Study on Family Language Policy in China：A case study of Wuhan

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Department of East Asian Studies

Lan Zang

Provisional PhD Candidate

School of Languages, Cultures & Societies

University of Leeds

Supervisors:

Dr Lan Yang & Dr Clare Wright

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Abstract

This dissertation examines family language policy (FLP) in Wuhan, China. Specifically, parental FLP are analysed in three categories of variables: language ideologies, language behaviours and language management. First, this research explores how parental FLPs look like using these three categories above. Second, this study also examines how parental FLPs influence or relate to their children's language learning, language use and language emotional identification. Third, factors which can impact on parents' FLP development are also explored in this research.

Empirical research (mainly questionnaire administration) is carried out during the field trip to Wuhan, China and 51 families including 102 parents and 51 children are invited to this research. With the actual language situation in Wuhan taking into account, Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects have been investigated. The results of this study reveal that parents pay the most attention to foreign languages in FLP, closely followed by Mandarin while dialects have the least attention from parents. And when parents develop FLP for their children, they are more in agreement with their partners on issues related to family foreign languages policy making than for Mandarin and dialects policy making. The data of participants' survey also indicate parental FLP can affect children's language outcomes related to Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects in many different aspects. In fact, there are many factors can impact when parents make FLP for their children. External factors including economic, political and socio-cultural environments and internal factors including gender, age, incomes and educational backgrounds of parent participants all can influence parental FLP development.

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1.Introduction

This study explores the patterns of family language policy (FLP) in China. It examines factors that impact on parental development of FLP, and tests how different patterns of FLP affect children's language outcomes. The purpose of the introductory section is to situate the study and present an outline of its context. In doing so, I will first state the aims of the study, then provide an overview of the research background, and finally explain the significance of the project.

1.1 Aims and significance of this study

1.1.1 Aims of the study and research questions

The main aim of the study is to explore how different types of FLP influence children's language outcomes. It begins with investigating parents as an agent in FLP and determines patterns of FLP depending on parents' various parental language ideologies, language practices and language management. It then tests the language outcomes of children impacted by different FLP and examines whether there are differences in language outcomes if parents adopt different FLP. Language outcomes testing is divided into three aspects (children's language learning, language use and language emotional identification), with the aim of enhancing the accuracy of the experiment. Conclusions will be made regarding the factors which impact on the development of FLP.

Based on the main purpose of the study, the following questions will be addressed:

- What do parent participants' language awareness, language behaviours and language management look like? What are the typical patterns of FLP in Chinese families? In each pattern, how do parents' language ideologies, language practices and language management manifest?
- Will different FLP have different impacts on children (such as children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages)? If children's

outcomes are different because of different FLP, what language outcomes are produced by different FLP respectively?

- What factors can impact on parental development of FLP? Are certain factors more influential than others? If so, which factors are the most fundamental driving forces behind parental choice of FLP?

1.1.2 The significance of the study

In recent years, as FLP has become an important issue for language policy, it has received considerable worldwide attention. However, FLP is still a developing discipline in China. In order to get access to the current research situation accurately, I searched for literature concerned with FLP. The query terms 'family' AND 'language policy' OR 'language planning' were used to search for literature in both Web of Science (WOS) and China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) databases. After searching, 2383 results were returned from WOS, and 108 results were returned from CNKI. This amount suggests that there is an obvious gap between research conducted in English and in Chinese.

In Figure 1.1, the blue line represents publications in Chinese (CNKI), and the green line represents publications in English (WOS). Each node on the lines represents the number of publications in corresponding year. As shown in Figure 1, as early as 1995, many foreign researchers began to show interest in this issue, while research into FLP in China has not been seen until 2005. Furthermore, literature production reached its first peak between 2015 and 2018, although the quantity of publications in English was more than 10 times as many as that of publications in Chinese at its peak.

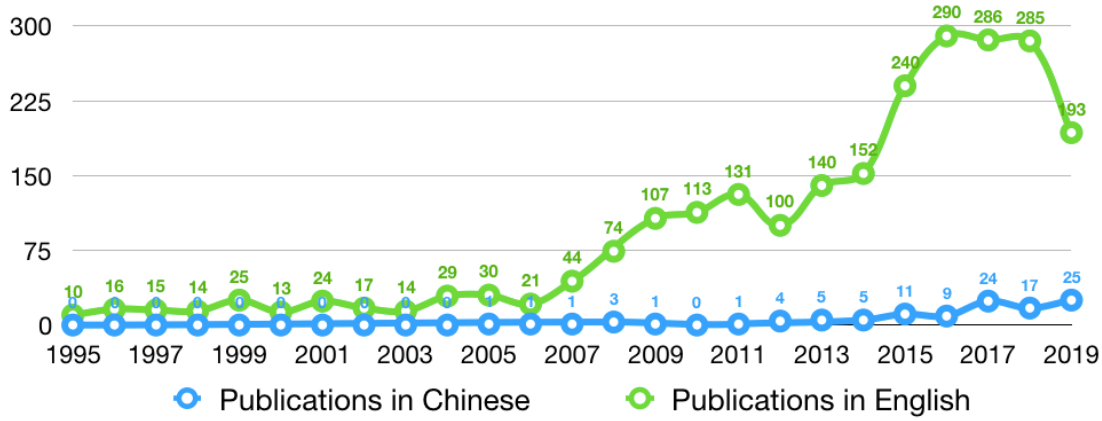

Figure 1.1 The trend of publications related to FLP topics

According to the research topics and research scopes of 108 results found in CNKI, the following characteristics can be found in the research on FLP in China:

Firstly, in terms of research objects, studies on FLP in China highlight specific groups rather than general groups, such as minority groups, immigrants and off-farm workers. FLP in these groups has attracted considerable attention from Chinese scholars. Furthermore, in the development of FLP, parents and children both have key roles, although they have not been studied equally. Parents, rather than children, are investigated most often in the Chinese research on FLP.

Secondly, there are few comprehensive and theoretical research studies in the current research base on FLP in China. Figure 1.2 is a cloud tag of research topics based on 108 pieces of Chinese literature above. Different words in the tag cloud represent various research topics in this domain. The bigger and bolder the word appears in the tag cloud, the more a specific topic appears in the current body of work. It is evident in Figure 1.2 that studies of FLP in China primarily follow the international trend. For instance, language ideologies, language practice and language management are still the three main research baselines for FLP, which is consistent with the international research. However, apart from these common research targets, the field of FLP in China also needs special theoretical research focusing on the Chinese context which includes

a large number of minority languages and dialects.

Figure 1.2 Research topics related to FLP based on publications in Chinese

Finally, FLP is interdisciplinary research in China. Chinese studies on FLP have taken many disciplines such as sociology, psychology, pedagogy and anthropology into account. The integration of multiple disciplines provides Chinese FLP studies with a broader research perspective.

Recently, in the context of the rise in international communications and population movements, linguistic life in families has already become increasingly diverse and complicated in China. Moreover, regarding existing research into Chinese family language policy, much less is known about FLP in China. This study is intended to contribute to the knowledge about Chinese FLP patterns and to explore the correlation between FLP and children's language outcomes. The present study is significant in the following aspects:

1. Developing research into language policy at the micro-level in China.

   A great deal of previous research of China into language policy has focused on the macro-level research, namely, national and governmental aspects. However, there is a comparatively small body of literature that is concerned with family language policy at the micro-level. On the one hand, the present study attempts to take Wuhan as example to explore patterns of FLP in China. The research

results of this study could help enrich the research into language policy at the micro-level. On the other hand, since this study is empirical research, it could provide the macro-level researchers with supporting information and thus connect with the research at the macro-level to develop a coherent system.

2. Balancing the research objects of FLP in China.

   Up to now, the focus of FLP research in China has primarily been placed on specific groups such as minority groups, overseas Chinese groups, and urban immigrant families (Yin, 2013; Kang, 2015; Lyu, 2017) rather than the general population. Since FLP is an emerging field, it still needs a large body of empirical research to focus on principal languages and to expand the research field. Besides, investigations into general population could provide a more comprehensive understanding of the current FLP situation in China. As this study is a case study situated in Wuhan, it may contribute to the body of research on general population.

3. Providing a guide for both families and national language policy makers.

   Although this is a case study of Wuhan, it still has general significance. In this study, different patterns of FLP will be examined to ascertain their level of influence on children's language proficiency. If children's language outcomes influenced by different FLP are different, parents can use patterns of FLP as a guide to adjust their own FLP for their children. Furthermore, language ability in families is the basis of national language ability. The learning of foreign languages, the protection of dialects and the promotion of Mandarin exist in the home domain as well. Consequently, the study could offer policy makers a new perspective to solve these problems.

1.2 Literature review

This section will focus on existing works related to FLP. Because FLP is still an

emerging field, the section will start by exploring FLP around the world. Having dealt with the universal research, the section will move on to specific language policy in China and its FLP-related social situations to provide a better understanding of FLP in China.

Section 1.2.1 will explore general works of FLP covering the following aspects: the relationship between language policy and FLP, the definition of FLP, the dimensions of analysing FLP, the impacts of FLP and the factors which can influence FLP. Sections 1.2.2 and 1.2.3 mainly concentrate on specific situations in China. Section 1.2.2 explores works that discuss the important language policy in present-day China: the promotion of Mandarin, the preservation of dialects, the protection of minority languages and foreign language learning. These language policies are representative in China and influence FLP from a social policy perspective. Section 1.2.3 will deal with works about social reality that are closely related with FLP, and parenting and family structures will be discussed in this section. The last section will review significant research works with regard to the current project. By dealing with previous works and combining general FLP research with specific situations, it will be helpful in outlining a layout to analyse FLP in China.

1.2.1 Research on FLP

1.2.1.1 Early phases and current work of FLP

King (2016) categorised the research of FLP into four phases. During the first phase, researchers mainly took their own children as research subjects to explore children's language development. The earliest study is Ronjat's (1913) classic diary studies which date back to over 100 years ago. In this work, Ronjat described the language development of his own children and popularised the notion of One-Person-One-Language (OPOL). Ronjat (1913) also innovatively linked bilingualism with specific cognitive attributes, such as cognitive flexibility and metalinguistic awareness.

In its second phase, researchers in the field of both FLP and children's bilingual development began to study the influence of a bilingual family environment on children's language development by drawing on the classic diary studies mentioned above with the methods of applied linguistics and psycholinguistics. This phase focused on psychological issues including differences in the language development trajectories between bilingual and monolingual children, the nature and role of language transfer, and the relationship between bilingualism and specific cognitive traits and functions.

At the third stage, a large number of sociolinguistic investigations emerged, and many theoretical explorations were attempted. For example, many scholars began to be engaged with the definition of the field of FLP, and FLP was described as explicit (Shohamy, 2006) and overt (Schiffman, 1996). And another example is that of King et al. (2008), who took a sociolinguistic analytic approach to examine language use in the home domain among family members. FLP at this stage is closely linked to language policy, and gives a comprehensive understanding of how changes in parental language awareness over time are applied, realised, and negotiated in families. This stage also pays attention to the short-term and long-term effects of FLP on children's language development.

In the fourth and current phase, the field of FLP provides an interdisciplinary perspective for keeping pace with the broader applied linguistic research. Therefore, there has been increasing recognition of the family as a dynamic system, including the importance of child agency, identity choices, and family formation, all of which are enacted through language (e.g., Gafaranga, 2010; King, 2013). Also, many researchers propose that the field of FLP should not only document general two-parent homes but also diverse types of families, such as trilingual or multilingual families in a transnational environment, minority language families and non-traditional (e.g., adoptive, grandparents, single-parent, LGBT) families (e.g., Canagarajah, 2008; Fogle, 2012; Báez, 2013; Curdt-Christiansen, 2009).

1.2.1.2 Definition of FLP

Although FLP is an emerging sub-field of language policy, it has attracted a lot of scholars' attention, especially sociolinguistic researchers. FLP can be defined as a kind of planning that presents how family members in the home domain use and choose language resources (King et al., 2008; Spolsky, 2012; Zhao, 2018). Under this definition, the formation of FLP should be a dynamic process (Alasmari, 2019) because it needs to be adjusted according to constantly changing interplay and negotiations among family members (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013).

Family members, namely participants in FLP, thus play an important role. Key participants can be categorised into two groups: agents and patients. As for agents, participants include parents, grandparents, caretakers and even neighbours. These agents have different language beliefs, strategies and practices which may have different language impacts on patients. Moreover, it is these diverse language ideologies and behaviours that make up the various ecologies of language communities (Spolsky, 2012) whereas the traditional category of patients just involves children (Spolsky, 2012; Curdt-Christiansen, 2013).

FLP is a complicated study, as it explores connections and interplay among family members in terms of linguistic perspective, and it needs support from different disciplines. Currently, as an interdisciplinary field, FLP connects with three main disciplines.

Firstly, as mentioned above, FLP is a research branch of language policy, and thus, studies on FLP should be based on the research on language policy (King et al., 2008; King et al., 2013). Secondly, there are a lot of interactive processes between agents and patients in FLP, and therefore, studies on FLP also need to focus on language socialisation and discourse analysis (King et al., 2013; Caldas, 2006; Gafaranga, 2010). Thirdly, decisions on language policy of key participants (mainly parents) consciously or unconsciously have an influence on the language outcomes of children in the family.

Consequently, literacy studies, language acquisition and learning and linguistic education are also involved in FLP research (King et al., 2008; Ren et al., 2013; Curdt-Christiansen, 2012; King et al., 2006; King et al., 2013). Apart from disciplines linked to linguistics, some scholars also re-conceptualised FLP in a psychological approach to find out its emotional influences, taking the research to a broader range.

1.2.1.3 Dimensions of analysing FLP

Currently, the dimension of analysing language policy is generally categorised as language ideologies, language practices and language management. Language ideologies refer to people's attitudes towards various languages which they are confronted with. The research target of language practices is to prescribe how people use languages. Language management mainly explores how people intervene and develop certain languages and what they plan to do with language resources in the future (Spolsky, 2004). This categorisation supports most current research on language policy. The research on FLP is also sketched by this dimension of analysis and takes this as a baseline to explore FLP deeply.

The relationship between language ideologies and language practices

Language ideologies, language practices and language management are not independent variables within FLP. They overlap and have completed relationships with each other. Frequently, previous research not only discussed particular situations of language ideologies, language practices and language management in the home domain but also presented the relationships among them. Although there are many pairs of relationships, previous studies are more concerned with the relationship between language ideologies and language practices.

Generally speaking, language ideologies and language practices are mutually influential relationships. On the one hand, language awareness, the core of language ideologies, is the basis of language practices (Zhao, 2018). Different types of language ideologies can help form different language practices. For instance, the research of

Hornberger (1988), Zentella (1997) and King (2001) shows that parental attitudes towards languages, types of interactions and language learning all affect language practices in bilingual families. On the other hand, language practices also affect language ideologies to a certain extent. For example, Seloni et al. (2013) discuss why Judeo-Spanish people among Jews living in Turkey exclude Judeo-Spanish from their linguistic core and only keep its function of identity marking. Moreover, they suggest that specific language practices can lead to some negative language attitudes.

Language ideologies

Past discussions on language ideologies in FLP focused on parental language ideologies (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009) and centred on two questions. One is how parental language ideologies form and work, and another is how parental ideologies and children's language proficiency connect with each other.

Forms of parental language ideologies can be affected by multiple factors including parents themselves, children and social considerations. Parents' own experiences, professional parenting sources that they access and the aspiration of bonding families can be driving forces to develop parental language ideologies to some degree (King et al., 2008; Folge, 2013). Moreover, parental language ideologies are often linked with children, the direct beneficiaries. Language beliefs of parents can be influenced by children's cognitive abilities, emotional abilities and their actual education needs. Furthermore, in most instances, parental ideologies have to be consistent with the broader discourse of communities. The development of parental language ideologies thus relates to larger social background as well (Fogle, 2013).

Language ideologies of parents, hiding behind parental language practices, are the actual motivations of language practices and indirectly affect forms of language policy and children's language acquisition. Sometimes, parents may misunderstand their children's language proficiency if their language choices are completely based on beliefs instead of practical observations. In addition, it may further influence FLP

decision-making ultimately (Spolsky, 2012).

To address the second question, impact beliefs, a new term in FLP, was proposed by De Houwer (1999). Impact beliefs are used by parents to value themselves in the process of FLP making, and De Houwer (1999) claims that impact beliefs can shape their children's language development. Some academics imply that there is a strong link between impact beliefs and children's language outcomes. For example, Báez (2013) points out that in San Lucas Quiaviní, weak impact beliefs could weaken parental control over their children's language development while other factors such as schools and peer groups may play a bigger role than before. However, other researchers disagree with the dominant position of parental ideologies in determining children's language proficiency. Like Martínez-Roldán and Malavé (2004), they argue that studies on children's language outcomes, especially for bilingual children, should pay more attention to broader contexts. For instance, bilingual education systems and language planning in schools may have different aims which can change children's outcomes easily.

Language practices

Both synchronic and diachronic methods can be adopted to analyse language practices. For example, to explore how use of language changes at home and how family members reserve heritage languages, Smith-Christmas (2016) spent eight years recording the language use of a Scottish Gaelic family. Compared with diachronic research, synchronic research on language practices explores everyday language practices rather than long-term changes.

Language practices happen in daily life and include various language strategies. Specific language practices include two kinds of language strategies: visible and invisible. Kasuya (1998) finds that parental use frequency of invisible strategies such as repeating a new turn are higher than that of visible strategies such as explicit corrections in conversations. Apart from language strategies, literacy practices are also

important parts of language practices because they are reflections of actual FLP. Stavans (2012) investigated 60 Ethiopian families from Israel and found their preferences of models to communicate with their children. Furthermore, their preferred discourse model, representing their FLP, exactly matched their ideal literacy targets. Besides this, the research of Patrick et al. (2013) illustrates how Inuit culture is shared across generations for the Ottawa Inuit people and how critical literacy practices are made in the process of FLP.

Language management

Both language ideologies and language practices serve as preparations for language management. As Ren et al. (2013) claims, parental language practices must coincide with their language planning for their children. In addition, literacy belonging to language practices is a significant standard of testing language management (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013). In fact, the nature of language management in the family domain is to conduct FLP, and therefore, the process of FLP being established, modified and developed is that of languages being managed (King et al., 2008; Curdt-Christiansen, 2009).

Different families may deal with different languages. In the most complicated situation, families need to manage three different types of languages. The first type is the mother tongue, which is always the first language people speak from when they were born; the second type is official languages, having been given legal status in countries, states or autonomous regions; the third type is foreign languages, which can be learned in the educational system and are usually regarded as a kind of skill. In the field of language policy, language management has been discussed in many domains such as workplaces and schools with various research focuses (e.g., Spolsky, 2012; Nekvapil, 2006; King, 2009; Sonntag, 2009) while the research scope of language management in the family domain is relatively narrow and primarily concerned with heritage languages.

Research on heritage languages is developed according to a central theme: heritage language loss and heritage language maintenance. Loss of heritage languages, which

means some other languages may replace or assimilate heritage languages, is often accompanied by language shifts. After loss of heritage languages, people can still take heritage languages as their identity markers and abandon their communication function (Seloni et al., 2013). Regarding the phenomena of heritage language loss, most research seeks factors that affect people when they lose their heritage languages.

Language policies from other domains such as schools and governments may diminish the use of heritage languages. For instance, in the ethnographic research of Seloni et al. (2013), schools' reduced emphasis on Judeo-Spanish and governmental 'Turkish-only' language policies both contributed to the decreasing use and even the disappearance of Judeo-Spanish among Jews living in Turkey.

Moreover, language policies of schools causing conflicts between heritage languages and other languages are controlled by governments (Spolsky, 1974). National language policy, therefore, is the fundamental external factor leading to the loss of heritage languages.

Furthermore, internal family factors are also important reasons leading to the loss of heritage languages. In a certain immigrant family, different generations may grow up in different language environments and hold different beliefs in heritage languages. According to the three-generation theory of Fishman (1970), at the beginning, the first generation consciously takes the dominant language as their additional language to help them with their daily life. Then, the second generation becomes bilinguals, and heritage languages are gradually replaced by the dominant language. Finally, the third generation will become monolinguals. In this process, both bilingualism and multilingualism have different meanings for different generations (Hua et al., 2016), and these different ideologies can become powerful and direct causes of heritage language loss. For example, in the case study of San Lucas Quiaviní Zapotec (SLQZ) speakers living in Los Angeles, Báez (2013) emphasises that parental ideologies eventually make their heritage language (SLQZ) endangered.

Regarding the area of heritage language maintenance, recent research mainly presents how people preserve their heritage languages. Inheritance of heritage languages needs a process over generations and requires collaborative efforts from key participants in FLP such as grandparents, parents and children in the families.

The first generation tends to be very positive about maintaining their own heritage languages because they have enough experiences to prompt their grandchildren to speak their heritage languages without any pressure. For example, Ruby (2012) finds that some of the practices that a grandmother used to maintain her heritage language (Bangla) includes sharing memories with her grandchildren, giving continuous encouragement when their grandchildren speak Bangla and providing her grandchildren with regular learning. Ruby (2012) also points out that these aspirations not only help maintain her heritage languages in the third generation but also build a very harmonious family atmosphere.

Apart from efforts of the first generation, the second generation also makes a lot of efforts to preserve their heritage languages. Parents can take advantage of two kinds of resources to modify their children's language environment and achieve the goal of heritage language maintenance. One is educational resources such as sending their children to heritage language complementary weekend and evening schools (Lytra, 2012; Spolsky, 2012). The other is cultural resources. Parents can maintain their heritage languages by celebrating traditional festivals or reading heritage language storybooks with their children (Ren et al., 2013). Apparently, all these activities in maintaining heritage languages require the involvement of two or three generations.

1.2.1.4 The impacts of FLP

As FLP is conducted and enacted in the family domain, it undoubtedly affects family members at home. Moreover, people with their own FLP not only live at home but in society, and the impacts of FLP thus may break through the family domain and make some potential contributions to a broader context.

On the one hand, children, one of the key participants in the family, are directly affected by FLP. Considerable previous studies discussed the relationships between FLP and children's language outcomes. Research on children's language outcomes can be divided into three sections (King et al., 2013). The first part is the language abilities of heritage languages and the bilingual and multilingual acquisition of children (e.g., Sauders, 1982; Döpke, 1992; Cruz-Ferreira, 2006). The second part of the research provides insights into children's actual language use at home (e.g., Goodz, 1989; Kulick, 1992; Yamamoto, 2001). The third part explores children's identities and their beliefs about culture (Zentella, 1997, Hua, 2008; McCarty, 2008).

It is worth mentioning that language learning, language use and development of identities, three independent research subjects, are related to one another and are often put together to be analysed. Children are significant participants in FLP because they are always the main patients in the family. Consequently, children have unique language outcomes affected by FLP. Moreover, children with other family members also have some common language outcomes affected by FLP. For instance, FLP can cause emotional impacts on participants in the family. Tannenbaum (2012) argues that FLP presents the way how family members think of both internal and external current situations, and their FLP formed by their own awareness can be used to enhance their sense of well-being. Stavans (2012) agrees with Tannenbaum and states that reasonable FLP can also make family members confident and thus promote literacy progress in the family.

FLP is not only influential in the home domain; its impacts could extend to other micro-level domains such as schools. King et al. (2008) and Conteh (2012) reveal that FLP can help children get access to successful performance at school. Furthermore, the impacts of FLP are not limited to the micro level. FLP is like a mirror of society which can reflect social patterns (King et al., 2008). FLP, which has close connections with society, can thus provide ways of solving language problems at the macro level as well.

In conclusion, FLP is an important factor in linking the micro level with the macro level. For example, language endangerment is a problem that every nation may be confronted with; to preserve endangered languages, the key step is to form effective FLP in the families. Only by constructing a bottom–up language policy can endangered languages be maintained and transmitted to generation after generation.

1.2.1.5 Factors affecting FLP

The factors that can impact FLP is the research question being dealt with most in the field of FLP. However, it seems that few studies attempt to sort out and verify all related factors together. Building on early studies, factors affecting FLP can be divided into external and internal factors.

External factors

Although FLP is developed in the home domain, various external factors outside the home are crucial to FLP. As all key participants in FLP need to connect with the given society, the FLP made by these key participants at home to some extent depends on the economic, political, socio-cultural status of society (King et al., 2008; Spolsky, 2012; King et al., 2013).

Economic and socio-cultural factors can influence people's attitudes towards languages. For example, Curdt-Christiansen (2013) examines how 10 Chinese families who immigrate to Quebec perceive and value Chinese, English and French and how they form their own FLP in a multilingual environment. The results show that when these 10 families develop FLP, they are greatly influenced by social and economic factors; that is, they regard languages as a tool or a kind of capital to access higher social and economic status. Holding different attitudes towards languages may further form different FLP as attitudes towards languages can change language authority and even affect language solidarity in a certain home (Smith-Christmas, 2016). Once language authority and solidarity change in one family, FLP will adjust or totally change accordingly.

Apart from economic and socio-cultural influences, political factors are also important external factors which people need to consider when they create FLP. Policy of state is an important embodiment of political impacts on FLP. Two kinds of governmental policies can affect FLP greatly: language policy and educational policy.

