

Appendix 4A: Working with Bilingual Parent Volunteers

by Judie Haynes

Develop a resource of parents who can help translate, interpret, and communicate

Envisage a classroom where you have bilingual parent helpers for each of your non-English speakers! Imagine that your school has a resource of parents who can help translate, interpret, and communicate. This dream can become a reality if you begin a "Bilingual Parent Volunteers" program. Bilingual parent volunteers are school and community members who speak the languages of your ESL/bilingual population. They are a wonderful asset to classroom and ESL teachers. Starting this program is work. But in the end, your school will reap the benefits in years to come.

Start a bilingual volunteer program

Bilingual parent volunteers can work in the mainstream classroom with all first-year ESL students. Start by recruiting a few approachable parents. They do not have to be parents whose children are in ESL. In fact, more established bilingual parents will probably be more able to help. Ask them to help a new second language learner in the mainstream classroom for an hour a few times a week. Arrange for the volunteer and the classroom teacher to meet and set a time convenient for both. Once you have a few volunteers working with students successfully, the word will spread.

Invite parents who are limited English speakers to help also. These parents can be an extra pair of hands in a large class. They can help with special projects, make photocopies of work, put up bulletin boards and complete other jobs.

Train bilingual parent volunteers

Consider training your parent volunteers. It is worth the time. An administrator, ESL, or bilingual teachers would be obvious choice to train them. Classroom teachers need to be prepared for the volunteers. Set up a schedule so that the classroom teacher knows when a volunteer is coming. He/she should identify specific tasks they want done. Provide the volunteer with interesting and varied materials to use with the newcomers. Give the volunteer concrete feedback during the first few sessions. If you want them to use positive rather than

negative reinforcers, for example, let him or her know right away. If it is too distracting to have the volunteer work in your classroom find a quiet place for the pair to work. Teachers of students in grades 4 and up should ask that volunteers work outside the classroom; newcomers at this age are very self-conscious about receiving extra help. Be sure the volunteer knows what to do in the event of a fire drill.

Everyone gains

Everyone gains from the participation of bilingual parent volunteers in a school. The school benefits from an increase in the quality of communications with the parents of their language-minority population. The classroom teacher gets extra help with her new students. The mainstream students benefit from the cultural input of the bilingual parents. Newcomers benefit both socially and academically, and their parents are relieved of much anxiety about their children. Bilingual volunteers have stated that they benefit from a growth of self-esteem and pride in their culture. They feel more comfortable in the school and often develop friendships with the teachers they help.

Bilingual parent volunteers can help:

- **Become a liaison between a new family and the school**
If you have information you want to make sure the parents of your ESL students understand, one way is to ask the volunteers to call them and introduce themselves. They can explain that they are working with the child in the school and give their home telephone numbers to the newly-arrived parents. In the future you will only have to write a note to the volunteers or call them on the phone to make contact with new parents. Many bilingual parents work and cannot participate in school the way they would like. These parents can be asked to translate school correspondence and help interpret during evening parent-teacher conferences. Be cautious, however, about confidentiality. Parents are sensitive about other parents knowing their children's difficulties in school.
- **Explain American schools**
The schools in the United States may be very different from schools in the native countries, of your new families. Bilingual Parent volunteers can explain to new parents in the same language group what these differences are. Parents have a difficult time understanding whole language, invented spelling, thinking skills activities, cooperative learning and manipulatives in math. They may have a hard time with school expectations. They certainly won't understand the partnership role that American parents have with schools in their child's education. Registration in sports and music programs, can also be explained. The volunteers in my school in New Jersey made Korean/English and Japanese/English School Handbooks about all school programs which we hand out to new families.

- **Establish a telephone chain**
Bilingual parent volunteers can establish a telephone chain for emergency school closings and to pass important messages from the school to the home. This is another way to keep in touch with parents. Try to have a "key" parent for each language group. If you have a message for that group you only need to call the key parent. They can also help recruit new volunteers. This is especially important for emergency school closings. We invite parents to form chains so that the Parent-Teacher Organization volunteers need only call the first parent on each of the chains. If you've ever had a student left at school in a snowstorm while their parents go on to work, you will realize how important this is.
- **Help with new arrivals during registration, a tour of the school, inoculation and health records**
It is very difficult to register and correctly place new students if their parents do not speak any English. Ask your volunteers if they would be willing to come to school to translate for new families and help introduce them to the school. This enables the school make important decisions about placement if the child's school records are in another language and provides an opportunity to impart important information. It also allows the family to ask questions and to provide the school with information about their child.
- **Support the classroom teacher both affectively and with instruction**
Classroom teachers decide what work they want their volunteers to do. In the beginning most volunteers work with the ESL Learning Centers or at the computer. These volunteers become invaluable to the school as their role expands. Bilingual volunteers who speak the same languages as your newcomers can provide crucial help to you. New arrivals and their parents can be relieved of a lot of stress and anxiety by having an adult explain what is expected in American schools in their own language. Don't worry about accented English. Your students are exposed to a classroom full of good English-speaking models.
- **Help with "sensitive" issues**
Bilingual parent volunteers can help special-subject teachers, administrators, and the school nurse with "sensitive" issues: retention, referral, and social problems. They can answer questions about culture, explain the expectations of a particular teacher to parents, and call the parent on behalf of the principal or school nurse. Remember, however, about the confidentiality of your bilingual families. If you have something private to discuss with parents, you need to tell the parent volunteer to ask the family to bring their own interpreter. If they show up without anyone, your district may need to hire an interpreter from another district in order to safeguard the confidentiality of the family involved. This is especially important when discussing possible referrals by child study teams and retention of the child.
- **Take an active role in the in-servicing**
One of the best inservice days my school ever had was run by four

bilingual parent volunteers who discussed a range of cultural and social behaviors and how those behaviors were seen by members of their culture. An ESL teacher can tell mainstream teachers not to expect parents to speak English at home, and it won't sink in. When the parents of highly successful students tell the entire staff that they speak native language in their homes 99% of the time, it makes a big impression. At another inservice, two bilingual parent volunteers taught useful phrases to teachers in Japanese and Korean.

Second language parents can also help your school put on a multicultural day where they teach students about their cultures. Of course, parents can also go into individual classrooms on special occasions at the invitation of the classroom teachers.

Appendix 4B: Bilingual Assistants and Classroom Interpreters

Some ECSE classrooms and Head Start classrooms have the good fortune of having a bilingual assistant in the room with the children. Some classrooms have access to interpreters some days. These people are wonderful resources for the children in the class who speak their language. Through them CLD children can be exposed to rich language and new vocabulary surrounding the themes and books in the classroom. The children can come to realize that their language is important and valued at school also. Here are some ways to make the best use of your bilingual classroom assistants. They can:

- Facilitate conversations between ELL children and the English-speaking teacher
- Guide and encourage conversations between children who all speak another language
- Help children communicate their questions to the English-speaking teacher
- Pre-teach concepts in the native language of students before the lesson is taught in English
- Pre-read a book in the native language before it is read to the class in English
- Lead conversations at the lunch or snack table in a small group of children who all speak the same language
- Teach songs or counting in their language to the entire class to expose all of the students to the value of knowing another language.
- Use positive words (You did a good job joining group, I like how you are staying in line) of praise versus just giving directions in native language (sit down, line up, go to circle).

Appendix 4C: Spanish/English Teacher Checklist of Daily Activities

Child / Estudiante: _____

Date / Fecha: _____ Teacher / Maestra: _____

Today your child was / Hoy su hijo/hija estaba:

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Happy / Alegre | <input type="checkbox"/> Talkative / Hablador |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sad / Triste | <input type="checkbox"/> Quiet / Quieto |

We played with / Jugamos con:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Toys / Juguetes | <input type="checkbox"/> We drew pictures / Dibujamos |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Books / Libros | <input type="checkbox"/> We sang songs / Cantamos |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Games / Juegos | |

We played / Jugamos:

- The two of us together / Nosotros dos solos

- With friends / Con amigos

The sounds or words that we practiced were: /
Los sonidos o palabras que practicamos:

If you want more information, please call:
Si quiere más información, por favor llame a:

Name / Nombre: _____

Phone / Teléfono: _____

Appendix 4D: Hmong/English Teacher Checklist of Daily Activities

Date / Hnub tim: _____

Child / Me nyuam: _____

Teacher / Kws ntawv:

Today your child was: / Hnub no koj tus menyuam:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Happy / Zoo siab | <input type="checkbox"/> Talkative / Nyiam hais lus heev |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sad / Chim siab | <input type="checkbox"/> Quiet / Tsis hais lus |

We played with: / Peb tua maub cov yam no ua si:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Toys / Khoom ua si | <input type="checkbox"/> We drew pictures / Peb kos duab |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Books / Phau nawv | <input type="checkbox"/> We sang songs / Peb hu nkauj |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Games / Zaj ua si | |

We played: / Suab los yog lus peb xyuam:

- | |
|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> The two of us together / Wb ob leeg |
| <input type="checkbox"/> With friends / Nrog cov phooj ywg |

**The sounds or words that we practices were: /
Cov suab los puas cov lo lus uas peb tau xyuam yog:**

1

2

3

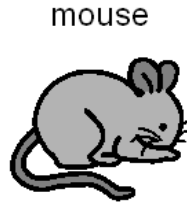
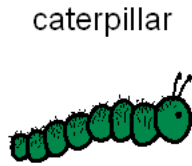
**If you want more information, please call:
Yog koj mus lus dab tsi xav nug, thov koj hu rau:**

Name: / Npe: _____

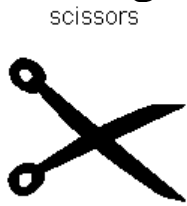
Phone: / Xov tooj: _____

Appendix 4E: What I did at School Today

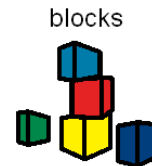
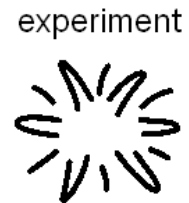
Monday Tuesday Thursday Friday
Today at school we read a story about:



During table activity time, I used:



I played:



I had a



day.

Love,

Nombre - Name: _____ Fecha - Date _____

Appendix 4F: Información Diaria Hoy yo Today I

El jugar - Play:

- _____ Jugué con mis juguetes preferidos. - I played with my favorite toys.
- _____ Jugué solo. – I played by myself.
- _____ Jugué con mis compañeros – I played with my school friends.
Los nombres de mis compañeros /names of my friends:

- _____ Jugué con mi maestra. – I played with my teacher.
- _____ Jugué con juguetes nuevos – I played with new toys.
- _____ Hice actividades nuevas con los juguetes – I did new things with the toys.

Las actividades de Grupo – Group Activities

- _____ Participé en todas las actividades de grupo – I took part in all group activities.
- _____ Participé en varias actividades de grupo – I took part in most group activities.
- _____ No me interesaron las actividades de grupo – I wasn't too interested in group.

La merienda – Snack

- _____ Me gustó mucho la merienda. – I really liked the snack that we had.
- _____ Comí un poco de la comida. – I ate some of the snack.
- _____ No comí mucho. - I didn't eat much.

La comunicación - Communication

- _____ Pedí mis juguetes y comida preferidos. – I asked for my favorite toys and foods.
- _____ Practicaba el habla. – I practiced talking.
- _____ Contesté a las preguntas de mi maestra. - I answered my teacher's questions.
- _____ Aprendí palabras y frases nuevas. - I learned new words and phrases.
- _____ Cumplí instrucciones. - I followed directions.

Las destrezas de pensar – Thinking Skills

- _____ Trabajé mucho en las lecciones de pensar y respondí correctamente a la mayoría de las preguntas. – I worked hard on my thinking lessons and answered most of the questions correctly.
- _____ Trabajé un poco en mis lecciones. - I spent a little time working on my lessons.
- _____ Me dificulté enfocarme en mis lecciones. – I had a hard time paying attention to my work.
- _____ Aprendí ideas nuevas. – I learned some new ideas.

La independencia – Self-Help

- _____ Fui al baño solito. - I used the bathroom by myself.
- _____ Fui al baño con apoyo. - I used the bathroom with help.
- _____ Cuidé a mis cosas (chamarra, mochila, arte). - I took care of my belongings (coat, backpack, art projects).

Appendix 4G: Activities To Do At Home

NAME X. S.

DATE May5-June 12

WHAT YOUR CHILD IS WORKING ON	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE <i>Mealtime</i>	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE <i>dressing</i>	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE <i>play</i>	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE <i>Bath time</i>	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE <i>laundry</i>
X. will use words to ask for things	Give X. just a little bit on his plate. When he eats it prompt him to say "more crackers" (or whatever it is)		Give X two choices of activities/toys to play with-model for him the words he can use to ask for the toy he wants.	Put just a little water in the bath tub and put X in the bath tub-model for him "more water"	
Follow 2 part directions	X can help set the table. Ask him "X, get the cups AND put them on the table."	Have X help you get his clothes ready. Ask him "go to your drawer AND find a shirt"	Ask X. to do certain things with the toys- "get the blocks AND put them in the truck"	Ask X to help you get things ready for bath time-"get your boat AND put it in the bathtub"	Ask X to help get laundry ready –"get your clothes off the floor AND put them in the basket
Understand basic concepts	Talk about whose cup is empty/full-ask X to show you those things			Wash one foot, talk about how that one is now clean, the other one is still dirty	X can help sort laundry-BIG shirts go in this pile, LITTLE shirts in this pile.

Appendix 4H: Activities To Do At Home-Blank

NAME _____

DATE _____

WHAT YOUR CHILD IS WORKING ON	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE	ACTIVITY / ROUTINE

Appendix 4H: Activities To Do At Home-Blank

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Appendix 4I: Things To Consider For Transition

Planning the Transition from Part C to Part B Services for Children who Speak Languages other than English (Talking Points from a Roundtable Discussion at the Minnesota Speech Language Hearing Association's Spring Convention, April 24, 2009)

Deanine Mann, MS, CCC-SLP

Underlying Premises

- Skills in a first language facilitate learning in a second language
- The home language of a child must be supported in some way or it will go away
- Children need to learn English to succeed in US schools
- Culturally appropriate services are those that are understood and accepted by those who receive it
- Children learn best in the language that they speak and understand
- Doing speech and language therapy in a language that a child does not speak does not make sense
- The focus of language therapy is to teach *language* not the language of therapy (we are not ESL teachers)
- Part C services focus on training parents to carry out intervention strategies in the home environment
- Families who don't speak English or who speak languages other than English, are the best facilitators of the home language

Prioritizing the needs of the student (not the ECSE team)

- Need to support continued development of the home language?
- Need to learn the culture of the classroom?
- Need for structured learning environment?
- Need for a wide array of specialized services?
- Need to be in a more stimulating environment?
- Need to learn English? (is English immersion the best approach at age 3?)

Main Question: What do your teams do when you have a student who doesn't speak the language of the center-based program?

- Timing the transition to center-based program
 - As soon as the student turns 3?
 - At the start of the next school year?
 - Just the year before kindergarten?
- If the child continues to be served at home...
 - How are services delivered?
 - Is an interpreter used for every session?
- Which team provides the service?
 - B-2?
 - 3-5?
- Once the child comes into the center-based program...
 - Do you use an interpreter? If so, how often and for how long?
 - Do parents serve as interpreters? If parents come to help with transition and there are issues with childcare for younger children, do you provide access to child care or allow the younger siblings in the classroom?

Appendix 4J :How Children Learn a Second Language

Second language acquisition is similar to first language acquisition. Children must hear and distinguish differences in sounds, learn that sounds carry meaning, and learn word order. Children are fluent in the first language after about 5 years.

Three stages of learning a second language:

1. Silent Period – receptive language must develop first
 2. Period of early speech production – single words and short phrases
 3. Period of increasing fluency
- Within the early years, it doesn't matter when you start learning a second language, as long as cognitive development continues in the first language until age 12 years.
 - Research has shown that it takes 5 to 7 years to become proficient in a second language in the area of academic or school language.
 - For a period of time, children may mix their two languages. This is normal and they will sort it out quickly.
 - The rate of learning English as a second language will vary by cultural group and by individual due to differences in learning style, personality, and amount of exposure to the second language.
 - Children may learn some types of words in English from a playgroup setting (glue, paint) and other word groups in their native language (rice, tortilla).
 - Children will look for patterns and relationships and language rules. They will make guesses and then revise their hypotheses. They will over-generalize when developing their rules to form words like: *goed* and *runned*, or they may label all animals "dogs".
 - Children learn language when they make a connection between form and function – between what they hear and what happens when they hear it. They learn language because they want to communicate. Therefore we do not want to separate language from its function. We do not want to do vocabulary drills or grammar drills that are removed from the context of meaning.
 - Remember that the level of oral language proficiency does not necessarily reflect a similar level of cognitive functioning.

Appendix 4K: Guiding Principles for Intervention of Language Disorders

Best Practices

Best practice indicates that for the child that knows no English, speech and language therapy is best provided in their native language. For the child who is bilingual, intervention in both languages yields the most progress and honors the fact that the child needs both languages to develop and to communicate effectively in all of his/her environments (Kohnert & Derr, 2004). Language intervention is best implemented by a culturally competent clinical professional in a systematic process (Goldstein and Iglesias, 2002). Whether the SLP is monolingual or bilingual, this is accomplished by collaborating with interpreters, bilingual teachers and paraprofessionals, bilingual community members, and professionals with expertise in working with children of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. While it is “easiest” when the SLP speaks the same languages as the child, an SLP does not need to speak all of the child’s languages in order to deliver effective intervention that promotes progress in all the languages the child speaks. The methods used may be direct or indirect to provide services that help children be effective and efficient communicators in all the languages that they speak.

The Role of the Bilingual SLP

The bilingual SLP may choose to be the primary provider of intervention in both languages. He/she may pre-teach activities in Spanish, focusing on specific concepts that are being taught in the classroom in English. The bilingual SLP can also address disordered features that are unique to each specific language the child speaks. Home or extension programs can be established and monitored by the bilingual SLP. The family may be trained to reinforce intervention targets at home in the native language, and the classroom staff may help the child address goals and objectives in English. The bilingual SLP may use a team approach. He/she may provide direct treatment in the child’s native language, with an English speaking SLP developing and implementing a parallel program in English. Bilingual SLPs may also serve as consultants, which is a popular and effective model when a bilingual clinician is not available for direct intervention (Kohnert and Derr, 2004 in Goldstein, 2007).

The Role of the Monolingual SLP

When a bilingual SLP is not available, the monolingual clinician needs to be culturally competent, become skilled at working with interpreters, and become skilled at training and supervising bilingual partners during intervention activities. The monolingual clinician should consult with bilingual professionals, community partners, and those knowledgeable in the area of working with culturally and linguistically diverse students (i.e., ELL teachers) in designing appropriate goals and objectives. When collaborating with others the monolingual SLP maintains the necessary and important role as being the team coordinator, direct provider

of some services, and maintaining the primary responsibility for ensuring that the child's communication goals are met.

THINGS TO CONSIDER

Language of Intervention

When providing effective intervention for language disorders in culturally and linguistically diverse students there are many things to consider. One of the most immediate considerations in developing effective intervention is to determine which language or languages should be supported (Kohnert, 2008). While it initially may seem to be easier to reduce or eliminate one language from the child's input, this is NOT best practice. For both typical and atypical language learners, evidence suggests that greater and faster gains are achieved in the second language when there is a strong base in the first language (Goldstein, 2004). Children with language impairment can learn two languages, but will not learn them as easily as their non language impaired peers. This DOES NOT mean the child should not learn two or more languages. There is no evidence that focusing on developing only the second language will help the child (Genesse et al, 2004) and may in fact have detrimental effects and result in language loss of the first language. A child's home language needs to be supported for a variety of reasons including continued ability to communicate with family members, fostered easier learning of second language, increased literacy skills in both languages, preserved cultural identity, and improved generalization skills across languages. During interventions, all the languages the child speaks need to be supported. When the SLP does not speak all the languages of the child, this support can be provided in a variety of ways, which are discussed in the following sections.

Cultural, Educational, and Socio-economic Factors

One must also consider cultural, educational, and socio-economic factors when planning interventions for children of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. Different cultures view education differently than the mainstream American culture. SLPs and educators need to be knowledgeable about the backgrounds of the children they are working with (refer to CHAPTER 6 in Talk with Me-Revised: CULTURE SPECIFIC INFORMATION). What we consider to be "family involvement" may not be valued or viewed the same way in other cultures. Many families have limited literacy skills in their native language, and information must be presented orally. Expectations may need to be modified as families may not have materials at home and attending meetings may be difficult due to multiple jobs, rotating schedules, child care issues, etc. School meetings may be less valued in some cultures. Having the child at school may be the best parent involvement you will get (Restrepo, 2007) because some cultures defer to teachers of matters of education of their child.

APPROACHES THAT PROMOTE GAINS IN ALL THE LANGUAGES THE CHILD SPEAKS

The overall goal in language intervention is to affect positive change in both languages used by a bilingual child with language impairment in an effort to maximize his/her potential to communicate effectively. A holistic view of bilingual development requires planning for generalization of treated gains across languages and that both languages are considered in treatment goals and objectives (Kohnert and Derr in Goldstein, 2007). How an SLP does this is different for each child, and different models and strategies are described below.

Bilingual Approach-Can Be Used by a Monolingual or Bilingual SLP

A bilingual approach improves skills in both languages at the same time. You do not need to speak all of the child's languages in order to support development of language skills in their native languages. This can be done in planned, systematic ways by an SLP who speaks all of the child's languages or by a monolingual SLP collaborating with those who speak the child's languages or are knowledgeable in the areas of typical and atypical language development in culturally and linguistically diverse students.

1. Focus on underlying cognitive needs common to all languages. This includes working memory, perception, attention and emotion. This approach suggests that in some cases treatment that strengthens underlying cognitive processing mechanisms will lead to gains in overall language development in all languages that child speaks. The SLP's focus is to increase a child's ability to process information. Some activities may include categorization tasks, digit searches, "I Spy" games (finding things that are developmentally and culturally appropriate "hidden" among distracters), "same and different" auditory tasks (identifying increasingly subtle differences between sounds), imitation-recall tasks, speeded identification or naming tasks, which is over-rehearsing known information to increase automatic access (Kohnert and Derr in Goldstein, 2007).
2. Focus on goals that facilitate areas that the child will need in both languages and that are common to both languages. This may include linguistic structures that are in both languages (for example in Spanish, plurals, gerund verb form, etc.), phonemic awareness, story telling and sequencing, vocabulary, pragmatic and social interaction skills, comprehension of complex, lengthier material (Restrepo, 2007).
3. Collaboration: It is the SLP's role to collaborate with bilingual staff, community members, and those knowledgeable in the area of second language acquisition in order to help children develop their native language skills. This collaboration may include bilingual professionals or paraprofessionals, parents, siblings, extended family members, foreign language teachers, community partners, interpreters and social peers that speak the same language. The SLP is still the primary provider but

effective intervention is carried out by collaborating with other invested partners.

4. Peer based interventions: Skillful and mindful pairing of a student with language impairment with a typically developing student who speaks the same language, using trained bilingual support staff/partners to model and shape interactions, as monitored and coached by the clinician.
5. Training programs for parents or primary care providers: Develop programs or use pre-existing programs such as programs from The Hanen Centre (available in over 10 different languages -see following link)

<http://www.hanen.org/web/Home/tabid/36/Default.aspx>

using bilingual staff and community partners to help to deliver the programs that would help parents understand typical communication development and help the family use strategies that support language development in young children (imitation, modeling, waiting, expansion, etc.). When doing this, one will need to keep in mind cultural values and expectations regarding child development and parenting practices.

Example of Bilingual Intervention

Following is an example (Kohnert, 2008) that illustrates how to implement bilingual intervention when the clinician does not speak the languages of the child, using the previously discussed approaches. There are many, many ways, but perhaps this case study will inspire you to think of planning interventions in different ways that you maybe have before, and to plan your own interventions.

- Monolingual clinician working with a Hmong speaking child, no Hmong speaking professional or para-professional available for ongoing intervention: Three indirect strategies are used:
 1. Planned play interactions with designated peers, two times a week for 15 minute periods. Four different play settings and corresponding themes were identified, teachers helped identify typically developing, Hmong speaking, play peers. Two times a week, just after snack, the language impaired student and one or two of her peers are instructed to go into the play area and play house. They are told to tell each other everything they know about playing house. These simple instructions are given with the assistance of one of the bilingual teaching assistants (TAs) who is mentored by the SLP. The primary interaction is between peers, with the SLP monitoring and coaching.
 2. Incorporating 7 year old sister into therapy sessions: she reads books to language impaired sister, with the primary interaction being between the two sisters. The SLP coaches the older sister on how to help re-tell

the story, act it out together using props, pictures, etc. Pictures can be photocopied to take home and re-tell at home.

3. Parent and teacher education: Parents and teachers are invited to a 4 part workshop. Workshop is in the evenings to encourage attendance. Meals, daycare, bilingual staff (may be an interpreter in your district) and transportation are provided. Focus of the workshop is to develop culturally and linguistically appropriate examples to show different aspects of communication development and interaction. Resources for language development in Hmong are shared, along with resources regarding library use, where to purchase Hmong materials (if that is an option), and websites a family can use at a library, perhaps with the help of an older sibling or other invested community partner. Information regarding special and regular education is presented. Time is allowed to discuss parental concerns and how to support the home language.

Cross-linguistic Approach

This approach to intervention is directed at linguistic or communicative features that are unique to each language (Kohnert and Derr, 2004 in Goldstein 2007). Intervention focuses attention on each individual language in separate sessions. It may be necessary to separately target features that are in error that are unique to each of the languages the child speaks. Although intervention goals may apply to both languages, each language will have unique intervention goals as well. At some point, the cross-linguistic approach may be merged with the bilingual approach, based on the needs of the child. Interventions may be conducted by a single bilingual professional or by the monolingual SLP collaborating with invested bilingual partners.

REFERENCES

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PRACTICAL IDEAS AND STRATEGIES

Regardless to what approach a clinician decides to use to ensure development of language skills in all the languages the child speaks, there are many “practical” ideas and strategies. For more information see: **Appendix 4L: Practical Ideas and Strategies for Intervention.**

Appendix 4L: Practical Ideas and Strategies for Intervention

- SLOW DOWN
- Think about the timing of your activities.
- Develop non-verbal ways in which students can demonstrate their knowledge. Use visuals-the child uses a picture or a prop to answer questions, has to find a match to indicate understanding. Embed manipulative into group and individual activities.
- When using music, consider singing yourself instead of using a CD. This way you are able to control the rate, allow for pauses, etc.
- Have bilingual books and books on tape. If not available, have a parent, volunteer, para, older sibling, etc., read the book and record it. It is very empowering for children to be able to have other students listen to THEIR parents reading books on tape!
- Make your own books - Take pictures of the students throughout their day. This can be a “sequencing/retell” activity. Take pictures of common community places (grocery stores your students go to, the Laundromat, their schools, community centers, Wal-Mart, the bus stop, a cab, etc.) or items/objects that are familiar to your students and make a book about your community.
- Label everything that you have labeled in English in the native language
- Find volunteers to read/tell stories in the child’s native language-high school students, college students, parent volunteers, church groups, etc.
- Do early literacy activities in the child’s native language if possible (picture naming, rhyming, and alliteration).
- Pre-teach key vocabulary before lessons-use visual symbols, concrete objects, interactive games and activities. Follow-up and check for understanding.
- Modify reading level and lessons as necessary. Use theme-based opportunities.
- Have symbols/pictures around the room to choose from to help kids ask for what they need.
- Take pictures of the student’s families (if culturally appropriate) and put them on the walls.
- Have families send in empty boxes, cans, packaging, etc of things they would use at home and put in dramatic play area. If they willing, ask them to share traditional clothing items.
- Talk about the here and now. Use concrete language that is naturally comprehensible. Use meaningful contextual cues.
- Repeat yourself.
- Repeat what others say.
- Give words for concepts the students already know.
- Allow a longer than usual wait time. When going around the circle in an activity, have the culturally and linguistically diverse student be last, in order to observe how the other children respond.

- Ask for confirmation of what was just said – comprehension check.
- Provide opportunities and experiences for different learning styles.
- Small group work with other students that speak the same language
- Cooperative learning with other students that speak the same language
- Peer tutoring with older typical developing students or siblings that speak the same language
- Individual instruction
- Activities should be child-directed.
- Emphasize and listen for the meaning rather than the correct form in what children are saying. This will result in natural communication, low stress, and will encourage the children to take risks without worrying about his or her mistakes.
- Act out stories and lessons, demonstrate, offer pictures or manipulative. Use your face to animate your language.
- Don't correct errors. Accept mistakes as honest attempts to learn. When an error is noticed, model the correct pronunciation, word, or grammatical structure.
- Plan activities that address the "Seven Intelligences" (Gardner)
- State rules and expectations clearly. There may be differences between rules at home and "School rules". Kids can learn new strategies and will be more flexible if they have more than one way of doing something.
- Teach all children in the class pro-social skills: listening, sharing, cooperation – how to value each other and work with others different than themselves.
- Consider Routines Based Interviews and Interventions (Robin McWilliam) during home visits and or as a way to support continued development of the home language if you cannot do a home visit. Instead of a "toy bag" or sending home therapy materials, the idea is to help the family support their child's development throughout their daily routines. Observe or discuss with the family their routines during different times of the day. Everyone eats, gets dressed, takes a bath, transitions from the home to somewhere else, does laundry, etc. Identify the strengths the family already uses to support their child's development. Share observations about the skills the child is already demonstrating. Brainstorm how additional strategies can be embedded into the routine. Observe the care providers and provide feedback. The following links will help you get started in using Routines Based Interviews and Interventions
<http://www.fpg.unc.edu/~inclusion/RBI.pdf>
http://spered.mpls.k12.mn.us/Routines_Based_Interviewing_and_Intervention_Information.html

If appropriate, Use the word documents "**Blank Activities to do at Home**" and "**Example Activities to do at Home**" Appendices 4G and 4H with families to help promote language development at home in the home language. You may want to consider using this weekly, monthly, whatever fits your child's and family needs.

Responding to Children in Various Stages of Learning a Second Language, Part I

The following strategies serve as a guide to teachers in providing different options for responding to children as they move in and out of the different stages of learning a second language.

Teacher Support Strategy	Stage of Learning a Second Language			
	Home Language Stage	Observational/Listening Stage	Telegraphic and Formulaic Stage	Fluid Use of Second Language Stage
Start With What the Child Knows: Use a few words in the child's home language (come, bathroom, eat) to allow for low-level communication.	✓	✓		
Start Slowly: Allow child to become familiar with the classroom situation before approaching her with questions and directives in English.	✓	✓		
Scaffold Communication: Combine words with some type of gesture, action, or directed gaze.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Provide Safe Havens: Allow child to regain energy and focus by providing spaces and activities in which the child can participate with few, if any, expectations for verbal communication.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Get Help From the English-Speaking Children: Show the child's peers ways to communicate and ask questions in order to encourage interaction and provide additional language models.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Expand and Extend: Start with what the child already knows and go from there. If the child says, "Car," the teacher can reply, "That is a red car."			✓	✓

Responding to Children in Various Stages of Learning a Second Language, Part II

Teacher Support Strategy	Stage of Learning a Second Language			
	Home Language Stage	Teacher Support Strategy	Home Language Stage	Teacher Support Strategy
Raise Expectations: Request a verbal response from the child rather than only a gesture when he shows signs of readiness to talk.			✓	✓
Use Repetition: Say the same thing more than once to give the child an opportunity to understand what is being said.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Talk About the Here and Now: Refer to the present situation to allow child to understand the context of communication.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Fine Tuning: Restate the message in a form that the child can understand when she at first seems not to understand.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Offer Consistent Routines: Help the child quickly learn where to go and what to expect so that he can become a member of the group.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Ensure Inclusion: Use the child's name to invite her to participate in small group activities.	✓	✓	✓	✓

Adapted from:

Tabors, P. (1997). One child, two languages: A guide for preschool educators of children learning English as a second language. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

English Language Learners in Schools Checklist for Educational Modifications

Classroom Routine

- Establish a daily routine
- Provide optimal seating so that the student can easily see the materials and hear the instructor
- Review and summarize prior lessons
- Set up “partners” in order to team a student who is an English language learner with another student
- Teach book format (e.g. table of contents, glossary, directionality of text)

Lesson Planning

- Consider background of students when planning appointments, community outings, holiday celebrations, meals and snacks, for example, not all children may celebrate the same winter holiday
- Consider the cultural and linguistic background of students when selecting materials (for example, pictures, books/workbooks, flashcards, videos, music, food, etc.)
- Plan for small group activities to allow children to rehearse speaking skills
- Present frequent review and repetition
- Provide a blank outline, chart, or web to fill in during class
- Use a consistent format for worksheets with minimal graphic distractions

Daily Instruction

- Allow multiple methods of sharing experiences and communication, for example, use of story telling and props that support the oral tradition
- Allow extra time
- Ask specific questions
- Learn and appropriately use key words in other language(s) (for example, hello, please, thank you, etc.)
- Present information in short, sequential steps
- Provide hands-on instructional materials
- Use multisensory cues for instruction
- Use visual aids, gestures and physical prompts
- Write instructional key words on the board

Parent-Child Communication Program



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2000

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INTRODUCTION TO PCCP

The *Parent-Child Communication Program (PCCP)* is based on a model of language therapy developed by Louis J. De Maio in 1983. The original therapy model entitled *Communicatively-Based Language Intervention* was presented as a short course at the 1983 convention of the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, and then published in *Seminars in Speech and Language*, vol. 5 in 1984. The program was designed for professionals to use with children having language learning difficulties.

In 1998, many of the principles from the original intervention model were applied for use with parents. *PCCP* is designed primarily for parents with children between one and five years of age. It is intended for parents whose children are having difficulty learning to communicate. However, it is also suitable for any parent who is interested in promoting early language development in their child.

This manual covers all of the essential information that parents need to use in order to promote successful communication and language development with their children. It is best used with a professional taking the parent through the phases of the program. Although the manual was developed for parents, it can also be used by daycare providers, preschool teachers, speech-language pathologists, and other professionals and paraprofessionals who work with young children.

Several other sources were used in preparing this manual. Information on adult-child play was taken from two studies (Hanson & De Maio, 1987 and Visto & De Maio, 1989). Both of these studies were presented at the annual convention of the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. The information on conversational turn-taking was taken from a study by De Maio, 1982 that was published in *Speech and Language: Advances in Basic Research and Practice*, vol. 8. Finally, the information on the stages of language development was adapted from a manual completed by De Maio, in 1998. The manual is entitled *Communication Development from Infancy Through the Preschool Years*.

There are four goals of the Parent-Child Communication Program. The first two goals are intended for the parent in order to achieve the last two goals that are intended for the child. The goals of PCCP are as follows:

- 1) Increase the parent's use of non-directive and facilitating techniques
- 2) Decrease the parent's use of questions
- 3) Create an atmosphere for the child's role as an active communicator
- 4) Foster the child's use of language spontaneously

There are three instructional elements to the *Parent-Child Communication Program*. The three elements are: **Information**, **Demonstration** and **Practice**. Parent-child interactions are video recorded before and after training in order to show parents how their interaction patterns have changed. Typically, parents can be trained in the five essential components of the program within six training sessions, two instructional and four demonstration and practice sessions. Instructional training sessions run from 1 to 1 ½ hours depending upon the parental questions and discussion. Demonstration and practice sessions run for 50 minutes. The number of demonstration and practice sessions may be extended to include more practice, if necessary.

Parents are taken through the manual in a series of steps. They begin with background information on the nature of communication and are then presented with the five essential components of the program with emphasis on Feedback and Input techniques. Two demonstration and practice sessions usually take place after parents are introduced to these concepts. Revision techniques are introduced in the second instructional training session along with information about language development. This is followed by two practice and demonstration sessions.

Follow-up is implemented periodically after the training is completed. This is done in order to reinforce what parents have learned, and to assist them in understanding more about language development, and how to use the program to facilitate language development.

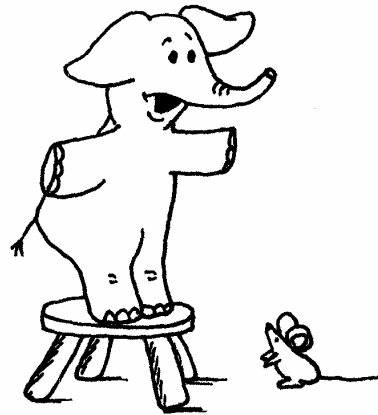
Getting Ready

What are Communication, Language, and Speech?

Communication

Communication is the way we send and receive information with other people. Most people think of communication as being the same thing as talking. Talking is only one way to communicate. Communication also involves, gestures, vocalizations (sounds), tone of voice, facial expressions, eye contact, and physical distance from the other person.

Communication is influenced by who we are with, where we are, and what we are doing. For example, we communicate differently with a friend than with a stranger. Or, whether we are in a church or at a party. Or, when we are working or playing. Communication is also more than the give and take of information. How one person behaves will directly influence how another will behave. Therefore, our communication partner will have a major influence on how we communicate.

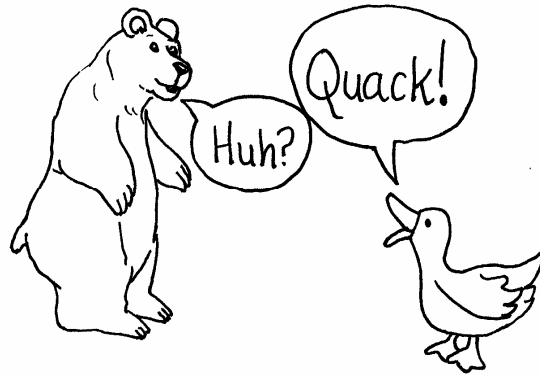


Language

Language is one way we communicate. It involves speaking, listening, writing, reading, and signing (as used by people who are deaf). Language is used to *express* and *receive* information. For example, speaking, writing, and signing are used to express ideas. Hearing, reading and signing are used to receive and understand what has been expressed.

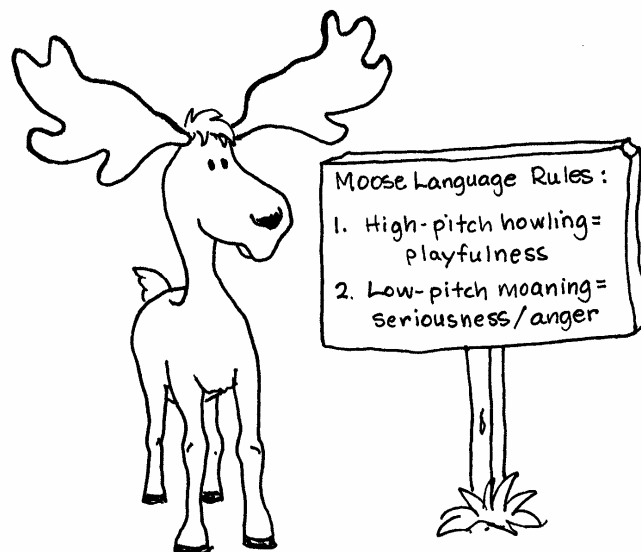
We use language to express our ideas. Spoken language is made up of speech sounds, that can be arranged to form words, and sentences. Language has rules to it. These rules are called *grammar*. Grammar makes it possible for people to understand each other. There are three parts to language: *form*, *content*, and *use*.

Form is made up of speech sounds (letters in writing), words, and sentences. Form is what we actually hear or see. For example, "Open the door." is a sentence that has three words and nine sounds (11 letters). **Content** is the meaning behind the form. For example, the sentence above means that the speaker is referring to an action on an object. **Use** is the purpose or intent behind the form. For example, in the above sentence the speaker may be giving a direction, or making a request.



Speech

Speech is the main way most people use language. It is made up of approximately 45 sounds in the English language. The number of sounds and the types of sounds depend on the language spoken. There are two types of speech sounds: vowels and consonants. We use vowels and consonants to make up words. Each language has its own set of rules for combining sounds to make words.



Three Important Things to Know about Communication

1. Communication begins to develop before language

Children begin to communicate immediately after they are born. This might sound funny, but it's true. They do this in a number of ways; from reflexive crying, to the way they move their body parts. Their communication for the first several months is purely unintentional. That is, they are not trying to communicate with us. But, we act as though everything the infant is doing is an attempt at communicating. Everything the infant does in the presence of an adult is treated as an attempt at communicating. How do we do this? We do this by directing our attention at what the infant is doing and commenting on what is going on. By the time the infant reaches six months of age communication becomes intentional. That is, the infant is purposefully doing things to transmit ideas. They do this through gestures and vocalizations, but not words. It isn't until the child is about a year old that language begins to develop. This begins with the child's first words. Now the child is able to express ideas not only through gestures and vocalizations, but also through words.

2. Language is learned while communicating.

Language doesn't develop by accident, nor does it develop by itself. Children learn language through their interactions with others. The environment plays an important role in children's language learning, as do physical development, neurological development, and intellectual development. All of these things contribute to the development of language. But, language will not develop properly if it is not linked to communication.

3. Communication is transactional.

What does *transactional communication* mean? To put it simply, how we communicate influences how children communicate, and how children communicate influences how we communicate with them. For example, if a child is inhibited, or quiet, or a passive communicator, we many find ourselves asking a lot of questions in order to get the child to talk. The child's passive style causes us to behave in ways that we wouldn't behave if the child was actively communicating. So, we begin to ask questions in order to get the child

to talk. But, replies to questions tend to be short and can mislead us into thinking that a child is not capable of more complex abilities.

The techniques you will be learning in this program will enable you to talk to your child in ways that will bring out his or her best attempts at communicating. The techniques will foster an active communication style in your child and make learning language more relevant, meaningful, and rewarding for both of you. The program will assist you in becoming a better communicator by using techniques that enhance rather than inhibit your child's language development.

