

# 2008

## The Chinese Language Manual



GOURMET :: FESTIVE, CULTURAL, RELIGIOUS, DAY TO DAY



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# Linguistic Community

“The 2000 U.S. Census showed that people of Chinese descent to be the largest single group of Asians in the country, comprising more than 20% of the 11.9 million Asians. The Asian American health forum revealed that more than 63% of Chinese Americans are foreign-born, 23% do not speak English well, and 72.5% speak a language other than English at home, and 53% live in the western U.S.” (Lui, 2005, p. 65).

Although China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan hold the vast majority of the Chinese-speaking population there is a considerable amount found throughout the whole of southeast Asia, especially in Singapore, Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand. Chinese-speaking communities are also found in many other parts of the world, particularly in Europe, North and South America, and the Hawaiian Islands (Study in China, 2007).

## **Regions with significantly large Chinese American Populations include:**

- California: San Francisco, San Gabriel Valley, and Silicon Valley
- Tri-State Region (East Coast): New York and New Jersey

(Wikipedia, 2008)

## **Areas with growing Chinese American populations include southern:**

- Orange County, California
- Edison, New Jersey
- Plano, Texas
- Richardson, Texas

(Wikipedia, 2008)

## **Chinese Speaking Countries include:**

- China (Mandarin-speaking)
- Tibet (Mandarin-speaking)
- Singapore (Mandarin-speaking)
- Hong Kong (Cantonese-speaking)
- Indonesia (Mandarin-speaking)
- Macau (Mandarin-speaking)
- Taiwan (Mandarin and Taiwanese-speaking)
- Malaysia (Cantonese-speaking)

( Nations Online, 2008)

## **Citations from:**

[http://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/countries\\_by\\_languages.htm](http://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/countries_by_languages.htm)

<http://www.study-in-china.org/culture/language/20071110154282547.htm>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\\_of\\_U.S.\\_cities\\_with\\_large\\_Chinese\\_American\\_populations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_U.S._cities_with_large_Chinese_American_populations)

# **Social Aspects**

## **Communicative Aspects and Pragmatics**

Chinese in general rely on body movements, facial expression, eye messages, and other nonverbal signals. Chinese are less direct or forward when communicating with others. Issues arise when interpreting nonverbal expressions, which can be difficult. Smiling in the Chinese, culture unlike American, normally signifies shyness or embarrassment. Direct eye contact with superiors or elders is looked down because it is considered to be a challenge or sign of disobedience. For many Chinese, asking “did you eat” or “where are you heading?” is a way of greeting or starting a conversation. Chinese is traditionally high context so they may view an American who uses low context as rude and blunt. Chinese people are shy, especially in an unfamiliar environment. Because Chinese use tonal expression a soft or gentle greeting is appropriate. Addressing older clients or family members by Mr. or Mrs. is also appropriate. The use of first names is often viewed as a sign of disrespect and should be avoided unless granted permission (Lui, 2005, p. 65)

## **Health Beliefs and Perceptions About Disability**

In China, being disabled is often viewed as punishment for the disabled person’s sins in a past life or the sins of the person’s parents. Mental health is thought to be achieved through self-discipline, willpower, and avoiding inappropriate thoughts. Mental illness is often associated with evil spirits or punishment from gods. Maintaining a balanced diet, eating foods that are healthy, and maintaining emotional stability while pregnant ensure a healthy newborn. Shame and guilt are often associated with disabilities in Chinese culture. This is due to the eastern philosophy of avoidance rather than treatment. Therefore educating the client and family about

the cause of the disability, as well as about treatment methods and available services is beneficial (Lui, 2005, p. 68-70). In the Chinese culture it's believed that avoiding the use of sharp objects, knives or scissors on their bed during pregnancy prevents cleft lip babies (Do, 2000). Elderly are generally spared discomforting information in order to protect them. Discussing illnesses or death/dying is bad luck according to the Chinese elderly, this is related to their belief in karma (Wong, 2008).

### **Religious Beliefs**

“Chinese practices are Buddhism, Christianity, and Taoism. All Chinese are greatly influenced by Confucianism as well” (Lui, 2005, p. 76).

**Taoism:** “promotes the belief that persons will gain power and strength if they behave in harmony with the nature of the universe and will suffer later in life if they act against the nature of the universe. This may explain why some believers in Taoism delay in seeking treatment” (Lui, 2005, p. 76).

**Confucianism:** “is the philosophy that guides Chinese in governing behavior. It emphasized the importance of family and social order” (Lui, 2005, p. 77).

**Buddhism:** “human centered religion, not god centered. It tells people that life is suffering. No one but yourself can save you from suffering. In congruence with the belief that birth, aging, illness and death are the inevitable of life, some patients, particularly those advanced in age, may accept illness and death as de facto and seek treatment only passively” (Lui, 2005, p.77).

**Christianity:** “many Chinese converted to Christianity after immigrating to the United States” (Lui, 2005, p. 77).

“It is common for Chinese to honor their ancestors, especially during major holidays such as the Chinese New Year” (Lui, 2005, p. 78).

### **Social Values**

Chinese culture can be divided into traditional and modern culture. Chinese culture, like every other culture is changing persistently. It has evolved and changed, especially during the 20<sup>th</sup> century (“Destiny,” 1998).

