is perhaps the best-known person who uses a language, Xhosa, that incorporates clicks. One of the first times most people outside Africa heard a language that uses clicks was in 1966 when Miriam Makeba, a singer, appeared in Sweden and sang what came to be known as the Click Song. Her appearance was shown on Swedish television in 1967. You can see it on YouTube at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=M3lfENV_U6M&feature=related.

The smallest linguistic units to carry meaning are the *phonemes*, which are pronounceable sounds in any given language. Thus, in each language, some sounds carry meaning, and some do not. In English, how one pronounces /t/ or /p/ makes no difference in meaning, though in other languages (e.g., Bengali and Hindi), adding a puff of air, for instance, indicates a shift in meaning and is considered a separate phoneme.

Phonemes are typically represented by a notational system, the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). Figure 4–1 shows the phonemes associated with five common English words.

English consists of a set of 44 phonemes that are further categorized into vowels and consonants, the latter including voiced, voiceless, oral, nasal, and place and manner of articulation.

FIGURE 4–1 Five English Words Represented in Phonetic Notation (IPA)

English Spelling	IPA Notation
alter	/altə/
church	/tʃɜːtʃ/
remember	/rɪməmbə/
clinging	/kɪŋɪŋ/
opportunity	/əpəˈtʊnɪti/

Morphology. Morphology is the set of rules governing how phonemes can be combined into larger units (syllables and words) in order to convey meaning. Morphemes are the smallest grammatical units that carry meaning. Morphological rules govern the specific phonemic combinations that can be used by any given language to indicate, for example, past tense (e.g., “The three girls swam across the pond”), plural number (e.g., “The dogs were barking at the intruder”), pronoun differentiation (e.g., “My brother’s sons gave him a puppy for his birthday”), or possession (“The truck driver’s brakes failed, but he managed to get his rig stopped without incident”).

Syntax. Syntax is the set of rules governing how phrases and sentences must be constructed in order to convey meaning. For instance, syntactic rules include those governing word order (“The dog ate the bone” and not “The bone the dog ate” or “The bone ate the dog”) and those governing active or passive voice (“The chairperson counted the votes” [active], “The votes were counted by the chairperson” [passive]). Syntactic rules allow people to construct unique utterances in order to perform these functions, among others:

- Greet
- Comment
- Seek attention
- Request information, acknowledge others, and respond to others
- Negate, refuse, reject, protest, indicate absence, and assert falsity
- Direct others to carry out instructions
- Tell stories
- Teach
- Make indirect requests
- Describe or explain things
- Bargain and negotiate
- Repair conversations and persuade others

Language Content

Language content is usually discussed in terms of **semantics**, defined by E. A. Polloway et al., (2012) as “the meaning level of language” (p. 8), or as Pinker (2007) described it, the relations of words to reality. More specifically, semantics describes people’s “understanding of ideas, feelings, events, relationships, processes, and things” (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012, p. 8). In children, semantics is described through analysis of their oral vocabulary development

(preschool and early elementary), their reading vocabulary (elementary), and their written vocabulary (upper elementary and beyond). Learning the semantic aspects of language involves learning:

- How words relate to their referents (the actual thing, idea, concept, feeling, event, or process a particular word stands for)
- That the relationships between words and referents are **arbitrary** (which we addressed earlier in this chapter) and **symbolic** (i.e., words are symbols that represent some thing, idea, concept, feeling, event, or process)

Children learn these two aspects of semantics gradually. Their earliest words are more **iconic**, with meaning closely tied to the word (e.g., *moo*, *choo-choo*, *bowwow*).

Literal and Figurative Language

Language users employ language on different levels of abstraction, ranging from the literal and concrete to the abstract and figurative. At the literal level, language, while still operating in an arbitrary relationship with what it is referring to, functions to convey the concrete, primary meaning of a word or phrase, as in “The man slept deeply.” In the earliest stages of language development, children use concrete, literal language to get things done in a direct and efficient way.

At the figurative level, language conveys a more abstract and secondary meaning through expressing one thing but being understood as meaning something different, as in “The man was sawing logs all night.” In the figurative meaning, the man slept deeply, even though the sentence says otherwise on the literal level. As children’s language abilities grow, they see that they can use language in a less direct way to alter how—and how efficiently—they can get things to happen. Table 4–4 lists examples of figurative language forms.

Many types of humor rely on figurative expressions or words or phrases with double meanings. Puns use double meanings to convey humor, as in these two examples:

- “We saw an old beater,” which could mean either an egg beater or a car
- “When we took 12 rabbits and put 6 in one pen and 6 in another, we were splitting hares,” which plays on the pronunciation of *bare* to evoke its homonym in the expression “splitting hairs”

TABLE 4-4 Figurative language forms

- Polite forms (e.g., "May I please have more juice?" or "Would you mind closing the door?")
- Idioms (e.g., "The man was sawing logs all night")
- Simile (e.g., "She swam like a porpoise" or "It was as bright as daylight under the lights")
- Metaphor (e.g., "She was a jackrabbit once the race began")
- Satire (e.g., an essay, story, poem, play, or novel that ridicules or scorns human vices)
- Irony (e.g., the expression of something other than the literal meaning, as in "You look fantastic," meaning the opposite)
- Adage (a metaphorical saying embodying a common observation, e.g., "What is essential is invisible to the eye," Saint-Exupery, 1968)
- Proverb (a short maxim, e.g., "You can't teach an old dog new tricks")
- Allegory (fiction using symbolic characters and actions to express a truth regarding human existence, e.g., "Jack and the Beanstalk," or "The Matrix")
- Alliteration (e.g., "She sold seashells on the seashore")
- Personification (e.g., "The sun smiled down on us that day")

Riddles also use double meanings as a way to express humor, as in:

- "Why didn't the skeleton cross the road? Because it didn't have the guts," which refers both to courage and innards
- "What is the smartest insect? A spelling bee," which refers both to the insect and the classroom spelling game

To be able to understand and use figurative language, children must develop the ability to reflect on language, talk about it, and manipulate it. This ability is called **metalinguistic ability** and begins to emerge when children first grasp the idea that different people can have the same name. As children become more proficient with language, they learn how to use it to better get what they want (e.g., through using indirect language to request a wanted object or food, "I need to have this popsicle" vs. "Give me a popsicle!"). Gradually, most children discover that idiomatic expressions say one thing but mean another, that polite forms are required in certain social situations, and that language parts can be rearranged. At the higher levels of language development, people use their metalinguistic abilities to understand and express ideas in graceful and artistic ways.

For schoolchildren, one of the most important aspects of metalinguistic ability is **phonological awareness**, the understanding that speech consists of sounds and syllables. Phonological awareness is a basic prerequisite for learning to correlate speech sounds with printed letters in order to decode the written word and evolves out of the child's awareness that language has parts that can be talked about and analyzed.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT STAGES

Language development is typically described as a stage-by-stage process that unfolds from the first few weeks after birth through adulthood. The stage model we use here includes:

1. Early communication and emerging language
2. Toddler language
3. Preschool language
4. School-age language
5. Adolescent/advanced language

Early Communication and Emerging Language

In most families, children are surrounded by language from the time they are born. Adults in these families include their babies in social interactions that are based in the routines of everyday life and punctuated by language. During infancy, normally developing children begin smiling when interacting with an adult, glancing toward a familiar adult voice, and smiling as a familiar person is speaking to them (Huer & Miller, 2011). Soon they begin vocalizing in response to a familiar voice, and they begin to engage in what Bruner (1975), in a classic work, called **joint attending** and **joint referencing**, both of which lead directly to the use of words for communicating. By approximately 5 months of age, they are attending to a conversational partner for two conversational turns, the "conversations" consisting mainly of the adult imitating the baby's coos and gurgles, as well as talking in what is termed **Motherese**: the adult usually speaks in a higher than usual pitch, uses simple words that she or he repeats, often in a slow, sing-song manner, and exaggerates the rising and falling intonation contours of each "sentence." In these conversations, the adult usually talks about something the baby can see or hear, looks into the baby's eyes, and smiles throughout (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

At approximately 6 months, children begin to **babble**, which means using a consonant and a vowel together in a repetitive way (e.g., “mamama-mama,” or “nananana”). As their babbling becomes better developed, their participation in conversations with adults changes. Now they begin imitating the adults, even though they may have no clear idea of what they are saying.

By around 8 months of age, children begin changing their responses when they hear different intonation patterns from adults, and they engage in vocal play by using sounds from their own repertoire (Huer & Miller, 2011). By the end of this stage, at around 12 months, children are able to vocalize at least two consonant-like sounds, they respond, sometimes inconsistently, to their own name, and they overtly demonstrate their intention to communicate with a familiar adult (Huer & Miller, 2011).

Toddler Language

Between 12 and 24 months, children’s language development changes dramatically. They begin using single words to name familiar people (and household pets), objects, and activities. During this stage children discover the power that comes from using language to get attention from familiar adults. They practically demand that the adults around them pay attention as they emphatically name the things they know and bask in the delight the adults show at such prowess. Once such behavior appears, most children soon begin initiating conversations with others, engaging in conversations that last for two turns, and following simple requests or directions (Huer & Miller, 2011).

One of the most significant developments during this stage is the child’s emerging ability to express negation, at first through gestures or postures, and then through the use of “No!” Soon they begin putting “no” in front of whatever it is they want to negate, as in “No juice!” or “No go!” Alongside the emergence of verbal negation is the ability to respond appropriately to an interrogative (usually a *wh*-question) and then, a bit later, to ask a *wh*-question (e.g., “Juice?” to mean, “Where is the juice?” or “More juice?”).

At the beginning of the toddler stage, most children are not yet able to respond consistently to an adult “no,” but by approximately 24 months, they have developed this ability. Somewhere between 18 and 24 months, children start vocalizing wordlike

“sentences,” which may not contain actual words but which mimic the intonation patterns typical of complete sentences (Huer & Miller, 2011). By this time, too, they are able to identify at least three body parts, respond appropriately to a yes or no question, follow three verbal directions (unaccompanied by gestures), and understand some basic prepositions such as *up*, *out*, *in*, *on*, and *down* (Huer & Miller, 2011).

By the time they reach 24 months, children understand how plurals work, use some personal pronouns appropriately, use some adjectives such as *happy*, *sad*, *big*, and *round*, spontaneously uses both *wh*- and yes–no questions, and know how past tense works (Huer & Miller, 2011).

The most important development in children’s understanding and use of **semantics** during this stage is that their vocabularies increase from approximately 20 different words at the end of their first year to about 200 words by the time they are 2 years old (Gillam & Bedore, 2000). Most of these words serve a communicative purpose, described in the following pragmatics and discourse section. For most children, nouns predominate. R. E. Owens (2008) reported that nouns account for 60 to 65% of the words that a toddler produces, while action words account for less than 20%.

Most toddlers’ receptive language emerges first, followed by expressive language. In other words, toddlers understand many more words than they actually use. One characteristic of toddlers’ vocabulary knowledge is that, when they are first learning how to map concepts into words, they often use both overly restricted meanings (called **underextensions**) and underrestricted meanings (called **overextensions**). An example of an overly restricted meaning occurs when a toddler uses the word *dog* to refer only to her or his own dog (real or toy), not understanding that *dog* refers to a general category of four-legged canines. An example of a toddler using an underrestricted meaning is using the word *cow* to refer to all four-legged animals.

Toddler’s **syntax** emerges first as one-word utterances at approximately 12 months, and then two-word utterances by 24 months (Gillam & Bedore, 2000). Most of these two-word utterances are used to convey a small number of semantic relationships between agents (whatever initiates an action), actions (what occurs), objects (things that are acted upon), and locations (places). For instance, typical two-word utterances at this stage are “Daddy eat”

(meaning “Daddy is eating”), “Doll chair” (meaning “The doll is in the chair”), “Go Nonny’s” (meaning “Go to Grandma’s”), and “Mommy car” (meaning “It’s Mommy’s car”).

In addition, toward the end of this stage, children develop two-word utterances to express both negation and interrogatives; for instance, “No milk” (meaning “I don’t want any more milk”), or “More juice?” (meaning “May I have some more juice?”).

Toddlers’ phonological development shows much individual variation, but, in general, most children acquire vowels before they acquire consonants, nasals (m, n) before plosives (b, p), and glottals (g, k) before bilabials (b, p) (R. E. Owens, 2008). Typically developing toddlers usually acquire sounds first in the initial position in words, only later learning them in the final position in words. Even though across languages there is no universal order in which consonants are developed, there is some similarity in speech-sound acquisition (R. E. Owens, 2008). Most children develop a set of words that, while different from the forms adults use, are recognized by their adult conversational partners (and their siblings) as having a particular meaning.

During the toddler stage, children begin learning the pragmatics of conversational discourse, or how to use conversation to get things done. They use a combination of nonverbal and verbal means, first to express direct communicative intentions and then, as they begin experimenting with using language in different ways, to participate in more sophisticated conversations. The intentions toddlers first demonstrate evolve directly from the intentions they first showed through gestures. Some of the most common intentions toddlers exhibit include (Paul, 2006):

- Requesting information through asking what things (and events, processes, actions, etc.) are called, or later, through using rising intonation or a *wh*-word
- Acknowledging that the conversational partner’s utterance was received through nodding or imitating the partner’s intonation pattern
- Answering, or responding appropriately to the conversational partner’s request for information

As toddlers move from single-word utterances to two-word utterances, they begin to develop an ability to provide their listeners with some sort of background in order for their comments to be

understood, which is known as **presupposition** ability. In other words, they begin to understand that not everyone shares what they themselves know and so need to be given that information so that the conversation can proceed. However, because this ability is in the beginning stages, toddlers sometimes assume their conversational partner knows more than she or he actually does know, resulting in a conversation that can leave adults struggling to determine what, exactly, the child is talking about.

Preschool Language

Between the ages of 2 and 5 years children’s language development explodes. They go from using two-word utterances to manipulating sophisticated syntactic constructions; their vocabularies increase at a rate of five new words a day (R. E. Owens, 2008); children learning English master most of the speech sounds; their pragmatic language abilities increase dramatically; most become facile with narrative discourse; and they begin showing awareness that language functions on the figurative as well as the literal level.

Children’s semantic development during this stage is tremendous. By 4 years of age, children typically understand 3,000 to 4,000 words, and they use at least 1,800 different words (Gillam & Bedore, 2000). Their vocabularies begin to expand beyond nouns and verbs to include prepositions (e.g., *on top*, *under*, *beside*), temporal words (e.g., *first*, *then*, *next*), adjectives (e.g., *pretty*, *big*, *sunny*), and pronouns (e.g., *she*, *his*, *it*) (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

One of the more obvious changes in children’s vocabulary during this stage is the emergence of **inflections** such as plurals (e.g., *cats*) and present tense (e.g., *running*) and past tense (e.g., *walked*). As children learn the so-called regular forms of plurals and tense markers (as in the examples in the previous sentence), they apply their learning to the so-called irregular plural and tense markers (e.g., *child*s rather than *children* and *eated* rather than *ate*). It is only later (for some children, as early as 3 years of age; for others, as late as 10) that they learn the exceptions to the regularization rules and use the irregular forms correctly.

Children in this stage also begin contracting words (e.g., *I’m*, *she’s*). Not all words can be contracted in a language; for instance, in English, “He’s

fast" is a permissible contraction of *is*, while "I's fast" is not. However, "I'm fast" uses a permissible contraction of *am*.