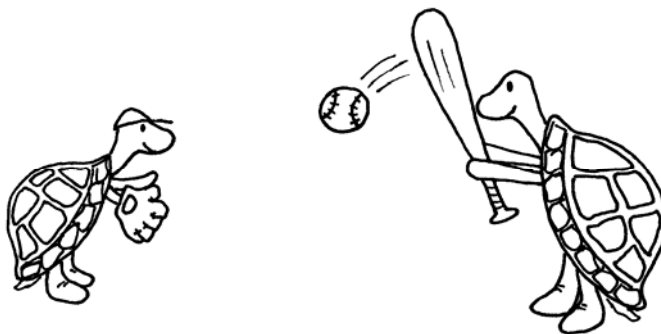
Making Communication a Joint Effort



In order to promote successful communication it is necessary to make it a *joint effort*. There are three elements to making communication a joint effort:

1. Joint Action

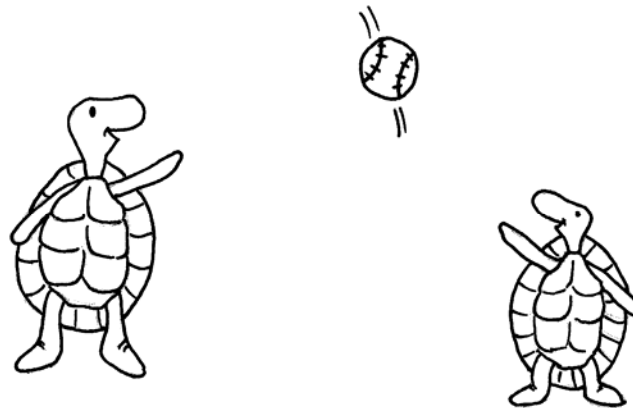
You and your child become physically involved with the same activity. Your physical involvement draws your child's attention to the activity and thus promotes joint attention.



Doing the same things.

2. Joint Attention

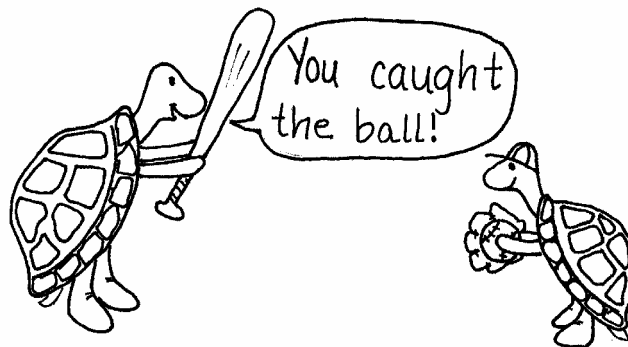
You and your child focus on the same objects, activities, or actions. Mutual attention to the same activities creates the opportunities for joint action and joint reference.



Focusing on the same things.

3. Joint Reference

Talk about the things you and your child are doing. In joint referencing, you provide the language necessary for showing the relationship between you and your child's action and attention to those actions.



Talking about what is happening.

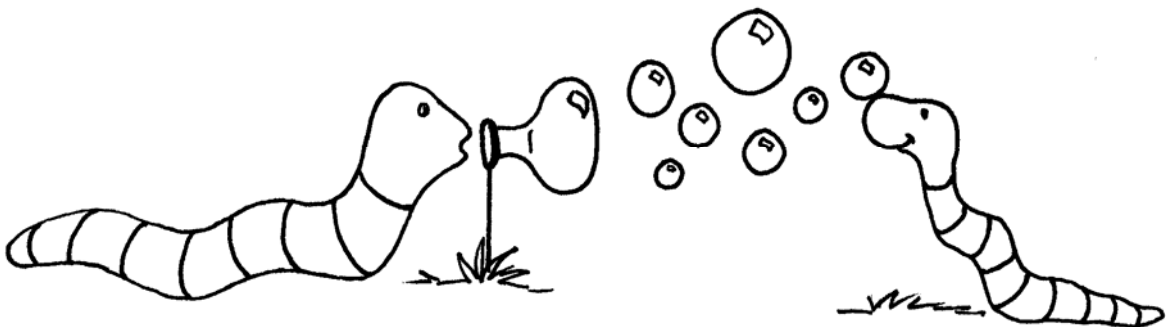
Adult-Child Play Interaction

Play is children's work. Play provides children with a means of learning through discovery and experience. This is why play is so important to children's intellectual, social, and language development. It provides them with the means for taking in information, evaluating it and acting on it.

Adult-child play is different than child-peer play. Adults provide more opportunities for learning and can do things to help children communicate more effectively. However, this is not to discount the benefits of child-peer play. Child-peer play provides the child with opportunities for exploring their environment, learning new things, and gaining confidence in social situations. Both are important and they should both be encouraged as part of the child's weekly routines.

Playing with your child will take a little planning. Try to think of daily routines that are playful in nature and select them as your platform for facilitating communication with your child. *Select* toys and materials that are interesting to both you and your child. *Think* about different ways in which you can play with these materials and *demonstrate* them to your child. Selecting duplicate materials for you and your child to use. Selecting duplicate materials is important because it gives both you and your child the same items to manipulate and talk about. You will see the benefit of this as you begin learning the various techniques in this manual.

The following is a description of levels of adult-child play based on the degree of social participation. Each level is progressively more complex than the one before it. After you review these levels of play, you will learn how they can be used to promote successful communication. π



Levels of Adult-Child Play

Onlooker Behavior

(Child looks; Adult plays)

The child observes the play of the adult, but does not actively participate in the play situation. The child may question, comment, offer suggestions or act on adult's request. Onlooker behavior is distinct from the other levels, in that, it characterizes the child's non-play participation.

Independent Play

(Child plays; Adult talks)

The child and adult play alone and do not initiate any verbal interaction with each other. The child does not initiate any verbal interaction or eye contact with the adult, nor makes an effort to get close to the adult. Play is definitely self-centered.

Parallel Play

(Both play; Adult talks)

The child and adult play independently, but they choose an activity which is similar to the other's. However, the child does not seek the adult's participation, nor attempts to influence the nature of her play. Communication between the child and adult is limited. The adult tends to do more talking by commenting on the child's activity and her own activity. The child may respond to things the adult says, but does not initiate any interaction.

Reciprocal Play

(Child plays; Both talk)

The child socially interacts with the adult. The child is physically engaged in the play activity alone, but recognizes the adult as a participant in the play. This is evidenced by frequent verbal interaction. Although the adult is recognized as a participant in the play, she chooses to remain uninvolved physically. However, because of her verbal skills and her attention to the child's activity, she is able to verbally maintain a role in the child's play. This level of play is considered to be distinctly more social than those cited above, in that, a mutually interactive play situation is established. Reciprocal play was found to be productive in increasing utterances and promoting turn-taking in preschool children.

Associative Play

(Both play; Both talk)

The child engages in a common play activity with the adult. Verbal interaction focuses on common play activity or their shared association in play. The child both initiates and responds to verbal interaction. The adult has become an equal partner in the play, and has been accepted by the child as such. Their interest is not merely focused on the play activity, but on their relationship with each other during the play. However, their companionship in the play is promoted without cooperation or role differentiation. Both the adult and child are still free to play according to their own wishes. Reciprocal and associative levels of play were found to promote longer utterances and turns in preschool children than any of the other social levels of play.

Complementary Play

(Child plays; Both talk; Rules & purpose to play)

The child is physically engaged in play alone. However, the child recognizes the adult's role in the play. Both the adult and child verbally assume roles or have specified responsibilities. The child demonstrates awareness of the adult's role, and may instruct or direct what she should say during the play. The adult verbally supplements the child's participation despite the fact that the child must physically attain play goals alone. The adult does not engage in the play physically, but engages verbally so as to enhance or supplement the child's play.

Cooperative Play

(Both play; Both talk; Rules & purpose to play; Division of labor)

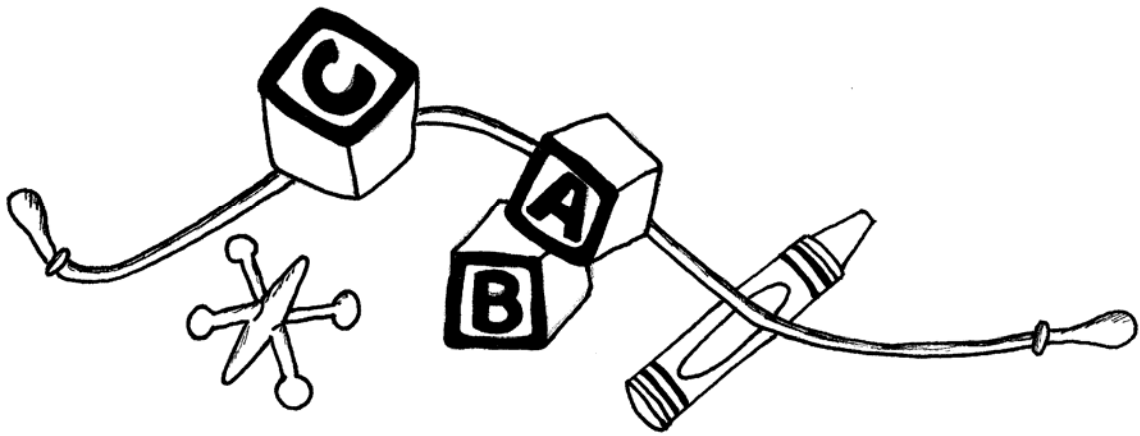
Both the child and adult engage in play that is organized to achieve some end product or goal. Play proceeds along a common theme with an outcome that is verbalized by the child and/or adult. During cooperative play the adult engages in play fully, assisting the child both verbally and physically. The child's verbal interaction is focused on the achievement of the goal or on an assumed role in the play. There is a definite division of labor, in that both the child and adult alternate leadership roles as they assist each other in obtaining their final goal. Thus, in cooperative play, both partners are co-workers in achieving their goal.

How to begin your play

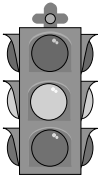
The best way to develop effective communication through playing with your child is to allow the "play" to develop gradually. It is best to spend the beginning of your playful encounters by observing your child through *Onlooker Behavior* and *Independent Play*. Play alone for awhile and gradually begin to incorporate *Parallel Play*. You can easily reach this level by commenting on your child's activity, or imitating what your child is doing. This will increase your child's attention to the activity and create more opportunities for your child to communicate with you. You will find that within a short time you and your child will be engaged in more mutual activities as seen in *Reciprocal Play* and *Associative Play*.

Maintain your play at the Reciprocal and Associative levels because they are most conducive for promoting communication with your child. As a matter of fact, these levels of play have been found to create more verbalizations (talking) from children than any of the other levels of play. Advancing your play to the *Complementary* and *Cooperative* levels will result in less talking between you and your child.

So, let your play evolve slowly until you reach the Reciprocal and Associative levels. Once you're there you will see how much more involved your child will be with you, both non-verbally (through gestures and actions), and verbally. π



Turn-Taking

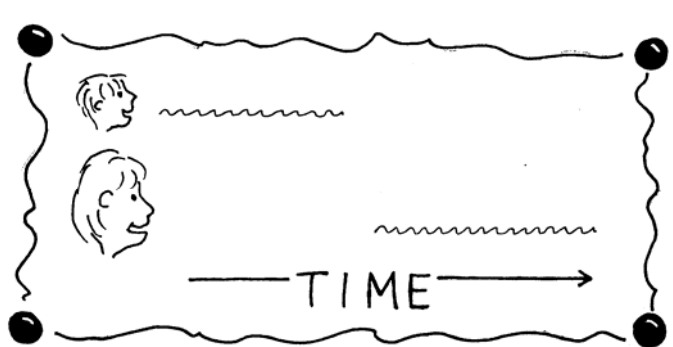


Turn-taking promotes a smooth transition from one speaker to another. This happens in much the same way that a traffic light regulates the flow of vehicles at intersections. A conversation cannot take place without effective turn-taking.

Four Patterns of Turn-Taking

1. Solitary Talking

Solitary talking occurs the moment one person begins speaking alone until the moment another person begins speaking alone. There is always a **pause** after one person stops talking and the other person begins talking. It is the pause that allows the passing of the turn to occur smoothly. This pattern occurs most frequently in adult conversations and adult-child conversations. It is the pattern of turn-taking that should be used throughout our conversations with children, especially young children.

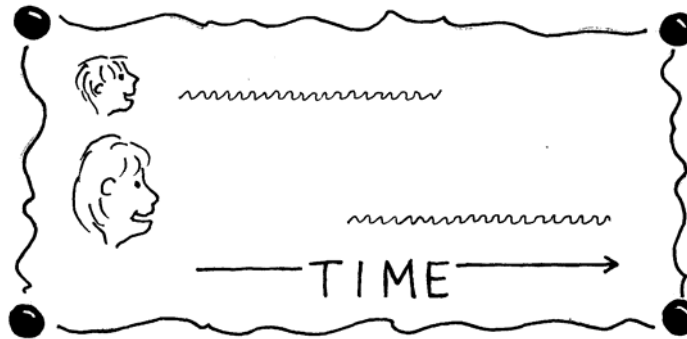


Solitary Speaking

2. Interruptive Simultaneous Speaking

This pattern occurs when one person interrupts the person who is talking and takes their turn away. It is called *Interruptive Simultaneous Speaking* because one person interrupts the person who is talking and while they are interrupting they are also overlapping their speech over the other person's speech. This pattern occurs infrequently in adult conversations and in

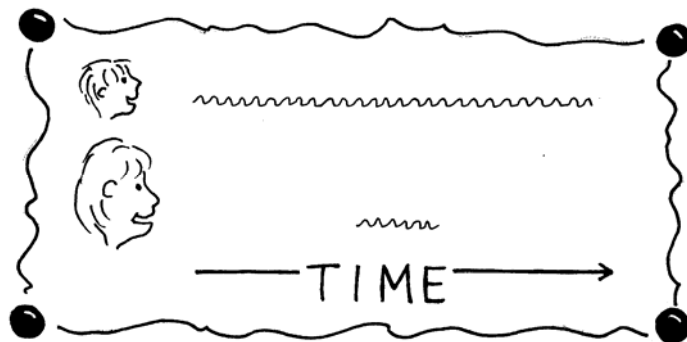
adult-child conversations. It is a pattern of turn-taking that should be avoided at all costs when talking to young children. This is because it suggests that what the child is saying is unimportant. Therefore, avoid interrupting your child unless it is absolutely necessary.



Interruptive Simultaneous Speaking

3. Noninterruptive Simultaneous Speaking

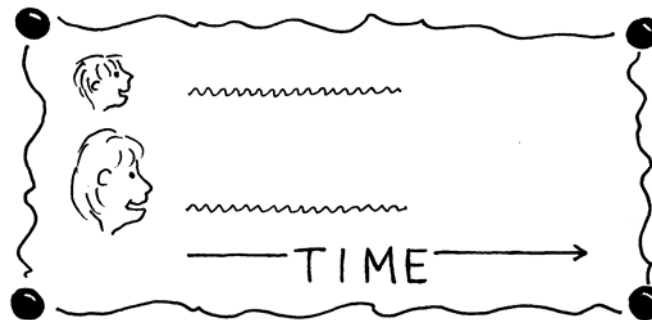
This pattern occurs when one person is speaking and the other person superimposes a message over the speaker's turn. The messages are usually such things as, "hmm, hmm", "Yeah", "Oh", "I know." or other similar expressions. The messages serve the purpose of telling the speaker to continue talking and that we are interested in what they are saying. So much so, that we don't want to take a turn. This pattern occurs somewhat frequently in adult conversations and in adult conversations with young children. It is appropriate to overlap your child's turn with a noninterruptive message, but only if it doesn't interfere in what your child is saying.



Noninterruptive Simultaneous Speaking

4. Simultaneous Claiming of a Turn

Simultaneous claiming of a turn occurs when both parties attempt to talk at the same time. There is a "clash" of talk until one person decides to give the turn to the other. This pattern doesn't occur very frequently and usually occurs by accident. Be prepared to give up your turn if this happens while talking with your child.



Simultaneous Claiming of a Turn

Initiation and Response Patterns

Conversations are comprised of a series of initiation and response patterns. One person usually opens a topic by making a statement or asking a question, and the other person gives a reply. Of course, this is an over simplification of what actually happens, but it makes the point.

Adults frequently initiate or direct interactions with young children in an attempt to get them to talk. They do this by asking questions, sometimes questions that have very obvious answers, or questions that only require a one word reply. This type of initiation pattern may cause young children to talk, but it limits how much they say.

The method of interaction that you will be learning relies on the adult assuming the role of a *Responder* more so than an *Initiator*. You will be commenting more on what your child is doing or saying, and finding yourself asking less questions and rarely giving directions as a means of getting your child to talk.

Communication Styles in Children

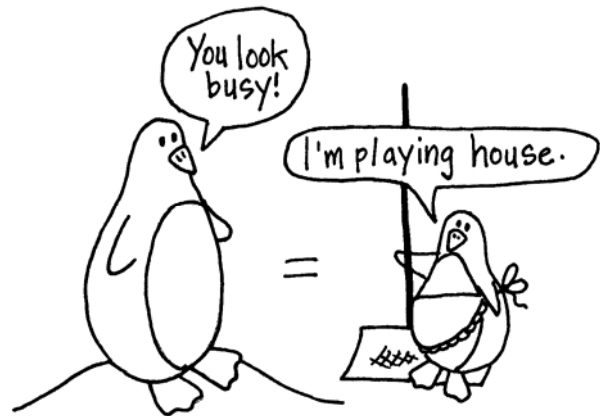
A child's style of communicating may be influenced by several factors. These include such things as:

1. The familiarity of the person interacting with the child
2. The familiarity of the situation
3. The way in which an adult talks to the child
4. The "make-up" of the child

Children's communication styles will therefore change according to any or all of the above factors. There are three communication styles that may be observed in children. They are as follows:

1. Active Communication

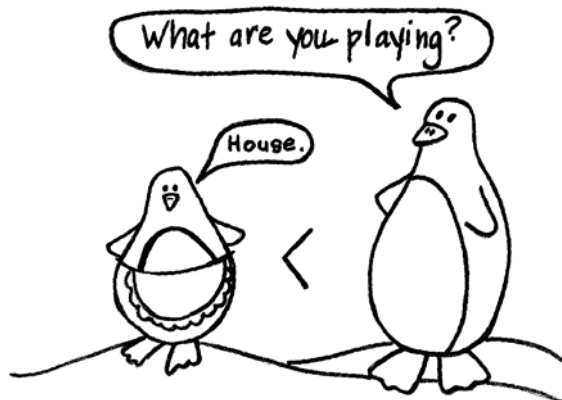
Active communicators demonstrate a sincere desire to communicate. They show an interest in their conversational partner and what is taking place between them. Active communicators show a high level of initiating and responding both verbally and non-verbally. They tend to add substance to the conversation by introducing and extending topics of conversation. This style of communication makes the child an equal partner in the conversation.



An active style of communication may be influenced by the child's conversational partner. Partners that comment on the child's activity tend to foster this style of communication in children. However, partners that direct the child's activity tend to inhibit this style of communication.

2. Passive Communication

Passive communicators tend to be *responders* and rarely initiate topics or extend them. In other words, they add little to their conversations with others. This style of communication may be inherently part of the child's

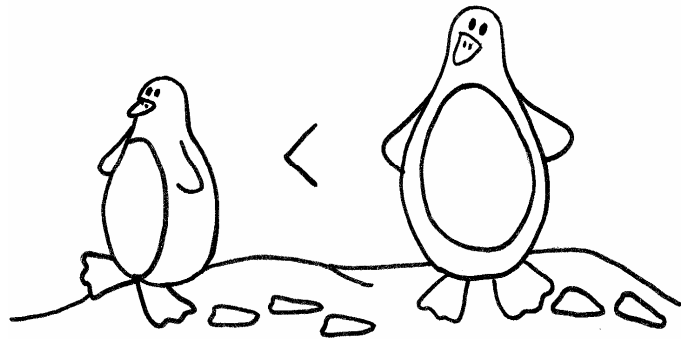


"make-up" in that they have a "quiet" or "shy" personality. Or, they may demonstrate this style as a result of their conversational partner's communication style.

A passive communication style in a child may be influenced by a partner that directs the interaction by asking an abundance of questions, or instructing the child on what to do and how to do it.

3. Inactive Communication

Inactive communicators appear to be socially isolated. They show no apparent interest in communicating and rarely contribute any information in their conversations with others. Children that exhibit this style of communication may possess a personality characterized by "withdrawal" tendencies. Or, they may demonstrate this style as a result of their conversational partner's communication style.



This style of communication in a child may be influenced by a partner that dominates the interaction and provides the child with little or no opportunity to communicate.

Your role is to create a communicative environment that provides your child with every opportunity to take an **active role**.

- Use play routines that allow your child to take an active role without you directing their actions or activities.
- Avoid asking too many questions and thus inhibiting your child's opportunities to add information to the conversation.
- Try to comment on what your child is doing and respond to his/her involvement in the play.

What about Questions?



Questions are quite common in parent-child communication. Questions also serve a very important role in our conversations with children. Let's look at what questions can do for us, and how we should use them.

Getting Information

The primary purpose for asking a question is to **get information**. We use questions to inquire about something, or get detailed information. But, questions can lead to limited statements. That's why an open-ended question will usually get more information than a close-ended question. An example of an open-ended question might be: *"What would you like to do at the beach?"* An example of a close-ended question might be: *"What color is the pail?"* The odds of getting more information from the open-ended question are much greater than for the close-ended question.

Getting Children to Talk

Sometimes we use questions to **get children to talk**. This strategy is **not** recommended for several reasons. First, these types of questions are usually close-ended and require only one or two word responses. Second, questions, especially close-ended questions, that are used to get children to talk tend to be directed at the obvious. For example, *"What is this?"* (while showing the child a toy car), or *"What color is the car?"* This method of getting information results in reducing the length and complexity of the child's statements, and limits the child's opportunities of becoming verbally active. Third, asking a lot of questions may cause children to say less because they may feel that they are being put "on the spot." This in turn limits the child's opportunities to become verbally active.

Getting Started with the Program

The program you are learning is divided into two phases. *Phase 1* is designed to establish successful communication between you and your child. *Phase 2* has to do with promoting language development.

Phase 1: Establishing Successful Communication

If you recall, children learn to communicate before they learn to use language. Therefore, it is important to first establish successful communication with your child before attempting to facilitate language development.

In the first phase you will learn how to use the five essential components of the program to promote:

- a communicative bond with your child.
- an effective communicative network between you and your child.
- an active communication style in your child.

The main focus of your training will involve learning how to use the five essential components of the program within Phase 1. Once you have mastered them you will be able to assist your child in becoming an active communicator. Your instructor will provide you with demonstrations of the program techniques and give you ample time to practice them.

Phase 2: Promoting Language Development

Once you have mastered the components of the program in Phase 1 training, you will begin using the same techniques to foster language development in your child. You will do this by using the program to create opportunities for your child to learn language as a means of communicating. Your instructor will provide you with details about the specific features of language that you should promote. Information about language development and some basic guidelines are provided in this manual to assist you in this phase.

The Five Essential Components

The five essential components of the program are:

1. Facilitating Techniques
2. Turn Taking
3. Physical Positioning
4. Vocal Accenting
5. Daily Activities

These five components are the same in both phases of the program. They are the means by which you will organize your interactions with your child to promote successful communication and language development.

1. Facilitating Techniques

You will be learning seven facilitating techniques. These techniques will be used in both phases of the program. You will use these techniques initially to establish communication, and then later to foster language development. The techniques are divided into three categories based on their purpose for facilitating communication. A brief description of the techniques is presented here. A more detailed description with examples is provided later in the manual. The techniques are as follows:

Feedback Techniques

Imitation

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Non-verbal Imitation | <i>Do what your child does.</i> |
| 2. Verbal Imitation | <i>Say what your child says.</i> |

Input Techniques

- | | |
|------------------|----------------------------------|
| 3. Parallel Talk | <i>Say what your child does.</i> |
| 4. Self Talk | <i>Say what you do.</i> |

Revision Techniques

Elaboration

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------------------------|
| 5. Expansion | <i>Build on what your child says.</i> |
| 6. Extension | <i>Filling in missing grammar.</i> |
| 7. Recasting | <i>Adding content.</i> |
| | <i>Change what your child says.</i> |

You will learn these techniques in two distinct steps. You will begin with Feedback and Input techniques because they are easier to use and require much less concentration than Revision techniques. Once you have become comfortable with these techniques you will then learn to use Revision techniques. Revision techniques require more concentration because you must take what your child says and either elaborate it, or change it in some way. You will find this easy to do if you take your time and focus on what your child is saying. Feedback, Input and Revision techniques are most effective when they are used in clusters or combinations. Examples of this are provided later in the manual.

2. Turn Taking

□ **Follow your child's lead**

Be a *Responder* and not an *Initiator*. Follow what your child is doing and build on those activities. Comment on your child's activities rather than direct them. However, following your child's lead does not mean doing anything that you consider being socially inappropriate. You can create opportunities for communicating by initiating various activities. But, the key thing here is not to direct your child's actions, nor tell your child how to interact, nor what to say. You will be surprised at what you can accomplish by your example rather than by your direction.

□ **Pause after you speak**

Pausing after you speak creates an opportunity for your child to speak. Don't be afraid to be quiet for awhile. You can use this time to focus on what your child is doing. It is okay to resume talking only if it is clear to you that your child is not going to say something.

□ **Pause after your child speaks**

Pausing after your child speaks creates an opportunity for your child to say more. Don't be in a hurry to take your turn at speaking. Wait awhile to make sure your child has nothing more to say.

□ **Say only what you have to say**

Try to keep your talk down to a minimum. Only say what you have to say and no more. Otherwise, you may find yourself dominating the interaction. In all probability you will talk more than your child will.

That's okay as long as your talk is in response to what your child is doing or saying. Making a conscience effort to minimize how much you say will force you to say only what is absolutely necessary.

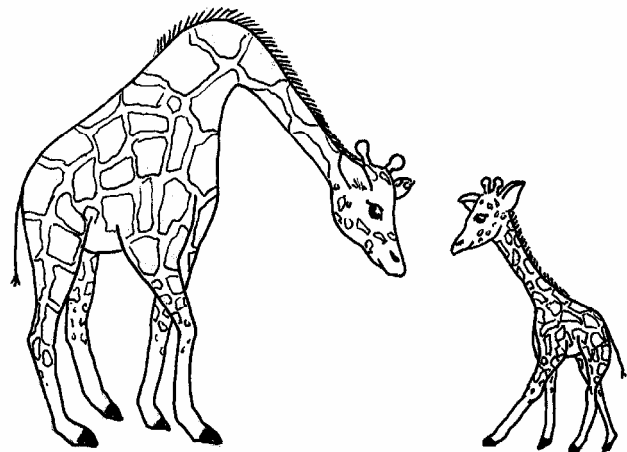
- **Take your time.**

Try to maintain a slow and easy pace when interacting with your child. Pacing yourself will give you the necessary time to focus on what your child is doing and saying. This in turn will give you time to decide on how you want to respond.

3. Physical Positioning

- **Get down to your child's eye and ear level**

Physically positioning yourself at a level where you and your child are face-to-face creates the best situation for joint attention. Physical positioning is a powerful means of creating a non-verbal communication bond with your child.



Getting down to your child's eye and ear level also makes it easier for your child to hear and process what you are saying.

- **Look at your child when speaking and listening**

Looking at your child when you are speaking or listening makes it clear that s/he has your interest and attention.

4. Vocal Accenting

- **Use a positive tone in your voice**

Your voice is a powerful tool for **highlighting** and **reinforcing** information you want your child to hear. The tone of your voice subtly,

yet effectively tells your child that you like what you are seeing and hearing. Use a positive tone in your voice when providing feedback through verbal imitation, as well as when you are want to emphasize something through the use of input and revision techniques.

5. Daily Activities

- **Use the program during daily social activities.**

It isn't necessary to change your daily schedule of routines to work on this program. Rather, select one daily routine that is playful in nature and use the program within this routine. As you become comfortable using this program you may then extend it into other daily activities. Try to use everyday activities as much as possible, because this is where your communication with your child actually takes place.



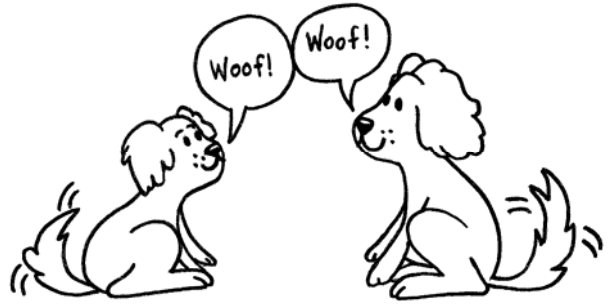
Techniques 1 & 2

IMITATION

Do What Your Child Does
Say What Your Child Says



Watch and Listen



Then → Do what your child does.
Say what your child says.

- ◆ **Imitation** is repeating what your child is doing or saying.
- ◆ It is one of the most basic methods for creating a communicative bond with a child.
- ◆ There are two types of imitation.
 - Non-verbal imitation is ***doing what your child is doing.***
 - Verbal imitation is ***repeating what your child is saying.***
- ◆ Imitation is a technique used to provide **feedback** to your child. It tells your child several things:
 1. That you're comfortable approaching communication at your child's level.
 2. That you enjoy communicating with your child.
 3. That you find your child's behavior to be appropriate, important and interesting to you.
- ◆ Imitation places emphasis on what your child is doing in a positive way without forcing your child to perform.
- ◆ Imitation calls attention to your child's actions and demonstrates your sincere interest in communicating. It does this by causing both of you to become physically involved in the same action. This is called **Joint Action**.

- ◆ Imitation also allows both of you to focus on the same objects, activities, or actions. This is called **Joint Attention**.

- ◆ Imitation is one of the highest forms of praise. It reinforces behaviors that you want to call to your child's attention without stopping the activity and saying such things as "good talking", or "nice job.", etc. Although verbal praise is important, it should not be used to reinforce what is taking place between you and your child. Remember, your mission here is to establish a communication bond with your child. Verbally praising your child at this point takes the emphasis off of this bond and places it on how well your child is performing.

Activity

1. Position yourself next to your child during a daily routine or while s/he is playing alone.
2. **Do what your child is doing.**
If your child is playing with objects or toys, then you play with similar objects the same way. For example, if your child is rolling clay, then you roll clay. If your child is involved in a non-object activity, then you imitate the same physical actions s/he is doing. For example, if your child is rolling on the floor, then you roll on the floor; if your child is clapping hands, then you clap hands.
3. **Say what your child says.**
Repeat any vocalizations (sounds) or statements your child makes. For example, if your child makes a "raspberry", then you make a "raspberry"; or if your child says "*doggie*", then you say "*doggie*." You may imitate all of what your child says (exact imitation) or part of what s/he says (reduced imitation). For example, your child might say "*Doggie in house.*", and you can say "*Doggie in house.*" (exact imitation), or "*In house.*" (reduced imitation).
4. Sometimes it will be necessary to change what your child is saying and still imitate what is being said. This is usually done by changing a personal pronoun. For example, if your child says "*I running fast.*", you might say "*You're running fast.*" This is still an imitation.
5. Using this technique by itself can cause your child some frustration. That is why it should be used along with the next two techniques, parallel talk and self talk. However, it is a most useful technique to be used by itself if your child is not communicating or tends to be isolated. In this case, imitation will allow you to establish a communicative bond with your child.
6. You do not have to imitate everything your child is doing. Carefully select the actions you want to imitate. You will want to imitate as many actions that create a positive bond between you and your child. However, you should try to imitate all of your child's vocalizations or statements.

Technique 3

PARALLEL TALK



Say What Your Child Does

- ◆ **Parallel talk** involves saying what your child is doing. It's called parallel talk because your language goes along with what your child is doing.
- ◆ Parallel talk calls your child's attention to his/her actions through your use of language. In other words, it tells your child what s/he is doing.
- ◆ Parallel talk is a technique used to provide **input** to your child. It does this in two distinct ways:
 1. It tells your child that you enjoy the mutual communication so much that you want to talk about his/her actions. This is particularly important during the early phases of the program when you are trying to establish a communication bond with your child.
 2. It is also used to demonstrate words, sentences, or parts of speech your child is ready to learn. This is particularly important in the second phase of the program when you are trying to teach language skills.
- ◆ Parallel talk is designed to bridge the gap between your child's actions and the language (words or statements) associated with those actions. It provides the language necessary for showing the relationship between your child's actions and attention to those actions. This is called **Joint Reference**.

Activity

1. Follow your child's lead, only this time **say what your child is doing**. For example: If your child is rolling clay, then you say "*You're rolling the clay.*", or "*Rolling the clay.*"
2. Try to physically imitate what your child is doing and use parallel talk at the same time. For example, imitate your child clapping hands and also say "*You are clapping hands!*" (vocal emphasis on "*clapping hands*").
3. Parallel talk only the actions and activities that you consider to be important. Again, the object is not to comment on everything your child is doing. So, select what you want to comment on and then say what your child is doing.
4. Practice this technique several times throughout the day. Keep it brief -- maybe only five minutes each time. You can extend the time if you wish. π



Technique 4

SELF TALK



Say What You Do

- ◆ **Self talk** involves saying what you are doing.
- ◆ Self talk calls your child's attention to your actions through your use of language. In other words, it tells your child what you're doing.
- ◆ Self talk is quite effective when it is paired with your physical imitation of your child's action or activities. In other words, you can say what you're doing while you're physically imitating what your child is doing.
- ◆ Self talk is a technique used to provide **input** to your child. It does this in three distinct ways:
 1. It tells your child that you enjoy the mutual communication so much that you want to talk about your imitation of his/her actions. This is particularly important during the earliest phases of the program when you are trying to establish a communication bond with your child.
 2. It can be used to draw your child's attention to something you're doing or divert your child's attention in a non-punishing or threatening way. This is particularly important during the early phases of the program when you are trying to establish a communication bond with your child.
 3. It is also used to demonstrate words, sentences, or parts of speech your child is ready to learn. This is particularly important in the second phase of the program when you are trying to teach language skills.

- ◆ It is designed to bridge the gap between your actions and the language (words or statements) associated with those actions. It provides the language necessary for showing the relationship between your actions and your child's attention to those actions. This is called **Joint Reference**.

Activity

1. Comment on what you are doing during the play. In other words, say what you do. For example: If you are rolling clay, say "*I'm rolling the clay.*", or "*Rolling the clay.*" You can do this with a duplicate object that your child is playing with.
2. Try to physically imitate what your child is doing and use self talk at the same time. For example, imitate your child clapping hands and also say "*I'm clapping hands!*" (vocal emphasis on "*clapping hands*").
3. Use self talk only for the actions and activities that you consider to be important. Again, the object is not to comment on everything you are doing. So, select what you want to comment on and then say what you're doing.

PUTTING IT TOGETHER: Using Imitation, Parallel Talk and Self Talk

**Do What Your Child Does,
Say What Your Child Says,
Say What Your Child Does, and
Say What You Do**

Using Imitation, Parallel Talk and Self Talk to Promote Successful Communication

You have learned four very basic and important techniques for establishing communication and language with your child. In this exercise you will use these techniques together for the purpose of promoting successful communication with your child. Once successful communication is established, you will apply these techniques for the purpose of promoting language development.

Whereas each technique is useful in its own special way, they are most effective when used in combination. That's what this exercise is all about. You may have had some experience with this when you were learning the previous techniques, but now we're going to take it a step further. You will gain experience and practice using all four techniques in different ways.

Here are some examples of what you can do:

1. Imitate your child's physical actions or activity as you use parallel talk at the same time. For example, imitate your child clapping hands and also say "*You are clapping hands.*" (vocal emphasis on "*clapping hands*").
2. Imitate your child's physical actions or activity as you use self talk at the same time. For example, imitate your child clapping hands and also say "*I'm clapping hands.*" (vocal emphasis on "*clapping hands*").
3. Imitate your child's physical actions or activity and then imitate the same action followed by parallel talk and self talk in succession. Here are some examples:

Child: Claps hands.
Parent: Claps hands.
Parent: *"You're clapping hands!"*
(vocal emphasis on "clapping hands").
Parent: *"I'm clapping hands, too!"*
(vocal emphasis on "clapping hands, too").
Child: Rolls clay.
Parent: Rolls clay.
Parent: *"You're rolling clay!"*
(vocal emphasis on "rolling clay").
Parent: *"I'm rolling clay, too!"*
(vocal emphasis on "rolling clay, too").

4. Imitate your child's physical actions or activity and then imitate the same action followed by a slight variation on what your child is doing. Use parallel talk and self talk in between each imitation or extended imitation. Here is an example:

Child: Rolls clay.
Parent: Rolls clay the same as child.
Parent: *"You're rolling clay!"*
Parent: Makes a ball from the clay.
Parent: *"I'm making a ball!"*



Techniques 5 & 6

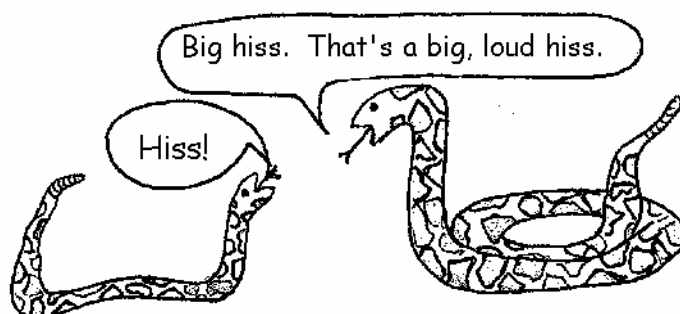
Elaborations

Build on What Your Child Says

- ◆ **Elaboration** involves saying what your child says by building on it, or revising it slightly by either adding grammatical features that are missing or by providing additional information.
- ◆ There are two types of elaboration: **Expansion and Extension**.
 1. **Expansion** involves repeating back to your child what s/he has said, but also adding grammatical features that are missing.



2. **Extension** involves adding new but relevant information to what your child has said. It adds more meaning by providing new information.



- ◆ Elaboration is a **revision** technique that is used to provide children with additional information. It does this in two distinct ways:

1. It builds on what your child has already said. It alters your child's statement in very subtle ways by adding only certain features that are missing, or by providing new information to your child's statement.
 2. It calls attention to information that is missing in your child's statement in a positive way. It presents a positive correction without penalizing your child's attempt at communicating.
- ◆ Unlike input techniques, elaboration is designed to bridge the gap between what your child has said and new information, or information that is missing. It builds on your **Joint Reference** because it adds new information.
 - ◆ **Build-ups and Breakdowns.** This is another way to elaborate on what your child is saying, but it has a little twist to it. Here you not only build on what your child is saying, but you also take apart the information that you've built. This special elaboration technique is very effective in demonstrating exactly what you want your child to hear by varying the information you provide. It really builds on **Joint Reference** because it adds information and then focuses only on the most important information you're trying to demonstrate.
 - Elaborations can only be used if your child is actively talking.

Activity

1. Situate yourself next to your child and play as you did in the previous exercises.
2. Pay attention to things your child is saying. Try to understand what s/he is saying and then elaborate on it.
3. **Expand** your child's statements when there are grammatical features missing. For example: If your child says, "I roll ball.", you may respond with "You are rolling the ball!" or "I am rolling the ball, too!" (positive vocal emphasis on the underlined words). It is important to expand your child's statement without sounding as though you are being corrective. So, keep the tone of your statement POSITIVE!

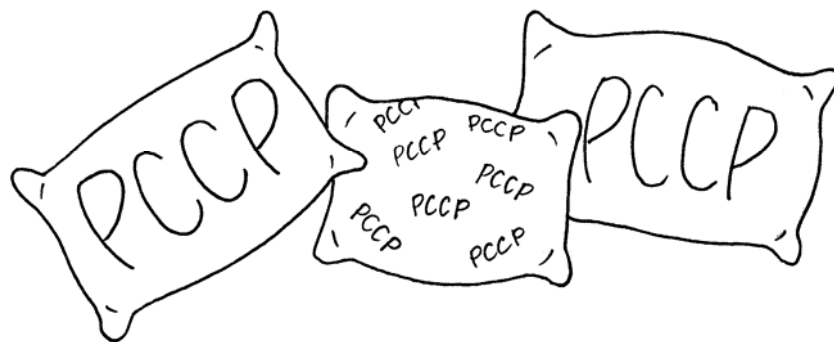
4. **Extend** your child’s statements to add new information. For example: If your child says “*Doggie drink.*”, you may respond with “*The doggie is thirsty.*” “*The doggie is hot.*”. Notice that your statements provide additional information about why the doggie is drinking.

5. **Combine Expansions and Extensions.** For example: If your child says “*Doggie drink,*” you may respond with, “*Yes, the doggie is drinking. He is hot and thirsty.*” Combining these two techniques i adds missing grammatical features and also adds new information.

6. **Build-up and Breakdown** your child’s statements by adding new information and then focus on only the information that is most important. Let’s say you want to demonstrate the use of *-ing* after a verb and you want your child to focus on it several times. In the following example you will notice that your child’s statement was not expanded once, but four times through the process of **building up** and then **breaking down**.

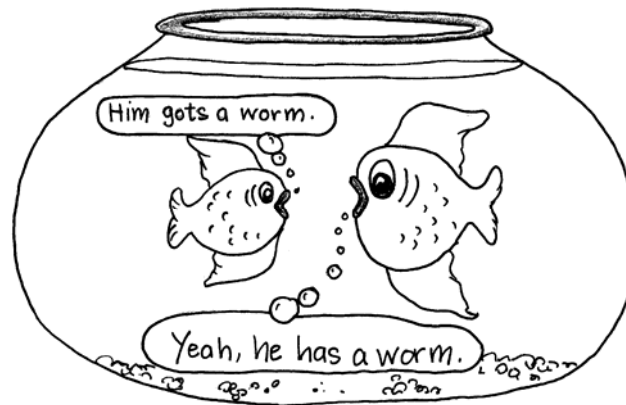
Child: *Baby sleep.*
 Adult: *Yeah, the baby is sleeping.*
 She is sleeping in the bed.
 Sleeping in the bed.
 Sleeping.

7. You do not have to elaborate everything your child says. Carefully select only those statements that you want to elaborate. As a matter of fact, it will be difficult to do this every time because it will take a great deal of concentration on your part. But with practice, you’ll find yourself getting better at it.



Technique 7

Recasting



Change What Your Child Says

- ◆ **Recasting** involves changing almost all of your child's statement because it is impossible to expand it or extend it. It is called "recast" because the child's statement is put into an entirely different format - thus being "recast" into a different form.
- ◆ Recasting is a **revision** technique that is used in only special instances when the child's statement requires a revision, but cannot be elaborated. Recasts are not used very often for this reason. But, there are times when only a recast statement will provide the necessary revision for your child.
- ◆ Although almost all of your child's statement is being changed, it is important to keep the tone of the recasted statement positive. It should not be used with a corrective tone in your voice.
- ◆ Recasting is designed to bridge the gap between what your child has said and an entirely different way of saying it. In doing so, it provides another way of establishing **Joint Reference**.
- ◆ Recasting can only be used if your child is actively talking.
- ◆ Recasting is generally used with children who are developing grammar and seem to be making "mistakes."