Language policy at the governmental level determines a broader language context and a public mainstream discourse for people and thus determines people's language choices (Okita, 2002; Garrett, 2011). For instance, the 'Turkey only' language policy is responsible for Jews' decreasing use of Judeo-Spanish and increases monolingual language policy at home (Seloni et al., 2013).

Unlike language policy, which can influence FLP directly, educational policy affects FLP in an indirect way. Generally speaking, the implementation of educational policy needs to rely on certain institutions, which are mostly schools. It is easy to cause conflicts between schools which represent educational policy and families which represent domestic language planning. To meet public educational demands, language learning in school education focuses on official languages and foreign languages but often ignores heritage languages (Spolsky, 1974). According to the language outcomes of children from schools, parents make choices from maintaining to abandoning their heritage languages. The process for key participants in FLP to deal with conflicts is that of FLP being negotiated and changed. In addition, in school education, peer groups are another external factor that cannot be neglected. The investigation of Báez (2013) indicates that if FLP is incomplete, it is possible for schools and peer groups to get involved in FLP, and the languages they favour exert considerable influence on the ultimate forms of FLP.

Internal factors

Internal factors affecting FLP are revealed from two main perspectives. One is from the perspective of persons engaging in FLP, and another draws on the traditional theoretical framework of FLP.

Scholars of previous studies have been aware of important roles that parents and children play in FLP; parents' backgrounds and emotional factors have a great influence on FLP from different aspects. Parental backgrounds contain parental educational experiences, cultural disposition, immigrant experiences and immigrant pressure (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Ren et al., 2013). Emotional factors of parents include parental expectations of their children, educational beliefs and loyalty to a certain culture (King et al., 2008; Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Ren et al., 2013). In addition, scholars in the field of FLP also reflected on these factors after admitting their importance in FLP. For example, Smith-Christmas (2016) emphasises that the extent to which factors can influence FLP is different. In the case study analysis, the target of the research is not only to find out all factors that can affect FLP but also to point out the key factors that play decisive roles.

Although children function as patients in FLP, they can also shape their FLP. Essentially, from the beginning, the formation of language policy is inseparable from the game between parents and children. Tuominen (1999) points out that parental language policy at home can be shaped by their children's language beliefs and language use. In the case study of Tuominen on bilingual families living in the United States, Tuominen finds that it is the children socialised by their external lives that induct their parents to complete language assimilation instead of keeping previous FLP to save minority languages. Moreover, children's emotional and cognitive abilities are influential in shaping FLP (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013).

Overall, previous research shed light on the importance of independent family members in FLP. However, the effects of interplay among family members produced in FLP are also worthy of attention. For example, language transmissions among generations are hugely influential in creating FLP (Smith-Christmas, 2016). Some scholars have examined factors affecting FLP in terms of its traditional theoretical framework, and they highlighted language ideologies and took them as important factors that impact FLP. Curdt-Christiansen (2013) confirms that language ideologies have the potential to

influence FLP because they decide specific measures that families adopt to influence family members' language behaviours at first, and then language ideologies will be integrated with specific language practices to control the direction of FLP.

1.2.2 Language policy in China

Cobarrubias (1983) concludes that there are four general types of language policy around the world: language assimilation, language pluralism, language vernacularization, and language internationalism. In fact, language policy in China cannot simply fit into one of these certain types and the governmental practices sometimes have to switch between assimilationist and pluralist. The reason is that China is a representative multilingual society with various nationalities, languages and scripts (Dao, 1998; Bradley, 2005; Dai, 2015) and the nation would like to make efforts to achieve a balance between protecting the diversity of languages and the popularization of Mandarin. Frequently, in a multi-language society, there are multiple relationships that need to be dealt with in China.

Zhou et al. (2004) discussed China's theory and practice of language policy of over fifty years, and their work facilitates the understanding of language policy in China since 1949. In the work of Zhou et al. there are four main themes: script and written language; the language policy of Mandarin and Chinese dialects; language policy for minority community; and foreign languages education. Considering the language resources involved in the themes above, three relationships between different languages resources should be addressed. Firstly, to create a harmonious language environment, it is necessary for the government to deal with the relationship between Mandarin (the official language in China) and minority languages. Secondly, to avoid language irregularities, the relationship between Mandarin and dialects cannot be ignored either. Thirdly, national language policy not only solves domestic communication problems but also needs to play an important role in international communication. In the globalised context, the language policy of China thus needs to be concerned about the

relationships between English and other foreign languages.

According to previous studies on the language policy of China, the research is biased towards macroscopic aspects such as comparative studies on different official language policies while paying less attention to both meso- and micro-level works about language policy (Li, 2016). However, any meso- or micro-level language policy needs general language policy principles as guides. Macroscopic research on language policy is thus necessary preparation for explorations of meso- and micro-level studies. In China, language policy consists of two main principles with different purposes that have been written into the Constitution of the People's Republic of China. One is to recognise the subject status of Mandarin, and another is to respect the diversity of minority languages (Zhou, 2013; Dai, 2015; Zhao, 2016). However, two rules valued by the Constitution both seem to neglect the importance of issues relating to dialects and foreign languages, which narrow the extension of language policy.

On the one hand, dialect issues related to issues of cultural preservation and language identity. Some driving forces need to be used to protect dialects. For instance, dialect protection should be included in national policy and even the Constitution. On the other hand, foreign languages are often discussed in the field of language education rather than language policy. In the context of globalisation, foreign language, as a soft power, should be regarded as an intersection to be studied in the perspectives of both language policy and language education (Shen, 2014). The following section will thus review research on the language policy of China from three perspectives: the promotion of Mandarin, the preservation of dialects, the protection of minority languages and foreign language planning.

It should be noted that there is not only the work of theoretical national language policy, but also the research on the regional implementation of language policy in China. For example, Blachford (2004) took the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region as a case study to illustrate the development and implementation of language policy (including

the reform and implementation of Uygur and Kazak written scripts and the spread of Mandarin in Xinjiang) over the past fifty years. Also, in Postiglione's book (2008), the case study of Tibet shows that the solutions to Tibetan language education problems have been and will presumably continue to be shaped by the politics of ethnic identity. Furthermore, Yang (2014) claims that even in the practice of governmental multicultural education, minority students seem to neglect or voluntarily choose Mandarin as a result of the pervasive influence of the promotion of Mandarin.

1.2.2.1 Promoting Mandarin and protecting dialects

In China, promoting Mandarin is an efficient way to facilitate social communication at the current stage and in the future, and it is one of important language standardization work of Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. Meanwhile, dialects standing in great numbers is an undeniable fact as well (Chen, 1990).

Considering current situations, language policy for both Mandarin and dialects has achieved some positive and negative results.

Yu (2009) indicates that since the founding of New China, the process of promoting Mandarin has been roughly divided into five stages, and currently the work has entered a very critical period. With the promotion of Mandarin being carried out for 60 years, the popularity of Mandarin in cities and towns has reached a relatively high level. By contrast, the work of promoting Mandarin in rural areas is slow (Ruan, 2005). For instance, by comparing the data of popularising Mandarin in Guangxi province in 2000 and 2010, Dai (2012) claims that the promotion of Mandarin is fairly effective, and Guangxi province is moving towards a bilingual community. However, the data also suggests that to complete the final transition, it is necessary to strengthen the promotion of Mandarin in rural areas, which are weak links in the process.

Compared with the policy of Mandarin, the work of preservation of dialects has only begun. Recently, language-as-resource orientation has gradually established in the field

of language policy in China. language-as-resource orientation refers to the statement that language phenomena, especially multilingualism, are no longer regarded as problems to be solved but as resources which need to be protected. The view of language-as-resource orientation is intended to protect, develop and utilise languages or languages varieties. As this view has emerged in recent decades, protecting dialects has drawn some but not sufficient attention from the field of language policy (Lei, 2012).

The promotion of Mandarin may also challenge the preservation of dialects because of the dominant status and sound implementation system of Mandarin. As Chen (1990) predicts, because of the promotion of Mandarin, dialects will move closer to Mandarin and have more common components with it. For example, Jiang (2008) finds that in Nanchang, promoting Mandarin provides chances for both powerful Mandarin and the weak Nanchang dialect to interact with each other, which leads to the emergence of a new Nanchang dialect. Many researchers in the field of language policy in China thus propose many initiatives to accelerate the development of dialects language policy such as developing dialect corpuses, training dialect teachers, conducting large-scale dialect surveys and others.

As can be seen, it is inevitable that promoting Mandarin and protecting dialects sometimes may cause conflicts and disequilibrium. To seek a balance between Mandarin and dialects, the promotion of Mandarin and the protection of dialects are often put together to be discussed as two parallel and unified issues. For example, Guo (2004) examined the relationship between Mandarin and "competing" dialects to explore the evolution of Chinese policy statements. Furthermore, Tam (2020) traced the survival of dialects as nonstandard "variants" and the revolution of standard Mandarin. Some researchers also contrasted Chinese dialects and state-encouraged Mandarin in Chinese contemporary media (Gunn, 2005; Liu, 2013). Previous discussions of Mandarin and dialects primarily has involved the establishment of their status and distributions of their domains of use. Li (2008) states that the target of promoting Mandarin is not to eliminate dialects but to give leading positions to both Mandarin and

dialects in different domains. The promotion of Mandarin advocates its dominant position in public areas while the protection of dialects emphasises their leading status in private areas. Public areas refer to areas of public administration, education, publishing, broadcasting media and others while areas outside the public domain can be collectively regarded as private areas.

For example, Yu (2010) investigates the bilingual situation of primary and middle school students in Suzhou. Because of the promotion of Mandarin and the protection of SuZhou dialects, language use among students in Suzhou has shown an ideal distribution trend of Mandarin and Suzhou dialect. That is, Mandarin achieved its dominant status in public areas while in private domains, especially in the family domain, the dominant forces of the Suzhou dialect were strong. Meanwhile, scholars find that whether it is the popularisation of Mandarin or the maintenance of dialects, the decisive factor is economics (e.g., Qin et al., 2012; Chen, 2011; Zhou, 2003). For instance, Zhou (2013) takes advantage of a rational language choice theory and claims that the smooth progress of promoting Mandarin depends on the premise that the language profits of Mandarin are higher than its language costs. In addition, Xu (2014) argues that combining the protection of dialects and economic development is the fundamental solution to protecting dialects.

1.2.2.2 Protecting minority languages and saving endangered languages

Unlike the work of dialect protection, the preservation of minority languages can be achieved through minority education policies. To meet communication needs among nationalities and social development, bilingual teaching policy has formed different teaching modes in different ethnic regions and has successfully solved conflicts between Mandarin and minority languages.

Documents about bilingual education for ethic groups are fruitful. For example, previous studies have included detailed reviews of the historical evolution of bilingual education among Chinese ethnic minorities (Dai et al., 1996; Bass, 1998; Wang, 2003;

Li, 2009; Lhagyal, 2021), discussions about the relationships between national education and bilingual education (Wang, 2003, 2009), exploration of language and script policies (Wan et al., 2012; Dai, 2006; Li, 2010) , studies on the objects, features, content and methods of bilingual teaching itself (Teng, 1996) and the implement of bilingual education policy for the minorities (Lin, 1997; Tsung, 2009; Zenz, 2010)

In addition to theoretical research about the protection of minority languages, academics have also made contributions to the descriptions of the status quo of minority languages. The focus of descriptive research is on language attitudes and language choices. For example, Wang (1999) discusses minority speakers' similarities and differences they hold in language attitudes. Moreover, considering factors changing language attitudes and choices of minority language speakers, the family language environment is an important variable. For example, in the Hongqi kindergarten case study in Urumqi, Wang et al. (2009) indicates that the family language environment has a profound impact on children's bilingual education. Furthermore, Wu (2007) investigates language beliefs and language use among minority college students in Beijing and finds that even when the physical environment changes, the family language environment still has a significant impact on minority students' language attitudes and language use.

Besides, another language policy in China derived from protecting minority languages has also attracted the attention of the academe: saving endangered languages. According to the universal view of the academic world, minority languages used by less than 50,000 speakers can be classified as endangered. Previous studies have shown that in China, there are approximately 130 kinds of minority languages, and 44 of these are endangered or close to endangered (Wang, 2008). Formulating a relevant language policy of rescuing endangered languages is urgent. Scholars in this field have made some contributions to this issue. Previous research on language endangerment around the world is fruitful, and much of it has been introduced in China (e.g., Xu et al., 2003; Fan et al., 2006; Wang, 2008). For instance, Fan et al. (2006) translate the document

titled ‘Language Vitality and Endangerment’ published on the UNESCO website to enrich the understanding of language endangerment.

To combine with discussions on the endangered languages issue around the world and the actual situation in China, academics explore this issue from two perspectives: countermeasure research and factor research. Researchers advocate many feasible suggestions to protect endangered languages (Wang, 2004; Sun, 2001; Sun, 2006). For example, to distinguish the priority order of saving endangered languages, some scholars advocate ranking the vitality of all minority languages. Furthermore, there are some discussions on the causes of language endangerment (Xu, 2002; Li, 2005). For instance, Li (2005) divides factors that cause language endangerment into five respects: ethnic mix, intermarriage, population using endangered languages, culture and education, migration for work, national mentality and language attitudes.

Both protecting minority languages and saving endangered languages are closely relevant to family language policy. Whether the minority languages are endangered or not, they can become heritage languages in the home domain for a variety of reasons. Studies on heritage languages are a significant part of family language policy. To develop a comprehensive analysis of family language policy, the review of both the protection of minority languages and the preservation of endangered languages are essential because the reviews not only provide general research development of these two fields but can also supply some beneficial ideas about research methods, research strategies and research questions.

1.2.2.3 Foreign language planning in China

Issues related to foreign language learning used to be classified under foreign languages education rather than language policy. However, language function policy is an important research sub-field of Chinese language policy. According to Li (2008), language function policy is proposed after traditional language status planning and language ontology planning and it’s planning aim is to figure out the value and role of

language phenomena at various functional levels. Foreign languages, as a soft power in the process of globalisation, have become an indispensable part of language function policy. For instance, Li (2008) designs a language function planning table which divides language functions into eight levels: Mandarin, official working languages, education, mass media, public service, public communication, culture and daily communication. He also divides language phenomena into five types: national common language, minority languages, Chinese dialects, foreign languages and traditional Chinese characters. In addition, he claims that foreign languages exert their influence on education, mass media, public service and culture.

In recent decades, foreign language planning has gradually gained the attention of government and the academic world. For example, as early as the 1950s, the government had neither long-term planning for foreign languages education such as ranking different foreign languages, use of foreign languages and bilingual education and others nor a special agency to manage this work. However, after decades of hard work, the government has formed a long-term foreign language policy which is consistent with China's actual situation: developing English education vigorously and also paying attention to the education of other foreign languages such as Japanese, French, German and Russian (Hu, 2001).

Researchers also contribute a lot of explorations to foreign language policy (Li, 2010; Zhao, 2010; Hu, 2001; Su, 2013). For example, Li (2010) puts forward the idea that some new aspects should be addressed in accordance with the country's current foreign language needs: non-universal languages, foreign language translation and Chinese translation, foreign language applications in public service, foreign language services in foreign communities, the needs of foreign languages in special fields such as the military, border defence, national security, citizen foreign language literacy, among others. Zhao (2014) points out that different from domestic languages in China, the system of Chinese foreign language policy should include four basic aspects: foreign language status planning, foreign language function planning, foreign language

acquisition planning and foreign language translation planning.

1.2.2.4 The implementation of national language policy in Wuhan

Wuhan is the capital of Hubei Province as well as a representative city in central China. Meanwhile, Wuhan is not only an important base of national industry, science and education, but also a domestic comprehensive transportation hub. As of the end of 2020, there are 13 districts under the jurisdiction of Wuhan, with a total area of 8,569.15 square kilometres and a permanent population of 12.3265 million (referring to the seventh national census).

As regards the linguistic ecology of Wuhan, Xiong et al. (2020) claim that considering the language situation in Wuhan, the common languages the Wuhanese use are Mandarin and the Wuhan dialects, while minority languages and foreign languages are rarely used in people's daily life. The Wuhan dialect can be categorised into the Northern Chinese system. However, due to geographical reasons, the Wuhan dialect is more similar to the dialects of Yunnan, Guizhou, and Sichuan in the southwest region, as well as Hunan and Guangxi in the central and southern regions.

In recent years, China has developed an overall language policy (including the Outline of the National Medium- and Long-Term Language Affairs Reform and Development Plan (2012-2020) and the 13th Five-Year Plan for the Development of the National Language Affairs). In order to actively implement the national language policy, Wuhan Education Bureau (2016) correspondingly developed a 13th Five-Year Plan for Language Affairs for the city. The contents of the Five-Year plan are as follows:

Firstly, the local government sets five-years language goals for the local region. To be consistent with the national language affairs development plan, the goals of the Wuhan government include the promotion of Mandarin and standardised Chinese characters, the establishment of a modern language governance system and a social application order of language, and the further improvement of the language ability of citizens and

students in Wuhan. In addition, according to the linguistic ecology of Wuhan, the government also sets the goal of promoting and inhering the Wuhan dialect culture, which localises the national idea of the promotion of Chinese language culture.

Secondly, the local government plans to carry out activities such as the promotion of Mandarin and investigations into the Wuhan dialect to help achieve the 13th five-year plan. Specially, the activities of promoting Mandarin should be expanded to villages and townships in Wuhan and the target number of people trained is 10,000 by 2020. Also, there are many tasks to be completed in the investigation of the Wuhan dialect. For example, the selection of "dialect speakers" and the collection of dialect data in the main urban area of Wuhan and new urban areas such as Caidian, Jiangxia, Huangpi, Xinzhou should be completed by 2020.

Thirdly, in the five-year plan of Wuhan, the local government would continuously improve and update the institutional mechanism of Wuhan's language affairs, and increase investment in publicity, scientific research and funding for language affairs.

1.2.3 Education policy and language education policy in China

In the field of FLP, language policy, education policy and language education policy are very important concepts and should be taken into consideration before discussing the issues related to FLP. As regards the studies in the past, the relationships between the three concepts above are clear. Zhang (2009) points out that language education policy is the overlapping part of education policy and language policy, and the policymaking of language education policy is influenced by the content of both language policy and education policy. Therefore, the development and implementation of language education policy must be carried out under the premise of national language policy and education policy.

Language education policy involves many aspects such as the medium of instruction in

schools or the choice of language of instruction in schools, the popularization of the national official language, and foreign language education (Cooper, 1989; Spolsky, 2000). For the nation which has a multilinguistic repertoire, the implementation objects of the language education policy include the dominant language of the country (that is, the national common language and the official language), minority languages, and foreign languages (Zhang, 2018). Correspondingly, Chinese language education policy refers to Mandarin, minority languages and foreign languages. According to the research content of this research, it can be seen that Chinese education and foreign languages education are relevant to this case study in Wuhan. On the one hand, the Chinese education policy is closely related to the national language policy. Therefore, the promotion of Putonghua, the normalization and standardization of Chinese language and characters, and the processing of language information are important tasks of language education policy in China.

On the other hand, foreign languages education in China includes English education and other foreign languages education. At present, English occupies a prominent position in Chinese foreign languages education. In the context of globalization, English, as a dominant foreign language in China, is learned by the largest number of people. Considering the status of English, it is the first foreign language in China (Guo, 2020). In fact, English can be throughout students' entire academic development in China. Firstly, in the stage of basic education in China, when it comes to foreign languages learning, it almost means English learning. According to the official documents of Ministry of Education of People's Republic of China, all primary schools including cities, counties and townships should offer English courses from 2002 (Liu, 2002). The spread of English course in rural areas in China further consolidates the dominant status of English. Second, in the stage of high school education, English has the same score as the subjects Chinese and Mathematics, and it is one of three main subjects in National College Entrance Examination. Thirdly, in the stage of higher education, many English certificates such as CET-4 or CET-6 have been stimulating the enthusiasm of college students to learn English.

Furthermore, English could even play an important role in people's career development in China. English proficiency is one of the important assessment criteria when applying for a job and evaluating professional titles. For example, in the Chinese job market, job applicants are required to provide a CET-4 or CET-6 certificate or the same level of IELTS or TOEFL certificate. To a certain extent, this contributes to the rise of English's status in China. In conclusion, it can be seen that specific national foreign languages education policies are beneficial to the development of English in China.

1.2.4 The family structure and parenting in China

Considering the growing stage of the research on FLP in China, previous sections above provide explorations of the whole map of FLP around the world and language policy in China. This section, to generate more beneficial thoughts on FLP in China, will discuss specific circumstances which could impact FLP greatly in the family domain in China.

As mentioned above, participants are important roles shaping FLP at home. Although this general principle is applicable in FLP making in China as well, the members engaged in FLP sometimes may be different from those of other nations. When discussing FLP in China, the family structure needs to be considered as it decides what types members can participate in creating FLP. Moreover, in whatever type of family structure, agents are indispensable roles in the process of creating and shaping FLP. Parenting beliefs and modes with Chinese characteristics thus could more or less influence FLP.

The following sub-section will present the family structure and family parenting in China. The sub-section on family structure will focus on intergenerational relationships and marital relationships while the sub-section on family parenting will review family parenting beliefs and modes in China.

1.2.3.1 The family structure in China

The case study of Wu (2003) suggests two factors which can considerably influence changes in language patterns in the family domain in China. One is changes among family members, and another is external language environments. When FLP develops, it will adjust according to objective language environments. In addition, it is obvious that different compositions of family members can produce different factors which affect FLP, and these factors thus affect FLP. Explorations and analysis of specific types of family structures in China both play a significant role in examining FLP in China.

Based on the census data of 2010, there are six types of family structures in China. They are nuclear families, lineal families, compound families, single-person households, incomplete families and other types. Among these six types of family structures, 83.88% are nuclear families and lineal families (Wang, 2013). Nuclear families refer to those consisting of one couple or parents (or one parent) with their unmarried children. Lineal families refer to families consisting of parents (or parent), married children and grandchildren. These two main family structures determine the general participants in FLP in China: parents, grandparents and children.

Meanwhile, 60.89% are nuclear families. This type of family structure is relatively simple because it only includes two types of FLP participants: parents and children. Moreover, in this type of family structure, parents are regarded as having a strong power in the process of creating FLP. In nuclear families, marriage and migration are two influential factors from the perspective of establishing FLP. For instance, in China, people from different areas getting married or people migrating to other areas make it possible for them to access other dialects or minority languages.

Furthermore, lineal families include at least three generations in one family. Because of the living styles of elderly family members, this type of family structure accounts for the second largest proportion of the family structures in China. Compared with nuclear families, lineal families have more participants engaging in FLP. In lineal families, families with three generations are the most common situations. Consequently,

grandparents, parents and grandchildren are the most common participants engaging in FLP in lineal families. Different from nuclear families, members of lineal families have more complex relationships with one another. In lineal families, parents are not the only authority that creates FLP. Apart from parents, grandparents also become significant participants in FLP development. Sometimes, parents and grandparents can co-operate in the process. In addition, these two generations sometimes may have different views on languages, and they may have conflicts when FLP is created. It thus seems that in China, intergenerational differences are important factors that could influence FLP.

However, a common but special situation in China is that grandparents are likely to have a high degree of participating when parents develop FLP for their children in nuclear families. It is the reason that many grandparents in China voluntarily would take care of their grandchildren such as sending them to school every day and making meals for them. Grandparents thus could spend a lot of time with their grandchildren but they do not live with them. Therefore, considering this situation in China, grandparents in broader family might be involved in FLP as an influential factor even the family samples are not lineal families.

In conclusion, considering the current family structure of China, parents, grandparents and children are the main family members involved in FLP. Furthermore, from the perspective of the family structure, marriage, migration and intergenerational differences are three factors which are worth being explored in FLP research in China.

1.2.3.2 Family parenting in China

On the one hand, since FLP has cross-coincidental parts with family parenting to some degree, they both present parents' planning and efforts for their children. Generally speaking, FLP in the families keep a consistent tone with family parenting. Explorations of family parenting in China can thus help enhance the understanding of FLP in China. For example, traditional family parenting is categorised into three styles: authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting and permissive parenting (Baumrind, 1971). These

types of family parenting can also be adopted in China. Consequently, parents' conscious and unconscious FLP may find explanations from these family parenting styles.

On the other hand, as a content of family parenting, family language education has a close relation with FLP. Based on previous studies, research on language education at home in China focuses more on parents' language preparations for their pre-school children and lack comprehensive research on children in different stages of learning (Chen et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2012; Yang, 2012). To be more specific, as family language education is long-term parenting, not only pre-school students but also primary school students, middle school students and high school students and even college students all need to be focused on equally.

1.2.5 Important research works as regards the present project

Previous research provides valuable insights into many aspects of FLP. These studies remain crucial to our wider understanding of the field of FLP. Among the literature, several key studies have been greatly significant to this study due to the powerful explorations of theories provided and their insight into the development of FLP in China. In this section, I will review a number of research works that have been influential for the current study.

