

Clinical Forum

Making a Broader Case for the Narrow View: Where to Begin?

Geraldine P. Wallach

California State University at Long Beach

Stephen Charlton

Huntington Beach Union High School District, CA

Julie Christie

Los Angeles Unified School Board, CA

The provocative contributions of the authors of this forum encourage us to think outside of the proverbial box as both researchers and clinicians. During the evolution of this project, Kamhi challenged us to tackle a number of issues along the way. Several interconnected topics surfaced; others faded. A number of concepts took center stage and guided our thinking as we communicated with one another. They included the role of fluent and accurate decoding in reading instruction and disorders, the effectiveness of teaching domain-general versus domain-specific comprehension strategies, and the role that speech-language pathologists (SLPs) might play in improving student

knowledge. Kamhi asked us to think about whether we were fans of curriculum-based instruction, general strategy instruction, improving inferencing skills, or all of the above. It seemed like a daunting task initially, but the questions helped us take a strong metacognitive (or is it metalinguistic?) approach to the challenge and reflect on where we stand on this continuum of theoretically based and practically focused possibilities.

As the final installment in this tapestry of ideas, excluding the forum editor's summary, we approached our contribution from the perspective of working clinicians with school-based backgrounds. We ask our readers the same questions that we ask ourselves many

ABSTRACT: Purpose: This final article covering the topic of the interplay between decoding, comprehension, and content versus structure knowledge describes a set of language initiatives that are focused toward content area learning. Inspired by the work of their colleagues from diverse fields and their own work, the authors offer suggestions to clinicians who are interested in creating and delivering curriculum-relevant and strategic-based language intervention to school-age students with language learning disabilities (LLD).

Method: The discussion covers selected topics that form the foundation for an evolving intervention framework, including (a) understanding the content and structural requirements of textbooks, (b) integrating metacognitive and metalinguistic techniques into intervention goals and objectives, and (c) emphasizing

meaning-based activities that cut across connected discourse (macrostructure levels) and sentence/word components (microstructure levels) of spoken and written language.

Conclusion: Starting with ways to find clues about "what to do" with students by looking in their textbooks, the authors continue with examples that integrate content and structure knowledge using social studies and science as backdrops for language intervention. The article ends with a reminder to clinicians to consider ways that preschool language intervention can be more effective in helping children prepare for the academic demands of the future.

KEY WORDS: content knowledge, structure knowledge, curriculum-based intervention, metalinguistic language initiatives

times: Do you ever feel completely confused about “what to do” with children and adolescents with language learning disabilities (LLD)? Is it difficult to figure out where to begin? What to focus on? Do you ever ask yourself: How can I write and deliver meaningful language intervention goals and objectives, especially when the paperwork of schools inhibits much creativity? Does all of the terminology only add to the confusion? Terms like content knowledge, structure knowledge, fundamental literacies (including decoding ability), derivational literacies (including the language of history, of science, etc.), general strategies, and domain-specific strategies, among countless others, appear throughout the literature. In addition, discussions of narrow and broad views of reading instruction such as those introduced by Kamhi in this forum, not to mention the evolving role of SLPs in the reading and writing process, add to the challenge of creating meaningful interventions for our students. To state the obvious, there are no easy answers to these questions, but we can look to the research and to the principles discussed in this forum as a beginning.

Each contribution in this forum emphasizes the complexity of interactions among spoken and written language systems and the intersecting informational demands that are placed on children as they move through the grades. The examples presented a bit later in this article will highlight the depth of knowledge required by curriculum standards in Grades 4, 5, and 6. When one considers both internal and external factors that affect the ease and difficulty with which children learn, we are staggered by the challenges facing students with LLD in their classrooms every day. Internal factors include one’s inherent knowledge, skill, and ability. External factors include the complexity of a task that is presented to the student, a teacher’s instructional style, and a book’s content. And as we read our colleagues’ works, we are reminded further that the task of teaching children what they need to know as they move through the grades is a tough one indeed, especially if the children have difficulty reading and writing language (Catts & Kamhi, 2005; Ehren, 2005; Wallach, 2008).

We will explore aspects of content knowledge and structure knowledge, integrating metacognitive and metalinguistic techniques in our presentation of curriculum-based language intervention ideas. These ideas represent a work in progress. They grew out of suggestions from the research and our experiences with school-age students who attend the Language, Speech, and Hearing Clinic at the California State University at Long Beach in Long Beach, CA and a number of public schools in the Long Beach area. We begin with examples from Grade 5 social studies textbooks to demonstrate some of the content and structural interactions that influence comprehension. The roles of background knowledge (i.e., what a student already knows about a topic) and linguistic knowledge (i.e., what a student knows about expository text, syntax, and lexical items) are woven into the discussion. Excerpts from textbooks offer SLPs a rich canvas of language opportunities in their search for what to do with their students with LLD. We will ask a number of clinical questions that highlight ways in which the curriculum forms a backdrop for our intervention choices (as inspired by Ehren, 2000, 2006a, this forum). Next, we will present selected examples that show how clinicians can combine content and structural activities with what Kamhi calls *more general comprehension strategies* like self-questioning and summarizing. We will end with a look at some of the directions we are taking with our kindergarten and Grade 1 students with LLD.

Understanding the Content and Structural Requirements of Textbooks

In her article in this forum, Scott presented a number of examples of sentence-level/syntactic challenges for students. In the example she presented from a newspaper discussing a current event, she reminded us that sentence length, in addition to complexity, can create serious roadblocks to comprehension, especially for students with LLD. The sentence that follows is another example of one that students might encounter in a Grade 5 social studies textbook (see, for example, Smith, 1998). It is not as long as Scott’s example, but it takes very little analysis to understand why it may be difficult for many of our school-age students with LLD to comprehend:

The Boston Tea Party was the colonists’ response to an unfair tax instituted the prior year by the British Parliament.

Even with adequate decoding skills, comprehending the sentence is no easy task. To start, the reader might note that the sentence relates to abstract concepts involving freedom, independence, and a series of events related to the American Revolution. One might also note the metaphoric use of the phrase *tea party*. Moreover, figuring out the who-did-what-to-whom involves understanding that the *doers* or agents of the actions are a group of people (the colonists) and an institution (the British Parliament). The colonists are also receivers of an action—the unfair tax. It may also be difficult, especially for fifth graders with LLD, to determine the order of events. Which event came first? The phrase *prior year*, and specifically, understanding the meaning of the word *prior*, adds to the possible confusion, among other issues, including the passive/object relative structure of the sentence (Wallach, 2008).