Activity

1. Situate yourself next to your child and play as you did in the previous exercises.
2. Pay attention to things your child is saying. Try to understand what s/he is saying and then recast only those statements that require it. You may not find anything during your practice that requires recasting. Instead, you may only notice the need for it at other times, e.g., talking while eating a meal, or while in the car, or at the grocery store.
3. Recast your child's statements only when they cannot be expanded. For example: If your child says "*Him no gots a ball.*", you may recast it into "*Yes, he doesn't have a ball.*" Or, if your child says, "*The dog eats a bone.*", (active statement) you could say something such as, "*The bone was eaten by the dog, wasn't it?*" (passive statement). This last example would only apply in cases where your child's language development has become quite a bit more advanced and you might want to introduce the passive voice.
4. You can do this exercise while still practicing Elaboration techniques because the circumstances surrounding the need for Recasting are not that frequent.

PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER:

Using Input, Revision, and Feedback Techniques

You have learned several important techniques for establishing communication and language with your child. In this exercise you will use all or most of these techniques in combination.

Whereas each technique is useful in its own special way, they are most effective when used in succession or in combination. That's what this exercise is all about. You may have had some experience with this in previous exercises, but now we're going to take it a step further. You will gain experience and practice using all of these techniques in different ways.

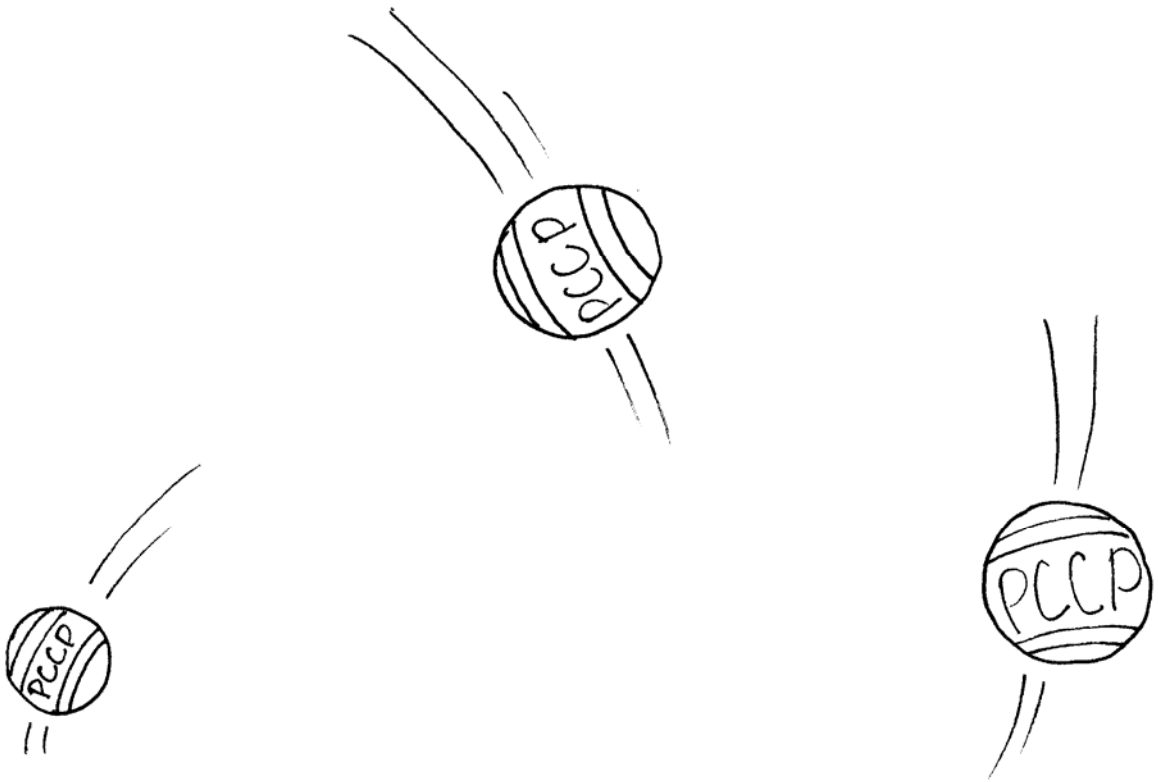
Here are some examples of what you can do:

1. Imitate your child's physical actions or activity and then imitate the same action followed by parallel talk and self talk in succession. When your child says something, then follow it with another imitation and then expansion. Here is an example:

Child:	Claps hands.
Parent:	Claps hands. (Physical Imitation)
Parent:	"You're <i>clapping hands!</i> " (Parallel Talk) (vocal emphasis on " <i>clapping hands</i> ").
Parent:	"I'm <i>clapping hands, too!</i> " (Self Talk) (vocal emphasis on " <i>clapping hands</i> ").
Child:	"Mommy (or Daddy) clap."
Parent:	"Mommy (or Daddy) Clap!" (Imitation)
Parent:	"Mommy is <i>clapping hands!</i> " (Expansion)

2. Imitate what your child says, and then elaborate on it by expansion and extension. This is a nice combination of techniques to use with a child who is beginning to talk more. It demonstrates that you are comfortable using his/her words, and at the same time provides your child with new information.

Child: "Me roll clay."
Parent: "You roll clay." (Imitation)
Parent: "You're rolling clay!" (Expansion)
Parent: "The clay is soft." (Extension)
Parent: Make a ball from the clay.
Parent: "I'm making a ball!" (Self Talk)
Child: "You making ball!"
Parent: "Yes, making ball!" (Imitation - emphasizing the child's use of -ing in the word making)
Parent: "I am making a ball!" (Expansion)



Child Language Learning Strategies

1. Children's Language Rules

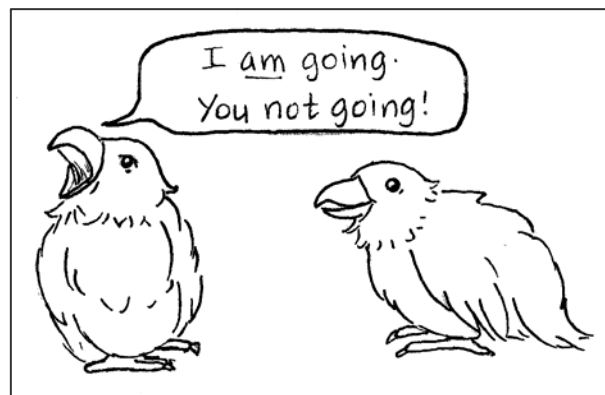
It was once believed that children learn to speak a garbled version of adult language. The position was that children follow the same language rules as adults, but with errors. However, extensive research over the past several decades has clearly shown that children do not follow the same rules used by adults, but rather develop language following their own rules. For example, it is common to hear children say "goed" for "went", or "I not going." for "I am not going." These expressions are not errors per se, but rather a reflection of rules children are learning to apply.



In the first example, a child learns that "ed" codes past tense and therefore applies it to all verbs to express past tense. This pattern of development is called **overextension** or **overgeneralization**. It is common for children to learn a rule and over apply it. This pattern is sometimes called **overregularization** because the child takes a rule that is intended for regular

forms and applies it to irregular forms. Therefore, the regular forms *talk* and *play* become *talked* and *played*, and the irregular form *go* becomes *goed* instead of *went*.

In the second example, the child is using a rule or following a developmental pattern that is developmentally less sophisticated than the adult rule. Children will typically learn to use *-ing* at the end of verbs before they learn the helping verb "am". Therefore, *I going* will appear in children's language before *I am going*. Once the child is able to say *I am going*, they will revert back to a less sophisticated pattern when using negatives. Thus, the child who can say *I am going*, may be heard to also say *I not going*. This is said to occur because the child cannot hold the helping verb



"am" constant while using a negative. Patterns such as those described above are very common throughout the child's development of language.

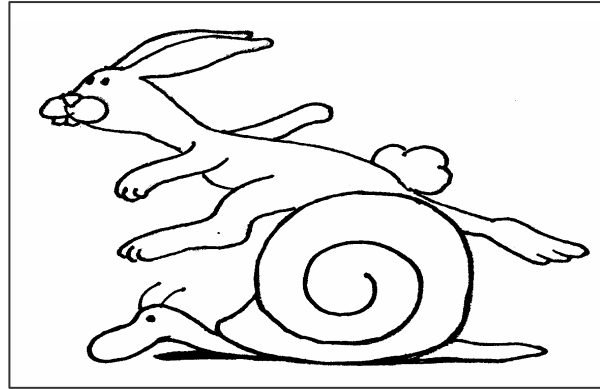
The more we learn about how children learn language, the more we realize that their pattern of development does not always adhere to what adults view as logical. For example, one would assume that a child should first learn words such as "can" before they learn "can't". However, this is not the case. It is more common to hear children using "can't." in their sentences before using the word "can." Another example comes from children's elaboration of phrases within sentences. One might assume that children would typically elaborate phrases in the beginning of a sentence before elaborating them at the end of a sentence. Again, this is not the case. Children will more typically say "*He sees a big ball.*" before saying "*The big man sees it.*"

The rules children use are not only applicable to their development of words and sentences. They also follow rules for the organization of conversations. Young children (prior to the age of six) will follow the rule of **presupposition** when conversing with others. Presupposition refers to assuming that the child's conversational partner already possesses knowledge about the topic that the child intends to initiate. For example, a child might begin a conversation by saying "*She hit me.*" In doing so, the child assumes that their conversational partner knows who "*she*" refers to. When this happens, the conversational partner usually has to ask who the child is referring to. This rule of presupposition occurs frequently in young children's conversations and appears to come from the way they think about their world. Young children typically assume that their experiences are viewed and shared by others even though their conversational partner was not present during the incident. Therefore, the child will say things that do not give the conversational partner sufficient background information.

Understanding child language requires knowledge of how children actually apply rules to the formation of words and sentences, their meanings, and how they are used in conversations. It is important to note that children's communication development is a process comprised of gradual changes in rules that ultimately lead to a final product that is adult language.

2. Rate of Development

Not all children develop language at exactly the same time. Some children may be termed *precocious* because their development is earlier than what is customarily expected. Others may be termed *late developers* because their development is later than what is customarily expected. Still others may be termed as *language delayed* or as having a *language disorder* because their language development is sufficiently behind where it should be for their age.



Whereas the rate of development is an important consideration, it is not sufficient in itself to predict a child's future success in developing language. There is considerable variability in the rate at which children will learn language. However, the pattern of development is not as variable, and thus more important than the rate at which certain language skills are learned.

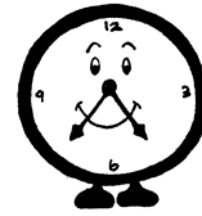
3. Stable and Predictable Stages of Development

The process by which children learn to communicate with language is not haphazard or arbitrary. Rather, the process is comprised of highly stable and predictable stages of development. We can see this throughout almost every facet of children's language development. For example, a simple sentence such as "*I am going home.*" will require the child to initially go through three major changes in the development of the verb. The progression of changes or stages is as follows:

Stage 1	<i>I go (home).</i>	Use of a present tense verb.
Stage 2	<i>I going (home).</i>	Use of <i>-ing</i> after the main verb.
Stage 3	<i>I (be, is, are) going home.</i>	Rudimentary use of the helping verb.
Stage 4	<i>I am going home.</i>	Adult use of the helping verb.

4. Readiness and Learning

Children must go through this process of *gradual changes* in rules in order to achieve the final product of adult language. As a general rule, children will not learn various aspects of language until they are ready to do so. As stated above, certain features must be developed before a child can achieve a higher level of development.



Trying to quicken the process or skip stages of development runs contrary to what children need to do. This may be frustrating for parents and educators, but in order for a child to achieve stability in the development of language it is important that they be allowed to go through these stages of development. Knowledge of these stages will help parents and educators to assist children in developing language in a timely fashion.

Children are capable of using language not yet appropriate for their age or developmental level. However, this requires a great deal of effort and reinforcement in order to maintain the child's performance. Getting children to use language to perform is much like "tap dancing". It makes for a nice show, but communicates very little. The question every parent and educator must ask is "How will my children's performance of language enable them to communicate in useful ways?"

5. Individual Differences

Despite the fact that children develop language through a series of predictable stages, not all children go about learning language the same way. There are many individual differences and alternative learning strategies that children use during their development of language. Some of these differences are just that, a difference. One strategy is no better or worse than the other. For example, all children use imitation as a means of learning language. However, some children use imitation much more so for learning language than other children. Caregivers should become alert to children's imitations of what they say because there is something in the caregiver's language that the child is trying to learn. However, we do not want to force children to imitate because it puts unnecessary pressure on them to perform. Imitations should be spontaneous and without prompting.

There are some strategies in children's language learning that are better than others. These strategies should be exploited as much as possible in order to provide the child with the easiest means for learning language. For example,

some children begin elaborating their sentences in the object position (the end of the sentence), as in “He see a big dog.” Other children begin elaborating sentences in the subject position (beginning of the sentence), as in “The boy see it.”

Stages of Language Development

Some of the major characteristics of language development are presented in the following stages in order to provide you with some information about what to expect from your child as s/he develops language. Your instructor will provide additional information and explanation about the features of language you can begin emphasizing with your child. The following stages are not exhaustive by any means. However, the examples are characteristic of what children between the ages of one-year and five-years of age typically do at various points in the development of language.

Preverbal Period: Nonverbal Communication (birth – 12 months)

This period of development sets the stage for language development. It is characterized by the development of early communicative and cognitive abilities. These include the development of : attention, gestures, gaze, turn-taking, vocal patterns (babbling), causality, intentionality, relating to objects and special relations.

There are two sub-stages within the Preverbal Period. The first occurs between birth and approximately 8 months, and is characterized by non-purposeful nonverbal communicative acts. The infant is exploring the environment and is learning to relate to objects and people. The infant does not intentionally communicate, but the adult treats the infant's behavior as though s/he is attempting to communicate. The second sub-stage occurs between approximately 8 – 12 months, and is characterized by purposeful non-verbal communicative acts. During this period the infant gains more control over vocalizing, gesturing, attending, relating to objects and people, turn-taking, gaze direction, and behaving purposefully. The infant now communicates ideas through a variety of purposeful gestures and vocalizations.

The infant demonstrates a readiness for the development of language when s/he begins to use a wide range of gestures paired with vocalizations. Another indicator is the increased use of invented words, e.g., *gega* for *bottle*.

Stage 1: Single-word Statements (12 – 18 months)

1. Nouns, e.g., *mommy, daddy, cookie*. Make up about 50% of child's vocabulary.
2. Verbs, e.g., *go, see, play*. Make up about 15% of child's vocabulary.
3. Modifiers, e.g., *mine, dirty, hot, big*. Make up about 10% of child's vocabulary.
4. Negatives, e.g., *no, allgone*. *No* is first negative to appear.
5. Questions, e.g., *See↑, Go↑* (with rising tone in voice), *What? Wha?, Whasat?*
6. Vocabulary size: begins with a core of 10 words and increases to about 50 words.

Stage 2: Multi-word Statements (18 – 26 months)

1. Declarative statements: subject + verb + object appears in this stage, e.g., *Mommy eat cookie.*
2. Noun Phrases. Include a single modifier, e.g., *a coat, that dog, my juice.*
3. Verb Phrases, e.g., *Daddy go, Baby sleep, Mommy play.* Verb with *ing* appears, e.g., *Baby sleeping.*
4. Negatives, e.g., *No shoe, Not go.* *No* and *not* are used interchangeably.
5. Questions, e.g., *Mommy eat?, What this?, What do(ing)?*
6. Joining words. *and* appears between two nouns, e.g., *Dog and cat.*
7. Vocabulary size: 200 – 300 words by two years of age.

Stage 3: Early Emerging Grammars (2 – 3 years)

(Note, this stage is divided into early and late periods)

1. Declarative statements
The following types of statements appear throughout this stage:
subject + verb + object, e.g., *Mommy eat cookie.*
subject + linking verb + complement, e.g., *He is here.*
subject + helping verb + verb + object, e.g., *He is playing ball.*
2. Noun Phrases
Elaboration of the NP begins in the object position, e.g., *That a coat, See big dog.*
Later the NP elaborates in both subject and object position, e.g., *A big dog, See a man.*
Late in this stage NPs have article + a modifier, e.g., *That a big dog.*
3. Verb Phrases
Early Stage 3
The *ing* is mastered in this stage, e.g., *The baby sleeping.*
Appearance of the words *gonna, wanna, gotta.*
Can't, don't, won't appear before *can, do* and *will/would*.
Late Stage 3
Can, do, and will appear.
Overextension of tense, e.g., *I eated a cookie. Him goed home.*
4. Negatives
Early Stage 3: *No, not can't* and *don't* are used interchangeably.
Late Stage 3: *I can't eat it.* and *I don't eat it.* (mean the same thing).
5. Questions
Early Stage 3: *Mommy eat cookie?, What this?, Where mommy going?*
Late Stage 3: *Is he going home? What you doing?*
6. Joining phrases. appearance of *but, so, or, and if* occur later in Stage 3.

7. Grammatical forms: The following forms appear in this stage by are not mastered.
- Irregular past tense – e.g., *went*. Child may say *wented* or *goed* instead.
 - Articles – *a* and *the*.
 - Linking verbs – *is, are, am*, e.g. *He is home. I am happy.*
 - Helping verbs – *is, are, am*, e.g., *He is running. I am playing.*
 - Third Person Singular – *He likes. He has a ball.* Instead, child may say, *He like it. or Him gots a ball.*

The following forms are used regularly (mastered):

Early Stage 3

ing - *He going home.*

in and *on*

plural *s* – *See the dogs., Two foots.* (overextended use of regular plural)

Late Stage 3

Possessive – *That mommy's cookie.*

8. Vocabulary size: About 900 – 1000 words by age 3. May use about 12,000 per day.

Stage 4: Later Grammars (3 – 5 years)

(Note, this stage is divided into early and late periods)

1. Declarative statements

The following types of statements appear throughout this stage:

subject + helping verb + linking verb + complement, e.g., *Daddy will be here.*

double helping verbs, e.g., *He will have to do it.*

Indirect object appears in subject + helping verb + verb + indirect object + object, e.g., *He gave the cake to me.*

2. Noun Phrases

Early Stage 4

Examples include: *I like these toys. Put in the other one. I want some more. The girl eated my cookie.*

Prepositional phrases appear, e.g., *The car is in the garage.*

Late Stage 4

Number and agreement still present problems, e.g., *Those my pencil.*

Children are usually able to elaborate noun phrases in succession.

Modifiers appear after the noun through relative clauses, e.g., *The dog who bites is fat.*

3. Verb Phrases

Early Stage 4

Overextends past tense, *I didn't throwed it.*

More helping verbs appear, e.g., *could, would, must, might.*

Simple infinitives appear, e.g., *I have to go. He wants to play.*

Late Stage 4

More complex sentences: *I have eaten the cookie. She made me fall down.*

Past tense voice, e.g., *He was a big man. They were funning fast.*

4. Negatives

Early Stage 4

Examples include: *I didn't do it. The baby can't sleep.*

Appearance of *isn't, aren't, doesn't* and *didn't*.

Late Stage 4

Indefinite forms *nobody, no one, none*, and *nothing* are still to be mastered.

Use of double negatives, e.g., *I ain't got none.*

Appearance of *wouldn't, couldn't*, and *shouldn't*.

5. Questions

Early Stage 4

Helping verb is inverted, e.g., *Is mommy going, too?*, *Can't it be a bigger car?*

Appearance of the "dummy Do", e.g., *Do you like ice cream?*

When questions appear, e.g., *When is he playing?*

Other examples: *Why is he running?*, *What can he do?*, *What could he do?*

Late Stage 4

Appearance of adult-like tag questions, e.g., *You like cookies, don't you?*

6. Joining phrases

Early Stage 4

Compound sentences, e.g., *I went to the store and Jim saw me.*

Because appears, e.g., *Because I like it.*

Late Stage 4

If appears in more complex sentences, e.g., *I can if I want to.*

Because is used to coordinator, e.g., *The girl fell because her bike hit a rock.*

7. Grammatical forms:

The following forms are used regularly (mastered):

Regular past tense, e.g., *He played.*

Irregular past tense, e.g., *She went.*

Third person singular, e.g., *It goes. He has a bike.*

Linking verbs, e.g., *Here is my hat. She's nice.*

Helping verbs, e.g., *They are playing. I am having fun.*

8. Vocabulary size: About 1500 words by age 4, and over 2000 by age 5.

Using Input, Revision and Feedback Techniques to Promote Language Development

After a successful communication network is established with your child, you will then proceed into the next phase. That is, you will use these techniques to promote language development. This will require some understanding of language development and assistance from your instructor.

Here are some examples of how these techniques can be used to stimulate and promote language development:

1. Let's say that your child is ready to begin learning noun modifiers, such as "*big*", "*more*", or "*some*". When interacting with your child, you can insert these modifiers into your language. For example:

Child: "Cookie." (while gesturing for more with his/her cup)
Parent: "Cookie." (Imitation)
Parent: "More cookie? (Parallel Talk)
Child: "More cookie."
Parent: "More cookie." (Imitation)
Parent: "A big cookie." (Extension)
Child: "Good."
Parent: "Good." (Imitation)
Parent: "Good cookie! (Expansion)
Parent: "The cookie is good!" (Build-up)
Child: "Good cookie."

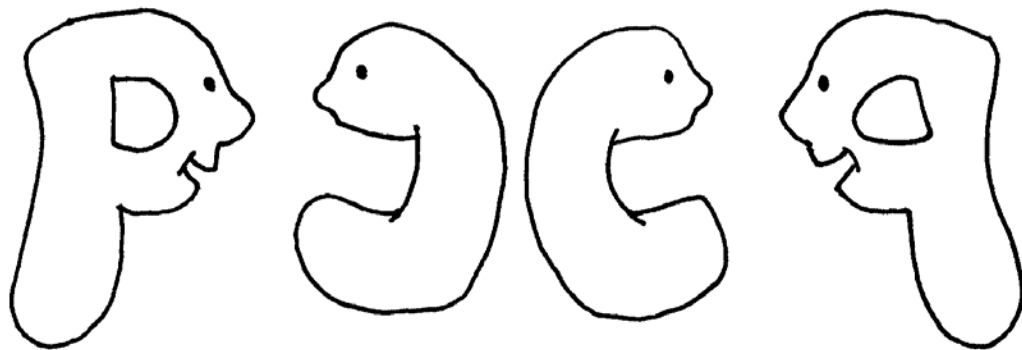
2. Let's say that your child is ready to begin learning -ing endings on verbs, such as "*going*", "*playing*", "*running*". When interacting with your child, you can insert -ing endings into your language. For example:

Child: Rolls clay.
Child: "Roll clay."
Parent: Rolls clay. (Imitation)
Parent: "Roll clay." (Imitation)
Parent: "You're rolling clay." (Expansion)
Parent: "rolling clay." (Breakdown)
Parent: "rolling." (Breakdown)
Child: "Me rolling clay!"

Parent: "Yes, you're rolling clay!" (Imitation)

Parent: "I'm rolling clay, too." (Self Talk)

- Notice that you are not only reinforcing your child's use of the -ing, when you imitate his/her statement, but you're also introducing the proper use of the pronoun "I" with the helping verb "am" through your self talk.
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Parent-Child Communication Program

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Programa de Comunicación Padre-Niño



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INTRODUCCIÓN AL PCCP

El **Programa de Comunicación Padre-Niño (PCCP)** es basado en un modelo de terapia de lenguaje desarrollado por Louis J. De Maio en 1983. El modelo de terapia original se titulaba Intervención para Lenguaje Comunicativamente-Basado, fue presentado como un curso corto en la convención de la Asociación Americana del Habla-Lenguaje y Audición que se llevo a cabo en 1983, y después publicado en Seminarios de Habla y Lenguaje, Vol. 5 en 1984. El programa fue designado para profesionales para ser utilizado con niños teniendo dificultades con el aprendizaje del lenguaje.

En 1998, muchos de los principios del modelo de intervención original fueron aplicados para uso con los Padres. PCCP fue diseñado primeramente para padres con niños entre uno y cinco años de edad. Es intento para padres cuyos hijos están teniendo dificultad aprendiendo a comunicarse. Por lo tanto, también es apropiado para cualquier padre que esta interesado en promover el desarrollo temprano del lenguaje en su niño.

Este manual cubre toda la información esencial que los padres necesitan para usar y así promover exitosamente el desarrollo de la comunicación y lenguaje con su niño. Es mejor usarlo siendo guiado por un profesional a través de las fases del programa. Aunque el manual fue desarrollado para padres, también puede ser utilizado por los proveedores del cuidado de los niños, maestras de educación preescolar, patólogos de habla-lenguaje y otros profesionales y ayudantes de profesionales que trabajan con niños.

Algunos otros recursos fueron usados en la preparación de este manual. Información de juego entre adulto-niño fue tomada de dos estudios (Hanson & De Maio, 1987 y Visto & De Maio, 1989). Ambos fueron presentados en la convención anual de la Asociación Americana de Habla – Lenguaje-Audición. La información conversacional de tomar –turnos fue tomada de un estudio por De Maio, 1982 que fue publicado en Habla y Lenguaje: Adelantos en Investigación Básica y Práctica, Vol. 8. Finalmente, la información en las etapas del desarrollo del lenguaje fue adaptada de un manual completado por De Maio, en 1998. El manual se titula Desarrollo de La Comunicación desde la Infancia hasta los años preescolares.

Existen cuatro metas del Programa de Comunicación entre Padre-Hijo. Las primeras dos metas son propuestas para el padre de manera para lograr las últimas dos metas que son propuestas para el niño. Las metas de PCCP son las siguientes:

- 1) Incrementar el uso de técnicas sin-directivas y facilitación por parte de los padres.
- 2) Disminuir el uso de preguntas por los padres.
- 3) Crear una atmósfera en donde el niño sea un comunicador activo.
- 4) Alentar el uso de lenguaje espontáneo en el niño

Existen tres elementos de instrucción para el Programa de Comunicación Padre-Hijo. Los tres elementos son **Información, Demostración y Práctica**. Interacciones entre padres e hijo son video-gravadas antes y después del entrenamiento para así mostrar a los padres como sus patrones de interacción han cambiado. Típicamente, los padres pueden ser entrenados en los cinco componentes esenciales del programa en seis sesiones de entrenamiento, dos de instrucción y cuatro de demostración y sesión de práctica. Las sesiones de entrenamiento de instrucción son de 1 a 1 hora y media dependiendo de las preguntas y discusión de los padres. La sesión de demostración y práctica dura 50 minutos. El número de sesiones de demostración y práctica podrán ser extendidas si se determina que más práctica es necesaria.

El manual es presentado a los padres en una serie de pasos. Estos comienzan con información de antecedentes en la naturaleza de comunicación y son después presentados con los cinco componentes esenciales del programa con énfasis en técnicas de consejos y participación. Dos demostraciones y sesiones de práctica toman usualmente lugar después que los padres son introducidos a estos conceptos. Técnicas de revisión son introducidas en la segunda sesión de instrucción junto con información acerca del desarrollo del lenguaje. Esto es seguido por dos sesiones de práctica y demostración.

Un reviso es implementado periódicamente después de que el entrenamiento ha sido completado. Esto se hace para reenfocar lo que los padres han aprendido, y para asistirles en un mayor entendimiento del desarrollo del lenguaje, y como usar el programa, para facilitar el desarrollo del lenguaje.

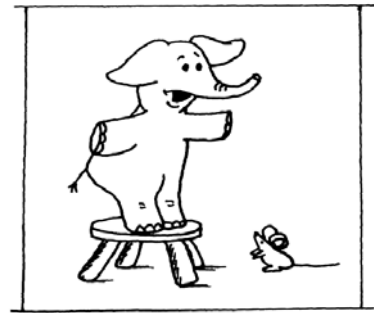
Preparándonos

¿Qué es La Comunicación, El Lenguaje, y El Habla?

Comunicación

La Comunicación es la manera en que mandamos y recibimos información con otras personas. La mayoría de las personas piensan que la comunicación es lo mismo que estar hablando. Hablar es una manera de comunicarse. La Comunicación también envuelve, gestos, vocalizaciones (sonidos), tono de voz, expresiones faciales, contacto visual, distancia física de la persona.

La comunicación es influida por con quien estamos, donde estamos, y lo que estamos haciendo. Por ejemplo, nosotros nos comunicamos de manera diferente con un amigo, que con una persona extraña. O si estamos en una iglesia o en una fiesta. O si estamos en el trabajo o jugando. La Comunicación es un poco más que dar y recibir información. De la manera que se comporta una persona influirá directamente el comportamiento de otra persona. Por lo tanto, nuestro compañero tendrá una influencia mayor en la manera que nos comuniquemos.

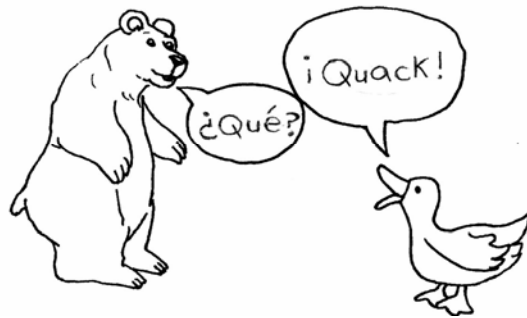


Lenguaje

El Lenguaje es una de las maneras en la que nos comunicamos. Envuelve hablar, escuchar, escribir, leer, y señalar (como lo usan las personas que son sordas) El lenguaje se usa para expresar y recibir información. Por ejemplo, hablar, escribir, y señalar se usan para expresar ideas. Escuchar, leer y señalar se usan para recibir y entender lo que se está expresando.

Usamos el lenguaje para expresar nuestras ideas. El lenguaje hablado se compone de sonidos de habla, que pueden ser organizados para formar palabras y oraciones. El lenguaje tiene reglas. Estas reglas son llamadas gramática. La gramática hace posible que la gente se entienda entre sí. Existen tres partes del lenguaje: **Forma, contenido y uso.**

Forma se compone de sonidos del habla (letras en la escritura), palabras, y oraciones. Forma es actualmente lo que escuchamos y vemos. Por ejemplo, “Open the door.” Es una oración que tiene tres palabras y nueve sonidos (11 letras). **Contenido** es el significado detrás de la forma. Por ejemplo, la oración mencionada significa que la persona que habla se esta refiriendo a una acción en un objeto. **Uso** es el motivo o propósito detrás de la forma. Por ejemplo, en la oración mencionada la persona que habla puede estar dando una dirección, o haciendo un pedido.



El Habla

El habla es la manera principal en que la gente usa el lenguaje. Se compone aproximadamente de 45 sonidos en el lenguaje Ingles. Él numero de sonidos y los tipos de sonidos dependen del lenguaje hablado. Hay dos tipos de sonidos del habla: vocales y consonantes. Usamos las vocales y consonantes para hacer palabras. Cada lenguaje tiene su propio grupo de reglas para combinar sonidos y hacer palabras.



Tres Cosas importantes que hay que saber sobre la Comunicación

1. La comunicación comienza a desarrollarse antes que el lenguaje

Los niños comienzan a comunicarse inmediatamente después de haber nacido. Esto puede oírse cómico, pero es la verdad. Hacen esto en cantidad de maneras. Desde llorar reflexivamente, hasta la manera en que mueven las partes de su cuerpo. Su comunicación por los primeros varios meses es puramente sin intención. Esto es, que ellos no están tratando de comunicarse con nosotros. Pero nosotros actuamos como si todo lo que el infante hace es un intento de comunicación. Todo lo que el infante hace en presencia de un adulto es tratado como un intento de comunicación. ¿Cómo hacemos esto? Hacemos esto dirigiendo nuestra atención a lo que está haciendo el infante y después hacemos comentarios de lo que está pasando. Para cuando el infante cumple seis meses de edad la comunicación es intencional. Esto es que el infante está haciendo cosas para transmitir ideas a propósito. Hacen esto a través de gestos y vocalizaciones, pero sin palabras. No es hasta que el niño tiene cerca del año que el lenguaje comienza a desarrollarse. Esto comienza con las primeras palabras del niño. Ahora el niño puede expresar sus ideas no solo con gestos y vocalizaciones, pero también a través de palabras.

2. El Lenguaje se aprende mediante la comunicación.

El lenguaje no se aprende por accidente, ni se desarrolla solo. Los niños aprenden el lenguaje a través de sus interacciones con otros. El medio ambiente juega una parte muy importante en el aprendizaje del lenguaje, a sí como también el desarrollo físico, el desarrollo neurológico, y el desarrollo intelectual. Todas estas cosas contribuyen al desarrollo del lenguaje. Pero, el lenguaje no se desarrollara apropiadamente sino está ligado a la comunicación.

3. La comunicación es transaccional.

¿Que significa la comunicación transaccional? Para ponerlo sencillamente, del la manera a que nosotros nos comunicamos influye en la manera que los niños se comunican. Y de la manera que los niños se comunican influye en la manera que nosotros nos comunicamos con ellos. Por ejemplo sí un niño es inhibido, o callado, o un comunicador pasivo, Nos encontraremos haciendo muchas preguntas para hacer que el niño hable. El estilo pasivo del niño causa que nos comportemos de maneras diferente a las que utilizaríamos usualmente si el niño estuviera comunicándose activamente. De manera que empezamos hacer preguntas para hacer que el niño hable.

Pero, las respuestas a las preguntas pueden ser cortas, pueden llevarnos a pensar que el niño no es capaz de habilidades más complejas.

Las técnicas que usted aprenderá en este programa lo capacitarán para hablar con su niño en maneras que sacaran a relucir los mejores intentos en comunicarse de su niño. Las técnicas alimentaran un estilo de comunicación activa en su hijo y haran el aprendizaje del lenguaje más apropiado, mas significativo, y con mayor recompensa para ambos. El programa le asistirá en convertirse en un mejor comunicador usando técnicas que acentuaran en lugar de inhibir el desarrollo del lenguaje de su hijo.

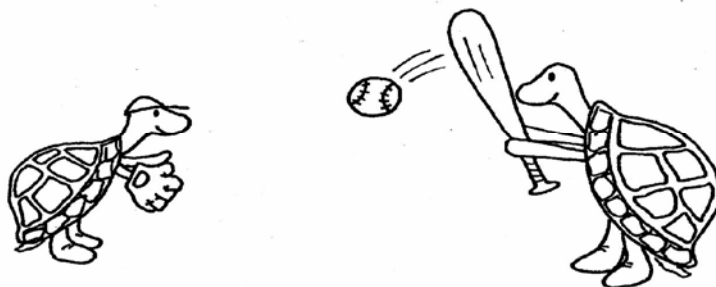
Haciendo la Comunicación un Esfuerzo Unido



Para poder promover la comunicación exitosamente es necesario hacer un esfuerzo unido. Hay tres elementos necesarios para hacer la comunicación un esfuerzo unido.

1. Acción Unida

Usted y su hijo se involucrarán físicamente en la misma actividad. Su participación física atrae la atención de su hijo hacia la actividad y así promueve atención de unida.



Hacer las mismas cosas.

2. Atención unida

Usted y su hijo se enfocan en los mismos objetos, actividades y acciones. Atención mutua a las mismas actividades crea las oportunidades para acción unida y referencia unida.



Se concentran en las mismas cosas.

3. Referencia unida

Hable acerca de las cosas que usted y su hijo están haciendo. Al unir referencias, usted provee el lenguaje necesario para enseñar la relación entre usted y la acción de su hijo y presta atención a estas acciones.



Hablando de qué está ocurriendo.

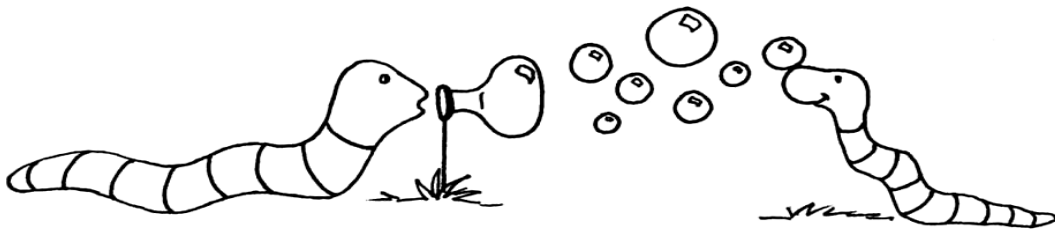
Juego de interacción entre Padre-Hijo

El juego es el trabajo del niño. El juego provee a los niños con motivos de aprender a través de descubrir y experiencia. Por esto es que el juego es tan importante para el intelectual, social, y el desarrollo del lenguaje de los niños. Les provee con los medios para aceptar en información, evaluarla y representarla mediante acciones.

Juego entre Adulto-niño es diferente al juego entre niño-compañero. Los adultos proveen más oportunidades para aprender y pueden hacer cosas para ayudar a su hijo a comunicarse más efectivamente. Por lo tanto esto no descuenta los beneficios del juego entre niño-compañero. El juego entre niño-compañero provee al niño con oportunidades para explorar el medio ambiente, para aprender cosas nuevas, y para ganar confianza en situaciones sociales. Ambos son importantes y ambos deben ser estimulados como parte de la rutina semanal del niño.

El jugar con su hijo le tomara algo de planificación. Trate de pensar en rutinas diarias que por naturaleza se prestan para jugar. Selecciónelas como su plataforma para facilitar la comunicación con su hijo. Seleccione juguetes y materiales que sean interesantes para ambos usted y su hijo. Piense acerca de diferentes maneras en las que usted puede jugar con estos materiales y demostrárselos a su hijo. Seleccionando materiales duplicados es importante porque ambos usted y su hijo tendrán los mismos artículos para manipular y hablar acerca de ellos. Usted verá el beneficio de esto como usted vaya aprendiendo las técnicas diferentes que se encuentran en este manual.

Lo siguiente es una descripción de los niveles de juegos Adulto-niño en el grado de participación social. Cada nivel es progresivamente más complejo que el anterior. Después de que usted revise los niveles de juego, usted aprenderá como pueden ser usados para promover la comunicación exitosamente.



Niveles de Juego entre Padre-hijo

Comportamiento Observador

(El niño observa; el adulto juega)

El niño observa al adulto jugando, pero no participa activamente en la situación de juego. El niño puede cuestionar, comentar, ofrecer sugerencias o actuar cuando el adulto lo pida. El comportamiento observador es distinto a los otros niveles, en que, caracteriza la participación sin jugar del niño.

Juego Independiente

(El niño juega; El adulto habla)

El niño y el adulto juegan solos y no inician ninguna interacción verbal entre ambos. El niño no hace ninguna interacción verbal o contacto visual con el adulto, ni hace esfuerzo para acercarse al adulto. El juego es definitivamente centrado en si mismo.

Juego Paralelo

(Ambos juegan; El adulto habla)

El niño y el adulto juegan independientemente, pero escogen una actividad que es similar a las otras. Por lo tanto, el niño no busca la participación del adulto, ni trata de influir en la naturaleza de su juego. La comunicación entre adulto y niño es limitada. El adulto tiende a hablar mas haciendo comentarios sobre la actividad del niño y su propia actividad. El niño puede responder a cosas que dice el adulto, pero no comienza ninguna interacción.

Juego Reciproco

(El niño juega; ambos hablan)

El niño juega interactivamente con el adulto. El niño se involucra físicamente solo en la actividad del juego, pero reconoce al adulto como participante en el juego. Esto es evidente por la frecuencia de interacción verbal. Aunque el adulto es reconocido como un participante en el juego. Ella escoge no estar físicamente involucrado. Por lo tanto, por sus destrezas verbales y su atención a la actividad del niño, ella puede mantener verbalmente su papel en el juego del niño. Este nivel de juego es considerado distintivamente más social que los anteriormente citados, porque, una situación de juego de interacción mutua es establecida. El juego reciproco se encontró ser productivo en aumentar expresiones y promover tomar turnos en niños de grados preescolares.

Juego Asociativo

(Ambos juegan; ambos hablan)

El niño se involucra en una actividad de juego en común con el adulto. La interacción verbal se enfoca en la actividad de juego en común o en las asociaciones compartidas en el juego. El niño inicia y responde a la interacción verbal. El adulto se ha sido aceptado como tal por el niño. El interés de ambos no es solamente enfocado en la actividad de juego, pero en el compañerismo de ambos en el juego. Como quiera que sea el compañerismo de ambos en el juego es promovido sin utilizar cooperación ni diferencias en el papel que ambos asumen. Tanto el adulto como el niño tienen libertad para jugar de acuerdo a sus propios deseos. Fue descubierto que los niveles de juego recíproco y asociativo promueven expresiones largas y la habilidad de tomar turnos en niños de edad preescolar mejor que en otros niveles sociales de juegos.

Juego Complementario

(El niño juega; ambos hablan; Reglas & propósito para jugar)

El niño se dedica físicamente a jugar solo. Por lo tanto el niño reconoce el papel que el adulto desempeña. Ambos el adulto y el niño asumen verbalmente papeles o tienen una responsabilidad específica. El niño demuestra estar al tanto del papel del adulto, y puede instruir o dirigir lo que tenga que decir durante el juego. El adulto actúa como suplemento verbal a la participación del niño a pesar de que el niño tiene que obtener las metas físicamente solo. El adulto no participa físicamente en el juego, pero participa verbalmente para mejorar o suplementar el juego del niño.