Another development that occurs in this stage is that children begin elaborating their understanding of the verb *to be*, which E. A. Polloway et al. (2012) described as challenging because *is* functions both as a **copula** (e.g., "She is hungry") and as an **auxiliary** verb (e.g., "The dog is running"). As with learning the exceptions to the regularization rules for plurals and tense markers, separating these two functions of *is* requires that children hear adults using the two forms in everyday conversations.

At the beginning of this stage of language development, children are typically using two-word utterances. By the time they reach 5 years of age, most children are using sentences containing up to 10 words (Gillam & Bedore, 2000). Most children at age 2 increase the complexity of their utterances by adding modifiers or auxiliary verbs, whereas most children at age 5 use sentences including phrases within clauses or combinations of two or more clauses into one, a process called **embedding**. One of the earliest instances of embedding appears when children use *wanna*, *gonna*, or *hafta* to mean, for instance, "I want to go," "I'm going to eat now," or "I have to pick up my toys." Later, more complex forms appear, examples being, "Show me how to do it" and "I know where the keys are." By the end of this stage, most children are capable of using more sophisticated forms of embedding, including these examples: "I saw who took the keys," "I know I like macaroni," "You know what I'm going to do tomorrow?"

A hallmark of preschool syntax is the emergence of joining clauses together using *and*, *but*, *or*, *because* (e.g., "I jumped and she turned the rope," "We can eat macaroni but we can't eat brownies," "We can't go to the zoo because Mommy's sick").

Preschool children's morphological development in this stage begins with using plurals (e.g., "the dogs s play"), the possessive (e.g., "the doll's dress"), and the progressive (e.g., "Daddy sleeping"). Later, they use the copula (described earlier), as in "Daddy is happy" and the auxiliary, as in "Daddy is sleeping." Notable during this stage is that children tend to generalize the morphological rules they're learning, as with the plural forms and tense markers described above, with some of this learning continuing well into the next stages of development.

TABLE 4-5 English phonemes acquired during the preschool years

/k/ (the first sound in <i>cat</i>)
/g/ (the first sound in <i>gum</i>)
/f/ (the first sound in <i>fish</i>)
/v/ (the last sound in <i>nerve</i>)
/tʃ/ (the first and last sounds in <i>church</i>)
/dʒ/ (the first and last sounds in <i>judge</i>)
/ʃ/ (the last sound in <i>fish</i>)
/θ/ (the first sound in <i>thimble</i>)
/ð/ (the first sound in <i>the</i>)
/z/ (the second sound in <i>azure</i>)
/s/ (the first sound in <i>sick</i>)
/z/ (the first sound in <i>zip</i>)
/l/ (the first sound in <i>last</i>)
/r/ (the first sound in <i>red</i>)

Typically developing children acquire most of the phonemes of English, including those shown in Table 4-5. Soon after age 3, most children are able to begin stringing consonants together into consonant clusters such as *spin* and *string*. However, children will continue to use many of these phonemes and consonant clusters inconsistently over a long time before fully mastering them.

During the preschool years, children's abilities as conversational partners grow considerably. They become able to maintain a topic over several conversational turns, they develop the ability to take turns and understand what signals a turn change (both when they are speaking and when they are listening), and they become more proficient in understanding their listeners' needs for background information. Early in this stage, children acquire the knowledge they need in order to repair conversations that may need clarification, revision, or repeating in order for the listener to understand what is being said. Initially their revisions or clarifications may not be sophisticated or effective, but as their skills increase, they become more adept.

Another pragmatic development that occurs in this stage is that children shift from using direct requests when they need something to using indirect means for the same purposes. In the early part of this stage, children tend to use straightforward "requests" for what they want, and there is no question about their intent. For instance, a child might

say, "I want a cookie!" Later in the stage, as he or she becomes more familiar with polite forms, the child shifts to more indirect statements, such as "I need a cookie," or "I'd really like another cookie." By the end of the stage, the child's requests can be quite indirect, as in "I'm thirsty" rather than "I need another cookie."

A significant development during this stage is children's dawning awareness that language exists on more than one level (i.e., that it is arbitrary and that it can be nonliteral, or figurative). Early in the stage, children typically have difficulty comprehending that anyone can have the same name as theirs, or that another adult has the same name as their mother or father. Confronted with such conundrums, children will either deny the possibility, ignore the person, or become upset (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

Similarly, children at the beginning of this stage understand very little, if any, humor involving language, primarily because they have not yet developed sufficient metalinguistic awareness. A bit later in this stage, they begin developing an ability to understand and use various forms of humor such as knock-knock jokes, and even later, riddles. However, most children are not able to "get" humor that relies solely on truly metaphoric language (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

At the same time that children in this stage are developing more proficiency with conversational discourse, they are also learning about stories and narrative structure. Especially in literate families, children hear stories and narratives in the course of their everyday routines so that by the time they are nearing the end of this stage, they are telling stories with fictional elements, and they are constructing retellings of their personal experiences. By the time these children reach kindergarten age, they are usually able to tell a story that contains these elements:

- An initiating event, or some problem that puts the events in the story in motion
- Some sort of attempt by the main character to solve the "problem"
- A consequence or resolution that wraps up the story line

During the preschool language stage, children also begin incorporating dramatic discourse into their play. When engaging in free play, children act out scenes from their own lives or imaginations, such

as playing house, going on a trip, and pretending to be animals or monsters. Later in the stage, children begin attending to detail, time, and place and often dress up and use stage props for acting out scenes such as playing store, doctor, or firefighter.

As mentioned, children at the beginning of this stage use language on the literal level. They are unable to understand that words are anything different from the things they refer to, and they show limited understanding that language can be talked about, analyzed, or parsed. They gradually discover that different people can have the same name (as in their mothers and fathers) or that words can sound the same but carry different meanings (e.g., *two*, *to*, *too*).

Toward the end of the stage, though, their awareness and comprehension of the metaphoric aspects of language begin to emerge, particularly in families that talk about language, its humorous aspects, and different ways of talking. For instance, children from these families may say something like, "My mother told me I can't say *aint*," or "That's not how you say it. You say it this way." And, as pointed out, children nearing age 5 may be using some forms of humor, especially riddles, although they may not yet understand exactly why these forms of humor are, indeed, funny.

ASHA (2003d) offered an online overview of the speech and language characteristics of preschool children, including tips for parents about how to communicate with their preschool children. In addition, ASHA (2003d) hosts a public page describing language and literacy development in preschoolers.

School-Age Language

Once children enter school, their language development is increasingly influenced by their educational experiences. Although during the preschool years children made a considerable leap in their language knowledge and use, in this stage their language abilities are impacted dramatically by reading, writing, more sophisticated figurative language forms and uses, and the increasing complexities of narrative, classroom, and expository discourse. In addition, these children become significantly more proficient in understanding and using various forms of figurative language, at first in oral language, and then in print.



Hulit and Howard (2011) characterized the language of children entering school as exhibiting these characteristics:

- Almost all the basic words of their language/dialect appear in their vocabulary.
- Their phonological sound system is almost completely developed.
- Their syntactic skills are sufficiently developed that they use declaratives with no difficulty, can transform declaratives into negatives and interrogatives, understand and use imperatives, and still have difficulty with passive constructions.
- Their conversational abilities now include making indirect requests, taking turns appropriately, and knowing when listeners need more information.

When children enter school, if they come from literate families, they know how stories work; how to talk about language; and how to demonstrate to adults, through specific conversational routines, what they know and have experienced. They are familiar with the various “artifacts” associated with print—pencils, pens, computers, paper, magazines, books, and e-readers—and they know that language is a powerful tool for producing results.

Perhaps the most important developmental shift to occur during this stage is what is called the oral-to-literate shift, which means the ability to communicate not only in the immediate context of the here and now, but also to communicate across time and place, a process that includes reading, writing, and other more formal oral and electronic language genres. The children who are most successful in making this shift are those who have intact and well-developed oral language abilities in all areas (Paul, 2006).

In the early school years, children continue to add new words to their vocabularies, but they also learn to refine how they use words, a large part of which is influenced by their developing ability to read. Specifically, children learn how to:

- Choose among words to select the most precise meaning to fit what they are trying to express
- Use the same words to mean different things (e.g., *sweet cookie* compared with *sweet girl*)
- Distinguish among words with similar meanings (e.g., *knife* compared with *dagger*)
- Classify words into categories and hierarchical subcategories (e.g., animal>mammal>clawed>omnivore>bear compared with animal>mammal>hooved>herbivore>horse)

It is during these early school years that children complete their elaboration of the English pronoun system, shown in Table 4–6.

In addition, children figure out that pronouns have antecedents that can appear in previous sentences, or, more complicated, previous conversations. For example, children become able to decode sentences such as these: “Monica’s mother told her to come home. She (Monica’s mother) had something she (Monica’s mother) wanted her (Monica) to do.”

Syntactic development in this stage is both an expansion of forms children have already acquired and the acquisition of some of the more difficult semantic forms. Examples are shown in Table 4–7.

When they enter school, most children have acquired most of the phonemes in the adult system. However, some children are 8 or sometimes even older before they finish acquiring all the phonemes, and some may exhibit inconsistency in their use throughout this stage of language development. Among the last phonemes children acquire, usually in this stage but sometimes earlier, are shown in Table 4–8.

Most children entering school are decent conversationalists, though they will continue to develop proficiency with conversational discourse throughout their years in elementary school, and sometimes even beyond. Children in this stage are much more adept at maintaining topics during a conversation, they can clarify something they’ve said that resulted in a conversational breakdown (called a *conversational repair*), and they are now using indirect requests (i.e., polite forms) to get what they want. Throughout their years in school, these conversational skills become increasingly important in their interactions with peers.

As mentioned, children in this stage make the transition from being primarily oral to being increasingly literate, which requires proficiency with narrative, classroom, and various expository discourses.

The narrative abilities of children vary with the circumstances in which they are telling a story, particularly who their listeners are, how much time they have to tell the story, and whether there are other people vying for a turn to talk. Their abilities will also reflect the culture(s) in which they have spent their years prior to entering school.

R. E. Owens (2008) described some of the cultural differences in the narrative abilities of children

TABLE 4-6 English personal pronouns

	Singular			Plural		
	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd
Subjective						
Female	she	you			you	
Male	he	you			you	
Neutral	I*		it, one	we*		they
Possessive						
Female	her, hers	your, yours			your	
Male	his	your, yours			your	
Neutral	my, mine*		its, one's	our*		their, theirs
Objective						
Female	her	you			you	
Male	him	you			you	
Neutral	me*		it, one	us*		them
Reflexives						
Female	herself	yourself			yourselves	
Male	himself	yourself			yourselves	
Neutral	myself*		itself, oneself	themselves*		themselves

*Self-referring pronouns are assumed to carry the gender of the person using them.

TABLE 4-7 More adult syntactic forms children learn in the early school years

In the early school years, children learn how to:

- Expand noun and verb phrases (e.g., putting adjectives in the correct order, as in "big black dog" and not "black big dog").
- Use some (not all) passive sentences (e.g., "The bone was eaten by the dog" and not "The dog was eaten by the bone").
- Use exceptions to the regularization rules for plural and tense markers (e.g., *ate, swam, drove, children, mice, deer, sheep*).
- Embed more complicated structures (e.g., "My friend has a song I know you'll think is crazy").
- Conjoin sentences with conjunctions other than *and* and *but* (e.g., "You can have either this truck or that one"; "We can't go because it's raining").

in the United States. One example he provided is the difference between the narratives of African American and European American children. He described the narratives of African American children as being rambling tales with multiple events and episodes, usually told with the intent to entertain

TABLE 4-8 Phonemes acquired last by most children

ʃ	as in <i>she</i>
θ	as in <i>thimble</i>
s	as in <i>see</i>
z	as in <i>zip</i>
ð	as in <i>there</i>
l	as in <i>lake</i>
r	as in <i>read</i>
ʒ	as in <i>measure</i>

listeners. The narratives of European American children, on the other hand, are more sequentially organized. In contrast to both of these styles, Japanese children's narratives are typically concise and to the point, the focus being not to disrespect the listener through wandering or embellishing.

Typically developing English-speaking children at the beginning of this stage generally tell stories that, while containing most aspects of a narrative, cannot be considered a true narrative. According

to R. E. Owens (2008), for most children, narrative plots emerge sometime between 5 and 7 years, but it isn't until age 7 that children begin telling stories that are directed toward the resolution of some sort of problem or conflict. When children develop this ability, they also begin using stylized beginnings and endings, such as "once upon a time" and "the end" (or "they lived happily ever after").

Sometime after about age 8, most of these children begin telling stories that are more typical of adult narratives (Hulit & Howard, 2011):

- Plots that are clearly defined and developed
- Problems or conflicts identified clearly and resolved by the end of the story
- Details that are important but not superfluous
- Time and place clearly established and developed
- Characters' feelings, thoughts, and motives developed throughout the story

In addition, children across cultures introduce dialogue for the characters in their stories, and they develop an increasing ability to switch between their characters and the narrator easily as their story unfolds (R. E. Owens, 2008).

The unique discourse of the classroom is characterized by a recurring pattern of the teacher imparting information, requesting that the student display their learning and/or understanding of that information (i.e., the student's *knowledge*), and evaluating the student's response. For children in literate homes, being asked to display what they know through language is familiar because the adults in their lives often use this form of discourse with them. However, for many children, especially from cultures other than white, middle-class America, this type of language use can seem foreign and intimidating.

Classroom discourse differs from conversational discourse in several ways. The teacher chooses almost all the topics to be talked about; takes most of the turns (i.e., spends much more time talking than the students do); and determines whether, when, and how long students talk, when students should relinquish turns, and whether their responses are correct or acceptable.

As students gain experience with classroom discourse, and as they encounter the ways in which different teachers utilize classroom discourse, they develop the ability to customize their own participation to match their teachers' varying

expectations. In other words, they learn how best to display their knowledge within the specific context of each teacher's mostly unspoken rules for classroom discourse.

The information conveyed by expository discourse is often unfamiliar to the student because it uses abstract, enumerative, and logical means to convey information. In contrast, conversation and narrative both convey information that is familiar to the student in a more concrete and not necessarily purely logical manner.

Children making the shift from being primarily oral communicators to acquiring the skills necessary to develop proficiency as literate language users are expected to learn to understand and use various expository discourse styles. The most prevalent types of expository discourse children encounter in the early school years are description and explanation. Both of these forms of discourse differ from conversational and narrative discourse in that they are more decontextualized. That is, rather than referring to shared experiences, events, or settings, they function to state facts or hypotheses, to ask questions and draw conclusions, to interpret, classify, synthesize, and summarize.

In addition, expository discourses typically use a hierarchical organization scheme, in contrast to conversation and narrative, which both use either an event-driven structure (conversation) or a plot-driven story grammar (narrative). The format of expository discourse depends on the paragraph (oral at first, then written) with a topic sentence that states the main idea, the body of the paragraph elaborating on the main idea, and a summary sentence or sentences.

Later on during the school years, children encounter a more abstract and complicated expository structure, argumentative discourse (also called persuasive discourse). Most school-age children develop some proficiency with the oral forms of argument or persuasion, which do not always contain all the components characteristic of this type of discourse. However, when they enter middle school, children begin learning about the formal characteristics of argumentative/persuasive discourse and are soon expected to be able to present written examples of successful arguments. We return to this topic in the section on adolescent and adult language development.