Consider the complexity of the Boston Tea Party theme as it gets embedded in connected text in a very brief excerpt presented here:

The colonists knew that their actions would have very serious consequences, or results. After hearing about the Boston Tea Party, Parliament decided to punish the colony of Massachusetts. A law was passed saying that no ship carrying colonial goods could leave Boston Harbor until the colonists had paid for all the tea that was destroyed. To enforce the new law, Parliament ordered the Royal Navy to blockade Boston Harbor. (*Social Studies: The Early United States*, 2000, p. 280)

The processing and comprehending of connected expository text, especially text that contains less familiar information, creates, as Lahey and Bloom (1994) so eloquently noted, a *competing resources* challenge. That is, students must unravel the text itself at lexical, syntactic, and connected discourse levels and absorb its difficult content. The transmission of information in written form, the way that students get the majority of their in-class information, adds to the level of difficulty (Villano, 2005). The metaphoric and nonliteral notion of a tea party, as mentioned earlier, adds to the comprehension challenge, as does the text’s syntactic complexity (e.g., “A law was passed saying that no ship carrying colonial goods could leave Boston Harbor until the colonists...”).

A review of curriculum materials such as the Boston Tea Party examples may offer SLPs some clues about the direction that language intervention could take. As Ehren proposed in this forum and her writings (e.g., 2000, 2006a), SLPs need to consider the language knowledge and skills that underlie academic tasks. She also asks the question: “How can we help our kids acquire and use

more effective comprehension strategies?" In the context of this forum, we would add: "Is there a way to combine aspects of decoding (the narrow view) and comprehension (the broader view) in our intervention approaches? And "Can we integrate content and structure knowledge aspects of language learning?"

By analyzing the Boston Tea Party examples, clinicians may find opportunities for targeting language skills, depending on the individual needs of students, on a number of levels including macrostructure levels (i.e., connected text levels) and microstructure levels (i.e., sentence and lexical levels). For example, some students may benefit from learning more about the way expository text is structured, including learning about the differences among compare and contrast, problem-solution, descriptive, and other texts like persuasive texts (Nippold, Ward-Longergan, & Fanning, 2005; Ukrainetz, 2006; Wallach, 2008; Westby, 2005). Along with macro activities, students may also benefit from learning the meanings and use of various connector words and phrases like *similar to*, *different from*, *was caused by*, *is the result of*, *prior to*, *after*, and so forth. In addition to writing and traditional decoding activities, students would benefit from decoding activities that include a meaning-related component like learning the morpho-phonemic connections among words like *colonists*, *colonial*, and *colony* (see Siegel's 2008 discussion of morphological awareness). Likewise, syntactic work on active/passive and various sentence combining activities has been shown to improve students' grammatical and comprehension ability (Eisenberg, 2006; Scott, this forum). Clearly, the Grade 5 examples of sentence and text lead us to another question: What can we do to help our students survive and thrive in the classroom? In particular, how do we create curriculum-based and strategic-focused language intervention? The sections that follow explore these questions in greater detail.

For the moment and in a partial summary thus far, we are proposing that students' textbooks and other curriculum materials give us many clues about where to begin to help our students that standardized kits and programs can never provide. The abbreviated examples from fifth-grade social studies texts provide a rich backdrop filled with opportunities for SLPs who work with school-age students. Curriculum content may serve as our language materials, but herein lies caution: We, as SLPs, must ask ourselves the Ehren-inspired (2006a) question: What language knowledge and skills underlie (successful handling of) the Boston Tea Party segments? The language knowledge needed may include comprehension of specific words like *consequences* and *results* (appearing together in the text, which is a good thing), *enforce*, *blockade*, *until*, and so forth. A skill might include the ability to manipulate syntactic forms like changing an active to a passive sentence while keeping the meaning intact. We are also reminded of Kamhi's question to forum authors: What role might SLPs play in improving student knowledge? How do we help our students with LLD get through a unit on the Revolutionary War, one of the predominant units in the fifth grade? Kamhi challenges us by asking us to think about whether teaching students more "general" strategies like inferencing take us or the student far enough. Is it the SLP's role to teach the student about the Boston Tea Party? Our answers to these questions might be *maybe* because social studies requires a great deal of inferencing (VanSledright, 2004), and *probably not* because we cannot keep up with the fast-moving curriculum, and SLPs are not content area teachers (Ehren, 2006a; Wallach, 2008). But, we will return to these issues a bit later in the discussion. In the next section, we focus on two critical connections that may help us strike a balance in our intervention

choices: (a) the content-structure knowledge connection and (b) the fundamental-derived literacies connection.

Intervention Is a Balance of Knowledge and "Meta" Factors

The content-structure knowledge connection revisited. The authors of this forum were challenged to think about the role that background knowledge and other knowledge, like linguistic knowledge, play in this complex equation of language and school learning. Comprehension research suggests that if a student lacks background knowledge of an event like the Boston Tea Party, and this topic is embedded in difficult text (expository, complex sentences, unfamiliar lexical entries), then he or she is in deep ... trouble. Lahey and Bloom (1994), among others, might see this dilemma as one of competing resources mentioned earlier. By contrast, if a student has knowledge of the event, that is, if he or she knows a reasonable amount about the Boston Tea Party, he or she may be able to override the tough text. In other words, content knowledge leads the way, and more information is comprehended by virtue of knowing the sequences and consequences of the event. For example, the first author's reading comprehension of French seems remarkably good when reading articles about school-age language but is quite labored and almost nonexistent when reading about the French political system.

Beck, McKeown, Sinatra, and Loxterman's (1991) classic studies, among other now-classic investigations (including those by Beck, McKeown, & Worthy, 1995; Carver, 1992; Fincher-Kiefer, 1994; and Ohlhausen & Roller, 1988), provide us with many insights into content-structure relations. They remind us that readers use linguistic information to get critical points when they are reading expository text. Good readers pay attention to phrases and words like *by contrast*, *similarly*, and so forth. They also use titles to get a sense of what is coming in a text. The researchers also noted that structure knowledge is particularly important if the content is moderately or very unfamiliar to readers. When information is unfamiliar, readers tend to *fall back on* linguistic knowledge to get a text's meaning. Interestingly, background knowledge is most useful when the text is well structured.

According to McKeown, Beck, Sinatra, and Loxterman (1992), when a text is well structured, readers "can see the connections between text information and previous knowledge so that [internal and external] knowledge can be combined...to create a meaningful representation" (p. 91). On the other hand, when a text is poorly written or poorly organized and it fails to give its readers explicit cues for organization, comprehension suffers. And, finally, the compilation of research suggests that comprehension will be especially difficult to achieve if both content knowledge (familiarity with a topic) and structural knowledge (understanding of the ways texts are organized) are limited—a point we made earlier about students who might be the most vulnerable.