Juego Cooperativo

(Ambos juegan; Ambos hablan; Reglas & propósito para jugar; trabajo dividido)

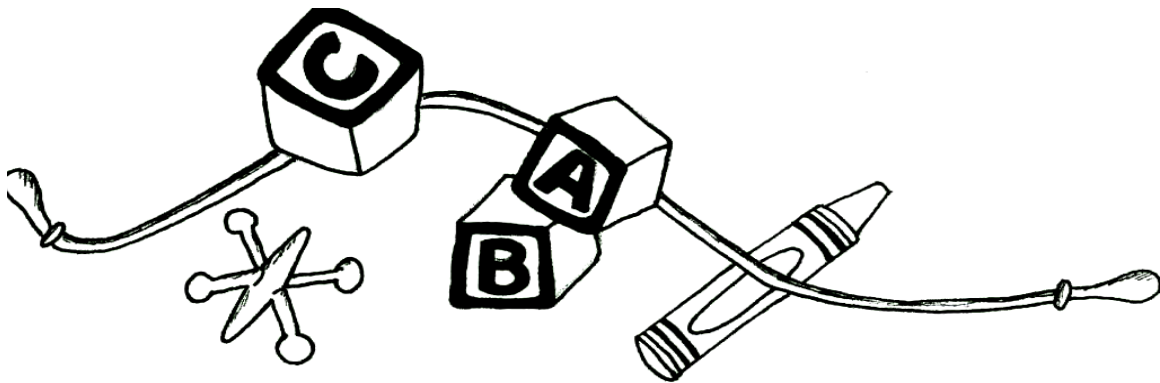
Ambos el niño y el adulto se involucran en el juego que es organizado para lograr algún producto final o alguna meta. El juego procede con un tema común con un resultado que será verbalizado por el niño y el adulto. Durante el juego cooperativo el adulto se involucra en el juego completamente, asistiendo al niño verbalmente y físicamente. La interacción verbal del niño se enfoca en terminar con la meta o asumir un papel en el juego. Hay una división definitiva de labor, en que ambos el niño y el adulto alternan el papel de líderes a sí como se asisten mutuamente en obtener su meta final. Así, que en el juego cooperativo ambos socios son compañeros de trabajo para lograr su meta.

Como dar inicio a su juego

La mejor manera de desarrollar efectivamente la comunicación a través del juego con su niño es permitiendo que el “juego” se desarrolle gradualmente. Es mejor pasarse el comienzo de su encuentro juguetón observando a su niño a través del Comportamiento Observador y Juego Independiente. Juegue solo por un poco tiempo y gradualmente empiece a incorporar el juego paralelo. Usted puede llegar fácilmente a este nivel comentando acerca de la actividad de su niño, o imitando lo que su niño lo esta haciendo. Esto aumentara la atención de su niño hacia la actividad y creara más oportunidades para que su niño se comunique con usted. Usted encontrara que en poco tiempo usted y su niño se involucraran en más actividades mutuas como visto en el Juego Reciproco y Juego Asociativo.

Mantenga su juego al nivel Reciproco y Asociativo por que ellos son más conductivos para promover la comunicación con su niño. Estos niveles de juego han sido acreditados en crear mas respuestas verbales de parte del niño que en cual quier otro nivel de juego. Avanzando su juego a los niveles Complementario y Cooperativo resultara en menos conversación entre usted y su niño.

Así que, deje que su juego se desenvuelva despacio hasta que usted llegue a los niveles Reciproco y Asociativo. Ya estando ahí usted vera como su niño estará mucho más involucrado, con usted no-verbalmente (a través de gestos y acciones), y verbalmente.



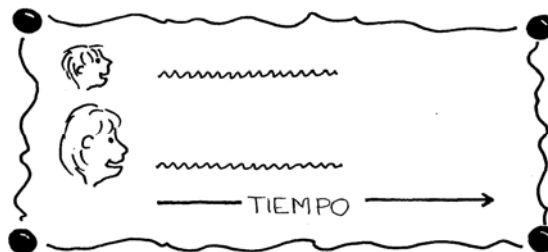
Tomando-Turnos

Tomar turnos promueve una transición suave de un conversador al otro. Esto sucede casi de la misma manera que la luz de tráfico regula el flujo de vehículos en una intersección. Una conversación no puede ser llevada a cabo sin tomar turnos efectivamente.

Cuatro Patrones de Tomar-Turnos

1. Hablando solitariamente

Hablando solitariamente ocurre en el momento que una persona comienza a hablar sola hasta el momento que otra persona comienza a hablar sola. Siempre hay una pausa después de que una persona termina de hablar y la otra comienza a hablar. Es la pausa que permite pasar el turno suavemente. Este patrón ocurre más frecuentemente en conversaciones de adultos y conversaciones adulto-niño. Es el patrón de tomar turnos que debe ser utilizado a través de nuestras conversaciones con niños, especialmente niños pequeños.

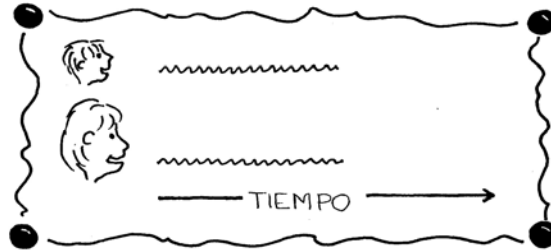


Hablando Solitariamente

2. Hablando simultáneamente con interrupción.

Este patrón ocurre cuando una persona interrumpe a la persona que está hablando y le quita el turno. Esto se llama Hablando simultáneamente con interrupción porque una persona interrumpe a la persona que está hablando y cuando la está interrumpiendo está también empalmando el habla sobre el habla de la otra persona. Este patrón ocurre muy infrecuentemente en conversaciones de adultos y en conversaciones de adulto-niño.

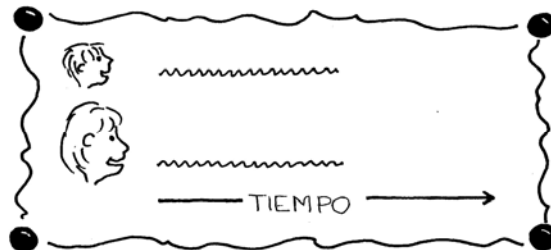
Este patrón de tomar turnos debe ser evitado a toda costa cuando se está hablando a niños pequeños. Esto es porque sugiere que lo que el niño está diciendo no es importante. Así que evite interrumpir a su niño solamente que sea absolutamente necesario.



Hablando Simultáneamente Con Interrupción

3. Hablando simultáneamente sin interrupción

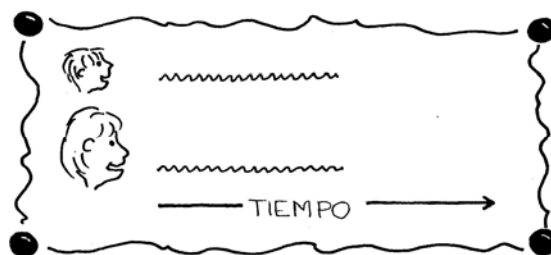
Este patrón ocurre cuando una persona está hablando y la otra persona súper impone un mensaje sobre el turno del hablante. Los mensajes son usualmente exclamaciones como “hmm,hmm”, “Si”, “Oh”, “Yo se” o algotras expresiones similares. Los mensajes sirven el propósito de comunicarle al hablante que continúe hablando y que estamos interesados en lo que está diciendo. Tanto que no queremos tomarnos nuestro turno. Este patrón algún tanto frecuentemente en conversaciones de adultos y en conversaciones de adultos con niños pequeños. Es apropiado empalmar el turno de su niño con un mensaje que no interrumpa, pero únicamente si no interfiere con lo que su niño está diciendo.



Hablando Simultáneamente Sin Interrupción

4. Simultáneamente reclamando un turno

Simultáneamente reclamando un turno ocurre cuando ambos partidos tratan de hablar al mismo tiempo. Hay un choque de habla hasta que una persona decida darle el turno a la otra persona. Este patrón no ocurre muy frecuentemente, y usualmente ocurre por accidente. Este preparado para rendir su turno si esto ocurre cuando esta hablando con su niño.



Simultáneamente Reclamando Un Turno

Patrones de Iniciación y Respuesta

Las conversaciones se componen de una serie de patrones de iniciación y respuesta. Una persona usualmente abre un tema haciendo una afirmación o haciendo una pregunta, y la otra persona responde. Por supuesto, que esto es una simplificación de lo que actualmente pasa, pero ayuda a establecer un punto.

Los adultos frecuentemente inician o dirigen las interacciones con niños pequeños al tratar de hacer que ellos hablen. Hacen esto haciendo preguntas, algunas veces preguntas que tienen respuestas obvias, o preguntas que requieren respuestas de una palabra. Este tipo de patrón de iniciación puede causar que los niños pequeños hablen, pero limita lo que van a decir.

El método de interacción que usted aprenderá depende en que el adulto asuma el papel del que Responde mas que el del que Inicia. Usted estará comentando mas en lo que su niño esta haciendo o diciendo, y se encontrara haciendo menos preguntas y raramente dando direcciones como un medio de ayudar a que su niño hable.

Estilos de Comunicación en Niños

El estilo de comunicación de un niño puede ser influido por varios factores. Esto incluye tales cosas como:

1. La familiaridad de la persona que está interactuando con el niño.
2. La familiaridad de la situación.
3. La manera en la que el adulto habla con el niño.
4. La formación del niño.

Los estilos de comunicación de los niños cambian de acuerdo con cualquiera o todos de los factores mencionados anteriormente. Hay tres estilos de comunicación que pueden ser observados en niños. Son los siguientes:

1. Comunicación Activa

Los comunicadores activos demuestran un sincero deseo de comunicarse. Ellos muestran un interés en su compañero de conversación y en lo que está pasando entre ellos. Los comunicadores activos muestran un nivel alto de iniciación y respuesta ambos verbal y no-verbal. Ellos tienden a aumentar sustancialmente a la conversación

introduciendo y extendiendo temas de conversación. Este estilo de comunicación hace al niño un compañero de semejante importancia en la conversación.



Un estilo activo de comunicación puede ser influido por el compañero conversacional del niño. Los compañeros que comentan a cerca de la actividad del niño tienden a alimentar el estilo de comunicación del niño. Aunque los compañeros que dirigen la actividad del niño tienden a inhibir este estilo de comunicación.

2. Comunicación Pasiva

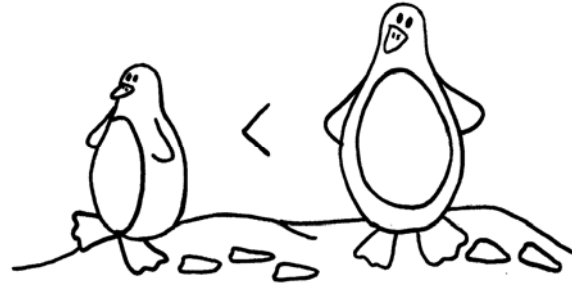
Los comunicadores pasivos tienen la tendencia de ser responsivos y raramente inician tópicos ni los extienden. En otras palabras contribuyen poco en sus conversaciones con otros. Este estilo de comunicación puede ser inherentemente parte de la formación del niño en que tienen una personalidad "tranquila" o "tímida". O pueden demostrar este estilo como resultado del estilo de su compañero de comunicación.



El estilo de comunicación pasiva en un niño puede ser influido por el compañero que dirige la interacción via el uso en abundancia de preguntas o atra vez de las instrucciones dadas al niño sobre que hacer y de que manera harcelo.

3. Comunicación Inactiva

Los comunicadores inactivos aparentan ser socialmente aislados. Ellos aparentan no tener interés en comunicarse y raramente contribuyen alguna información en sus conversaciones con otros. Los niños que exhiben este estilo de comunicación pueden poseer una personalidad caracterizada por tendencias retirados. O ellos pueden demostrar este estilo como un resultado del estilo de comunicación del compañero



Este estilo de comunicación en un niño puede ser influido por un compañero que domina la interacción y provee al niño con poca o nada de oportunidad para comunicarse.

Su papel es crear un medio ambiente comunicativo que provee a su hijo con toda oportunidad para que tome un **papel activo**.

- Use rutinas de juego que permitan a su niño tomar un papel activo sin que usted dirija sus acciones o actividades.
- Evite hacer muchas preguntas proveendo oportunidades a su niño de a contribuir información a la conversación.
- Trate de hacer comentarios a lo que su niño esta haciendo y responda al compromiso de su hijo en el juego.

¿Qué Acerca de las Preguntas?



Las preguntas son muy comunes en la comunicación entre padre-niño. Las preguntas también sirven como un papel importante en nuestras conversaciones con niños. Vamos a ver lo que las preguntas pueden hacer para nosotros, y como las debemos utilizar.

Para Obtener Información

El propósito principal en hacer preguntas es para **obtener información**. Usamos las preguntas para inquirir acerca de algo, O para obtener información detallada. Pero, las preguntas que hacemos nos pueden llevar a limitar las respuestas. Por eso una pregunta abierta usualmente obtendrá más información que una pregunta cerrada. Una pregunta abierta puede ser: ¿Qué té gustaría hacer en la playa? Un ejemplo de una pregunta cerrada puede ser: ¿De que color es la tina? Las probabilidades de obtener más información de una pregunta abierta son mucho más grande que para una pregunta cerrada.

Haciendo Que los Niños Hablen

Algunas veces usamos preguntas para hacer que los niños hablen. Esta estrategia no es recomendada por varias razones. Primero, este tipo de preguntas son usualmente cerradas y requieren de una a dos palabras para ser contestadas. Segundo, las preguntas especialmente las preguntas cerradas, que son usadas para que el niño hable tienden a ser dirigidas a lo obvio. Por ejemplo, ¿Qué es esto? (Mientras le muestras al niño un carro de juego) o ¿Qué color es el carro? Este método de obtener información resulta en reducir el tamaño y la complejidad de las respuestas del niño, y limita las oportunidades del niño de convertirse activo, verbalmente. Tercero hacer muchas preguntas puede causar que los niños digan menos porque pueden sentir que toda la atención esta puesta en ellos. Y esto puede limitar las oportunidades del niño en convertirse activo, verbalmente.

Comenzando el Programa

El programa que usted está aprendiendo está dividido en dos fases. Fase 1 está diseñado para establecer una comunicación exitosa entre usted y su niño. Fase 2 tiene que ver con promover el desarrollo del lenguaje.

Fase 1: Estableciendo una Comunicación Exitosa

Si usted se acuerda, los niños aprenden a comunicarse antes de usar el lenguaje. Así que, es importante establecer primero una comunicación exitosa con su niño antes de tratar de facilitar el desarrollo del lenguaje.

En La primera fase usted aprenderá como utilizar los cinco componentes esenciales del programa para promover:

- Un lazo de comunicación con su niño.
- Una red efectiva de comunicación entre usted y su niño.
- Un estilo de comunicación activo en su niño.

El enfoque principal de su entrenamiento implicará como aprender a usar los cinco componentes esenciales del programa en la Fase 1. Ya que usted los domine usted podrá asistir a su niño en convertirse en comunicador activo. Su instructor le proveerá con demostraciones de las técnicas del programa y le dará un espacio de tiempo amplio para practicarlas.

Fase 2: Promoviendo el Desarrollo del Lenguaje

Ya que usted haya dominado los componentes del entrenamiento del programa de la Fase 1, usted comenzara a usar las mismas técnicas para alimentar el desarrollo del lenguaje en su niño. Usted hará esto usando el programa para crear oportunidades para que su niño aprenda a usar el lenguaje como un medio de comunicación. Su instructor le proveerá con detalles específicos a cerca del lenguaje que usted deberá de promover. Información a cerca del desarrollo del lenguaje, y algunas guías básicas son proveídas en este manual para asistirle en esta fase.

Los Cinco Componentes Esenciales

Los cinco componentes esenciales del programa son:

1. Técnicas que Facilitan
2. Tomando Turnos
3. Colocación Física
4. Acentuando Las Vocales
5. Actividades Diarias

Estos cinco componentes son los mismos en ambas fases del programa. Ellos son los medios por los cuales usted organizara sus interacciones con su niño para promover una comunicación exitosa y desarrollar su lenguaje.

1. Técnicas que Facilitan

Usted aprenderá siete técnicas para facilitar el proceso. Estas técnicas serán usadas en ambas fases del programa. Usted usara estas técnicas inicialmente para establecer comunicación, y después para alimentar el desarrollo del lenguaje. Las técnicas son divididas en tres categorías basadas en su propósito para facilitar la comunicación. Una descripción breve de la técnica es presentada aquí. Una descripción mas detallada con ejemplos se proveerá mas tarde en el manual. Las técnicas son las siguientes:

Técnicas de Reacción

Imitación

1. Imitación no-verbal
2. Imitación verbal

Haga lo que su niño haga.
Diga lo que su niño dice.

Técnicas de Información

3. Habla paralela
4. Habla consigo mismo

Diga lo que su niño haga.
Diga lo que usted Haga.

Técnicas de Revisión

Elaboración

5. Expansión
6. Extensión
7. Reparto

Construya sobre lo que su niño dice.
Llenando la gramática que falta.
Agregando contenido.
Cambie lo que diga su niño

Usted aprenderá estas técnicas en dos pasos diferentes. Usted comenzara con las técnicas de reacción y información porque son más fáciles para usar y requieren menos concentración que la técnica de Revisión. Ya que usted se sienta agusta con estas técnicas entonces usted aprenderá la técnica de Revisión. La técnica de revisión requiere de más concentración porque usted tiene que tomar lo que su niño dice y elaborar en ello, o cambiarlo de alguna manera. Usted encontrara esto fácil de hacer si se toma su tiempo y se enfoca en lo que su niño esta diciendo. Las técnicas reacción, información y revisión son muy efectivas cuando son usadas en grupos o combinaciones. Ejemplos de estos son proveídos mas adelante en el manual.

2. Tomando Turnos

- **Siga la pista de su niño**

Espérese a responder y no sea usted el que inicie. Siga lo que su niño esta haciendo y construya en esas actividades. Comente sobre las actividades en lugar de dirigirlas. Aunque, siguiendo la pista de su niño no quiere decir que usted tenga que hacer cosas que usted considere socialmente inapropiadas. Usted puede crear oportunidades para comunicarse iniciando varias actividades. Pero, lo importante aquí no es dirigir las acciones de su niño, ni decirle a su niño como interactúe, ni que diga. Usted se sorprenderá de lo que puede lograr a través de su ejemplo en vez de su dirección.

- **Haga una pausa después de que hable**

Pausando después de que usted habla crea una oportunidad para que su niño hable. No tenga miedo de estar callado por un poco de tiempo. Usted puede usar este tiempo para enfocarse en lo que su niño esta haciendo. Esta bien resumir la conversación únicamente si esta claro para usted que su niño no va a decir nada.

- **Haga una pausa después que su niño hable**

Pausando después de que su niño habla crea una oportunidad para que su niño diga más. No este apurado en tomar su turno de hablar. Espere un poco para asegurarse de que su niño ya no tiene nada que decir.

- **Diga únicamente lo que tiene que decir**

Trate de mantener su conversación a un mínimo. Únicamente diga lo que tiene que decir y nada más. De otra manera, usted se encontrara dominando la interacción. En toda probabilidad usted hablara más que su niño.

Y esto esta bien si usted habla respondiendo a lo que su niño esta haciendo o diciendo. Haciendo un esfuerzo consciente a minimizar lo que usted dice le forzara a decir únicamente lo que es absolutamente necesario.

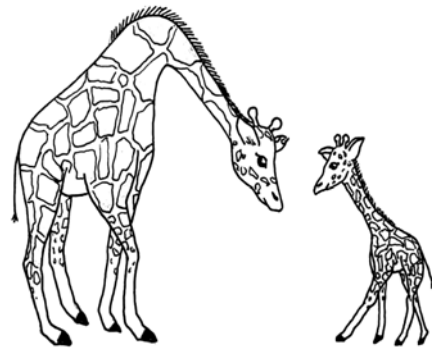
- **Tome su tiempo.**

Trate de mantener un paso fácil y despacio cuando interactué con su niño. Tomando una velocidad lenta le dará el tiempo necesario para enfocar en lo que su niño esta haciendo o diciendo. Esto en turno le dará tiempo para decidir como usted quiera responder.

3. Colocación Física

- **Bájese al nivel de los ojos y los oídos de su niño**

Colocándose en una posición física en la que usted este cara a cara con su niño crea la mejor situación para que ambos se pongan atención. Colocándose en posición física es un medio poderoso de crear una comunicación no-verbal que hará un lazo entre usted y su niño.



Bajándose al nivel de los ojos y oídos de su niño facilita a su niño oír y procesar lo que usted le esta diciendo.

- **Mire a su niño cuando este hablando y escuchando**

Mirando a su niño cuando está hablando y escuchando esclarece que el o ella tienen su interés y atención.

4. Vocalización Acentuada

- **Use un tono positivo en su voz**

Su voz es una herramienta poderosa para **culminar** y **reforzar** información que usted quiere que su niño oiga. El tono de su voz sutilmente, pero efectivamente le dice a su niño que a usted le gusta lo que esta viendo y oyendo.

Use un tono positivo en su voz cuando provee información a través de imitación verbal, así como cuando usted quiere hablar con énfasis a través del uso de las técnicas de entrada y revisión.

5. Actividades Diarias

- **Use el programa durante actividades sociales diarias.**

No es necesario cambiar su horario de rutinas diario para trabajar en este programa. Más bien escoja una rutina diaria que sea juguetona en su naturaleza y use el programa dentro de esta rutina. Cuando usted este mas a gusto con el programa podrá extenderlo a otras actividades diarias. Haga todo lo posible por incorporar actividades a diario porque es aquí donde la comunicación con su niño empieza a tomar lugar.



Técnicas 1 & 2

IMITACIÓN

Haz lo Que Hace Tu Niño

Di lo Que Dice Tu Niño



Mire y Escuche



Haz lo Que Hace Tu Niño
Di lo Que Dice Tu Niño

- **Imitación** es repetir lo que su niño esta haciendo o diciendo.
- Es uno de los métodos más básicos para crear un lazo comunicativo con su niño.
- Hay dos tipos de imitación.
 - Imitación no-verbal es **hacer lo que su niño esta haciendo.**
 - Imitación verbal es **repetir lo que su niño esta diciendo.**
- Imitación es una técnica usada para proveer reacción a su niño. Le dice a su niño varias cosas.
 1. Que está a gusto usando la comunicación al nivel de su niño.
 2. Que usted disfruta la comunicación con su niño
 3. Que usted encuentra el comportamiento de su niño ser apropiado, importante e interesante para usted.
- La imitación pone énfasis en lo que su niño esta haciendo en una manera positiva sin forzar a su niño a actuar.
- La imitación llama atención a las acciones de su niño y demuestra su interés sincero en comunicarse. Y hace esto causando a ambos que se involucren físicamente en la misma acción. Esto se llama **Acción Unida.**

- La imitación también les permite a ambos enfocarse en los mismos objetos, actividades, o acciones. Esto se llama **Atención Unida**.
- La imitación es una de las formas más grandes de elogio. Reforza el comportamiento al que usted quiere que su niño ponga atención sin parar la actividad y decir cosas como “que bien hablas” o “buen trabajo”, etc. Aunque el elogio verbal es importante, no debe ser usado para reforzar lo que está pasando entre usted y su niño. Recuerde, su misión aquí es la de establecer un lazo de comunicación con su niño. Elogiar verbalmente a su niño en este punto toma el énfasis de este lazo y se enfoca en lo bien que su niño está desempeñando el papel.

Actividad

1. Posiciones al lado de su niño durante la rutina diaria o cuando él / ella esté jugando solo.
2. **Haga lo que su niño este haciendo.**
Si su niño esta jugando con objetos o juguetes, entonces usted juega con objetos similares de la misma manera. Por ejemplo, si su niño está rodando arcilla usted hace lo mismo. Si su niño se involucra en una actividad sin objeto, entonces usted imita la misma acción física que él / ella está haciendo. Por ejemplo, si su niño sé esta rodando en el piso, usted también se tiene que rodar en el piso; si su niño está aplaudiendo, usted tiene que aplaudir.
3. **Diga lo que su niño dice.**
Repita cualquier vocalizacion (sonidos) o afirmaciones que su niño haga. Por ejemplo, si su niño hace una “frambuesa”, entonces usted haga una “frambuesa”; o si su niño dice “perrito” entonces usted dice “perrito”. Usted puede imitar todo lo que su niño dice (una imitación exacta) o parte de lo que él / ella dice (una imitación reducida). Por ejemplo, su niño puede decir “perrito en casa”, y usted puede decir “perrito en casa” (una imitación exacta), o “En casa” (imitación reducida).
4. Algunas veces será necesario cambiar lo que su niño esta diciendo y de todas maneras imitar lo que se esta diciendo. Esto usualmente se hace cambiando un pronombre personal. Por ejemplo, si su niño dice “yo corriendo rápido”, usted puede decir “tu estas corriendo rápido” esto se considera una imitación.
5. Usando esta técnica por si sola puede causarle a su niño algo de frustración. Por esta razón debe ser usada junto con las siguientes dos técnicas, la conversación paralela y el hablar consigo mismo. Aunque como, es una técnica muy usual que se puede usar sola si su niño no se está comunicando o tiende a aislarse. En este caso, la imitación le permitirá establecer un lazo de comunicación con su niño.
6. Usted no tiene que imitar todo lo que su niño hace. Cuidadosamente seleccione las acciones que usted quiere imitar. Usted querrá imitar las más acciones que pueda para crear un lazo positivo entre usted y su niño. Por lo tanto, usted deberá tratar de imitar todas las vocalizaciones u oraciones de su niño.

Técnica 3

Conversación Paralela



Diga Lo Que Su Niño Hace

- **La Conversación paralela** envuelve decir lo que su niño esta haciendo. Se le llama conversación paralela porque su lenguaje va con lo que su niño esta haciendo.
- La Conversación paralela llama la atención de su niño a sus acciones a través del uso del lenguaje suyo. En otras palabras le dice a su niño o niña lo que está haciendo.
- La Conversación paralela es una técnica usada para proveer información a su niño. Hace esto en dos maneras distintas:
 1. Le dice a su niño que usted disfruta la comunicación mutua tanto que usted quiere hablar a cerca de sus acciones. Esto es particularmente importante durante las primeras fases del programa cuando usted esta tratando de establecer un lazo de comunicación con su niño.
 2. También se usa para demostrar palabras, oraciones, o partes del habla, que su niño está listo para aprender. Esto es particularmente importante en la segunda fase del programa cuando usted está tratando de enseñar destrezas del lenguaje.
- La conversación paralela está diseñada para ser un puente que una el espacio entre las acciones de su niño y el lenguaje (palabras y oraciones) asociadas con estas acciones. Provee el lenguaje necesario para enseñar la relación entre las acciones de su niño y la atención a estas acciones. A esto le llamamos **Referencia Unida**.

Actividad

1. Siga la pista de su niño, únicamente que ahora diga lo que su niño esta haciendo. Por ejemplo: Si su niño está rodando arcilla, usted dice “Estas rodando la arcilla”, o “*rodando arcilla.*”
2. Trate de imitar físicamente lo que su niño está haciendo y use conversación paralela en este momento. Por ejemplo, imite a su niño aplaudiendo y también diga “Estas aplaudiendo con las manos” (haciendo énfasis en “*aplaudiendo con las manos*”)
3. Use conversación paralela únicamente en las acciones y actividades que usted considere ser importantes. Otra vez, el objeto no es comentar en todo lo que su niño esta haciendo. Así que seleccione en lo que usted quiera hacer comentarios y luego diga lo que su niño esta haciendo.
4. Practique esta técnica varias veces durante el día. Manténgalo breve por aproximadamente cinco minutos cada vez. Puede extender el tiempo si usted lo desea.



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Técnica 4

CONVERSACIÓN CONSIGO MISMO



Diga lo que usted hace

- **La Conversación consigo mismo** envuelve decir lo que usted está haciendo.
- La Conversación consigo mismo llama la atención de su niño hacia sus acciones a través de su lenguaje. En otras palabras, le dice a su niño lo que usted está haciendo.
- La conversación consigo mismo es muy efectiva cuando se empara con su imitación física de las acciones o actividades de su niño. En otras palabras usted puede decir lo que está haciendo al mismo tiempo que imita físicamente lo que su niño está haciendo.
- La conversación consigo mismo es una técnica usada para proveer información a su niño. Y lo hace en tres maneras distintas:
 1. Le dice a su niño que usted disfruta la conversación mutua tanto que usted quiere hablar a cerca de su imitación de sus acciones. Esto es particularmente importante durante las más tempranas fases del programa cuando usted está tratando de establecer un lazo de comunicación con su niño.
 2. Puede ser usada para atraer la atención de su niño a algo que usted está haciendo o desviar la atención de su niño en una manera sin-castigo o que no se vea como una amenaza. Esto es particularmente importante durante las fases tempranas del programa cuando usted está tratando de establecer un lazo de comunicación con su niño.
 3. También se usa para demostrar palabras, oraciones o partes del habla que su niño esta listo para aprender. Esto es particularmente importante en la segunda fase del programa cuando usted está tratando de enseñar destrezas del lenguaje.

- Esta diseñado para ser un puente que cubra el espacio entre sus acciones y el lenguaje (palabras y oraciones) asociadas con estas acciones. Provee el lenguaje necesario para enseñar la relación entre sus acciones y la atención de su niño a estas acciones. Esto se llama **Referencia Unida**.

Actividad

1. Haga comentarios sobre lo que usted está haciendo durante el juego. En otras palabras diga lo que usted hace. Por ejemplo: Si usted esta rodando arcilla, diga “Estoy rodando la arcilla”, o “rodando arcilla.” Usted puede hacer esto con un objeto duplicado con el que su niño este jugando.
2. Trate de imitar físicamente lo que su niño está haciendo y use la conversación consigo mismo al mismo tiempo. Por ejemplo, imite a su niño aplaudiendo las manos y también diga “Estoy aplaudiendo las manos” (con énfasis vocal en “aplaudiendo manos”.)
3. Use la conversación consigo mismo únicamente con las acciones y actividades que usted considere ser importantes. De nuevo, el objetivo no es comentar en todo lo que usted está haciendo. Así que, seleccione en lo que usted quiere comentar y luego diga lo que usted está haciendo.

Juntándolo Todo
Usando Imitación, Conversación Paralela y Conversación consigo mismo

Haga lo que su niño Hace.
Diga lo que su niño dice.
Diga lo que su niño hace, y diga lo que usted hace.

Usando Imitación, Conversación Paralela y Conversación consigo mismo para Promover una comunicación exitosa.

Usted a aprendido cuatro técnicas muy básicas e importantes para establecer comunicación y lenguaje con su niño. En este ejercicio usted usara estas técnicas juntas para el propósito de promover una comunicación exitosa con su niño. Ya que una comunicación exitosa haya sido establecida, usted aplicará estas técnicas para el propósito de promover el desarrollo del lenguaje.

Aunque, cada técnica es útil en su propia manera especial, son más efectivas cuando se usan en combinación. De eso se trata este ejercicio. Usted puede ver experienciado experiencias con esto cuando usted estaba aprendiendo las técnicas previas. Pero ahora vamos a llevarlo a un paso más adelante. Usted conseguirá experiencia y práctica usando las cuatro técnicas de diferentes maneras.

Aquí hay unos ejemplos de lo que usted puede hacer:

1. Imite las acciones físicas o actividades de su niño usando conversación paralela al mismo tiempo. Por ejemplo, imite a su niño aplaudiendo y también diga “Estás aplaudiendo con las manos” (énfasis vocal en “aplaudiendo con las manos”).
2. Imite las acciones físicas de su niño o actividad usando la técnica de hablar consigo mismo al mismo tiempo. Por ejemplo, imite a su niño aplaudiendo con mis manos y también diga “Estoy aplaudiendo con las manos” (con énfasis vocal en “aplaudiendo con mis manos”).
3. Imite las acciones físicas o actividades y después imite la misma acción seguida por la conversación paralela y la conversación consigo mismo en sucesión. Aquí están algunos ejemplos:

Niño: Aplaudiendo las manos
 Padre: Aplaudiendo las manos
 Padre: “¡Estas aplaudiendo las manos!”
 (Énfasis vocal en “aplaudiendo las manos”).
 Padre: “¡Yo también estoy aplaudiendo!”
 (Énfasis vocal en “también estoy aplaudiendo”).
 Niño: Rueda arcilla
 Padre: Rueda arcilla
 Padre: “¡Estas rodando arcilla!”(Énfasis vocal en “rodando arcilla”).
 Padre: “¡Yo también estoy rodando arcilla!”
 (Énfasis vocal en “tambien estoy rodando arcilla”).

4. Imite las acciones físicas o actividades de su niño, después imite la misma acción seguida por una variación leve en lo que su niño esta haciendo. Use conversación paralela y conversación consigo mismo entre cada imitación o una imitación extendida. Aquí hay unos ejemplos.

Niño: Rueda arcilla
 Padre: Rueda arcilla igual que el niño.
 Padre: “¡Estas rodando arcilla!”
 Padre: Hace una bola usando el arcilla.
 Padre: “¡Estoy haciendo una bola!”



Técnicas 5 & 6

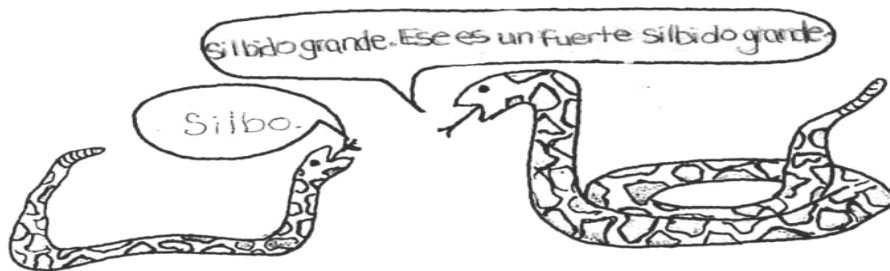
Elaboraciones

Construya en Lo Que Su Niño Dice

- **La Elaboración** envuelve decir lo que su niño dice por aumentando o por revisando ligeramente y agregando puntos importantes gramaticales que faltan o por proveyendo información adicional.
- Hay dos tipos de elaboración: **Expansión y Extensión**.
 1. **La Expansión** envuelve repetir a su hijo o hija lo que el o ella ha dicho, pero también agregando detalles gramaticales que falten.



2. **Extensión** envuelve agregar nueva y relevante información a lo que su niño ha dicho. La da más sentido la provisión de información nueva.



- Elaboración es una técnica de revisión que se usa para proveer al niño información adicional. Hace esto en dos maneras distintas:

1. Agrega a lo que su niño ya dijo. Esto altera lo que su niño dijo de manera muy sutil agregando únicamente ciertos detalles que faltan. O proveyendo información nueva a lo que su niño dijo.
 2. Esto llama atención a la información que le falta a lo que su niño dice de una manera positiva. Esto presenta una corrección positiva sin penalizar el intento a comunicarse de su niño.
- Sin parecerse a la técnica de información, la elaboración está diseñada para unir el espacio entre lo que su niño ha dicho y la información nueva, o la información que hace falta. Construye su **Referencia Unida** porque se agrega información nueva.
 - **Construir y Dividir.** Esta es otra manera de elaborar en lo que su niño dice. Pero tiene un pequeño truco. Aquí no solo se le agrega a lo que su niño dice, pero también se divide la información que se agrega. Esta técnica especial de elaboración es muy efectiva en demostrar exactamente lo que usted quiere que su niño escuche variando la información que usted provee. Realmente construye en **Referencia Unida** porque agrega información y se enfoca únicamente en la información más importante que usted está tratando de demostrar.
 - Las elaboraciones pueden ser utilizados únicamente si su niño está hablando activamente.

Actividad.

1. Sitúese a lado de su niño y juegue como lo ha hecho en los ejercicios previos.
2. Ponga atención a las cosas que su niño está diciendo. Trate de entender que el / ella está diciendo y después elabore en ello.
3. **Expand**a lo que su niño dijo cuando le falte algún detalle gramatical. Por ejemplo: Si su niño dice “yo ruedo pelota” usted puede responder con “¡Tu estas rodando la pelota!” o “¡Yo también estoy rodando la pelota!” (Énfasis vocal positivo en las palabras subrayadas). Es importante expandir lo que su niño dice sin que se oiga como una corrección. ¡Así que mantenga positivo el tono de su afirmación!

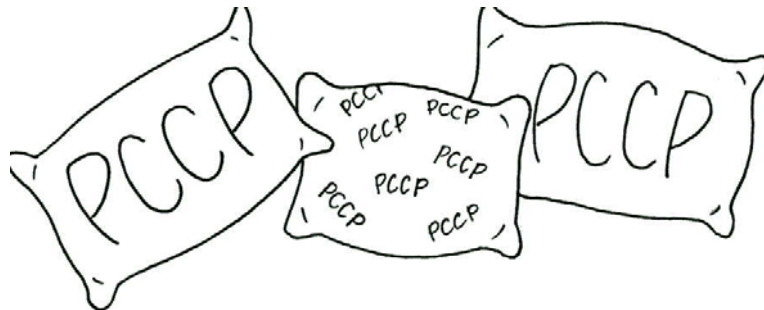
4. **Extienda** lo que diga su niño para agregar nueva información. Por ejemplo si su niño dice “Perrito toma” usted puede responder “El perrito tiene sed,” “El perrito tiene calor”. Observe que su respuesta provee información adicional a cerca de porque el perrito toma agua.

5. **Combine Expansiones y Extensiones.** Por ejemplo si su niño dice. “Perrito toma” Usted puede responder con, “Sí, el perrito está tomando” Él tiene calor y tiene sed.” Combinando estas dos técnicas agrega detalles gramaticales que le faltaban y también agrega información nueva.

6. **Construyendo y Dividiendo** lo que dice su niño agregando nueva información y luego enfocándose únicamente en la información que es más importante. Vamos a decir que usted quiere demostrar el uso de la terminación ando después de cada verbo, y usted quiere que su niño se enfoque en ellos varias veces. En el ejemplo próximo usted notara que lo que dijo su niño no se expandió una vez, sino que cuatro veces a través del proceso de aumentar y dividir:

Niño: El bebe duerme
 Adulto: Si, el bebe está durmiendo
 Ella está durmiendo en la cama.
Durmiendo en la cama.
Durmiendo.

7. Usted no tiene que elaborar todo lo que su niño dice. Cuidadosamente seleccione únicamente esas oraciones en las que usted quiere elaborar. Es un hecho que, seria muy difícil hacer esto siempre porque se llevaría una gran concentración de parte suya. Pero con práctica usted vera como ira mejorando.



Técnica 7

Cambiar



Cambie lo Que Su Niño Dice

- **Cambiar** envuelve hacer cambio a todo lo que su niño dice, porque es imposible extenderlo o expandirlo. Se llama “rehacer” porque lo que dice el niño es puesto enteramente en una forma diferente. Así siendo “rehecho” en forma diferente.
- **Cambiar** es una técnica de **revisión** que es usada únicamente en instancias especiales cuando lo que el niño dice requiere revisión, pero no puede ser elaborado. El cambio no es usado muy a menudo por esta razón. Pero, hay ocasiones cuando lo que dice su niño se tiene que cambiar para mejorar la comunicación de su niño.
- Aunque casi todo lo que su niño dice sé esta cambiando, es importante mantener el tono al cambio positivo. No debe ser usado con un tono correctivo en su voz.
- Cambiando es diseñado para unir el espacio entre lo que su niño ha dicho con una manera enteramente diferente de decirlo. Al hacer esto provee otra manera de establecer **Referencia Unida**.
- Cambiando se puede usar solamente si su niño está hablando activamente.
- Cambiando es generalmente usado con niños que están desarrollando su gramática y parecen estar haciendo “errores”.

Actividad

1. Colócate enseguida de tu niño y juega como lo haz hecho en los ejercicios previos.
2. Ponga atención a las cosas que su niño está diciendo. Trate de entender lo que el / ella están tratando de decir y después cambie únicamente lo requiere ser cambiado. Puede ser que no encuentre nada durante su práctica que requiera cambiarse. Por lo tanto, usted notara que va a necesitar esto de vez en cuando. Por ejemplo: En una conversación durante la comida, o paseando en el coche, o en la tienda de comestibles.
3. Cambie lo que dice su niño únicamente cuando no puede ser expandido. Por ejemplo: Si su niño dice “*El pelota no tiene*” usted puede cambiar a “Sí , el no tiene una pelota”, O, si su niño dice, “el perro come un hueso”, (oración activa) usted puede decir algo como esto “El hueso fue comido por el perro, verdad? (Oración pasiva) Este último ejemplo se aplica únicamente en casos donde el desarrollo del lenguaje de su niño se a convertido un poco mas avanzado y usted querrá introducir la voz pasiva.
4. Usted puede hacer este ejercicio al mismo tiempo que práctica la técnica de Elaboración, porque las circunstancias que rodean la necesidad para el cambio no son tan frecuentes.

JUNTÁNDOLO TODO: Usando las Técnicas de Información, Revisión, y Consejos

Usted a aprendido varias técnicas importantes para establecer comunicación y lenguaje con su niño. En este ejercicio usted usara todas o muchas de estas técnicas en combinación.

Aunque cada técnica es útil en su propia manera especial, son más efectivas cuando se usan en sucesión o en combinación. De esto se trata este ejercicio. Usted puede haber tenido alguna experiencia con esto en los ejercicios previos. Pero ahora lo vamos a llevarlo a otro nivel. Usted obtendrá experiencia y practica usando todas estas técnicas en diferentes maneras.

Aquí están algunos ejemplos de lo que usted pede hacer:

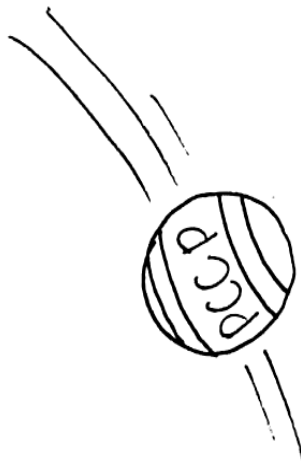
1. Imite las acciones físicas de su niño o actividad y después imite la misma acción seguido por la conversación paralela y la conversación consigo mismo en sucesión. Cuando su niño diga algo, entonces prosiga con otra imitación y luego expansión.

Aquí está un ejemplo:

Niño: Aplauda con sus manos
Padre: Aplauda con sus manos (Imitación física)
Padre: “¡Estás aplaudiendo con las manos!” (Conversación paralela)
(Énfasis vocal en “aplaudiendo con manos”).
Padre: “¡Yo tambien estoy aplaudiendo con las manos!” (Conversación consigo mismo)
(Énfasis vocal en “aplaudiendo con las manos”).
Niño: “Mami (o Papi) aplauda.”
Padre: “¡Mami (o Papi) aplauda!” (Imitación)
Padre: “¡Mami está aplaudiendo con las manos!” (Expansión)

2. Imite lo que su niño dice, y luego elabore sobre ello a través de expansión y extensión. Esta es una combinación de técnicas buena para usar con un niño que esta empezando a hablar un poco más. Esto demuestra que usted esta a gusto usando sus palabras, que el niño/niña usa, y al mismo tiempo provee a su niño con información nueva.