***Traditional values:*** In the Chinese culture, family life has always been important. They lived in large family units where as many as 100 or more relatives lived together under the rule of the oldest male. Five generations under one roof was the ideal living situation in Chinese culture. However, the families in which lived this way were the wealthy. The common Chinese families consisted of parents and children and sometimes grandparents and uncles. Chinese families often valued sons far more than daughters because females could not continue the family name. For this reason, daughters were sometimes killed at birth. The traditional role of the male consisted of working outside the home whereas the role of the female consisted of staying at home to do housework, cook, and attend to the children. Family honor was emphasized greatly. Children were expected to know their place in society and to give the family name a good reputation (“Destiny,” 1998).

***Modern values:*** Although the Chinese culture has become modernized some traditional values still linger. Family households now consist of parents and children and sometimes grandparents. All adults no matter their gender have jobs. The grandparent’s role is to look after the house and the children during the day. Females and males now are valued equally, for the females now do

many kinds of work outside the home. Chinese parents, today, are more lenient and reasonable with their children but still expect respect (“Destiny,” 1998).

**Role of Family:** The Chinese approach the family from what is good for the whole rather than an individual. Help is sought immediately from extended family first before turning to neighbors, communities, and professionals. Seeking help, such as social welfare and benefits from the government, can be very intimidating. The importance of respect for the elders should cue rehabilitation professionals to establish a working relationship with parents or significant extended family members. A professional may be lulled into complacency with “Americanized” Chinese families, however many still maintain traditional Chinese values; therefore it is important for professionals to be aware of the Chinese traditional values and family structure. While many of the same beliefs and traditions hold true in Chinese families, there are variations in different families much like there are in American families (Lui, 2005, p. 71).

**Citations from:**

Destiny: The Culture of China. (1998). *Living and Values*. Retrieved May 21, 2008, from <http://library.thinkquest.org>

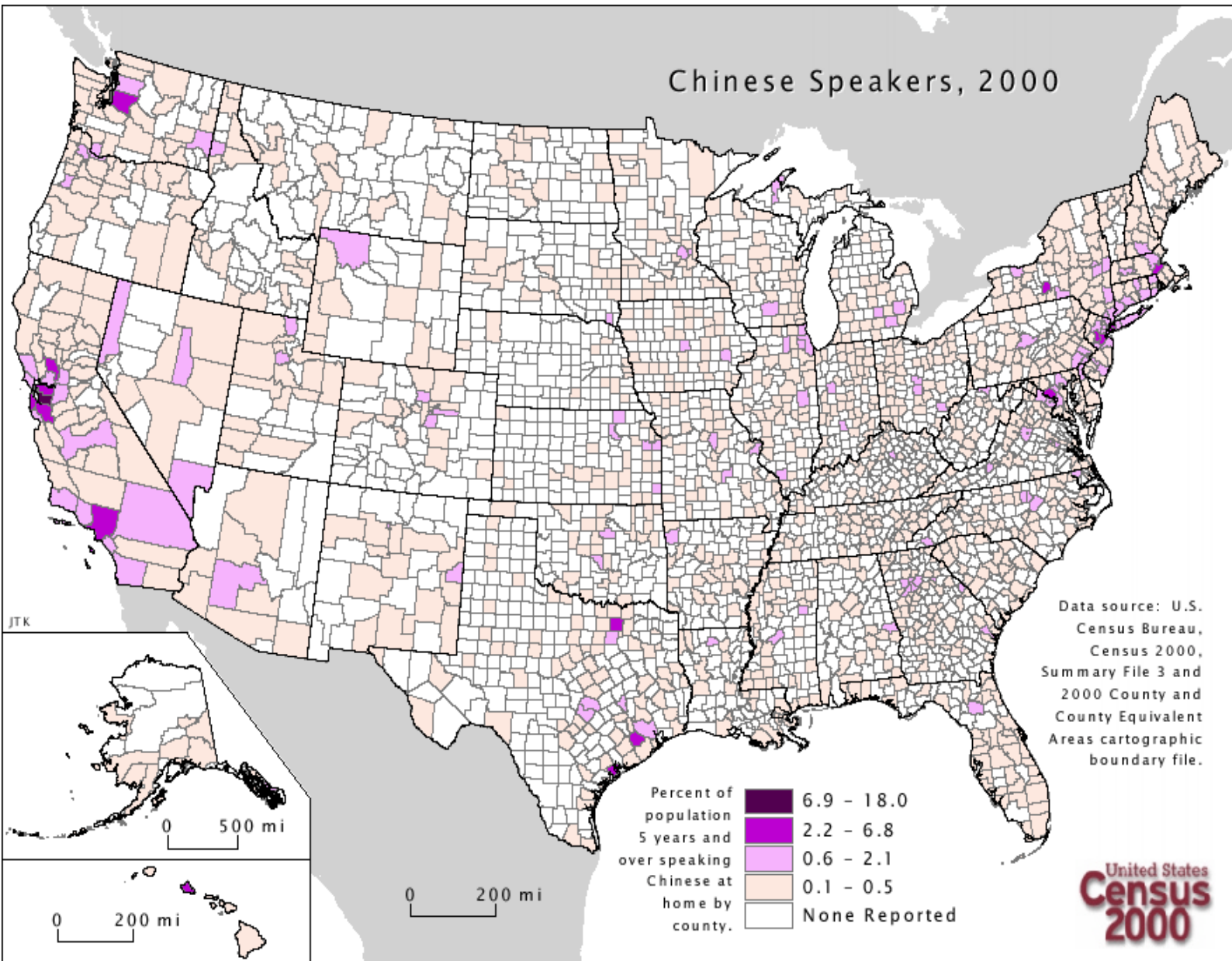
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Liu, G.Z. (2005). Best Practices: Developing Cross-Culture Competence from a Chinese Perspective. In J.H. Stone (Ed.), *Culture and Disability: Providing Culturally Competent Services* (pp. 65-83). Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Wong, M. (2008, January 7). How Traditional Chinese Health Beliefs and Chinese Culture Influence Health and Illness?. Retrieved May 21, 2008, from <http://ezinearticles.com/?How-Traditional-Chinese-Health-Beliefs-and-Chinese-Culture-Influence-Health-and-Illness?&id=903741>



# Geographical Distribution of the Chinese Language in the U.S.



**Citation from:**

US Government. (2006). *The 2000 USA census report*. Retrieved May 21<sup>st</sup>, 2008.