Language Policy (Spolsky, 2004) is a wide-ranging book with many issues and topics associated with FLP. According to the book, language policy consists of language ideologies, language practices and language management. Most of the current theoretical structure for analysing language policy is built on these three components. This work does, therefore, make a significant contribution to the analysis of language policy in specific domains, especially in the family domain. Although many examples were used in the book to illustrate how language ideology, language practices and language management play an important role in different domains, the author made no

attempt to give sufficient consideration to factors which affect these components. Moreover, in the last chapter of the book, the author discusses whether language policy can succeed, since language itself seems to be uncontrollable. If the factors that can influence language policy in every domain are clear, the more relevant question is not 'can language policy succeed?' but rather 'how to make language policy successful'?

Language management (Spolsky, 2009) is another pioneering work in the field of language policy. The author outlined a theory of language management on the basis of his previous assumptions about language policy. One of the most significant assumptions presented in the author's earlier book (Spolsky, 2009) is that there are three components of language policy: language ideology, language practices, and language management. Based on this general theoretical framework, the author further explored language management in depth. In addition, the author suggests that the nature of language policy is to choose languages, and some language choices result from language management. Although in this work no attempts have been made to find specific measures to manage language, which can be carried out in particular speech community, its illustration of the nature of language policy makes a significant contribution to my study. When classifying FLP patterns in China, describing language choices such as language maintenance, language abandonment and language shift can be an effective way to analyse FLP patterns.

The general theoretical discussions of language policy research have been studied extensively. However, the general research may be limited by the specific contexts of particular nations. As a result of this, many Chinese researchers started to propose theoretical studies aligned more closely with Chinese reality. Li (2005) offered an outline of Chinese language policy which mentions dialects, mother tongues, and bilingual education linguistic life, among others. One of the most useful part to my study of this comprehensive book is the discussion of differences between the mother tongue and *Mu Yan*. Firstly, the languages that people learn first are not always their mother tongues, because the mother tongue also contains emotional considerations such

as linguistic identity. In addition, the mother tongue not only refers to itself but also refers to the regional varieties of the mother tongue - *Mu Yan*. Because of this, dialects in China should be identified as language variations rather than independent languages, although people who speak different dialects sometimes cannot communicate with each other. Consequently, to improve communication, the goal of language policymakers from any level is to develop children's bi-dialectic and bilingual proficiencies.

Up to date, the existing literature on FLP in China suffers from theoretical weaknesses. Li (2018) devoted some attention to these theoretical weaknesses in FLP studies in China. The author pinpoints what should be improved in the field of FLP in three aspects: subjects, content, and objects. In terms of subjects, the author claims that it is not only parents or elder members in families who are subjects of FLP; children are also subjects. In other words, in the process of developing FLP, parents or elder members in families are more likely to take the responsibility of managing children's FLP due to their family roles. However, children are important participants in FLP as well since they have subjectivity to accept or refuse the management by their parents or elder members in families. In addition, the role of children is a significant factor which can influence FLP making more than merely a subject of FLP. The reason is that when FLP is developed, language managers need to give sufficient consideration to children's existing language proficiency, language behaviours, and other linguistic characteristics.

Since this project is an investigative study, earlier investigations of FLP are crucial to our understanding about how to make a well-designed and robust study. Although there are few FLP case studies on Wuhan, useful ideas are provided by investigations of FLP focusing on other cities. Zhang et al. (2018) examined how FLP had developed in Jining, in Shandong province, by using Spolsky's tripartite theory on language policy. Data from the study by Zhang et al. (2018) were collected using questionnaires and analysed using quantitative methods. The researchers adopted quantitative methods to analyse people's language beliefs, language practices and language management. Because the

investigation included an exploration of factors that can affect FLP, it would have been more helpful if the research had used mixed methods for collection and analysis. Mandarin, dialects, and English were main languages or language varieties examined. To get more accurate results, the questionnaire would have been more relevant if they had divided 'dialects' into hometown dialects and non-hometown dialects and divided 'foreign languages' into English and other foreign languages.

1.3 Theoretical framework

The process of building a theoretical framework of FLP is that of a question to be answered: who does what to whom in FLP (Kaplan et al., 1997). This question indicates that FLP making requires at least two roles. Generally speaking, in the family domain, parents and children are two main participants engaging in FLP. These two types of participants are viewed as subjects and objects of FLP implementation, and the subjects of FLP implementation are also known as FLP makers.

According to different types of participants, the research targets will be different. For parents, scholars concern themselves with how parents develop and modify their FLP; for children, scholars focus on what children achieve from FLP. Apart from key participants, factors that can affect FLP play a significant role as well because they can account for the formation of different types of FLP. The theoretical framework of this research was based on the process of forming FLP and was divided into three parts. To begin, external and internal factors collectively provide FLP makers with driving forces to develop FLP; and then, according to existing language practices, FLP makers who are influenced by various factors start to manage their languages in the family using their own language ideologies; finally, what parents do in FLP can directly and indirectly affect what children achieve in it. To illustrate the complex relationships among these three parts of the framework, Figure 1.3 provides a graphic representation of the theoretical framework we will use in the research.

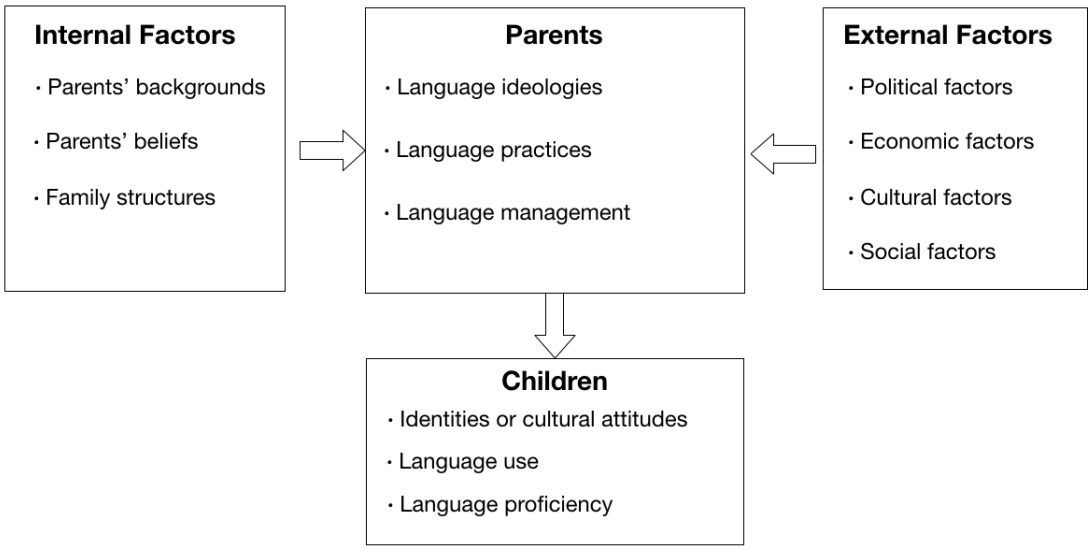

Figure 1.3 The process of making FLP

1.3.1 Factors affecting FLP

Factors which can influence FLP will be divided into two: internal and external. Internal factors refer to internal family conditions such as family members and family structures. Based on previous studies, policymakers' backgrounds (e.g., parents' age, parents' educational experience), policymakers' beliefs (e.g., parents' loyalty to their heritage languages, parents' expectation for their children) and family structures (e.g., nuclear families and lineal families) can contribute to the formation of FLP.

As for external factors, the framework will be based on assumptions by Spolsky (2004) and Curdt-Christiansen (2009). Spolsky mainly analysed external factors from political, economic, cultural and social contexts. In addition, these four perspectives were perceived as important macro factors which greatly influence the language ideology of FLP by Curdt-Christiansen. Essentially, what these four factors affect is FLP with language ideology as its core but not simply language ideology. Consequently, in this research, the impact range of these factors will expand to the whole process of making FLP (including language ideology, language use and language practices).

Firstly, as language is political from top to bottom (Joseph, 2006), there is no doubt that FLP making will be affected by various political factors. On the one hand, in the process

of FLP making, if parents would like to learn about current national language policy. Language policy and educational policy are two main policies that should be given full consideration (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009). On the other hand, in the political perspective, language is a right for human beings (Phillipson, 2000). Maintaining or abandoning a certain language is people's right. Especially when national language policy cannot meet people's need to preserve their languages and when society cannot make an equal environment for languages, the awareness of the right to language will grow rapidly among people. How people use their language rights could be related to how they manage language resources.

Secondly, the assumption that economic factors can have a considerable impact on FLP making was based on economics of language. In this perspective, language is viewed as a kind of capital (Carliner, 1976). Like other capitals, language can provide returns. Moreover, learning a second language or a foreign language is affected by economic factors to some extent because people perceive language learning as an investment. The target of this activity is to make the benefits of investment greater than its costs. The costs of investment in language learning depend on the time spent on learning, money spent on learning (e.g., tuition and costs of learning equipment) and abandoned income during learning time. The benefits of investment in language learning depend on the time of its use and the width of its application after people acquire that language. Furthermore, each language has its value, which will fluctuate with the law of supply and demand. Focusing on the same language, the value of the language may differ as well since people's language proficiencies are different (Xu, 1999).

Thirdly, language has a very close connection with culture as well. Language can be a carrier of cultural reality (Kramsch et al., 1998), and learning language is thus one of the most important ways to get access to the culture. To preserve a certain culture in the family, FLP makers may make efforts by developing FLP. For instance, some parents of immigrant families may insist on maintaining their own heritage languages to prompt their children to learn their own traditional culture. Furthermore, language itself has its

cultural value. For example, language has a function of marking identities because people can identify themselves and others through language (Kramsch et al., 1998). Choice of language in FLP can therefore reflect people's acceptance and rejection of identities and social groups. In conclusion, whether language is an identity marker or a tool to access culture, culture can undoubtedly have an impact on FLP development.

Finally, when FLP makers establish or develop FLP, they should consider social factors. On the one hand, any language cannot be used in the same way because they include varieties. Some varieties are formed by social factors, and the most important social factor in FLP is social class. People belonging to different social statuses use different varieties of language. Consequently, language can function as a clue to help people locate others' social status. Sometimes, to pursue higher social status, people may change their use of language varieties accordingly. On the other hand, to pursue higher social prestige, people not only make choices of different language varieties but also different languages. There is potential inequality among languages because of some social factors (Hymes, 1993). For example, English, as a lingua franca, is a lingual medium for people of different mother tongues (Seidlhofer, 2013). In the context of globalisation, English becomes more 'powerful' than other languages around the world. Mastering English helps people expand their scope of communication and improve their communication skill. They can take advantage of this 'powerful' language to get access to better job opportunities and thus achieve higher social prestige.

1.3.2 FLP being developed by parents

The theoretical framework of the part of FLP will be mainly based on and developed from Bernard Spolsky's (2004) assumptions about FLP and Kaplan et al.'s (1997) ideas about language planning.

On the one hand, Spolsky states that FLP constitutes three independent variables: language ideologies (beliefs), language practices and language management. In FLP,

these three indispensable components influence one another. Language ideologies are sometimes known as language beliefs. Language ideologies refer to people's attitudes towards languages. Unlike beliefs, language practices include people's actual behaviours and choices related to languages. Meanwhile, language management refers to modifications of language practices (Spolsky, 2004).

On the other hand, to make language management more specific, the part of FLP being developed also adopted the assumptions by Kaplan et al. (1997). Kaplan et al. argue that there are two types of observable management activities: one is to modify the languages themselves (e.g., lexical and grammatical use) in the family, and another is to modify the environment in which languages are used. The former is called corpus planning, and the latter is called status planning.

1.3.3 Language outcomes of children

It should be noted that children's language outcomes could be affected by many factors. For example, internal factors such as children's language learning attitudes and external factors such as friends' language behaviours could both influence children's language outcomes. However, this study mainly concentrates on whether and how parental FLP impacts children's language outcomes. To examine the impacts of FLP on children, the direct standard that can be used is children's language outcomes. In the discussion of relationships between FLP and children's outcomes, children's language outcomes are organised into three categories according to King et al. (2013): social identity or cultural attitudes, language use and language proficiency. The framework of children's language outcomes will be based and expanded on this categorisation.

Identity refers to personal subjective feelings of self, and both individuals and social groups can be classified by identity. Moreover, the nature of identity is multidimensional; people have various identities, and these identities coexist simultaneously. Therefore, the framework of this project will expand the research scope

of identity by combining assumptions by Block (2007). Block (2007) classified identities into seven types: ethnic identity, racial identity, national identity, migrant identity, gender identity social class identity, and language identity. Compared with simple social identity, the categorisation of identity by Block (2007) can provide more detailed and dimensional explanations of children's language outcomes. In the perspective of sociolinguistic, language identity is the most relevant identity to this study. Language identity can be perceived as the assumed or attributed relationship between one's sense of oneself and a means of communication (Block, 2007). The means of communication include language, dialects and even sociolects. Since, this project will also test how migrant factors and social class as variables influence FLP, language identity, social class identity and migrant identity would be adopted to this project to show children's language outcomes.

Moreover, the framework of children's language outcomes will be also based on the assumption that parent's language practices and language management can have a direct impact on children's language use. To be specific, the language use of children includes two aspects. One is how children choose languages according to different environments, and another is how they choose a suitable variety of language from different ones. For instance, in an ordinary family in Wuhan, children may choose between the Wuhan dialect and Mandarin when they communicate with their parents at home. Apparently, the language use of children is the most observable outcome of FLP. Language maintenance, language shift or language loss can manifest through language use of children.

Furthermore, children's whole language learning could be relatively intuitive language outcomes influenced by different parental FLP. In the process of children's language learning, language proficiency is one of standards which can examine children's language outcomes. The nature of testing language competence is to evaluate or qualify the skill or the knowledge which can support language use (Luecht, 2003). The test model of language proficiency can be divided into four parts: listening, speaking,

reading and writing. It is worth mentioning that Mandarin and foreign languages can adopt the test model above to examine their language outcomes. However, it is not applicable to dialects because essentially dialects are not languages but rather language varieties. Dialects share the common written form with Mandarin (Edwards, 2009). The exploration of dialect proficiency thus only involves listening and speaking. Compared with children's language use, the examination of language proficiency is concerned more with the linguistic abilities of each language or language variety.

Also, children's motives are another standard which can explore children's language outcomes. As Ager (2001) claims, the motivations of language learning include not only motives of language learning but also the goals of achievement. According to Ager (2001), motivation can be divided into seven categories: instrumentality, integration, identity, ideology, image, insecurity and inequality; the goals of language learning are classified into seven categories including ideal, target, objective, needs, physiological, psychological and strategies to achieve goals.

1.4 Methodology

1.4.1 Introduction

This section will discuss the research methods employed in this study, principally a quantitative approach employing participant questionnaires. First, Section 1.4.2 will discuss the design of the questionnaires. Second, Sections 1.4.3 and 1.4.4 will describe the procedures for data collection and data analysis. Third, Sections 1.4.5 and 1.4.6 will describe the process of participant selection and finally the ethical considerations of this research.

1.4.2 The design of questionnaires

To meet the study's objectives, separate questionnaires were designed for parent participants and child participants. The structures for both questionnaires were

developed with reference to the theoretical framework described in Section 1.3 and general RQs of this project. For the convenience of explanation, RQs of this study are re-introduced as follows:

RQ1. What do parent participants' language awareness, language behaviours and language management look like? What are the typical patterns of FLP in Chinese families? In each pattern, how do parents' language ideologies, language practices and language management manifest?

RQ2. Will different FLP have different impacts on children (such as children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages)? If children's outcomes are different because of different FLP, what language outcomes are produced by different FLP respectively?

RQ3. What factors can impact on parental development of FLP? Are certain factors more influential than others? If so, which factors are the most fundamental driving forces behind parental choice of FLP?

The questionnaire for parent participants comprises 94 questions. Variables shown in RQs are very important because they could decide the design of the whole experiment of this project. First of all, considering the RQ One, parental language awareness, language behaviours and language management should be regarded as three important variables. Therefore, the questionnaire for parents examined parental language awareness, language behaviours and language management of different language resources (Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects). Parental language awareness is mainly explored through their attitudes towards their children learning these languages or language varieties. The investigation of language behaviours is based on parent participants' responses to their language use at home. Furthermore, parents must answer children's learning time allocation and money investment in their children's language learning.

The questionnaire for children has 41 questions. According to RQ Two, children's language outcomes are the focus of this research question. Children's language outcomes are categorised into language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages and the questions in the questionnaire for children are expanded considering these three variables above. In the children's questionnaire, the exploration of children's language learning includes questions related to children's language motivation, language learning goal and language proficiency. Children's language use is examined through their language choice in their questionnaire. And questions which investigates children's emotional identification with languages are linked with their emotional evaluation such as pleasantness and friendliness of a certain language or language variety.

RQ Three mainly addresses factors that could impact parental FLP development. On the basis of previous studies and theoretical framework, this project hypothesised and verified whether external factors including political, economic and socio-cultural factors, and internal factors including age, gender, income, language proficiency, educational background and language experience, are influencing independent variables for parents.

1.4.3 Data collection

Data collection of this project were carried out in Wuhan. It is the reason that Wuhan is a representative city in the Middle of China as well as in Yangtze River Economic Belt. Furthermore, considering actual language situation of Wuhan, there are three common language resources (Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects) that people are exposed to when they develop FLP. In fact, many other cities have similar language life with Wuhan. Collecting data in Wuhan thus could provide many thoughts if other researchers would like to carry out similar case studies. In addition, before administering the questionnaires, a pilot test was carried out to ensure that the survey instruments are reliable and valid. Therefore, I invited a small sample of my target respondents

(approximately three to five families) to complete pilot questionnaires so that any misleading questions could be identified and rectified, and any grammatical or spelling errors corrected. After revising the questionnaire post-pilot, the survey was ready for administration to the target respondents. It was posted on a website called 'Wenjuan Xing' to which potential respondents were sent links and invited to complete the survey.

1.4.4 Data analysis

In sociolinguistic research, there are three main types of research analysis methods: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed analysis methods research (Dörnyei, 2007). Quantitative analysis was chosen for the main analysis method in this study and secondary research materials were also used as supplements in the process of analysis.

On the one hand, quantitative methods have several strengths. First, as quantitative research generates numerical data, the analysis and results are grounded in principles of mathematics. Therefore, quantitative methods can potentially provide accurate research results. For example, previous studies have shown that many factors can affect parental FLP development for their children, but the extent of the influence of the factors and which specific FLP aspects are impacted are not clear. A well-constructed questionnaire and quantitative methods of analysis could potentially help clarify these issues with findings underpinned by numerical data and indications of whether the relationships found are statistically significant.

Second, quantitative research focuses on a group of people rather than individuals, and concentrates on variables which explore features of a group of people. These variables can be measured by scientific mathematical methods, rational scaling or assigning values to categorical data. In the case of this study examining general FLP patterns among parents in Wuhan, scaled questions are used in the questionnaires and values are assigned to the answer options for each question. Thus, scores can be calculated for answers, and parents' total scores used to place them in different categories and

different patterns of parental FLP can be seen to emerge.

Third, if variables are measured numerically, the research can be well-controlled using statistical processing software such as SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). This advanced statistical analysis software can not only be used to input and organise data, carry out statistical calculations and present results, but also can aid the in-depth data analysis in this study. First, SPSS can be used for summarizing data in a set by examining the characteristics and distribution of the data. The data can be sorted according to the means, maximum values, minimum values, and other values. SPSS generates frequency distribution tables and diagrams which help with a preliminary analysis of the distribution of variables. Second, following on from the descriptive statistics, selected in-depth statistical analysis functions are conducted in this study using SPSS, including Pearson correlation tests, ANOVA significance tests and Cluster tests.

However, each analysis method has its individual disadvantages, and quantitative analysis research has its shortcomings. First, even though in the process of questionnaire design and distribution this study takes many measures to improve the recovery rate of valid questionnaires, it still cannot be guaranteed that the participants would answer all the questions in the questionnaire truthfully. This could affect the results of the experiment to a certain extent. Second, although quantitative analysis can clearly and quickly describe the data and present data results, it still has certain limitations in terms of further analysis. For example, when exploring the underlying reasons for the formation of certain data results, qualitative research methods seem to be able to better solve this problem comprehensively. However, due to the impact of COVID-19, it has been difficult to collect qualitative data through interviews as planned. Therefore, in order to minimise the negative impacts of quantitative analysis methods in the research, this study uses secondary research materials as supplements in the process of analysis to ensure the accuracy and authenticity of the analysis results to the greatest extent.

1.4.5 Participant selection

In this survey, I collected valid completed questionnaires from 51 families, comprising 102 questionnaires from parents and 51 questionnaires from children. Parent participants were invited to this project by a process of 'snowballing' (I invited some families to this study first and asked them for help to provide some other target families which can participate in this investigation). Each parent participant expressing willingness to join the study had to ensure that their spouse and child could also participate. The reason is that the study collects the questionnaire data on a family basis and requires the data of fathers, mothers and their children. Before the fieldwork started, I made sure that parent participants reviewed the content of online questionnaires for them and their children. Parents who decided to participate in this project with their children could be a mediator between me and their children. If their children have any questions about their questionnaire, their parents can contact me at any time. All the work was done online and children would complete the survey under their parental protect, which made my fieldwork go smoothly. Meanwhile, one thing needs to be clarified, that is, in the selection of children participants. Parent participants' children must be between 12 and 18 years old, in elementary school, middle school or high school. Parents' FLP may have a very significant impact on the children who are under 18 years old. However, parents' policy-making may be different at students' different learning stages. The selection of children of different learning ages thus could help get access to richer research results and provide a more general understanding of this research field.

1.4.6 Ethical considerations

In this study, the children (age 12 to 18) were recruited and asked to complete the online questionnaire about their use of languages and attitudes to languages. As young people are a vulnerable population, they need particular care to ensure that they are treated fairly and ethically so the content of the questionnaire was explained to the children in accessible ways. Also, parents were required to complete an online consent form giving

permission for their children to take part. After the parents had indicated that they understood the content of the research questionnaire for their children and had signed the consent forms, the children could proceed to complete the questionnaire. The researcher maintained only indirect contact with the participating children: communications were always via parents. If children had queries, their parents conveyed the queries to the researcher and relayed the answers and explanations back to their children.

Since the questionnaire for children was for online administration, children were not required to complete the survey in the presence of the researcher; they could choose a suitable time and place to do their questionnaire alone. Parents and their children were free to withdraw from the study at any time and this right was made clear to them verbally and in the information sheet and consent forms provided to them. Ethical research requires protection of participants' rights to privacy and confidentiality, so on completion of the fieldwork, all the collected data was anonymised and stored on a secure, password-protected computer. After transfer to this computer, the raw answers on the survey software were destroyed.

2. FLP developed by parents

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on parent participants, the main language policy makers in the home domain, and examines their responses to language attitudes, language behaviours and language management. Specially, it seeks to provide a general description of FLP made by the parent participants, as well as an account of the differences and similarities between fathers and mothers within the families when they develop FLP. Meantime, this chapter also explores patterns of parental FLP. The following research questions will be addressed:

QR1. What are the general characteristics of FLP, drawing on the parent participants' survey responses? What is the relationship between language ideologies, language behaviours and language management?

QR2. Regarding the development of FLP in a family, what aspects of FLP are easy for parent participants to reach agreement on, and what aspects of FLP prompt differences of opinion between co-parents?

QR3. Are there patterns of FLP among policy makers and what do these patterns look like?

Spolsky (2004) argues that language ideologies, language behaviours and language management are the three main dimensions of language policy analysis. Language policy exists in any social places and each social place represents its own language domain. Spolsky (2009) made a scientific refinement of language domains and proposed ten most common language domains in social life, including family, government, and school, among others. As one of the ten common language domains, the family is the smallest unit in these domains. Spolsky's tripartite theory can be applied to analysing language policy in the family domain.

Section 2.2 will give an overview of parental FLP in terms of language ideologies, language behaviours and language management, and examine the relationship between these three elements. Section 2.3 will focus on each family unit to uncover the agreements and disagreements between parents when they make language policy decisions. Finally, Section 2.4 draws on the previous two sections to identify and discuss patterns of parental FLP.

2.2 Parent participants' language ideologies, language behaviours and language management

To get a broad sense of FLP in Wuhan, China, this study administered questionnaires to 102 parent participants. The following sections will describe the overall findings drawn from the questionnaire responses and explore correlations among the findings on attitudes and use of Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages in terms of FLP, using SPSS.

SPSS is a powerful software which can help manage and access data in an easy and quick way. Because of its simple operation, SPSS is widely applied in academic fields of both natural and social science. SPSS statistical analysis process includes several categories, such as descriptive statistical analysis, mean comparison, general linear model, correlation analysis, regression analysis, log-linear model, cluster analysis, data reduction, survival analysis, time series analysis, and multiple responses. Basic statistical analysis and correlation analysis methods are mainly used in this section. Basic statistical analysis can analyse the characteristics and distributions of data, and correlation analysis is a statistical method to study whether things are correlated and how strong the correlations are.

2.2.1 Language ideologies of parent participants

This section will first explore parent participants' general thinking about FLP, followed

by parent participants' attitudes towards specific languages or language varieties. The reason is that language ideologies are mainly reflected through attitudes towards languages or language varieties and different views on language-related issues. This study examined the participants' attitudes towards the main languages and language varieties used in Wuhan including Mandarin, dialects, and foreign languages. And the questions referring to Section 2.2.1 are listed below in the first place:

Question 2. Do you have invisible FLP for your child?