During the school-age years, children's abilities to understand and use figurative language expand

considerably. They become able to understand and use various forms of humor, including riddles, puns, and witticisms; metaphors, similes, idioms, proverbs, adages, and maxims. This expanding ability with figurative language is described as *metalinguistic*, *metapragmatic*, and *metacognitive*.

In this stage of language development, children develop substantial **metalinguistic ability**, especially as they meet the challenges of learning about defining words; identifying homonyms, synonyms, and antonyms; resolving semantic ambiguities (e.g., “Visiting relatives can be a nuisance”); identifying sounds in words and learning their corresponding letters in print; and identifying the various syntactic and morphological characteristics of both oral and printed language (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

One of the most critical metalinguistic abilities for children is phonological awareness, which has been identified as the best predictor for spelling ability in elementary school (Nation & Hulme, 1997) and as a predictor of reading skills (Hogan & Catts, 2004). **Phonological awareness** is the ability to recognize individual phonemes in spoken language, that is, to identify the sounds, syllables, and sound structure of words (R. E. Owens, 2008). This ability also includes the ability to manipulate sounds either through segmenting words or syllables into their individual phonemes, or through blending phonemes together to form syllables or words.

To make the correspondence between sounds and letters (i.e., to decode words) children rely on their phonological awareness to identify the sounds in the first place. Developmentally, most children leaving second grade decode well enough to comprehend what they are reading, and by the end of fourth grade, most will be able to decode fluently enough to use reading as a vehicle for learning. However, some children do not develop these abilities until they are older, which makes learning to read and write more difficult and requires skilled intervention from teachers knowledgeable about these processes (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

Children in this stage of language development also acquire a more elaborate understanding and ability with the **metapragmatic** aspects of manipulating conversation, narrative, classroom, and expository discourse. That is, they become able to evaluate the specific requirements of each type of setting (i.e., conversing with a peer, demonstrating their knowledge to a teacher, disagreeing with a

TABLE 4-9 The pragmatic aspects of various learning situations school-age children learn to manipulate appropriately

School-age children learn to:

- Identify who has more or less authority and how to change one's speaking or writing accordingly.
- The degree of formality required in this situation, either with a particular conversational partner or in the classroom (oral) or for a specific audience of readers (written).
- The role of cultural differences among participants in conversations or classroom discussions, or among potential readers of something written.
- How to manage conversational breakdowns with peers or with teachers or other adults.
- How to interrupt appropriately.
- How to manage other people's interruptions.

classmate) and how to manage the pragmatic aspects of each. The specific pragmatic aspects children learn are shown in Table 4-9.

Children in the school-age years develop a third meta, **metacognitive ability**, which allows them to reflect on and manage their own thinking and learning processes. The two metacognitive processes that have been described most thoroughly are **comprehension monitoring** and **organizational and learning strategies** (Paul, 2006). Comprehension monitoring involves recognizing when one does or does not understand something (such as a teacher's instruction or something the student is reading), an ability most children acquire between the ages of 5 and 8 (see Chapter 6). After age 8, most children also begin to exhibit compensatory strategies, including:

- Recognizing they need help and asking for it
- Analyzing context for clues
- Reasoning through
- Checking to see if there is additional information somewhere (e.g., overhead, chalkboard, book, computer)

A related development occurs when children begin to exhibit the ability to organize themselves to process new information through such means as analyzing what they already know or inferring from what they already know (Wallach, 2007). For instance, the child may ask herself a question such as, “What do I already know about this?” or “What do I need so I can understand this?” Or, she may infer from what she already knows: “This is about

whales. Whales are mammals. I know mammals are warm-blooded. Does that mean whales are warm-blooded, too?"

Adolescent/Advanced Language

By the time students reach adolescence, most have achieved a myriad of abilities with the language required for the intense social interactions they engage in with peers, for manipulating literate language forms, and for engaging in critical thinking through reading and writing (Paul, 2006).

Adolescents continue to add to their vocabularies, but they also further refine the meanings and usages of the words they already know, such as discovering how words are related through language family (i.e., Greek and Latin), derivation (e.g., *poor*, *impoverish*), meaning (e.g., antonyms, synonyms), and sound (e.g., homonyms). By the time most students reach late adolescence, they have learned how to define words using more sophisticated structures than they used in earlier stages of development. For instance, where previously they might define a word using simple, one-word descriptions, during adolescence they become able to provide definitions such as "An edict is a proclamation" (superordinate term) "carrying the force of law" (description of characteristics).

Most syntactic growth during adolescence occurs across sentences rather than within sentences although some occurs within sentences as well. Adolescents begin using more coordinate and subordinate clauses, as well as sentence structures more typical of literate (i.e., printed) language, including low-frequency types that don't work well in oral language (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012). Their sentences are usually longer and tailored for specific discourse types, and usually contain more morphosyntactic markers to mark interrogatives, negatives, and verb tenses than younger children (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

Most adolescents can be skilled conversationalists, especially with their peers. They understand that different listeners require different amounts and types of background information, and they know how to efficiently and effectively repair conversational breakdowns and how to request and provide clarification when needed. They maintain topics appropriately; take, maintain, and yield turns; and interrupt according to the politeness rules of their culture. R. E. Owens (2008) reported that,

when conversing with peers, teens in the United States—regardless of culture—use specific strategies to make sure their listeners know what they're talking about, they give both verbal and nonverbal positive feedback, and they respond directly to what their conversational partners have just said.

By adolescence, most students will also have mastered the art of negotiating classroom discourse, regardless of individual variations in teachers and teaching styles. They will have read and written numerous narrative pieces, giving them additional experience and practice with narrative discourse, and they will have been exposed to a wider variety of expository discourse. Nonetheless, during adolescence, they continue to develop their skill within discourse types, and they begin developing proficiency with an argumentative/persuasive discourse.

As described earlier, argumentative/persuasive discourse differs from the other discourse types in that it puts forward a fact or proposition as a thesis, then uses a set of logically ordered statements to support the thesis. Although argumentative and persuasive discourse use the same formal structure, they differ slightly in their basis. Argumentative discourse expresses a statement or proposition, along with a set of supports for the proposition. A typical example of argumentative discourse is an essay in which the speaker or writer proposes an idea (the proposition), provides several supporting statements for the idea (the arguments), and a summary iteration of why the arguments support the proposition.

Persuasive discourse offers a statement of belief, along with a set of reasons describing how the belief is "true" or should be believed. Advertisements commonly use persuasive discourse in an attempt to convince the listener or reader of the validity, superiority, or truthfulness of a particular product. Both argumentative and persuasive discourse can express disagreement with facts, beliefs, or interpretation of events.

Argumentative/persuasive discourse is probably the most abstract and decontextualized discourse students experience and, with appropriate instruction, learn to understand and use. The nested organizational scheme of this type of discourse presents another level of difficulty for students, especially those with language or learning disorders (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012). However, typically developing children usually acquire some facility with this discourse type by the end of this stage of development.

One of the most striking developments in adolescents' language is their increased ease with figurative language, particularly in spoken conversation. One of the most obvious examples is slang, which changes generationally and is influenced by movies, television, music groups, music videos, and the various forms of electronic communications used by adolescents. Because conversation with peers is vitally important during adolescence, a proficiency with slang is a basic prerequisite for belonging to a peer group.

Reading is one of the primary ways adolescents acquire experience with various types of figurative language. If they attend schools in which writing is stressed, they may also have experienced opportunities to practice using these figurative forms in their own writing. Table 4-10 shows some of the more common types of figurative language and examples for each.

By adolescence, much of the school process rests solidly on the metas described earlier. Adolescents must use their metalinguistic abilities to analyze, manipulate, and synthesize both oral and printed language. Writing is particularly demanding because it requires students to focus or reflect on and manipulate language forms, content, and usages. Students with more experience in writing tend to develop more skill with the metalinguistic processes necessary to succeed in the secondary

curriculum, particularly note taking, paraphrasing, summarizing, recognizing and using figurative language forms, and understanding and using diverse literate styles in their own oral and written language.

An advantage gained from developing skill with figurative language is that, at the same time, these students are developing strong metapragmatic abilities. For example, deciding ahead of time what to say (either orally or in print), how to say it, the discourse type to use, and using humor appropriately in discourse all demand metapragmatic proficiency.

The secondary curriculum requires students to be able to reflect on their understanding of what's happening in the classroom and how they can most effectively and efficiently learn what is expected of them (i.e., metacognitive ability). Adolescents are expected to independently devise learning strategies that work best for them and to modify them when they encounter new, more demanding learning tasks. To do this, they use their metacognitive skills to, first, analyze what they know, what they're expected to learn and how, and how best to accomplish that learning, and, second, to apply the results of their analysis. The development of strong metacognitive skills allows adolescents to become less dependent on specific support from teachers and more independent in figuring out their own unique learning strengths and needs and how to use those strengths in order to meet their learning needs.

The secondary curriculum carries special metalinguistic, metapragmatic, and metacognitive demands. Students must negotiate multiple teaching styles and communication rules, a wide assortment of decontextualized language forms, increasing amounts of work requiring increased length of time focusing (including increased demand that students be self-organizing), working independently, and using logical and critical thinking (Paul, 2006).

TABLE 4-10 Types and examples of figurative language

Type of Figurative Language	Example
Metaphor	"He's a <i>machine</i> ," meaning rugged, strong, invulnerable
Simile	"She's <i>like a computer</i> in math," meaning highly skilled
Allegory	Extended narratives, usually poems, parables, fables, etc., that convey a hidden meaning
Irony	Expressing meaning through language that usually means the exact opposite (e.g., "He's so <i>bad</i> ," meaning good, cute, smart, funny, etc.)
Idiom	"It's raining <i>cats and dogs</i> ," meaning it's raining hard
Satire	Using language to make fun of something, the goal being to improve behavior, policy, or procedure (e.g., <i>Gulliver's Travels</i> by Jonathan Swift)

LANGUAGE DISORDERS

The National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities (referred to as NICHCY, after its original name) defines language disorders as "problems expressing needs, ideas, or information, and/or in understanding what others say" (NICHCY, 2011). Some language disorders, called specific

language disorders, or SLI, can occur after a period of normal development through infection, tumor, stroke, epilepsy, or brain injury (ASHA, 2008). Others may be a consequence of other developmental conditions such as hearing loss, brain damage, chromosomal anomalies, or motor functioning disorders. Frequently, however, the cause for a language disorder is unknown.

H. D. Nelson, Nygren, Walker, and Panoscha (2006) estimated that between 2 and 19% of preschool children have some form of language impairment, and Ziegler et al. (2005) reported that SLI affects 7% of all schoolchildren.

Language Difference Versus Language Disorder

It is imperative that teachers not confuse language disorders with language differences arising from differences in dialect, culture, ethnicity, or influence of a foreign language. Children from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds can exhibit characteristics that, without careful analysis, may be confused with a language disorder.

The primary factor that differentiates a language disorder from a language difference is that the way children from CLD circumstances learn language (both primary and secondary) is significantly different from the way children with language disorders learn. Although children with language disorders often have difficulty acquiring new language content, forms, or usages, children from CLD families usually show no such difficulty when given appropriate instruction, a topic we address in the assessment and teaching sections.

R. E. Owens (2008) stressed that the way children from middle-class, English-speaking American families learn language is not culturally universal, nor is the way families regard verbal communication consistent across different cultures. Owens gave the example that in some Latino families, the emphasis for children learning language is “to be silent and thoughtful, to listen, and to hesitate before speaking” (p. 416). Another example from Owens contrasts the way middle-class, white Americans teach their children language through the use of Motherese and/or the mother acting as a language assistant or coach with the way inner-city Puerto Rican and African American children learn language, which is primarily through socialization with peers.

Determining whether a child has a language disorder or is simply a “late bloomer” can be difficult, particularly in young children. ASHA (2011c) reported four factors that differentiate slow language development from a true language disorder, shown in Box 4-2.

Children who are non-native English speakers can sometimes exhibit characteristics that can be mistaken for language disorders. For instance, children learning English at the same time they are learning academically can struggle academically, go through periods when they appear silent, and intermingle words and phrases from both languages (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2001). Children learning a second language require 2 years to acquire the basic interpersonal language abilities involved in context-sensitive conversational speech, and it can take them 5 to 7 years to acquire the decontextualized language of academics at a level commensurate with their peers (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2001).

BOX 4-2

Factors that Differentiate Slow Language Development from a True Language Disorder

- Age-appropriate receptive language abilities are typical of late bloomers, while the receptive language abilities of children who have language disorders are usually significantly delayed.
- Children who use a large number of gestures associated with different communicative intentions are more likely to catch up to their peers in language development (i.e., they are likely to be late bloomers).
- The older the child is who is still behind her or his peers in language development, the more likely that child will have a language disorder and will not catch up, especially if she or he exhibit slow growth when peers are in a period of rapid progress.
- Children showing little progress in language development are more likely to develop language disorders than slow talkers who continue to make noticeable changes in their language.

Compared with their peers during these years, the language abilities of children from CLD backgrounds can be mistakenly thought to represent language disorders. Peña and Bedore (2008) argued that most CLD children are sequential bilinguals, learning first the language spoken at home and beginning to learn a second language only when they begin formal schooling. Until recently, little was known about the language development of sequential bilingual children, how to properly assess their language abilities, and how to design appropriate instruction or intervention and instruction. However, Peña and colleagues (2007), utilizing information about language development in bilingual children with and without language impairments, described methods that distinguish between language difference and language disorders and intervention/instructional techniques that work well with CLD children. Some of their methods and techniques are described in later sections on assessing language and teaching spoken language.

Language-Based Learning Disabilities

E. A. Polloway and colleagues (2012) reported that language-based learning disabilities (LLD) are the most common type of learning disability, primarily because most learning disabilities involve deficits in reading, writing, or spelling, which are based on oral language abilities. LLDs are believed to include the child's phonological, semantic, syntax, pragmatic, and discourse systems.

School-age children diagnosed with LLD often have a history of delayed speech and language development during preschool. ASHA (2011c) described the risk factors associated with LLD, as well as some of the problems typically exhibited by children with LLD, shown in Box 4-3.

BOX 4-3

Risk Factors Associated with Language Learning Disabilities

Difficulties in these areas are highly correlated with LLD:

- Learning the alphabet
- Retrieving specific words
- Learning new vocabulary
- Understanding questions and directions
- Recalling spoken or printed letters and numbers
- Understanding and recalling stories or classroom lectures
- Discriminating left from right
- Learning sound-letter correspondences
- Mixing up letters in words when writing
- Spelling
- Memorizing multiplication tables
- Telling time

ASSESSING LANGUAGE

In school-age children, language assessment is driven primarily by the purpose and goals for instruction, and, if necessary, intervention. With students of any age, the overall purpose of assessing language skills is to learn what the student's needs are to design appropriate teaching strategies, classroom modifications, and accommodations in order to help the student succeed. For young children (and older adolescents and adults with severe language impairments), the primary goal of language assessment is to determine their level of development to assist them in moving to the next developmental stage.