Returning to a clinical perspective, two additional questions serve as a prelude to the examples of activities that follow in an upcoming section:

- Can we as SLPs "fill in" the content knowledge that children need, especially as they approach and pass Grade 5?
- If it is unreasonable to think that SLPs can "keep up with" the specific curriculum content required and teach that content, what are our options?

We will demonstrate the route that we took to answer these questions later in this article. First, we discuss the differences between fundamental and derived literacies to complete this section of the article.

The fundamental–derived literacies connection: Social studies and science examples. Using the work of Yore et al. (2004), we found it very helpful to consider the interactions between derived and fundamental literacies in our search for effective intervention practices. This area of study is reminiscent of Kamhi’s question, which asked forum participants to consider their opinions about working on general or domain-specific strategies in language intervention. *Derived literacies* relate to a subject area’s particular form and style. Students become knowledgeable of and educated in a subject area by learning, consciously or not, how to manage the particular language of that subject area. (The first author admits to failing to learn the unique language of geometry, her worst subject by far.) Content area subjects like social studies and science, for example, have some overlapping qualities, but they also have their own unique requirements. According to many writers in curriculum development and related areas (Halliday, 1993; VanSledright, 2004; Villano, 2005; Yore et al., 2004), a person needs a reasonable degree of fundamental literacy in order to master the derived literacies of social studies/history and science. *Fundamental literacies* relate to being fluent in a language, understanding the different discourses of that language, and reading and writing that language (Yore et al., 2004). Fundamental literacies form the foundations for derived literacies (see Yore et al., 2004, for a detailed discussion). According to many of our colleagues in curriculum development and literacy, social studies involves many skills like being able to make inferences about what happened, evaluating sources of information, contrasting information, and putting events in context (VanSledright, 2002; Villano, 2005; Yore et al., 2004). Science involves some of the same skills as social studies, but it has its own language that involves managing technical terms, interlocking definitions, and writing and thinking more concisely (Halliday, 1993; Palincsar, Collins, Marano, & Magnusson, 2000; Palincsar & Magnusson, 2001).

VanSledright (2004) talks about mastering history. He says that understanding historical events can be elusive for many students, even those students without language disorders. Mirroring some of Kamhi’s notions about the critical role of background knowledge, VanSledright also notes that the hard core, domain-specific curriculum in history usually hits students in Grade 4. The assumption is made that by this grade level, children are “partially educated” in history. They know about their country, famous people, and so on. He goes on to say that although teaching students general or global reading comprehension strategies such as self-questioning and summarizing may be helpful and can be applied to history/social studies, teachers and clinicians must go further and recognize what it really takes to comprehend history. History involves reading and interpreting not only the printed text, but also timelines, photographs, and historical documents, among other things (VanSledright, 2004).

Going even further, clinicians and educators are reminded that reading and comprehending history is not the same thing as reading and comprehending science (Alexander, 2000; Wallach, 2008). In an earlier work, Halliday (1993) talked about the idea that science writing has some unique characteristics, that is, derived literacies, including informational density, a predominance of technical terms and taxonomies, authoritativeness in writing style,

and the presence of many interlocking definitions, among others. In essence, the language of science, like the language of social studies/history, has a structure and tone that may influence the amount and type of content that students absorb and comprehend. In addition to all of the technical terms and categorization systems (taxonomies), science is, like history, an inference-based curriculum (Best, Rowe, Ozuru, & McNamara, 2005; Palincsar et al., 2000). While steeped in facts and evidence, students have to make many connections “on their own” by integrating information across sentences and making connections among the technical terms and interlocking definitions that build on one another (Wallach, 2008). Yore and his colleagues (2004) stated that in addition to all the points mentioned, writing proficiency is especially important for science. They wrote that “scientists rely on printed text for ideas that inform their work before, during, and after experimental inquiries” (Yore et al., 2004, p. 348). Making notes, keeping track of steps, and summarizing findings are all part of scientific literacy. Students must also develop a critical stance in science, meaning that they must fuse old and new information, compare information across texts, evaluate theories and accompanying results, and have an appreciation for argument (Yore et al., 2004).

As SLPs, we might consider, yet again, how the derived literacies of science, as with social studies/history, inform our intervention decisions. Can we help our students, for both history and science, develop a “critical stance?” Can we help them acquire strategies for comparing information across texts? How can we help them form better arguments? Can our students develop the ability to handle the density of scientific language, expressed in “authoritative” expository text (macro level), that is formed by many complex syntactic structures (micro level) reflected in, for example, cause–effect (e.g., *if...then*), temporal (*first...second...next...result*), and other forms (see Best et al., 2005, and Westby & Torres-Velasquez, 2000, for detailed discussions of the language of science)?

An excerpt that follows provides us with a glimpse of the language of science from a Grade 6 textbook:

Grade 6 Science: Topic-Structure of Matter and Particles in Motion
The moving specks of dust offer evidence of the structure and nature of matter. Matter is composed of very tiny particles that are constantly in motion. The particles that make up matter are much smaller than the tiniest speck of dust. These particles are so small, in fact, that they can’t be seen, even with the best microscope your school owns. Air is made up of such particles, moving through space. As the particles of air move about, they collide with each other and with everything in your room, including the specks of dust. The movements of dust specks are caused by the particles of air bouncing the specks of dust around! (*Science Discovery Works*, 2003, p. C19)

In sum, here are some of the relationships we gleaned from the comprehension and curriculum research:

- A great deal of background knowledge is assumed to be intact about various subjects when children arrive at about Grade 4. This point was made earlier when we noted that students at this stage are believed to be “partially educated” in history (VanSledright, 2004; Villano, 2005).
- Content and structure knowledge form an interesting and complex partnership in the comprehension game (Beck et al., 1991; Beck et al., 1995; and other researchers mentioned).

- Students are expected to absorb most school content via lectures and textbooks that are expository in nature and informationally dense.
- Many textbooks are geared toward the above average reader, which creates problems for students with and without LLD (Villano, 2005).
- Spoken and written language abilities have a reciprocal relationship (Catts, this issue; Catts & Kamhi, 2005; Kamhi, this issue); basic language proficiency, including the acquisition of foundational literacies, underpins academic success.
- Mastery of general comprehension strategies (Ehren, 2005 and this issue) is critical for comprehension, but these strategies should be related to, and adapted for, the specific subject area in question.
- Content area subjects such as social studies and science are couched in derived literacies. These literacies build on foundational literacies, including decoding and comprehension abilities, that are believed to be intact and able to support the derivational literacies of content area subjects.