Question 13. What do you think is the extent of your impact on your child's language development?

Question 15. How important do you think language education is in family education?

Question 23. What is your attitude towards your child learning Mandarin?

Question 24. Do agree with the statement "Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children's school performance?

Question 25. Do you agree with the statement "Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children's future careers"?

Question 37. When it comes to foreign languages learning, what is the first foreign language you think of?

Question 38. How many foreign languages do you want your child to master?

Question 39. Please select language(s) that you want your child to learn. Please choose at least one option.

Question 42. What is your attitude towards your child learning this foreign language?

Question 43. Do you agree with the statement "Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children's school performance"?

Question 44. Do you agree with the statement "Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children's future careers"?

Question 47. Do you agree with the statement "Being able to speak this foreign language can reflect a higher social status"?

Question 57. What is your attitude towards your child learning the Wuhan dialect?

Question 58. What is your attitude towards your child learning your hometown dialect?

Question 60. Do you agree with the statement "Maintenance of dialect is loyalty to the

language”?

Question 61. Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is beneficial to children’s school performance”?

Question 62. Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is beneficial to children’s future careers”?

Question 63. Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect can help an individual to integrate into society or the community”?

Question 64. Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is an effective way to protect culture”?

Question 65. Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is an effective way to develop a bond among family members”?

2.2.1.1 Ideologies of FLP

Through the survey data, this study has found that a majority of parent participants recognise the importance of language learning in children’s development. However, many parents lack awareness of making tailored language policy for their children. In response to Question 15 indicated in Figure 2.1, 93% of parent participants answered “Extremely important” or “Comparatively important”, showing that the vast majority of surveyed parents affirmed the important role of language learning and language education. As De Houwer (1999) noted, ‘impact beliefs’ refer to how parents perceive their children’s language development. In the present study shown in Figure 2.2, most of the parent participants (79%) believed they had impacted on their children’s language development, while a small minority of parents (8%) thought they had little or even no influence on their children’s language development (Question 13). These data indicate that parent participants who hold strong impact beliefs substantially outnumber parent participants with weak impact beliefs.

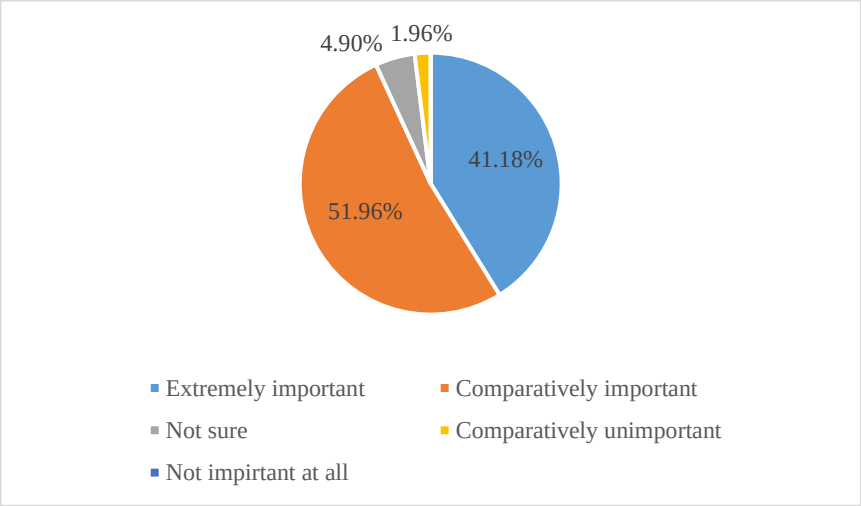

Figure 2.1 Parental attitudes towards the importance of language education

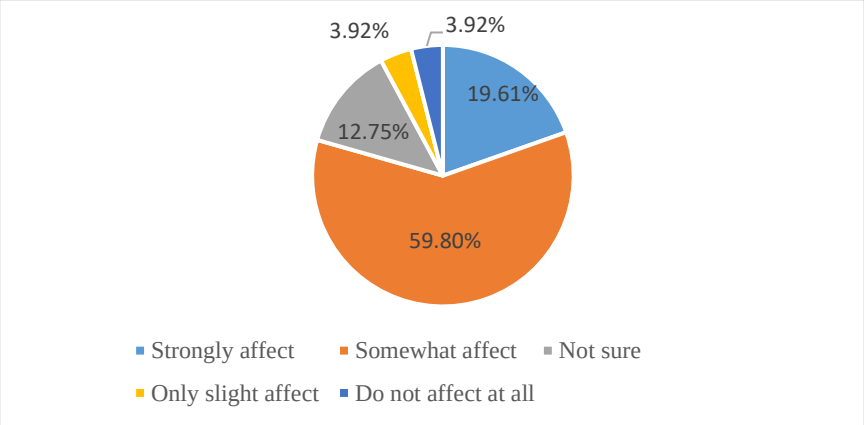

Figure 2.2 How parents think of their impacts on children's language development

Question 2 addressed the notion of visibility of language policy, with 67% of parent participants answering “Yes” while 22% and 12% of parent participants answering “No” and “Not sure” respectively. Language policy can be divided into visible language policy and invisible language policy: government-led and relatively macroscopic language policy is the representative visible policy, while invisible language policy refers to individualised language planning developed by family members according to actual situations and needs (Pakir 1994, 2003). Compared to the numbers of parents with strong impact beliefs who recognised the significance of language education, the responses to Question 2 show that fewer parent participants are aware of having an invisible language policy for their children. For instance, although 81 parent

participants recognised their impactful role in children's language development, only 58 parents have an invisible language policy for their children. Similarly, 95 parent participants believe language education is important in family education, whereas only 66 of them made an invisible language policy.

2.2.1.2 Ideologies of Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages

Table 2.1 Parental attitudes towards children learning Mandarin

Attitudes towards children learning Mandarin	Fathers		Mothers	
	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)
Strongly agree	48	94.12	45	88.24
Partially agree	2	3.92	5	9.80
Not sure	1	1.96	1	1.96
Partially disagree	0	0	0	0
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
Total	51	100%	51	100%

The data summarised in Table 2.1 are drawn from parents' responses to Question 23 and show the distribution of parental attitudes towards children learning Mandarin. It is found that fathers and mothers basically hold similar views about children's Mandarin learning. Table 2.1 shows that 50 fathers and 50 mothers are in favour of their children learning Mandarin. Moreover, from a gender perspective, it means that the same number of male participants and female participants hold a supportive view that learning Mandarin is necessary for their children. However, there is a slight difference between paternal and maternal supportive attitudes. Of the surveyed fathers, 94% answered "Strongly agree" while slightly fewer of the mothers (88%) were strongly supportive, indicating that overall fathers are slightly more supportive of their children learning Mandarin than mothers and more male participants think that learning Mandarin is very necessary for their children than female participants.

It is clear that most of the parents recognise the important role that Mandarin plays in children's development. Statistical tests were applied to explore parents' specific motivations underlying support for their children to learn Mandarin. This study used Pearson's test, one of the correlation tests of SPSS to examine the relationships between parents' attitudes towards children's Mandarin learning and several hypothetical influencing factors. It is found that expectations of academic achievement (Question 24) and career achievement (Question 25) are the main motivations for parents to support their children to learn Mandarin. Regarding the correlation analyses, it should be noted that only when the test result reaches the significance level of 0.01 or 0.05 can it be said that there is a correlation between the two variables under study. The 0.01 level indicates that the correlation is very significant, and 0.05 indicates that the correlation is relatively significant.

In the analysis of the relationship between parents' attitudes towards children learning Mandarin (Question 23) and parents' views on the statement "Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children's school performance" (Question 24), the correlation coefficient is 0.420**, at the 0.01 level of significance. This is a significant positive correlation. Of relevance here is the National General Languages and Characters Law of the People's Republic of China, adopted in 2000, which confirmed the status of Mandarin in school education by stating that schools and other educational institutions should use Mandarin and standardised Chinese characters as the basic medium for educational teaching. School is the main place and source of learning for children, and teachers in schools do play a role in students' attainment. Good proficiency in Mandarin has become a prerequisite for children to make good academic progress because they need the language to understand teachers' instruction and to interact with teachers.

Turning to the relationship between parental attitudes in this study towards children's Mandarin learning (Question 23) and the potential motivating factor "Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children's future careers" (Question 25), the correlation coefficient is 0.202*. Although this value is more modest than the value for the school

attainment motive, it is still a significant correlation at the level of 0.05, indicating that parents support their children to learn Mandarin to some degree because they think Mandarin will boost children's career prospects.

Table 2.2 Parental attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect

Attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect	Fathers		Mothers	
	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)
Strongly agree	10	19.61	14	27.45
Partially agree	21	41.18	14	27.45
Not sure	8	15.69	12	23.53
Partially disagree	7	13.73	8	15.69
Strongly disagree	5	9.80	3	5.88
In total	51	100	51	100

On basis of results of Question 57, Table 2.2 summarises how parent participants responded on the question of children learning the Wuhan dialect. Overall, more than half of the parents think that their children should learn the Wuhan dialects. However, fathers and mothers differ in the extent of their support. Fathers answering "Strongly agree" were slightly fewer in number than mothers; meanwhile 41% of fathers chose "Partially agree'", which is 1.5 times the number of mothers answering this way. The data indicates that among participants who agree children to learn the Wuhan dialect, more male participants (31) have positive attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect than female (28) participants. Although there is a slight quantitative gap between fathers and mothers on the issue of supporting children to learn the Wuhan dialect, it could be not denied that more fathers think that learning the Wuhan dialect is important for their children and have strong identification with the Wuhan dialect than fathers.

Wuhan residents include native Wuhanese and non-Wuhanese and both categories of

person were surveyed in this research. Table 2.3 below summarises their attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect and shows an obvious difference between native Wuhanese and non-Wuhanese parent participants on the question of whether children should learn the Wuhan dialect.

Table 2.3 Attitudes of Native Wuhanese and non-Wuhanese towards children learning the Wuhan dialect

Attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect	Native Wuhanese		Non-Wuhanese	
	Quantity	Percentage (%)	Quantity	Percentage (%)
Strongly agree	15	29.41	9	17.65
Partially agree	19	37.25	16	31.37
Not sure	9	17.65	11	21.57
Partially disagree	6	12	9	17.65
Strongly disagree	2	4	6	11.76
In total	51	100	51	100

Of the native Wuhanese participants, 67% answered strongly or partially agree, while 49% of the non-Wuhanese answered this way. Moreover, smaller numbers of native Wuhanese than non-Wuhanese said they disagreed with the statement or were not sure. Therefore, compared to the non-Wuhanese parents, native Wuhanese parents tend to report more positive attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect. For native Wuhanese, the Wuhan dialect is their mother tongue, thus compared to non-Wuhanese, it is clear that they have a higher sense of the Wuhan dialect identification and a stronger motive to support their children to learn it. Moreover, the Wuhan dialect is categorised to Guan dialect groups (Hu, 2011). This dialect group includes many Han people in different provinces such as Hubei Province, Sichuan Province, Yunnan Province and Guizhou Province. The population of Guan dialect group is about one billion, accounting for more than 70% of the total population in China. There is great consistency within this dialect group, and it is not difficult for people from Guan dialect

group to communicate. Therefore, easy to understand is a reason why non-Wuhanese in Wuhan are less motivated to support their children to learn the Wuhan dialect.

In Wuhan, non-Wuhanese citizens need to deal with at least two dialects: one is the Wuhan dialect and another is their hometown dialect. In the data collected by this study, 51 of 102 parent participants are non-Wuhanese and they were asked an extra question (Question 58) about their hometown dialect. The responses to this question are summarised in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Non-Wuhanese attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect and their hometown dialects

Attitudes towards learning the Wuhan dialect and hometown dialects	Wuhan dialect		Hometown dialects	
	Quantity	Percentage (%)	Quantity	Percentage (%)
Strongly agree	9	17.65	13	25.49
Partially agree	16	31.37	16	31.37
Not sure	11	21.57	9	17.65
Partially disagree	9	17.65	7	13.73
Strongly disagree	6	11.76	6	11.76
In total	51	100	51	100

The non-Wuhanese participants' responses indicate only a very slight advantage for the hometown dialect over the Wuhan dialect in terms of parental attitudes of support for children learning those dialects. In answer to Q57, 49% of the non-Wuhanese parents answered "Strongly agree" or "Partially agree". When asked the equivalent question about their hometown dialect (Q58), 57% of the non-Wuhanese parents selected "Strongly agree" and "Partially agree". Table 2.4 also indicates that the numbers of non-Wuhanese who disagree that their children should learn hometown dialects are fewer than those who disagree that children should learn the Wuhan dialect.

The data indicates indirectly that the Wuhan dialect is not as strong as the Shanghai dialect and Cantonese. Generally speaking, strong dialects have three characteristics (Lin, 1988). Firstly, strong dialects have powerful centripetal force which reflects native speakers' pride in speaking their dialect and outsiders' initiative to learn the dialect. Secondly, strong dialects have a certain expansion capacity. This means that strong dialects can nibble at nearby dialect areas and change them into bi-dialect areas or even completely replace the original dialect, and ultimately the strong dialect will become the main dialect in nearby dialect areas. Thirdly, compatibility is a feature of strong dialects. Most strong dialects absorb many words from other languages or language varieties.

Cantonese is a good example of a representative strong dialect in China. In the eyes of the Cantonese, Cantonese almost has parity with Mandarin; many even think that Cantonese plays a more important role in communication in everyday life. As Shan et al. (2018) claim, people in Guangzhou have much more positive evaluation towards Cantonese than Mandarin and English and they also indicate strong affective and integrated orientation towards Cantonese. In contrast, as shown in Tables 2.1 and 2.2, more parent participants in this study were more strongly in favour of their children learning Mandarin than they were the Wuhan dialect. In the game of status between Mandarin and the Wuhan dialect, Mandarin seems to be ranked more highly among parent participants. In addition, strong dialects like Cantonese typically attract more outsiders to learn the dialect. In China, many people are interested in learning Cantonese, and demand for Cantonese classes is rising. People are willing to learn Cantonese even if they do not live in Guangdong province where the dialect is dominant. In this study, the non-Wuhanese participants appear to be even slightly less keen for their children to learn the Wuhan dialect compared with their attitudes to the hometown dialect (see Table 2.4). Meanwhile, the Wuhan dialect itself cannot be regarded as an eclectic dialect like Cantonese: so far, there is not many obvious signs of the Wuhan dialect assimilating the dialects in the surrounding areas. Moreover, the borrowing of foreign words is not a feature of the development of the Wuhan dialect. In summary,

based on the present data collection as well as the existing literature, the Wuhan dialect cannot be taken as a strong dialect like the Shanghai dialect and Cantonese. In addition, it is worth noting that there is a majority of immigrants in Wuhan come from other cities in Hubei Province. In the fifth census of in China, it is found that the population of Wuhan from other parts of Hubei province is 733,900, while 249,300 immigrants come from other provinces[1]. The dialects of other cities in Hubei Province are classified to Guan dialect group, and there is no obvious difference in tone value and tone category between these dialects and the Wuhan dialect. Most immigrants' dialects are similar to the Wuhan dialects, which will not hinder communication. Therefore, most of the immigrants can achieve the purpose of communication even if they don't learn the Wuhan dialect.

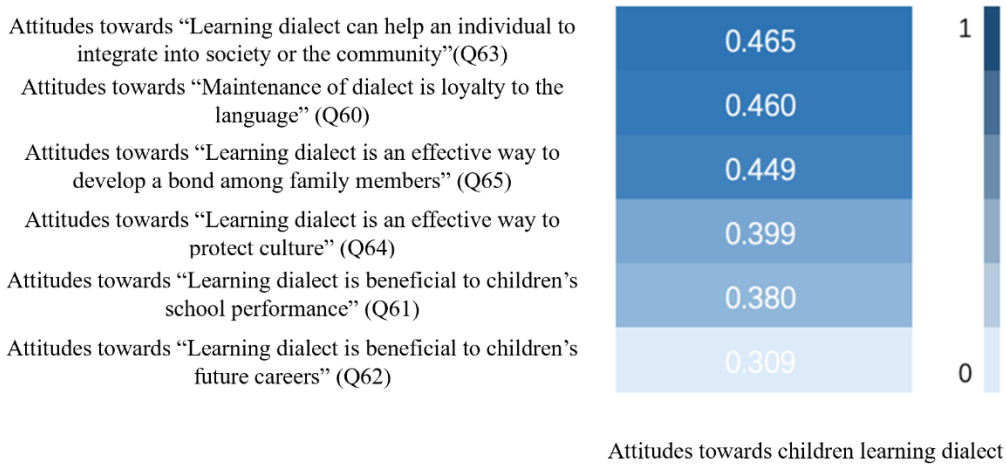

Figure 2.3 Pearson correlations between participants' attitudes towards children learning dialects and different influential factors

Furthermore, it is worth noting that more than half of the participants hold the view that their children should learn their dialect. To examine the motivations that influence participants' attitudes to their children learning dialects, a factor analysis was conducted. Figure 2.3 shows the results of the Pearson correlation tests, listing the factors that can influence parent participants' attitudes towards children learning dialects, together with the correlation coefficients. The correlation coefficient represents the significance of

[1] Top 10 cities influx of population in 2019: Shanghai first and Dongguan second (In Chinese). https://baijiahao.baidu.com/s?id=1673732121415067453&wfr=spider&for=pc

the correlation: the larger the coefficient value, the more significant the correlation.

The set of factors that impact parent participants' attitudes towards children learning dialects appears to be complex, as Figure 2.3 indicates. However, two main topics can be drawn from the influential factors: (i) parent participants' views on identity; and (ii) parent participants' perceptions on the role of dialects in culture.

The factors "Learning dialect can help an individual to integrate into society or the community" and "Learning dialect is an effective way to develop a bond among family members" yielded the strongest and third strongest correlations respectively, suggesting that social integration and family bonds may be important motivations for parent participants in favour of their children learning dialects. The desire for successful integration into society implies an intention to acquire a certain social identity, and maintenance of close family relationships is based on identification with kinship ties. Therefore, the factors framed in Q63 and Q65 refer to the same issue: how people deal with dialects and identity. For example, Wang (2018) claim that dialects are signs of identities and recognised dialects are visible ways to show certain identities. Therefore, how the participants connect their sense of identity with dialects is a factor which influences their attitudes towards their children to learn those dialects.

The factor yielding the second strongest correlation is "Maintenance of dialect is loyalty to the language". Language loyalty essentially concerns identity. Language identity refers to the efforts of members of the speech community to maintain their language when the status or heritage of their own language (first language or home language) faces real or perceived threat (Bowerman, 2006). Language loyalty and language identity are positively related, that is, identity determines the loyalty of the language corresponding to this identity (Wang 2018).

The second major theme drawn from the set of influencing factors in Figure 2.3 is parents' views on the function of dialects in culture. The relationship between dialects

and culture is complex. Dialect is an important part of culture and it can also be the carrier of culture. Responses to Q64 indicate that parent participants hold different views on the extent to which dialect works to protect culture. For instance, 74 of 102 parent participants agree that learning dialects can help with culture protection. Cultural protection here mainly refers to the protection of cultural works in dialects and the preservation of the accent and vocabulary of certain dialect. Among them, 24 parent participants answered “Strongly agree” and 50 parent participants answered “Partially agree”. Differences in answers to Q64 were also linked to different parental attitudes towards children learning dialects, and through the Pearson test this study found a positive correlation between Q64 and parental attitudes towards children learning dialects. The essence of Q64 is to capture what people think about the importance of dialect in culture protection. It is found that the more parent participants think that dialect plays an important role in protecting culture, the greater their support for their children in learning dialects.

Table 2.5 Parental attitudes towards children learning foreign languages

Attitudes towards children learning foreign languages	Fathers		Mothers	
	Quantity	Percentage (%)	Quantity	Percentage (%)
Strongly agree	43	84.31	43	84.31
Partially agree	8	15.69	6	11.76
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Partially disagree	0	0	2	3.92
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
In total	51	100	51	100

Table 2.5 shows the distribution of responses concerning parental attitudes towards children learning foreign languages (Question 42). It is apparent that parents have clear positions on the question of children learning foreign languages, as none of the respondents answered neutrally with “Not sure”. Strikingly, all but two participants

were in favour of foreign language learning, answering “Strongly agree” or “Partially agree”.

The questionnaire was designed to include several specific questions which further explore parental attitudes towards foreign languages education. In response to Question 37, more than 98% of the participants reported that English is the first foreign language they think of. The responses to Question 37 further demonstrate that English is a dominant foreign language in China and indirectly shed light on the problem of the simplification of foreign languages learning in the Chinese education system – put simply, English is usually the only foreign language taught. However, most parent participants do not seem to support the position that English should be the only focus. In answer to Question 38, more than 70% of parents want their children to learn and master two or more foreign languages. However, although parent participants expect their children to learn a second or third foreign language, they still assert that English should have the priority position. Question 39 produced the following responses: the vast majority selected English (97%), followed by French (36%), German (16%) and Japanese (16%).

The pattern of responses to Q37, Q38 and Q39 relates to two trends in language awareness in China. On the one hand, there is a tendency for foreign languages education provision to be over-simplified at the top level of policy-making, which may lead to a failure to build parental awareness and understanding of multilingual learning. In China, public education in foreign languages for students at all levels and all types of schools has in effect become English language education exclusively. The foreign language teaching department in a typical public college or university is actually the English-led teaching department. However, in today’s globalised process, there are demands for other foreign languages besides English in both society and the market. Especially from the perspective of language economics, all foreign languages have its certain economic value. Through the parent survey, this study found that awareness of multilingual education had developed at the micro level—the family domain,

suggesting that parents do gradually realise the importance of learning second or third foreign language but the education system at the macro level seems not fully reflect the needs of multiple foreign languages in China.

On the other hand, although parent participants seem to have realised the significance and importance of multilingual education, they do not have a good understanding of the full range of foreign languages. For instance, in Question 39, when choosing foreign languages for children to learn besides English, parents' selection rates of German, French and Japanese are relatively high, but levels of recognition of other foreign languages such as Arabic, Portuguese and Russian are extremely low. In fact, these less accepted foreign languages are also language needs which should be met because foreign languages relate to a country's soft power and each foreign language has its unique role. Parents' neglect of some foreign languages could be studied by the language policy makers to develop a more complete language policy, which can help parents have a more clear and rational judgment on various foreign languages and lead to a balance in foreign language proficiencies in China.

The correlation analyses indicate that the main motivations for parents to support their children to learn foreign languages are as follows.

Firstly, the correlation test of the relationship between parental attitudes towards the foreign language that their children are currently learning (Question 42) and their responses to the statement "Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children's school performance" (Q43) yielded a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.555**, at a significance level of 0.01. This result indicates that improved school performance is a strong motivation for parents to support their children to learn foreign languages.

Secondly, responses to the statement "Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children's future careers" (Q44) also correlated (0.01 significance level) with parents' responses to the general question on their attitudes to children's foreign language

learning but the correlation coefficient in this case was 0.463**, slightly lower than for the education success statement. This indicates that while children's career prospects are a factor which influences parents, children's education success may be a stronger motive for parents to support the children in foreign languages learning.

Thirdly, enabling children to access higher social status is another motivating factor for parents in supporting their children to learn foreign languages, but it appears to be weaker in influence than the factors educational attainment and career success. The 'higher social status' statement (Question 47) yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.204* (0.05 significance level). It is worth noting that over 76% of parent participants agree with the statement that an individual's language ability can reflect their social status, and half of the parent participants hold the view that speaking a foreign language is the easiest way to attain higher social status, compared with speaking Mandarin and dialects. To some extent then, parent participants see links between foreign languages and social status.

From the correlation coefficients above, it can be seen that the closer the goal, the stronger the motivation, and the farther the goal, the weaker the motivation. For parents, improving children's academic performance is the parent's most urgent goal, so this motivation has the largest correlation coefficient. Achieving a high social status seems to be a farther goal in the future, thus it is reasonable that its correlation coefficient is the smallest among the three motives.

Based on the data summarised in Tables 2.1, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5, parents' attitudes towards their children's learning of Mandarin, hometown dialects and foreign languages were grouped in the categories of agree (including "Strongly agree" and "Partially agree"), not sure and disagree (including "Partially disagree" and "Strongly agree"), to convey broadly whether or not parents were in favour of their children learning the language concerned. The proportions of parental responses in these three categories are shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Parents' attitudes to children's language learning: ratio of responses (%)

Attitude	Agree	Not sure	Disagree
Mandarin	98.04	1.96	0
Hometown dialects	61.76	17.65	20.59
Foreign languages	98.03	0	1.96

Table 2.6 indicates that parent participants' levels of support for children learning Mandarin (98%) and foreign languages (98%) are tied in first position. However, there is a small proportion of parent participants who are not in support of foreign language learning. On the issue of children learning Mandarin, no parent participants indicated lack of support but a small proportion took a neutral position. Of all the languages children could be supported to learn, hometown dialects attracted the lowest proportion of parents in the Agree category (61.76%), the largest proportion in the Disagree category (20.59%), and the most respondents with an uncertain attitude (17.65%).