Niño: “Yo ruedo arcilla”
 Padre: “Tu ruedas arcilla” (Imitación)
 Padre: “¡Estás rodando la arcilla!” (Expansión)
 Padre: “La arcilla es suave” (Extensión)
 Padre: Haz una bola de la arcilla.
 Padre: “¡Estoy haciendo una bola!”
 (Conversación consigo mismo)
 Niño: “¡Tu haciendo una bola!” (Imitación poniendo énfasis
 en el uso de endo en la palabra haciendo).
 Padre: “¡Estoy haciendo una bola!” (Expansión)



Estrategias para El Aprendizaje del Leguaje del Niño

1. Reglas del lenguaje para los Niños

Alguna vez se creó que los niños aprenden a hablar una versión disminuida del lenguaje de los adultos. La posición era que los niños siguen las mismas reglas del lenguaje que los adultos, pero con errores. Aunque, investigaciones extensivas que se han llevado a cabo a través de varias décadas han enseñado claramente que los niños no siguen las mismas reglas usadas por los adultos, pero más bien desarrollan su lenguaje siguiendo sus propias reglas. Por ejemplo, es común oír a los niños decir “fui” en lugar de “iba” o “yo no ir” en lugar de “yo no voy a ir.” Estas expresiones no son errores, pero más bien una reflexión de la forma que los niños aplican las reglas.



En el primer ejemplo, un niño aprende que la terminación *ando* se refiere a la acción pasada, y lo aplica a los verbos para expresar la acción pasada. Este patrón de desarrollo es llamado **sobre extensión**, o **sobre generalización**. Es común para los niños aprender una regla y aplicarla de más. Este patrón es algunas veces llamado **sobre regularización** porque el niño toma una regla que es intencionada para formas

regulares y la aplica a formas irregulares. Por lo tanto, la forma regular hablar y jugar se convierten en *hable* y *jugué*, y la forma irregular *ir* se convierte en “fui” en lugar de *fui*.

En el segundo ejemplo, el niño está usando una regla o siguiendo un patrón de desarrollamiento que es menos sofisticado que la regla de los adultos. Los niños típicamente aprenderán a usar el *-iendo* al final de los verbos antes de aprender el verbo auxiliar “*ser*.” Así que, “*yo ir*” aparecerá en el lenguaje de los niños antes que “*yo voy a ir*”. Una vez que el niño puede decir “*yo voy a ir*” ellos regresarán a una forma de un patrón menos sofisticado cuando estén usando negativos. De este modo, el niño que puede decir “*yo voy a ir*” pueda ser que también le oigamos decir “*yo no ir*”. Dicen que esto ocurre porque el niño no puede detener los verbos auxiliares “*ser*” constante cuando se usa un negativo. Patrones como los que se describieron anteriormente son muy comunes a través del desarrollo del lenguaje del niño.



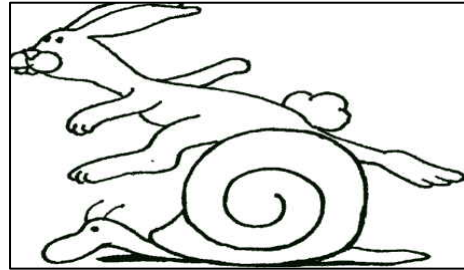
Lo más que aprendemos a cerca de cómo los niños aprenden lenguaje, lo más que nos damos cuenta que sus patrones de desarrollo no siempre se adhieren a lo que los adultos ven como lógico. Por ejemplo, uno asumiría que un niño primero debe de aprender palabras como “puedo” antes de que ellos aprendan “no puedo” Aunque, este no es el caso. Es mas común oír a los niños usar “no puedo” ensus oraciones antes de usar la palabra “puedo”. Otro ejemplo viene de frases elaboradas por los niños dentro de las oraciones. Uno puede asumir que los niños típicamente elaboran en el comienzo de una oración antes de elaborarlas al final de la oración. De nuevo, este no es el caso. Los niños dirán más típicamente “*El ve una pelota grande*” antes de decir “*El hombre grande la ve*”.

Las reglas que los niños usan no solo son aplicables a su desarrollo de palabras y oraciones. También siguen las reglas de organización de conversaciones. Niños pequeños (antes de la edad de seis), seguirán la regla de **presuposición** cuando conversan con otros. La presuposición se refiere a suponer que los compañeros de conversación ya poseen conocimientos acerca del tema que el niño intenta iniciar. Por ejemplo, un niño podría comenzar una conversación diciendo, “*Ella me pego.*” Al hacer esto, el niño asume que su compañero de conversación sabe a quien se refiere cuando dice “ella”. Cuando esto sucede, el compañero de conversación usualmente tiene que preguntar a quien se refiere el niño. Está regla de presuposición ocurre frecuentemente en las conversaciones de niños pequeños y aparentemente viene de la manera que ellos piensan a cerca del mundo. Los niños pequeños típicamente asumen que sus experiencias son vistas y compartidas por otros sin pensar que su compañero de conversación no estaba presente en el incidente. Por eso, el niño dirá cosas sin darle suficiente información de los antecedentes a su compañero de conversación.

Entendiendo el lenguaje del niño requiere conocimiento de cómo el niño actualmente aplica reglas a la formación de palabras y oraciones, su significado, y como se usan en una conversación. Es importante notar que el desarrollo de comunicación de los niños es un proceso de acuerdos y cambios graduales a las reglas que últimadamente guían a un producto final que es el lenguaje del adulto.

2. La Velocidad del Desarrollo

No todos los niños desarrollan el lenguaje exactamente al mismo tiempo. Algunos niños pueden ser definidos como talentosos porque su desarrollo es más temprano de lo que se espera de costumbre. Otros pueden ser definidos como que se desarrollan tarde porque su desarrollo es más tarde de lo que se espera normalmente. Y otros pueden ser definidos como retrasados en el lenguaje o que pueden tener algún tipo de deficiencia en el lenguaje, porque el desarrollo de su lenguaje es suficientemente retrasado en comparación con su edad.



Aunque la velocidad del desarrollo es una consideración importante, no es suficiente por sí sola para predecir el futuro del desarrollo del lenguaje de un niño. Existe una variabilidad considerable en la velocidad a la que los niños aprenderán el lenguaje. Por lo tanto, el patrón de desarrollo no es tan variable, y es más importante que la velocidad a la cual algunas destrezas del lenguaje son aprendidas.

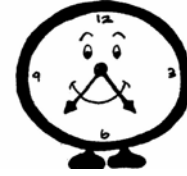
3. Etapas Estables y Predecibles del Desarrollo

El proceso por el cual los niños aprenden a comunicarse con el lenguaje no es dañino o arbitrario. Más bien que, el proceso contiene unas etapas del desarrollo altamente estables y predecibles. Podemos ver esto a través de casi todas las facetas del desarrollo del lenguaje de los niños. Por ejemplo, una simple oración como “Me voy a la casa.” Requiere que el niño pase inicialmente por tres cambios mayores en el desarrollo del verbo. La progresión de cambio o etapas es la siguiente:

- | | |
|---|---|
| Etapa 1 Yo me voy (a casa) | Uso del verbo en presente. |
| Etapa 2 Me estoy yendo (a casa) | Uso de la terminación <i>-endo</i> después de un Verbo principal. |
| Etapa 3 Yo (ser, es, eres) yendo a casa | Uso rudimentario del verbo auxiliar. |
| Etapa 4 Yo me estoy yendo a casa | El uso del adulto del verbo auxiliar. |

4. Disposición y Aprendizaje

Los niños deberande pasar por este proceso de *cambios gradual* en reglas para poder lograr el producto final de un lenguaje adulto. Como regla en general, los niños no aprenderán varios aspectos del lenguaje hasta que ellos estén listos. Así como se explico anteriormente, ciertos aspectos deben de ser desarrollados antes de que el niño pueda lograr un nivel más alto de desarrollo.



Tratando de apurar el proceso o de brincar etapas del desarrollo va contrariamente a lo que el niño necesita hacer. Esto puede ser frustrante para padres y educadores, pero para que un niño logre estabilidad en el desarrollo del lenguaje es importante que se les permita atravesar por estas etapas de desarrollo. El conocimiento de estas etapas ayudara a padres y educadores en asistir a los niños en el desarrollamiento del lenguaje en un tiempo considerable.

Los niños son, capaz de usar el lenguaje que no es aun apropiado para su edad o nivel de desarrollo. Aunque, esto requiere de gran esfuerzo y de reforzamiento para mantener la representación del niño. Hacer que los niños usen el lenguaje para representar algo es semejante a “un baile de tap” Puede que sea un buen espectáculo, pero comunica muy poco. La pregunta que todo padre y educador debe de hacer es ¿Como les ayudará la representación del lenguaje de mis hijos a comunicarse de maneras útil?

5. Diferencias Individuales

A pesar del hecho de que los niños desarrollan el lenguaje a través de una serie de etapas predecibles, no todos los niños aprenden el lenguaje de la misma manera. Hay muchas diferencias individuales y estrategias de aprendizaje alternativas que los niños usan durante su desarrollo del lenguaje. Algunas de estas diferencias son solo eso, una diferencia. Una estrategia no es mejor o peor que la otra. Por ejemplo, todos los niños usan imitación como un medio para aprender el lenguaje. Aunque, algunos niños usan la imitación mucho más para aprender lenguaje que algortos niños. Las personas que cuidan de los niños deben de estar alertas a las imitaciones de los niños de lo que ellos dicen porque hay algo en el lenguaje de la persona que cuida al niño, que el niño esta tratando de aprender. Aunque, no queremos forzar al niño a imitar porque lo pone bajo presión innecesaria de dar una mejor representación. Las imitaciones deben de ser espontáneas y sin recibir pista.

Hay unas estrategias en el aprendizaje del lenguaje de los niños que son mejores que otras. Estas estrategias deben ser explotadas lo más posible para proveer al niño con los medios más fáciles para aprender el lenguaje.

Por ejemplo, algunos niños comienzan elaborando sus oraciones en la posición objetiva (el final de la oración), como en “El ve un perro grande.” Otros niños comienzan elaborando oraciones en él la posición del sujeto (al principio de la oración), como en “El niño lo ve.”

Etapas del Desarrollo del Lenguaje

Algunas de las mayores características del desarrollo del lenguaje son presentadas en las siguientes etapas para poder proveerle con alguna información a cerca de lo que usted debe de esperar de su niño así como él / ella desarrolla su lenguaje. Su instructor le proveerá instrucción adicional y explicación a cerca de los detalles del lenguaje que usted puede comenzar a hablar con énfasis con su niño. Las próximas etapas no son exhaustas por ningún medio. Aunque, los ejemplos son característicos de lo que los niños entre las edades de un año y cinco años de edad típicamente hacen en varios puntos en el desarrollo del lenguaje.

Periodo Preverbal: Comunicación No-verbal (Nacimiento- 12 meses)

Este periodo de desarrollo prepara la etapa del desarrollo del lenguaje. Es caracterizado por el desarrollo de comunicación temprana y habilidades cognitivas. Estos incluyen el desarrollo de: atención, gesto, la mirada fija, tomar-turno, patrones de vocal (charla), casualidad, intencionalidad, relacionando a objetos y relaciones especiales.

Hay dos sub-etapas entre el periodo pre-verbal. La primera ocurre entre el nacimiento y aproximadamente los 8 meses, y es caracterizada por actos de comunicación no verbal sin hechos. El infante está explorando el medio ambiente y está aprendiendo a relacionar los objetos y gente. El infante no se comunica intencionalmente, pero el adulto maneja el comportamiento del infante como si él/ella estuviera haciendo el intento por comunicarse. La segunda sub-etapa ocurre aproximadamente entre los ocho y doce meses, es caracterizada por comunicación de hechos resueltamente no-verbal. Durante este periodo el infante consigue más control sobre su vocalización, gestos, asistencia, relacionándose con objetos y con gente, tomando-turnos, fijando su dirección y comportándose resueltamente. El infante comunica sus ideas a través de una variedad de gestos resueltos y de vocalizaciones.

El infante demuestra disposición para el desarrollo de lenguaje cuando él/ella empieza a usar orden ancha de gestos emparejados con vocalizaciones. Otro indicador es el aumento en uso de palabras inventadas, por ejemplo: “**gega/teta**” por **biberón**.

Etapa 1: Declaración en una sola palabra (12 – 18 meses)

1. Sustantivo, como mami, papi, galleta. Forman como 50% del vocabulario del niño.
2. Verbos, como ir, ver, jugar. Forman como 15% del vocabulario del niño.
3. Modificadores, como mío, sucio, caliente, grande. Forman como 10% del vocabulario del niño.
4. Negativos, como, no, ya se acabo. La palabra No es la primer palabra negativa que aprende el niño.
5. Preguntas, como ver, ir (usando un tono de elevación en la voz.)
6. Tamaño del vocabulario, comienza con una base de 10 palabras y incrementa a 50 palabras.

Etapa 2: Declaración con Mult.-palabras (18 – 26 meses)

1. Oración declarativa: sujeto + verbo + objeto aparece en el escenario como, Mami come galleta.
2. Frases con sustantivo, incluyen un modificador simple, como un abrigo, ese perro, mi jugo.
3. Frase con verbo, como Papi va, bebe duerme, mami juega. También puede aparecer con la terminación ando, endo, como bebe durmiendo.
4. Negativos, como no zapato, no ir.
5. Preguntas, como ¿come mami? ¿Que esto?, ¿Que haciendo?
6. Uniendo palabras, la palabra y aparece entre dos sustantivos, como perro y gato.
7. Tamaño de vocabulario: de 200 – 300 palabras para los dos años de edad.

Etapa 3: Emergiendo Gramática Temprana de (2 – 3 años)

(Notar: está etapa esta dividida entre el periodo temprano y el tardío)

1. Oraciones declarativas, las siguientes tipos de oraciones aparecen a través de esta etapa: sujeto + verbo + objeto como Mami come galleta.
Sujeto + verbo (conjunción) + complemento como, El está aquí.
Sujeto + verbo auxiliar + verbo + objeto como, El está jugando pelota.
2. Frases con sustantivo, elaboración de las FS comienza en la posición del objeto, como Ese un abrigo, Ve perro grande. Más tarde FS elabora en ambos, sujeto y posición del objeto, como Un perro grande. Veo un hombre, Más tarde en esta etapa FS's contienen un artículo + un modificador, como. Ese un perro grande.
3. Frases con Verbo, Etapa Temprana 3 La terminación ando es dominada en esta etapa, como, El bebe durmiendo. También aparece voy a, quiero, tengo que, no puedo, no quiero, no lo hare, aparecen antes de puedo/hago/ haría. Etapa Tardía 3: Puedo, hago y aparecera. Sobre-extensión del tiempo. Como: Tu comiendo una galleta. El fui a casa.
4. Negativos
Etapa temprana 3, no, no puedo, se usan intercambiadamente. Etapa tardía 3, No puedo comérmelo y No me lo como.
5. Preguntas
Etapa Temprana 3; ¿Mama come galleta?, ¿Qué esto? ¿A dónde va mama?
Etapa Tardía 3; ¿Se va el a la casa? ¿Qué tu haciendo?
6. Frases que unen. Aparece pero, y, o y pero si ocurre mas tarde en Etapa 3.

7. Formas gramaticales: Las siguientes formas aparecen en esta etapa, pero no son dominadas.
 Tiempos pasados irregulares, como se fue /El niño puede decir, fui en vez de fue.
 Artículos—un—el, ella.
 Verbos que unen—es, son, soy, como El esta en casa, Yo soy feliz.
 Verbos auxiliares—es, son, soy, como El esta corriendo. Yo estoy jugando.
 Tercera Persona Singular—A el le gusta. El tiene una pelota. En lugar de A el gusta. El niño puede decir. El le gusta o El tiene una pelota.

Las siguientes formas son usadas regularmente (dominadas)

Etapa Temprana 3

Ando- Se esta yendo a casa.

Dentro y encima.

Plural s—Ve los perros., dos pies (sobre extensión del uso del plural regular)

Etapa tardía 3

Posesivo – Esa es galleta de mi mamá.

8. Tamaño del vocabulario: De 900 a 1000 palabras para la edad de 3, Puede usar como 12,000 por día.

Etapa 4: Gramáticas Tardadas (3 – 5 años)

(Notar: está etapa se divide en periodos tempranos y tardíos.)

1. Oraciones declarativas

Los próximos tipos de oraciones aparecen a través de esta etapa:

Sujeto + verbo auxiliar + verbo de unión + complemento, como, Papi estará aquí.

Verbos auxiliares dobles, como, El tendrá que hacer lo.

Un objeto indirecto aparece en el sujeto + verbo auxiliar + verbo + objeto indirecto + objeto, como, Él me dio el pastel.

2. Frases con Sustantivo

Etapa temprana 4

Los ejemplos incluyen: A mi me gustan estos juguetes. Ponte el otro adentro. Yo quiero más. La niña se comió la galleta.

Aparecen frases preposicionales, como, El carro está en el garaje.

Etapa tardía 4

Números y acuerdos todavía presentan problemas, como, Esos mis lápiz. Los niños son usualmente capaces de colaborar frases con sustantivo en sucesión. Los modificadores aparecen después del sustantivo a través de clausuras relativas, como. El perro que muerde es gordo.

3. Frases con Verbo

Etapa temprana 4

Sobre extiende el tiempo pasado, Yo no lo tire.

Aparecen mas verbos auxiliares, como, puede, podra, debe, puede.
Aparecen simples infinitivos, como, Tengo que ir. Él quiere jugar.

Etapa tardía 4

Oraciones más complejas. Yo me he comido la galleta. Ella hizo que me caerá. Voz en tiempo pasado .como, Él era un hombre grande. Ellos estaban corriendo rápido.

4. Negativos

Etapa temprana 4

Ejemplos incluyen: Yo no lo hice, El bebe no puede dormir.

También aparecen: no es, no son, No quiere, No lo hizo.

Etapa tardía 4

Forma indefinita, nadie, ninguno, y nada ya son dominadas

Uso de doble negativo, como No tengo ninguno.

Aparece el no podré, no puedo y no podría.

5. Preguntas

Etapa temprana 4

Se invierte el verbo auxiliar, ¿Irá mamá también? ¿No puede ser un carro más grande?

Apariencia del hacer, como. ¿A ti te gusta la nieve?

Cuándo aparecen las preguntas, ¿Cuándo jugará él?

Otros ejemplos: ¿Por qué está corriendo él? ¿Qué puede hacer el? ¿Qué podría hacer el?

Etapa tardía 4

Aparecen preguntas tipo adulto, ejemplo. ¿A ti te gustan las galletas verdad?

6. Uniendo frases

Etapa temprana 4

Oraciones con conjunción, como, Fui a la tienda y Jim me vio.

Aparece él porque, Porque me gusta.

Etapa tardía 4

Si aparece en más oraciones complejas. Yo puedo si yo quiero.

Porque es usado como coordinador, como, La Nina sé cayó porque su bicicleta pego en una piedra.

7. Formas gramaticales:

Las siguientes formas son usadas regularmente (dominadas)

Tiempo pasado regular, El jugo.

Tiempo pasado irregular, Ella fue.

Tercera persona singular, Se va, El tiene una bicicleta.

Verbos de unen, Aquí esta mi sombrero. Ella es buena.

Verbos auxiliares, Ellos están jugando, Yo me estoy divirtiendo.

8. Tamaño del vocabulario: Alrededor de 1500 palabras para la edad de 4, y más de 2000 para la edad de 5.

Usando Técnicas de Información, Revisión y Reacción Para Promover el Desarrollo del Lenguaje

Después de establecer una red de comunicación con éxito con su niño. Usted procederá a la próxima fase. Esto es, usted usara estas técnicas para promover el desarrollo del lenguaje. Esto requerira entendimiento del desarrollo del lenguaje y de asistencia de su instructor.

Aquí están algunos ejemplos de cómo estas técnicas pueden ser usadas simultáneamente para promover el desarrollo del lenguaje.

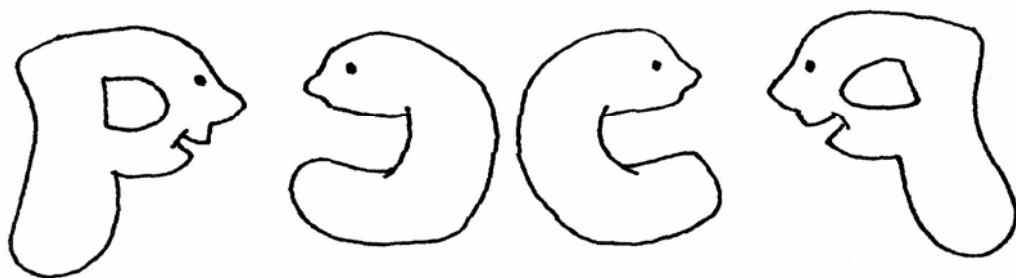
1. Vamos a decir que su niño está listo para aprender modificadores de los sustantivos, como “grande”, “más”, o “alguno”. Cuando interactúa con su niño, usted puede aplicar estas modificaciones en su lenguaje. Por ejemplo;

Niño: “Galleta“ (Haciendo una gesto pidiendo más con su taza)
Padre: “Galleta” (Imitación)
Padre: “¿Mas Galleta? (Hablando paralelamente)
Niño: “Mas galleta”
Padre: “Mas galleta” (Imitación)
Padre: “Una galleta grande” (Extensión)
Niño: “Rica”
Padre: “Rica” (Imitación)
Padre: “¡Galleta rica!” (Extensión)
Padre: “¡La galleta esta rica!” (agregando/construyendo)
Niño: “Galleta rica.”

2. Vamos a decir que su niño está listo para aprender las terminaciones ando y endo en los verbos, como “yendo”. “jugando”, “corriendo” cuando esta interactuando con su niño, usted puede aplicar las terminaciones en su lenguaje. Por ejemplo:

Niño: “Rueda arcilla.”
Niño: “Rueda arcilla.”
Padre: “Rueda arcilla.” (Imitación)
Padre: “Rueda arcilla.” (Imitación)
Padre: “Estas rodando la arcilla (Expansión)
Padre: “Rodando arcilla” (Dividiendo)
Padre: “Rodando.” (Dividiendo)
Niño: “¡Yo rodando arcilla!”
Padre: “¡Sí tu estas rodando la arcilla!” (Imitación)
Padre: “Yo también estoy rodando la arcilla” (Hablando solo).

Note que no solo está usted reforzando el uso de la terminación ando, cuando usted imita lo que dice, pero también introduce el uso propio de el pronombre “YO” con la ayuda del verbo soy. A través de hablar consigo mismo.



Programa de Comunicación Padre-Niño

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Appendix 4Q: Guiding Principles for Intervention of Articulation Disorders

When determining the best approach to articulation intervention one must consider the therapy goals and the language of intervention that is most suitable to helping a child meet those goals. Knowledge of the child's experience with each language, the contexts in which each language is used, as well as the error patterns that occur within each language will help to determine the best language of intervention. This handout provides suggestions for determining articulation therapy targets, ways to go about achieving therapy goals, and specific strategies for involving families and using the home language within articulation therapy.

Articulation Targets and Language of Intervention

When determining articulation targets it is important to consider the phonetic and linguistic elements of the native language as it relates to English. Speech-language pathologists should carefully examine articulation error patterns across all languages that the child uses. Determine in which language the error occurs the most and work on decreasing the number of errors in that language. For example, the process of syllable reduction might be more beneficial to target in Spanish where many words are multi-syllabic; whereas, omission of final consonant sounds would be more beneficial to target in English.

Methods of Intervention

Some of the same principles used in articulation therapy with monolingual children also apply to therapy for children who speak more than one language. For example, targeting frequently used words and sounds (e.g. family names, final consonants, etc.) is generally a good place to start. A bilingual approach to therapy would suggest that targets focus on sounds and word structures that are shared between the two languages. A cross-linguistic approach would suggest that sounds and structures that only exist in one language could also be targeted.

Involving the Family in Intervention

Parent involvement and intervention that supports the home language is critical to improving a child's articulation skills. Target words from both English and the home language should be used whenever possible. Speech-language pathologists can enlist the family's help in creating word lists for target sounds and then find pictures to match words in the home language. Families should be encouraged to the language they are most comfortable speaking in the home and community.

Please read the following article for more detailed information on this subject:

Goldstein, B. A., & Fabiano, L. (2007, Feb. 13). Assessment and intervention for bilingual children with phonological disorders. *The ASHA Leader*, 12(2), 6-7, 26-27, 31.

Niño: _____

Appendix 4R: Spanish 2 syllable words: B, M, P - Palabras para practicar (Words to Practice)

Marque un + cada vez que lo dice bien.

Baño (Bathroom)	
Beso (Kiss)	
Bici (Bike)	
Boca (Mouth)	
Boda (Wedding)	
Bola/Balón (Ball)	
Bota (Boot)	
Bote (Rowboat)	
Malo (Bad)	
Mano (Hand)	
Mesa (Table)	
Mono (Monkey)	
Mucho (A lot)	
Pala (Shovel)	
Pata (Foot)	
Pato (Duck)	
Pelo (Hair)	
Pollo (Chicken)	
Vaca (Cow)	
Vaso (Glass)	
Vela (Candle)	

Niño: _____

**Appendix 4S: Spanish 4 Syllable Words - Palabras para practicar
(Words to Practice)**

Marque un “+” cada vez que lo dice bien.

Abogado (lawyer)	
Aceituna (olive)	
Aguamala (jellyfish)	
Animales (animals)	
Bailarina (dancer)	
Cacerola (cooking pot)	
Cafetera (coffee maker)	
Calabaza (pumpkin)	
Chocolate	
Desayuno (breakfast)	
Gasolina	
Limonada (lemonade)	
Mariposa (butterfly)	
Medicina (medicine)	
Oficina (office)	
Palomitas (popcorn)	
Papagayo (parrot)	
Pegamento (glue)	
Peluquero (hair dresser)	
Señorita	

Niño: _____

**Appendix 4T: Spanish 3 Syllable Words - Palabras para practicar
(Words to practice)**

Marque un + cada vez que lo dice bien.

Amigo (Friend)	
Caballo (Horse)	
Cabeza (Head)	
Camisa (Shirt)	
Chiquito (Tiny)	
Cochino (Pig)	
Cocina (Kitchen)	
Comida (Food)	
Cometa (Kite)	
Conejo (Rabbit)	
Galleta (Cookie)	
Gallina (Hen)	
Gatito (Kitten)	
Helado / Paleta (Ice Cream)	
Juguete (Toy)	
Mochila (Backpack)	
Muñeca (Doll)	
Payaso (Clown)	
Pelota (Ball)	
Popote (Drinking Straw)	
Zapato (Shoe)	

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Appendix 4U: COMPILATION OF TRILL /r/ TECHNIQUES

Gathered by: Kelly Nett Cordero, M.A., CCC-SLP

Miguel Hernandez, SLPA

Miami, Florida

Elicitation of the Spanish Trill /R/

1. First he noted that the /R/ should be worked on when all sounds have been completed as it is the most difficult sound in Spanish, and emphasized the importance of achieving sound accuracy before attempting words.
2. He uses the mirror to show the child where to place the tongue, lightly resting on the inside of the upper teeth.
3. He then places a tongue depressor under the child's tongue (in the proper position) and has him/her blow.
4. To obtain the vibratory feature of the sounds he gently shakes and rotates the tongue depressor in this same position, while the child is blowing.
5. Once the child is able to produce the trill with blowing only, then voice is added and the /R/ is complete.

Operación Sonrisa de Panamá

(Operation Smile Panama)

Coordinación de Fonoaudiología

(Speech Pathology Worksheets)

Method for Eliciting Trill /r/ Phoneme

1. Make raspberry sounds with your lips, imitating the sound a car makes when it starts.
2. Put the tongue between the lips and make it vibrate like a car sound again.
3. Pull your tongue in your mouth slowly until you reach the little mountains behind your front teeth and don't let the vibration stop.
4. Once the sound is stimulated in isolation, try to following syllables:
 - a. Arra
 - b. Arro
 - c. Arru
 - d. Arré
 - e. Arrí
5. If the tap /r/ phoneme is produced accurately, words with this sound in final position can be made with a prolonged:
 - a. Cantarrrrrr
 - b. Jugarrrrrr
 - c. Soltarrrrrr
 - d. Pintarrrrrr
 - e. Tocarrrrrr
6. After the sound is achieved in the above words, the same technique of prolonging the tap /r/ in medial position:
 - a. Arrrrrrte

- b. Parrrrrte
- c. Corrrrte
- 7. If medial position of words is too difficult, clusters can also be attempted:
 - a. Trrrrrrra
 - b. Trrrrrre
 - c. Trrrrrri
 - d. Trrrrrro
 - e. Trrrrrru

8. Stimulus items suggested for further work on this sound:

Par	Carro	Red
Mar	Torre	Rama
Ser	Barre	Ratón
	Burro	Ropa
Jarra	Zorro	Rosa
Jarrón	Guerra	Roto
Cerro	Cigarro	Rima
Perro	Ferrocarril	

Rosita compró una rosa.
 Las rosa de Rosita es rosada.
 El carro corre rápido por la carretera.
 El zorro escapó del perro.
 Ramón fumó un cigarro.
 Ramón tumbó el jarrón.
 En la rama de aquel árbol una zorra se ha trepado.

Erre con erre cigarro, erre con erre barril, rápido corren los carros entre los rieles del ferrocarril.
 A una alta roca subió una rata roque sin ropa. Subió a buscarla.

Rebeca Álvarez, SLPA
Ivis Plasencia, SLPA
 Miami, Florida

Hierarchy for working on the trill /r/ phoneme:

1. Make long and sustained vibratory movements of the lips (raspberries).
2. Continue this vibration with voicing, approximating a vowel-like quality.
3. Produce the following sound sequences by hitting the top of your mouth with your tongue:
 - a. t d d d d
 - b. t d d d d - R R
 - c. t d d d d - R R á
 - d. t d d d d - R R é
 - e. t d d d d - R R í
 - f. t d d d d - R R ó
 - g. t d d d d - R R ú

4. With mouth slightly open and tongue elevated to touch the roof of your mouth, produce the following prolonged sequences:
 - a. Lrrrrrrrr
 - b. Lerrrrrrrr
 - c. Lirrrrrrrr
 - d. Lorrrrrrrr
 - e. Lurrrrrrrrr
5. Now make the same prolonged sequence with an accented vowel on the end:
 - a. Lrrrrrrrrá
 - b. Lerrrrrrrré
 - c. Lirrrrrrrrí
 - d. Lorrrrrrrró
 - e. Lurrrrrrrrrú
6. Move on to stimulus words and phrases with the trill /r/ in initial and medial position.

Also reference www.clinicaldecision.umn.edu for more ideas.

Appendix 4V: Sample Lesson Plans for Phonological Treatment #1

Cycle: 1 2 3 4	Primary, Secondary, Advanced	Date:
Targeted Process:	Targeted Phoneme(s): Initial/medial/final	Level Activities: 1 2 3

Schedule	Activity	Goals Met	Materials Needed
Review	St-blends Estampa (stamp) Estatua (statue) Estufa (stove) Estómago (stomach) Esta (this)	Review target process from last week	Picture cards or objects
Circle Time/Auditory Activity	Sing welcome, use a sticker chart to monitor participation. After singing, ask the child "¿Cantaste?" "Si, Cante" Auditory Bombardment list with amplification: -mosca (fly) -pescado (fish) -escuela (school) -escalas (scales) -esquina (corner) -escritorio (desk) -escalera (stairs)	Auditory stimuli for new target process/phonemes	Picture cards, foam letter cut-outs, microphone/speakers
Kinesthetic/Art Activity	Sk- blends: Stomping feet: Cut out "big feet" and place them on the ground. Child raises knee while producing /s/, then blends into the /k/ as they stomp down onto the "big foot". Art Activity: Cut out fish, have children color and paste small squares of pre-cut tissue paper (escalas). Attach a string to the mouth and stick a popsicle stick to the end of the string. The children will 'fish' and name its colors "yo pesque un pescado rojo".	Practice of target production with kinesthetic feedback, incorporation of different sensory modalities. Practice target sound at the word level	Laminated construction paper to make 'big feet' Fish printout, colors, tissue paper, glue, string, popsicle stick
Production Practice	Split the class in half. Assistant will help with half the group by having each child name the pictures, while the clinician is with the other half of the children. Switch.	Take inventory of emerging status of the phonemes. Production practice	Picture cards or objects. Sheet for objective data collection

<p>Language Goals/Literacy Activity</p>	<p>Read the book "Esa Mosca". Then laminate pictures of big and little flies, hidden throughout the classroom. When the children find a fly ask, "Que encontraste?"; "Una mosca grande o una mosca pequena?"</p>	<p>Auditory and production practice.</p> <p>Use target words at the phrase level.</p> <p>Descriptive concepts.</p>	<p>Small and big pictures of flies (cut and laminated), tape, book "Esa Mosca."</p>
<p>Closing/Parent Activity</p>	<p>Review auditory bombardment list. Have a child get a card with the target sound and put it in the mail box. The child says "Adios_____".</p> <p>Parent Activity: Send a note home discussing sounds for the week. Include pictures for the child to color with target sounds.</p>	<p>Final review.</p> <p>Discuss take-home activity.</p>	<p>Picture cards and/or objects for auditory bombardment and copies of pictures for homework.</p>

Sample Lesson Plan 2

Cycle 1 2 3 4	Primary Secondary Advanced	Date:
Targeted Process:	Targeted Phoneme(s): Initial/Medial/Final	Level Activates 1 2 3

Schedule	Activity	Goals Met	Materials Needed
Review	Ma-ri-po-sa Cho-co-la-te e-le-fan-te hi-po-po-ta-mo ri-no-ce-ron-te	Review advanced multi-syllabic words from previous session.	Picture cards (visual stimuli)
Circle Time/ Auditory Activity	Sing opening song “un e-le-fan-te” Offer auditory stimulation with amplification and offer visual graphemes to correspond to: Fresa (strawberry), Fruta (fruit), Trigo (wheat), Tren (train), Flauta (flute), Flores (flowers), Blanco (white), Plancha (iron), Plato (plate)	Review multi-syllabic words. Introduce new sounds with auditory bombardment and increase awareness of visual recognition of graphemes.	CD “De Colores” by José Luis Orozco and cut-out letters or foam letter cut-outs.
Kinesthetic / Art Activity	/tr/ blends: Demonstrate and have children follow tapping their hand while producing /t/ and /d/ with increasing speed to facilitate the /t/ with the trill /r/. Fricative + liquid blend: With large paper and crayons, have children practice continuous airflow while making a rainbow, change colors with each breath. Keep the same motion and begin to practice with target blends; finally working into whole words (with target blends).	Production practice of target sounds given maximum tactile cues.	Table, drum, or anything that resonates. Large paper and colors (crayons).
Production Practice	Half of the group is offered production practice for /r/ blends given picture or object stimuli; Half of group is offered production practice for /l/ blends given picture of object stimuli; switch. Use assistant for one group.	Take inventory of emerging status of the phonemes. Continue production practice.	Picture chart (or objects if preferred) and worksheet for objective data collection.
Language Goals/Literacy Activity	<u>Sembrando un Arco Iris</u> by Lois Ehlert Read the book and label the different colors of the flowers. Have children color flowers in different colors. Later, tape them to the wall to truly make a rainbow of flowers (un arco iris de flores).	Auditory and production practice using words at the phrase level. Basic spatial concept practice.	<u>Sembrando un Arco Iris</u> by Lois Ehlert, cut-out flowers, crayons, and tape.
Closing/Parent Activity	-Auditory Bombardment activity with amplification -Discuss the take-home book Put everything into the backpack Say “adios” to the target vocabulary	Final auditory stimulation. Discuss take-home activity.	Use visual stimuli for auditory bombardment (cards or objects). Copies of books to take home.

Primary Targets: Suggested Activities

Primary Targets	Activity Description	Materials Used
Early Developing phonemes in word-initial position	<p>Feed Pepe: Child will get a picture card out of a bag containing the target sound /p/. Child will feed the card to Pepe the puppet. Then after the child feeds Pepe, the clinician asks “Que comio Pepe?” (What did Pepe eat?)</p> <p>Pato, Pato, Ganzo: Duck, Duck, Gray Duck, practice saying “pato, pato, pato”.</p> <p>Mail a card: Make a mailbox out of a small cardboard box. Have children mail the picture card and say “adios _____” as the mail it, practicing target sound.</p>	<p>Picture cards with /p/ initial, puppet, and bag</p> <p>Cardboard box, construction paper to make mail, and stamps/stickers</p>
Syllables	<p>Counting blocks: Give each child blocks of different colors. Then have the children practice counting numbers of syllables in a word using the blocks., This can be facilitated by first clapping each syllable and counting how many times you clapped.</p> <p>Train carts: Make a handout of a train containing empty carts. Then cut out each target word into syllables and paste them on separate note cards. Have the children place each syllable in a different cart on the train. For younger children, this can also be done with a toy train and blocks.</p> <p>Jumping Frog: Create some lily pads have a toy frog jump on the lily pads. Each lily pad represents a syllable. The children can also pretend to be the frog and they can jump out each syllable.</p>	<p>Blocks in a variety of colors, picture cards</p> <p>Handout of train, words printed on note cards, toy train, and blocks</p> <p>Toy frog, green construction paper for lily pads, and picture cards</p>
Stridency /s/ facilitation	<p>Stretchy snakes: Help facilitate the /s/ by obtaining stretchy snakes. Give one to each child and have them stretch the snake as they produce /s/. You could also demonstrate how the snake hisses and have the children hiss as they tag each other.</p> <p>Salta, Sapo, Salta (Jump, Frog, Jump): Each child attempts to make a frog jump into a bucket. As they do this the children say, “Salta, Sapo, Salta.</p> <p>Sopa Azul (Blue soup): This is a fun art activity. Buy pasta, either star</p>	<p>Stretchy snakes</p> <p>Plastic frogs and bucket</p> <p>Star or alphabet shaped pasta, blue food coloring, handouts with a drawing of a bowl</p>

	shaped or alphabet. Put blue food coloring to dye it. Then on a sheet of paper, draw a big bowl and a spoon. Then children will paste the blue soup.	and spoon, glue
Maximal Contrasts/Velars	<p>Maximal contrasts of /p/ vs. /k/: Get two buckets and identify each bucket by placing words with the /p/ sound in one and words with the /k/ sound in the other. Name the card that starts with each of those sounds, have the child name the card and place it in the appropriate bucket.</p> <p>El cocodrilo comelón: Have a toy crocodile and different items that begin with /k/. Have the child tell you what the crocodile ate as you feed the crocodile.</p> <p>Song: “Comrade Cómprame un Coco” (“Friend, buy me a coconut”)</p>	<p>Sound cards, construction paper for letters, and two buckets</p> <p>Toy crocodile and picture naming cards/objects that start with /k/</p> <p>CD “De Colores” by José Luis Orozco</p>
Liquids /l/, tap /r/, trill /r/	<p>Book: “The Icky Sticky Frog”. This book can be translated as “ La rana con la lengua pegajosa.”</p> <p>-La Rana: Print two handouts of a frog that has a front and back. Have the children color and cut the frog, then staple the two handouts, leaving a space to stuff the frog with cotton balls. Seal and tape it onto a popsicle stick. Color or paint green paper plates to be lily pads. Then get a piece of red yarn for the tongue. Attach a small piece of magnet to the end of the string. Then print out small pictures that begin with liquids. Have children color the pictures, then place a paper clip to each picture. Then children can pretend their frog is catching different items with its long sticky tongue.</p> <p>Sing the song: “El Burrito Enfermo”. You could use the picture of a donkey and have children Velcro the items on the donkey as they sing the song.</p>	<p>“The Icky Sticky Frog” by Dawn Bentley</p> <p>Two handouts with front and back of frog, cotton balls, small paper plates, popsicle sticks, red yarn, magnetic tape, paper clips, and small pictures of items containing liquids</p> <p>CD “De Colores” by Jose Luis Orozco, items for song (apples, lemons, scarf, hat, etc.) and toy donkey</p>

Facilitative Activities-Levels 1,2,3

Facilitative Activity Type	Activity Description	Materials Used
Phonological Awareness		
Level 1: Phonological Awareness	Identify word boundaries with blocks: Take a sentences and write it out with separate cards. Use blocks to correspond with words. Tap out the words with the blocks.	Blocks and word cards
Level 2: Phonological Awareness	Identify rhyming words: Present a picture; say it “which rhymes with “lata?” (Cual rima con lata?”) Give two examples “sapo” or “pata.” The child chooses yes they rhyme or no they don’t.	Picture cards or objects in sets of three with two cards that rhyme and one that doesn’t.
Level 3 ;Phonological Awareness	Identify sounds in word initial position: Show the child cards with the same initial sound and tell him/her what sound each card starts with. He/she repeats each sound. Show two more cards with different initial sounds. The child chooses which one starts with the target sound.	Pictures or objects that begin with the same targeted sound.
Language		
Level 1: Language Goals	Recognize basic action words: Child points to pictures based on clinician’s request	Verb picture cards and books demonstrating actions
Level 2: Language Goals	Follow directions with quantitative concepts: Give directions using quantitative concepts. Change the manipulative to fit the target concept.	Manipulatives that offer practice of the target phoneme (e.g. carros/cars for /k/, burbujas/bubbles for /b/, etc.).
Level 3: Language Goals	Past tense and food vocab: Lay out food cards and/or manipulatives. Have children them choose one item/card and ask, “Que comiste?” (“What did you eat?”). To work on the third person verb form use puppets and ask “Que comio?” (What did he/she eat?”).	Food manipulatives, food picture cards and puppets
Emerging Literacy		
Level 1: Emerging Literacy Skills	Offer a period of time where children can ‘browse’ books in a relaxing atmosphere.	Small book shelf that is easily accessible to the children in comfortable and quiet reading corner.
Level 2: Emerging Literacy Skills	Facilitate left to right reading/writing by making patterns and having children	Objects in lines (objects could also contain target phonemes).

	'search out' an object by scanning from left to right.	
Level 3: Emerging Literacy Skills	Increase independence on the grapheme-phoneme relationship by having children produce the initial letter of their name in shaving cream. Then, identify the first and last letter of their name. Finally, identify that same letter within the context of another word (begin with word initial).	Shaving cream, pictures of words beginning with the first letter of the child's name.