<http://www.census.gov/2000report>

## **Population & Demographics**

The Chinese American community is the largest ethnic group of Asian Americans, comprising of 22.4% of the Asian American population. They constitute 1.2% of the United States as a whole. In 2006, it was reported that approximately 3.6 million of the population were, to some degree, Chinese American (Census 2000).

As a whole, Chinese American populations continue to grow at a rapid rate due to immigration. However, they also on average have birth rates lower than those of White Americans, and as such their population is aging relatively quickly. In recent years, adoption of young children, especially girls, from China has also brought a boost to the numbers of Chinese Americans.

Cities with large Chinese American populations include Boston, Flushing, Queens, New York, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Washington, D.C., Houston, Plano, Seattle, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Portland. In these cities, there are often multiple “Chinatowns”, an older one and a newer one which is populated by immigrants from the 1960s and 1970s. In most areas, Chinese Americans tend to maintain close relationships with other Asian American groups. Even though most of the immigrants from the 1960s and 1970s tend to gather around “Chinatowns”, immigrants of the recent decades are no longer moving to these areas. They tend to settle down where their jobs are, and most will consider the enrolling their children in the local school districts to provide them with a quality education.

In addition to the big cities, smaller pockets of Chinese Americans are also dispersed in rural towns, often university towns, throughout the United States. Chinese Americans formed

nearly three percent of California's population in 2000, and over one percent in the Northeast. Hawaii, with its historically heavily-Asian population, was nearly ten percent Chinese American.

Within these families, the average income for a Chinese household is \$41, 583 with an average number of people per household being 3.8 people. The income level is 30% higher than the national average and the number of people within each household is also higher (3.2). The head of the households have a greater probability (38%) to have a Bachelor's degree than the national average (22%) (Census 2000).

**Citation from:**

US Government. (2006). *The 2000 USA census report*. Retrieved May 21<sup>st</sup>, 2008.

<http://www.census.gov/2000report>

## Common Phonological Features

Tonal patterns of speech are mainly manifested in variations of fundamental frequency FO with time in the duration of a syllable, although the duration and the intensity of the syllable vary as well. Tonal patterns being a frequency modulation signal, they exhibit a strong anti-interference ability and are easy to be perceived under even worse transmission conditions (Zhanc, 1994). The great difference between Chinese and Indo-European languages at word level is that the word formation of Chinese is mainly based on the syntactic combinations of morphemes (derivation), while English is based on the morphological changes by adding affixes (inflection). Chinese, together with Tibetan, Burmese, and many other languages of South and Southeast Asia, belongs to the family of Sino-Tibetan languages. Besides a core vocabulary and sounds, Chinese and many related languages share features that distinguish them from most other languages. They have even less inflection than the English language and are tonal. In order to indicate differences in meaning between words similar in sound, tonal languages assign to words a distinctive relative pitch (high or low) or a distinctive pitch contour (level, rising, or falling) (Zhang & Kasper, 1995).

English Target	Example Target	Chinese Production	Example Production	Therapy Focus
/ð/	"they"	/d/	"day"	Voiced. Friction. Tongue between lips.
/æ/	"man"	/e/	"men"	Move tongue to a lower front position.

/æ/	"ran"	/ʌ/	"run"	Keep tongue front & low and jaws apart.
/æ/	"cat"	/ɑ:/	"cart"	Keep tongue front & low and jaws apart.
/ɒ/	"not"	/ɔ:/	"nought"	Keep mouth round and sound short.
/ɒ/	"God"	/ʊ/	"good"	Keep mouth round and tongue back.
/u:/	"fool"	/ʊ/	"full"	Back of tongue high. Lips tightly rounded. Long.
/ʌ/	"cup"	/æ/	"cap"	Tongue more central. Lips relaxed.
/b/	"bill"	/p/	"pill"	Voiced. Vibration. Trap air with lips.
/v/	"van"	/f/	"fan"	Voiced. Friction with top teeth & bottom lip.
/v/	"vet"	/w/	"wet"	Voiced. Friction with top teeth & bottom lip.
/i:/	"seat"	/ɪ/	"sit"	Spread lips more and keep tongue high.
/θ/	"thin"	/s/	"sin"	Voiceless. Friction. Tongue between teeth.

/h/	"hot"	Deleted /h/	"ot"	Quickly push air from throat out of mouth.
/ð/	"clothe"	/z/	"close" /z/	Voiced. Friction. Tongue between lips.
/d/	"made"	/t/	"mate"	Tip of tongue behind top teeth.
/z/	"rise"	/s/	"rice"	Voiced: tip of tongue behind top teeth. Friction.
/ŋ/	"thing"	/ŋ/ + /k/	"think"	Voiced stop: back of tongue to back roof.
/n/	"spoon"	/ʌ/	"spool"	Tongue touches alveolar ridge. Nasal.
/l/	"light"	/r/	"right"	Tongue touches hard palate.
/r/	"right"	/l/	"light"	Sides of tongue to back teeth. Tip points up.
/θ/	"thin"	/t/	"tin"	Voiceless. Friction. Tongue between lips.