Creating Curriculum-Relevant and Meaning-Focused Language Intervention

Integrating metatechniques and macro–micro levels of discourse. We approached some of the questions raised in this forum at the Language, Speech, and Hearing Clinic at the California State University at Long Beach in Long Beach, CA. We considered ways to use the research to create a viable set of language initiatives focused toward content area learning (A. Bashir, personal communication, 2007). Inspired by Ehren’s works (e.g., Ehren, 2000, 2006a, 2006b; Ehren, Lenz, & Deshler, 2004), our main goal was to help our school-age students develop some of the language knowledge, skills, and strategies needed to thrive and survive in their classrooms. We also drew on the landmark work of Ellis (1997), who talked about the importance of helping students develop strategies that they could take with them into their classrooms by not “watering down” the things we do with them. The Appendix presents an abbreviated list of questions that we used to guide our thinking as we explored principles that would underlie the creation of an intervention framework.

The suggestions that follow are presented as a series of possibilities based on current research. We combined general metacognitive and reading comprehension strategies with linguistic and metalinguistic skills that relate to the language underpinnings of curriculum content. Our purpose is not to teach curriculum content, but to use the curriculum (Ehren, 2000, 2006a) as a backdrop or context for our language intervention. We believe that effective intervention means keeping the curriculum (along with teachers’ instructional styles) within our sights. Wherever possible, we have taken Ehren’s (2006a) advice and used curriculum materials that have *already been covered in class*. Again, as Ehren noted: Don’t fall into the “pre-teach the curriculum” trap. Rather, help students acquire the language skills and strategies needed to access the curriculum.

We provide examples for our readers’ consideration in the following areas: (a) “broader” *metacomprehension strategies*, highlighting variations of Ogle’s (1986) K-W-L strategy; (b) *macrostructure analyses*, including helping students learn about author’s purpose/

expository text; (c) *microstructure analyses*, including a focus on “tricky” words (lexical level) within sentences and sentences’ roles in text; and (d) *macro/micro connections*, including sentence analysis and chunking strategies.

A metacomprehension focus: Hit awareness of content and structure knowledge. One might say that the following variation of Ogle’s (1986) K-W-L (What I **K**now, What I **W**ant to know, and What I **L**earned) technique is one of the “broader” comprehension (metacognitive) strategies. The K-W-L outline in the example that follows encourages students to think consciously about what they already know (*old* information/background knowledge) and what they have learned (*new* information that is added to existing background knowledge). The bridge between these two (the **K** and the **L**) is what I **Want to learn**. In the current version we adapted, using Grade 6 science information, Ogle’s **L** column becomes the **LL** column, where students are asked to include what they *learned about language*.

<u>K</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>LL</u>
All living things are made of cells.	What are the parts of cells?	How to organize a descriptive and enumerative paragraph
Cells are the basic units of structure and function	What is the nucleus?	That the word <i>unit</i> means part of living things.

The K-W-L sheet may be modified to include a two-tiered arrangement:

<u>K</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>L</u>
		Science or History
		The Language

Wallach, 2008, p. 46

In this version, students complete the K-W-L “top floor” with curriculum content from lectures and textbooks; they complete the “lower floor” with language learned that has helped them (or will help them) comprehend the curriculum content or write a report. Both variations of this technique create excellent opportunities for SLP–teacher collaboration. SLPs focus on the language knowledge, skills, and strategies needed to access the curriculum; teachers focus on the information required by the curriculum standards for their grades.

In a variation of the K-W-L and K-W-LL activities, all inspired by Ogle (1986), we have our student writers plan their reports using a three-tiered activity sheet similar to the ones presented earlier. This activity involves answering the following questions (with some details) in oral and written form: *What do I know about the topic? What do I want my readers to learn about the topic? and What have I learned that will help me complete this report?* Using the Boston Tea Party example, what I know about the topic might include: It was an event in the Revolutionary War. It happened in Boston. It was between the colonists and the British. What I want my readers to learn about the Boston Massacre might include: When did the event happen? Why did it happen? Who was the first colonist killed? Why was his story important? What I learned that will help me complete the report might include an awareness of the need to prepare before writing, the use of a

particular visual map to organize my thoughts (see the next section), and checking to see if my writing makes sense.

Macrostructure analyses: Learn about the expository structure of curriculum content. With our ongoing “macro goal” to help students with LLD manage the language of the curriculum and develop more effective comprehension and organizational strategies, we include activities that are geared toward helping them become more familiar with the patterns and peculiarities of academic text. Harkening back to the work of Beck and her colleagues (Beck et al., 1991; Beck et al., 1995; McKeown et al., 1992), who discussed the complex relations between content and structure knowledge, good readers do “fall back on” (our term) structural knowledge, especially when information gets tough to comprehend. In addition, the derived literacies of many content area subjects, as noted in our social studies and science examples, require reading and writing expository text that expresses comparisons among people, events, and things; causes and effects; and problems and solutions, among other subtypes of exposition (Ukrainetz, 2006; Westby, 2006). Westby takes our meta analyses (like the Ogle examples presented earlier) to the structural/metalinguistic level with her reminder chart for expository types. For example, students using this chart are asked the following questions: *What does the text want to say (or is saying)? What is it called?* and *What are some key words related to the text?* An example of a compare–contrast follows:

<u>What does the text want to say?</u>	<u>What is it called?</u>	<u>What are some key words?</u>
How two things are the same or different	COMPARISON–CONTRAST	different, same, alike, similar, but, although, on the other hand

After the students have had “hands-on” practice with a number of expository form types, we would move to their textbooks to find examples of different types of expository text and work with them on macro and micro analyses. Students would then complete a “meta-analysis” of an excerpt as inspired by Westby’s compare–contrast example (2006):

<u>What is the text saying?</u>	<u>What is it called?</u>	<u>What are some key words?</u>
The North and South had different views during the Civil War but they started out as one country	(SAME AS ABOVE)	(SAME AS ABOVE) (LOOK IN TEXT FOR KEY WORDS)

(Excerpts from history texts might also be cause–effect focused, especially as they relate to the struggle of the new nation, a Grade 5 topic, but there are many varieties of exposition throughout the textbooks.)

In a variation of activities surrounding expository text knowledge, we would use selected visual maps (with caution) to help students appreciate the different types of exposition. Wallach (2008) used the visual map of a Venn diagram to illustrate compare–contrast text. She started with helping students make comparisons using their favorite and familiar topics, such as comparing two

baseball teams, to making comparisons using curriculum-based topics, including comparing the Civil War and the Revolutionary War, as seen in Figure 1. Spoken and written activities surround the use of visual maps.