Materials in Spanish Books

Book	Author	Good For:
Arroz Con Leche: Popular Songs and Rhymes from Latin America	Lulu Celacre	Songs and Rhymes
Chicka, Chicka, Boom Boom	Bill Martin Jr. & John Ashambault	Introduce alphabet
Diez Deditos-Ten Little Fingers	Jose Luis Orozco	Spanish-English Songs and play rhymes
Huevos Verdes con Jamon (Green Eggs and Ham)	Dr. Suess	Trill /r/ in initial and medial, rhymes in Spanish
La Oruga Muy Hambrienta (The Very Hungry Caterpillar)	Eric Carle	Food, quantitative concepts, /k/, initial in 'comio'
La Semilla de Zanahoria (The Carrot Seed)	Ruth Krauss	/s/ initial, multisyllabicity, sequencing, leads into a seed growing project
La Vaca en la Hamaca o Un Amigo Mas	Alma Flor Ada	Rhyming, medial /k/, sequencing
Mis primeras Poemas y Canciones/Anotlogia Infantil	Lourdes Dias Soto	Songs and Poems to accompany books
No David!	David Shannon	Great for obtaining a language sample, initial /n/
Oso Pardo, Oso Pardo, Que Ves Ahí? (Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What do you See?)	Eric Carle	Animals, colors, five senses (see)
Oso Polar, Oso Polar (Polar Bear, Polar Bear What do you Hear?)	Eric Carle	Animals, sound play, five senses (hear)
Se Le Das Una Galleta a Un Ratoncito (If you Give a Mouse a Cookie)	Laura Joffe Numeroff	Future Tense, vocabulary building, initial /r/, cause and effect
Sembrando un Arco Iris	Lois Ehlert	Colors, sequencing of planting, /fl/
Somos un Arco Iris	Nancy Maria Grande Tabor	Family, /f/ initial
Tu Mama es Una Llama? (Is Your Mama a Llama?)	Deborah Guarino	/j/ initial, animals and mothers
Vaya Olor/Vaya Ruido	Usborne books	Five senses, spatial concepts, /s/ initial and medial
Vegetal Como Eres	Saxton Freyman and Joost Elffers	Feelings, vocabulary, fruits, /s/ initial
Salta Ranita Salta	Robert Kalan	Substitute 'sapo' for 'ranita' and have children target /s/ initial on repeated phrase "Salta Sapo Salta"

Target Words: Cards, Lists, Puzzles, Software, Etc.

Title:	By:	Good For:
Actividades Fonéticas-Kindergarten	Harcourt-Classroom Connect	Activities in Spanish surrounding targeted Spanish phonemes
Bilingual ABC's: A Spanish-English Alphabet Books	Scholastic	Offers art-activities highlighting word-initial phonemes for shared sounds in Spanish and English
Cuentos Fonéticos de Scholastic; Spanish Phonics Readers	Scholastic	Short stories focusing on target phonemes in various phonemic environments
Divirtámonos con Letras y Sonidos	Stockhom/Bilingual Language Materials	Activities in Spanish for phonics practice including spin-wheels and short stories
Fonología en Español: Tratamiento	Kathryn Kohnert, Marna Scarry-Larkin & Elizabeth Price/Locu Tour Multimedia, Cognitive Rehabilitation	CD Rom –based program fro Spanish Intervention; offers picture cards and activities for carry over.
Spanish Articulation Picture Resource	Academic Communication Associates (ACA)	Reproducible cards, worksheets for articulation practice in Spanish
SPARC English/Spanish	Susan Thomsen/Linguisystems	Reproducible articulation cards in Spanish/English; also activities for vocabulary and grammar
Sopa de Palabras, Juegos para Terapia del Habla	Bilingual Speech Source	Activities, puzzles for articulation practice of phonemes in Spanish
Teaching Spanish Speech Sounds; Drills for Articualtion Therapy	Larry Mattes and George Santiago/Academic Communication Associates (ACA)	Reproducible word lists offering Spanish phonemes in every word position
Viajando Con Oscar, Un Juego de Conocimiento Fonológico	Shannon Nowak/Trabalenguas	Game board focusing on 8 critical areas of phonological awareness
Webber Phonological Spanish Phonology Cards	Melanie Frederick/Webber	Minimal Pairs in Spanish

Cycle 4 Targets


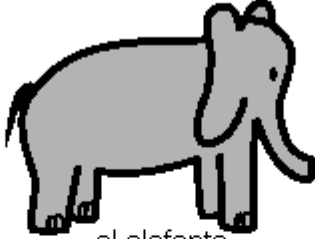


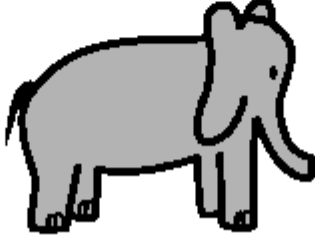







Cycle 4	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6
Primary Targets						
Pre-vocalic singletons						
Syllable reduction						
Stridency /s/						
Velar Contrasts						
Liquid /l/						
Trill /r/						
Tap /r/						
Secondary Targets						
Liquid /l/						
Tap /r/, trill /r/						
/s/ blends						
Affricates						
Glides						
Abutting Consonants						
/r/ & /l/ blends						
Advanced Targets/Emerging Bilinguals						
Complex Clusters						
Multisyllabicity						
Final Consonants						
Word final cons						
Word initial /s/ clusters						
Unshared Stridents						
Unshared Affricates						
Unshared Liquids						
Vowels						

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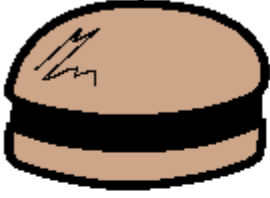
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Appendix 4W: Spanish multisyllabic articulation cards

<p>telephone</p>  <p>el telefono</p>	<p>elephant</p>  <p>el elefante</p>	<p>umbrella</p>  <p>el paraguas</p>
<p>telephone</p>  <p>el telefono</p>	<p>elephant</p>  <p>el elefante</p>	<p>umbrella</p>  <p>el paraguas</p>
<p>banana</p>  <p>el platano</p>	<p>dinosaur</p>  <p>el dinosaurio</p>	<p>watermelon</p>  <p>la sandia</p>
<p>banana</p>  <p>el platano</p>	<p>dinosaur</p>  <p>el dinosaurio</p>	<p>watermelon</p>  <p>la sandia</p>


Appendix 4W: Spanish multisyllabic articulation cards

hamburger



la hamburguesa

elevator



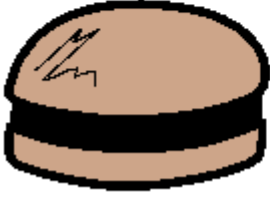
el ascensor

baby doll




la muñeca

hamburger



la hamburguesa

elevator






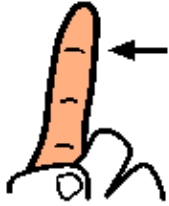
el ascensor





baby doll



la muñeca





4X: Spanish word initial /d/ articulation cards




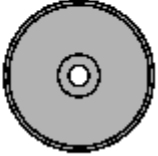
diente 	10 	2 	dedo 
---	---	---	---

dormir 	dulces 	ducha 	dame eso 
---	---	---	---

dados 	Dairy Queen 	dona 	doctor 
--	---	---	--

delantal 	deportes 	desayuno 	desfile 
---	---	---	--

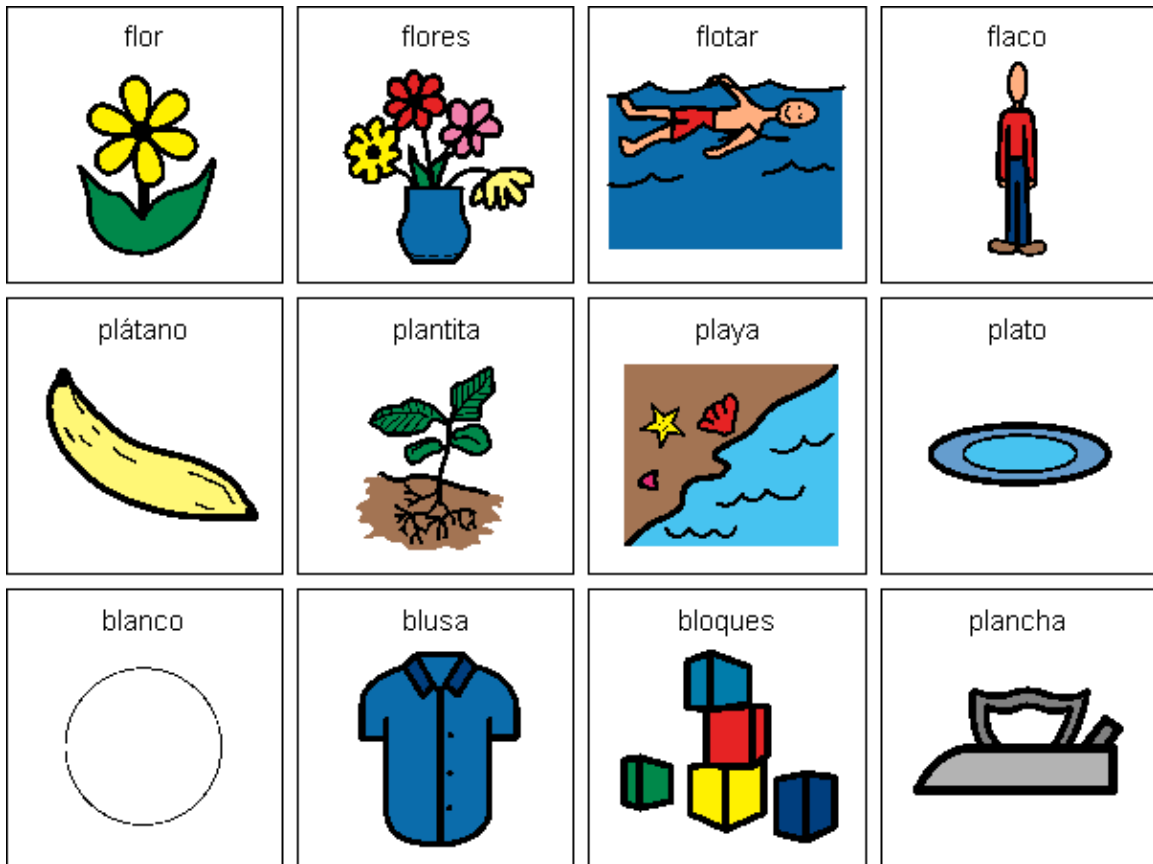
disfraz 	dentista 	debajo 	dentro 
--	---	---	---

dinero 	detras 	dinosaurio 	disco compacto 
---	---	---	---

Appendix 4Y: Spanish word initial /f/ articulation cards

foca 			fila 		
fantasma 			feliz 		
tomar fotos 			por favor 		
familia 			fideos 		
fiesta 			fútbol 		

Appendix 4Z: Spanish // blend articulation cards



Appendix AA: Hmong Word List by Sound

Hmong words that have the English /b/ sound:

- ◆ Npas ball
- ◆ Npus pig
- ◆ Npib coin, money
- ◆ Nplhaib ring

Hmong words that have the English /d/ sound:

- ◆ Dub black
- ◆ Dawb white
- ◆ Dah yellow

Hmong words that have the English /m/ sound:

- ◆ Mis milk
- ◆ Mov rice
- ◆ Miv cat
- ◆ Mus go

Hmong words that have the English /sh/ sound:

- ◆ Sawv get up
- ◆ Sau write
- ◆ Saib look

Hmong words that have the English /ch/ sound:

- ◆ Tsho shirt
- ◆ Tshaib plab hungry

Hmong words that have the English /k/ sound:

- ◆ Khau shoe
- ◆ Khiav run
- ◆ Khaus itch
- ◆ Kheej round
- ◆ Khi tie

Hmong words that have the English /g/ sound:

- ◆ Nkauj song
- ◆ Nkaub name
- ◆ Nkaum to hide one's self
- ◆ Nkoj boat

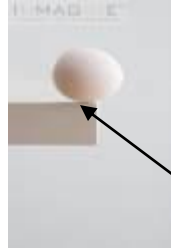
Appendix BB: Hmong and English Word List

English	Hmong	Hmong Pronunciation
mom	niam	nee. ah
dad	txiv	sze
sister	muam(tus)/niam laus niam hluas/viv ncaus (tus)	moo. ah(doo)/nee. ah lao nee. ah hloo. ah/vee jao(doo)
brother	tij laug/kwv(tus) nus(tus)	dee lao/gou (as in took) (doo) noo (doo)
grandma	pog/niam tais	pah/ nee.ah tie
milk	mis nyuj	mee nyew
juice	kua	koo.ah
egg	qe	kay
cheese	roj npaws	chaw bar
cereal	xib yaum (English)	see yoe
ball	lub npas	loo bahn
eye	qhov muag	kaw moo.ah
ears	pob ntseg	paw jay
nose	qhov ntshwg	kaw jeur
mouth	qhov ncauj	kaw jao
head	taub hau	tauw how (rhyme)
arm	txhais npab	tsie bah
leg	txhais ceg	tsie jay
hand	txhais tes	tsie day
foot	txhais taw	tsie tar
fingers	ntiv tes	dee day
toes	ntiv taw	dee dar
look	ntsia	jee.ah
watch	saib	shy
say	hais	high
repeat	hais dua	high doo.ah
come	los/tuaj	law/too.ah
sit	zaum	zhau (as in ouch)
help	pab/kev pab	pah/kay pah
Stop	Nres/tsum/txwv	Jay/chew/tzoo (as in took)
Please	Thov	Tau
Thank you	Ua tsaug	oo.ah chow
yes	yog mas	yah mah
no	tsis	gee

Appendix CC: Vietnamese Tonal Minimal Pairs



ME (tamarind)



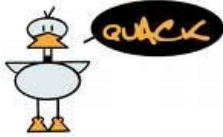
ME (edge)



ME (sesame)



BA (grandma)



cap ("quack" or metal cable)



ME (mom)



cap (gnaw)



BA (daddy or "3")

3



BA (third person, woman)

Cleft Palate Speech: Cross-Linguistic Considerations - Treatment

Anna Thurmes, M.A., CCC-SLP

Kelly Nett Cordero, Ph.D., CCC-SLP

*For evaluation information and additional resources please see Chapter 3 Evaluation of CLD Children in this Talk with Me manual.

Core Knowledge

Information regarding the nature and impact of cleft palate on communication can be reviewed through:

American Cleft Palate-Craniofacial Association (ACPA) Core Curriculum in Speech-Language Pathology:

http://www.acpa-cpf.org/educMeetings/CoreCur/speech_language_pathology.html

Kuehn, D.P. & Moller, K.T. (2000). Speech and language issues in the cleft palate population: The state of the art. *Cleft Palate-Craniofacial Journal*, 37, 348-383.

[http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569\(2000\)037%3C0348:SALIIT%3E2.3.CO%3B2](http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569(2000)037%3C0348:SALIIT%3E2.3.CO%3B2)

Considerations for Linguistically Diverse Populations

Although cleft palate is an anatomical condition with specific speech consequences that are observed across languages, there are considerations that can be helpful for native English-speaking listeners who are assessing individuals from other language backgrounds. Information regarding considerations for working with linguistically diverse populations will be interspersed throughout this page, marked with **Linguistic Note**. Information on cultural considerations for cleft care will be provided in the final section.

Cleft Palate Speech Characteristics

The palate typically is repaired between 9-12 months of age in the United States. Critical milestones in speech-language development occur prior to this age, which puts children with cleft palate at high risk for speech and language disorders that can persist after the palate repair. Additionally, children with cleft palate frequently have fluctuating hearing loss, which also puts them at risk. Children with cleft palate typically have restricted consonant inventories, which can lead to less diverse expressive vocabularies. More information about early speech development in children with cleft palate can be found in the following article:

Jones, C.E., Chapman, K.L. & Hardin-Jones, M.A. (2003). Speech development of children with cleft palate before and after palatal surgery. *Cleft Palate-Craniofacial Journal*, 40(1), 19-31.

[http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569\(2003\)040%3C0019:SDOCWC%3E2.0.CO%3B2](http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569(2003)040%3C0019:SDOCWC%3E2.0.CO%3B2)

Individuals with cleft palate may continue to have speech problems after the palate is repaired due to poor velopharyngeal closure, which is called velopharyngeal inadequacy (VPI). VPI is a structural problem that results in hypernasality, weak

pressure consonants, and nasal air emission (passive or turbulent) that is not specific to particular phonemes. These are obligatory errors that improve with nasal occlusion. VPI requires physical management (surgery or a prosthesis) and cannot be corrected through speech treatment alone.

Linguistic Note: Individuals who have their palate repaired at a later age may be more likely to have articulation and resonance concerns. This may be the case for children who were internationally adopted or did not have access to surgery in their home country. However, it is also possible (based on anecdotal reports) that individuals who start learning a second language AFTER cleft repair may have fewer speech concerns as they are learning the new sound system with functional velopharyngeal closure.

There are also many maladaptive articulation errors associated with cleft palate that are a result of mislearning. Maladaptive articulation errors may be present in a speaker who has VPI, but they can also persist even after surgery. Maladaptive articulation errors typically involve producing anterior pressure sounds posteriorly in the oral cavity or pharynx that cannot be corrected by surgery.

Maladaptive articulation errors may include:

- Glottal Stop: stop consonant produced by constricting air at the vocal folds (sounds like “uh-oh”)
- Pharyngeal stop: stop consonant produced by impounding air in the pharynx (sounds similar to a glottal stop but is produced superior to the vocal folds)
 - **Linguistic note:** Some languages, such as **Somali, Arabic, and Hmong**, have uvular, pharyngeal or glottal stops (and/or approximants) as part of the phonetic inventory. It is important to consider the native language sound system when describing articulation patterns.
- Pharyngeal fricative and affricate: fricative or affricate consonant produced in the pharynx (sounds like a hissing throat clearing noise)
 - **Linguistic note:** Some languages, such as **Spanish, French, and Portuguese**, have uvular trills or fricatives as part of the phonetic inventory. It is important to distinguish these from compensatory/maladaptive pharyngeal fricatives.
- Nasal fricative: Forcing air for fricative consonants through the nose that sounds like passive or turbulent nasal air emission. It is phoneme specific and when produced with nasal occlusion, it sounds like a consonant deletion or stopping error.

*Any anterior consonant that is produced posterior of what is considered normal placement is considered maladaptive, such as using producing alveolar stop sounds as mid-dorsum stops.

Treatment Goals and Strategies

The goal of speech treatment is to normalize articulation to maximize intelligibility, which in turn facilitates normal expressive language development. The specific goals and

treatment strategies will vary depending on the individual's age and the nature of the speech errors.

Early intervention prior to cleft palate: The goal of treatment at this stage is two-fold: 1) Prevent development of maladaptive articulation errors described above 2) Facilitate the development of low-pressure consonant sounds (/m, n, w, j, h, l/). Parents should be directly instructed in speech-language stimulation strategies. It is very important that parents can identify glottal and pharyngeal productions (e.g., "uh-oh," growling and truck noises) and be explicitly instructed in the importance of NOT reinforcing these posterior production patterns. Parents should be instructed in alternative productions to reinforce (e.g., "moo" "wow" and sustained vowels). Oral stimulation, such as vibration or massaging, does not facilitate these goals.

Early intervention after palate repair:

Shortly after the palate repair, treatment goals described above should be continued. Treatment should also begin to more directly target the development of anterior pressure sounds. A limited number of sounds should be targeted at one time, starting with the most anterior visual sounds (/p/ and /b/). If the child is already demonstrating a posterior articulation pattern, then the hierarchy and strategies described below are recommended. Treatment should also target oral airflow during speech production. Non-speech oral motor tasks, such blowing horns, whistles, and cotton balls, will NOT facilitate the development of oral airflow for speech. The palate will become "strong enough" by talking and strengthening exercises for the palate are not beneficial.

Linguistic Note: A brief list of words in English and **Spanish** can be found on the following website: <http://bilinguistics.com/blog/speech-goals-for-spanish-and-english-speaking-children-with-cleft-palate/>

Intervention for maladaptive articulation

It is not uncommon for children with cleft palate to have numerous types of maladaptive articulation errors. Maladaptive articulation errors are most effectively remediated through a hierarchical articulation approach that explicitly teaches placement versus a phonological cycles approach. Treatment should target discrimination followed by production beginning at the phoneme level. Treatment should begin with words that do not have nasal sounds. Plugging the child's nose is one of the most facilitative techniques to give the child the feeling of oral pressure. Non-speech oral motor exercises do not help eliminate maladaptive articulation errors. The rationale for this is described in:

Ruscello, D.M. (2008). An examination of nonspeech oral motor exercises for children with velopharyngeal inadequacy. *Seminars in Speech and Language, 29*(4), 294-303.

The following books and articles are references which discuss treatment of cleft palate speech:

Peterson-Falzone, S.J, Karnell, M.P, Hardin-Jones, M.A., Trost-Cardamone, J. (2005). *The Clinician's Guide to Treating Cleft Palate Speech*. St. Louis, MO: Elsevier Health Sciences-Mosby.

Golding-Kushner, K.J. (2001). *Therapy Techniques for Cleft Palate Related Speech Disorders*. San Diego, CA: Singular-Thomson Learning.

Kummer, A.W & Lee, L. (1996). Evaluation and treatment of resonance disorders. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in the Schools*, 27, 271-281.

Linguistic Note: This article discusses the use of oral-nasal contrasts. A list of **Spanish** and English oral-nasal minimal pairs can be found here: [See Appendix 4EE: Spanish Oral Nasal Contrast Pairs](#)

The following companion articles in English and **Spanish** may also provide helpful information:

Kuehn, D.P. & Henne, L.J. (2003). Speech evaluation and treatment for patients with cleft palate. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 12, 103-109.

Kuehn, D.P. & Henne, L.J. (2003). Evaluación del habla y tratamiento para pacientes con fisura palatina, *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 12, 1-8.

Specific strategies for treating maladaptive articulation

Eliminating glottal and pharyngeal stops: Treatment should facilitate the elimination of hard glottal attacks.

- Provide the child explicit instruction using all possible modalities of cueing, with repeated emphasis on “no throat sounds.”
 - **Linguistic Note:** For individuals who speak languages with uvular, pharyngeal, or glottal phonemes, such as **Somali**, **Hmong**, and **Arabic**, it may be helpful to have the patient (if age appropriate) make a chart showing ‘throat’ versus ‘mouth’ sounds in the native language. This will help to target appropriate phonemes and increase awareness of the sounds which should and should not be produced posteriorly.
- If glottal/pharyngeal stops occur across all phonemes, begin with phoneme the child is most stimutable for, which is typically /p/.
 - **Linguistic Note:** Although /p/ is often an appropriate phoneme to start with, it is important to examine the phonetic inventory. For example, **Somali** has the /b/, but not the /p/ as a phoneme.
- Voiceless phonemes are typically easier than their voiced counterparts because the vocal folds are not active making it is easier to avoid constriction of the sound at the glottis.
 - **Linguistic Note:** It is important to note that voiceless stop phonemes which appear similar across languages may have differences in voice onset time (VOT) which can lead to differences in production. For example, in English, the /p/ has a relatively long VOT leading to aspiration for the /p^h/ such as in the word ‘paper’. However, **Spanish** has much shorter VOT for the /p/

Appendix 4DD

- phoneme, such as in the word 'papel', leading to slightly different perception for a native English-speaker (can be perceived as almost voiced in nature, less 'explosive', weaker).
- Avoid words that begin with vowels as these words require glottal onset
 - **Linguistic Note:** This glottal onset can be even stronger for languages other than English, such as **Hmong**.
 - Targeting the sound in the final position of words that begin with /h, m/ and /w/ can be helpful for a lot of children (e.g. targeting /p/ in words like 'hop', 'map' or 'wipe').
 - **Linguistic Note:** Once a consonant phoneme has been established in isolation it is important to examine the phonotactics of a language. For example, **Spanish** only allows /r, l, n, s, d/ as consonants in word final position and **Hmong** does not have any true word final consonants.
 - Begin with having the child whisper the word (avoids glottal constriction) and progress to a normal speaking volume.
 - Glottal and pharyngeal stops are most likely and most to occur and difficult to eliminate in the medial position of words
 - Plugging the child's nose will give them a sense of oral pressure, which may help break the pattern of trying to create pressure at the glottis.
 - It is helpful to occasionally turn away or cover your eyes to make sure the child is not co-articulating a glottal stop (moving lips and tongue at the same time air is constricted at the glottis).

Eliminating pharyngeal fricatives:

- The goal is to teach correct placement and oral airflow.
- First make sure the child understands the concept of oral airflow so throughout treatment verbal cues, such as "your windy mouth sound not the hissy throat sound" can be used.
- Shaping from an exaggerated interdental "th" sound can be facilitative as the tongue is more anchored forward. "th" can be easiest to shape into "sh" and then "s."
- Plugging the child's nose is also helpful.

Eliminating nasal fricatives:

- Establish child's awareness that they are producing it in their nose. Plug the child's nose and have them try to produce the fricative. Typically this results in deletion or unsuccessful ability to push air through nose. Cue them: "Where did the sound go? You made it through your nose." Have them blow air through their mouth and cue them that the fricative comes through their mouth just like that, "It's windy through our mouths" not "snorted through the nose."
- Shaping /s/ from /t/ is helpful if the child has correct placement for /t/. While plugging their nose, have the child produce /t/ progressively faster until sustained as an oral /s/ sound.
- For labiodental fricatives, cue them to "bite their lip" and blow air through the mouth.
- Have them practice it through their nose and mouth so they learn the difference.
 - **Linguistic Note:** When addressing fricative errors, it is helpful to review the phonetic inventory as the native language may have different fricatives which

can also be affected by the error pattern. For example, **Spanish** has a velar fricative /x/.

Considerations for Culturally Diverse Populations

The following article series is almost 20 years old, but the authors illustrate many important considerations for working with culturally diverse individuals with cleft palate:

Strauss, R. (1990). Culture, health care, and birth defects in the United States: An Introduction.

The Cleft Palate Journal, 27(3), 275-278.

[http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569\(1990\)027%3C0275:CHCABD%3E2.3.CO%3B2](http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569(1990)027%3C0275:CHCABD%3E2.3.CO%3B2)

Meyerson, M. (1990). Cultural considerations in the treatment of Latinos with craniofacial malformations. *The Cleft Palate Journal*, 27(3), 279–288.

[http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569\(1990\)027%3C0279:CCITTO%3E2.3.CO%3B2](http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569(1990)027%3C0279:CCITTO%3E2.3.CO%3B2)

Toliver-Weddington, G. (1990). Cultural considerations in the treatment of craniofacial malformations in African Americans. *Cleft Palate Journal*, 27(3), 289-293.

[http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569\(1990\)027%3C0289:CCITTO%3E2.3.CO%3B2](http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569(1990)027%3C0289:CCITTO%3E2.3.CO%3B2)

Cheng, L.-R. L. (1990). Asian American Cultural Perspectives on Birth Defects: Focus on Cleft Palate. *Cleft Palate Journal*, 27(3), 294-300.

[http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569\(1990\)027%3C0294:AAPOB%3E2.3.CO%3B2](http://cpcj.allenpress.com/pdfserv/10.1597%2F1545-1569(1990)027%3C0294:AAPOB%3E2.3.CO%3B2)

For more information, or for specific questions about cleft palate assessment and treatment of CLD speakers, feel free to contact the authors directly.

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Appendix 4EE: Spanish Oral Nasal Contrast Pairs

Spanish Oral/Nasal Contrast Pairs

1. palo/malo
2. pata/mata
3. padre/madre
4. besa/mesa
5. papa/mapa
6. boda/moda
7. talla/malla
8. gala/gana
9. tobillo/novillo
10. capa/cama
11. casa/cana
12. diente/miente
13. plato/plano
14. pez/mes
15. pisa/misa
16. pozo/mozo
17. rata/rana
18. lata/lana
19. pelón/melón
20. barco/marco

English Oral/Nasal Contrast Pairs

1. buddy/bunny
2. coat/cone
3. pet/net
4. toot/tune
5. pen/men
6. pat/mat
7. cloud/clown
8. bead/bean
9. crowd/crown
10. plate/plane
11. belt/melt
12. bow/mow
13. lap/nap
14. pail/mail
15. seal/meal
16. bars/mars
17. feet/meat
18. dice/nice
19. fat/fan
20. top/mop
21. tea/knee
22. bug/mug
23. bear/mare
24. clap/clam
25. bake/make
26. peel/kneel
27. sail/nail
28. boat/moat
29. braid/brain
30. pan/man
31. spool/spoon
32. tail/nail
33. tap/nap
34. bad/mad
35. ball/mall
36. pop/mop
37. pet/pen
38. bath/math
39. court/corn
40. tube/tune
41. grade/grain
42. lock/knock
43. yard/yarn
44. bill/mill

Jennifer Ochoa, B.S. Intern
August 1, 2001

Appendix FF: Guiding Principles for Intervention of Dysfluency

Background Information

According to the Stuttering Foundation of America's website (www.stutteringhelp.org), stuttering is defined as, "a communication disorder in which the flow of speech is broken by [sound and/or syllable] repetitions (li-li-like this), prolongations (lllllike this), or abnormal stoppages [or blocks] (no sound) of sounds and syllables. There may also be unusual facial and body movements associated with the effort to speak.

- Stuttering is thought to be a neurologically based disorder with a strong genetic component.
- About four times as many boys than girls are affected by stuttering
- Approximately 1% of adults in the United States stutter, and up to 20% of children go through a period of stuttering

Stuttering exists in all languages; however, cultural beliefs about the cause and treatment of stuttering vary greatly. For example, psychological treatment is not generally used in American practice; however, many cultures may view stuttering as being associated with psychological maladjustment. Feelings of shame, guilt, and vulnerability frequently associated with the disorder. Regardless of a culture's beliefs about stuttering, clinicians should be aware that high levels of variation exist within cultural groups and individual beliefs should be explored.

Stuttering and Bilingualism

Many people who speak more than one language experience an increase in disfluencies with increased language demands (e.g. word retrieval). Clinicians can educate families and teachers about the differences between normal speech disfluencies related to second language learning and those that are characteristic of stuttering by using the following guidelines. With disfluencies related to language formulation difficulties:

- There is an absence of secondary features (e.g. facial grimaces)
- The child will not think of themselves as a person who stutters
- Periods of disfluency increase as the level of difficulty in the less proficient language increase
- There is an absence of disfluencies in the more proficient language

Stuttering in bilinguals occurs in both languages; however, the severity of stuttering is influenced by language dominance (Lim, Lincoln, Chan, & Onslow, 2008). That is, the language in which the child is more proficient should have fewer disfluencies than the less proficient language. Clinicians might consider separate goals for each language depending on the severity of stuttering in that

language. Clinicians and families need to be aware of the facts about stuttering and bilingualism that are backed up by current research. In a review conducted by Von Borsel, Maes, and Foulon (2001, as cited in Ratner, 2004) it was determined that bilingualism is not a cause of stuttering. Nor will taking away one of the child's languages alleviate stuttering. As with other communication disorders, families of bilingual children should continue to use the language(s) they are most comfortable with.

Stuttering Intervention in Bilinguals

Intervention in bilingual children who stutter should be altered to meet the needs of the individual as well as their family. [Kathard \(2008\)](#) provides SLPs with suggestions for designing intervention in bilinguals, including:

- using culturally appropriate stimuli,
- using speech samples (for modeling) in a language or dialect that is familiar to the child
- structuring therapy so that skills may be practiced in the contexts that are most relevant to the child's personal experiences.

Direct Intervention:

Stuttering characteristics are usually the same across both languages and therefore bilinguals are most likely to benefit from the same interventions that are used with monolinguals (fluency shaping and stuttering modification techniques). SLPs should be cautious, however, in assuming a transfer of skills between languages. Skill transfer between languages should be monitored in order to ensure generalization from one language to another.

Indirect Intervention:

Direct intervention may not always be appropriate with young children demonstrating stuttering behaviors, or with those who have just started showing signs of stuttering and are likely to demonstrate spontaneous recovery. In these situations, the SLP should provide suggestions to caregivers and teachers on ways to help reduce stuttering severity (e.g. fewer communication demands, instructing communication partners to use a reduce rate of speech, etc.). Perceived causes of stuttering and culturally based remediation ideas should also be discussed with the child's family. SLPs using indirect intervention approaches with families who do not share the language of the SLP should, "explain techniques clearly, and support the parents' efforts without implying that improper parenting techniques have caused the child's problems (Rattner, 2004). Be sure that families understand the disorder – potential causes and ways to help maximize moments of fluency.

Conclusion

Stuttering intervention in bilingual children needs to consider stuttering severity in all languages that the child speaks. Cultural and individual family beliefs about stuttering should be investigated and research-based information should be shared. By using the recommendations included in this handout and reviewing resources available concerning bilingual stuttering, bilingual language-matched SLPs and SLPs who do not share one of the child's primary languages should be well-prepared to treat bilingual children who stutter.

Resources:

Kathard, H. (1998). *Issues of culture and stuttering: A South African perspective*. Paper published for the First International Stuttering Awareness Day online conference. Archived at <http://www.mnsu.edu/comdis/isad/papers/kathard.html>

Lim, V.P.C., Lincoln, M., Chan, Y.K., Onslow, M. (2008). Stuttering in English-Mandarin bilingual speakers: The influence of language dominance on stuttering severity. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research, 51*, 1522-1537.

Ratner, N.B. (2004). Fluency and stuttering in bilingual children. In B. Goldstein, *Bilingual language development and disorders in Spanish-English speakers* (287-308). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

Talk With Me

To The Parents Of Dysfluent Children

Between the ages of 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 6 years, many children have difficulty with fluency of speech. For most children, dysfluency takes the form of easy, whole-word repetitions at the beginning of sentences. They tend to have the most trouble when they are over-tired or over-stimulated.

The following suggestions will help your child become more fluent:

1. Speak slowly and calmly to your child. This will help him/her to become calmer.
2. Do not tell your child to slow down or start over. Instead, provide an example of slower, calmer speech.
3. Let your child know that you understand his/her frustration. "Sometimes it's hard for you to get those words out."
4. Let your child know that you will always listen carefully to him/her.
5. Do not interrupt or correct your child's speech. Rather, make sure that s/he often hears the correct forms of speech when you speak.
6. Set aside one or two fifteen-minute periods each day where you and your child are alone together in some quiet activity. Make sure that you keep your speech slow and calm in these interactions. The focus of these times does not need to be "speech" but simply an important time each day for and your child to share a companionable time together.
7. Because children tend to have more trouble with fluent speech when they are tired or over-stimulated, it is important that they have a consistent daily routine:
 - Preschool children should have a scheduled rest time or quiet time each afternoon.
 - Follow a predictable schedule for bed and meal times.
 - Try to eliminate situations that nearly always are difficult for young children such as weddings, long restaurant meals, concerts, plays, etc.

Carol Henderson, MA CCC
Speech-Language Pathologist

Talk With Me

Spanish

Carta A Los Padres De Niños Tartamudos

Entre los dos y medio y seis años de edad, muchos niños tienen problemas con la tartamudez. Para la mayoría de ellos, esta falta de fluidez en el habla se presenta como repeticiones de palabras enteras al principio de las oraciones. Los niños suelen tener este problema cuando están cansados o sobre estimulados.

Las siguientes sugerencias pueden ayudarle a su hijo a que hable con más fluidez:

1. Hable despacio y calmadamente con su hijo. Esto le ayudará a él o ella sentirse más tranquilo.
2. No le diga a su hijo que hable más despacio o que empiece de nuevo. En lugar de esto, déle un ejemplo de cómo se hable tranquilamente.
3. Hágale saber a su hijo que usted entiende su frustración. Usted le puede decir, "Sé que a veces es difícil para ti decir todas esas palabras."
4. Dígale a su hijo que usted siempre le escuchará con cuidado.
5. No le interrumpa a su hijo ni le corrija su forma de hablar. Más bien, asegúrese de que él o ella escuche las formas más correctas de hablar cuando usted habla.
6. Reserve uno o dos periodos de tiempo al día, de 15 minutos cada uno, en donde usted y su hijo pueden hacer una actividad tranquila juntos. Trate de mantenerse hablando despacio y calmado durante estos momentos. El propósito de estas sesiones no es de practicar el "habla," sino establecer un tiempo importante para que los dos puedan compartir un rato agradable diariamente.
7. Ya que los niños suelen tener más problemas con la fluidez del habla cuando están cansados o sobre estimulados, es importante para ellos tener una rutina consistente todos los días:
 - Los niños de edad preescolar deben dormir una siesta o tener un tiempo de descanso todas las tardes.
 - En su casa debe de haber un horario fijo para las comidas y la hora de acostarse.
 - Trate de evitar o limitar las situaciones que casi siempre son difíciles para los niños pequeños, tales como las bodas, las comidas en restaurante que tardan mucho tiempo, los conciertos, obras de teatro, etc.

Carol Henderson, MA CCC
Terapista de Habla y Lenguaje

Talk With Me

ເງື່ອນໄຂທີ່ມີລູກ ເວົ້າບໍ່ແຈ້ງແຈ້ງ

ແຄໂຣນ ແຮມເດິເຊີມ MA/CCC-Sp

ການເວົ້າ/ພາສາ ແພດໂທໂລຈິສທ

ມີເດັກນ້ອຍ ຈຳນວນຫຼາຍ ຊຶ່ງມີອາຍຸ ຢູ່ໃນລະຫວ່າງ 2 ປີເຖິງ ແລະ 6 ປີ, ມີຄວາມຍຸ້ງຍາກກ່ຽວກັບການເວົ້າບໍ່ແຈ້ງແຈ້ງ. ເປັນການເຫັນ ໄດ້ງ່າຍສຳຮັບເດັກນ້ອຍທີ່ເວົ້າບໍ່ແຈ້ງແຈ້ງຊຶ່ງເຂົາເຈົ້າຈະເວົ້າຊ້າຄວາມເກົ່າເລື້ອຍໆໃນປະໂຫຍກທຳອິດ ເຮັດໃຫ້ມີ ຫຍຸ້ງຍາກຕໍ່ເດັກນ້ອຍທີ່ໄວ້ເວົ້າຊ້າຄວາມເກົ່າຢູ່ເລື້ອຍໆ.

ມີຂໍ້ສະເໜີທີ່ຈະຊ່ວຍໃຫ້ລູກຂອງທ່ານສາມາດເວົ້າໃຫ້ດີຂຶ້ນ ດັ່ງຕໍ່ໄປນີ້

1. ຕ້ອງເວົ້າຊ້າ ແລະເວົ້າຄ່ອຍໆຕໍ່ລູກຂອງທ່ານ ສິ່ງນີ້ຈະຊ່ວຍໃຫ້ເຂົາເຈົ້າໄດ້ເຂົ້າໃຈແຈ້ງຂຶ້ນ
2. ບໍ່ຕ້ອງບອກລູກຂອງທ່ານ, ທ່ານຈະຕ້ອງເວົ້າໃຫ້ຊ້າລົງ, ການເວົ້າຂອງທ່ານກໍ່ໃຫ້ແຈ້ງດີ.
3. ທ່ານ ຈະຕ້ອງບອກລູກຂອງທ່ານໃຫ້ເຂົ້າໃຈກ່ຽວກັບການເວົ້າທີ່ຟັງບໍ່ເຂົ້າໃຈຂອງເຂົາເຈົ້າ "ບາງເທື່ອມັນກໍ່ເປັນການຍາກທີ່ ທ່ານຈະຈັບເອົາຄວາມເວົ້າຂອງເຂົາເຈົ້າໄດ້.
4. ບອກໃຫ້ລູກຂອງທ່ານຮູ້ວ່າທ່ານໄດ້ເອົາໃຈໃສ່ຟັງຄວາມເວົ້າຂອງເຂົາເຈົ້າຢູ່ຕອນຕອນລາ
5. ຫ້າມບໍ່ໃຫ້ລົບກວມຫຼືແປງການເວົ້າຂອງລູກຂອງທ່ານບາງຄັ້ງ, ເວລາທ່ານເວົ້າ ຈະຕ້ອງໃຫ້ລູກຂອງທ່ານຟັງນຳທຸກຄັ້ງ
6. ແຕ່ລະມື້ທ່ານຈະຕ້ອງວາງຕາຕະລາງໄວ້ຄັ້ງລະ 15 ນາທີ ສຳຮັບທ່ານແລະລູກຈະໄດ້ເວົ້າກັນ. ໃນເວລາທີ່ທ່ານຢູ່ຕາມລຳຟັງ ກັບລູກຂອງທ່ານຈະຕ້ອງໄດ້ເວົ້າຊ້າກັນແລະເວົ້າໃຫ້ແຈ້ງແຈ້ງ. ຈຸດໜັບໜຶ່ງແມ່ນແຕ່ສເພາະແຕ່ການເວົ້າເທົ່ານັ້ນ ຍັງເປັນໂອກາດທີ່ທ່ານຈະໄດ້ໂອ້ລົມໃຫ້ຊິດກັບລູກຂອງທ່ານອີກດ້ວຍ.
7. ເປັນເພາະວ່າລູກຂອງທ່ານເບິ່ງຄືກັບວ່າມີຄວາມຫຍຸ້ງຍາກໃນດ້ານການເວົ້າ ເມື່ອເວລາເຂົາເຈົ້າຕ້ອງເວົ້າຊ້າແລະຊ້າອີກ ອັນນີ້ກໍ່ເປັນບັນຫາອັນສຳຄັນຕໍ່ຊີວິດປະຈຳວັນຂອງເຂົາເຈົ້າ.
 - ກ. ສຳຮັບເດັກນ້ອຍທີ່ຈະຕຽມເຂົ້າໂຮງຮຽນຊັ້ນອະນຸບາມນັ້ນສົມຄວນມີເວລາພັກຜ່ອນຫຼືຢູ່ບ່ອນທີ່ງຽບສງົບທຸກໆຕອນບ່າຍ
 - ຂ. ຕິດຕາມນຳເວລານອນ ແລະກິນຢ່າງແຂ້ງແຂ້ງ.
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A-B-Cs of Bridging Home and School Expectations: For Children and Families of Diverse Backgrounds

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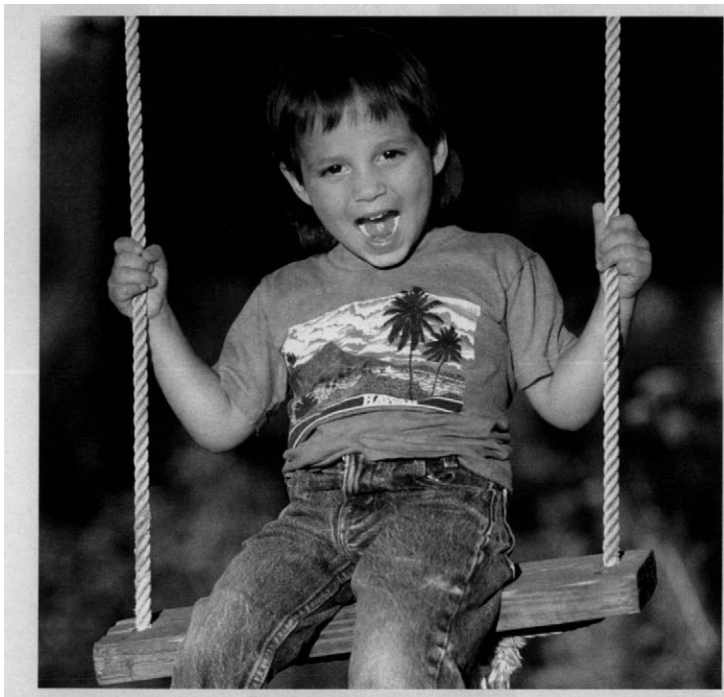
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A-B-Cs of Bridging Home and School Expectations

FOR CHILDREN
AND FAMILIES
OF DIVERSE
BACKGROUNDS

Sebi (short for Sebastian) is Daniel and Elizabeth's only child. Daniel is the first generation in his family to have been born and raised by immigrant parents in the United States. Elizabeth, on the other hand, is a recent immigrant to the US. Daniel and Elizabeth moved to your community soon after Sebi was born. Sebi is now enrolled in your early childhood center for the first time. Currently in his second month in school, you notice that Sebi is having a difficult time adjusting to the classroom routines and activities. Compared to his three- and four-year old peers, Sebi requires more "hand holding" and constant reminding for him to complete his routines and activities. A classroom routine that he seems to be having particular difficulty adjusting to is large group activities like book reading or show and tell. Sebi likes to participate in these activities but only does so by interrupting you or his peers. He has a hard time waiting for his turn to talk. When ignored or reprimanded, Sebi disengages and finds other activities like talking to his peers or fiddling with his clothes. These behaviors are beginning to escalate to the point that Sebi is becoming a disruption during these activities and is removed from the group several times per week.