Once children reach school, however, the goal of language assessment shifts to determining whether their language abilities are developed well enough for them to make the shift from orality to literacy to succeed in the academic environment. For elementary students, language assessments focuses on discovering how (and how well) they use language to:

- Participate successfully in the classroom
- Talk about language and its parts
- Understand and tell stories
- Learn to read, write, and spell
- Comprehend the various types of expository text

For adolescents, language assessment is aimed at discovering:

- How adept they are with the social discourse used by their peers
- How they interact with literate language forms, including the various discourse genres characteristic of the secondary grades
- The extent of their metalinguistic, metacognitive, and metapragmatic abilities and how successful they are in exercising them appropriately for learning

Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Backgrounds

As discussed previously, students from CLD backgrounds sometimes exhibit language characteristics similar to those shown by students with language disorders. Because these characteristics sometimes represent an actual language disorder or delay, an assessment may be recommended. R. E. Owens (2010) suggested a set of recommendations for whether a language assessment is indicated for students learning English as a second language, and, if so, how to conduct the assessment. The recommendations, shown in Table 4-11, are based on degree of proficiency with both English and the students' first language.

Damico, Smith, and Augustine (1996) devised an assessment strategy, regarded highly by teachers and speech-language clinicians, for students from CLD backgrounds. Their strategy entails five aspects, shown in Table 4-12.

Peña and Bedore (2008) reported that identifying language disorders in bilingual children and designing appropriate language instruction is challenging for two reasons. First, the tests available for assessing children's language do not accurately discriminate between bilingual children with and without a language impairment. Second, although there are many models for planning language intervention and instruction for CLD children, there is little evidence-based research that describes what actually works. Further, determining the most effective language of instruction for bilingual children is fraught with political and cultural differences of viewpoint and power. We describe some evidence-based strategies and instruments that can be used in assessing CLD students next.

Types of Assessment

Two types of assessment are typically used to evaluate students' language, standardized and nonstandardized.

Standardized assessments compare students' language development with other children of the same chronological age. Standardized tests are designed to be administered and scored the same way each time, usually in a quiet room with no one present except the student and the examiner. As a result, standardized tests do not reflect a student's ability to use language in contexts other than the testing situation. In addition, standardized tests tend to underestimate the language abilities of children for whom English is not their native language. Consequently, assessment also includes the use of nonstandardized approaches. Table 4-13 shows some of the more commonly used standardized instruments used for assessing language.

ASHA (2011b) offers a complete listing of currently available test instruments and assessment resources for language disorders.

Nonstandardized assessment procedures include criterion-referenced procedures, curriculum-based language assessment, developmental scales, interviews, questionnaires, observational checklists, language sampling, and dynamic assessment.

Criterion-referenced procedures assess the child's ability to attain a certain level of performance. They are used, first, to establish what the child knows about a specific language function, form, or content, and, second, to design instructional targets based on the results. Criterion-referenced approaches are usually used with school-age children and adolescents.

Curriculum-based language assessment is the process of evaluating the student's use of language

TABLE 4-11 Guidelines for assessment of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds

<i>Bilingual English Proficient</i>	<i>Limited English Proficient (LEP)</i>	<i>Limited in English and Native Language</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Proficient in both the native language and in English.• If an assessment is needed, conduct it in English.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Proficient in the native language but not in English.• Conduct the assessment in the student's native language, as mandated by federal law.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Experience difficulties in both the native language and in English.• Conduct the assessment in whichever language is dominant and most appropriate for assessment, instruction, and intervention.

Source: Adapted from *Language Disorders: An Approach to Assessment and Intervention* (5th ed.), by R. E. Owens Jr., 2010, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Allyn & Bacon/Pearson Education.

TABLE 4-12 Five strategies for assessing students from CLD backgrounds

1. Build a collaborative team, including the student and her or his parent(s) to include members who bring:	2. Utilize the teacher assistance team before referring the student for special education testing.	3. Design a diversity framework into the assessment process.	4. Focus on functionality.	5. Use all collected data to determine the student's communicative and linguistic competence.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of language and assessment instruments and procedures (SLP) • Knowledge of the student's culture (cultural informant) • Knowledge of the academic curriculum (teacher[s]) • Knowledge of the student's strengths and needs in the classroom (teacher[s]) • Knowledge of bilingualism (bilingual teacher) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design modifications for the student that provide time and learning supports to the student. • Assess how the student is assimilating after the modifications have been in place for a period of time. • Students with typical language/learning will assimilate more quickly and easily than students with language disorders. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine which of the difficulties of the student exhibits are attributable to the CLD background. • Use functional assessment procedures to describe the student's communication and academic performance in various contexts; if the evaluator observes difficulties, then determine whether features of classroom instruction or the student's cognitive and linguistic abilities account for the difficulties. • Use the collected data to decide whether the student's difficulties are most likely attributable to cultural/linguistic differences, disorders, or a combination. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observe the student within the context of how successful the student is as a communicator in a variety of school contexts, focusing on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How effectively the student communicates meaning • How fluently the student communicates meaning • How appropriately the student communicates meaning • Use a rating scale, protocol, or checklist to guide observation. • Use structured probes such as question-answer, role-playing, interactive computer probes. • Use behavioral sampling such as a video or audio recording of the student performing a required task. 	

Source: Adapted from "Multicultural Populations and Childhood Language Disorders," by J. S. Damico, M. Smith, and L. L. Augustine, in *Childhood Language Disorders* (pp. 272-299), edited by M. Smith and J. S. Damico, 1996, New York: Thieme Medical Publishers.

TABLE 4-13 Commonly used standardized language assessment instruments

<i>Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals</i> (4th edition) (Semel, Wiig, & Secord)
<i>Detroit Test of Learning Aptitude</i> (4th edition) (Hammill & Bryant)
<i>Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test</i> (4th edition) (Martin & Brownell)
<i>Pragmatic Language Skills Inventory</i> (Gilliam & Miller)
<i>Sequenced Inventory of Communication Development</i> (Hedrick, Prather, & Tobin)
<i>Test of Adolescent and Adult Language</i> (3rd edition) (Hammill, Brown, Larsen, & Wiederholt)
<i>Test for Auditory Comprehension of Language</i> (3rd edition) (Carrow-Woolfolk)
<i>Test of Early Communication and Emerging Language</i> (Huer & Miller)
<i>Test of Early Written Language</i> (Hresko)
<i>Test of Language Development—Intermediate</i> (Hammill & Newcomer)
<i>Test of Language Development—Primary</i> (4th edition) (Newcomer & Hammill)
<i>Test of Phonological Awareness Skills</i> (Newcomer & Barenbaum)
<i>Test of Pragmatic Language</i> (2nd edition) (Phelps-Terasaki & Phelps-Gunn)

TABLE 4-14 Types of data used in curriculum-based language assessment

Product Analysis	Onlooker Observation	Participant Observation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lecture notes Written assignments Class notes Homework Portfolios Exams 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Classroom observation of attention, listening, communicative expression, language usage Videos of the student in the classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observer utilizes dynamic assessment as the student attempts a curricular task (e.g., reading a passage and answering questions). Observer addresses four questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Which external contextual demands influence how the student processes the information? What linguistic abilities does the student bring to the task? What new linguistic abilities or strategies would help the student improve in this situation? What contextual modifications would help the student achieve success?

Source: Adapted from *Language and Literacy Disorders: Infancy Through Adolescence*, by N.W. Nelson, 2010, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Allyn & Bacon/Pearson Education.

in attempting to learn the curriculum (N. W. Nelson, 1998). Nelson's recommendations for curriculum-based language assessment are still used today and are shown in Table 4-14.

Developmental scales are used more often with children in the emerging and developing stages of language development. These scales provide developmental milestones against which the child is compared in order to determine where along the scale a particular aspect of language development lies. Interviews, observational checklists, and questionnaires are used to collect information about a child's use of language in specific situations. Evaluators use interviews, observational checklists, and/or questionnaires with parents, caregivers, teachers, and students of all ages.

Language sampling is a technique aimed at discovering detailed information about the child's use of the structural aspects of language, specifically, syntactic and morphological forms. Examples include the number of morphemes per sentence, number and type of embedded clauses, number and type of conjunction, complex sentence usage, proportion of simple to complex sentences, type of complex sentences used, and number of disruptions.

Dynamic assessment is a method used to observe how a child changes a language behavior when given structured help. First, the evaluator determines what the child knows about a specific language behavior (e.g., including setting in a story). Then, in a series of sessions called mediated teaching, the evaluator provides information and supports the child uses to begin incorporating

the language behavior. For a detailed description of dynamic assessment, see Lidz and Peña (2009).

Assessing CLD Students

Peña and colleagues (2007) advocated using a greater number of informal measures than standardized tests in assessing the needs of CLD children, primarily because most standardized instruments have been designed for and normed using children for whom English is the primary language. They provided a list of procedures to use in assessment that leads to designing appropriate instruction for CLD children.

Table 4-15 illustrates the process used to, first, assess the language abilities of an 8-year-old African American girl in the second grade, and, second, to use mediated instruction as a means for discovering the student's responsivity to learning how to include character descriptions in stories.

Assessing Students Who Might Need Augmentative or Alternative Communication

Students with certain disabilities often need to use augmentative or alternate communication (AAC) systems in order to communicate. Augmentative and alternate communication refers to methods people use to communicate when speech may be difficult. The most common of these methods involve facial expressions, gestures, and writing. According to ASHA (2011a), AAC "includes all forms of communication (other than oral speech) that are used to express thoughts, needs, wants, and ideas" (para. 1).

TABLE 4-15 Lan

Amarisa, an 8-year c
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classroom. She also
development was pr

1. Administer the Co
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2. Observe Amarisa
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3. Analyze a langua
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Test/Procedure

Comprehension Sub
Stanford-Binet Test c
Diagnostic Evaluatio
Variation Screening

Language sample

Given these results,
responded to this typ
episode structures in

Mediated Instruction

To teach Amarisa the

Teaching Sequence

1. Show Amarisa *Th*
2. Tell Amarisa what
3. Using the story, he
4. If Amarisa describ
help her evaluate
5. Help Amarisa plan
6. Help Amarisa resp
7. Help Amarisa figu

Strategy

What you're going to

Why that's important

TABLE 4-15 Language assessment and mediated instruction for an 8-year-old speaking AAE

Amarisa, an 8-year old African American girl, is in second grade. Her teacher, Ms. Rodriguez, indicated in her weekly team meeting that she has been concerned about Amarisa's ability to understand classroom instructions and to answer questions in the classroom. She also indicated that Amarisa uses African American English dialect, and she wanted to make certain her language development was progressing appropriately. The speech-language clinician recommended the following assessment procedures:

1. Administer the Comprehension Subtest of the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence Scale (Thorndike, Hagen, & Sattler, 1986), which has been shown to be unbiased toward CLD children.
2. Observe Amarisa in the classroom and interview a family member to determine how well she communicates in the classroom and outside it.
3. Analyze a language sample to determine whether Amarisa produces complex sentences and uses various conjunctions, articles, and modal auxiliaries.
4. Administer the Diagnostic Evaluation of Language Variation Screening Test (a nonword repetition task) because it has been shown to be nonbiased toward CLD students.

Results of Assessment Procedures		
Test/Procedure	Score/Result	Significance
Comprehension Subtest of the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence Scale	Standard score = 99	Mean score = 50
Diagnostic Evaluation of Language Variation Screening Test	Language variation status Strong variation from mainstream American English Diagnostic risk status Developing language normally. Amarisa converses easily with family and friends and interacts easily with peers outside the classroom. Her mother reports that Amarisa is shy about talking in the classroom.	No further testing
Language sample	Amarisa's use of AAE indicates that her language development is typical for children her age speaking AAE.	

Given these results, the team designed a mediated instruction lesson for Ms. Rodriguez to use with Amarisa to see how she responded to this type of instruction. Because Amarisa enjoys books and stories, the lesson centers on including appropriate episode structures in a story.

Mediated Instruction Lesson—Providing Character Information in a Story Point of the Lesson

To teach Amarisa that stories should contain information about the characters.

Teaching Sequence:

1. Show Amarisa *The Ugly Duckling* and have her retell the story. Remind her before she begins to describe the characters.
2. Tell Amarisa what you're going to do in this lesson and why it is important.
3. Using the story, help Amarisa describe the main characters.
4. If Amarisa describes the characters without much help from you, help her extend the concept to another story. If she has difficulty, help her evaluate why it is important to describe the characters in a story.
5. Help Amarisa plan how to describe the characters when she tells another story.
6. Help Amarisa respond to the questions throughout. Use prompts, cues, and models as needed to support her.
7. Help Amarisa figure out how she can remember to describe the characters next time she tells a story.

Strategy	Examples of Instruction	What You Did to Support Amarisa	How Amarisa Responded
What you're going to do.	"Today we're going to talk about telling stories. When we tell stories, we usually describe the characters."	Pointed to each character as I talked	Looked carefully at the characters
Why that's important.	"Telling about the characters is important because it tells your listener who they are and what they are like."	Asked Amarisa how she would describe who she is and what she's like	"I'm tall and my eyes are brown. I'm like an ice cream cone."

(continued)

TABLE 4-15 (Continued)

Strategy	Examples of Instruction	What You Did to Support Amarisa	How Amarisa Responded
Help Amarisa describe the main characters.	<p>"Let's look at <i>The Ugly Duckling</i> again. Let's see if we can describe the mother duck, the duckling, and the old woman." Help Amarisa describe who they are and what they look like. "What does the mother duck look like?" "What does the baby duck look like?" "What can you tell me about the baby duck?" Help Amarisa use descriptive words and phrases.</p>	<p>Asked Amarisa what made the mother duck look different from the others. Ditto re. the baby</p>	<p>"She pretty! She green and shiny... The baby bigger than the others, and kinda brown. He feel bad because the others tease him"</p>
Help Amarisa extend the concept to another story.	<p>How would you change the story if there were a dog and a cat instead of ducks and a swan? What would you say about the dog and the cat? "Would the dog and cat do the same things as the duck and the swan?" "Have you ever read or heard another story that described things about the characters?" If not, present a familiar story and help her discover the character information.</p>		<p>"I'd say the dog was big and fluffy and the cat was orange and round"</p>
Help Amarisa plan.	<p>"The next time you tell a story, what are you going to remember to put in it?"</p>		<p>"What the characters look like and feel"</p>
Help Amarisa generalize her learning.	<p>"We've been talking about describing the characters in your stories. How are you going to remember to describe characters when you make up your own stories?"</p>		<p>"How the baby duck look when he see his self in the water! He beautiful"</p>

AAC systems, both unaided and aided, are used by people with severe speech and/or language problems to either supplement or replace nonfunctional speech. Unaided communication systems are those that utilize the speaker's body to communicate by using gestures, body language, facial expressions, and/or sign language. Aided communication systems require some sort of tools or equipment and include:

- Paper and pencil
- Codes
- Communication boards or books
- Communication charts
- Speech generating devices (SGDs) such as computers or voice generators
- Written output

Communication aids and electronic devices can include representations of objects, events, and people using pictures, photographs, drawings,

letters, words, sentences, special symbols, or any combination. Assessment for students using AAC systems or devices should focus on whether the student would benefit from a low-tech device such as pointing with a headstick or laser light, or from a high-tech device such as a computer that produces synthesized speech. In addition, assessment should include attention to the suitability of the symbol system used (iconic symbols are easier for younger children, while more abstract symbols may work for older students); whether the system or device is easy for the child, family, and teachers to use; the social effectiveness of the system; and its suitability for promoting language development (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012).