**Citation from:**

Zhanc, J., (1994). Phonetic and linguistic features of spoken chinese. *International symposium on speech, image processing and neural networks*. Hong Kong, 13(16). 117-121

<http://www.btinternet.com/~ted.power/l1chinese.html>

## Common Morphological Features

The Chinese language is different from those employed by other language families, and comparable to the similar features found within, for instance, the Slavic languages or Semitic languages. Beyond genetic similarities within the Sino-Tibetan language family to which Chinese belongs, there are also strong similarities within the East Asians, a group of mutually-influenced but not directly related languages, including Japanese and Korean (Zhanc, 1994).

One key feature of Chinese grammar is that all words have only one grammatical form, as the language without the conjugation, declension, or any other inflection (there are minor exceptions). Functions such as number in nouns or tense in verbs are expressed through word order or particles. In other words, where nouns in other languages might be distinguished by singular and plural ("woman" and "women") or verbs by number or person ("I go", "he goes"), Chinese lexemes are typically invariant (Zhang, 1995).

Without the inflections, Chinese grammar may appear quite simple compared to that of many highly-inflected Indo-European languages (e.g. Russian, Latin, etc.), or even the low-scale verb conjugations, for instance, of English (e.g. "swim, swam, swum") (Zhang, 1995).

### **Citations from:**

Zhanc, J., (1994). Phonetic and linguistic features of spoken Chinese. *International symposium on speech, image processing and neural networks*. Hong Kong. 13(16). 117-121

Zhang, H. & Kasper, G. (1995). It's good to be a bit Chinese. In G. Kasper (Ed.). *Pragmatics of Chinese as Native and Target Language*. 1-22

## Common Syntax Features

Chinese displays a very high level of complexity in its syntax. Chinese is an analytic language (a concept related, though not exactly identical, to that of isolating language). An analytic language is any language where syntax and meaning are shaped more by use of particles and word order rather than by inflection. The distinction between particles can be difficult for learners to grasp.

Chinese is aligned with other type languages where the only device available for expressing primary semantic (e.g. that of the agent) and primary pragmatic functions (e.g. that of the topic) is linear order. However, Chinese differs from these other languages in that when there is a conflict between semantics and pragmatic functions, other languages typically resolve the conflict by availing themselves of a syntactic role changing process (e.g. passive), while the Chinese language typically relies on a complex interplay between semantics and pragmatics for its resolution (Huang & Chui, 2001).

Unlike other languages that have been studied, there is no marked tendency in Chinese for clauses to have one less overt core argument than the number allowed; suggesting that zero anaphora is a syntactically restricted phenomenon. A nominal is considered given if its referent has already been activated at the point in the speech act where the nominal appears. 'New' referents refer to any nominal that is not given.

Word order in Chinese is far more sensitive to valence roles than to activation states (given, new) of nominal arguments. Word order is also controlled by the nature of information flow and secondarily by semantics. Syntactic functions play no part in the determination of the order of constituents in a sentence (Wang & Yu, 2003).



In the Chinese language, 98% of the time the clause-initial position is preempted by an NP which is either a topic of the clause or a preverbal categorical topic of the clause. The clause-initial NP then represents a convergence of semantic (role) properties of agent and the pragmatic (reference) properties of clausal topic (Wang & Yu, 2003).

To conclude, word order in Chinese is much more sensitive to valence role than to discourse pragmatics and that in many ways Chinese is just as much a syntactic order language as a language like English.

**Citations from:**

Huang, S. & Chui, K., (2001). Is Chinese a pragmatic order language?. *National Chengchi publications*. 15(2). 165-196

Wang, H. & Yu, S., (2003). The semantic knowledge-based of contemporary Chinese and its applications. *International Conference on Chinese Information Processing*. Beijing: Tsinghua University Press. 341-357.

## Common Pragmatic Features

A pragmatic order language is a language where pragmatic considerations are primary determinants of word order. It has been shown that word order in Chinese is far more sensitive to valence roles than to pragmatic considerations (Huang & Chui, 2001). Double-subject constructions often cited as characteristic of ‘topic-prominent’ languages such as Chinese occur with such rarity that they must be considered as an “unusual” way of making a discourse point. Noun phrases in Chinese that are understood from context do not need to be specified. It is sometimes difficult for speakers of Indo-European languages to grasp because the use of pronouns is so much more common in Indo-European, especially in English (Wang & Yu, 2003).

### **Citation from:**

Huang, S. & Chui, K., (2001). Is Chinese a pragmatic order language?. *National Chengchi publications*. 15(2). 165-196

Wang, H. & Yu, S., (2003). The semantic knowledge-based of contemporary Chinese and its applications. *International Conference on Chinese Information Processing*. Beijing: Tsinghua University Press. pp341-357.

## Common Semantic Features

The semantics of Chinese characters are consistent to distinctions between phonemes. In Chinese, pronunciation is not related to its form. Chinese does not depend on phonetic changes in word formation, but semantic relations of characters. Due to the lack of a distinction between voiced and voiceless consonants, Chinese distinguishes between words by means of variations in pitch or by means of context (Hui, Weidong, & Qun, 1998). Such structural characteristics naturally result in the multiplication of homonyms and homographs and the decrease of the number of characters or words. Generally, a Chinese discourse tends to be shorter and more “economical” than that of English when the same notion is expressed (Wang & Yu, 2003).