When talking to Daniel and Elizabeth about your concerns, you discover that at home Sebi is a very different child. His parents mention that Sebi loves being read to and that he loves talking about dinosaurs. To help you better understand the differences in Sebi's behaviors at home and at school, you ask his parents to share with you what they do when they read to Sebi. You also request to visit them at home so you can observe how they interact with Sebi, in hopes that you can find effective ways to interact with him at school.

Not every child comes to school knowing how teachers expect him or her to behave in class. This lack of knowledge can be due to the child's inexperience with group care as well as situations when the family's expectations of their child's behaviors are different from the teacher's expectations. Rosenkoetter (2001) found that at a minimum, preschool teachers expect children to have 24 skills on the first day of class, including listening to others without interrupting, following directions, and sitting on the floor without bothering classmates. Moreover, other national reports describe several skills children need to learn to help them succeed in school, such as the ability to communicate with others, listen attentively to adult instructions, and concentrate on tasks (Bowman, Donovan, & Burns, 2000; National Research Council, 2002; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000).

Differences in acquiring classroom skills can occur because of differing expectations based on children's individual developmental patterns (Black-Donnelan, 2004). For example, children with autism may be allowed a "warm up" time before they are expected to interact with others. Differences in expectations may also occur with families whose cultural and linguistic backgrounds are different from what Barrera, Corso, and Macpherson (2003) refer to as the "EuroAmerican Normative Culture (ENC)" (p. xxi) or what is commonly known as US mainstream culture. Studies show that parents and teachers can have

differences in their expectations about children's behavior (e.g., Aaroe & Nelson, 2000; Edwards, Gandini, & Giovaninni, 1996), which may influence children's understanding and expectations within the classroom (Cazden, 2001; Irvine, 2003; Katz, 2001). In Sebi's example, his difficulties in waiting for his turn to talk may be because his parents promote participation in story telling at home by encouraging him to talk while they read a story. Some children, like Sebi, may not have the "cultural capital" needed to succeed in their school setting.

The purpose of this article is to describe what could happen in the classroom when parents and teachers have differing expectations of children's behaviors. We also describe strategies designed to accommodate these differences. We focus on children from homes that are culturally or linguistically different from the ENC.

Challenges of Differences in Expectations

French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu first conceived the term *cultural capital*. In contemporary literature, cultural capital is defined as funds of knowledge and experience that enable one to understand and negotiate the mainstream culture (Barrera et al., 2003; Kalyanpur & Harry, 1999). In the preschool context, families who have experienced and understand the US school system are better equipped to prepare their children for what to expect within the

school system. While others, not having shared similar experiences and the same knowledge base, may have different expectations from the school system and for their children. Researchers note that children who more closely match teachers' expectations in classroom routines can learn more and become more successful in school (National Research Council, 2002). Moreover, an increase in children's challenging behaviors may also be seen when teachers and children have differences in expectations about routines as children are left with two choices: adapt to teachers' expectations or resist through challenging behavior. Some researchers theorize that these differences can lead both to children being cut short by teachers and children silencing themselves (Corson, 2002). For Sebi, this means that he disengages from the ongoing activity and finds other activities to engage in, such as talking to peers to the point that class is interrupted.

Following is a discussion of the differences in behaviors that may

... [Cultural capital is defined as funds of knowledge and experience that enable one to understand and negotiate the mainstream culture

Researchers note that children who more closely match teachers' expectations in classroom routines can learn more and become more successful in school

stem from contrasting expectations between home and school, particularly when families are from diverse cultures. We also describe strategies teachers can implement in the classroom by first learning to understand and accept children's behavior and, second, by working to improve their own and the children's behaviors. We propose a simple A-B-C approach: *accept, build, and create*, to support classroom teachers and caregivers in their efforts to bridge home and school expectations for young children.

Differences in Communication

Children often talk and behave differently in the classroom as compared to their home environment based on their home and community expectations. Teachers can form better connections with children by implementing specific actions to modify their communication styles in routine classroom behaviors.

Question and Response Task

In most teacher-led class activities, researchers (Mehan, 1979; National Research Council, 2002) found that questions and responses typically follow the format (1) teacher asks a question; (2) one child responds; and (3) the teacher comments on the child's response as in the following example:

Teacher: And what color is the frog's lily pad?

Child: Green.

Teacher: That's right!

However, researchers (e.g., Au & Mason, 1983; Ballenger, 2004; Brice, 2002; Cazden, 2001) suggest that some children may respond differently to questioning or problem-solving tasks. For instance, the norms of some children's communities suggest that they may feel more comfortable responding to teacher questions cooperatively, as in the following example:

Teacher: And what color is the frog's lily pad?

Child 1: Maybe it's got black spots.

Child 2: And they are really big on the lily pad.

Child 3: Green with black spots.

Teacher: That's right!

In this situation, the teacher allowed the children to answer in tandem building on one another's responses. Children's responses may overlap as they jointly construct their answer. This interaction structure tapped into the children's cultural norms and allowed the children to support each other's responses in a way that helps them construct their learning. Brice (2002) suggests that adapting lessons to build

on the language and communication styles children are typically used to in their homes and communities facilitates learning in young children.

Instructional Questions

Another common routine in which some children exhibit differences is in their responses to teachers' instructional questions. For instance, Heath (1982) found that some children have difficulty responding to teachers' information-gathering questions in which objects' descriptions are discussed (e.g., "What shape is that?"). She noted that these kinds of questions are not frequently asked of some children within their cultural community; instead, the children are often asked analogy-style questions (e.g., "What's that like?" "Who's he acting like?"). Thus, some children do not respond as expected to the information-gathering questions used by teachers. Fassler (2003) suggests that this situation is one in which the child and teacher have a mismatch in how they view circumstances due to differences in knowledge and the focus of their attention.

Thus, Heath (1982) found that in some situations when teachers ask analogy-style questions, the intent may be different from that of the child's community members. For example, teachers expect specific comparisons between objects whereas nonspecific responses may be the norm in the child's community. Consequently, a match between the teacher's expected responses and the child's actual responses does not occur.

To illustrate, the following is a dialog between a teacher and a child based on research by Heath (1982):

*Teacher: (pointing to a circle)
What did we say this shape is like? (At this point, the teacher expects the children to respond, "A ball!" which she used earlier as an example.)*

Child: It's like that! (pointing to the wall where a cut-out forms a circular shape)

Teacher: Huh? Oh, I guess that's okay.

Here the child responds correctly by pointing to a circular shape; yet, the teacher appears reluctant to accept this response because it does not match the answer the teacher expected.

Linear vs. Thematic Discussion

Similarly, researchers found that some children participate in other routines in ways that teachers may not predict (National Research Council, 2002). For example, some studies suggest that in large group activities such as show and tell and storytelling, some children do not attend to a topic as teachers may expect (Ballenger, 2004; Fassler, 2003; Griffin, 2004; Michaels, 1981; Nichols, 1989). Some children orient to a theme rather than talking in a linear way about a single object or situation. Children may discuss several topics, which are related to the same theme. Because a topic focus is

... [T]he child responds correctly by pointing to a circular shape; yet, the teacher appears reluctant to accept this response because it does not match the answer the teacher expected.

what most teachers expect when students narrate an event or story, teachers may find it challenging to follow along and help these children expand their stories. Box 1 is a simplified version of a dialog presented by Michaels (1981) in which difficulties occur due to differences in expectations between home and school. Here the teacher explicitly asks Deena to share just one important thing with the class during group sharing time. In response, Deena tells about her coat, yet in a very different way than the teacher expects as indicated by the teacher's later prompts, "I said you could tell one thing ..." and "What's that have to do with your coat?" Clearly, both Deena and the teacher become frustrated. Deena cannot tell a story that the teacher accepts and the teacher has trouble following along. The teacher's range of expected talk does not include Deena's talk, which results in frustration and missed opportunities to learn. However, Deena's storytelling technique is acceptable within her cultural community.

Differences in Behavior

School Routines

Children may also display differences in school behavior routines.

Researchers noted how some children's cultural norms influence their behavior, such as in the ways that they interact physically with one another (Harry & Anderson, 1994; Phillips, 1983). For example, Phillips (1983) found that nonmainstream culture children tend to touch each other more often, such as while waiting in line. Phillips suggested that physical contact is a greater part of these children's communication with peers and is also often used as a way to tease. Yet the teacher may come to believe that these children are not able to follow behavioral routines, such as "Keep your hands and feet to yourself."

Similarly, researchers also found that in some children's homes, social skills are viewed differently (e.g., Edwards et al., 1996). The ways children approach social play and communication, such as the ways they negotiate, take turns, offer to help, avoid fighting and biting by using words, state preferences, give explanations, and assume self-care tasks may also vary considerably from teachers' expectations (Dickinson, 2001; Irvine, 2003; Tabors, 1997). For example, in many Filipino families, the children are expected to resolve differences among themselves. Arguments may ensue but often children are able to negotiate with some prompting from the adults, such as providing suggestions to take turns or threatening to remove a toy. The adults in these situations tend to intervene only when the potential for physical harm is imminent (Santos, 2005).

Box 1

Teacher: Deena, I want you to share one thing that's important, one thing from where you are ...

Deena: Um in the summer I mean w-when um I go back to school I come back to school in September I'm have a new coat and I already got it and it's um got a lot of brown in it and when um and I got it yesterday and when I saw it my um my mother was going somewhere when my when I saw it on the couch and I showed my sister and I was reading something out on the bag and my big sister said my big sister said Deena you have to keep that away from Keisha 'cause that's my baby sister and I said no and I said the plastic bag because um when um sh-when the um she was um with me wait a minute my cousin and her ...

Teacher: Wait a minute, you stick with your coat now. I said you could tell one thing that's important.

Deena: This was about my c-

Teacher: Okay, all right, go on now.

Deena: Yesterday and yesterday when I got my coat my cousin ran outside and he ran to tried to get him and he he he star- an' when he get in-when he got in my house he laid on the floor and I told him to get up because he was cryin'.

Teacher: Mm- What's that have to do with your coat?

Deena: H- he becau- he wanted to go outside but we couldn't. (exasperated)

Teacher: Why?

Deena: 'Cause my mother s- wanted to stay in the house.

Teacher: What does that have to do with your coat?

Deena: Bec- um uh because I don't know.

Teacher: Okay, thank you very much Deena.

(Michaels, 1981, pp. 435-436)

Thus, in the classroom some children may expect to have more time to resolve issues among themselves rather than having the adult jump in quickly to intervene.

Another difference in school behavior occurs in the ways children pay attention to others, particularly to adults. Teachers commonly expect children to

demonstrate that they are paying attention by looking directly at the teacher rather than at peers. Teachers also assume that children will provide behavioral feedback to illustrate that they are paying attention to the teacher. For example, Fassler (2003) reported that many of the children in a multilingual classroom she observed

demonstrated their engagement with the teacher in various ways (e.g., sitting quietly, persistently interacting with the teacher, and performing actions the teacher was describing). Phillips (1983) found that children from some cultures do not use eye contact with teachers in the same way. Instead of orienting to the teacher as generally expected, the children frequently attend to peers. Despite this, the children are, in fact, paying attention overall. Phillips' research also suggests that some children do not frequently utter indicators of attending and understanding, such as "Uh-huh."

Differences in the ways that adults in children's lives regulate children's behaviors have also been reported (Heath, 1982). For example, a common questioning routine in schools is when a teacher asks a child, "Why don't you hang up your coat?" Some children do not respond to such questions because they are not commonly used in their community. However, they do respond to direct statements, such as "Hang up your coat," a more culturally congruent request.

Similarly, Erickson and Mohatt (1982) found that some children respond more readily to less direct means of managing behavior. In this study, children responded more appropriately when a teacher did not directly confront them in large groups, but delayed comments to a more discrete time to talk about inappropriate behavior. In addition, these children responded better when the teacher called on a group of children for a response rather than calling on an

individual child. Moreover, one teacher in the study (whose ethnicity did not match that of the children) used three times as many directives (e.g., “Please, sit down.”) to children as the teacher whose ethnicity was the same as the children. The authors hypothesized that indirect forms of management match better with these children’s ethnic traditions.

What Can Teachers Do?

In this section, we describe strategies teachers can use to address differences between children’s behaviors and classroom expectations. These strategies expand on DEC’s Recommended Practices (Wolery, 2000) and are based on evidence reported in the literature. We describe three major approaches and combine them in a cohesive and simple A-B-C approach. This A-B-C approach is a way to organize the information and help teachers remember the strategies that are effective in bridging home-school expectations for young children and families from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The approach begins with understanding the importance of accepting children’s behavioral norms, building on the way children interact, and creating a new repertoire of skills to help children succeed in the classroom, at home, and in the community.

Accept

It is important that teachers recognize and accept the communication

and behavioral routines that children bring to school (Ballenger, 2004; Fassler, 2003; Irvine, 2003). To do this, teachers can begin by talking to a child’s parent(s) and other family members about routines and specific expected behaviors at home. Teachers might also tap resources outside the child’s home to gather information, such as individuals who can serve as cultural guides or informants. There are many ways to gather information from families and doing so is not always an easy task, particularly when families and teachers do not share similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds (Banks, Santos, & Roof, 2003; Porche, 2001). Describing specific strategies to effectively communicate with families is beyond the scope of this article. However, this lack of description does not preclude the importance of effective communication with families in teachers’ efforts to accept routines and behaviors children bring to school. Table 1 provides a short list of resources that teachers can use to help develop ways to collect information from families that are culturally and linguistically sensitive and appropriate.

Further, when differences in home and school expectations occur, teachers can accept these different behaviors in class. For example, given that some children show that they are paying attention in different ways than a teacher may expect, the teacher can learn to recognize and accept that these children are, in fact, paying attention. Thus, teachers acknowledge the multiple ways

children show their attention, such as through eye contact, nodding their head, following the teacher’s directions (e.g., “Take out your crayons.”), and asking the teacher questions.

To gather more information you ask Daniel and Elizabeth if you can observe Sebi at home. His family invites you to share a meal with them and their extended family. Over dinner you notice that as family members discuss their day, Sebi is attentive and actively shares information about his own day, which at times includes overlapping speech and what some might consider “interruptions.” You realize how meaningful this form of talk is for Sebi and accept his behavior as a way for him to get involved in discussions.

For Sebi, the teacher’s acceptance of his behaviors means that he sometimes may participate by helping other children respond to the teacher’s questions. In Sebi’s case, this is cooperation rather than interruption. Because the goal of any learning activity is for children to acquire new knowledge, the teacher can decide that as long as the children meet the objectives of an activity and their behaviors are not unduly disruptive, they can be accepted.

Table 1

Articles, Books, and Internet Resources on Working With Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Families

Articles	<p>Banks, R., Santos, R. M., & Roof, V. (2003). Discovering family concerns, priorities, and resources: Sensitive family information gathering. <i>Young Exceptional Children</i>, 6(2), 11-19.</p> <p>Boone, H. A., & Crais, E. (1999). Strategies for achieving family-driven assessment and intervention planning. <i>Young Exceptional Children</i>, 3(1), 2-11.</p> <p>Hanson, M. J., Lynch, E. W., & Wayman, K. I. (1990). Honoring the cultural diversity of families when gathering data. <i>Topics in Early Childhood Special Education</i>, 10, 112-131.</p> <p>Hanson, M. J., & Lynch, E. W. (1989). Assessing child and family needs. In M. J. Hanson & E. W. Lynch (Eds.), <i>Early intervention: Implementing child and family services for infants and toddlers who are at-risk or disabled</i> (pp. 130-154). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.</p>
Books	<p>Barrera, I., Corso, R., & Macpherson, D. (2003). <i>Skilled dialogue: Strategies for responding to cultural diversity in early childhood</i>. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.</p> <p>Lynch, E. W., & Hanson, M. (2004). <i>Developing cross-cultural competence: A guide for working with young children and their families</i> (3rd Ed.). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.</p> <p>Tabors, P. O. (1997). <i>One child, two languages: A guide for preschool educators of children learning English as a second language</i>. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.</p> <p>Trumbull, E., Rothstein-Fisch, C., Greenfield, P. M., & Quiroz, B. (2001). <i>Bridging cultures between home and school: A guide for teachers</i>. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.</p>
Internet	<p>Early Childhood Equity Alliance: www.rootsforchange.org</p> <p>Early Childhood Research Institute on Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Services: www.clas.uiuc.edu</p> <p>Orelena Hawks Puckett Institute: www.puckett.org</p> <p>National Center for Early Development and Learning: www.fpg.unc.edu/~ncedl/</p> <p>National Early Childhood Technical Assistance Center: www.nectac.org</p>

Build

It is also important for teachers to build children's communication and behavioral routines into learning activities (Ballenger, 2004; Dyson, 1999; Fassler, 2003; Tabors, 1997). Teachers can begin by reflecting on their own practice to pinpoint differences between their behavior and children's cultural context. Teachers in Heath's (1982) study found that some questions from the children's community were similar to instructional probing questions. To build on the children's community questions, in some activities teachers avoided asking questions about the attributes of objects; instead, they asked community questions like "What's happening here?" Ballenger (2004) and Fassler (2003) also found that by expanding their storytelling activities to include what children bring with them the children became much more responsive because, in part, they were able to draw from their own experiences.

After learning more about Sebi at his home, you choose to build in activities in which children can talk freely as Sebi did with his family. The next day in class, you tell the children that you will read two books that day. While you read the first one, the children can talk freely and work together as they discuss the story. You also explain that when reading the second book, you expect the children to talk one at a time.

Create

A critical step to bridging expectations is to help children learn new skills that they will need to succeed in the classroom (Brice, 2002; Fassler, 2003; Irvine, 2003; National Research Council, 2002; Tabors, 1997). There are multiple ways to teach children new skills as recommended by DEC (Wolery, 2000). The two approaches we present are scaffolding and behavioral momentum. We focus on these two approaches because: (1) they are easily applied in everyday routines and activities; (2) many teachers already know how to use them in other situations; (3) these approaches have been documented as effective; and (4) they may be useful in creating a repertoire of skills that will help bridge expectations between home and school.

Scaffolding

Most children respond to some support to learn new skills. Scaffolding is the most naturalistic teacher intervention and involves informal support for children to accomplish tasks that they may not be able to do independently (Berk, 2000). The teacher works cooperatively with a child on a skill that the child cannot independently complete while keeping the activity at a level of difficulty that is manageable for the child by asking questions, prompting, and suggesting what the child could do next. For example, when a child has trouble standing in line, the teacher observes to what extent the child can wait in line appropriately. If the child has trouble maintaining

distance from other children, the teacher provides prompts about where and how far apart to stand from other children. If this is unsuccessful, the teacher tapes markers to the floor far enough apart that the child learns appropriate distance. Likewise, the teacher demonstrates standing in line with arms by sides and head facing the child directly in front. After a period of time in which the child successfully stands in line, the floor markers are removed and the teacher relies only on verbal prompts when needed. This approach can help children learn classroom expectations that may be different from their community expectations.

Behavioral Momentum

For many children, additional support may be required. Behavioral momentum provides structured support to learn new skills. In behavioral momentum, the teacher attaches a more difficult task to the end of a series of successes within the context of a naturally occurring event or routine (Santos, 2001). The child is then more likely to attempt to follow the final direction or instruction. Specifically, the teacher gives a series of requests or directions that he or she knows the child responds to consistently. These requests, typically a series of three, are followed by a request or direction that the child does not respond to consistently. Some form of praise or reinforcement follows each request or direction. Santos (2001) equates these procedures to a "Simon Says" game

many teachers play in their classroom. For example, to teach children her expectations while standing in line to get ready to go outside, the teacher gives the children a series of directions they can easily follow: "Simon says, walk towards the door," "Simon says, stand by your classmate," "Simon says, put your hands to your side." She then gives them a final direction, "Simon says, find a spot on the line." Each time the children follow all her directions she praises them to reinforce their behavior.

Conclusion

Whether they have disabilities or are developing typically, some children, even those new to group cues, will pick up classroom expectations quite easily and without much support from adults. However, teachers must realize that they cannot simply expect that all children will readily understand all the classroom and school expectations. Researchers recommend the use of direct teaching when children appear to be struggling with understanding classroom expectations (National Research Council, 2002). Thus, as teachers observe that exposure and indirect guidance are not enough for some children, it may be necessary for them to directly teach the children specific behaviors for compliance with specific rules and expectations.

Like Sebi from the vignette, many children do not come to preschool knowing what is expected of them. School success

requires teachers', parents', and children's efforts, especially when children do not have the cultural capital valued at school. If not addressed at school, these differences can result in challenging behavior, which can be translated into fewer opportunities for children to learn. To help typically developing children and those with special needs be successful, particularly in following classroom routines, teachers can follow the A-B-Cs of building bridges between young children's home and school expectations. Accepting, building, and creating opportunities to better link home and school has the potential to contribute to children's success in school.

Notes

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Implementing Positive Behavior Support With Chinese American Families:

Enhancing Cultural Competence



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Abstract: In positive behavior support (PBS) practices, one critical issue involves helping professionals understand and respect the values of families from culturally diverse backgrounds. This article summarizes embedded cultural values of PBS represented in four key features of the PBS process: collaborative partnerships, functional assessment, contextual fit, and meaningful lifestyle outcomes. With acknowledgment of acculturation, the contrast between Chinese cultural values and embedded PBS values is illustrated in the context of implementing PBS for Chinese American families.

Meng is an energetic and intelligent 14-year-old middle school girl. She moved to the United States from China with her family 3 years ago. Meng has attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and occasionally displays problem behaviors, such as sleeping during class and tearing up papers or books. Recently, Meng's teachers have been increasingly concerned that her frequent problem behavior in class impedes her learning progress. After the school counselor talked to her several times, Meng admitted reluctantly that "things" at home cause difficulty for her at school. The school psychologist asked Meng's family to meet with the school's positive behavior support (PBS) team to establish an understanding of Meng's needs and to develop a PBS plan for the school and Meng's home. The family hesitated but agreed to attend. However, when the meeting began, several problems emerged when the family and school personnel revealed different perspectives on understanding and implementing PBS that were rooted in cultural values and beliefs (see Note).

Professionals often work with families from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds when dealing with their children's problem behavior. Culture and context profoundly influence behavior (Chen, Downing, & Peckham-Hardin, 2002; Kalyanpur & Harry, 1999; Lynch & Hanson, 2004). Certain situations and specific cultural values and beliefs determine whether a particular behavior is viewed as appropriate or problematic. Some behaviors that most professionals from the mainstream culture consider un-

conventional or problematic may not be unacceptable or troublesome to families of diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, and vice versa.

PBS is a broad range of systematic, individualized strategies that not only prevent and remediate problem behavior but also achieve important social and learning outcomes (Carr et al., 2002; Horner, 2000). There has been increased use of PBS not just in schools but also in homes and communities (Barry & Singer, 2001; Lucyshyn, Dunlap, & Albin, 2002; Markey, Markey, Quant, Santelli, & Turnbull, 2002).

When using PBS strategies, professionals should recognize that some families have different values and beliefs, child-rearing practices, and behavioral expectations that are inherent in their cultures (Chen, Downing, & Peckham-Hardin, 2002; Lucyshyn, Dunlap, & Albin, 2002). Informed understanding of families from various cultural backgrounds is vital to the success of any intervention, including PBS (Lee, 1996; Lynch & Hanson, 2004).

Moreover, as Lynch and Hanson (2004) noted, professionals who want to work effectively with diverse families need to improve their cross-cultural competence. *Cross-cultural competence* has been defined as "The ability to think, feel, and act in ways that acknowledge, respect, and build upon ethnic, socio-cultural, and linguistic diversity" (Lynch & Hanson, 1993, p. 50). Developing cross-cultural competence consists of three key elements: understanding one's own culture and heritage, learning culture-specific information about families from other

cultures, and applying knowledge and skills to work effectively with families (Lynch & Hanson, 2004). Professionals who want to ensure culturally responsive PBS practices for families from diverse backgrounds must incorporate these elements into their practices.

Remarkably, today's U.S. society is becoming more and more heterogeneous. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2000a), the populations of races other than White or Black have grown dramatically between 1970 and 2000. Asians and Latinos are the two fastest growing racial groups in the United States over recent decades (Hobbs & Stoops, 2002). In particular, Chinese Americans, as the largest Asian subgroup in the United States, have had a significant population growth: by 48%, to a total of nearly 2.5 million in 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000b). Given such dramatically changing demographics, it is imperative for professionals who work with children and families from culturally diverse backgrounds to enhance cultural competence to undertake culturally appropriate PBS practices. To illustrate the important issues of understanding the cultural values embedded in the PBS (i.e., mainstream cultural values) and the specific cultural values of families who have culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, we chose Chinese Americans, one of the fastest growing minority groups in the United States, as the specific focus of this article. The purposes of this article are (a) to synthesize the embedded cultural values of PBS that can enhance professionals' understanding of the essence of PBS, (b) to illustrate Chinese American families' perspectives on PBS in terms of traditional Chinese cultural values and the variation of those cultural values with regard to acculturation, (c) to address the importance of understanding contrasting values of PBS and its applications in the process of implementing PBS in Chinese American families, and (d) to provide recommendations for professionals who work with families of diverse backgrounds in implementing culturally responsive PBS practices.

Understanding Embedded Cultural Values of PBS

Kalyanpur and Harry (1999) pointed out that the values that underpin the value base of special education in the United States are the U.S. mainstream values, which Spindler and Spindler (1990) noted as "equity, individualism, personal choice, and hard work" (p. 8). As a widely used approach in special education practices, PBS is guided by theories and research derived from special education and psychology and tends to reflect mainstream values (Chen, Downing, & Peckham-Hardin, 2002).

In addition, Althen (1988) identified the American values and assumptions as follows:

1. individualism and privacy;
2. equality;
3. informalities;
4. the future, change, and progress;
5. goodness of humanity;
6. time;
7. achievement, action, work, and materialism; and
8. directness and assertiveness.

It is noted that most U.S. mainstream cultural values are embedded in PBS, and the core principles and key attributes of PBS strongly reflect these cultural values.

There is consensus on the core principles and key features of PBS in the literature (Carr et al., 1999; Carr et al., 2002; Horner, 2000; Lucyshyn, Dunlap, & Albin, 2002). Lucyshyn et al. identified a comprehensive set of key features of PBS with families, including collaborative partnerships, family-centered principles, meaningful lifestyle outcomes, functional assessment, multicomponent PBS plans, contextual fit, activity setting as unit of analysis, implementation support, continuous evaluation, and support with humility. We focus on the following four PBS key features as exemplars of the embedded cultural values of PBS: collaborative partnerships, functional assessment, contextual fit, and meaningful lifestyle outcomes (see Table 1).

COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS

An emphasis on families working in partnership with professionals is a core PBS value (Lucyshyn et al., 2002; Turnbull et al., 2002). Building collaborative partnerships refers to establishing a truly respectful, trusting, and reciprocal relationship between professionals and families in carrying out function assessment, designing behavior support plans, and sharing responsibility for PBS implementation. Research has documented that a family-professional partnership is an important component that influences the effectiveness of PBS practices (Hieneman & Dunlap, 2000; Lucyshyn, Albin, & Nixon, 1997; Vaughn, Dunlap, Fox, Clarke, & Bucy, 1997). American mainstream values, such as equality, informality in communication, change, future progress, achievement, directness, and assertiveness are frequently embedded in family-professional partnerships related to designing and implementing PBS.

FUNCTIONAL ASSESSMENT

At the heart of the PBS process is a functional behavioral assessment that identifies the specific relationship between behaviors and circumstances that trigger problem behavior (Horner & Carr, 1997; O'Neill et al., 1997; Reid, 2000; Sugai, Lewis-Palmer, & Hagan-Burke, 1999-2000). The

Table 1. PBS Tenets: Embedded PBS Values Versus Traditional Chinese Cultural Values

Embedded PBS values (Anglo European)	Traditional Chinese cultural values
Collaborative partnership	
Equality (equal partnership) Informality in communication Directness and assertiveness	Filial piety (deferential to authority) Maintenance of harmony (avoid conflict in communication) Family privacy (indirectness)
Functional assessment	
Scientific rationale in viewing disability/problem behavior Individualism (person-centered) Change and progress for the future Action and achievement (usefulness of intervention)	Spiritual rationale in viewing disability (fatalism & religious belief) Promotion of family unit (family-focused) No need for change (focus on past) Suspicion of the usefulness of intervention
Contextual fit	
Equality (focus on everyone in the environment for the problem) Change and progress (focus on ecological change and progress) Action and achievement (democratic discipline)	Promotion of family unit (focus on child's problem) No need to accommodate child Authoritarian discipline
Meaningful lifestyle outcomes	
Individualism (person-centered planning and support systems for better life outcome) Change and progress for the future (focus on long-term life outcome) Work and achievement (work hard to attain material benefits & leisure)	Promotion of family unit (child's career success as family's pride) Maintenance of harmony (family goal outweighs personal goal) Emphasis on education (career success requires sacrificing leisure)

Note. PBS = positive behavioral support.

functional assessment process can disclose information about overall behavior patterns, the conditions that predict occurrences of behavior, and possible reasons for the behavior. Functional assessment is carried out via indirect or direct observation and interview. Results of functional assessment then become the foundation for determining hypotheses to guide individualized behavioral support.

Research has found that problem behavior typically serves a purpose or function: (a) escaping or avoiding non-preferred or aversive demands and tasks, (b) gaining attention, (c) gaining access to a preferred thing, and (d) getting self-stimulation reinforcement (O'Neill et al., 1997; Repp & Horner, 1999). In addition, studies have shown that the function of problem behavior can be understood in a broader sense: problem behavior is a problem of learning (Taylor & Carr, 1992), and problem behavior serves a communicative function (Carr, 1994). Therefore, one important strategy for the behavior support plan is to teach new behaviors and skills, thus making problem behavior irrelevant. Another key strategy is to identify effective ways for individuals with problem behavior to communicate their wants and needs. These features of functional assessment reflect mainstream cultural values in many respects, especially with regard to individualism (e.g., focus on personal choice and needs), change and progress for the future (e.g., control problem behavior and reinforce desirable behavior), time (e.g., efficiency of behavior remediation and

future-oriented prevention), and action and achievement (e.g., remediation of problem behavior is doable and achievable).

CONTEXTUAL FIT

Contextual fit is regarded as the key to ensuring effectiveness of PBS practices in terms of ecological validity (Albin, Lucyshyn, Horner, & Flannery, 1996; Carr, 1997). For conceptual fit to be acceptable, feasible, and sustainable, behavior support plans must be congruent with the individual with problem behavior, all of the people who have implementation roles, and the environmental variables (Albin, Lucyshyn, Horner, & Flannery, 1996; Lucyshyn, Dunlap, & Albin, 2002). This concept of contextual fit acknowledges the necessity of focusing on a problem's context rather than on problem behavior or the individual with the problem behavior. Furthermore, contextual fit requires establishment of responsive environments to facilitate changes in all the behaviors of all relevant persons. So, the focus of PBS assessment and intervention shifts from being directed solely toward the individual's problem behavior to many variables in the environment, including the roles and interactions of families and professionals. Research has demonstrated that PBS is more effective (a) when the environment is reorganized in contrast to when it is not reorganized, and

(b) when significant people in the environment (e.g., educators or family members) change their behaviors rather than when change is expected only from the individual with the problem behavior (Carr et al., 1999).

In addition, contextual fit calls for understanding the cultural and ethnic diversity of families and for intervention to be culturally sensitive and appropriate (Lucyshyn et al., 2002). The beliefs and rationale of emphasizing contextual fit reflect some key U.S. cultural values, such as equality (e.g., focus on the environment instead of on individuals in the matter of problem behavior; responsiveness of PBS implementation to families from diverse backgrounds), change and progress (e.g., focus on ecological change and progress), time (e.g., management and efficiency of future-oriented prevention and intervention), and action and achievement (e.g., action leading to ecological change results in broader achievement).

MEANINGFUL LIFESTYLE OUTCOMES

A fourth central feature of PBS relates to the goal of creating a richer, more meaningful lifestyle for individuals with problem behavior (Carr et al., 2002; Koegel, Koegel, & Dunlap, 1996; Turnbull & Turnbull, 1999). Achieving meaningful lifestyle outcomes refers to improvements in family and peer relationships; home and community activity patterns; and choice (e.g., self-determination) related to preferences and resources of individuals with problem behavior, their family members, and other important people in their social networks (Lucyshyn, Dunlap, & Albin, 2002). The focus on meaningful lifestyle outcomes is not limited to the individual with problem behavior but also takes into account quality of family life, because the problem behavior affects the individual with problem behavior and his or her family (Fox, Vaughn, Dunlap, & Bucy, 1997; Poston et al., 2003). In addition, person-centered planning is strongly suggested as a PBS planning process that promotes meaningful lifestyle outcomes (Harrower, Fox, Dunlap, & Kincaid, 1999; Holburn & Vietze, 2002). The rationale of promoting richer lifestyle outcomes through PBS reflects key U.S. cultural values, including individualism (e.g., person-centered planning and individualized support systems for better life outcome), change and progress for the future (e.g., focus on the long-term life outcome), and work and achievement (e.g., get a job, work hard, and attain material benefits).

Overall, the ideas and rationale associated with the four key features of PBS reflect mainstream U.S. cultural values. Professionals should realize that the principles of defining problem behavior and associated interventions are culturally based (Kalyanpur & Harry, 1999). Professionals also need to be aware of those embedded cultural values of PBS. Furthermore, they must realize that the culturally-based rationale of PBS may be understood differently by families from other cultures.

Chinese American Cultural Values and Perspectives on PBS

As described previously in Meng's case, professionals likely will face difficulties when they begin implementing PBS for children of families from culturally diverse backgrounds. They will discover they need specific information about families from other cultures and reflection on their own PBS-embedded cultural values and those of families from diverse backgrounds. Professionals working with Chinese American families need to understand general Chinese cultural values and the perspectives of Chinese American families concerning PBS (see Table 1).

UNDERSTANDING TRADITIONAL CHINESE CULTURAL VALUES

There is tremendous variation among people of different Asian American groups regarding cultural values and beliefs (Chan & Lee, 2004). Generalizing a set of typical cultural values for Chinese American families is a complex and difficult task, given variation among Chinese American families in terms of the dynamic nature of the acculturation process. However, the literature has noted shared traditional cultural values that reflect Chinese culture (Chan & Lee, 2004; Lee, 1997). This section describes three traditional Chinese cultural values and analyzes the perception of disability and discipline in terms of these values and beliefs.

Although various Chinese cultural values and beliefs have been summarized in the literature (Chan & Lee, 2004; D. Y. E. Ho, 1987; Lee, 1997), researchers agree on the traditional Chinese cultural values. Chan and Lee (2004) noted that these traditional cultural values are rooted in the doctrines and philosophies of Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism.

Promotion of Family Unit

Promoting the family unit rather than individual interests is a significant traditional Chinese value (Chan & Lee, 2004; Lee, 1997). According to Confucian principles, family is the fundamental unit or backbone of a society. The family is also the central focus of an individual's life and generates loyalty, mutual obligation, cooperation, interdependence, and reciprocity. Each individual typically views him- or herself as integral to family oneness and strives consistently to promote the family's welfare, harmony, and reputation (Chan & Lee, 2004). Family-oriented cultural values are manifested in filial piety and family hierarchical structure.

Filial piety has been defined as a simultaneous "mental state and a behavioral code" (Jordan, 1998, p. 271). Underlying components of filial piety include reverence for elders, ancestors, and the past; unquestioning obedience or subordination to parents; and concern for parents' needs

and the desire to please and comfort them (Chan & Lee, 2004). It is believed that children owe their parents and must remain loyal to the parents and the family.

Consistent with the value of filial piety, Chinese families in general embrace a hierarchical, cohesive, patriarchal, and vertical structure characterized by well-defined, highly interdependent roles of family members (Chan, 1986; Chan & Lee, 2004). Traditional Chinese American families are patriarchal because the most powerful person is usually the oldest male (e.g., grandfather or father), and the subsequent authority figure after the oldest male is the oldest female (e.g., grandmother or mother) and then the oldest child (male superseding female; Asian American Heritage, 1995; Lee, 1996). These cultural values are evident in Meng's family:

Meng's grandmother usually has the final say on many important family issues, but her father and mother are also authority figures who make decisions. Meng's grandmother and parents expect Meng to always show respect and obedience to them. The family sets the rule that Meng should be in awe of her grandmother and parents and obey them, even if she disagrees. Meng has a behavior concern at night. She frequently wets the bed, which leads to a cycle of tearing off her clothes and crying for hours. This interrupts Meng's school day dramatically because she is tired and upset due to the previous night's problem. However, Meng's grandmother and parents are very uncomfortable discussing this with teachers and school staff at formal meetings because they believe the issue should be addressed privately within the family to avoid shame.

Maintenance of Harmony

Maintaining harmony is another traditional Chinese cultural value (Chan & Lee, 2004; Lee, 1996). Overall harmony is maintained through an individual's efforts to achieve intrapsychic harmony, interpersonal harmony, and harmony with nature and time (Chan & Lee, 2004). To promote family and social harmony, individuals should avoid direct confrontation, conform to rules of propriety, and recognize and respect (i.e., "give face to") others. Such a middle path virtue is in accordance with Confucian, Buddhist, and Taoist teachings. Cultural behaviors based on these guiding principles that show politeness, tact, and gentleness in interpersonal interactions are highly regarded (Sileo & Prater, 1998). For example, it is common to see Chinese Americans nod their heads habitually when someone is speaking. Nodding is a gesture of acknowledgment and shows general respect. However, nodding does not necessarily indicate agreement with what is being said. The person who nods may have a dissenting point of view. Moreover, to maintain harmony, he or she is not likely to voice an opinion in public. We look to Meng's family to further understand this issue:

In one of Meng's PBS planning meetings, she was invited to attend the meeting along with her parents, the general

education teacher, the counselor, the special education teacher, and the vice-principal. As the meeting facilitator, the school counselor asked Meng to speak first because she thought it would be nice to start with Meng sharing her hopes and dreams for her high school years and after graduation. Meng was very hesitant to speak. She kept looking at her parents and spoke very briefly about her family's goal for her. Meng's parents were silent during the entire meeting. They declined to speak, only nodding their heads and smiling when the counselor asked their opinions. The school counselor later learned from Meng that Meng's parents were upset and offended because the counselor asked Meng to speak first. Meng also mentioned that although her parents felt humiliated, they chose not to speak or react because they wanted to avoid conflict during the meeting.

Emphasis on Education

In Chinese culture, high reverence and social status are conferred on teachers and scholars because they represent the predominant value of education (Chan & Lee, 2004; Leung, 1988). In accordance with Confucian teachings, "Children are ingrained with a lifelong respect for knowledge, wisdom, intelligence, and love of learning" (Chan & Lee, 2004, p. 253). Many Chinese American families uphold this cultural value (Leung, 1988; Min, 1995). Parents believe their primary responsibility is to ensure their children are successful in education. In turn, children are told they should be fully obligated to family through academic achievement. Moreover, academic achievement is regarded as the greatest tribute children can bestow on their parents and family (Chan & Lee, 2004; Leung, 1988). This is evident again in Meng's family:

Meng's parents hope she will enter a prestigious medical school to be trained as a doctor. The family believes that Meng's academic and career success will promote the family welfare and be a source of shared pride among its members. Meng's parents rigidly control her after-school time. They know Meng likes playing piano and volleyball and do not oppose her playing so long as she finishes all her homework and family-assigned extras. But they often require Meng to reserve most of her time for studying. They also realize, however, that Meng will compete for college entrance with other students who also have excellent grades. Therefore, piano and volleyball could help her compete in college admissions.

Negative Perception of Causation of Disability

Some Chinese American families have traditional beliefs about the cause of a disability. They believe their child's disability may be attributed to the mother's failure to follow familial or traditional habits and health-care practices during pregnancy, divine punishment for sins or wrongdoings committed by the parents or their ancestors, or

spirit aspects involving demons, ghosts, or evil spirits (Chan & Lee, 2004; Yalung, 1992). In addition, some Chinese Americans still believe in karma, the concept that the present life is predetermined by good or bad deeds committed in one's previous life. They believe that disability happens to their child due to karma. Meng's family is an example:

Meng's family has great respect for the past and Buddhist beliefs because her grandmother is a faithful follower. Meng's grandmother believes that Meng's nighttime problems may result from something wrong she did in her previous life. Grandmother also believes that helping Meng pursue the middle path and maintain harmony in this life may help alleviate or overcome her problems.