Furthermore, parent participants' motives for supporting children's learning of Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages appear to be different but there are some commonalities. For instance, the main motivations for supporting children to learn Mandarin and foreign languages are related to children's prospects of achievement. Higher academic attainment is the dimension of children's achievement which appears to motivate parents most strongly. However, unlike the case with Mandarin and foreign languages, parent participants who are in support of children learning dialects are not driven mainly by achievement prospects for their children. Instead, they appear to be more influenced by the need for identity formation and cultural construction linked to dialect learning.

2.2.2 Language behaviours of parent participants

Language behaviours refer to what people do in their real-world language life. In this section, two issues on language behaviours will be discussed: One is parent participants'

language choices when they communicate with people from different groups. Another is how parent participants deal with different language situations and make choices to use different languages or language varieties with the people they are talking to. Regarding these two issues, parent participants were asked about three different types of communication partner(s): parent participants' parents, parent participants' spouses and parent participants' children. The study of the parent participants' language behaviours encompassed dialects, Mandarin and foreign languages.

In this section, some questions of the questionnaire are mentioned and the referred questions are listed as follows:

Question 17. When you communicate with your own parents, what language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.

Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.

Question 19. When you communicate with your spouse, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.

Question 20. What choice will you make if you use a different language or language variety when you communicate with your parents?

Question 21. What choice will you make if you use a different language or language variety when you communicate with your children?

Question 22. What choice will you make if you use a different language or language variant when you communicate with your spouse?

Question 35. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's Mandarin learning?

Question 54. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of this foreign language?

Question 73. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of dialect?

Table 2.7 Use of languages and language varieties by parent participants

Parent participants' communication partners		Languages or language varieties		
		Mandarin	Dialects	Foreign languages
Parent participants' children	Quantity	80	52	16
	Percentage (%)	78.43	50.98	15.69
Parent participants' spouses	Quantity	60	66	6
	Percentage (%)	58.82	64.70	5.88
Parent participants' parents	Quantity	32	92	1
	Percentage (%)	31.37	90.20	0.98
Total		172	210	23

The data summarised in Table 2.7 are drawn from the results of three multiple choice questions: Question 17, Question 18 and Question 19.

Table 2.7 shows that dialects are the languages most frequently used by parent participants overall, if we consider all communication partner contexts combined (responses to Questions 17, 18 and 19) (210). Mandarin is the second most frequently used language in all contexts combined (172), and foreign languages (23) are the least frequently used. Turning to categories of communication partners, the usage rate of dialects is the highest when participants communicate with their parents (90%), but only 51% of participants talk with their children in dialects. In contrast, most parent participants use Mandarin when communicating with their children (78%), and only a minority use Mandarin to communicate with their parents (31%). In spouse-to-spouse communication, participants' responses indicate that the usage rate of dialects (65%) and Mandarin (59%) are fairly comparable and tend to the middle values. Foreign languages are the least used languages in these language contexts and most of the foreign language conversations occur between parent participants and their children.

Furthermore, the participants' parents, spouses and children are not simply three categories of communication partners but they also represent three different generations. In this study, parent participants' parents can be regarded as the first generation, and their spouses and children as the second generation and third generation respectively.

From this perspective, the patterns of data in Table 2.7 also provide inspiration for the diachronic study of language use. It seems that language use has changed dynamically over three generations, with the most obvious shift being that Mandarin usage is becoming greater with the intergenerational transition, while the level of dialects usage is becoming lower with the younger generations. On the one hand, high Mandarin usage by the younger generation illustrates the effectiveness of state efforts to popularise and standardise Mandarin as official language in the past years. On the other hand, low levels of dialect use among the younger generation suggest a potential threat to dialects' survival. Parent participants are more likely to use foreign languages to communicate with younger family members than with their own or older generations. Even so, foreign language communication in the family domain is still relatively rare according to these results; this is likely to be related to the educational experience of the two older generations.

Table 2.7 also indicates that most parent participants are operating in a multilingual environment. This raises the potential issue of conflicting or inconsistent use of languages or language varieties between two speakers in their daily conversations. Three survey questions (Question 20, Question 21 and Question 22) probed these issues to investigate what strategies are adopted by parent participants when choosing the language to use with different family members.

Three same answers for each Question were provided to parent participants including "Maintain use of my language or language variety", "Change to use language or language variety of the person involved" and "Ask the person involved to use my language or language variety". The results show that regardless of which family members the parent participants communicate with, the largest number of participants choose the strategy "Change into language or language variety of the person involved". The strategy "Change into language or language variety of the person involved" was also analysed in terms of the different family communication partners – parents, children and spouses (Question 20, Question 21 and Question 22). The responses show

that participants' communication with their own parents is the context in which the largest number of participants choose to switch language to suit the other person (72 respondents). The number of parent participants choosing to change to the other person's preferred language or language variety is the smallest (52) in the case of communication with their spouses.

This strategy of changing into a language or language variety of another person is referred to as code-switching. Code-switching is a manifestation of linguistic adaptation. Verschueren (1987) proposes that linguistic adaptation refers to the adaptation of language and environment and the environment not only refers to nature and society but also includes speakers, the listeners, and even the social relationship between the speakers and the listeners. Based on the responses to Questions 20, 21 and 22, it seems that different objects will trigger different degrees of speech adaptation by parent participants. In other words, parent participants show more behaviours of code-switching with the older generation and fewer behaviours of code-switching with the younger generation. In fact, the aim of code-switching is to meet the needs of communication in the given context. Among the first generation, the dialect may be the only language which the family member can use, so to achieve better communicative results, the parent participants choose to change their language to be consistent with their parents' language. Conversely, given the improvements in education levels over successive generations, the third generation in question (the participants' children) are in the process of mastering at least two or more languages and language varieties, which eliminates the need for parent participants to change their own language to have successful communication with their children. Therefore, it is unsurprising that parent participants report fewer behaviours of code-switching with their children.

2.2.3 Language management by parent participants

Generally speaking, parents are children's main language managers, and they play an important role in developing or intervening in certain languages in the process of their

children's languages learning. This development or intervention in a language can be manifested by certain parental behaviours when they manage language resources. This study has explored how parent participants manage their children's language resources by deploying certain management behaviours. The parent participants' management behaviours were put into two main categories: one is to manage time for children's language learning; the other is to manage money invested in children's language learning. The relevant survey questions and responses are discussed as below.

Firstly, the study investigates the time parents would want their children to spend on language learning. Language learning was divided into Mandarin learning, dialects learning and foreign languages learning. Secondly, the study has surveyed how often parents take measures (without involving payment) in the family domain to encourage their children to learn languages or language varieties. For example, the questionnaire asked parent participants whether they deliberately listen to the radio or watch television with the purpose of exposing their children to a certain language or language variety. Thirdly, the survey studied parent participants' attitudes towards spending money on children's language learning. For instance, parent participants were asked what percentage of household income they were willing to spend on their children's language learning. Furthermore, in the case of parent participants who are willing to pay to improve their children's language skills, the questionnaire probed their preferences regarding different language learning methods which require payment. In this regard, the study focuses mainly on three methods which incur financial cost: purchasing books for language learning, buying online language learning courses, and enrolling children in paid face-to-face language training courses.

With regard to the management of children's language resources, the parents were asked the following questions:

Question 16. What proportion of overall learning time do you think your child's language learning should account for?

Question 29. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you

consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in Mandarin?

Question 30. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in Mandarin?

Question 32. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you buy Mandarin-related reading materials (such as books, newspapers and magazines) for your child?

Question 33. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you buy online courses in Mandarin for your child?

Question 34. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you send your child to participate in paid Mandarin training courses?

Question 36. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should Mandarin account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 48. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in foreign languages?

Question 49. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in foreign languages?

Question 51. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you buy foreign languages-related reading materials (such as books, newspapers and magazines) for your child?

Question 52. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you buy online courses in this foreign language for your child?

Question 53. In order to improve your child's skill in this foreign language, how often do you send your child to participate in paid training courses in this foreign language?

Question 55. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should this foreign language account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 67. In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in dialect?

Question 68. In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you

consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in dialect?

Question 70. In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you buy dialect-related reading materials such as books, newspapers and magazines for your child?

Question 71. In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you buy online courses in dialect for your child?

Question 72. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you buy online courses in this foreign language for your child?

Question 73. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of dialect?

Question 74. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should dialect account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 77. Which language(s) or language variety(ies) can you speak? Multiple choice.

Table 2.8 Distribution of parent participants' responses about expected time dedicated to children's learning of Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages

Expected proportion of language learning time	Parent participants	Mandarin	Foreign languages	Dialects
Less than 20% of total learning time	Quantity	51	28	89
	Percentage (%)	50	27.45	87.25
20%-40% of total learning time	Quantity	35	52	9
	Percentage (%)	34.31	50.98	8.82
40%-60% of total learning time	Quantity	7	20	2
	Percentage (%)	6.86	19.61	1.96
60%-80% of total learning time	Quantity	3	2	2
	Percentage (%)	2.94	1.96	1.96
More than 80% of total learning time	Quantity	6	0	0
	Percentage (%)	5.88	0	0

The responses to Question 16 show that parent participants (77%) think that language learning should account for less than 40% of children's total learning time; 17 parent participants (17%) agree that language learning should take up 40% to 60% of children's total learning time, and only six parent participants (6%) think that children should spend over 60% of their total learning time on languages. On the basis of the responses to Questions 36, 55 and 74, the distribution of preferences regarding time for children's Mandarin, dialects and foreign language learning is tabulated in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 reveals three significant phenomena regarding language management. Firstly, parent participants do not want their children to spend much time in learning dialects. Based on parent participants' responses to Questions 36, 55 and 74, a large majority of the parent participants (87%) agree that their children's time for learning dialects should account for less than 20% of their total learning time. This is much higher than the proportion of parent participants who think foreign languages learning should take up less than 20% of children's total learning time (27%) and those who think the percentage of Mandarin learning time should be less than 20% of children's total learning time (50%). Secondly, parent participants seem to be inclined to allow their children to spend their language learning time on foreign languages learning. As shown in Table 2.8, 72 parent participants (71%) think that foreign languages learning should take up 20% to 60% of the total language learning time. Thirdly, there are zero parent participants who hold the view that more than 80% of the total language learning time should be given to dialects learning. Six participants agree that children should spend more than 80% of the total language learning time on Mandarin, while no participants want more than 80% of total language learning time to be used for foreign languages and dialects.

Beside the management of children's language learning time, parents have other means and opportunities for direct language management in the family domain. For example, they might consciously allow children to listen to the radio and watch TV in a certain language or language variety – these are easy ways for parents to manage their

children's language resources. The responses to Question 29, Question 48 and Question 67 are summarised in Table 2.9 to show how often parents use radio listening as a method to improve their children's language proficiency:

Table 2.9 Frequency distribution of radio listening as a parental strategy for children's language learning

	Frequently		Sometimes		Not sure		Seldom		Never	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Mandarin	15	20	24	14	0	6	6	5	6	6
Foreign languages	14	13	29	26	1	3	4	6	3	3
Dialects	1	3	14	13	7	5	14	16	15	14
Total	30	36	67	53	8	14	24	27	24	23

（Note: "M" represents "Mother", and "F" represents "Father".）

Table 2.9 shows that the usage frequency of listening to the radio as a language management method varies depending on which language resource is involved. For example, when parent participants were asked how often their children listen to the radio in Mandarin to improve their Mandarin skills, the most common response was "Sometimes". When the same question was posed with regard to dialects, the most common response was "Seldom". Moreover, looking to gender differences in how this method was used to manage language resources, mothers seem to be more likely than fathers to turn to the radio as a language management tool. Mothers answered "Frequently" and "Sometimes" more than fathers did, while a larger proportion of fathers than mothers selected "Seldom" and "Never", all indicating that fathers were less likely to rely on radio language resources for their children's learning.

Table 2.10 Frequency distribution of TV watching as a parental strategy for children's language learning

	Frequently		Sometimes		Not sure		Seldom		Never	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Mandarin	23	27	17	13	0	2	7	4	4	5
Foreign languages	16	13	31	27	1	4	2	3	2	3
Dialects	0	2	15	15	7	3	15	17	14	14
Total	39	42	63	55	8	9	24	24	20	22

（Note: "M" represents "Mother", and "F" represents "Father".）

Participating parents' use of television as a language management tool for children was also probed in the survey, via Question 30, Question 49 and Question 68. Table 2.10 shows that when the language resource in question is Mandarin (Question 30) or foreign languages (Question 49), most of the parent participants report that they adopt the strategy of letting their children watch TV as a positive management measure for language learning: a large majority answered "Frequently" or "Sometimes" rather than "Not sure", "Seldom" and "Never". Moreover, many fathers and mothers positively take TV watching as a way to improve their children's Mandarin. The numbers of fathers and mothers who use television as a tool for children's Mandarin improvement is the same (40) and account for a large proportion their female or male group. Moreover, a greater number of mothers than fathers answered "Frequently" or "Sometimes" indicating that mothers are slightly more likely to use TV as a strategy for foreign languages learning. However, in the case of dialects (Question 68), the response pattern is different. Hardly any participants answered "Frequently" but there was a fairly even spread across "Sometimes", "Seldom" and "Never", while a few were "Not sure". The overall picture is that fewer parents – mothers and fathers alike – report using TV as a management tool for children's dialect language learning than they do for other languages. Overall, Table 2.10 indicates that many male and female participants are willing to let their children watch more Mandarin TV programs to help

with their Mandarin; more female participants would like to improve their children's foreign languages skills via TV programmes than males; neither male nor female participants hope that their children are exposed too much to TV programs in dialects.

Comparing the data in Table 2.9 with Table 2.10, it seems that allowing children to watch TV is a slightly more popular language management method among parent participants than radio listening. When parent participants are asked how often they will seek to improve children's skills in a certain language by watching TV in that language, 199 parents answer “Frequently” or “Sometimes”, compared to 183 participants choosing either of those options to answer the question on radio listening. When it comes to specific languages or language variety, on the one hand, as shown in Table 2.9 and Table 2.10, when parent participants are asked how often they utilise the language management method, with the method varying from listening to the radio in Mandarin to watching TV in Mandarin, the most popular option changed from “Sometimes” to “Frequently”. On the other hand, in order to improve certain language ability, parents are more willing to let their children watch TV rather than to let their children to listen to the radio. Table 2.9 and Table 2.10 indicate that the total number of parent participants who seldom or never allow their children to listen to the radio is 98 while the number who seldom or never allow their children to watch TV is 90.

In addition to the television and radio strategies, there are some other language management methods available but which involve financial cost. In this study, parent participants were asked how much they would be willing to pay for different language resource management methods for their children (Question 35, Question 54 and Question 73). Foreign languages are the language resources that most of the parent participants (84) indicate they are willing to pay for. Over 54% of them think that the cost of children’s learning of foreign languages should account for less than 20% of household income. In contrast, dialects are the language resources that the least number of people (six) are willing to spend money on, but these six parent participants all agree to support their children’s dialect ability at a cost of more than 20% of household

income. A modest number of parents (36) are willing to invest money in their children's Mandarin learning. Similar to the case for foreign languages, over 61% of parent participants think that Mandarin learning should cost less than 20% of household income.

In the survey, paid language management methods were classified into three types: (i) purchasing books, newspapers, and magazines in certain languages; (ii) buying online courses for certain languages; (iii) paying for children to attend face-to-face language courses. According to parents' responses to Question32-34, Question51-53 and Question70-72, the questionnaire also explored parent participants' frequency of taking up different paid language management methods and the results are shown as follows.

Firstly, with regard to children's foreign languages learning, as shown in Table 2.11, face-to-face foreign languages courses are the most popular option of the paid strategies to support children's learning. Fifty-three participants answer that they frequently adopt this method. Secondly, Table 2.12 shows that if the language resource is Mandarin, purchase of reading material is the strategy attracting the most parent participants to answer frequently and these paper materials include books, magazines and newspapers to support their children's Mandarin. Thirdly, regarding children's learning of dialects, Table 2.13 indicate that only a small number of parent participants claim that they frequently pay for methods to help improve their children's dialect proficiency, and it is clear that the most participants are against to the strategy of buying courses. As it is shown in table 2.13, 83 parents seldom or never participate in paid face-to-face courses for their children.

Table 2.11 Frequency distribution of paid strategies for children's foreign languages learning

Paid method	Frequently	Sometimes	Not sure	Seldom	Never
Purchasing reading materials	38	53	5	4	2
Buying online courses	38	37	14	8	5
Attending face-to-face courses	53	33	9	4	3
Total	129	123	28	16	10

Table 2.12 Frequency distribution of paid strategies for children's Mandarin learning

Paid method	Frequently	Sometimes	Not sure	Seldom	Never
Purchasing reading materials	23	37	10	5	27
Buying online courses	11	24	23	15	29
Attending face-to-face courses	9	22	28	12	31
Total	43	83	61	32	87

Table 2.13 Frequency distribution of paid strategies for children's dialects learning

Paid method	Frequently	Sometimes	Not sure	Seldom	Never
Purchasing reading materials	2	10	10	27	53
Buying online courses	2	5	14	22	59
Attending face-to-face courses	2	7	10	19	64
Total	6	22	34	68	176

When the language backgrounds of parent participants are considered (Question 77), an interesting phenomenon emerges. Although 98 parent participants report that they are able to use Mandarin themselves, only 32% (31) of these 98 participants are in favour of using paid methods of language management to improve their children's Mandarin skills. However, the situation is different for parents considering their children's foreign languages learning. Forty-eight parent participants report that they can speak foreign languages, and the majority (88%, 42) of these participants say that they are in favour of paid methods of language management to help with their children's foreign languages learning.

From the perspective of language economics, parent participants' adoption of paid language management methods can be regarded as a form of investment behaviour. What distinguishes this language investment behaviour is that the cost in this activity involves human capital which means the object of the investment is human beings rather than physical materials. Human capital is usually spent on education, health, training, immigration and information acquisition. The majority of the parent participants prefer spending human capital on children's foreign languages education, rather than on Mandarin or dialects, even when the parents have the advantage of speaking foreign languages themselves. Only a third of parent participants who are proficient in Mandarin are willing to invest money in children's Mandarin learning.

These preferences of parent participants can be clarified from two perspectives. On the one hand, parents may concern about different languages according to different aims. Some aims are short-term while some are long-term. Learning foreign language well can help children achieve the short-term goal (to achieve better school performance) while the advantages of other two languages are possibly be taken in long-term. It is feasible that people would be motivated more strongly by the closer aim. This means that parent participants' judgments about certain languages and their related aims could be influencing investment decisions. On the other hand, parent participants may think that their own Mandarin level is sufficient to support their children's Mandarin learning, which could serve to reduce the human capital investment to a certain extent. Moreover, children who can speak Mandarin may have the ability to help themselves to improve Mandarin. When it comes to foreign languages, even if parent participants can speak these languages, they may not feel proficient or confident enough to tutor their children in foreign languages. In other words, perhaps these parent participants believe that their foreign languages skills are not adequate to reduce the human capital expenditure. Their own evaluations of their own particular language skills may influence decisions on whether to pay to help their children to learn a particular language. Therefore, it is necessary for them to invest more money on children's foreign languages learning.

2.2.4 Relationships between language ideologies, language behaviours and language management

Language ideologies, language behaviours and language management are important components in the development of FLP. Previous studies have found that these elements are closely interrelated. For example, Zhao (2018) claims that language ideologies are the core of language practices. However, the existing literature mainly presents ideas about the relationships between these elements from a theoretical perspective. This study aims to explore the relationships between the three components from an empirical, quantitative perspective.

Questions referring in this section are listed as follows:

Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.

Question 23. What is your attitude towards your child learning Mandarin?

Question 29. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in Mandarin?

Question 30. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in Mandarin?

Question 31. Are you willing to enhance your child's Mandarin proficiency by paying?

Question 35. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's Mandarin learning?

Question 42. What is your attitude towards your child learning this foreign language?

Question 48. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in foreign languages?

Question 49. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in foreign languages?

Question 50. Are you willing to enhance your child's proficiency in this foreign language by paying?

Question 54. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's

learning of this foreign language?

Question 57. What is your attitude towards your child learning the Wuhan dialect?

Question 58. What is your attitude towards your child learning your hometown dialect?

Question 67. In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in dialect?

Question 68. In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in dialect?

Question 69. Are you willing to enhance your child's proficiency in dialect by paying?

Question 73. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of dialect?

Turning to the survey data (Question 18, Question 23, Question 42 and Question 57 and Question 58), it is found that parent participants' language beliefs can affect their own language behaviours to some extent. In the investigation of parent participants' attitudes towards children learning Mandarin, 100 parent participants indicated their support ("Strongly support" and "Somewhat support") for their children to learn Mandarin, and 77% of these parents used Mandarin with their children in the family domain. Among the parent participants who declare support for children's dialects learning, the percentage of them who actually translate their supportive attitudes into language behaviours drops to 41%. An unexpected interesting finding is that 100 participants are in favour of their children learning foreign languages, but in the family domain only 14% of parent participants communicate with their children in foreign languages.

As it is noted before, according to Zhao's study, language ideologies are at the core of language behaviours (Zhao, 2018). This study has found that language ideologies do have an impact on language behaviours, but the impact is different according to which language is considered. As was shown above, the extent to which parent participants' attitudes towards children's language learning have impacts on their own language behaviours varies according to the language category in question – Mandarin, dialects

or foreign languages. This illustrates that the ways in which language ideologies affect language behaviours are part of a complex process and are also subject to real-world constraints.

The language backgrounds of participants (including parents and children) seem to play a significant role in determining whether parent participants' supportive attitudes to language learning can be truly transformed into positive language behaviours. In the family domain, parents may have a particular desire to create a better learning environment of foreign languages for their children, but perhaps the parents perceive their own foreign language skills as not strong enough for them to adopt the language behaviour of speaking to their children in a foreign language. Moreover, mother togue seems to have a natural affinity, and individuals can strongly feel this closeness especially when they are in the language environment where people have bond relationships. Therefore, a special language environment, the family domain, may be another reason why parents subconsciously speak to their children in their mother togue rather than foreign languages even parent participants are capable of communicating in foreign languages. Furthermore, parents who support their children to learn a dialect may wish to speak that dialect with their children at home, but if the children's ability in that dialect is low, this might affect how frequently the parents adopt this language behaviour.

Parent participants' language ideologies affect their language management strategies to varying degrees, according to the survey data. In this study there are two categories of language management: (i) unpaid management methods (no funds required) and (ii) investment management methods. In the unpaid category, watching TV and listening to the radio were the examples used to explore the relationship between parent participants' ideologies and their stance on unpaid language management methods. After the quantitative calculations were carried out, the data indicates that how parent participants perceive children's language learning (i.e. the extent to which they are supportive of learning a certain language) does not affect the frequency at which parents

use the unpaid language management strategies. The questionnaire included two questions probing how often parent participants use unpaid management methods (watching TV and listening to the radio) for each language resource (Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages): Question 29, Question 30, Question 48, Question 49, Question 67 and Question 68. Pearson corelation tests were conducted to look at the relationship between parent participants' attitudes towards children's learning a certain language (Question 23, Question 42, Question57 and Question 58) and parental frequency of use of unpaid management methods. The answer options all took the form of a 5-point Likert scale. For the analysis, options A to E were assigned values 5 to 1. The results show that there is no significant difference in the frequency of using unpaid management methods when parent participants have different attitudes towards children's learning of certain languages.

It seems that if the language management strategies are unpaid, parental frequency of using them cannot reflect their attitudes towards language learning. However, in the case of language management methods which require payment, the situation is different. If parent participants need to invest money in the management method, their attitudes towards children's language learning may affect their amount of spending on the method. For example, there is a significant positive correlation between the degree to which parents support children to learn foreign languages (Question 42) and the parents' investment amount to pay for that foreign language learning support (Question 54), and the correlation coefficient is 0.303** (0.01 significance level). That is, the more that parents are in support of children's foreign languages learning, the more they would pay for the language management strategy. Turning to dialects and Mandarin, the results show that there is no significant difference in the investment behaviours when parent participants have different attitudes towards children's learning Mandarin (Question 31) and dialects (Question 69).

It seems that the links between parental language attitudes and language management are relatively weak. Nevertheless, other aspects of language ideologies seem to strongly

correlate with paid language management. Table 2.14 shows that parental willingness to pay for children's languages learning (including Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects) is positively highly related to their actual amount of spending on their children's corresponding languages learning, since the tests of correlation are carried out and correlation coefficients between Questions 31 and 35, 50 and 54, 69 and 73 are 0.431**, 0.439** and 0.405** respectively (0.01 significance level). The data means that the more people are willing to pay for children's languages learning, the more they would pay in their genuine paid language management activities. Furthermore, Table 2.14 also shows that the different correlations refer to three language resources: Mandarin, foreign languages, and dialects. As the data indicates, the strongest correlation is between Question 50 and Question 54 (foreign languages), while the least strong correlation is between Question 69 and Question 73 (dialects). The results suggest that when facing different languages resources, even if the parents' willingness to use investment management methods is the same, they would spend more on their children's foreign languages learning than on Mandarin and dialects learning.