E. A. Polloway and colleagues (2012) argued that adolescents who enter secondary school using an AAC system or device will benefit from an assessment addressing several issues. Specifically,

they recommended that the assessment should ask whether the current AAC system or device:

- Is adequate, for the communication demands of the secondary curriculum
- Is equal to the student's cognitive abilities
- Can expand to meet the student's developing communication and cognitive growth
- Is appropriate for nonacademic communication needs
- Can be maintained independently by the student in vocational, recreational, domestic, and academic settings; if not, how maintenance will be provided

TEACHING SPOKEN LANGUAGE

One of the most effective ways to teach spoken language is within the context of academic learning standards. For students who qualify for special education services, IDEA 1997 and its reauthorization in 2004 mandate that their individualized education programs (IEPs) be linked with their state learning standards so that their IEP goals, objectives, and benchmarks reflect the learning standards deemed most appropriate for them by the school-based team. The linking process involves first identifying the state standards applicable to the student's age or grade level, and second, generating annual goals and benchmarks geared to help the student achieve the applicable standard or standards.

Every state publishes a list of standards using a variety of categories and subcategories to specify what its citizens have agreed are the critical aspects of learning they want their children to achieve as a consequence of public schooling. Although this varies, the academic standards most likely to be addressed on IEPs for students with language disorders include:

- Communication
- Listening
- Receptive language
- Expressive language
- Speaking
- Reading
- Writing
- Mathematics
- Science
- Spelling
- Literacy

In many states, these categories may be subsumed into a broader set of learning standards, as in Indiana, which categorizes its Common Core Standards into English language arts, Literacy Standards for Science, Literacy Standards for Social Science, Literacy Standards for Technical Subjects, and Mathematics (Indiana Department of Education, 2011). Table 4-16 shows details of the Indiana Speaking and Listening Standards subset of the English Language Academic Arts standards for Grade 2.

For a second-grade student with a language disorder, the team might decide that the Comprehension

TABLE 4-16 Example of specific English/language arts standards for grade 2 Indiana students

Comprehension and Collaboration

- 2.SL.1 Participate in collaborative conversations with diverse partners about grade 2 topics and texts with peers and adults in small and larger groups.
- a. Follow agreed-upon rules for discussions (e.g., gaining the floor in respectful ways, listening to others with care, speaking one at a time about the topics and texts under discussion).
 - b. Build on others' talk in conversations by linking their comments to the remarks of others.
 - c. Ask for clarification and further explanation as needed about the topics and texts under discussion.

2.SL.2 Recount or describe key ideas or details from a text read aloud or information presented orally or through other media.

2.SL.3 Ask and answer questions about what a speaker says in order to clarify comprehension, gather additional information, or deepen understanding of a topic or issue.

Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas

2.SL.4 Tell a story or recount an experience with appropriate facts and relevant, descriptive details, speaking audibly in coherent sentences.

2.SL.5 Create audio recordings of stories or poems; add drawings or other visual displays to stories or recounts of experiences when appropriate to clarify ideas, thoughts, and feelings.

2.SL.6 Produce complete sentences when appropriate to task and situation in order to provide requested detail or clarification.

and Collaboration standards in the table represent the most appropriate standards for this particular student. The student's annual goal could be derived from the performance descriptor (e.g., "The student will participate in collaborative conversations with diverse partners about Grade 2 topics and texts with peers and adults in small and larger groups"). However, instead of expecting the student to meet all the standards listed under 2.SL.1, the team might conclude that, for this student, a more realistic objective would be to target the first objective (i.e., "The student will follow agreed-upon rules for discussion [e.g., gaining the floor in respectful ways, listening to others with care, speaking one at a time about the topics and texts under discussion]") by dividing it into three steps and designing goals for each: gaining the floor in respectful ways, listening to others with care, and speaking one at a time about the topics and texts under discussion. The IEP would then specify these steps by describing:

- Present levels of education performance, the student's learning strengths, and how the student's disability affects his or her progress in the general curriculum
- Which people and/or programs are going to be involved in assisting this student meet these objectives (including personnel, frequency, location, and duration of services)

- Goals and objectives (the four aspects of stage A), including how they will be evaluated and by what objective criteria, and expected date of accomplishment

For those students who do not qualify for special education services, instruction linked to state learning standards can be designed using a Section 504 plan, which provides a way to specify the accommodations and modifications necessary to ensure the student's success (L. Miller & Newbill, 2006).

Using the same process described previously for linking an IEP to learning standards, the team can link the 504 plan to standards and specify a learning plan for the student. An example is a fourth-grade student whose psychoeducational report shows slow processing speed and some language delays, neither of which interferes enough with academic functioning to be considered a disability under IDEA. The school-based team members designed a Section 504 plan using the standards shown in Table 4-16. The team concluded that, with appropriate classroom modifications, all of the standards listed were appropriate for this student. The modifications they generated, based on L. Miller and Newbill (2006), are shown in Table 4-17.

Children entering elementary school face formidable challenges if they have language disorders, particularly when they are expected to make the transition from the world of oral language into the

TABLE 4-17 Section 504 classroom modifications

1. Because of slow processing speed, target modifications toward completing work without losing motivation.
 - Allow more time to complete assignments when practical. However, long extensions for projects often encourage procrastination. Break big assignments into smaller parts and give small amounts of extra time for specific parts when needed.
 - Reduce assignment length and amount wherever possible. If the student has been working diligently for the whole time period allotted for a specific assignment, give full credit for that assignment and move on.
 - Allow the student to demonstrate mastery in different ways (e.g., orally, on video, etc.).
 - Limit homework time. Agree with the student and his parents on a reasonable and developmentally appropriate amount of time for homework each day and accept what can be completed in that amount of time. Prioritize assignments so essential work can be completed first.
 - Clearly identify who is responsible for tracking all work. Classroom teacher, student, parents, and support staff (e.g., the speech-language clinician) might need to provide a supervised place for untimed tests to be taken.
2. Because of mild language delay, target modifications toward improving test scores.
 - Allow for unlimited tests, which have been shown to best support students with slow processing speed. Although students with weak attention controls often waste extra time, students with slow processing speed and adequate attention controls often see significant gains in test scores when tests are untimed. Frequently they don't need a lot of extra time, but knowing they have as much time as they need lowers anxiety and actually improves processing speed.
 - Clearly identify who is responsible and who can provide a supervised place for untimed tests to be taken.

Source: Adapted from *Section 504 in the Classroom: How to Design and Implement Accommodation Plans* (2nd ed.), by L. Miller and C. Newbill, 2006. Austin, TX: PRO-ED.

literate world of print. These children have particular difficulties when the curriculum shifts from teaching them to read to using reading as a way to learn. Perhaps the most important aspect of language instruction for elementary age children with language disorders is literate language forms and metalinguistic, metapragmatic, and metacognitive ability.

Literate Language Forms

The most pertinent literate language forms elementary-age children and adolescents encounter are the discourse genres (narrative, classroom, and expository discourse) and figurative language.

L. Miller, Gillam, and Peña (2001) advocated teaching students about narrative discourse through the use of dynamic assessment and mediated teaching. Their approach involves having the student first look through a wordless picture book (they used *Two Friends* [L. Miller, 1999b] and *Bird and His Ring* [L. Miller, 1999a]) and then tell the story the pictures tell.

Using a protocol they developed, teachers analyze these aspects of the story as a baseline measure for comparison with a second story the child tells following two mediated teaching sessions:

- Story Components:
 - Setting: Time and Place
 - Character Information
 - Temporal Order of Events
 - Causal Relationships
- Story Ideas and Language:
 - Complexity of Ideas
 - Complexity of Vocabulary
 - Grammatical Complexity
 - Knowledge of Dialogue
 - Creativity

After the first story has been analyzed, the teacher then conducts two mediated teaching sessions in which they utilize this set of mediation strategies to support the student's learning about stories:

1. **Intention to teach**—the teacher explains what the goal is for the session.
2. **Meaning**—the teacher explains why the goal they're addressing is important in telling good stories.
3. **Example**—the teacher shows the student specific examples of the targeted story structure or element.
4. **Planning**—the teacher helps the student think about what new skill(s) he or she has learned

and how the student will use it the next time he or she tells a story.

5. **Transfer**—the teacher summarizes the session to help the student think about using his or her new narration skill in related situations (story time, show-and-tell, etc.).
6. **Hypothesizing/transcendence**—by asking a series of “what if” questions, the teacher helps the student develop some metacognitive awareness of alternative strategies or responses in telling the story.
7. **Self-evaluation**—the teacher helps the student become aware of his or her own learning.

The mediation sessions are designed to be fluid and dynamic interactions, rather than static lessons. The idea is to provide the student with support, explanation, examples, and opportunities to try things out, all the while focusing on what it is that makes a story good, that is, worth listening to.

Following the mediation sessions, the teacher has the student tell a second story, using a different wordless picture book, which they analyze using the same criteria used to analyze the first story. By comparing the student's performance on each aspect of narration, the teacher can determine which areas need to be targeted for instruction and which are likely to develop on their own given adequate opportunities to interact with stories.

E. A. Polloway et al. (2012) described an approach for teaching narrative discourse to use with students whose language skills are developed well enough that they can use printed worksheets as a guide, as shown in Table 4–18. Students can use the worksheets as they analyze a story they've heard or read in order to determine its story ideas and language, story components, and episode structure.

Adolescents are expected to understand and manipulate more complex aspects of stories that include, according to C. M. Scott (2012):

- Understanding what motivates characters
- Identifying how characters feel and plan in response to the main problem or conflict
- Drawing inferences based on what the author presents in the story
- Summarizing episodes and the story as a whole
- Providing listeners (or readers) with enough **cohesive markers** (e.g., pronouns, conjunctions, ellipses, definite articles) that they know how things in the story hang together

TABLE 4-18 Worksheets for narrative discourse

Story Components

This story takes place _____ and _____
(where) (when)

The main character _____
(describe what he or she did, looked like, said, thought, felt)

Events in this story happened in this order _____
(first, next, then, and then, last)

Events in this story happened because _____
(describe why things happened as they did)

Story Ideas and Language

The literal events that occurred in this story are _____

Some things that happened that weren't described in words were _____

Some things this story could mean that weren't described in words were _____

Some words that were used that mean more than one thing were _____

Some examples of figurative words used in this story are _____
(simile, metaphor, irony, satire)

Some examples of grammatically complex sentences used in this story are _____
(compound, complex, compound/complex)

An example of dialect I particularly liked and why are _____

Here's what made this story interesting _____

Episode Structure

Here's what happened to start the story _____
(the problem or conflict)

Here's what the main character(s) did in response to the problem or conflict _____

Here's how the main character(s) felt about the problem _____

Here's what the main character(s) intended to do about the problem or conflict _____

Here's how the problem was solved _____

Here's how the main character(s) reacted to the solution _____

If there was another episode in this story, what happened to start it? _____

How did the main character(s) in this episode react to the problem or conflict? _____

How did the main character(s) feel about this problem or conflict? _____

How was this problem or conflict resolved? _____

If there was more than one episode, how were the episodes related to each other? _____

How did the overall story end? _____

How did the main character(s) feel about how the overall problem or conflict was resolved? _____

Source: From *Language Instruction for Students with Disabilities* (4th ed., pp. 224–225), by E. A. Polloway, L. Miller, and T. E. C. Smith, 2012, Denver: Love.

In the secondary grades, students encounter a variety of forms of narrative discourse, each of which, while obviously exhibiting the primary aspects of narrative discourse, exhibits a unique set of characteristics. According to E. A. Polloway, Miller, and Smith (2004), some of the most common are:

- Novel
- Comic book
- Folktale
- Myth
- Tall tale
- Personal essay
- Autobiographical narrative
- Oral history
- Creative nonfiction

Novels, regarded almost as prototypical narratives, utilize numerous linguistic and organizational devices to convey their intent. For instance, Lenard-Cook and Miller (2011) described three possible voices in a novel: the narrator (or narrators), the author, and the implied author. The narrator (or narrators) is the character (or characters) in the story; the author is the person who wrote this story (and possibly others); and the implied author is the personality or character a reader attributes to the author, regardless of whether that personality or character bears any actual resemblance to the author. Each author's unique blend of syntax, semantics, figurative language, and presence or absence of lyricism results in a characteristic "voice" that readers associate with that particular writer.

Further complicating narration is the fact that narrators tell their stories using a particular point of view, usually third-person or first-person narration (although occasionally a writer will use second-person narration for specific purposes). Third-person narration occurs when the story is told about a character using third-person proper names and pronouns; for instance, these first sentences from *A Visit from the Goon Squad*, the 2010 Pulitzer Prize for Fiction winner by Jennifer Egan (2010): "It began the usual way, in the bathroom of the Lassimo Hotel. Sasha was adjusting her yellow eye shadow in the mirror when she noticed a bag on the floor beside the sink" (p. 3).

In first-person narration, the narrator participates in the story directly so that the reader sees the action unfolding through the narrator's eyes, as

in this first paragraph from the foreword of Patti Smith's (2010) *Just Kids*, the 2010 National Book Award winner for nonfiction: "I was asleep when he died. I had called the hospital to say one more good night, but he had gone under, beneath layers of morphine. I held the receiver and listened to his labored breathing through the phone, knowing I would never hear him again" (p. xi).

Table 4-19 shows a set of questions teachers can use to guide students' learning about the more abstract aspects of narrative discourse; the questions can be modified for students to use in writing their own narratives.

For students who struggle with narrative, comic books and graphic novels offer two advantages: they usually exhibit a less complex narrative structure than novels, and they use visual images to convey a significant portion of the meaning. Specifically, the visual images convey setting and character information that, because it is present visually, does not need to be described linguistically.

Using comic books is a good way to introduce students to the idea that printed forms of narration encompass various components. Teachers can target setting, character information, temporal order, and causal relationships. Using a particular comic book (carefully screened), the teacher can have students identify and orally describe the settings, which are usually provided visually in the comic. Next, students can write their descriptions of the setting as a way of practicing the inclusion

TABLE 4-19 Questions to guide students' narrative discourse learning

-
- Who is communicating with the reader in the story?
 - Which voice did the author use to communicate: a character's voice, the author's "own" voice, or a relatively "objective" voice?
 - From what position or angle regarding the story did he or she tell it? Where was the "camera" (above, periphery, center, front, or shifting)?
 - What channels of information did the narrator use to convey the story to the reader (author's words, thoughts, perceptions, feelings; character's words and actions; or character's thoughts, perceptions and feelings)?
 - How much of the story was "telling" (describing action) and how much "showing" (i.e., having the characters engage in a scenario that "shows" an idea)?
-

of setting in their written narratives. They can experiment with different ways to describe the same setting, trying out different adjectives, for example.

The same approach can be used to help students learn to include information about the characters. At first, the students can identify and orally describe the characteristics of each character, focusing on aspects such as clothing, physical features, body type, and so on. Then students can write descriptions of the characters, again experimenting with the effects produced by using different adjectives or shifting focus from describing physical appearance to state of mind or mood and the language required to successfully describe these character attributes.