### Citations from:

Wang, H. & Yu, S., (2003). The semantic knowledge-based of contemporary Chinese and its applications. *International Conference on Chinese Information Processing*. Beijing: Tsinghua University Press. pp341-357.

Wang Hui, Zhan Weidong, Liu Qun. (1998). Design of Semantic Dictionary of Modern Chinese. *International Conference on Chinese Information Processing*. Beijing: Tsinghua University Press. pp361-367.

# Chinese-English Linguistic Transfer: Possible Errors

## Verbal Domain

**Phonology:** Chinese has little phonological consistency at the character level, and the syllabic morpheme is the basic speech unit as opposed to the phonemic unit in English. This may cause a possibility for errors in producing or comprehending words with a single phonemic contrast (i.e. “hat” for “hot” or “bit” for “big”). This may also pose difficulties when single phonemes carry morphological importance, as in the case of plural –s, possessive –s, or past tense –ed (i.e. the target sentence “The boys fixed their mom’s car”). It is important to note, however, that rhyme processing abilities are useful in predicting accurate word recognition in this population.

**Morphology:** Morphological awareness in Chinese is promoted through various suprasegmental tonal productions for the second syllable. A change in the tone of a syllable leads to a change in its meaning. This aspect of language structure can lead to the linguistic transfer of morphological awareness in English, however grammatical morphology as it relates to phonological constraints will still present problems for this population.

**Semantics:** Semantic errors will typically involve the replacement of very salient words for more particular words that are traditionally used in particular contexts. Typical semantic errors do not reflect a language disorder, but rather an unfamiliarity with the particular construct of the English language (i.e. “She didn’t make a *fault*” for “She didn’t make a *mistake*” or “Your coat is *broken*” for “Your coat is *torn*”).

**Syntax:** Like English, Chinese has a basic canonical syntactic structure (S-V-O), so it is unlikely that typically developing L1-L2 Chinese-English speakers will make syntactic errors involving word order. Unlike English, Chinese is a topic-prominent language that allows for flexibility in its syntactic structure, including O-S-V and S-O-V arrangements. Since Chinese places less importance on syntactic structure than English, linguistic transfer might affect this population by causing one to rely less on word order than topic saliency. An example of such an error might be “Monkey the banana ate” instead of “The monkey ate the banana.”

### **Orthographic Domain**

When learning to read in an alphabetic system such as English, phonemic awareness can serve as a strong predictor of individual capabilities for learning to read. Since Chinese is a language based on the syllabic morpheme with little consistency at the phonemic level, orthographic instruction has traditionally been directed towards rote memorization of individual characters as opposed to phonics training. Writing in Chinese is done by mapping the syllabic morphemes onto individual graphemes (characters) instead of phonemes. “Each character is composed of basic strokes. These strokes are then combined to form component radicals,” which are the “most basic unit of a Chinese character. Radicals are then combined to form characters” (Wang, Perfetti, and Liu, 2005). Chinese reading focuses on the importance of learning a fully specified orthographic representation prior to the activation of phonological and meaning information in reading Chinese.

Reading/writing errors for this population will most likely result from a lack of exposure to the English alphabetic system and the phonetic system that it represents. Typically L1-L2

Chinese-English readers/writers will have more difficulties initially understanding (and therefore translating) phonetic concepts to an alphabetic system, but once this understanding is established few errors should be present.

**Citations from:**

Bialystok, E., McBride-Chang, C., Luk, G. (2005). Bilingualism, language proficiency, and learning to read in two writing systems. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97 (4), 580-590.

Gottardo, A., Chiappe, P., Yan, B., Siegel, L., Gu, Y. (2006). Relationships between first and second language phonological processing skills and reading in Chinese-English speakers living in English-speaking contexts. *Educational Psychology*, 26 (3), 367-393.

Holm, A., Dodd, B. (1996). The effect of first written language on the acquisition of English literacy. *Cognition*, 59, 119-147.

Kong, S. (2005). The partial access of universal grammar in second language acquisition: An investigation of the acquisition of English subjects by L1 Chinese speakers. *Journal of East Asian Linguistics*, 14, 227-265.

Su, I. (2001). Transfer of sentence processing strategies: A comparison of L2 learners of Chinese and English. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 22, 83-112.

Wang, M., Perfetti, C., Liu, Y. (2005). Chinese-English biliteracy acquisition: Cross-language and writing system transfer. *Cognition*, 97, 67-88.

Wang, M., Cheng, C., Chen, S. (2006). Contribution of Morphological Awareness to Chinese-English Biliteracy Acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98 (3), 542-553.

# Video Clips/Audio Recordings of Chinese-English Speakers

## Audio Recordings

This web site contains audio recordings from speakers from around the world reading the exact same passage. Particular to the Chinese linguistic community, recordings of speakers from various backgrounds are included (Cantonese, Mandarin, etc.) and dialectical variations can be heard between Chinese-English speakers based on different linguistic upbringing.

<http://accent.gmu.edu>

## Video Recordings

This is a clip of a young man reading a passage from Harry Potter.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=1O85GLEAgeo>

This is a clip of three young women from Hong Kong who act out a skit in which they pretend to negotiate prices at a store.