Table 2.14 Pearson correlations between parent participants' investment willingness in children's languages learning and their actual costs of children's languages learning

Questions	Correlation coefficient
Question 31 and Question 35 (Mandarin)	0.431**
Question 50 and Question 54 (Foreign languages)	0.439**
Question 69 and Question 73 (Dialects)	0.405**

In summary, language ideologies impact language management in many aspects. Language ideologies are highly related to paid language management behaviours. On the one hand, when parent participants manage their children's foreign languages, their investment amount can be influenced by their attitudes towards children's foreign languages learning. However, reflecting a possible relationship between language

attitudes and the costs they pay for corresponding language, when parent participants are considering different language resources for their children (Mandarin and dialects), the influence which their language attitudes exert on their paid management decisions and behaviours is not obvious. In fact, it is parental willingness to pay for languages learning rather than attitudes towards languages learning that is highly related to their actual costs of children's language learning. Therefore, it is also found that when it comes to economic costs, the attitude towards languages is not a very strong driving force that could prompt parents to carry out payment for language management.

The relationships between language ideologies, language behaviours and language management can be summarised as follows. Firstly, language ideologies are not only the core of parents' language behaviours but also the core of parents' language management strategies. Parent participants' beliefs about language resources are the original driving force for them to use language resources, and their use of language resources can be influenced by their attitudes towards different resources. However, the extent of the influence of the parent participants' ideologies actually depends on the specific language they are dealing with. Meanwhile, parents' language management strategies for their children could be influenced by their own language ideologies. Especially when it comes to paid management behaviours, the impacts of parent participants' willingness to pay for languages learning are obvious. So, it seems that language ideologies are at the core of both language behaviours and language management. As FLP is made up of the interrelated components of language ideologies, language behaviours and language management, it is clear that language ideologies are central to FLP.

Secondly, FLP is a dynamic cycle instead of a linear process. According to the data discussed above, parent participants' language ideologies can help to form their actual language behaviours, and their language ideologies and language behaviours further influence their language management strategies. The formation of language management is not the terminal point of the FLP process. Essentially, parental efforts

to educate their children are a form of altruistic behaviour, and language education is an important part of parental education and raising of children (Hong et al., 2008). Correspondingly, FLP is a way for parents to provide and mould language education for their children, with the aim of FLP being to improve children's language outcomes. To help children achieve better language outcomes, participants can adjust their language behaviours and language management methods. We have established that language behaviours and language management are partly manifestations of language ideologies. Therefore, as parents change their language behaviours and language management in response to external factors this may involve changes to their underlying language ideologies. Thus, the development of FLP is a dynamic process: language ideologies determine the initial shape of parental language behaviours and language management, but as parents adjust their language behaviours and language management according to their children's actual situations and progress, these adjustments may in turn influence the parental language ideologies.

Thirdly, previous studies have claimed that parental FLP can influence children's language outcomes, where language outcomes principally refer to language ability/skills. Parental FLP is also inextricably linked with children's language ideologies and language behaviours. In the course of FLP's development, there are "agents" and "patients". In this study, the agents are the parent participants and the patients are their children. Both agents and patients have language ideologies and language behaviours. The parents are the managers of FLP in the family domain, and this study takes the view that parent participants' language ideologies, language behaviours and language management can influence children's language ideologies and language behaviours. The evidence to support this position is presented in detail in Chapter Three.

2.3 Consistencies and differences between parents in the development of FLP

As reported in Section 2.2, this study took each parent participant individually as a unit,

and analysed the data collected about language ideologies, language behaviours and language management in order to produce an overall map of the group of FLP makers in this investigation and to explore the general characteristics of these FLP makers. However, according to my further investigation, there are close relationships among parent participants. The reason is that fathers and mothers from the same family were invited to participate in this study, this section thus will take each family as a unit for analysis. The reason for further analysing the data in this way is that in typical family structures, fathers and mothers are co-makers of family language policy, and FLP is the product of joint efforts by the father and mother. Furthermore, any change for either FLP co-maker will affect the formation of FLP. In this section, the family level will be examined, to determine which aspects of family language policy tend to prompt divergence of opinion between parents and which aspects tend to produce alignment and agreement between parents.

For the purposes of this analysis, the parent participants' questionnaire response data were reorganised. Mothers and fathers with the same family number were put together for comparison. Except for the answers to questions about parental background, all the data were compared at the family level. Where a mother and father gave the same answer to a given question, the item was designated as "Agreement"; where the two parents gave different answers, the item was designated as "Difference". In this way, between-parent consistency and inconsistency could be examined. Drawing on the rates of consistency and inconsistency in parental answers, this section will proceed through three stages.

Firstly, the section will examine similarities and differences between FLP co-makers on the overall construction of FLP. Secondly, the language variety will be treated as the dimension for analysis, and language resources involved (Mandarin, dialects, foreign languages) will be sorted according to the rates of consistency and inconsistency in the FLP co-makers' answers. Thirdly, the section will look at each language specifically and discuss which aspects of FLP are easy for FLP co-makers to reach agreement on

and which aspects tend to attract disagreement. To explore the agreement and disagreement in each family unit could not only provide quantitative information, it could also help to discuss why parents have similarities or differences with their partners because the data clearly identify the issues which fathers and mothers are easily to reach agreement and attract disagreement. In addition, agreement and disagreement in family can be evaluated by governmental policy makers, and they can encourage beneficial agreement/disagreement and avoid unhelpful agreement/disagreement by revising or supplementing current language policy, which could be benefit to family, government and even the nation.

2.3.1 FLP co-makers' agreement and disagreement with their partners in overall formation of FLP

Questions referred to this section are list as below:

Question 2. Do you have invisible FLP for your child?

Question 3. Have you ever taken initiatives to access resources such as books, newspapers, magazines, online resources, etc. relating to children's language learning?

Question 13. What do you think is the extent of your impact on your child's language development?

Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.

The questionnaire data indicate that FLP co-makers in the family domain are prone to be consistent with their partners on many issues such as awareness of participation in FLP-making and specific behaviours of participation in FLP-making. However, regarding status of participation in FLP, most of the FLP co-makers have different views. Most FLP co-makers in the investigation are in consensus with their partners on whether to establish an invisible FLP for their children (Question 2). Among the 51 families surveyed, there were 29 pairs of FLP co-makers where the couple's answers matched. Of these 29 couples, 25 pairs of FLP co-makers said that they have established

specific FLP for their children. Of the remaining FLP co-makers (the ones who did not choose the same option as their partners), in 50% of the couples the pattern of answers to Question 2 was that one parent gave a definite answer ("Yes" or "No") and their partner chose "Not sure". In other words, only 11 families had totally opposing views on Question 2, i.e. one FLP co-maker answered "Yes" and another answered "No". Altogether, the data indicate that for most FLP co-makers it is easy for couples to agree on whether to establish an invisible FLP for their children. Total disagreement is apparent only for a minority of parents.

Furthermore, both FLP co-makers in families are willing to manage their children's language resources through joint efforts. The responses to (Question 3) show that in over 64% of the pairs of FLP co-makers, the two partners had matching responses, and almost all of them indicated their willingness to take the initiative in children's language learning. There are obvious differences in the way of participating among parents in a family. Children's education may have been dominated by one parent's "direct participation", while his or her partner may have been characterised mainly by "indirect participation" in their children's education. Here, "indirect participation" means providing economic support for children and seldom engaging in direct participation in real management activities (Liang et al., 2019). However, in light of the questionnaire data, the situation appears to be different in the case of children's language planning. More fathers and mothers, as FLP co-makers in the family, are inclined to contribute direct efforts together to help with their children's language learning.

In addition, in the families surveyed in this study, the FLP co-makers' reported language use shows more similarities than differences. Figure 2.4 shows that in 30 families, both parents hold the same ideas about how to use languages with children, and these 30 families account for 59% of the total number of families (Question 18). In these 30 pairs of FLP co-makers, the most common language practice is to communicate with children only in Mandarin: 16 families took this approach. The second most common language practice is to speak with children in both dialects and Mandarin. The least

common approach is talking with children in dialects, Mandarin and English: only one pair of FLP co-makers are in agreement on this type of language use. The results indicate that it seems to be easier for both FLP co-makers in a family to reach a consensus on Mandarin use. However, if any one of the FLP co-makers in a family reports using English or other foreign languages with their children, they are less likely to be in agreement with their partner. It is worth noting that if two parents report using different languages with children this may have advantages for their children's language acquisition because children will be exposed naturally to different languages and may access more language resources.

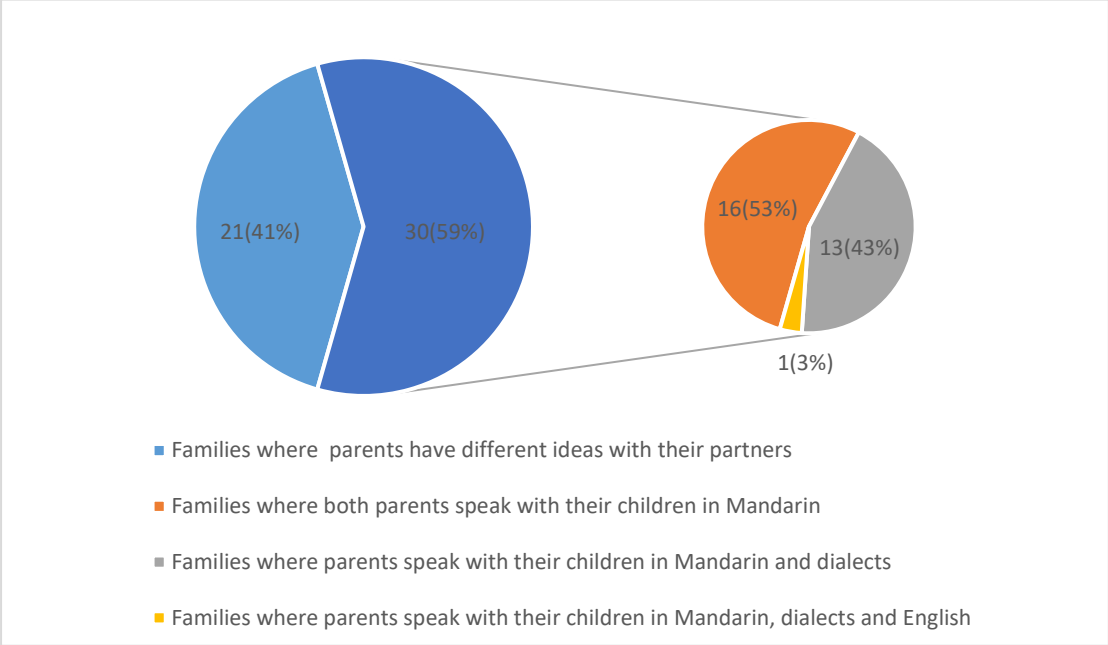

Figure 2.4 FLP co-makers' languages use with their children

Although there are many issues concerning overall FLP formation on which FLP co-makers can reach agreement, some issues give rise to differences of opinion between FLP co-makers in the family. For instance, over half of the families in this study had internal disagreement on Question 13. On the surface, this question asks parent participants whether they have an impact on children's language learning. In fact, this question could indirectly prompt parents to reflect on what role they would like to play in the formation of FLP for their children. Parent participants' perceptions of their own influence can be used to help them recognise the role they are able to play in the process

of FLP-making. Generally speaking, for FLP co-makers in the family, the greater the impact they have (and think they can have), the more likely they are to lead in FLP making.

Moreover, fathers and mothers tend to cooperate with each other and play different roles in education – one taking a dominant role as the leader, and the other as an assistant who helps and supports the leader. This style of educational role-taking is also apparent in parental language education. The responses to Question 13 show that there were 27 families where one parent answered differently to their partner. In each family who had disagreement, one of the two FLP co-makers indicate that they think they have significant influence on their children's language learning, and answered "Strongly affect" or "Somewhat affect", and it could be assumed that these parents are possibly to play the main educational role and take the lead in children's language education. Meanwhile, the other FLP co-maker in each family does not indicate the same level of confidence in their impact, and based on their answers it could be conjectured that they would take a helper role in their children's language learning.

2.3.2 Consistency and inconsistency between FLP co-makers' answers concerning different language resources

This section will explore the consistency and inconsistency between FLP co-makers in their answers of all questions when they consider different language resources (Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages). The questionnaire for parent participants dealt with each language resource in a separate section, and rates of consistency and inconsistency in FLP co-makers' answers were calculated for each different language resource. The sets of questions were based on a common design framework, so the content of questions was very consistent across the different language resource sections. Although some questions differed slightly between sections due to the specific nature of different language resources, the statistical comparison of the consistency rate and inconsistency rate of FLP co-makers' answers concerning different language resources

could still have certain reference value to the research. As there were 51 pairs of FLP co-makers participating in this investigation, if over 26 pairs of FLP co-makers show within-partner agreement on a certain question, that would indicate that there is a trend for FLP co-makers to agree with each other on this question, and vice versa in the case of more than 26 pairs showing within-couple disagreement.

Table 2.15 shows the quantity of questions on which more than 50% of FLP co-makers are in agreement or disagreement with their partners, with reference to type of language resource. Table 2.16 sets out the highest rates of answer agreement and answer disagreement reached, with reference to type of language resource. The data in Tables 2.15 and 2.16 will be discussed together, taking each of the three language resource categories in turn: Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects.

Table 2.15 Numbers of questions where FLP co-maker pairs show within-couple agreement or disagreement, by language resource
(all questions are referred to the appendix)

Language resources		Total	Number of questions where majority of FLP co-maker pairs show within-pair agreement	Number of questions where majority of FLP co-maker pairs show within-pair disagreement
Mandarin	Amount	14	6	8
	Percentage (%)	100	42.86	57.14
Foreign languages	Amount	19	11	8
	Percentage (%)	100	57.89	42.11
Dialects	Amount	16	3	13
	Percentage (%)	100	18.75	81.25

Table 2.16 Highest rates of answer agreement and disagreement between FLP co-makers, in light of language resource

Language resources		Highest rate of within-pair answer agreement	Highest rate of within-pair answer disagreement
Mandarin	Percentage (%)	82.35 (Question 23)	62.75 (Question 32)
Foreign languages	Percentage (%)	96.08 (Questions 37 and 41)	82.35 (Question 40)
Dialects	Percentage (%)	84.31 (Question 74)	64.71(Question 65)

Children's Mandarin learning was addressed in 14 questions (Question 23-36) to the parent participants. There were six questions where more than 26 pairs of FLP co-makers showed within-couple agreement, and the rate of answer agreement peaked at 82% meaning that in 42 pairs of FLP co-makers each parent's answer to that question matched their partner's. In the remaining eight questions dealing with Mandarin, the majority of the pairs of FLP co-makers had differences of opinion within the couples. Among the responses to those eight questions, the highest rate of answer disagreement was 63%– in other words, each parent in 32 pairs of FLP co-makers gave a different answer to their partner on that question.

Turning to children's learning of foreign languages, there were 19 questions (Question 37-55) in the survey and on 11 of these questions, more than half the families investigated showed agreement between the two FLP co-maker partners. Strikingly, on two of these 11 questions, there was an exceptionally high rate of couple agreement, with FLP co-makers in 49 families choosing the same answers as their partners; this number represents 96% of the families surveyed. If we consider the remaining eight questions on foreign languages, fewer than 26 pairs of FLP co-makers gave matching answers, representing significant non-alignment within the couples. The highest level

of mismatch was for one of these eight questions where 42 pairs were in disagreement, representing 82% of the total number of families we surveyed.

The section on dialects consisted of 16 questions (Question 57 and Question 60-74). Of these, only three questions elicited matching answers in more than 26 pairs of FLP co-makers. The FLP co-makers' highest rate of couple agreement was 84%, meaning that in 43 pairs each parent chose the same answer as their partner on that question. Turning to the remaining 13 questions in the dialects section, differences of opinion within the family were more common than matching answers. Between-partner differences in answers to questions about dialects peaked at 65%, i.e. in 33 pairs of FLP co-makers the two parents gave different answers.

Generally speaking, some key points can be drawn out of the data, as follows. Firstly, of the three types of language resources, FLP co-makers tend to agree on matters of foreign languages more than other languages. Differences of opinion within FLP co-maker pairs are greatest on matters of dialect learning. Secondly, the question which elicited the highest rate of within-couple agreement was related to foreign languages, and so was the question that prompted the highest rate of disagreement. Thirdly, in all categories of language resource (Mandarin, dialects, foreign languages), the results show that the highest rate of answer agreement achieved in that category is higher than the peak rate of the answer disagreement achieved.

2.3.3 FLP co-makers' agreement and disagreement with their partners about specific language resources

This section will present how FLP co-makers agree or disagree with their partners on matters of certain language resources. As before, language resources are in three categories: Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects. In this section, any notable finding regarding FLP co-makers' agreement and disagreement with their partners will be discussed, and the relevant data for each question will be presented as well.

Questions which this section concentrate on in detail are listed as follows:

Question 23. What is your attitude towards your child learning Mandarin?

Question 24. Do agree with the statement “Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children’s school performance?

Question 25. Do you agree with the statement “Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children’s future careers”?

Question 27. To what extent do education policies of the country such as National College Entrance Examination affect your attitude towards your child’s the Mandarin learning?

Question 28. To what extent do national language policies of the country such as the promotion of Mandarin and the protection of dialects affect your attitude towards your child’s Mandarin learning?

Question 32. In order to improve your child’s Mandarin skill, how often do you buy Mandarin-related reading materials (such as books, newspapers and magazines) for your child?

Question 33. In order to improve your child’s Mandarin skill, how often do you buy online courses in Mandarin for your child?

Question 34. In order to improve your child’s Mandarin skill, how often do you send your child to participate in paid Mandarin training courses?

Question 35. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's Mandarin learning?

Question 36. In your opinion, what percentage of the child’s total language learning time should Mandarin account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 37. When it comes to foreign languages learning, what is the first foreign language you think of?

Question 38. How many foreign languages do you want your child to master?

Question 40. What are the main motivations that drive you to choose which foreign language(s) your child should learn? Please select three options.

Question 50 Are you willing to enhance your child’s proficiency in this foreign

language by paying?

Question 51. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you buy foreign languages-related reading materials (such as books, newspapers and magazines) for your child?

Question 52. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you buy online courses in this foreign language for your child?

Question 53. In order to improve your child's skill in this foreign language, how often do you send your child to participate in paid training courses in this foreign language?

Question 56. Are you a native of Wuhan?

Question 57. What is your attitude towards your child learning the Wuhan dialect?

Question 65. Do you agree with the statement "Learning dialect is an effective way to develop a bond among family members"?

Question 73. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of dialect?

Question 74. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should dialect account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

2.3.3.1 FLP co-makers' agreement and disagreement with their partners about Mandarin

On questions about Mandarin, FLP co-makers agree with their partners less frequently than they disagree with their partners, as discussed in Section 2.3.2. On the one hand, FLP co-makers tend to agree with their partners on questions concerning their attitudes towards their children's Mandarin learning and planned investment in Mandarin learning for their children. When questioned on their general attitudes towards children's Mandarin language learning, 42 of 51 pairs of FLP co-makers answered in the same way as their partners, and all 42 couples chose "Strongly agree". This question (Question 23) elicited the highest rate of answer agreement and clearly indicates that these 42 pairs of FLP co-makers have highly supportive attitudes towards their children's Mandarin learning. As for the other nine pairs of FLP co-makers who had

mismatching answers, there are seven pairs where the mismatch was only slight: “Strongly agree” versus “Partially agree”. In other words, the partners were not in opposition – they both expressed supportive attitudes towards children’s Mandarin learning, but to different extents.

Two questions probed the extent to which FLP co-makers think that learning Mandarin can benefit children’s academic achievement (Question 24) and future employment (Question 25) and these yielded relatively high rates of answer agreement. On Question 24, 32 of 51 pairs of FLP co-makers showed between-partner agreement, and on Question 25, 34 of 51 pairs of FLP co-makers showed between-partner agreement. However, these answer agreement rates are lower than for Question 23 and the distributions of answers are also slightly different. The difference between Question 23 and Question 24 is in how FLP co-makers reach agreement with their partners. As discussed above, in 42 pairs of FLP co-makers all 84 parent participants answered “Strongly agree” to Question 23. Parent participants’ answers to Question 24 show that 30 of 32 pairs of FLP co-makers chose “Strongly agree” when asked if learning Mandarin can help their children with their school performance. The other two pairs chose “Partially agree” not “Strongly agree” with all partners in agreement. The results reflect that some families express lower levels of support for the statement that learning Mandarin helps children’s school achievement. In other words, in the families where FLP co-makers reach agreement with their partners, the degree of support for the idea that supporting Mandarin learning can benefit children’s academic attainment differs among some families. As for the remaining pairs of FLP co-makers in which partners answered differently, none of these couples expressed completely opposing opinions and FLP co-makers prefer choosing similar answers with their partners. Only three pairs of FLP co-makers showed a slightly different pattern: one of each pair chose “Strongly agree” or “Partially agree” and their partner chose “Not sure”, which cannot show their real attitude.

FLP co-makers basically give the same or similar answers as their partners to Question

23 and Question 24. However, FLP co-makers' responses to Question 25 are more diverse. The data collected shows that in 34 of 51 pairs of FLP co-makers, parents chose the same options as their partners, and these options spanned "Strongly agree", "Partially agree", "Not sure" and "Partially disagree". Of the 34 pairs, one couple agreed on "Not sure", and another couple matched with "Partially disagree". In Question 23 and Question 24, where FLP co-makers are aligned with their partners, their answers indicate positive attitudes. On Question 25 only two pairs of FLP co-makers chose option "Partially disagree" and option "Not sure", with partners aligned, demonstrating that agreement on Question 25 shows parents' positive attitudes towards "Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children's future careers". On the other hand, in Question 25, some FLP co-makers' attitudes are in opposition to their partners. For example, one pair of FLP co-makers answered "Partially disagree" versus "Partially agree", and another pair answered "Partially disagree" versus "Strongly agree". The contrast of "agree" and "disagree" is important as it conveys a difference in attitude rather than simply a difference in degree (i.e. somewhat versus strongly). Therefore, conflicting attitudes within couples did emerge in response to Question 25, unlike the case for Questions 23 and 24, but it was only in a small minority of family units (two).

The issues on which FLP co-makers tend to disagree with their partners can be summarised as follow. On the one hand, FLP co-makers and their partners are inclined to think differently about how governmental policy influences children's Mandarin learning. This study probed parents' attitudes on governmental education and language policies which are likely to have a close relationship with family language policy. Parents' responses to Question 27 and Question 28 showed that FLP co-makers' disagreements with each other occurred in 50% and 61% of the families respectively. In 28 pairs of FLP co-makers there was partner disagreement on the issue of how education policies impact their attitudes towards their children's Mandarin learning: within 11 of these families, the partners had opposing opinions whereby one FLP co-maker answered positively by "strongly" or "somewhat" agreeing and the other FLP co-maker responded negatively with "Strongly disagree" or "Partially disagree". In 12

of 28 pairs of FLP co-makers, the opinions were mismatched in degree rather than opposing in principle. For example, one parent answered “Strongly agree” and the other answered “Partially agree”. Of these 12 pairs of FLP co-makers, 10 pairs answered positively that education policy is an influential factor which can affect their attitudes towards their children’s Mandarin learning. The other two pairs of FLP co-makers gave negative answers indicating that education policy is not a factor which can influence their attitudes towards their children’s Mandarin learning.

However, FLP co-makers’ opinions sometimes differ from their partners’ when they manage Mandarin as a language resource. Generally speaking, FLP co-makers are prone to have the same or similar overall Mandarin management awareness as their partners. Parental Mandarin management awareness is mainly addressed in Questions 35 and 36, probing time management and financial investment in Mandarin learning respectively. Both questions involve Likert scale options (five): the closer together the options they choose, the more similar their answers are. For Question 35, in 37 of 51 pairs of FLP co-makers, parents chose the same or adjacent option as their partners, and in Question 36, in 44 of 51 pairs of FLP co-makers each parent chose the same or adjacent option as their partner.

The data indicates that in most of the families being investigated, FLP co-makers are inclined to agree with their partners on the overall plan of time management and investment of money in their children’s Mandarin learning. However, these couples may disagree with their partners about specific implementation. For instance, although parental answers to Question 35 indicate that more than half of FLP co-makers agree on the amount of money to invest in children’s Mandarin learning, FLP co-makers tend to disagree with their partners about how to spend the money. Questions 32, 33 and 34 probed parents’ preferences concerning three paid methods of managing children’s Mandarin learning: buying reading materials, purchasing online courses, and enrolling children to attend face-to-face courses. When FLP co-makers were asked to how often they use these methods, there are less families where the two parents are in alignment

than families with parents with differing opinions. Among the paid methods, buying reading materials is the option which triggered the most FLP co-makers to disagree with their partners. Question 32 yielded the most disagreement, affecting 63% of all families, and both Question 33 and Question 34 prompted within-couple disagreement in 59% of all families studied. Moreover, there are very few families whose FLP co-makers both have positive attitudes towards the same paid method to improve their children's Mandarin.

2.3.3.2 FLP co-makers' agreement and disagreement with their partners concerning foreign languages

Based on parental responses to Questions 37 to 55 about foreign languages, family agreement and disagreement on children's learning of foreign languages can be summarised as follows.