We mention “with caution” when using visual maps for several reasons: Visual maps used for “brainstorming” activities and prewriting activities, in addition to helping students learn about expository genre types, may not convert directly to the organization of paragraphs on the written page. Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, and Wes (2004), Laing (2006), Singer and Bashir (2004), and Bashir and Singer (2006) provided some excellent suggestions about ways we can “match” the maps used with the intervention outcomes desired. So, a compare–contrast map, reflected by interlocking circles, does not show a student how to convert that knowledge into a sequence of organized paragraphs on a page. But, the Venn map may help students gain knowledge about a text’s/author’s purpose and help them acquire some of the “linguistic glue”—those “tricky”/smaller words and phrases (*similar to, different from, etc.*)—that make the logical relations expressed in expository text more explicit. In addition to matching the maps more closely to the skill that students need to learn, research suggests that encouraging students to construct their own graphic organizers may be a more effective strategy. And finally, although students with LLD may be successful at using various graphic organizers for a variety of tasks, they may still need help applying that knowledge to new situations (Kim et al., 2004; Laing, 2006). Thus, learning about the nature and uses of expository text can add knowledge and skills to a student’s linguistic tool bag. But, eventually, students must “take ownership” over what we teach them (Ehren, 2006a). They, too, must appreciate the purpose of intervention (e.g., It’s not just “playing games” or finishing worksheets) and connect intervention to classroom requirements. In a sense, it is much about that *LL* (Language Learned) column from our K-W-LL example. Students must see how the *LL* makes a difference.

Microstructure analyses: Sentence and lexical components are important too. We return to the Boston Tea Party sentence for an example of an activity that combines sentence and lexical comprehension. The activity has a metalinguistic flare and uses sentences from the curriculum that can be confusing to students with LLD. Recall the earlier example:

The Boston Tea Party was the colonists’ response to an unfair tax instituted the prior year by the British Parliament.

The sentence includes an object relative clause sentence with “that” implied; the clause defines unfair tax.

Understanding who-did-what-to-whom is certainly far from obvious, as we pointed out in our introductory discussion. As we know, passive structures can mislead students because the doers and receivers of actions are reversed. As also noted, this sentence is particularly difficult for a number of reasons, including use of the word *prior* and its clauses or phrases that complicate the order of events. So, how can we help students with LLD become more aware of some of the linguistic peculiarities they may face?

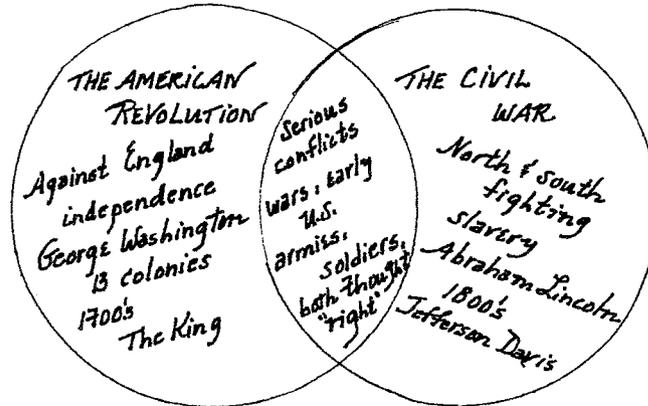
In addition to completing a semantic analysis (e.g., talking about the who-what-to-whom), students must also understand the way that time markers work (e.g., phrases like *prior to*). As inspired by the original work of Charlton and Christie (2006), we integrated activities surrounding key words and their meanings along with “breaking up” sentences. We wanted to show students how these

Figure 1. Venn diagram used for a compare–contrast activity with Grade 5 social studies content as a backdrop for learning about expository text.

SAMPLE TITLE FOR MY TOPIC:

Two wars in the United States (Facts and Details)

How I feel about wars (Opinions and Feelings)



Sample Sentence: The American Revolution and the Civil War are similar because they were serious conflicts.

Note. From *Language Intervention for School-Age Students: Setting Goals for Academic Success* (p. 67), by G. P. Wallach, 2008, St. Louis, MO: Mosby/Elsevier. Copyright 2008 by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

smaller linguistic units (we call them the linguistic glue) influence our understanding of the order of events. With the purpose of helping students develop a keener understanding of syntactic–semantic relationships, we worked out the following steps (Charlton & Christie, 2008; Wallach, 2008):

Step 1: Key words. Words chosen by the clinician are written and read with the students. Students can be encouraged to use these words in sentences to describe events in their own lives, among other topics:

Before	after	while
Prior	following	meanwhile

Step 2: The Boston Tea Party sentence presented next is shown in written form and read by the student or the clinician. Student and clinician discuss the “main ideas” or “main words” expressed in the sentence and how the word *prior* (or phrase *prior year*) connects to them. (Color coding words or other supports can be used to help make connections more explicit.)

The Boston Tea Party **PRIOR TO** unfair tax
 Unfair tax **PRIOR TO** Boston Tea Party

Question: How does the word *prior* relate to these pieces of the sentences?

(Discussion of the meanings of *prior* and *before*)

Step 3: The phrases are written on separate cards by the student (or clinician). They are moved around (as per above) and the correct order of events is discussed.

Unfair tax **PRIOR TO** Boston Tea Party
 (The unfair tax by the British came *before* the Boston Tea Party.)

Step 4: Does it make sense? Why? (Something would have to make you mad before you did something about it.)

Order of events: British tax (That makes colonists mad)
 They do something
 Dump tea in the harbor. Called Boston Tea Party

Step 4 can also be a place to start after key words are highlighted. In this arrangement, the students are given the actual order and they work through the syntax to observe and analyze how this sequence and the relations are expressed. Several variations on the theme are possible using social studies as a backdrop in addition to other content area subjects. Various time markers such as *before* and *after*, and other smaller linguistic units including *if then*, *between*, and *by contrast*, can be chosen to demonstrate how syntax and meaning connect and how to create complex syntactic forms. Although one example may appear a bit awkward out of context because it is only a small piece of a complex puzzle, we direct our readers to other examples covering sentence analysis and sentence combining that

have inspired our work in this area, including the contributions of Eisenberg (2006), Scott (this issue), Westby (2006), and Westby and Clauser (2005), to name only a few. Many other examples that integrate sentence and text connections, cohesion in text, and categorizations of key words are being adapted in our current work with students with LLD (see, for example, Burns, 2004; Mason, 2004; and Schleppegrell & Achugar, 2003).

Sentence meaning: Main idea and details. Another aspect of sentence-level comprehension, and a bit more, was inspired by Mason (2004). He calls this idea *stoplight organization*. It is an interesting idea that may need modification as well as additional research when it is used with students with LLD. Mason uses the image of green, yellow, and red stoplights to help students appreciate the main idea (green), supporting facts (yellow), and details (red) of a text. Green means GO. The author is telling the reader what the paragraph is going to be about. It is a main (or big) idea. Yellow means SLOW DOWN. The author is telling the reader reasons why the green statement is true (or is believed to be true by the author). Red means STOP. The author is going to provide little pieces of information that say more about the yellow statement. These are called details. The reader may want to spend a little time digesting all of these facts. For example, the excerpted text that follows would be color-coded in the following way:

(GREEN)>> **General Benedict Arnold was a hero in many Revolutionary War battles but he was about to become a traitor to the cause.** (YELLOW)>> *While he was in charge of Fort Arnold them with the details of George Washington's upcoming battle plans.* (RED) >> There were several events that lead up to Arnold's decision to side with the British after being such a capable and well-respected leader of the Continental Army.