[http://youtube.com/watch?v=61Nm-BC\\_z4U&feature=related](http://youtube.com/watch?v=61Nm-BC_z4U&feature=related)

This is a clip of a mom asking her young son questions about how L1-L2 Chinese-English speakers in Hong Kong pronounce certain words.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=9816qib3UQI&feature=related>

This is a clip of a young girl learning to read Mandarin characters.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=bUViW1SIa3k>

Video clip showing Chinese countryside, historic landmarks, and traditional Chinese culture.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=rzRKJNwNy9Y&feature=related>

Traditional Chinese dancers perform a choreographed routine.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=XN8ydiL9YhU>

Chinese New Year Dragon Dance

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=4WUnWPpRslM&feature=related>

This site demonstrates how to pronounce ten of the most common phrases in Mandarin (ex: “Hello,” “goodbye,” etc.).

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=ZDyY8NzFcW4>

This site demonstrates tonal pronunciation guidelines for Cantonese.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=hEG8NOL0JYI>

## **Specific Assessments for Bilingual Chinese-English Speakers**

Testing procedures can always be modified to ensure that any particular assessment yields accurate information about the skills of a particular client. This is particularly relevant when assessing people from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) populations.

Determining the cognitive or linguistic abilities of a CLD client by using a standardized test that was not normed on CLD populations requires the use of appropriate modifications (i.e. employing an interpreter, translating test questions, etc.) and the notation of such modification(s).

The following is a list of cognitive and language tests that have been normed on CLD populations and have subtests that have been specifically designed to test Chinese-English bilinguals.

### **Non-Verbal Intelligence Tests**

Leitner International Performance Scale (LIPS): This test is appropriate for non-verbal or non-English speaking individuals, those with a hearing or motor impairment, those who are suffering from a specific neuropsychological impairment such as AD/HD, TBI, or Autism, or who are cognitively delayed or disordered. It allows for non-verbal assessment of general cognitive and discrete ability areas (including behavior rating scales), and allows for the plotting of growth scores over time. LIPS is appropriate to use as a norm-referenced test on people aged 2-21.

Universal Nonverbal Intelligence Test (UNIT): This test measures a range of complex memory and reasoning abilities using culturally and ethnically sensitive prompt and response items to measure a student's cognitive abilities. Scores on the UNIT can be used in the academic referral



process for both gifted and special education programs and can be used in conjunction with other language tests to determine overall capabilities. This test can administered to students in grades K-12.

Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R): This test is currently in its fourth revision, and is designed to generate an intelligence quotient (IQ) score for children ranging in age from 6-16. The WISC-R is only one of many Wechsler tests designed to measure intelligence for people ranging in age from 3-74 (Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence or the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale). The WISC-R can also be used in diagnosing ADD-AD/HD and learning disabilities even among CLD populations.

### **Language Tests**

Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL): This test measures English oral proficiency for children in grades K-12 to determine academic placement. Oral language skills are assessed using culturally neutral pictures to elicit a language sample, which is then evaluated for linguistic complexity. For each grade level, scores are used to classify students as non-speakers, limited-speakers, fluent-speakers, or proficient-speakers.

Bilingual Test of Aphasia (BAT): This test allows clinicians to determine differential loss of language in previously bilingual clients suffering from aphasia. The BAT is available for many languages, and requires that the patient be tested in their L1, their L2, and then assessed bilingually. The BAT is available for testing clients in Cantonese-English as well as Mandarin-English. The BAT can also be used to assess monolingual aphasic patients, since a clinician can opt to use the one stimulus book that meets the patient's linguistic profile.

Bilingual Verbal Ability Test-Normative Update (BVAT-NU): This test provides a combined verbal-cognitive L1 and L2 assessment in the same instrument, and when combined with three subtests from the Woodcock-Johnson-Revised Test of Cognitive Ability (Picture Vocabulary, Oral Vocabulary, and Verbal Analogies) it can provide a means for determining discrepancies between verbal ability and achievement. Initially probe items are administered in English. Any missed items are then re-administered in the client's L1 language, making it vital for the SLP to be proficient in both languages. This test can be administered to people ages 5-90.

Comprehensive English Language Learning Assessment (CELLA): This test is designed to measure an English Language Learner's (ELL's) proficiency in the four primary language domains (speaking, listening, reading, and writing). CELLA can be administered to students in grades K-12 and was designed to chart an individual's level of English mastery in accordance with No Child Left Behind. This test is commonly used in Florida, Oregon, and Massachusetts, but can easily be used in any state within the academic or clinical arenas.

The Nelson-Denny Reading Test (Forms G and H): This is a two-part test for high-school and college students, as well as adults that assesses vocabulary development (Part I) and reading comprehension and fluency (Part II). The 1993 revision of this test includes an extended-time administration option for students who speak English as a second language. This test can be administered to students in grades 9-16, and to adults.

## **Health Factors**

In China, **stroke** is the leading cause of death for men; it kills more than 20 percent of the male population. It is also the top reason for long-term disability (John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2007).

In 2000, China was ranked second in the world in the incidence of **diabetes**, with the number of diabetes patients expected to double by 2030 (Wild, Roglic, Green, Sicree, & King, 2004).

### **Oral and Nasopharyngeal Pathologies**

According to Vanderas's study (as cited in Battle, 1998) the incidence of cleft palate in the United States per 1,000 population is highest for Chinese at 4.04%.

The incidence of cleft lip with cleft palate tended to be greater than that of cleft lip or palate alone in some studies. In other studies, the incidence of cleft lip with cleft palate tended to be equal to that of cleft palate, although the incidence of both was greater than that of cleft lip alone.

There is an unclear ratio on gender differences for cleft lip with cleft palate, but men showed a greater incidence of cleft palate alone than women.