The comics can be cut into individual panels so that students can see how temporal order works, and, by rearranging the panels, students can play with how meaning is altered when temporal sequence is changed. At first, they can orally describe what is happening and use appropriate linguistic markers such as "First," "then," "and then," and "finally." After they've had some practice with orally describing temporal order, they can begin writing a description of the unfolding of events, again practicing the use of appropriate linguistic markers.

Causal relationships can be targeted by having the students focus on which events seem to result in which consequences. With the comics cut into individual panels, students can experiment with rearranging the causes and the effects to see if events still make sense. All the while, they can be orally describing their perceptions of why things in the panels are happening the way they are. After experimenting with rearranging the panels and orally describing the resulting causal relationships, the students can write out two or three scenarios depicting the different causal relationships emanating from their experiments. Emphasis in each scenario should be on describing which event(s) resulted in which consequences. For more advanced students, the teacher can have them write their assessment of the degree to which each set of causal relationships in their experiments seemed most likely to be considered realistic or probable.

Harrison (n.d.) compiled a comprehensive set of rubrics and lesson plans teachers can use to teach secondary students about incorporating the various aspects of narrative discourse into their writing. Her approach is organized around the Six Trait Analytic Writing Model (Web English Teacher, 2003), which addresses ideas and content, organization,

voice, word choice, sentence fluency, and writing conventions.

Purdue University's Online Writing Lab (OWL) offers resources for students and teachers on a wide range of aspects related to writing. For teachers wishing to incorporate writing across the curriculum, the OWL site provides information and links to resources for both teachers and students.

For some school-age students, the various types of discourse they encounter in school are familiar from their experiences at home. For others, however, particularly those from CLD backgrounds, classroom discourse may pose particular difficulties, primarily because some of its rules are never verbalized by teachers. As a consequence, classroom discourse that is not talked about constitutes a separate and hidden curriculum. Most often, the hidden curriculum comprises an unwritten, informal, and often unspoken code of conduct to which students are expected to adhere in the classroom. In education, "the hidden curriculum refers to the way in which cultural values and attitudes (such as obedience to authority, punctuality, and delayed gratification) are transmitted, through the structure of teaching and the organization of schools" (Dictionary of Sociology, 2011).

A typical example of classroom discourse is what happens when the teacher initiates a topic, a student responds, and the teacher evaluates the student's response:

- T. *Who knows the origin of Memorial Day?*
[Pauses.] *Remember, you need to raise your hand.* [Waits for students to raise hands.] *Tony?*
- S. *World War One?*
- T. *No, that's what most people think, though, isn't it?* [Points to another student.] *Jessica?*
- S. *The Civil War?*
- T. *Yes, that's right. And who knows when it was first celebrated?*

N. W. Nelson (1998) first identified the four primary functions of classroom discourse:

1. Instruction from the teacher in how to read and write language
2. The teacher talking about and expecting students to talk about language (requiring metalinguistic ability)
3. The teacher using language to convey procedure and expecting students to use language to learn how to do other things

4. The teacher using language to convey content and expecting students to use language to learn about other things

In a 1998 survey, Simon asked secondary classroom teachers which classroom behaviors they judged to be most desirable. Although their results were collected from secondary teachers, the behaviors they listed can be used to guide instruction regarding classroom discourse at both the elementary and the secondary level. The behaviors can be used as standards, with students progressing toward them at varying rates, depending on their language abilities. Each of the eight behaviors, or standards, can be fine-tuned into a set of steps progressing from the least linguistically demanding through increasing levels of linguistic load.

To teach students about instructional discourse, N. W. Nelson (1998) suggested that teachers modify their language expectations, for instance, by adding redundancy or slowing speaking rate, and focus on helping students develop skill with the metas, a topic addressed later in this section.

By the time students in elementary school reach third or fourth grade, they are expected to begin using their reading skills to read texts that teach them new information. Those texts typically use one or more forms of expository discourse, which, as discussed above, differ significantly from the narrative discourse of stories. In the middle elementary grades and later, the most common types of expository discourse students encounter are descriptive and explanatory.

Most typically developing children begin producing oral descriptions before they begin school, and, once they enter school, their verbal descriptions become tied to academic content. In addition, much of classroom discourse contains elements of description and explanation. By third or fourth grade, students are expected to read, understand, and write descriptive and explanatory discourse, and by the time they enter the secondary grades, to read and understand argumentative/persuasive texts. By the time they leave secondary school, most students will also be expected to produce their own written argumentative/persuasive discourse.

Students usually encounter expository discourse first in oral forms such as lecture, oral reports, laboratory reports, and research reports. Later, they interact with printed forms of expository discourse such as essays, descriptions, letters, explanations, and argument/persuasion. To begin teaching

students about expository discourse, one approach is to show them how to differentiate narrative from non-narrative genres, which requires that they first understand what constitutes a good narrative, or story, a topic discussed earlier in this chapter. Once students can discriminate the narrative from non-narrative, they can begin to learn the characteristics of the non-narrative discourse genres. N. W. Nelson's (1998) graphic summary of the salient characteristics of non-narrative discourse is shown in Figure 4-2.

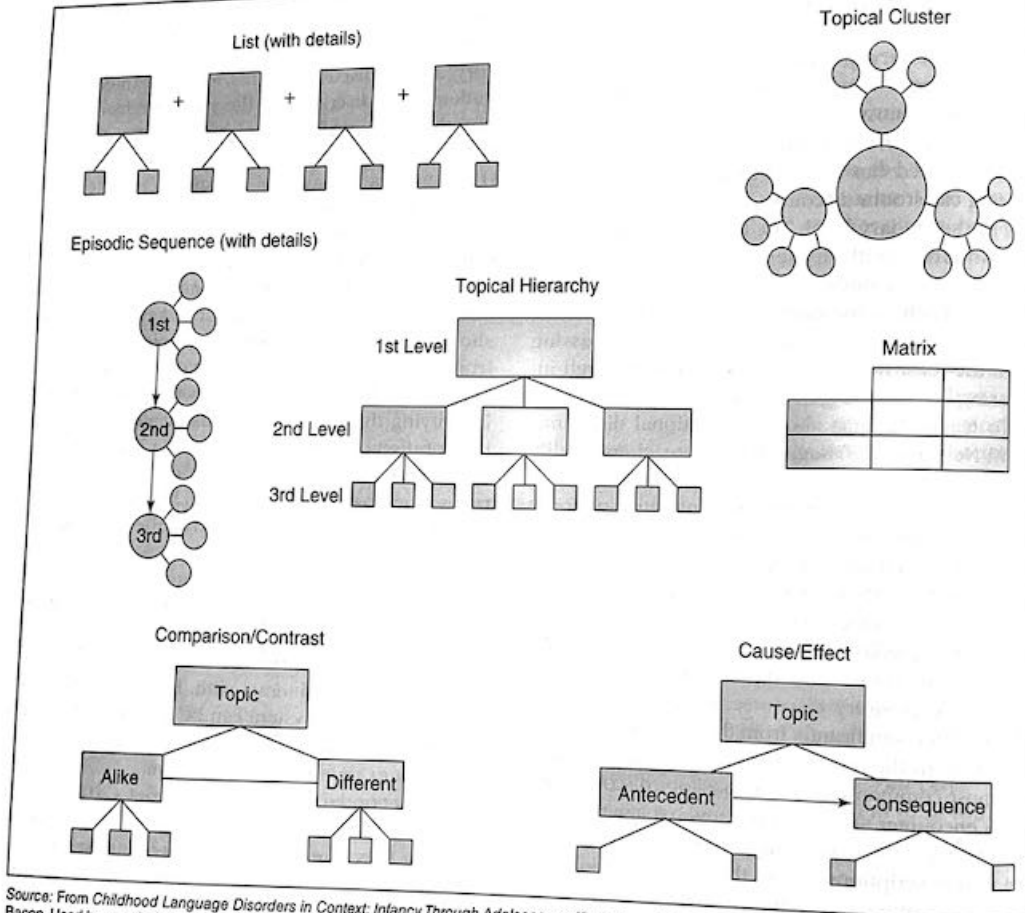
There are five types of expository discourse: cause and effect, compare and contrast, descriptive, explanation, and problem and solution. Each of these types uses a unique set of key words, also shown in the table. Using the graphic organizers from Figure 4-2 and the five types of expository discourse, the teacher can have students begin identifying the characteristics associated with each type of discourse that they're reading. Once the students have learned how to recognize the various types of expository text, they can begin focusing on the structural aspects, as shown in the basic outlining strategy shown in Table 4-20.

The teacher can show students how to use this format to create a checklist or outline to follow as they begin learning how to comprehend and orally describe the organizational characteristics of the expository text they interact with. For more advanced students, a rubric system can be used to help them increase their skill with expository text. Figure 4-3 shows an example of such a system.

The Secondary School Educators (2011) website offers a set of rubrics for students and teachers showing how to evaluate compare/contrast, expository, debate, and persuasive essays. The rubric for expository discourse emphasizes focus, organization, conventions, and understanding and support, each rated along a six-point scale. In addition to the rubrics, the site also provides a tutorial on how to write rubrics for any assignment.

Sponsored by Thirteen.org (WNET New York), Friedman (2011) offers a lesson plan for 10th, 11th, and 12th graders on how media shapes perception of events through analyzing the subtexts present in the audio, language, and visual aspects of media coverage of tragic events. Students have opportunities to explore how the media shapes their opinions and emotional reactions to tragic events. After looking at various news organizations' homepages, students convey their own opinions and emotions by creating their own homepage designs.

FIGURE 4-2 Non-narrative Discourse Types



Source: From *Childhood Language Disorders in Context: Infancy Through Adolescence* (2nd ed., p. 419), by N. W. Nelson, 1998, Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon. Used by permission.

TABLE 4-20 Basic outline format for expository writing

Title (the subject of the report or essay)
Topic sentence (statement of the overall idea of the report or essay)
I. First main idea
A. Fact 1
B. Fact 2
C. Fact 3, etc.
II. Second main idea
A. Fact 1
B. Fact 2
C. Fact 3, etc.
III. Conclusion (restatement of the topic sentence, the conclusion)

For some children, learning that language exists on more than one level is a delight, while for others it's a mysterious and troubling task that seems to make little sense. However, the ability to use non-literal forms of language is necessary in order to participate fully in social interactions, which often rely on idioms, slang, and shortcuts, and to access written language, particularly poetry, music lyrics, drama, and fiction. An inability in this area can result in a student being ostracized or, worse, belittled or bullied. Websites oriented toward teaching English as a second language are a rich source of ideas about teaching figurative language types. An example is 42explore.com (2005), which offers

FIGURE 4-3 Example of a Rubric

Organization and structure of text
Cohesive features
Developmental levels of syntax, vocabulary, and cohesion strategies
Writing mechanics
Sense of audience (reader)

helpful definitions and links that teach figurative language. The earliest types of figurative language that elementary students learn are metaphors, similes, onyms, synonyms, and antonyms. There are many plans for teaching homonymy. YourDictionary.com provides a list of 706 sets of homonym quizzes, and several plans for students (including language [ESL] students).

Florida TechNet.com (2005) provides a comprehensive lesson plan to teach figurative language as a list of the most common figurative language. They have provided a lesson plan for teaching figurative language. Although they are designed for elementary and adults, they can be easily adapted for younger students. Garossino (2005) provides a lesson plan for second and third grade students and riddles as a vehicle for teaching figurative language and homonyms. The Internet Teacher (2005) has compiled a set of self-study materials for students that can be used to learn about figurative language and English homonyms, ranging from easy to medium-difficult.

Teachnet.com (2011) provides a lesson plan for middle school students using figurative language and antonyms. Another interesting application, CyberHomonyms.com, has designed a lesson plan teaching figurative language and synonyms facilitates search engines. Teachnet.com (2011) has compiled a list of figurative language from elementary through second grade. It includes metaphors, synonyms, and antonyms.

Most children are exposed to figurative language phrases well before they are able to understand them, ever, because idioms vary across cultures and cultural influences, and

FIGURE 4-3 Example of a Rubric System for Increasing Skill with Expository Discourse

	<i>Just Learning</i>	<i>Getting There</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>More Often</i>	<i>Almost There</i>	<i>Got It!</i>
Organization and structure of text						
Cohesive features						
Developmental levels of syntax, vocabulary, and cohesion strategies						
Writing mechanics						
Sense of audience (reader)						

helpful definitions and links to a variety of sites that teach figurative language.

The earliest types of figurative language elementary students learn about are usually homonyms, synonyms, and antonyms. Numerous lesson plans for teaching homonyms are available online. YourDictionary.com provides numerous resources, including a list of 706 sets of homonyms, 56 online homonym quizzes, and several homonym lesson plans for students (including English as a second language [ESL] students).

Florida TechNet.com (2011) has posted a comprehensive lesson plan to teach homonyms, as well as a list of the most common homonyms; they also have provided a lesson plan on synonyms and antonyms. Although they are designed for adolescents, and adults, they can be easily modified for use with younger students. Garosshen's (1988) Ask Eric lesson plan for second and third graders uses jokes and riddles as a vehicle for teaching students about homonyms. The Internet TESL Project (2002a) has compiled a set of self-study homonym quizzes students can use to learn about the most common English homonyms, ranging in difficulty from easy to medium-difficult.

Teachnet.com (2011) provides a lesson plan for middle school students using sports headlines to teach synonyms and antonyms. And, in an interesting application, CyberSmart.org (2011) has designed a lesson plan teaching students how using synonyms facilitates searching on the internet. Sass (2011) has compiled a list of online lesson plans, elementary through secondary, to teach homonyms, synonyms, and antonyms.

Most children are exposed to idioms and idiomatic phrases well before they enter school. However, because idioms vary by geographic region, cultural influences, and education level, children

entering school do not necessarily know the exact idioms commonly used by their schoolmates. Also, children from families that are less oriented toward literate uses of language may not recognize that idioms are figurative expressions. J. C. Miller (2003) has designed a lesson plan for third- through fifth-grade students that also includes a list of common idioms. The ESLgold.net (2011) has devoted an entire section to teaching idioms. It recommends textbooks and dictionaries in four areas: slang, idioms, proverbs, and clichés. Rizzo (2011) used *Amelia Bedilia* (Parish, 1992) to devise a lesson plan for teaching idioms to fourth through sixth graders.

A comprehensive collection of English idioms and quizzes is available from the Idiom Connection (2011). Idioms are grouped by category, such as animal, heart, food, fish, clothes, business, body, money, and number. The multiple-choice quizzes provide immediate feedback in an easy-to-use format, making them ideal for students to use online. The Internet TESL Journal (2002b) has collected a set of idiom quizzes, organized into three categories (idioms, phrasal verbs, and slang) by level of difficulty (beginner, more difficult). The site, which is devoted to idioms and slang, allows the student to select an idiom (from an alphabetical list) in a sentence and then click to see what it means in plain English. The idioms are categorized from medium to high difficulty so students can choose the appropriate level.

AtoZTeacherStuff.com (n.d.) provides numerous links to lesson plans and rubrics for teaching various types and aspects of figurative language, including alliteration, simile, metaphor, forms of poetry, imagery, onomatopoeia, personification, proverbs, and puns. ReKate (2003) has designed a lesson plan using Martin Luther King Jr.'s "I Have a Dream" speech to teach fifth- through ninth-grade students about analogy, symbolism, personification,

the use of repetition, chronology, metaphor, and figurative language. The National Endowment for the Humanities's Edsitement.neh.gov (2011) includes a thorough lesson plan for teaching students about allegory and the art of persuasion, using George Orwell's novella, *Animal Farm*. The plan includes an introduction, guiding questions, learning objectives, preparation instruction for the teacher, lesson activities, lesson assessment, and ideas for extending the lesson.