Firstly, as for the number of foreign languages that children should learn, most of the FLP co-makers share the same view as their partners, However, FLP co-makers may diverge in opinions on the specific language(s) their children should learn. Parent participants' answers to Question 38 indicate that in 30 of the families, FLP co-makers agree with their partners about the number of foreign languages that children should learn. Ten of these families want their children to learn one foreign language, and English is the only foreign language they chose for their children. Sixteen families want their children to learn two foreign languages, but FLP co-makers and their partners have different ideas about which ones. In all 16 families the couples agree that their children should learn English, but the question of a second foreign language for their children attracted a range of answers. French, German and Japanese are popular options among FLP co-makers, but parents sometimes diverged on specific choices. This pattern of results highlights the important position of English in family foreign languages education, but it is apparent that no other foreign language is in a similarly strong position to attract a high rate of couple agreement on which second foreign language their children should learn.

Secondly, the basis for choosing foreign languages makes it difficult for FLP co-makers to achieve complete agreement and FLP co-makers' motivations can overlap to varying degrees. Question 40 explored parents' motivations for choosing certain foreign languages for their children, and the answers from FLP co-makers show that in 82% of families (41), FLP co-maker reasons for their selection are not always consistent with their partners' reasons. However, complete inconsistency only affected six of those 41 families. In the other 35 families, FLP co-makers shared some same motives as their partners. The number of these shared motives ranged from two to five, and the three most commonly cited motivations were children's learning interests, children's future employment and current education policies. In the remaining 18% of families (nine), FLP co-makers' motivations for choosing foreign languages for their children are completely matched by their partners, and again the top three factors are children's learning interests, children's future employment and current education policies. Regardless of whether FLP co-makers answer Question 40 in the same way as their partners, it can be seen from their top-ranking motivations that the family as a unit puts children's needs and interest at the centre of decision-making about foreign language learning. Other considerations such as parental preference and the cost of learning foreign languages – factors which are not closely linked to the needs of the children themselves – do not appear to be principal motivations in the family.

Thirdly, the topic of paying for children's foreign languages learning prompts more cases of disagreement within couples than instances of agreement. Parents' answers to Question 50 indicate that in 28 of 51 families, FLP co-makers hold the same view as their partners. In the other 23 families, partner opinions diverged. However, when it comes to considering specific paid methods of improving children's foreign language proficiency, FLP co-makers in the same family may have different preferences.

This survey addressed the three most typical mainstream paid methods in China for supporting children to improve their language skills: buying reading materials such as books, magazines and newspapers (Question 51); buying online courses (Question 52);

and enrolling children to attend face-to-to courses (Question 53). The survey data show that co-makers in families tend to agree with their partners about buying reading materials and attending face-to-to courses as paid methods, but there are more differences in opinions regarding purchasing online foreign language learning courses. It is worth noting that Question 52 and Question 53 both refer to attending foreign language learning courses, families show different response to them because their different way of class. There are 53% families whose FLP co-makers are in agreement with their partners on the issue of participating in face-to-face foreign language learning courses, while in 55% families FLP co-makers have differences of opinion with their partners about online foreign language learning courses. The responses to Questions 52 and 53 indicate that traditional face-to-face learning courses are a more popular choice than the emerging online learning courses and the easiest for FLP co-maker couples to reach agreement on.

2.3.3.3 FLP co-makers' agreement and disagreement with their partners about dialects

Questions 57 and 60-74 were designed to explore parent participants' planning for children's dialect learning. The responses to these questions indicate that in most cases, FLP co-makers tend to have differences of opinions with their partners in language planning regarding dialect. As Table 2.15 shows, out of the entire set of questions, there were only three questions (Questions 64, 73 and 74) where more than 26 pairs of FLP co-makers showed within-couple agreement.

Among these three questions, Question 74 had the highest agreement rate (84%) between co-parents in families, which means that in 43 of 51 families, FLP co-makers have the same answer as their partners on the issue of management of dialect learning time. Question 73 had the second highest agreement rate (59%) among families, meaning that in 30 of 51 families, FLP co-makers chose the same options as their partners on the issue of management of children's dialects learning costs. The two questions above both refer to parental investment in children's dialect learning; one

refers to investment of time and the other refers to investment of money. The results for families whose FLP co-makers reach agreement on time and money investment in children's dialect learning are very similar, and reveal that these families are not willing to spend too much money or make their children spend too much time on dialect learning. In many families (84%) in which FLP co-makers and their partners are in agreement on Question 74, parents hold the view that dialects learning should account for less than 20% of the child's total languages learning time. Moreover, in families where partners are in agreement on Question 73, parents are either unwilling to pay to improve the child's dialect skills, or they are only willing to spend under 20% of family income. These results indicate that these families are not very interested in their children's dialect learning.

Furthermore, Question 65 prompted the lowest agreement rate (35%) among the families investigated. In 33 of 51 families, FLP co-maker couples hold different views on the function of dialect to bond family. In these 33 families, the most common case is that at least one of the co-makers in the family is not sure or disagrees that dialect can help maintain family relationships. The result indicates that for many parent participants, it seems that dialect does not have the function to strength the family bond. In the family domain, the powerful force which could maintain family relationships are possibly the kinship. When beyond the field of family, people are more likely to use the same dialect identity to build closer relationships with others (Zhang, 2012).

Question 57 attracted the second lowest agreement rate (39%) between families. Only 20 of 51 families expressed internal unity on Question 57; FLP co-makers in the other 31 families had differences of opinion with their partners to varying degrees about children learning the Wuhan dialect. Responses to Question 56 enabled sorting of the surveyed families by parental regional background: there are 15 families with a Wuhanese parent and a non-Wuhanese parent; 18 families with two Wuhanese parents; and 18 families with two non-Wuhanese parents. Scrutiny of agreement rates on Question 57 in these three different family structures revealed the following. The largest

agreement rate (53%) is in families with a Wuhanese parent and a non-Wuhanese parent, followed by families with two non-Wuhanese parents (33%) and families with two Wuhanese parents (also 33%). From this data it is apparent that FLP co-makers from different regional backgrounds are more likely to have the same ideas on the issue of children learning the Wuhan dialect, while FLP co-maker pairs who share the same regional backgrounds seem to disagree with their partners easily.

Furthermore, in 15 families where one parent is Wuhanese and the other is not, a majority of Wuhanese parents (12) have a supportive attitude towards their children learning the Wuhan dialect. And when the Wuhanese parents have a supportive attitude towards children's Wuhan dialect learning, their partners either have a consistent opinion with their Wuhanese spouse or have a neutral attitude towards children's Wuhan dialect learning. Only when Wuhanese parents in the families have uncertain or negative attitudes towards children learning the Wuhan dialect do their non-Wuhanese partners hold an unsupportive view of children's Wuhan dialect learning. In 18 families in which parents are all non-Wuhanese, six pairs of parents have the same idea as their partners on Question 57. In the remaining 12 families where parents have different opinions from their spouses, the most frequent situation is that one parent has a clear attitude towards Question 57 but the other co-parent has an uncertain attitude towards Question 57. Compared with families with two Wuhanese, there are also 12 families with two Wuhanese in which parents disagree with their partners. However, most parents in these 12 families have a clear stance on Question 57 and at least one parent in each family is supportive of children's Wuhan dialect learning.

In conclusion, foreign languages are the language resource about which co-makers tend to have the same opinions as their partners regarding language planning for their children. The survey contained 19 questions related to foreign language planning, and in the case of 14 of those questions, over 50% of families had FLP co-makers answering in the same way as their partners. Moreover, the questions eliciting the highest between-partner agreement rates appear in the section on foreign languages, with a peak

agreement rate of 96%. In contrast, with regard to dialect planning, the proportion of questions where FLP co-makers and their partners are in agreement is the lowest. The survey had 16 questions related to dialect planning and 13 of these questions prompted more than half of the FLP co-makers to give answers which were inconsistent with their partners' answers. Therefore, based on the data collected, on the issue of foreign language planning, most FLP co-makers tend to agree with their partners, while on the issue of dialect planning, FLP co-makers and their partners show more differences.

2.4 Patterns of FLP

Section 2.3 addressed the data in terms of the family unit and discussed which language resources and which aspects of language resources are likely to prompt agreements and disagreements when families formulate FLP. This section also addressees the family unit and attempts to describe FLP patterns in the families being investigated. FLP patterns will be explored and discussed in relation to the three different language resources in turn. In addition, the K-Means clusters analysis method of SPSS is used to help the examination of this section.

K-Means clusters is one of the data analysis functions in SPSS and it has been widely applied in various fields of natural science and social science in the past years. Cluster analysis is a statistical method for analysing samples. The purpose of using the method is to classify similar samples according to the characteristics of the actual data. K-Means clusters was employed in this study to help sort different FLP clusters (patterns) in a quick and scientific way. Each cluster can calculate a cluster centre, and scores belonging to a cluster must be closer to the cluster centre of this cluster than others' scores that can not be classified into this cluster (Li et al., 2015).

The K-Means clusters analysis is based on the parent participants' answers to 13 questions in the questionnaire. These 13 questions are for Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages, and every language resource is assigned with five questions (The

reason is that one of these 13 questions, Question 18, is a multiple choice question and refers to Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages so the results of this question will be used for every language resource). Among the five questions of each set, one question explores participants' general language beliefs, one question explores parental language use with their children, and the other three questions relate to parents' overall language management. To facilitate the comparison of FLP patterns across different language resources, the set of questions is the same for each language resource category.

Therefore, in this study, the questions mainly investigate parental family language policy in the dimensions of language awareness, language behaviours and language management. Although previous research (Wan, 2019) has found possible paradoxes in the relationship between language awareness and language behaviour, meaning that parents' language awareness and language behaviour may be inconsistent or even opposed, this study has still opted to explore the three dimensions – language awareness, language behaviours and language management – to study FLP in families. The reason is that what this study aims to explore is the final effects which language awareness, language behaviours and language management have interacted with each other on FLP of each language resource, that is, the characteristics of the FLP after the interaction of three factors including language awareness, language behaviours and language management.

In the process of the K-Means clusters analysis, all options of the five questions for each language resource planning are assigned a score of 1 to 5 according to the degree of agreement expressed in the option: the more positive the level of agreement, the higher the score is (e.g., 'Strongly agree' = 5). Therefore, participants' answers to five questions of each language resource are assigned scores respectively. K-Means clusters analysis in SPSS will use participants' total scores of five questions to calculate cluster centres of each language. It also calculates which cluster centre each participants' total scores are close to and categorises them into the corresponding cluster (FLP patterns).

It is worth mentioning that the research mainly collected research by administrating questionnaires, even if the questionnaires do not involve any privacy of participants, there may be cases in which participants do not answer truthfully on some questions. Therefore, this research also uses some methods, such as examining whether the participants' questionnaires completing time are reasonable and setting up reverse scoring questions in the questionnaires to ensure the truthfulness of the participants' answers as much as possible.

2.4.1 Patterns of family Mandarin policy

To analyse patterns of family Mandarin policy, parent participants' answers to survey questions 18, 23, 31, 35 and 36 were used to calculate scores for 51 families of each participant and the five questions are shown as follows.

Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.
Question 23. What is your attitude towards your child learning Mandarin?
Question 31. Are you willing to enhance your child's Mandarin proficiency by paying?
Question 35. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's Mandarin learning?
Question 36. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should Mandarin account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

The three patterns of family Mandarin policy corresponding to the three clusters are summarised below. The clustering centre of the first pattern of family Mandarin policy is 17, and as shown in Table 2.17 there are 23 families with scores close to the clustering centre.

Table 2.17 Cluster One: Family Mandarin policy

Family	Score	Family	Score
No.1	19	No.28	22
No.4	20	No.29	18
No.6	22	No.35	23
No.7	22	No.37	21
No.12	23	No.39	19
No.13	23	No.41	17
No.17	17	No.42	17
No.19	22	No.46	23
No.20	22	No.47	19
No.21	19	No.48	20
No.23	23	No.49	21
No.25	20	\	\

Most of the families belonging to Cluster One have a relatively positive attitude towards their children's Mandarin learning, with parents in these families either choosing option “Strongly agree” or “Partially agree” in answer to Question 23. However, these families appear to be disinclined to translate their positives attitudes into practical management of children’s Mandarin learning. A few families displaying this pattern of family Mandarin policy believe that children's Mandarin learning should consume family expenditure and there is no family where both parents agree to pay for support to improve their children’s Mandarin. Even those parent participants who are in favour of investing money in children’s Mandarin learning believe that this should account for a very small portion of the family’s expenditure. Correspondingly, these families also hold the view that Mandarin learning should not occupy too much of their children's actual language learning time. Compared to the next two patterns of family Mandarin policy, Pattern One involves the least amount of planning time for children's Mandarin learning. In terms of parental language use, very few parents in the families fitting Pattern One report using Mandarin with their children in the home domain.

The clustering centre of the second pattern of family Mandarin policy is 27, and as shown in Table 2.18 there are 18 families whose scores are close to the clustering centre. In the Cluster Two pattern of family Mandarin policy, parent participants tend to have a more positive attitude towards children's Mandarin learning than families with the first pattern. The responses to Question 23 show that every family in the second pattern is "Strongly agree" of children's Mandarin learning. Moreover, unlike the first pattern, families in the second pattern have more open attitudes towards paid methods of Mandarin management. Some of the families are willing to manage their children's Mandarin learning using paid methods which do not take up too much household expenditure. However, when it comes to managing time for children to learn Mandarin, families fitting the second pattern have very conservative strategies. Only a few parent participants think that more than 20% of the total language learning time should be dedicated to their children's Mandarin learning. As for parental language use, compared to Pattern One, more families report that they have conversations with their children in Mandarin at home.

Table 2.18 Cluster Two: Family Mandarin policy

Family number	Score	Family number	Score
No.2	26	No.27	29
No.5	27	No.30	25
No.8	26	No.32	27
No.9	27	No.34	26
No.11	30	No.36	27
No.15	25	No.40	27
No.18	27	No.44	26
No.22	24	No.50	29
No.24	30	No.51	26

The clustering centre of the third pattern of family Mandarin policy is 38, and as shown in Table 2.19 there are 10 families whose scores are close to the clustering centre.

Table 2.19 Cluster Three: Family Mandarin policy

Family number	Score	Family number	Score
No.3	35	No.31	33
No.10	33	No.33	34
No.14	33	No.38	33
No.16	33	No.43	33
No.26	38	No.45	32

In this third pattern of family Mandarin policy, parents have a positive stance on children learning Mandarin as well as positive attitudes towards Mandarin management strategies. In this pattern, parents are not only in favour of paying for support to improve their children's Mandarin, they also tend to emphasise the importance of allocating time for children to learn Mandarin. Most families fitting this third pattern think that children's Mandarin learning time should account for more than 20% of the total language learning time. Of the three patterns of family Mandarin policy, the number of families in Pattern Three is the smallest.

In conclusion, the three patterns of family Mandarin policy described above show that regardless of which pattern a family exhibits, the parental attitudes towards children's Mandarin learning are positive. Furthermore, only families in the second pattern and the third pattern are willing to spend money on improving their children's Mandarin skills and to ensure their children spend significant time on learning Mandarin. It is worth noting that except for some families in the third pattern, parents tend to be disinclined to apply time management strategies for Mandarin learning. In addition, the number of families conforming to the third pattern is the least (10 families), whereas the first pattern (23 families) and second pattern (18 families) together account for the majority of participants in the study.

2.4.2 Patterns of family foreign languages policy

To establish the patterns of family policy on foreign languages, the responses to Questions 18, 42, 50, 54 and 55 were used to calculate total scores for every family. Five questions referred to this section are listed below:

Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.

Question 42. What is your attitude towards your child learning this foreign language?

Question 50 Are you willing to enhance your child's proficiency in this foreign language by paying?

Question 54. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of this foreign language?

Question 55. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should this foreign language account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

The analysis method described in Section 2.4.1 was also applied here, including calculation of the K-Means clusters in SPSS. Each family's score classified them into the pattern corresponding to the clustering centres calculated by SPSS: that is, the clustering centre nearest to the family's score determines the family's cluster. The calculations yielded three clustering centres: 32, 26, and 19. The three patterns of family foreign languages policy derived from these three clustering centres are discussed in detail below.

Table 2.20 Cluster One: Family foreign languages policy

Family number	Score	Family number	Score
No.3	27	No.30	26
No.7	25	No.31	25
No.9	25	No.32	29
No.10	29	No.33	27
No.11	27	No.34	28
No.12	26	No.35	25
No.16	27	No.36	25
No.18	28	No.38	29
No.20	24	No.40	28
No.21	24	No.41	29
No.23	25	No.42	26
No.24	26	No.45	28
No.25	23	No.47	25
No.26	28	No.48	27
No.27	29	No.50	29
No.29	24	No.51	24

Table 2.21 Cluster Two: Family foreign languages policy

Family number	Score	Family number	Score
No.1	31	No.15	32
No.2	31	No.17	31
No.4	32	No.19	31
No.5	33	No.28	37
No.6	35	No.37	32
No.8	34	No.39	33
No.13	31	No.43	32
No.14	34	No.46	30

As shown in Tables 2.20 and 2.21, Cluster One and Cluster Two represent two patterns of family policy on foreign languages. Pattern One and Pattern Two have similarities

and differences. On the one hand, families in Pattern One and Pattern Two all express that they are in favour of children's foreign languages learning, and all families appear to translate their keenness for children to learn foreign languages into actual strategic behaviours for language management. On the other hand, although families in Pattern One and Two are willing to invest both time and money to manage their children's foreign language learning, the extent of their willingness varies and so does the amount of money they are willing to pay. For example, based on parental responses to Question 50, the average family score in Pattern One was calculated as 7.97 (out of a possible 10 points), which indicates that families in Pattern One show relatively strong willingness to pay for their children's foreign languages learning. Meanwhile the average family score in Pattern Two was 9.31 which indicates even stronger willingness to pay to support their children's foreign languages learning than is the case for Pattern One.

In fact, one of the key reasons of families' willingness to pay for children's foreign languages learning especially children's English learning is the status of English in National College Entrance Examination. Although there have been voices calling for reducing the weight given to English scores in China, English scores have not change in National College Entrance Examination. However, Chinese educational ministry has proposed some new policies which are likely to de-emphasise English in National College Entrance Examination and change parental FLP. For example, candidates can choose other foreign languages such as Japanese and Russian instead of English in the National College Entrance Examination. In addition, according to the recent National College Entrance Examination policy, many provinces, such as Shanghai, Beijing and Shandong Province, have begun to allow candidates to have two opportunities to take foreign languages examinations, and the examination with higher scores will be recorded. The new polices may have the potential to stimulate families of children with advantages in other foreign languages to change their strategies for their children's foreign language learning and to shift their focus to other foreign languages instead of English.

According to Tables 2.20 and 2.21, there are 32 families categorised in Pattern One and 16 families in Pattern Two. Of the 51 households participating in the survey, only three families conformed to Pattern Three: this sample is too small, so the study will not report further on this pattern. However, the patterns of family foreign languages policy indirectly serve to reflect certain language education phenomena. For instance, the average family score on the question of willingness to pay for children's foreign languages learning (Question 50) is 8.24 (out of 10 points), much higher than the average score for willingness to pay for children's Mandarin learning (5.49). Moreover, it seems that parents' attitudes towards the language resources in question are not the key factor underlying the stance on paid methods, because almost every family is in favour of their children learning Mandarin and foreign languages. One reason why families may take different positions on willingness to pay could include the fact that children are more easily to access Mandarin environment in the daily life compared to foreign languages environment. As Mandarin is heavily promoted as the official language in China, it is used in various media such as newspapers, television and radio. Families can use these media flexibly and in subtle ways in order to improve children's Mandarin levels. This is in contrast with the situation with foreign languages where there are only some limited cost-free methods of language learning that parents can access. Parents also tend to have higher expectations of their children's foreign language learning outcomes (such as attaining good exam grades or become more skilled in oral communication). Both of these factors may underpin families' greater willingness to pay for their children's foreign language learning.

2.4.3 Patterns of family dialects policy

As in sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.2, patterns of family dialect policy were based mainly on Questions 18, 58, 69, 73 and 74. Again, the K-Means clusters were calculated in SPSS. Three clusters of family dialects policy were determined, with the clustering centres 14, 20 and 28. In this section, to compare the three patterns of family dialects policy, the average scores were calculated for answers to Questions 18, 58, 69, 73 and Question

74 for each pattern. Average scores for every question of each family fall between 0 and 10 points. The higher the average score, the greater the willingness or level of support expressed on a particular issue. Specifically, Question 58 examines families' attitudes towards children's dialects learning. Question 69 and Question 73 deal with families' willingness to pay for children's dialects learning. Question 74 explores families' willingness to allocate time for children to learn dialects. Questions mentioned above are listed as follows:

Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.

Question 58. What is your attitude towards your child learning your hometown dialect?

Question 69. Are you willing to enhance your child's proficiency in dialect by paying?

Question 73. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of dialect?

Question 74. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should dialect account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Table 2.22 Cluster One: Family dialects policy

Family number	Score	Family number	Score
No.3	28	No.37	28
No.6	29	No.38	35
No.28	28	No.43	33
No.32	28	No.47	26
No.34	26	No.49	27
No.35	28	No.50	25

Table 2.22 represents the first pattern of family dialects policy and its clustering centre is 28. Families in this pattern are generally in favour of children's dialect learning as their average score for Question 58 is 8.5. However, families' willingness to spend money and time on children's dialects learning does not match their keenness for

children to learn dialects. In this pattern, families' average score on the question of paying for children's dialect learning is 5. Families in Pattern One do not think that too much learning time should be given to dialects, as indicated by the families' average score of 3.42 for Question 74.

Table 2.23 Cluster Two: Family dialects policy

Family number	Score	Family number	Score
No.1	19	No.27	18
No.7	20	No.30	22
No.9	23	No.31	21
No.11	21	No.33	22
No.14	20	No.39	22
No.15	21	No.41	20
No.19	18	No.42	18
No.20	18	No.44	21
No.23	21	No.46	19
No.24	19	No.48	24
No.25	21	No.51	23
No.26	19	/	/

Cluster Two forms the second pattern of family dialects policy and its clustering centre is 20. As shown in Table 2.23, there are 23 families classified in Pattern Two, which accounts for a large proportion of the total participating families. As was the case in Pattern One, parental attitudes towards children's learning of dialects are positive, as the average score for Question 58 is 7.34 which is almost the same as the average score in Pattern One. But the average scores for Question 69 (3.70) and Question 74 (1.17) in Pattern Two families indicate that they are not eager to invest money or time in their children's dialects learning.

The third pattern of family dialects policy is formed by Cluster Three. As indicated in

Table 2.24, the clustering centre is 14 and there are 16 families in Pattern Three. From Table 2.24, it can also be seen that of all three patterns of family dialects policy, Pattern Three is the one characterised by the most negative attitudes or lack of support for matters of dialect learning by children. In Pattern Three, the average score for each question is lower than the corresponding scores in Patterns One and Two. In other words, in the third pattern families tend not to express support for children learning dialects and are not in favour of adopting dialects management methods. Even the highest average score in the third pattern was only 6 (for Question 58), which further indicates that these families have comparatively unsupportive attitudes towards children dialects learning.

Table 2.24 Cluster Three: Family dialects policy

Family number	Score	Family number	Score
No.2	15	No.17	15
No.4	15	No.18	11
No.5	14	No.21	15
No.8	16	No.22	16
No.10	17	No.29	16
No.12	12	No.36	15
No.13	15	No.40	15
No.16	15	No.45	8

Generally speaking, it could be seen that three family dialect policy patterns summarised based on the questionnaire data are relatively negative, especially compared with family Mandarin and foreign language policy patterns. Other researchers' investigations show similar data results as this study. For example, Yuan (2020) investigated Beijing's urban elementary and middle school students' FLP via survey. In the survey, children's parents rated Mandarin, dialects, foreign languages and minority languages for instrumental or economic value and language prestige. Parents'

feedback showed that the parent participants' recognition of language value and language prestige descends from Mandarin, then foreign languages, to minority languages and dialects.

In two of the three family dialect policy patterns of this study, parents' attitudes towards children learning dialects are relatively positive. However, their supportive attitudes do not transfer to positive language management behaviours. Specifically, they are not willing to invest either money or time in their children's dialect learning. This may be related to parental evaluation of language value and language prestige of dialect. In fact, positive attitudes may not transfer positive management behaviours because it depends on the motivations behand holding positive attitudes. If parents are motivated by the value of instrumental or economic value (such as whether the language can help children's academic or career development), their positive attitudes may be not likely to transfer to corresponding active behaviours. In fact, as Yuan (2020) claims, dialects are not well-rated in the evaluation of languages' instrumental or economic value and language among parents. Parents' supportive attitudes towards children's dialect learning may motivated by identity value or the cultural value of dialect. Therefore, this may be the reason why all parental family dialect patterns look negative in this study. It can be seen that none of the parents in three family dialect policy patterns are willing to spend money or time in their children's dialect learning and this phenomenon highlights the dilemma faced by dialect inheritance in families (Zhang, et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019).