## **Health Issues Related to Voice Dysfunction**

### *Carcinomas with Direct and Indirect Effect on Voice*

Miller, Kolonel, & Bernstein's study (as cited in Battle, 1998) states according to the National Cancer Institute, overall cancer incidence rates were higher in men than women for Chinese communities.

The average annual rate of cancer per 100,000 populations for Chinese men is 282 and 139 for women.

### *Esophageal Cancer Incidence:*

Chinese men 5.2-5.6 per 100,000 men

### *Lung Cancer:*

Chinese men 42-53 per 100,000 men

Chinese women 16-25 per 100,000 women

### *Nasopharyngeal Cancer:*

The Chinese are suspected to have a genetic predisposition to nasopharyngeal cancer according to Hung-Dhiu Ho's study (as cited in Battle, 1998).

Mortality rates among Chinese are as high as 11.5% for women and 13.5% for men in population-specific regions of the United States according to Rice & Yu's study (as cited in Battle, 1998).

*Thyroid Disease with Direct and Indirect Effect on Voice*

According to Blum and Gee's studies (as cited in Battle, 1998) the Chinese have shown a susceptibility to thyrotoxicosis.

*Respiratory Disease with Direct and Indirect Effect on Voice*

Chronic and persistent cough has been noted in the Chinese population and indicates a variety of respiratory difficulties, including postnasal drip, chronic bronchitis, bronchial asthma, and pulmonary tuberculosis according to Chen's study (as cited in Battle, 1998).

# Chinese Cuisine

There is an enormous variety of Chinese food that differs greatly from region to region.

## Everyday Chinese Mealtime

- Chinese families to gather for three meals a day
- The sorts of dishes served at the three main meals are pretty much the same, unlike western traditions
- Most dishes are prepared in **bite sized pieces**, ready for direct picking up and eating
- Each individual diner is given his or her own bowl of **rice** while the accompanying dishes are served in communal plates
- Each diner picks food out of the communal plates on a bite-by-bite basis with their **chopsticks**
- Instead of a napkin, a **hot towel** is often provided at the end of the meal for the diner to wipe his hands and mouth.
- To facilitate access to all the dishes, Chinese **dining tables** are more likely to be **square or round**, rather than elongated like their western counterparts.
- Neither beverages nor dessert are commonly served with a meal
- People drink tea nearly all day, but at meals soup is usually the only liquid provided.
- Sweet foods are usually reserved for special events, where they are served between courses, or for small meals at tea houses.
- **Fish** are usually cooked and served whole, desired to be served as fresh as possible.  
Whole fish culturally signifies wholeness of things as it has a proper beginning (head) with an end (tail).

- **Chicken** is cut into pieces; every single piece of the chicken is served including gizzards and head in order to signify completeness
- **Pork** is generally preferred over beef due to economic and aesthetic reasons
- **Soup** is also eaten from the common bowl
- **Vegetarianism** is not uncommon or unusual in China
- Chinese vegetarian dishes often contain large varieties of vegetables (e.g. bok choy, shiitake mushroom, sprouts, corn) and some imitation meat.
- **Imitation meat** is created mostly with soy protein and/or mianjin (a preparation of wheat gluten) to imitate the texture, taste, and appearance of duck, chicken, or pork
- **Fruits:** peach, apricot, plum, apple, jujube date, pear, crab apple, mountain haw, longan, litchi, orange.
- **Vegetables:** malva, amaranth, Chi- nese cabbage, mustard green, turnip, radish, mushroom

### **Sauces and Flavorings**

- Chile paste, different types of rice vinegars, hot bean paste, hoisin sauce, plum sauce, sesame oil, and sesame paste,
- Spices: anise, cinnamon or cassia bark, fennel, cloves, nutmeg, cilantro/coriander
- Szechwan peppercorns, garlic, ginger, red pepper, spring onion, cinnamon and a thickener like cornstarch
- Baking soda to marinate meat

## **Beverages**

- In traditional Chinese culture, cold beverages are believed to be harmful to digestion of hot food, so items like ice-cold water or soft drinks are traditionally not served at meal-time.
- Hot tea or hot water are usually served; Tea is believed to help in the digestion of greasy foods; the Chinese were the first to discover the tea leaf
- Despite this tradition, nowadays beer and soft drinks are popular accompaniment with meals.
- **Types of Chinese Tea:** green tea, black tea, Wulong tea, compressed tea, scented tea

## **How to Make Broccoli and Beef**

<http://www.videojug.com/film/how-to-make-beef-and-broccoli>

### **Citations from:**

<http://www.cuisinenet.com/digest/region/china/>

[http://www.dmoz.org/Home/Cooking/World\\_Cuisines/Asian/Chinese/](http://www.dmoz.org/Home/Cooking/World_Cuisines/Asian/Chinese/)



# Speech-Language Pathologists in Texas

## *Chinese – Cantonese*

**Harris County Pediatric Therapy Center** Houston, TX

Nancy Burford, M.A.,(713) 772-1400

Facility Type: Outpatient Rehab Cntr

Payment Type: Health Insurance,Credit Card

Apraxia

Articulation/phonological dis

Augmentative/alternative comm

Autism

Cognitive-comm disorders

Fluency and fluency disorders

Language acquisition/disorders

Learning disabilities

Neurogenic comm. disorders

Orofacial myofunctional dis.