Discipline Through Punishment

Chinese American parents believe that teaching their children to embrace the values and principles of filial piety and harmony is their primary duty (Lee, 1996). Chinese parents control their children persistently by modeling appropriate behaviors and appealing to their sense of duty and obligation. Parents sometimes punish their children's misbehavior by arousing their fear of personal taunt and family shame (Lee, 1997; Uba, 1994). Primary forms of discipline used by Chinese parents are name-calling, teasing, and verbal reprimands (e.g., scolding). Physical punishment is usually considered acceptable (C. K. Ho, 1990). Children are reminded through these forms of discipline that their misbehaviors result not only in their "loss of face" but also disgrace and embarrassment for their family. Some of these discipline practices are evident in Meng's family:

Meng's parents control her after-school time strictly. They supervise Meng's completion of school assignments and extra homework that her tutor assigns. They check Meng's grades and teacher reports frequently. They punish Meng with a double amount of homework if her grades are not satisfactory. Meng feels frustrated in trying to satisfy all of her parents' requirements. She occasionally complains that she has too much homework in comparison with her classmates, who have more leisure time. Meng's father gives her a "cold face" (a stern, reprimanding look) and punishes her by not allowing her to eat dinner with him. Furthermore, Meng's father believes that if he does not spank Meng, she will not grow up to be a good person. Therefore, Meng is spanked when she complains or defies her parents.

Through the example of Meng's family, we have introduced the traditional Chinese cultural values that some Chinese American families hold. However, not all Chinese American families hold these cultural values because there is tremendous variation in Chinese American families' cultural values in terms of the impact of the acculturation process (Chan & Lee, 2004; Chen et al., 2002).

VARIATION IN CHINESE AMERICAN FAMILIES' CULTURAL VALUES

Chinese American families are, to some extent, involved in assimilation (i.e., the process of being Americanized) and acculturation when they are increasingly exposed to U.S. societal norms and mainstream values. As noted by Lee (1996), "There is no one 'typical' Chinese American family" (p. 254). There are many individual family differences; thus, Chinese American families may vary in the cultural values they hold. These families represent a wide range of cultural values—from very traditional to very "Americanized" in terms of acculturation (Lee, 1996).

Leung (1988, cited in Kalyanpur & Harry, 1999) noted that acculturation consists of the following four stages: traditionalism, marginality, biculturalism, and overacculturation. In addressing the issue of cultural conflict in acculturation, Kitano and Maki (1996, cited in Sue & Sue, 1999) pointed out that Asian Americans generally resolve conflicts in one of four ways regarding assimilation and ethnic identity (i.e., retention of custom, values of culture of origin): Type A—high in assimilation, low in ethnic identity; Type B—high in assimilation, high in ethnic identity; Type C—high in ethnic identity, low in assimilation; and Type D—low in assimilation, low in ethnic identity. Type A individuals are entirely Westernized and may hold mainstream values rather than the values of their culture of origin. Type B individuals are bicultural and feel comfortable with embracing the values of either cultural group. Type C individuals are more likely to adhere to the traditional values of their culture of origin, although they are somewhat acculturated. Type D individuals usually feel alienated from both cultures and are in a transitional stage of seeking an identity (Sue & Sue, 1999).

Kitano and Maki's (1996) framework is useful for analyzing the variation in Chinese American families' cultural values. Meng's family members belong to the Type C group because the family still holds all the traditional Chinese cultural values. However, it is important to know there are Chinese American families (e.g., Type A and Type B) who hold cultural values different from those of Meng's family.

In addition, Lynch and Hanson (2004) noted that cultural or ethnic identification is not the sole determinant of one's values, beliefs, and behaviors but is instrumental. Making assumptions about a person's behavior based on a cultural label or stereotypical cultural trait usually leads to inaccurate and inappropriate generalizations. Professionals thus must learn culture-specific information about families from diverse backgrounds while not stereotyping their values.

CONTRAST CULTURAL VALUES IN UNDERSTANDING PBS

When professionals from the mainstream culture work with families of diverse backgrounds, their awareness and

understanding of cultural differences can dramatically influence the way the PBS process is carried out (Chen, Downing, & Peckham-Hardin, 2002). Professionals must realize that contrasting their cultural values and those of the families they serve affects understanding of PBS. We address these contrasting cultural values in the context of PBS, especially those associated with the previously described four key features of PBS: collaborative partnerships, functional assessment, contextual fit, and meaningful lifestyle outcomes.

Collaborative Partnerships

Strengthening collaborative partnerships between professionals and families throughout the PBS process has been increasingly emphasized in the literature (Hieneman & Dunlap, 2000; Turnbull et al., 2002; Vaughn et al., 1997). It is believed that collaborative partnerships are achieved when professionals and families perceive and treat each other as active, equal partners (Turnbull & Turnbull, 2001); however, establishing these partnerships can become a complicated goal that is difficult to achieve.

Research has shown that traditional Asian American families typically depend on professionals' opinions to develop and implement programs for their children's behavioral concerns (Sileo & Prater, 1998). Chinese American families usually do not seek information related to their children's disabilities (Smith & Ryan, 1987). This can be explained by the Chinese values of families as deferential to authority (e.g., educational agency), due to filial piety, and the expectation that experts (e.g., professionals) should provide solutions. In addition, maintaining harmony and peace with others has deep spiritual and historical significance to many Chinese American families (Chan & Lee, 2004). Therefore, the PBS team should not expect a Chinese American family to share ideas that differ from or contradict those of professionals. This proved true in the case of Meng's family:

Meng's family was passive in response to the school's request that they attend PBS team meetings to discuss Meng's problem behavior. The family declined to hold the meeting in their house and showed little interest in attending the meeting at school. The family was reticent during the meeting because they were afraid their opinions could cause disharmony or even conflict. In addition, they were reluctant to share information about Meng and other family members when asked to do so. They were uncomfortable discussing Meng's bedwetting issue in front of strangers because they considered this private information. They were especially concerned that disclosure of Meng's problem would disgrace the whole family. As for Meng's behavioral issues at school, her parents saw no need to seek the opinions of school staff members because they considered the staff to be experts.

Functional Assessment

The key purpose of functional assessment is to understand the nature of problem behavior by identifying the relationship between the behavior and relevant circumstances (Horner & Carr, 1997; O'Neill et al., 1997). For professionals in the mainstream culture who believe in principles and practices based on science, there is no doubt that problem behavior must serve some functions, so interventions should address remediation of problem behavior. However, some Chinese American families may disagree that PBS is necessary and question its application to their child's behavior issues.

Traditional Chinese American families may believe that disability results from a misdeed the child committed in a previous life or from God's punishment (Chan & Lee, 2004). These beliefs create guilt and fatalism and make families suspicious of interventions. Some families conclude that seeking services for their child is pointless (Chen, Downing, & Peckham-Hardin, 2002). Moreover, beliefs about the cause of the child's problem behaviors influence family expectations about their child's behaviors, their goals for their child, and their involvement in PBS. Let us look at Meng's case to further understand this issue:

Meng's family (particularly her grandmother) believed that Meng's bedwetting stemmed from the influence of bad spirits. They believed Meng was being punished in this life for misdeeds she committed in a previous life. The family used a sacred prayer and a special ritual of ancestor worship to treat Meng's problem. They did not seem to understand why the school wanted to engage Meng and her family in the PBS process. In their hearts, they did not think Meng's nighttime behavioral issue was a serious problem to be addressed by so-called intervention strategies.

Contextual Fit

PBS focuses on ecological validity, which attends to (a) how interventions are relevant as a natural part of a child's and his or her family's routine life and (b) how changes in children's problem behavior and family context become sustainable (Albin et al., 1996; Carr et al., 2002). Professionals believe they must help change the family context to address the child's problem behavior. In other words, professionals focus on problem contexts rather than on the child per se. Professionals also believe that family involvement in PBS implementation is crucial to effective interventions.

Professionals and Chinese American families may appear to have common beliefs about the importance of the family unit, but such agreement may not always occur. From a professional's viewpoint, all of the people in the family context (including parents) need to change their behaviors to accommodate their child's needs. In Chinese American families with a hierarchical structure, parents

tend not to accept the idea that they need to accommodate their child. They believe that the child is the only one whose behavior must change to meet family requirements and maintain family harmony. They also think that discipline is the right path to reach those goals. Chinese American families select different behaviors to encourage and discourage in their children. Their ways of disciplining their children sometimes differ from those of the mainstream culture (Chan & Lee, 2004; Lee, 1996, 1997). For example, physical punishment or other types of punishments commonly used in Chinese American families may be considered abusive by professionals in the mainstream culture. In addition, the ways in which Chinese American families discipline their children can dramatically influence their involvement in planning and implementing PBS and the effectiveness of interventions. Meng's family illustrates this issue:

Meng's parents had difficulty understanding the PBS team's idea that everyone in the family should make changes to accommodate Meng's needs, if necessary. The family also did not seem to accept the idea that they should play a role in planning and implementing PBS in relation to Meng's behavior at home and in school. Meng's parents were unhappy with PBS team members who asked them to describe their discipline practices toward Meng. The parents knew they had restrictive control of Meng's after-school time and used punishment in a variety of ways. But they thought their discipline was appropriate and efficient in regulating Meng in order to achieve family goals.

Meaningful Lifestyle Outcomes

An important PBS goal in addition to the remediation of problem behavior is to help children with problem behavior achieve richer and more meaningful lifestyle outcomes (Carr et al., 2002). Remediation of children's problem behavior is not believed to be sufficient, and the ultimate goal of PBS is to help children with problem behavior live a better life. Although the PBS process acknowledges the influence of family context, many essential PBS features reflect its grounding in a person-centered philosophy (Koegel, Koegel, & Dunlap, 1996). For instance, person-centered planning is commonly used in the PBS process to help design the support plan for achieving children's meaningful lifestyle outcomes (Kincaid, 1996). As noted, the voices of children with problem behavior should be heard in this approach. They should be asked to share their hopes, desires, and dreams for the future.

However, embedded PBS values of individualism and equality may contradict traditional Chinese American cultural values of promoting the family unit and maintaining harmony. Some Chinese American families consider it inappropriate or offensive to ask a child to speak without the

parents speaking first (Lee, 1996). In Chinese American families with a hierarchical structure, grandparents or parents speak on behalf of their children. They believe that cohesion and preservation of the family unit, rather than an individual member's goals and desires, should be prioritized. They want to make sure that family goals override individual goals if there are differences. In addition, families may define meaningful lifestyle outcomes differently, depending on their own values and beliefs (Kalyanpur & Harry, 1999). The definition of "typical" U.S. mainstream quality of life may differ from the perception of Chinese American families. Let us look to Meng's family as an example:

When Meng's family started participating in development of the PBS plan with the PBS team, the issue of how to define more meaningful lifestyle outcomes for Meng emerged. The special education teacher saw friendship development as very important to Meng's future and thought that Meng should spend more after-school time with her peers (e.g., socializing at a youth club, participating in group study, playing sports). Most team members believed that Meng would be much happier if she were able to have some control over her after-school time. Meng's family did not disagree that developing friendships is important. They insisted, however, that Meng was obligated to use her after-school time for her family commitment. Her personal desires should be subordinated to the family goal. Meng's family hopes she will enter a prestigious medical school and then become a doctor. They believe that a prestigious career for Meng will not only glorify the family but also would be the utmost achievement in her life. Therefore, the sacrifice of Meng's leisure and personal enjoyment is the necessary price paid for future career success.

It is important for professionals working with Chinese American families to realize there are contrasting cultural values related to PBS. However, we caution against overgeneralization about what we have just described.

Implementing Culturally Responsive PBS

As addressed by Lynch and Hanson (2004), the most important step in cross-cultural competence development is for professionals to apply knowledge and skills in the process of working with families after the professionals have reinforced self-awareness of their own cultural values and obtained knowledge about other cultures. Such a step is critical for professionals who want to work effectively with culturally diverse families in PBS. Using Meng's family as an example, we address the complex interaction of different cultural perspectives between professionals and Meng's family in relation to the four key PBS features: col-

laborative partnerships between families and professionals, functional assessment, contextual fit, and meaningful lifestyle outcomes.

COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS

The school's PBS team had difficulty collaborating with Meng's family through formal meetings that involved the PBS process. The PBS team realized that asking Meng's parents questions and soliciting discussion at meetings was inappropriate for obtaining information about the family's concerns about Meng's behavior and its contextual influences. Interactions at the meetings were limited, and the PBS team realized that Meng's family resisted collaboration. Lack of trust between the family and the team was evident. After brainstorming, the PBS team decided to try informal contacts (e.g., phone calls, home visits) instead of formal planning meetings. The PBS team asked a Chinese American music teacher in Meng's school to be facilitator for the PBS team. The teacher not only facilitated learning and discussions about Chinese cultural values within the team but also made phone calls to Meng's family. The PBS team also asked for help from a Chinese American professor in the community who is a good and respected friend of Meng's family. The professor accompanied the PBS team to Meng's home for visits. Through the phone calls and home visits, the PBS team built a rapport with Meng's family and started learning about their preferences, ways of sharing information, and opinions.

After analyzing cultural differences, the PBS team adjusted their communication style to accommodate Meng's family. The team found that trust was established gradually, along with their increasing understanding of and effective communication with the family. Furthermore, the team did not emphasize that Meng's family needed to be in an equal partner role, given their specific cultural values and beliefs. With these accommodations, the team realized they had earned more collaboration from Meng's family. In addition, with the Chinese American professor's facilitation, the team tried to discuss options for conducting the PBS process for Meng at home and in school with the family. When the family began accepting PBS, the team moved on, calling for more family involvement by explaining the family's unique and essential role in the PBS process.

The important message the team learned through such a culturally reciprocal building process was that time and respect are essential in establishing mutual trust and collaborative relationships between people of two distinct cultures. Over time, the family became more familiar with and open to the team so that the team could begin to learn more about the family and Meng. By showing respect to the family, the team could begin developing a trusting relationship with family members, and the family members became willing to share some of their information.

FUNCTIONAL ASSESSMENT

The PBS team encountered significant reluctance from Meng's family regarding the appropriateness of a formal functional assessment of Meng. Not only did the family have very different perspectives as to the cause of Meng's nighttime problem behavior, they also disagreed that functional assessment was necessary and appropriate. Moreover, the team found it especially difficult to use formal interviews and direct observations to get personal information from family members. The team brainstormed about possible solutions and decided to focus on helping the family understand the scientific view of problem behavior as the basis for determining the necessity of using PBS to address Meng's problem behavior.

The team asked the Chinese American professor to facilitate their conversations about PBS with Meng's family. The professor suggested the team consider not negating the family's belief in spiritual treatment for Meng's problem. She also suggested that the team focus on their concern for Meng's learning issues resulting from her classroom problem behavior. The professor knew Meng's family cared very much about Meng's education, especially about her academic performance.

Interestingly, Meng's family jumped on board quickly when the team sought to focus their conversations on Meng's learning issues. Meng's parents told team members that they were concerned about Meng's regression in her grades and of their hope that the team could help find the solution. With the professor's suggestion, Meng's parents allowed Meng to participate in conversations and share her experiences about her classroom problem behavior. To her parents' surprise, Meng, whom her parents called a "lazy girl," told everybody she could not help falling asleep in class if she had experienced difficulty the night before. Team members realized that lack of sleep, which was the consequence of Meng's nighttime problem, was likely the primary cause (i.e., setting event/antecedent) of Meng's classroom problem behavior, and they sought agreement from Meng's grandmother and parents about their assessment. The family recognized that Meng's nighttime problem was related to her classroom problem behavior and agreed that solving Meng's nighttime problem was very important. To understand the cause of Meng's nighttime problem, one team member, together with the music teacher, conducted informal interviews with Meng and her parents during a home visit, given Meng's family's concerns about disclosing family information. Again, Meng parents allowed her to speak of her experiences. Meng said she usually wet the bed during nightmares. When she woke up and realized what happened, Meng always felt shameful, then cried and tore her clothes or other nearby objects. Meng also mentioned that she used to have nightmares when she was feeling stressed about her extra home as-

signments and frustrated that she could not satisfy her parents, although she studied “all the time.”

The team listened to Meng’s grandmother and parents about their views on Meng’s nighttime problem. Although the team disagreed with them, the team did not try to negate Meng’s family’s current practice of spiritual treatment. The team decided to incorporate Meng’s night prayer into the PBS plan. However, they kept urging the family to consider incorporating PBS within their current practice. The family agreed to discuss PBS strategies that could be applicable to Meng at home. The team strongly recommended the family allow Meng to have time to relax prior to going to bed (e.g., listening to music, watching TV, doing some physical exercise). They also suggested that Meng’s parents take Meng to a physician for a kidney examination. Furthermore, they also recommended that the grandmother give Meng a Chinese herbal soup (i.e., a nutritional soup made by Meng’s grandmother) early in the evening rather than just before bedtime. A clean sheet and pajamas should be put on a chair next to Meng’s bed so Meng could change the sheet and pajamas quickly and go back to sleep if she wet the bed.

The team learned another important lesson about conducting functional assessment with Meng’s family. The key message is that achieving the goal of a culturally responsive PBS intervention in Chinese American families such as Meng’s may require PBS professionals to incorporate a nonscientific interpretation of the causes of problem behavior along with traditional, culturally appropriate interventions linked to this interpretation. Doing so can help build trust and a spirit of reciprocity with the family. This may contribute to the family’s understanding of and support for new ideas about how to help their child at home and in school.

CONTEXTUAL FIT

In studying Meng’s parents’ discipline practices, the team became concerned about how discipline could affect PBS implementation. Despite opposing the punishment practices of Meng’s parents, the team did not directly criticize her parents or make judgments about their practices. The team had several conversations with Meng’s grandmother and parents to express their concern about punishment. The team also discussed how punishment could lead to negative consequences for the family. They did not ask the family to give up all of their current discipline practices, but the team shared information with Meng’s family about alternative discipline strategies. They persuaded the family to stop using a dinner time-out for Meng because of its effect on Meng’s nighttime problem when she had to eat a later dinner closer to bedtime. They also recommended Meng’s parents not use extra homework as punishment, because it often resulted in Meng not getting sufficient

sleep. Meng’s parents considered the team’s suggestions seriously and expressed interest in knowing how team members disciplined their own children.

The key message is that Chinese American families may practice traditional discipline options that seem unacceptable to professionals from the mainstream culture. Professionals need to be aware of such differences and avoid making an easy judgment. Professionals and families should discuss the ways family members can be comfortable using discipline. By doing so, professionals can build trust and reciprocal relationships with families for effective PBS implementation.

MEANINGFUL LIFESTYLE OUTCOMES

The PBS team realized that the family had a view of meaningful lifestyle outcomes for Meng that differed from theirs. The team understood that Meng’s family had exceedingly high expectations for Meng to be successful in education. They also realized that Meng’s family had a distinctive view of the importance of Meng’s personal life enjoyment. The team avoided arguing with Meng’s family about their point that Meng must sacrifice personal enjoyment to achieve the family’s goal. Team members decided to address this issue in a different manner. They discussed with Meng’s family the possibility of making a better balance of Meng’s after-school time arrangement. They reminded Meng’s parents of Meng’s stress and frustration related to the pressure of their high expectations for homework and how this may have been related to Meng’s nighttime problem. The team made it clear they supported Meng in achieving her family’s goal. But the team also made a point well taken by Meng’s family: Meng could have a *richer, more pleasant* life as she pursues her family’s goal. Meng’s family and the team discussed their suggestions concerning the arrangement of Meng’s after-school time. They agreed to let Meng attend a study group at her classmates’ homes and sing in a community children’s choir.

The key message is that professionals should acknowledge that Chinese American families have different views of meaningful lifestyle outcomes in terms of their cultural values and beliefs. Professionals should respect Chinese American family values and beliefs regarding prioritizing family rather than individual goals. Professionals also should take into account family expectations and priorities for their children by incorporating expectations and goals the family considers important into the PBS plan to help enhance family quality of life.

SUMMARY

Working with Chinese American families to carry out effective PBS is challenging. Knowing only PBS concepts,

procedures, and techniques is insufficient for professionals trying to carry out culturally responsive PBS. To ensure culturally responsive PBS practices, professionals need a clear understanding of the embedded cultural values of PBS. They also need cultural-specific knowledge about families from diverse backgrounds and must acknowledge variation in cultural values among families. Beyond that, professionals need to be motivated to engage in a continuous process to apply their knowledge and skills and simultaneously involve themselves in new learning (Lynch & Hanson, 2004). Meng's case demonstrates that integrating

these important steps and strategies into the PBS process has improved Meng's problem behavior and enhanced her and her family's quality of life.

Meng has significantly overcome her problem behaviors at school and home. Although she occasionally wets the bed, Meng no longer has subsequent problem behavior because she follows specific steps that help her go back to sleep quickly. In school, Meng is now performing well without reoccurrence of the problem behavior. Her grades are rising, and Meng's family is very happy with her progress. In addition, Meng spends more after-school time in different activities. She went to the study group and made more friends. She became a leader in the community children's choir. Her family was very proud of her when she sang a solo at a community performance.

Stage 1: Prior to beginning the PBS process

- Be reflective about your own cultural values and beliefs
- Understand the embedded cultural values of PBS
- Learn the roles of family members and the family structure
- Understand families' tendency to not dispute or actively disagree
- Learn the family's expectations for the child's behavior and learning goals
- Understand family members' suspicion of intervention in terms of their perception of disability
- Learn the family's discipline practices
- Understand the family's reluctance to share personal and family information
- Learn the family's nonverbal communication style

Stage 2: When conducting functional assessment and developing PBS plans

- Take time to build trust and rapport with the family
- Use a mediator (e.g., family friends) to help build up trusting relationships
- Understand the family's different perspectives on PBS
- Be aware of the family's slow and passive involvement in the process
- Do not make quick judgments on the family's perspectives of PBS
- Try to identify existing or potential natural supports and resources
- Try to identify potential sources of possible conflict
- Be honest about misunderstandings or disagreements with the family
- Be confident in showing your expertise in problem solving
- Understand that a family takes time to make decisions

Stage 3: When implementing and sustaining PBS interventions

- Develop broader supports for the whole family rather than just for the individual with the problem behavior
- Listen to the family's opinion of what is or is not working and what is helpful
- Respond to family's questions about progress and problems
- Make sure that you and the family have the same goals
- Understand that development of cultural reciprocity requires time and persistence

Figure 1. Tips for professionals who work with culturally diverse families in the PBS process.

Future Recommendations

PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS

Useful strategies and tips exist to help guide professionals' PBS practices when working with families from culturally diverse backgrounds. Researchers have recommended various strategies to be employed in the PBS process (Chen et al., 2002; Griggs & Turnbull, 2001; Santarelli, Koegel, Casas, & Koegel, 2001; Sheridan, 2000). Some of these strategies have proven effective in PBS practices for Chinese American families. Figure 1 summarizes tips for professionals who want to provide culturally responsive PBS. Among those strategies and tips, key points are as follows: (a) understand your own cultural values and beliefs and the embedded cultural values of PBS, (b) understand families' perspectives on PBS in terms of their cultural values within the context of their daily family routines and activities, and (c) build trusting, respectful partnerships with families throughout the PBS process. Although the tips are synthesized in a generic way, professionals should acknowledge a caveat with respect to the limitation of the generalizability and applicability of these tips.

RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

It is our belief that the field should acknowledge the significance of and expect increasing endeavors in studying cultural competence and PBS interventions with culturally diverse families in the future. Considering that the literature lacks both conceptual discussion and sufficient empirical studies with respect to "cultural fit" PBS practices, we envision an array of topics and issues that deserve further inquiry. First, along the same line as in this study, future research should expand the focus on the following:

- conducting qualitative inquiry with PBS researchers to delineate the values embedded in PBS for the purpose of providing more precise

and comprehensive analysis than we have been able to do in this article;

- conducting qualitative inquiry with Chinese American families who represent the full range of acculturation to more fully understand their cultural values related to PBS and other educational interventions;
- conducting qualitative inquiry with families from other ethnic groups within Asian cultures, as well as with families from other racial groups, related to their agreement/disagreement with PBS values and the identification of their core cultural values.

Second, quantitative inquiry should also be conducted to further analyze the embedded PBS values as well as to examine and evaluate the effectiveness of culturally responsive PBS practices with families from different racial/ethnic groups. In this regard, the future studies can aim to

- develop a survey on the basis of qualitative data analyses to administer to a larger number of researchers, practitioners, and families concerning their agreement and disagreement with the embedded PBS values;
- develop procedures for incorporating this survey into the functional assessment process to identify the extent to which each family (and other members of the PBS team) adhere to and differ in their beliefs regarding embedded PBS values;
- conduct multiple single-subject-design case studies to examine the effectiveness of culturally responsive PBS practices with families from different racial/ethnic groups.

Last, but not least, some practical issues in the process of implementing culturally appropriate PBS need to be examined. For instance, it will be interesting to compare and contrast the use of different negotiation/problem-solving models within team decision-making settings that can be used to reach consensus when there are differences and even clashes in cultural values among team members, especially differences between professionals and families.

Gallimore (1999) pointed out that it is a permanent journey for professionals to discover where they have to make persistent efforts to seek a more sophisticated and sensitive understanding of the role of culture in their personal and professional lives and in the lives of those they serve. Furthermore, the question of how development of professionals' cross-cultural competence can be integrated into PBS practices for diverse families to result in "cultural-fit PBS" is not yet fully answered and deserves further exploration. The journey of discovery is arduous and requires professionals' commitment to inquiry, application, and reflection.

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NOTE

Rather than being a case study of a single individual, the vignettes about Meng and her family are an amalgamation of PBS implementation with several different individuals. Our intent is to be as fully illustrative as possible of the major cultural considerations.

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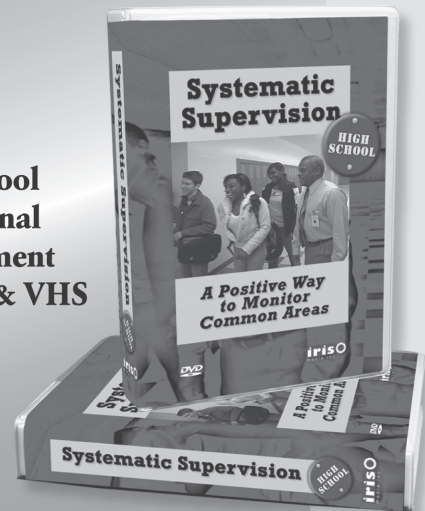
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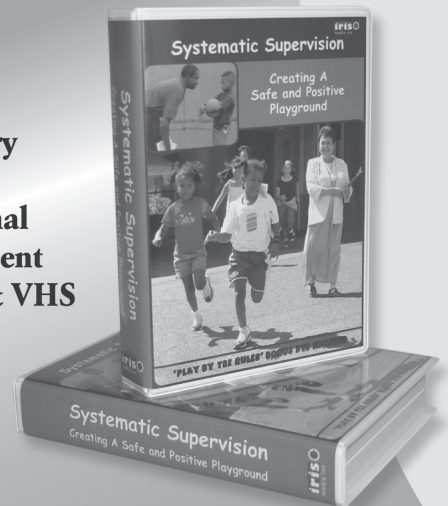
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EDITOR'S NOTE: *The Forum section of the Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions provides for an exchange of opinions, perspectives, ideas, and informative personal accounts. We welcome brief articles from family members, professionals, friends, advocates, administrators, researchers, and other individuals who are concerned with behavioral support issues. The purpose of the Forum is to facilitate a constructive dialog among our many stakeholders regarding important issues in practice, research, training, program development and policy.*

In this issue, the Forum section contains a description of a parent education program authored by Santarelli, Koegel, Casas, and Koegel. The discussion focuses on cultural diversity and raises extremely important issues regarding cultural sensitivity and cultural competence. We believe that our field needs greater attention to these issues, and we encourage additional submissions that will help us ensure that our efforts in the realm of positive behavior support are responsive to all of the children and families comprising our increasingly diverse society.

Culturally Diverse Families Participating in Behavior Therapy Parent Education Programs for Children with Developmental Disabilities



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This article discusses the importance of considering cultural and socioeconomic variables in the development of parent education programs for culturally diverse families. Specifically, the development of behavior intervention techniques, ecocultural theory (Gallimore, Weisner, Bernheimer, Guthrie, & Nihira, 1993), and the concepts of "goodness of fit" (Bailey et al., 1990) and "contextual fit" (Albin, Lucyshyn, Horner, & Flannery, 1996) will be discussed in terms of developing culturally and linguistically sensitive treatment plans for children and families.

The importance of understanding the "ecology" of the family when developing support programs for families of children with disabilities is not a new idea in the literature. Ecocultural theory, a concept discussed in Gallimore et al. (1993), suggests that an analysis of a family's activities and

daily routines provides a window into the family's ecology, which is an essential component in the development of a behavioral support program. Bailey et al. (1990) used the "goodness of fit" framework to describe the match between early intervention support and the individual characteristics of the children and their families. Lucyshyn and Albin (1993) highlighted the importance of "keeping it friendly" when providing comprehensive support to families of children with disabilities and behavior problems: "The family-friendly features of the process, such as honoring the family's perspective and collaboratively agreeing on goals, interventions, and support strategies, make it easier for families to adopt positive behavioral support in the home and local community" (p. 404). Albin et al. (1996) extended the idea of a good "contextual" fit to include not

only work with families, but behavioral support in the schools, home, work, and other community contexts. Lucyshyn, Nixon, Glang, and Cooley, (1996) emphasized the importance of understanding ecocultural influences on the family when providing support services and ensuring the "goodness of fit between the support plan and family ecology" (p. 105). Albin et al. (1996) suggested a support plan with good contextual fit: (a) is responsive to the values and goals of plan implementers, (b) uses the experience, knowledge and skills these people bring to the implementation environment, and (c) is compatible with the typical routines and daily activities that characterize implementation environments and contribute to their uniqueness.

Forehand and Kotchick (1996), however, asserted that "the influence of cultural values on parenting behavior has been ignored in behavior therapy research" (p. 187). Although the effect of "contextual variables," such as maternal depression and divorce, on the ecology of the family have been documented (Forehand & Wierson 1993; Patterson, Capaldi, & Bank 1991), Forehand and Kotchick (1996) suggested that "behavior therapists have traditionally stopped short of culture and ethnicity in their conceptualization of parenting behavior" (p. 189). Additionally, Forehand and Kotchick proposed that "parent training programs have been developed and evaluated primarily with children from European American backgrounds" (p. 190). The values of children and families from European American backgrounds may differ significantly from the values of culturally diverse children and families, potentially rendering such parent education programs less effective.

It is our contention that considering cultural and socioeconomic variables within a family's ecology is a logical additional criterion for creating a behavioral intervention parent education program with "good contextual fit". Some preliminary work in our center suggests that there may be a number of cultural variables that influence, for example, Latino families' perceptions of the availability of services. One concern regarded language barriers. Although many services are provided in Spanish, many Latino families felt that they would have to access these services through a variety of agencies that may not speak Spanish. Also, many of the Latino families had strong social support networks (often extended families) and did not feel the need for specialized services that may address these issues. Others have suggested that some cultures may not perceive the presence of a "disability" in a negative light and therefore may experience less of a need or urgency for intervention. In addition, many agencies and insurance companies may not willingly provide services. Some families may not question a perceived "authoritarian figure," which may be necessary in some cases to access services.

It is also important to consider potential barriers to service related to a family's socioeconomic status. For ex-

ample, some families in our clinic did not own or have access to a car and the location of clinical services were often some distance from their residence. Although bus services were available, families often had to transfer from one bus to another at least once, which may be quite burdensome with a child with a disability.

Another significant area to explore when working with families from diverse cultural backgrounds relates to our own cultural identities. As researchers and practitioners in this country, we have perhaps grown accustomed to the European American norms established in our society. When the culture of the client and practitioner do not match, cultural dissonance can occur, creating yet another barrier to appropriate and effective interventions. For effective intervention plans and positive outcomes, it is important to analyze the effect our own biases and the assumptions our own culturally bound norms can have on our work (Harry, 1992).

In light of these and other variables, the Autism Research and Training Center at the University of California, Santa Barbara, began a clinical outreach program to culturally diverse families who have children with autism who were eligible for state-funded services for severe disabilities, but were not receiving these services. Below is a typical case history.

José, a 6-year-old Latino boy with a diagnosis of autism, was referred for a parent education program through a state agency. José displayed language delays and severe problem behaviors, including noncompliance, aggressiveness towards his 2-year-old sister and other members of the family, and a lack of social skills. When the initial contact was made with the child's mother, she expressed a number of concerns about beginning services with our center. First, she discussed the fact that both parents spoke very limited English and that Spanish was the primary language spoken in the home. While she wanted José to learn as much English as possible, she expressed concerns regarding her ability to work with him given her limited English. Second, the family was concerned regarding their ability to participate in our Center's program given factors related to their lower socioeconomic status. For example, the family did not own or have access to a car, and they could not afford to take the bus very often. They generally walked everywhere. Our clinic, however, is located about 8 miles from the family home. In addition, while José's mother did not work outside the home, financial necessity required José's father to work in construction from 6:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. José's mother requested that the father, as the head of the household, be present during most if not all parent education sessions.

In keeping with contextual fit theory, a program was created that would break down the potential barriers to the provision of services by our clinic (including barriers related to culture and socioeconomic status). First, the family was contacted by a Spanish-speaking clinician and was

assured that the services would be provided in the native language of the family. This is consistent with findings in the literature that point to the importance of shared language between clinician and client (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994). Second, the parent education sessions were provided in the family home. These sessions were videotaped for later supervision. In addition to solving the logistical problems for this family, intervention in the home setting is often recommended in the literature as an "ideal setting" for family-based intervention services for culturally diverse families (Wayman, Lynch & Hanson, 1991). Finally, to ensure participation of both parents, we scheduled our parent education sessions in the early evening when both parents were present and available. After intervention began, it became clear that in addition to a younger sibling, José shared his home with an extended family including two aunts and one uncle. Because these individuals interacted with him frequently, they were incorporated into the intervention sessions as well. This is consistent with the literature that emphasizes the importance of understanding the role of the family as well as the extended family (McDermott, 2001; Casas, 1976). In addition, this increased the likelihood that the procedures would be implemented consistently across all individuals in the home setting.

During intervention, other issues arose that were not directly addressed by the family, but related to individual family ecology and needs. For example, the family, originally from Mexico, had been living in the United States for a short time. Each parent had received only a few years of grammar school instruction in Mexico, and read and wrote at a grammar school level. Although our parent education manuals have been translated into Spanish (Koegel et al., 1989), the family was unable to read them. This situation was discussed with the family with great sensitivity, and the family provided input as to what they felt would work best with them in terms of written material. In order to provide this information to the family, the main points of the parent education manuals were rewritten in very basic terms in Spanish and described in detail verbally, rather than orthographically. Interestingly, the family chose to hang these points on their refrigerator.

Related to the above point, another method currently being investigated in the literature is the dissemination of intervention practices through the *fotonovela*. A *fotonovela* is print form of a drama told in captioned black and white photographs. The characters and storied depicted in the *fotonovela* provide symbols that can educate and instruct in a simple, easy-to-follow format. *Fotonovelas* are used throughout Central and South America to educate Spanish-speaking individuals on many different health issues, including alcohol abuse prevention, HIV/AIDS, domestic violence, diabetes, prenatal and early intervention, and aging. In fact, at our university, researchers in the Graduate School of Education developed a *fotonovela* entitled *Sí Se Puede!* ("You Can Do It!") which successfully en-

couraged parental participation in the schools (Casas & Furlong, 1991). José's family did, in fact, complete our clinic's parent education program. A few months after the completion of the program, this article's first author bumped into José, his parents, and younger sister at a local shopping mall. José approached the author, and without prompting, stated "¡Hola Graciela! ¡Mira mi juguete nuevo! ¡Mamá me lo compró porque fui bueno esta semana!" ("Hi Graciela! Look at my new toy! Mom bought it for me because I was good this week!"). The author was pleased not only with José's socially appropriate greeting but with the joy on his mother's face as she described how the number of José's inappropriate behaviors had remained low during the few months after the conclusion of the parent education program.

Summary

This representative example of a parent education program suggests important points to consider when working with families of children with disabilities from diverse cultures. First, there appears to be an important need to become familiar with the cultural values and unique circumstances of each family prior to planning an intervention program. Second, as suggested by Albin et al. (1996), there is an important need to involve families in every step of the process, during both planning and implementation. By actively involving the family members, the likelihood that culturally sensitive intervention plans are developed will increase. In addition, when intervention plans are developed that consider the families' values, priorities and unique individual characteristics, there is a much greater likelihood that goals will be implemented on an on-going basis and maintained over time. Finally, whenever possible, "member checking," or verifying the appropriateness of the treatment methodology with informed members of the same cultural group, is likely to allow interventionists to become familiar with the specific culture of the families with whom we work. This may include conducting a literature review, interviewing individuals who represent the particular cultural group on current practices, or whenever possible, selecting interventionists who are familiar with the culture.

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Action Editor: Glen Dunlap

Appendix 400-Books in Spanish Based on Themes

Books I like to read in class

Recommended by LeAnn Taylor, bilingual SLP

Spanish Title	English Title	Theme	Author Last
Un Gorila	One Gorilla	Counting	Morozumi
David va al colegio	David Goes to School	School actions	Shannon
Veloz como un grillo	Quick as a Cricket	Opposites/Adjectives	Wood
Mi mamá es fantástica	My Mom is Fantastic	Modal verbs	Butterworth
¿Qué te gusta?	What Do You Like?	"I like" structures	Grejniec
Buenos días	Good Morning	Opposites	Grejniec
Soy el agua	I Am Water		Marzollo
Biscocho	Biscuit	"wants" structure	Satin Capucilli
¿Dónde está Spot?	Where is Spot?	Positions	Hill
Felices sueños	Sweet Dreams	Night time routine	Watt
Tamaños en el zoo	Sizes at the Zoo	Sizes / Animals	Whitehouse
Ser niño	Being a Child	Verbs	Ajmera
Tenía un hipopótamo	I Had a Hippopotamus	Past tense	Viveros Lee
Muu bee, así fue	Moo, Baa, La La La	Animal sounds	Boynton
Un viaje en tren	A Trip by Train	Picture book	Alcántara
Rojo el sombrero, Azul el sombrero	Red Hat, Blue Hat	Colors / Clothes	Boynton
Ruido, Silencio	Noise, Silence	Volume contrast	
Yo puedo	I Can	"I can" structure	Winter
¿Qué está arriba cuando estás abajo?	What Is Up When You Are Down?	Up / down	
Contando con Cheerios	Counting With Cheerios	Counting	
Salí de paseo	I Went Walking	Animals	
Mis cinco sentidos	My Five Senses	The senses	
Osito	Little Bear	"want" structures	
Ruidos	Noises	Noises	
Oso en la ciudad	Bear in the City	City / days of the week	
¿Dónde está el ombligo?	Where is the Bellybutton?	Body parts	
Es la hora de	It's Time to...	Time telling / actions	
Aserrín, Aserrán	CD of songs with a book	Songs and rhymes	
10 Deditos	CD of songs	Traditional songs	Orozco

Places to buy books in Spanish

Red Balloon
891 Grand Ave.
St. Paul
651-224-8320

Lakeshore Learning
5699 West 16th Street
Minneapolis, MN 55416
952-541-0991

www.Sosnowskibooks.com

Appendix 4PP-Spanish Songs and Intervention Ideas

Aserrín Aserrán CD, purchased through Scholastic.

This comes with a book of the lyrics in Spanish. All of the songs come from latino countries. They all have a very calming effect on the children.

Cucú, cucú –

This song is good for encouraging first sound productions and also first /k/ productions. The chorus is about how the frog sings and goes in the water. We play with toy frogs and water while we sing it.

Las tres ovejas –

This song uses the “I have” and “you have” forms. There is a board book with the lyrics that can also be purchased through Scholastic as part of a set of 4 nursery rhymes.

El barquito chiquitito –

The song is about a boat on the water for 7 weeks. The lyrics are highly repetitive, including counting up to seven. We make our hands like boats while singing it.

Arrorró –

This is a lullaby. Play it at nap time.

Diez Deditos CD by José-Luis Orozco

Diez deditos -

Counting little fingers up to 10.

Vamos a cantar -

This is a great song for actions. With every new verse, there is another action that we are going to do. They have to listen and then do them, too.

Debajo del botón -

This song plays with sounds and is good for encouraging first sound productions. It is about the tiny little mouse that Martín-tín-tín finds under a button-ton-ton. There is also a board book that can be purchased through Scholastic (as part of a set of 4 nursery rhymes). I play this with a big cardboard button and a stuffed animal mouse.

Juanito -

This is about body parts and it also plays with sounds. When Johnny dances, he dances with his finger-inger-inger. They have to listen and add on body parts each time.

Tortillitas -

This is a nice chant. Pat your hands like you're making tortillas.

Las ruedas del autobus – The Wheels on the Bus

Pre-School therapy ideas with music in Spanish, page 2

Canciones tradicionales by Cantarima – www.cantarima.com

This isn't as pleasing to listen to as the others but it has a lot of useful songs. Lyrics included. Many of the songs are translations of songs already used in the classroom.

Vengan a ver mi granja –
Learn animals and animal sounds.

Los pollitos –
The little chicks say “Pio pio pio”. This is good for first sound productions. We also do hand gestures for ‘say’, ‘hungry’, ‘cold’, ‘searching’, ‘eating’, and ‘hugging’. There is another board book for this from Scholastic (as part of a set of 4).

Cuando tengas muchas ganas – When You're Happy and You Know It

La araña pequeña – Itsy Bitsy Spider

Las ruedas del autobús – The Wheels on the Bus

El abecedario – The Alphabet Song

Mary tenía un corderito – Mary Had a Little Lamb

Rima de chocolate –
This is a famous chant that most parents know. It plays with breaking the word into syllables.

Cucú cucú– see the notes above.

Brilla brilla estrellita – Twinkle Twinkle Little Star

Los elefantes –
This is a great song for groups. One elephant balances on a spider web and invites his friends to join one at a time.

El coquí -
This song is good for simple /k/ practice. The coquí is a popular story about a frog.

Diez carritos -
Counting little cars up to 10.

Las mañanitas –
The birthday/saints day song in Mexico.

Martinillo -
Make the sound of the bells.

Highly Recommended:

Express Train CD's in Spanish – www.expresstrain.org

These are full of excellent and self-explanatory songs with lyric sheets and activities.