The bold, italicized, and underlined print used to demonstrate the changes in color that might appear on the page can also represent a modification of Mason's original idea. In addition, one might consider adaptations to this idea that may be more focused for students with LLD. For example, one might focus on color-coding or bolding the main ideas only. This can be helpful because sometimes a main idea appears in different order (e.g., it can be the second or even the last sentence). The aim of the stoplight organization technique is to help students become more aware of text structure and, ultimately, improve their comprehension and written language abilities. By reading the text, students gain exposure to expository structure; by color-coding text ideas on their own as they progress, they develop an awareness of the way ideas can be organized. And beyond the use of colors or font changes to signal main ideas, explanations, and details, the purpose would be to help students internalize the elements of text and form a mental representation of text (e.g., Lahey & Bloom, 1994).

Macro/Micro connections: Text and sentence analysis: Pull them apart and put them back together. Understanding the who-did-what-to-whom can be a challenge for students with LLD. Abstracting the meaning from text, especially academic text, becomes a greater challenge as students move through the grades where content and structure difficulty collide. Adapted from the work of Medina (2005) and Schleppegrell and Achugar (2003), we created what might be called a "linguistic-heavy" graphic organizer that the original authors called a "sentence chunking chart." Our adapted version appears in Figure 2.

Using the graphic organizer, students outline the key elements from sentences embedded in text from their social studies books and

write their responses in the appropriate boxes. A short excerpt from the connected text also appears in Figure 2. The boxes are designated with the following categories: *Time Markers*, *Characters* (the doers or actors), *What's Done* (or spoken about), *What Happened* or *Outcome*, and *Other* (added) *Information* (e.g., other names, places mentioned, descriptions, etc.). The focus is on semantics, that is, finding the meaning, but students are exposed to textbook language at the same time. They discuss "leftover" and "tricky" words and make judgments about the easy and confusing parts of the text with us.

In a sense, this type of activity is similar to some of the narrative activities we use when we have students do a meta-analysis of the story grammar to help them comprehend and express stories. Granted, the analysis of history text, with its time markers, cohesive devices, abstract concepts, and other characteristics, takes text analysis to a derivational literacy level that may elude our students. But, again, our point here is to help students become more knowledgeable of the complex semantic relations that underlie a subject's meaning. We may integrate cohesion activities as appropriate so that students, for example, learn that "Paine" and "he" refer to the same person. We may also add activities that help students pull the text back together with various writing activities (see, for example, Bashir & Singer, 2006). Clearly, balancing the two extremes of "watering down" and "overloading" the language remains a challenge for us as we strive to find authentic and relevant ways to help our students acquire the skills needed to move successfully through the pages of history and other challenging subjects.

The Bottom Line: Toward a Summary

We urge our readers to exercise caution when applying any of these ideas to their own students in their unique settings. Many of these activities are surrounded by a number of "pre" and "post" activities that may be weeks in the making. We hope that our discussion has served to provide our colleagues with some direction in this complex process we call language intervention. We also hope that we have demonstrated how important it is to keep the curriculum within our grasp and, in turn, write and deliver goals and objectives that are relevant to school learning.

We still struggle each time we walk into a clinic or classroom to find some answers for our students with LLD. But, it is not a bad thing to struggle a bit. We believe that questioning the status quo is a good thing. Indeed, we must keep questioning the questionable practices like those so eloquently outlined in one of our favorite articles by Kamhi (2004). We tried to find that delicate balance between the broad and narrow view, the content-structure knowledge connection, and the fundamental and derived literacies in spoken and written language in the "language initiatives" presented in this article. We are grateful to our colleague, Anthony Bashir, who coined the term language initiatives for us and encouraged us to take our writing in this direction as we prepared our work for this unique forum (A. Bashir, personal communication, November, 2007).

And, finally, as we continue to learn more about what language intervention should "look like" at school-age levels by the continued fusing of research and practice (see Cirrin & Gillam, 2008), we are reminded to ask ourselves: What should it look like at late preschool, kindergarten, and Grade 1 levels? We started thinking about the words of Fey and his colleagues (Fey, Catts, & Larrivee, 1995), who encouraged us to keep the horizon in mind when working with younger children with language disorders. That is,

Figure 2. A graphic organizer used to facilitate comprehension of a history text.

The Text

One of the patriots who did the most to change public opinion in the colonies was Thomas Paine. In January 1776, Paine published a pamphlet called *Common Sense*. In it he attacked George III as a bully and questioned the idea of one person having all the authority to rule.
(From Harcourt Brace & Co. *Social Studies: Early United States: Grade 5* (2000), p. 285).

Put the Puzzle Pieces In the Box: Find the Meanings

TIME MARKERS	CHARACTERS (Focus: DOERS)	WHAT'S DONE	WHAT HAPPENED? OUTCOME	OTHER INFO. NAMES/PLACES DESCRIPTIONS +
	<i>One of the patriots Thomas Paine</i>	<i>did something</i>	<i>change public opinion</i>	<i>colonies</i>
<i>January 1776</i>	<i>Paine</i>	<i>published</i>	<i>pamphlet</i>	Common Sense
	<i>He</i>	<i>attacked</i>	<i>George III</i>	<i>bully</i>
		<i>questioned</i>	<i>idea</i>	<i>one person having all the authority to rule</i>

Left Overs?
Tricky Words?
Easy and Confusing?