The Family Education Network has a lesson plan that can be used with students in Grades 3 through 12 addressing both simile and metaphor. The Harris Middle School has developed a lesson plan for 5th- through 12th-grade students to learn to interpret and write similes and metaphors through studying poetry. The Shelbyville Middle School has developed a lesson plan for teaching upper elementary school students about puns through using poetry and valentine verse.

Merriam-Webster.com (2011) defined slang as "an informal nonstandard vocabulary composed typically of coinages, arbitrarily changed words, and extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech." In other words, slang is a set of specialized idioms and idiomatic expressions that change frequently. Because slang is a variant of idioms, teaching students about slang is virtually the same process as teaching them about idioms. ManyThings.org (n.d.), a website aimed at ESL students, offers a comprehensive list of commonly used American slang, and LessonPlan.com (2011) provides a set of links to lesson plans centered on teaching students various elements of slang.

Learning to reflect on and talk about communication, language, speech, and one's own learning is one of the most critical skills students learn in elementary school. As discussed earlier, the ability to reflect on and talk about how people communicate is called **metapragmatic ability**; the ability to reflect on and talk about language and speech is described as **metalinguistic ability**; and the ability to reflect on and talk about one's own learning is termed **metacognitive ability**.

Teaching students metapragmatic skills focuses on helping them recognize that the "rules" governing how language is used in different situations can be talked about, analyzed, and broken (E. A. Polloway et al., 2012). According to Polloway and colleagues, metapragmatic instruction for elementary students emphasizes showing students how to:

- Decide when to violate the "tell the truth" principle
- Identify the unspoken rules governing classroom discourse
- Participate in classroom discourse
- Demonstrate knowledge appropriately in the classroom
- Talk about different types of discourse (e.g., slang, school talk, home talk, church talk)
- Participate successfully in different types of discourse
- Talk about discourse rules
- Use different discourse genres in their writing

For secondary students, E. A. Polloway et al. (2012) emphasized how important it is to understand and be able to participate successfully in the unspoken classroom rules (the hidden curriculum, discussed earlier), which requires significant metapragmatic ability. They recommended utilizing a set of questions, shown in Table 4-21, devised by Creaghead (1992) to assess students' awareness of the different sets of classroom rules required by their individual teachers.

For elementary students, one of the most important metalinguistic abilities they must acquire is **phonological awareness**, which plays a major role in learning to read and write. Teaching phonological awareness, however, has become entangled in a controversy about whether to teach students using a whole language or a phonics instruction approach (also called phonemic awareness).

TABLE 4-21 Assessing students' understanding of unspoken classroom rules

-
- How do you know when to be quiet in (name of teacher)'s class?
 - How do you know when it is OK to talk in (name of teacher)'s class?
 - How do you know when you can ask questions in (name of teacher)'s class?
 - In (name of teacher)'s class, how do you know what kind of answer you are supposed to give (short or elaborated)?
 - In (name of teacher)'s class, how do you know if it's OK to ask another student for help?
 - In (name of teacher)'s class, is it important to use correct grammar and spelling in your writing?
-

Source: Information based on "Mutual Empowerment Through Collaboration: A New Script for an Old Problem," by N. Creaghead, in *Best Practices in School Speech-Language Pathology* (Vol. 2, pp. 109-116), edited by W. A. Secord, 1992, San Antonio, TX: Psychological Corporation.

Specifically regarding whether how to read by using a whole phonics instruction approach, some language approach argue that taught by incorporating childre activities, and communication curriculum. In contrast, some instruction argue that, for childre in an organized way, they must direct, sequential mode of tea has emerged from this long-st an increasingly pervasive view has a role—albeit different—to read. Many teachers now in instruction in the context of literic activities that require ro

The International Reading published a position statement phonics is an important part instruction, but, to be effective must be "embedded in the cor language arts program" (para ciation's statement explicitly s "the 'reading wars'—the pitti literature in literacy instructi incompatible" as well as "th mandates that require teacher scriptive plans for phonics in:

What follows here is a di phonics instruction, but of children in developing an : netic and phonemic aspects

A rich resource for te Dickson's (1999b) online dis and assessment guidelines f ness. These authors provide nological awareness and des contemporary research into t phonological awareness and of their discussion is devo guidelines for teaching pho phonemic awareness, inclu ing disabilities or difficult Their instructional guidelin ties that can easily be integr

Edelen-Smith (1997) dev set of phoneme awareness laborative kindergarten an Arranged developmentally on research demonstratin phonemic awareness to cl

Specifically regarding whether to teach students how to read by using a whole language or a direct phonics instruction approach, supporters of a whole language approach argue that reading can best be taught by incorporating children's literature, writing activities, and communication activities across the curriculum. In contrast, supporters of phonics instruction argue that, for children to master reading in an organized way, they must be taught through a direct, sequential mode of teaching phonics. What has emerged from this long-standing controversy is an increasingly pervasive view that each approach has a role—albeit different—in children's learning to read. Many teachers now incorporate phonics instruction in the context of literature and other curricular activities that require reading and/or writing.

The International Reading Association (2006) published a position statement saying that teaching phonics is an important part of beginning reading instruction, but, to be effective, phonics instruction must be “embedded in the context of a total reading/language arts program” (para. 2). Further, the association's statement explicitly stated that it denounces “the ‘reading wars’—the pitting of phonics against literature in literacy instruction, as if the two were incompatible” as well as “the growth in curricular mandates that require teachers to follow highly prescriptive plans for phonics instruction” (para. 5 & 6).

What follows here is a discussion, not of direct phonics instruction, but of approaches to assist children in developing an awareness of the phonetic and phonemic aspects of spoken language.

A rich resource for teachers is Chard and Dickson's (1999b) online discussion of instructional and assessment guidelines for phonological awareness. These authors provided a brief history of phonological awareness and described both historic and contemporary research into the relationship between phonological awareness and early reading. The bulk of their discussion is devoted to evidence-based guidelines for teaching phonological awareness and phonemic awareness, including students with learning disabilities or difficulties with early reading. Their instructional guidelines include specific activities that can easily be integrated into any curriculum.

Edelen-Smith (1997) developed a comprehensive set of phoneme awareness activities for use in collaborative kindergarten and first-grade classrooms. Arranged developmentally, the activities are based on research demonstrating that explicitly teaching phonemic awareness to children reduces their risk

of early reading failure. She recommended beginning with word play involving rhyming, followed by simple phoneme awareness through activities focused on:

- Recognizing isolated sounds
- Counting words, syllables, and phonemes
- Synthesizing sounds
- Matching sound to word
- Identifying sound positions
- Segmenting sounds
- Associating letters with sounds
- Matching word to word
- Deleting sound

Bowen et al. designed teacher resource sheets, showing academic strategies across content areas, to use to teach students general learning strategies as well as some tailored specifically to communicating, focusing and attending, staying organized, and solving problems.

Culturally and Linguistically Different

According to the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL 2000), a critical aspect of instruction for CLD students is to build on students' prior knowledge and skills and provide appropriate **scaffolding**, or first providing a model for learning a particular behavior or skill and gradually shifting responsibility for learning to the student. NCREL pointed out that building instruction around these elements not only provides students with opportunities for authentic learning, it also improves student engagement (para. 3). Following this teaching strategy requires that teachers acquire an understanding, not only of their subject matter, but of their students. That is, teachers must continually develop their knowledge of literacy instruction at the same time that they increase their awareness and understanding of “their students' cultures, experiences, and backgrounds” (para. 3).

The knowledge necessary for teachers to effectively teach in classrooms with CLD learners ranges from self-knowledge to being able to work in a disorganized environment. Table 4-22 lists a summary of the knowledge bases described by G. P. Smith (1998) and Haberman and Post (1998). A perusal of the summary clearly shows that developing this knowledge is, while an ongoing and long-term commitment, necessary given the increasingly diverse nature of classrooms across the country.

TABLE 4-22 Knowledge bases needed for teaching in diverse classrooms

G. P. Smith (1998) described 13 knowledge bases needed for teaching in diverse classrooms:

- Foundations of multicultural education
- Sociocultural contexts of human growth and psychological development in marginalized ethnic and racial cultures
- Cultural and cognitive learning style theory and research
- Language, communication, and interactional styles of marginalized cultures
- Essential elements of cultures
- Principles of culturally responsive teaching and culturally responsive curriculum development
- Effective strategies for teaching minority students
- Foundations of racism
- Effects of policy and practice on culture, race, gender, and other categories of diversity
- Culturally responsive diagnosis, measurement, and assessment
- Sociocultural influences on subject-specific learning
- Experiential knowledge (pp. 132–135)

Haberman and Post (1998) listed the knowledge bases they believe are necessary for teaching in diverse classrooms:

- Self-knowledge—a thorough understanding of one's own cultural roots and group affiliations
- Self-acceptance—a high level of self-esteem derived from knowing one's roots
- Relationship skills—the ability to work with diverse children and adults who are different from oneself in ways that these others perceive as respectful and caring
- Community knowledge—a knowledge of the cultural heritages of the children and their families
- Empathy—a deep and abiding sensitivity and appreciation to the ways in which children and their families perceive, understand, and explain their world
- Cultural human development—an understanding of how the local community influences development
- Cultural conflicts—an understanding of the discrepancies between the values of the local community groups and the traditional American values espoused in schools
- Relevant curriculum—a knowledge of connections that can be made between general societal values and those of the culture groups in the community, and the skills needed to implement this knowledge
- Generating sustained effort—a knowledge and set of implementation skills that will engage youngsters from this community to persist with schoolwork
- Coping with violence—skills for preventing and de-escalating violence and the potential for violence
- Self-analysis—a capacity for reflection and change
- Functioning in chaos—an ability to understand and the skills to cope with a disorganized environment (pp. 98–99)

Peña and colleagues (2007) proposed designing instruction for CLD children based on two fundamental principles. First, mediated instruction that focuses on their underlying skills that can be used to support language learning, regardless of the language or dialect the children speak, has been shown to increase children's ability to learn specific language structures. The authors concluded that an important aspect of mediated instruction aimed at underlying cognitive skills helps children develop behaviors for learning in general. Second, mediated instruction that focuses on skills that are specific to the language, dialect, and circumstances in which the children need language in order to communicate effectively and interact successfully has been

shown to help them understand their language goals, why they are important, and how they can use their new skills to enhance their own learning.

Table 4-23 shows a sample mediated instruction lesson for the same second-grade student described earlier in Table 4-15. The lesson was built from information gleaned during a mediated instruction session that measured the student's responsivity to learning how to include character descriptions in her stories. During the mediated instruction session, the student responded quickly and eagerly as the lesson guided her understanding of how to include character information in a story. She was able to generalize her learning to different characters, and she was able to tell her teacher how she planned to remember to

TABLE 4-23 Mediated instruction focused on including setting information in a story

Mediated Instruction Lesson—Providing Setting Information in a Story

Point of the Lesson: To teach Amarisa that stories should contain information about time and place.

Teaching Sequence: 1. Show Amarisa *Two Friends* and have her retell the story. Remind her before she begins to include information about when and where the events in the story take place. 2. Tell Amarisa what you're going to do in the lesson and why it is important. 3. Using the story, help Amarisa describe time and place. 4. If Amarisa describes the setting without much help from you, help her extend the concept to another story. If she has difficulty, help her evaluate why it is important to describe time and place in a story. 5. Help Amarisa plan how to describe the setting when she tells another story. 6. Help Amarisa respond to the questions throughout. Use prompts, cues, and models as needed to support her. 7. Help Amarisa figure out how she can remember to describe time and place next time she tells a story.

Strategy	Examples of Instruction	What You Did to Support Amarisa	How Amarisa Responded
What you're going to do	"Today we're going to talk about telling stories. When we tell stories, we tell when and where the events happen."	Reminded her what she learned about including character information	"Oh, yeah. The baby was big and kinda brown"
Why that's important	"Telling about when and where things happen is important because it tells your listener about the world the characters live in."	Asked Amarisa to describe her 7th birthday and how it was different from her 8th	"My mom have a party this year. Last year we go to my grandmommy's"
Help Amarisa describe the setting	"Let's look at <i>Two Friends</i> again. Let's see if we can see where and when things are happening." Help Amarisa describe where the dog and cat are at the beginning of the story. "When do you think this story happened? Was it yesterday? Ten years ago? A hundred?" Help Amarisa use time/place words and phrases.	Pointed out the pictures in the story that showed where and when	"Oh, he sleeping. It night there." "He swimming in a river"
Help Amarisa extend the concept to another story.	"How would you change the story if the dog and cat lived on a different planet? How would you change the story if it happened in the year 3000?" And, "Can you think of another story that tells where the characters are and when things are happening?" If not, present a familiar story and help Amarisa discover the setting.		"It cold on the moon. And dark on one side." "In 3000 they ride in a space ship" "In the Ugly Duckling, they in a lake."
Help Amarisa plan	"We've been talking about telling about time and place. The next time you tell a story, what are you going to remember to put in it?"		"Tell the place and the time, like now or the future."
Help Amarisa generalize her learning	"We've been talking about putting time and place in your stories. How are you going to remember to include time and place when you make up your own stories?"		"I think about the dog swimming in the river. Or him sleeping at home at the end."

include character information next time she told a story. As a result of the student's high responsivity, her teacher designed a mediated instruction lesson for the student's reading and writing group, who were each telling the group their favorite story in preparation for completing a story guide that would act as a template for them to use in writing a story over a 5-day period. Although the teacher addressed each of the five students and elicited their responses, she recorded only the questions, supports, and responses related to the specific student. The lesson focused on including setting information in the story, which the student learned relatively quickly.

TEACHING WITH TECHNOLOGY

Today's children are surrounded by digital technology from infancy and use a variety of devices on a daily basis. In 2005, 87% of teenagers (21 million teens) between 12 and 17 reported using the Internet; of those, 78% (16 million) say they use the Internet at school (NCREL, 2005). NCREL further reported that 57% of all children in school ages 7 to 17 use a computer at home for schoolwork and 75% of online teens (approximately 16 million) use instant messaging, 75% of them to talk about schoolwork, homework, or tests.

TABLE 4-24 Information and communication technology (ICT) literacy skills described as basic by businesses and policy and nonprofit organizations

The basic ICT literacy skills include the ability to:

- Communicate effectively in various media, including print, video, animation, and design across multiple environments that include books, e-mail, websites, streaming media, web logs, podcasting, and message boards
- Analyze and interpret data available in electronic formats (including the Internet)
- Understand computational modeling used across a wide range of disciplines
- Manage and prioritize tasks while multitasking across technology applications while working individually and in teams
- Solve problems by applying what they know to new situations

Source: From *Critical Issue: Using Technology to Improve Student Achievement*, by North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 2005, retrieved May 31, 2011, from <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/methods/technology/te800.htm>.

Increasingly, business, policy, and nonprofit organizations are developing descriptions and definitions of the higher-level technology-related skills (termed information and communication technology, or ICT, literacy skills) students will need in the workplace. According to NCREL (2005) these skills include those shown in Table 4-24.