Phonology and phon. disorders

SLP developmental disabilities

Speech/language disorders(gen)

Swallowing disorders

Voice Disorders

**Pediatric Therapy Center** Houston, TX

Nancy Burford, 713-772-1400

Facility Type: Outpatient Rehab Cntr

Payment Type: Health Insurance, Credit Card

Aphasia

Apraxia

Articulation/phonological dis

Augmentative/alternative comm

Autism

Central auditory processing

Cleft palate

Cognitive-comm disorders

Comm. improvement (public spk)

Fluency and fluency disorders

Language acquisition/disorders

Laryngectomy

Learning disabilities

SLP developmental disabilities

Speech/language disorders(gen)

Swallowing disorders

Voice Disorders

**Dulyunan, Karen** Sugar Land, TX

281-343-8080

Facility Type: SLP or AUD Office

Payment Type: Medicaid, Health Insurance, Credit Card

Any

### ***Chinese – Mandarin***

**Bilingualistics** Austin, TX

Brenda Gorman, 512-480-9573

Facility Type: Home Health Agency/Client's Home

Payment Type: Credit Card

Accent Modification

Articulation/phonological dis

Augmentative/alternative comm

Autism

Cleft palate

Fluency and fluency disorders

Language acquisition/disorders

Learning disabilities

Multilingualism

Phonology and phon. disorders

SLP developmental disabilities

Speech/lang. research/dev.

Speech/language disorders(gen)

**Harris County Pediatric Therapy Center** Houston, TX

Nancy Burford, M.A.,(713) 772-1400

Facility Type: Outpatient Rehab Cntr

Payment Type: Health Insurance,Credit Card

Apraxia

Articulation/phonological dis

Augmentative/alternative comm

Autism

Cognitive-comm disorders

Fluency and fluency disorders

Language acquisition/disorders

Learning disabilities

Neurogenic comm. disorders

Orofacial myofunctional dis.

Phonology and phon. disorders

SLP developmental disabilities

Speech/language disorders(gen)

Swallowing disorders

Voice Disorders

**Hong-Cooper, LeeJane** Houston, TX

281 583-7336

Facility Type: Speech/Hearing Cntr or clinic

Payment Type: Medicaid,Health Insurance,Reduced

Accent Modification

Aphasia

Apraxia

Articulation/phonological dis

Autism

Central auditory processing

Cleft palate

Cognitive-comm disorders

Comm. improvement (public spk)

Fluency and fluency disorders

Language acquisition/disorders

Laryngectomy

Multilingualism

Neurogenic comm. disorders

Phonology and phon. disorders

SLP developmental disabilities

Speech/language disorders(gen)

Swallowing disorders

Voice Disorders

**Pediatric Therapy Center** Houston, TX

Nancy Burford,713-772-1400

Facility Type: Outpatient Rehab Cntr

Payment Type: Health Insurance,Credit Card

Aphasia

Apraxia

Articulation/phonological dis

Augmentative/alternative comm

Autism

Central auditory processing

Cleft palate

Cognitive-comm disorders

Comm. improvement (public spk)

Fluency and fluency disorders

Language acquisition/disorders

Laryngectomy

Learning disabilities

SLP developmental disabilities

Speech/language disorders(gen)

Swallowing disorders

Voice Disorders

**Dulyunan, Karen** Sugar Land, TX

281-343-8080

Facility Type: SLP or AUD Office

Payment Type: Medicaid,Health Insurance,Credit Card

Any

**Can't find what you need?** This is only a current list of speech-language pathologist in the state of Texas. More information can be found on ASHA's website at <http://asha.org/proserv/> regarding a speech-language pathologist or audiologist by searching the following options: location (city, state, or zip code), country, and language.

## Additional Resources

### Audio Recordings:

This web site contains audio recordings from speakers from around the world reading the exact same passage. Particular to the Chinese linguistic community, recordings of speakers from various backgrounds are included (Cantonese, Mandarin, etc.) and dialectical variations can be heard between Chinese-English speakers based on different linguistic upbringing.

<http://accent.gmu.edu>

### Video Recordings:

This is a clip of a young man reading a passage from Harry Potter.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=1O85GLeAgeo>

This is a clip of three young women from Hong Kong who act out a skit in which they pretend to negotiate prices at a store.

[http://youtube.com/watch?v=61Nm-BC\\_z4U&feature=related](http://youtube.com/watch?v=61Nm-BC_z4U&feature=related)

This is a clip of a mom asking her young son questions about how L1-L2 Chinese-English speakers in Hong Kong pronounce certain words.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=9816qib3UQI&feature=related>

This is a clip of a young girl learning to read Mandarin characters.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=bUViW1SIa3k>

Video clip showing Chinese countryside, historic landmarks, and traditional Chinese culture.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=rzRKJNwNy9Y&feature=related>

Traditional Chinese dancers perform a choreographed routine.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=XN8ydiL9YhU>

Chinese New Year Dragon Dance

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=4WUnWPpRslM&feature=related>

This site demonstrates how to pronounce ten of the most common phrases in Mandarin (ex: “Hello,” “goodbye,” etc.).

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=ZDyY8NzFcW4>



This site demonstrates tonal pronunciation guidelines for Cantonese.

<http://youtube.com/watch?v=hEG8NOL0JYI>

### **Web sites:**

Asian and Pacific Islander Cancer Education Materials Web Tool: Questions & Answers

<http://www.cancer.gov/cancertopics/factsheet/APICEMqandA>

Index of Chinese Cuisine

[http://www.dmoz.org/Home/Cooking/World\\_Cuisines/Asian/Chinese/](http://www.dmoz.org/Home/Cooking/World_Cuisines/Asian/Chinese/)

Speech Accent Archive

<http://accent.gmu.edu>

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