Note. From *Language Intervention for School-Age Students: Setting Goals for Academic Success* (p. 67), by G. P. Wallach, 2008, St. Louis, MO: Mosby/Elsevier. Copyright 2008 by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

Fey et al. asked us to think about how we might structure language intervention in the preschool period that could help preschoolers with LLD make smoother transitions to academic learning. Knowing what they will face in the changing language and literacy demands of school, is there a better way to approach the writing and delivering of goals and objectives earlier on? Using some of Fey et al.'s ideas, in addition to the research with preschoolers that covers early print referencing and print awareness, expository text, and comprehension (e.g., see Hall, Markham, & Culatta, 2005; Justice & Ezell, 2004; Palincsar & Magnusson, 2001; Skarakis-Doyle, Dempsey, & Lee, 2008; van Kleeck, Vander Woude, & Hammett, 2006), we began looking at some of the techniques discussed in this article from the perspective of what we might do before children get to Grades 4, 5, and 6. Among the activities we have started introducing to our kindergartners in the California State University at Long Beach Clinic are ones that involve the language of science. As a very beginning to what may become more advanced knowledge, our younger students complete simple experiments with their clinicians, including making ink invisible, creating bubbles, and the like. With time, our kindergartners gain familiarity with the steps involved in the process, with a focus on Lahey and Bloom's (1994) reminder to make sure that the activities are more "automatic" before expecting children to talk about what they are doing. The children in our clinic watch, manipulate, and listen to various renditions of reduced and expanded language

modeled by clinicians. As the children develop a good deal of familiarity with the core of the experiments, which they really enjoy, we target language forms that code the experiments. Words and phrases like: *First, we ask a question, next we follow three steps, last, we . . .*, and so forth are used. Pictures and written words, plus the clinicians' language supports (e.g., cloze procedures), accompany the expository monologues that involve temporal and/or cause and effect connections. And although we have a long way to go to refine this work, we are encouraged by the possibilities. The language of science, and soon to be social studies, has become a part of our daily language intervention routine and has proven to be an enriching experience for both children and clinicians.

In closing, we know that the horizon may be filled with many challenges for our students. It is clear that background knowledge, coupled with linguistic and metalinguistic savvy, play off one another in unique ways. If we are to be successful at getting our students to a place where they can thrive as well as survive in their classrooms, we must push the envelope of traditionalism in language intervention. Our exploration of the interacting facets of language learning across genres and components has shown that it is a complex business. So, although the road seems long and the climb looks steep, we are encouraged each day by the growing body of research and the promise of better ways to meet students' needs. As this forum suggests, help is certainly on the way through the innovative research and practices of today and, hopefully, tomorrow.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, P. A.** (2000). Toward a model of academic development: Schooling and the acquisition of knowledge. *Educational Researcher*, 29, 29–33, 44.
- Bashir, A. S., & Singer, B. D.** (2006). Assisting students in becoming self-regulated writers. In T. A. Ukrainetz (Ed.), *Contextualized language intervention* (pp. 565–598). Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.
- Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Sinatra, G. M., & Loxterman, J. A.** (1991). Revised social studies text from a text-processing perspective: Evidence of improved comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 26, 251–276.
- Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Worthy, J.** (1995). Giving text a voice to improve students' understanding. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 30, 220–234.
- Best, R. M., Rowe, M., Ozuru, Y., & McNamara, D. S.** (2005). Deep-level comprehension of science text: The role of the reader and the text. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 25, 65–83.
- Burns, M.** (2004). Writing in Math. *Educational Leadership*, 62, 30–34.
- Carver, R. P.** (1992). Effects of prediction activities, prior knowledge, and text type upon amount comprehended: Using Rayding theory to critique schema theory research. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27, 165–173.
- Catts, H. W.** (2009). The narrow view of reading promotes a broad view of comprehension. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 40, 178–183.
- Catts, H. W., & Kamhi, A. G.** (2005). *Language and reading disabilities* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Charlton, S., & Christie, J.** (2006, May). *Language intervention for elementary history*. Paper prepared for the Department of Communicative Disorders at California State University at Long Beach, Long Beach, CA.
- Charlton, S., & Christie, J.** (2008, April). *Lessons in curriculum-based language intervention: The role of the SLP*. Miniseminar presented at the convention of the California Speech-Language-Hearing Association, Monterey, CA.
- Cirrin, F. M., & Gillam, R. B.** (2008). Language intervention practices for school-age children with spoken language disorders: A systemic review. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 39, S110–S137.
- Ehren, B. J.** (2000). Maintaining a therapeutic focus and shared responsibility for student success: Keys to in-classroom speech-language services. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 31, 219–229.
- Ehren, B. J.** (2005). Looking for evidence-based practice in reading comprehension instruction. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 25, 310–321.
- Ehren, B. J.** (2006a, October). *Curriculum-based intervention*. Workshop for Region 10 of the Corona-Norco Unified School System, Norco, CA.
- Ehren, B. J.** (2006b). Partnerships to support reading comprehension for students with language impairment. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 26, 42–54.
- Ehren, B. J.** (2009). Looking through an adolescent literacy lens at the narrow view of reading. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 40, 192–195.
- Ehren, B. J., Lenz, B. K., & Deshler, D. D.** (2004). Enhancing literacy proficiency in adolescents and young adults. In A. Stone, E. Silliman, B. Ehren, & K. Apel (Eds.), *Handbook of language and literacy: Development and disorders* (pp. 600–625). New York: Guilford Press.
- Eisenberg, S. L.** (2006). Grammar: How can I say that better? In T. A. Ukrainetz (Ed.), *Contextualized language intervention* (pp. 145–194). Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.
- Ellis, E.** (1997). Watering up the curriculum for students with disabilities: Goals of the knowledge dimension. *Remedial and Special Education*, 18, 326–347.
- Fey, M. E., Catts, H. W., & Larrivee, L. S.** (1995). Preparing the preschooler for the academic and social challenges of school. In M. E. Fey, J. Windsor, & S. F. Warren (Eds.), *Language intervention: Preschool through elementary years* (pp. 3–37). Baltimore: Brookes.
- Fincher-Kiefer, S.** (1994). The role of prior knowledge in inferential processing. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 15, 12–27.
- Hall, K., Markham, J. C., & Culatta, B.** (2005). The development of the Early Expository Comprehension Assessment (EECA). *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, 26, 195–206.
- Halliday, M. A. K.** (1993). Some grammatical problems in scientific English. In M. A. K. Halliday & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power* (pp. 69–85). London: Falmer.
- Justice, L. M., & Ezell, H. K.** (2004). Print referencing: An emergent literacy enhancement strategy and its clinical implications. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 35, 185–193.
- Kamhi, A. G.** (2004). A meme's eye view of speech-language pathology. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 35, 105–111.
- Kamhi, A. G.** (2009). Prologue: The case for the narrow view of reading. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 40, 174–177.
- Kim, A., Vaughn, S., Wanzek, J., & Wes, J.** (2004). Graphic organizers and their effects on the reading comprehension of students with LD: A synthesis of research. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 37, 105–118.
- Lahey, M., & Bloom, L.** (1994). Variability in language learning disabilities. In G. P. Wallach & K. G. Butler (Eds.), *Language learning disabilities in school-age children and adolescents: Some principles and applications* (pp. 354–372). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Laing, S. P.** (2006). Phonological awareness, reading fluency, and strategy-based reading comprehension instruction for children with language learning disabilities: What does the research show? *Perspectives on Language Learning and Education*, 13, 1–14.
- Mason, L.** (2004). Explicit self-regulated strategy development versus reciprocal questioning: Effects on exposition reading comprehension among struggling readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 96, 283–296.
- McKeown, M., Beck, I. I., Sinatra, G. M., & Loxterman, J. A.** (1992). The contribution of prior knowledge and coherent text to comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27, 79–93.
- Medina, K.** (2005, October). *Building academic literacy through history*. Paper presented at the meeting of the California History Social Science Project, University of California at Irvine.
- Nippold, M. A., Ward-Longergan, J. M., & Fanning, J. L.** (2005). Persuasive writing in children, adolescents, and adults: A study of syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic development. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 36, 125–138.
- Ogle, D. M.** (1986). K-W-L: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *Reading Teacher*, 39, 564–570.
- Ohlhausen, M., & Roller, C.** (1988). The operation of text structure and content schemata in isolation and interaction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, 70–88.
- Palincsar, A. S., Collins, K. M., Marano, N. L., & Magnusson, S. J.** (2000). Investigating the engagement and learning of students with learning disabilities in guided inquiry science teaching. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 31, 240–251.
- Palincsar, A. S., & Magnusson, S. J.** (2001). The interplay of first-hand investigations to model and support the development of scientific