One of the richest technology resources available is the Internet, which contains an almost unimaginable scope of information for virtually any subject or content area. As a resource, the Internet is invaluable precisely because it is so vast. That same vastness, however, can be intimidating and confusing without forethought and planning. As a means of teaching students with special needs, the Internet offers a wide range of resources related to specific aspects of language instruction, many of them noted throughout this chapter. Many of the online resources related to teaching language arts can be used or modified for students needing specific language instruction. Table 4-25 lists some of the best online resources for language instruction.

Until recently, students with special needs often had limited access to and interaction with a variety of technologies. However, with rapidly evolving communication technologies more readily available in an increasing number of classrooms, these students now have more opportunities to use technology in a number of ways. The Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST), a nonprofit organization devoted to expanding learning opportunities

for all learners, has adopted Universal Design for Learning (UDL) to research and develop ways to support all learners (Center for Applied Special Technology [CAST], 2005). According to CAST, the three basic principles of UDL are:

- Multiple means of representation, to give learners various ways of acquiring information and knowledge
- Multiple means of expression, to provide learners alternatives for demonstrating what they know
- Multiple means of engagement, to tap into learners' interests, offer appropriate challenges, and increase motivation

One of CAST's webpages offers a rich set of resources to support teachers who want to learn about and practice UDL (2006). The page includes information, opportunities to connect with other educators who are learning about and using UDL, tools and activities that utilize UDL, and model lessons across content areas and grades.

Each toolkit contains procedures, examples, resources, and an opportunity to share with others engaged in related work. The site also includes considerable information about UDL, how the brain works during learning, three case histories, guidance for planning the UDL curriculum, training guides, and model UDL lesson plans. An example from one of the UDL curriculum tools, Digital Content in the Classroom, contains an extensive set of lesson plans that use digital content (among others) to teach plot and vocabulary in Grades 9 and 10 (CAST, 2006).

Another rich resource is the Education Podcast Network (2011), which provides access to hundreds of podcasts that are helpful to teachers looking for content, including language and language arts. While the site includes podcasts exploring the nature of teaching and learning in the 21st century, the majority of podcasts are subject specific, including 38 related directly to English/language arts.

The Colorado State University Writing Project (2011), which includes poetry, photos, and reports on a writing camp for young storytellers and teachers from the St. Vrain Vally School District, offers resources for teachers, schools, and students. It offers a summer institute for K-16 teachers from all content areas with intensive training, that helps them develop as writers, leaders, and teacher researchers and a series of summer workshops featuring research-based literacy strategies teachers can use right away in their classrooms.

TABLE 4-25 Online resources for language instruction

- About.com. (2011). http://712educators.about.com/od/englishlessons/Language_Arts_Lesson_Plans.htm. *Secondary school educators: Language arts lesson plans*. <http://7-12educators.about.com/msub1plneng.htm>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Links to numerous secondary language arts lesson plan sites.
- Cape Breton-Victoria Regional School Board. (2011). <http://www.cbv.ns.ca/sstudies/english/eng.html>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. A large database of language arts lessons (mostly for middle and high school) collected from teachers throughout Nova Scotia.
- Education World. (2011). http://www.education-world.com/a_tsl/archives/00-1/lesson0004.shtml. Retrieved June 1, 2011. A lesson plan for Grades 3–8 (adaptable for all grades) on using a thesaurus.
- Educator's Reference Desk. (2011). http://www.eduref.org/cgi-bin/lessons.cgi/Language_Arts. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Dozens of links to language lesson plans and resources.
- Educator's Reference Desk. (2011). http://www.eduref.org/cgi-bin/printlessons.cgi/Virtual/Lessons/Language_Arts/Vocabulary/VOC0003.html. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Lesson plans designed to teach students to choose appropriate synonyms for both speaking and writing.
- Educator's Reference Desk. (2011). http://www.eduref.org/cgi-bin/printlessons.cgi/Virtual/Lessons/Language_Arts/Writing/WCP0020.html. Retrieved June 1, 2011. A sixth-grade lesson plan for learning synonyms and antonyms in pairs.
- Educator's Reference Desk. (2011). http://www.eduref.org/cgi-bin/lessons.cgi/Language_Arts/Vocabulary. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Vocabulary lesson plans for all grades.
- Educator's Reference Desk. (2011). http://www.eduref.org/cgi-bin/printlessons.cgi/Virtual/Lessons/Language_Arts/Vocabulary/VOC0201.html. Retrieved June 1, 2011. A lesson plan for third- and fourth-grade lessons on homophones.
- Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning Lab. (2011). <http://www.mcrel.org/lesson-plans/lang/langlessons.asp>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Language arts lesson plans.
- Lesson Plan Page. (2011). <http://www.lessonplanspage.com/LAMatchingWithSynonymsAntonyms4.htm>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. A fourth-grade lesson in matching with synonyms and antonyms.
- Outta Ray's Head. (2011). <http://home.cogeco.ca/%7Erayser3/>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. A collection of lesson plans and handouts, collected by Ray Saitz and fellow teachers in Ontario, Canada.
- Read, Write, Think. (2011). <http://www.readwritethink.org/>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Lesson plans, standards, web resources, and student materials from the International Reading Association and the National Council for Teachers of English.
- Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation. (2011). <https://www.stf.sk.ca/portal.jsp?Sy3uQUnbK9L2RmSZs02CjV/LfyjbyjsxsOWx65whH+P8=F>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Online units for the elementary grades.
- Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation. (2011a). <https://www.stf.sk.ca/portal.jsp?Sy3uQUnbK9L2RmSZs02CjV/LfyjbyjsxsYIQb/uCLCUU=F>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Online units for the middle grades.
- Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation. (2011b). <https://www.stf.sk.ca/portal.jsp?Sy3uQUnbK9L2RmSZs02CjV/LfyjbyjsxsolcCayXqg64=F>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Online units for the secondary grades.
- Vocabulary.com. (2011). <http://www.vocabulary.com/rsvp.html>. Retrieved June 1, 2011. Root-specific games for middle, junior, and high school.

For schools, the project also sponsors professional development programs for teachers—presented by teachers—that focus on the most recent research on writing and literacy, again with an emphasis on immediate applicability in the classroom. And for students, the project hosts summer writing workshops on the CSU campus. The workshops include students from elementary, middle school, and high school students, who work with published writers to participate in creative writing exercises and to share their work in writing groups. Their best work is then published in an anthology from which they offer readings of their work.

Teaching Students with AAC Systems

While most students with special needs benefit from using and interacting with a variety of technologies, some students with limited expressive language abilities function best through using a specific AAC system (the types of AAC systems were described in an earlier section). Students who can access print rather than pictures are at an advantage over those who are limited to pictures or symbols. Why is this the case? It's because print-based systems offer at least two opportunities that nonprint systems cannot: the opportunity to develop the literacy skills

needed to communicate through print, and the possibility of a greater range of conversational partners (E. A. Followay et al., 2012).

However, Paul (2006) pointed out that AAC devices that use voice output (i.e., computers that produce synthesized voice) bring a different sort of benefit to the students using them. First, they help students match words and sentences to their intended meanings, thus improving phonological awareness. Second, children using voice output devices show greater speech and language growth than children using different sorts of systems. And, third, voice AAC devices have been shown to increase children's language literacy development.

In recent years, speech recognition software design has progressed so that it can be used to help students who have difficulty with reading and writing. Higgins and Raskind (2000) reported that students with learning disabilities involving writing improved significantly in writing productivity, content, and ideas when using speech recognition software rather than dictating to someone or attempting to write themselves.

LD Online (2010) has compiled numerous resources for teachers wishing to learn more about using assistive technology (AT) of all sorts, including AAC devices, multimedia software, and reading software. The site also includes links to the following sorts of information:

- How using technology supports struggling students
- A description of assistive technology (AT) laws, what comprises AT, and how students can benefit from it
- AT and the IEP
- Sources of alternative funding for AT
- Which consumer products are available and what they do
- How to integrate the arts with technology to inspire creativity

Family Village (2011) described as a global community of disability-related resources and funded in part by the Waisman Center at the University of Wisconsin, hosts an ever-changing webpage devoted to assistive technology for students with disabilities. The page includes links to numerous articles and websites, each annotated with a succinct, accurate summary to aid the user in finding relevant information.

NCREL (2011) hosts a webpage that describes various AT devices for students who:

- Are blind or have low vision
- Have difficulty communicating effectively
- Have difficulties in accessing communication, learning tools, or engaging in classroom or home activities
- Are deaf or hard-of-hearing
- Have high-incidence disabilities (learning, behavior, or cognitive disabilities)

Teacher Tap (2011) has collected a large list of links to AT resources for teachers, including information on the American with Disabilities Act, school projects, specialized information for various disabilities, and links to resources for children and young adults.

Nancy Amdor (2008), a teacher at Corning High School in Corning, Iowa, has developed a lesson plan using assistive technology with secondary students in language arts, specifically in the writing process. The purpose of Amdor's plan is for her students to use assistive technology software, which she describes, to research, organize, write, and edit essays. The plan is a unit plan that may take several days to several weeks to complete. She describes the process in detail, including:

- The preparation required and the procedures the students engage in (linked to Iowa's language arts standards)
- Tools and resources
- Hardware
- Timeline and course outline
- The final assessment
- Technology resources
- Background information about her school and community
- Detailed information about her students, their learning needs, and their progress through the unit
- How the activity has evolved over the school year

The lesson plan is downloadable, as are copies of the probe questions Amdor used throughout the unit.

SUMMARY

Increasingly, language instruction takes place in the classroom through collaborative efforts between the classroom teacher and other members of the

building support team (e.g., the speech-language clinician, learning disabilities specialist, psychologist, reading teacher). Because of the tremendous heterogeneity of students, including students from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds, teachers must develop a thorough understanding of communication, language, and speech. Specifically, in order to provide the most effective language instruction, teachers must have knowledge about how children develop oral language, make the transition from orality to literacy, and become able to monitor and modify their own language learning processes.

Assessment of children's language usually focuses on language form (phonology, morphology, and syntax), language content (semantics), and language use (pragmatics, discourse, and figurative language). Teachers have access to both standardized (norm-referenced instruments) and nonstandardized measures and approaches (e.g., dynamic assessment, questionnaires, developmental scales, criterion-referenced procedures). The primary purpose of language assessment for early elementary students is to evaluate their progress in using their oral language to succeed in learning to read, write, and spell. For upper elementary students, the primary purpose is to determine whether they are making the shift into the world of print and expository texts. Language assessment for adolescents focuses on how well they engage with literary language forms, as well as their success using their metalinguistic, metapragmatic, and metacognitive skills to successfully engage the secondary curriculum.

Teaching spoken language within the context of academic learning standards offers teachers a rich template for designing instruction, particularly given the current developments in the various technologies available in classrooms. Once the teacher's state standards have been identified, student goals can be linked directly to specific standards representing the areas of spoken language targeted for instruction. For teachers of early elementary students, the focus of language instruction is on vocabulary (semantics), metalinguistic ability (phonological awareness, homonym/antonym/synonym knowledge, humor, multiple-meaning words), pragmatic ability (narrative and classroom discourse), and early metacognitive ability (developing students' awareness of how they think and learn).

The emphasis of language instruction for teachers of upper elementary students is on discourse (understanding and learning from classroom lectures, accessing descriptive and explanatory text) and the meta's (fine-tuning metalinguistic, metapragmatic, and metacognitive abilities). Language instruction for secondary students focuses on increasing their understanding and use of persuasive/argumentative discourse, expanding their knowledge of written narrative discourse, increasing their figurative language use, and extending their metacognitive abilities.

ACTIVITIES

Elementary Level

Developing Metalinguistic Skills

Using the following list of games, construct your own specialized versions to reflect whichever language concepts you're focusing on. Have your students pair off and play!

- **Hangman**—have students play the game using familiar words.
- **Crossword puzzles**—have students use familiar words and concepts, perhaps from a story or science project, to construct crossword puzzles.
- **Word search**—have students find words embedded in seemingly random arrays of letters that you construct.
- **"Begins with . . ."**—select a picture that shows numerous animals, actions, or things and construct a game sheet that shows the first letter of three or four words shown in the picture, followed by the appropriate number of blank boxes that corresponds to the number of letters in each word. For instance, if there's a goat in the picture, the sheet would have "g _ _ _" and so on for the other words.
- **Anagrams**—construct a set of anagrams using words the students are practicing for spelling.
- **Misspelled words**—construct a set of misspelled words and ask students to first identify which are misspelled and then to spell them correctly.
- **Signing**—recruit a parent or volunteer to teach some American Sign Language (ASL) to the students. Have them talk about how ASL is different from English.
- **Communication board**—have the students work in teams to develop a communication board for a hypothetical student who is

temporarily unable to talk and needs a way to communicate. You can make it more realistic by having the students take turns role-playing the student who is unable to speak whose job is to try out the boards designed by each team and tell the teams how well each worked and how it could be made better.

- **Riddles**—have students work in teams to make up three riddles. Each team presents them to the other teams and gets feedback on what makes them funny and how they could be made even funnier.
- **Poem**—read a poem to the students and have them write their own, using the same number of words and the same style. Change the type of poem each time so that the students gain experience writing in different styles.

Secondary Level

Types of Discourse and Styles of Writing

Try out these activities, which give students experience playing with and learning about different types of discourse and corresponding styles of writing.

- Divide students into teams of three or four each. Select a different short piece of fiction (3–5 pages) for each team to read. Select pieces with considerable dialogue. Then have each team create an adaptation of their story that they then perform for their classmates. Emphasize the importance of dialogue and the presence of a narrator to speak the lines of the story that are not in dialogue. Provide time for them

to create some basic scenery and costumes. Have the students create a critique sheet each team can use to critique the other teams' *adaptations* (not their performances).

- Screen four or five songs that are popular with your students, making sure they contain appropriate content and words. Have the students read them aloud. Have each student then select one and write her or his own song using the same number of words, verses, and style. Have the students read or sing their songs aloud and tell how their song is like the song they chose to emulate.
- Divide students into teams and have them do a survey of online sites that they use frequently. Then have them identify what they think are actual ads (a type of persuasive discourse) and describe the persuasive characteristics of each ad. Have them present their findings to the rest of the class, and have their classmates decide whether the team's findings correspond with what they've learned about persuasive discourse.
- Divide students into teams and have them design a video that presents their case for modifying a school policy with which they disagree. When each team presents their video, the rest of the class offers a critique, using what they've learned about the characteristics of persuasive discourse. Have the class decide which video (or videos) are successful enough that they should be presented to the school administration (or to the people responsible for formulating school policy).

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE CLASSROOMS *Tips*

The lddproject.net website provides extensive background regarding how to build and maintain a culturally responsive classroom:

- An easy-to-understand description of *culture*
- Cultural diversity and its impact on learning
- Kohl's Cultural Values Continuum, a useful tool for assessing how one's cultural values are and are not reflected by those held in the United States

- A concise description of the difference between culture and ethnicity
- The four stages of cultural adaptation, identifying characteristics of each, and implications for the classroom
- The developmental stages of second language acquisition
- A thorough analysis of second language acquisition and disabilities

For more information, visit the website at: http://www.lddproject.net/theoretical_foundation.html.