- knowledge and reasoning. In S. Carver & D. Klahr (Eds.), *Cognition and instruction: Twenty-five years of progress* (pp. 151–194). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Schleppegrell, M., & Achugar, M.** (2003). Learning language and learning history: A functional linguistic approach. *TESOL Journal*, *12*(2), 21–27.
- Science Discovery Works Series. Grade 6.** (2003). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Scott, C. M.** (2009). A case for the sentence in reading comprehension. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, *40*, 184–191.
- Siegel, L. S.** (2008). Morphological awareness skills of English language learners and children with dyslexia. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *28*, 15–27.
- Singer, B. D., & Bashir, A. S.** (2004). EmPOWER: A strategy for teaching students with language learning disabilities how to write expository text. In E. R. Silliman & L. C. Wilkinson (Eds.), *Language and literacy learning in schools* (pp. 239–272). New York: Guilford Press.
- Skarakis-Doyle, E., Dempsey, L., & Lee, C.** (2008). Identifying language comprehension impairment in preschool children. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, *39*, 54–65.
- Smith, S. C.** (1998). *British imperialism: 1570–1970. Cambridge perspectives in history*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Social Studies: The Early United States. Grade 5.** (2000). New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Ukrainetz, T. A.** (2006). The many ways of exposition: A focus on discourse structure. In T. A. Ukrainetz (Ed.), *Contextualized language intervention* (pp. 247–288). Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.
- van Kleeck, A., Vander Woude, J., & Hammett, L.** (2006). Fostering literal and inferential language skills in Head Start preschoolers with language impairment using scripted book-sharing discussions. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, *15*, 85–95.
- VanSledright, B. A.** (2002). Fifth graders investigating history in the classroom: Results from a researcher–practitioner design experiment. *Elementary School Journal*, *103*, 131–160.
- VanSledright, B. A.** (2004). What does it mean to read history? Fertile ground for cross- disciplinary collaborations? *Reading Research Quarterly*, *39*, 342–346.
- Villano, T.** (2005). Should social studies textbooks become history? A look at alternative methods to activate schema in the intermediate classroom. *Reading Teacher*, *59*, 122–130.
- Wallach, G. P.** (2008). *Language intervention for school-age students: Setting goals for academic success*. St Louis, MO: Mosby/Elsevier.
- Westby, C. E.** (2005). Assessing and remediating text comprehension problems. In H. W. Catts & A. G. Kamhi (Eds.), *Language and reading disabilities* (2nd ed., pp. 157–232). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Westby, C. E.** (2006). There's more to passing than knowing the answers: Learning to do school. In T. A. Ukrainetz (Ed.), *Contextualized language intervention* (pp. 319–387). Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.
- Westby, C. E., & Clauser, P. S.** (2005). The right stuff for writing: Assessing and facilitating written language. In H. W. Catts & A. G. Kamhi (Eds.), *Language and reading disabilities* (2nd ed., pp. 274–345). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Westby, C. E., & Torres-Velasquez, D.** (2000). Developing scientific literacy: A socio-cultural approach. *Remedial and Special Education*, *21*, 101–110.
- Yore, L. D., Hand, B., Goldman, S. R., Hildebrand, G. M., Osborne, J. F., Treagust, D. F., & Wallace, C. S.** (2004). New directions in language and science education research. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *39*, 347–352.

Received April 19, 2008

Accepted August 18, 2008

DOI: 10.1044/0161-1461(2009/08-0043)

Contact author: Geraldine P. Wallach, California State University at Long Beach, Department of Communicative Disorders, 1250 Bellflower Boulevard, Long Beach, CA 90840. E-mail: coronacape@aol.com.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONS THAT FRAME THE BEGINNING OF A FRAMEWORK FOR CURRICULUM-BASED LANGUAGE INTERVENTION FOR SCHOOL-AGE STUDENTS WITH LLD

Clinicians might ask themselves about the concepts from the research that underlie their thinking and how they would operationalize those concepts into relevant and appropriate intervention techniques. The first two concepts relate to clinicians' knowledge base; the last two relate to the intervention direction taken with students:

1. Understand the demands of the curriculum, starting with the textbooks and the instructional style/demands of the teachers. The authors focused on the first piece for this article.
 2. Acquire a clear understanding of the language/literacy demands of content area subjects. What are the specific literacies required by social studies, science, and so on? The authors began by considering the unique language of social studies and science.
 3. Combine general (metacognitive) and linguistically based (metalinguistic) techniques in an effort to help students with LLD become more strategic in their approaches to school tasks.
 4. Emphasize meaning/semantics in the macro and micro choices that are made. What would help students get to meaning and make connections across text in the activities chosen?
-

Making a Broader Case for the Narrow View: Where to Begin?

Geraldine P. Wallach, Stephen Charlton, and Julie Christie
Lang Speech Hear Serv Sch 2009;40;201-211
DOI: 10.1044/0161-1461(2009/08-0043)

The references for this article include 17 HighWire-hosted articles which you can access for free at: <http://lshss.asha.org/cgi/content/full/40/2/201#BIBL>

This article has been cited by 2 HighWire-hosted article(s) which you can access for free at:

<http://lshss.asha.org/cgi/content/full/40/2/201#otherarticles>

This information is current as of September 27, 2010

This article, along with updated information and services, is located on the World Wide Web at:

<http://lshss.asha.org/cgi/content/full/40/2/201>



AMERICAN
SPEECH-LANGUAGE-
HEARING
ASSOCIATION