3. Impacts of parental FLP on children

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Two has described and discussed in comprehensive detail how parent participants act as agents in the making of FLP. Chapter Three shifts the focus on to the patients (recipients or beneficiaries) of FLP making, that is, the children in the 51 participating families which were surveyed. Corresponding to 51 families, there are 51 children participants in this study, some are primary school students (23), some are middle school students (19), and some are high school students (9). This chapter consists of three sections. The first section draws on the children's and parent participants' questionnaire data and describes the children's language learning in three aspects: (i) actual language use and language choices in the home domain; (ii) children's motivations, goals and their actual language proficiency in the process of languages learning; (iii) children's emotional identification with languages, as embedded in language use. Correlations between different variables associated with the participating children's language learning (including learning motivation, learning goals and learning outcomes), language use and emotional identification with languages will also be reported and discussed.

The second and the third sections of this chapter will focus on the connection between parent participants and participating children in the process of FLP making. The second section will concentrate on children participants' language outcomes including language learning, language use and language emotional identification. The third section will focus specifically on how parent participants' FLP influence the children's language learning, language use and language emotional identification. The parent participants' family language policy will be analysed in three categories of parent-related variables: language awareness, language behaviour and language management. The chapter will explore how these three kinds of parent variables influence or relate to the participating children's language learning, language use and language emotional identification.

With these objectives, the chapter will address the following research questions:

RQ1. What do the participating children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages look like? What are the correlations among the children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages?

RQ2. What are the connections between parent participants' family language policy and participating children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages?

3.2 Participating children's language learning, language use and language emotional identification

Ager (2001) claims that individuals can operate as language planners for others, and in the family domain, parents play the role of agents and children play the role of patients in the process of FLP making. This chapter focuses on the patients of FLP in this study by looking at children's language learning (goals, motivation and outcomes), children's language use and language choices at home, and the psychological dimension of children's linguistic emotional identification.

3.2.1 Participating children's language learning

Three aspects of participating children's language learning will be explored in this section: language learning motivation, language learning goals and language proficiency, with respect to each of the three different language resources (Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages).

3.2.1.1 Children participants' language learning motivations

According to Ager motivation framework (referring Section 1.3.3), this section will explore the participating children's language learning motivations for each language

resource in turn and then analyse their similarities and differences. To explore participating children's motives for learning languages or language varieties, the findings are drawn from the results of several survey questions for the children:

Question 7. If you want to master Mandarin, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option.

Question 11. If you want to master the Wuhan dialect, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option.

Question 13. Is your hometown dialect the Wuhan dialect?

Question 18. If you want to master your hometown dialect, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option

Question 22. If you want to master English, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option.

Question 26. If you want to master foreign languages (except for English), please choose the reason why you want to master them? Please select at least one option.

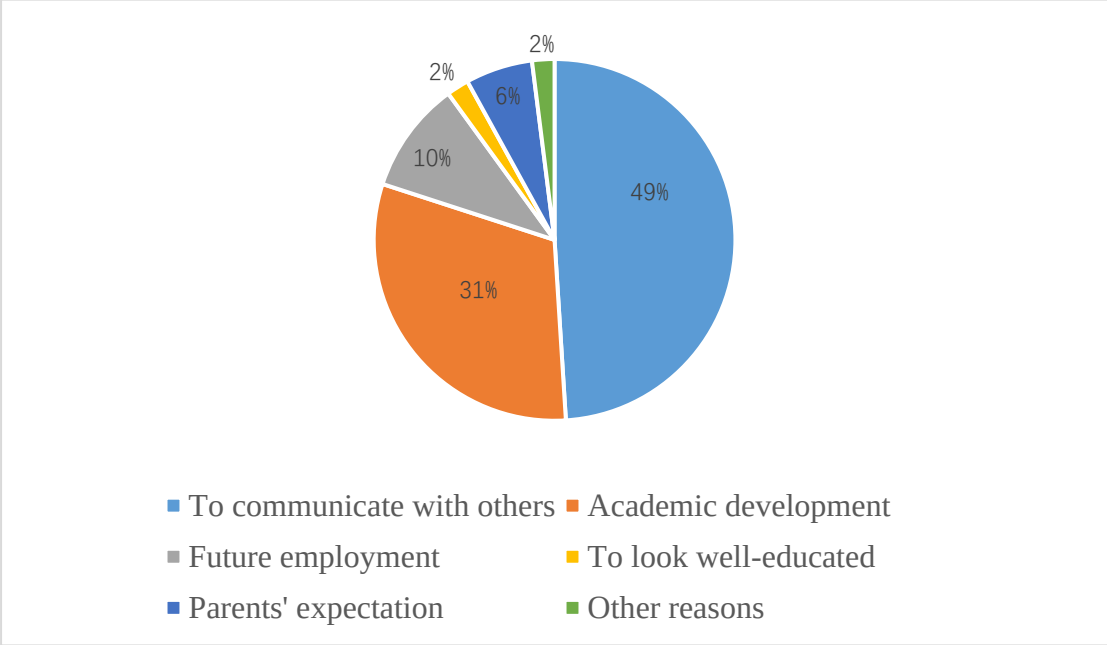

Figure 3.1 Participating children's motives for learning Mandarin

Children's motivations to learn Mandarin

Figure 3.1 depicts the proportions of children selecting each option on the basis of children's responses to Question 7. It shows that the participating children's

motivations for learning Mandarin are dominated by three factors which together make up 96% of responses. Being able to communicate with others is the main reason for learning Mandarin for 25 of the 51 participating children. This reason is aligned with the 'integration' element in Ager's framework. The desire to communicate smoothly and easily with others is linked to the desire and expectation to integrate into the social community. Given the participating children's age range (10 to 18 years), there are communities at school which the children interact with every day, apart from the family domain. With the promotion of Mandarin in schools, more and more teachers and students use Mandarin to communicate with others in the school setting. This language environment including peer pressure from classmates is likely to be influencing their language learning motives because proficiency in Mandarin is important for integrating into their social groups.

The second most common reason cited by the children for learning Mandarin is to support their academic development (16 children) and the third most common reason is career development (five children). Together these are aligned with Ager's category of 'instrumental' motives for language learning. Instrumentality refers to motives which involve individual development whereas integration relates to pursuit of harmony and belonging with the group. Based on these results, it appears that although many of the children learn Mandarin with self-development in mind, the more common driver for them is the desire to connect closely with their target communities and to integrate into them. It is worth noting that instrumental motivations are usually related to economic indicators (Gardner et al., 1960). In this investigation, learning Mandarin for the sake of school achievement is a more common reason than career prospects, a finding which differs slightly from the study by Gardner and colleagues (1960), but it could be argued that the desire for academic success is indirectly but not directly related to the pursuit of economic benefit. However, a crucial difference between the two studies is that Gardner and colleagues were surveying adults and the relevant participants in this research are school-age.

Turning to the other motives for children learning Mandarin, Figure 3.1 shows that few children selected reasons which fall into the categories ‘image’ and ‘expectation’. For example, none of the children surveyed hold the view that speaking Mandarin can indicate higher social status and only one of the participating children says he/she is motivated to make others think he/she is well-educated.

Children’s motivations to learn dialects

Participating children’s motives for learning dialects were probed via a series of survey questions. There is some complexity in studying the children’s dialects learning and planning due to the influence of the different language backgrounds of their parents and grandparents. Many of the children are exposed to other dialects in addition to the Wuhan dialect. The motives for learning the Wuhan dialect and other hometown dialects will be discussed and compared based on the children’s answers to Question 11 and Question 18.

The most common motive of the participating children to learn the Wuhan dialect is to better understand the culture of Wuhan. Seventeen children selected this reason, accounting for the largest proportion (33%) of all selections. The second most commonly cited motive (15 children, 29%), concerns better social integration into groups. For other 10 children (20%), the motive for learning the Wuhan dialect is to have smooth communication with others. Only three children say that they want to master the Wuhan dialect because it will help them with their future employment. Moreover, the results of the survey suggest that different language backgrounds may be linked to different learning motivations to learn dialects. Some of the children’s parents may be immigrants who moved from other places, and their hometown dialects may not be the Wuhan dialect. Therefore, this study also explores children’s dialect background according to Question 13. Answers to Question 13 indicate that for 18 participating children the Wuhan dialect is not the hometown dialect of their parents. Children with the Wuhan dialect have slightly different motives to learn the dialect compared to the children with other dialect backgrounds. Among the children whose

hometown dialect is not the Wuhan dialect, the motivation for learning the hometown dialect is relatively consistent within this group: 15 children (83%) say that they learn the dialect to facilitate communication with people from their hometown. Children with the Wuhan hometown dialect have more diverse motives and the most popular reason is "To learn the culture of Wuhan by using the Wuhan dialect".

The distinct pattern of responses exhibited by the children with non-Wuhanese dialect backgrounds shows that they pay more attention to the 'tool attributes' of language – in other words, seeing language principally as a communication tool. Fifteen of 18 participating children say that they learn their hometown dialects for the purpose of communication. They seldom say that they use the hometown dialect as a medium to understand the culture behind the dialect: only two of the 18 children selected this reason. This pattern stands in contrast to the response distribution for the group of children whose hometown dialect is the Wuhan dialect. Among the 33 Wuhan-dialect children, the most commonly cited motive (13) is to learn the culture of Wuhan. Only five of them chose reasons which suggest they are focused on the dialect's attributes as a communication tool, the lowest proportion of all motives selected. Overall, the results of this survey show that participating children living in Wuhan have different motives for learning hometown dialects, reflecting their different language backgrounds giving them the opportunity to learn two dialects – their local regional one (Wuhan) and another parental hometown dialect. For these children, learning their hometown dialect tends to be driven by the integration, that is, it facilitates their communication with other members of the hometown community. For the remaining children, the Wuhan dialect is both their hometown dialect and the local regional dialect, and most of these children pay more attention to the cultural function of the language than its nature as a communication tool.

Children's motivations to learn foreign languages

Turning to participating children's motivations to learn foreign languages, the principal language under investigation is English but other languages are also addressed.

The children's answers to Question 22 suggest that their main motivations for learning English are related to instrumentality and integration: to perform better academically, to access better employment opportunities and to communicate and interact with other people are the top three reasons. These motives reflect that the participating children are practical and needs-oriented regarding short-term as well as long-term future goals. However, more children are driven by their current needs, that is, their academic development: 39 participants (76%) chose the option "Academic development", the most popular reason by a good margin. The second and third most common answers were "Future employment" and "To communicate with others", picked by 29 children (57%) and 25 children (49%) respectively. Question 22 was a multiple-choice question inviting children to pick at least one option. A brief breakdown of the data in terms of children with a single reason or multiple reasons for learning English confirms that academic development is the dominant motive across the board. Only 15 of the children selected one motive and 10 of these respondents identified school performance as the main driver; the other choices were scattered. The majority of participating children (36) indicated two or more motives for learning English, typically including academic development.

The study also explores the participating children's motives to learn other foreign languages (Question 26). Almost all of the children (94%) believe that they should learn other foreign languages in addition to English, with the top three reasons being "Future employment" (25 children), "Academic development" (24 children) and "personal interest" (22 children). This distribution of responses contrasts with the participating children's motives for learning English where there is a significant margin between the top reason (school performance) and the second common reason (employment prospects). This suggests that the children are more inclined to think that learning English has an important role in helping them meet the demands of their school work, but when the children turn to consider learning other foreign languages, other longer-term needs like jobs and careers come into play more readily. Similarly, there is more

scope for the participating children to factor in their own particular interests and inclinations when they think about learning other foreign languages and choosing those languages. 22 children selected ‘personal interest’ here, many more than for learning English (10 children) where it is not such a strong driving force. This could reflect the fact that foreign languages except for English, are not entrenched components of the Chinese school curriculum, so perhaps the children feel there is more room for their own personal preferences.

3.2.1.2 Participating children’s language learning goals

Survey questions from children referring to this section are listed as follows:

Question 6. What proficiency level of Mandarin would you like to achieve?

Question 10. What proficiency level of the Wuhan dialect would you like to achieve?

Question 17. What proficiency level of your hometown dialect would you like to achieve?

Question 21. What proficiency level of English would you like to achieve?

Question 25. What proficiency level of foreign languages (except for English) would you like to achieve?

Question 27. Which language type of radio programme do you want to listen to most?

Question 28. Which language type of TV programme do you want to watch most?

Question 29. Which language type of reading materials such as books, newspapers and magazines do you want to read most?

Learning goals for Mandarin

Based on the participating children’s answers to Question 6, the children have clear goals for Mandarin learning and overall have fairly high expectations for their own proficiency. In the survey, 36 (71%) children say they want to have a high level of Mandarin proficiency and they pursue excellence in standard pronunciation; 14 (27%) children expect to reach the general standard of Mandarin proficiency and hope that their pronunciation is relatively accurate. These responses to the question on expected Mandarin standards show that the desire for linguistic proficiency and speech accuracy

and fluency form part of the children's incentives for learning Mandarin. From the answers to the survey questions specifically probing the children's motivations and attitudes, it is found that instrumental and integration purposes are the main driving forces for children participants to learn Mandarin. According to Maslow's hierarchical theory of needs (1970), human needs can be divided into five categories: physiological needs (including food and shelter), safety, a sense of belonging and love, the need for esteem, and the need for self-actualisation. The first category is the most basic level of need, essential for physical survival, and the fifth category is the highest level of need reflecting social-psychological wellbeing above and beyond mere survival. In this study, the participating children's motives which are aligned with the categories 'instrumental' and 'integration' essentially relate to fulfilling their needs for belonging and love and their needs for self-actualisation. Furthermore, the children's goals for their Mandarin learning and attainment indicate their high standards and strict requirements for their own Putonghua proficiency. This desire to have a good command of Mandarin also relates to meeting the human needs for belonging and love (communication is essential for social group membership), esteem and self-actualisation (social-psychological benefits of demonstrable success).

Participating children report that they adopt a range of strategies that support language learning. They were asked three questions which probed about media consumption: Question 27, Question 28 and Question 29. The responses reveal that children commonly read Mandarin materials (including newspapers and books), watch Mandarin TV programmes and listen to Mandarin radio broadcasts; all these strategies can be potential ways to improve their Mandarin skills. Of these strategies, reading Mandarin materials is the most popular method: 43 of the 51 participating children choose reading material in Mandarin. The second and third most popular strategies (nearly tied) for the children are watching TV programmes in Mandarin (39 children) and listening radio broadcasts in Mandarin (38 children). Generally, all three forms of media attract high utilisation rates among the participating children, but there are

slightly more children who are focused on Mandarin literacy via reading than on Mandarin speaking and listening skills via TV and radio input.

Learning goals for dialects

Participating children's answers to Question 10 indicate that almost all respondents have clear goals in learning the Wuhan dialect and they know what level of proficiency they want to achieve, as very few children (2) answered "Not sure". Many participating children do not have very high expectations for their Wuhan dialect proficiency: 39%, the largest proportion of the group, only wish to acquire the basic knowledge of the dialect and to achieve simply "good" pronunciation skills. The second largest group of participating children which represent 33% of the total have lower requirements for their Wuhan dialect proficiency. They believe that it is enough for them to understand the Wuhan dialect and do not think they need speaking skills as well. A minority of participating children (20%) reported high standards for themselves in the Wuhan dialect. These children wish to master the Wuhan dialect and expect their pronunciation to be very accurate. The study also investigated the goals for learning dialects in the case of the 18 participating children whose hometown dialect is not the Wuhan dialect. They were asked to answer Question 17 (concerning their hometown dialects) and the results were compared with the responses to Questions 10. Among these 18 children, it is found that they expect their proficiency in their hometown dialect to be either better than or the same as their skills in the Wuhan dialect.

Learning goals for foreign languages

The participating children were asked Question 21 and Question 25 and the responses reveal relatively high goals and standards for all their foreign language learning. Of the group, 34 (67%) want to achieve a high level of English proficiency and they pursue accurate English pronunciation, while 13 (25%) of the participating children expect themselves to reach the general standard of English and hope that their English pronunciation is relatively accurate. Besides English (which is compulsory at school), many participating children would like to master other foreign languages, that is a

second (or third) foreign language. In answer to Question 25, only three children indicate a belief that they have no need to learn a second foreign language. The 48 children in the majority all hope to learn one or more foreign languages in addition to English and many of them have high expectations for their proficiency in these other foreign languages. The learning goal of 14 participating children is to achieve a high level of proficiency in the second foreign language and have accurate pronunciation; 12 children hope to acquire a general command of the second foreign language and basic standard pronunciation. Comparing the data on learning goals for English and learning goals for other foreign languages, it seems that overall children are aiming higher in their English, but even so a majority of the children do have high expectations for themselves in their second foreign language.

Notwithstanding these expectations in their foreign language learning, few of the surveyed children are inclined to use free mass media such as radio and TV programmes to improve their foreign language skills. For example, only nine children report that they are willing to listen to English radio programmes, and none are willing to listen to radio programmes in other foreign languages. As for television, only 10 children are willing to watch English language programmes. Only one child indicated willingness to watch TV in other foreign languages. The position is similar for foreign language reading materials. Few participating children are willing to read newspapers and books in foreign languages. The data show that given a choice of language options only six participating children are choosing to read materials in English.

The disparities between the children's expectations and goals for their foreign language learning on the one hand, and low levels of consumption of free-to-access foreign language media on the other, invite conjecture. It could be speculated that the skills required to understand radio or TV broadcasts or books and newspapers in foreign languages are too high for the participating children at their current language levels, and the prospect of the language input is too daunting particularly if they wish to listen, watch or read material for relaxation or entertainment purposes. Moreover, this

phenomenon will still exist even if children are skilled enough in certain foreign language. Another reason may be that the theme and content of foreign language media and publication are relatively limited and some of them are not able to arouse children's interests. For example, there are 9 subordinate foreign language channels under China Central Television, which broadcast in different foreign languages such as English, French, and Spanish. Among them, CGTN is an English channel which is established in 2000 and broadcasts news, variety shows and English teaching. According to Yang (2015), programmes of CGTN has a large proportion of news reporting, while a small proportion of variety shows and social TV programmes, thus the less entertainment information and content may be not able to serve the public.

3.2.1.3 Participating children's language proficiency

The results of children's language learning outcomes are summarised by parents' questions in the questionnaire and are summarised below:

Question 87. What is your child's proficiency level in Mandarin?

Question 88. What is your child's proficiency level in the Wuhan dialect?

Question 89. What is your child's proficiency level in the hometown dialect? Note: If your child can speak both you and your spouse's hometown dialects, please answer the question according to the dialect at which your child is more proficient.

Question 90. What is your child's proficiency level in English?

Data on the language proficiency for the participating children were gathered from evaluations performed by parents rather than self-evaluation by the children. Parents are suitable candidates for evaluating children's language learning outcomes for many reasons. Firstly, parents are less affected by subjective emotions, so the evaluation data will be more objective than if the children are evaluating themselves. Secondly, parents are family members who have close relationships with their children and are well-placed to report on their children's language skills. Parents are also familiar with their children's academic performance (especially in Chinese and English) and teachers' feedback about their children's language learning, so parents can refer to these data in

their measurement and evaluation of their children's language learning outcomes, leading to a more comprehensive evaluation. Thirdly, this study requires both fathers and mothers in each family to make an evaluation of the child's language outcomes, which could also boost the objectivity of the evaluation.

Parent participants were asked to judge their children's proficiency in Mandarin, the Wuhan dialect, hometown dialects and English via Questions 87 to 90. Parents hold the view that their children's Mandarin proficiency surpasses their skills in other languages and language varieties. All parents' evaluations of their children's proficiency in Mandarin are positive (high or very high levels); they judge that their children can communicate in Mandarin and that the children's pronunciation is accurate. In contrast, parent participants evaluated their children's proficiency in dialects and English as "low". Out of 51 families, 29 pairs of parents think that their children's English proficiency, especially their oral communication skill, is not adequate. Moreover, 20 of 51 families judge that their children do not have the ability to communicate with others in English. Only three pairs of parents are confident that their children can use English proficiently and produce accurate pronunciation. Compared with the results for English, families overall have more positive perceptions of their children's skills in dialects. Parents in 12 families are confident in their children's hometown dialect proficiency and believe their children can communicate well enough in their hometown dialect and pronounce words accurately.

3.2.2 Participating children's language use and language choices

The discussion of this section will include some questions in both children's and parents' questionnaire.

Question 2. At home, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you often use with your parents? Please select at least one option. (children)

Question 3. At home, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you often use with your grandparents? Please select at least one option. (children)

Question 17. When you communicate with your own parents, what language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option. (parents)

Question 92. Which of the following language(s) can your parents speak？ Please select at least one option. (parents)

Question 94. What is the frequency of your parents meeting with your child? (parents)

Table 3.1 Distribution of languages used when children speak with their parents

Children's language use	Language resource	Quantity	Percentage
Children speaking monolingually with their parents	Mandarin	30	58.82%
	Wuhan dialect	5	9.80%
	Hometown dialect	4	7.84%
Total		39	76.47%
Children speaking bilingually with their parents	Mandarin + Wuhan dialect	7	13.73%
	Mandarin + Hometown dialect	4	7.84%
	Wuhan dialect + Hometown dialect	1	1.96%
Total		12	23.53%

The survey includes questions to investigate how participating children use their language resources, mainly in terms of what language(s) they use when they communicate with their parents and grandparents at home. From the answers to Question 2, it is found that children's communication with parents is in the Wuhan dialect in 13 (21%) of the 51 families, in other hometown dialects in the case of nine families (14%), and in Mandarin in 41 families (65%). Mandarin is by a large margin the most commonly used language resource when children participants interact with their parents. Some participating children use more than one language in communication with their parents, but they are in the minority (less than 24%) as Table

3.1 shows, and Mandarin prevails as one of the parent-child language options in all of these families except one.

The parent participants are also asked which language(s) or language variety(ies) they often use with their own parents (Question 17). Table 3.2 shows the distribution of languages used when parents speak with their own parents.

Table 3.2 Distribution of languages used when parent participants speak with their parents

Parents' language use	Language resource	Quantity	Percentage
Parents speaking monolingually with their parents	Mandarin	11	10.78%
	Wuhan dialect	33	32.35%
	Hometown dialect	36	35.29%
Total		80	78.43%
Parents speaking bilingually with their parents	Mandarin + Wuhan dialect	11	10.78%
	Mandarin + hometown dialect	9	8.82%
	Wuhan dialect + Hometown dialect + Mandarin	1	0.98%
	Wuhan dialect + Hometown dialect	1	0.98%
Total		22	21.57%

Essentially, parent participants in this study can be regarded as the second generation of the family and the grandparents as the first generation. Parent participants function as "children" for the first generation, in the sense that parent participants and grandparents operate as patients and agents respectively, contributing to the FLP decision-making between them. In other words, the FLP process happens between every two generations. Therefore, this study seeks to find out how the language use of FLP patients changes from generation to generation. To do this, the data in Tables 3.1 and 3.2 were compared, looking at the differences in proportions rather than raw numbers.

According to Tables 3.1 and 3.2, the varieties of language used by the patients in two successive generations are the same. Mandarin, the Wuhan dialect and the hometown dialect are stable language resources between the two generations. Foreign languages are seldom used by patients when they communicate with their parents in the family domain. Moreover, whether they are second generation or third generation, more children/patients choose to speak monolingually with their parents rather than bilingually and the proportion of children/patients who speak monolingually is basically the same between the two generations: one is 76%, and the other is 78%. However, although this proportion does not seem to change, the dominant language used by these children/patients has changed diachronically. The languages which tend to be spoken by the second generation (the parent participants) at home with their parents are dialects, of which the Wuhan dialect accounts for 32% and the hometown dialect accounts for 35%. In the third generation (the participating children), Mandarin (59%) has become the most commonly used language when children speak monolingually with their parents at home. This change in monolingual behaviour between generations demonstrates that the heritage of dialects appears to be weakening from generation to generation.

The diachronic changes in patients' language use between generations were discussed above. The following sections focus on the synchronic changes in the participating children's language use principally with different family members in the home domain. In the participating children's questionnaire, Question 3 explores which language(s) or language variety(ies) they use most often with their grandparents at home and Table 3.3 summarises the answers. It shows that the majority of children (86%) use only one language to communicate with grandparents and the one most commonly used is Mandarin (47%), with dialects (Wuhan and others) comprising 39%. Comparing these figures with Table 3.1 (where parents are the communication objects), it is clear that fewer children speak Mandarin monolingually with their grandparents than their parents, but substantially more children speak dialects with their grandparents.

Table 3.3 Distribution of languages used when children speak with their grandparents

Children's language use	Language resource	Quantity	Percentage
Children speaking monolingually with their grandparents	Mandarin	24	47.06%
	Wuhan dialect	7	13.73%
	Hometown dialect	13	25.49%
Total		44	86.27%
Children speaking bilingually/trilingually with their grandparents	Mandarin + Wuhan dialect	3	5.88%
	Mandarin + Hometown dialect	2	3.92%
	Mandarin + Wuhan dialect + Hometown dialect	2	3.92%
Total		7	13.73%

The trend not only illustrates synchronic changes in participating children's language use, but also suggests that the children make different language choices on the basis of different communication objects, which may reflect processes of language socialisation. Language socialisation refers both to the socialisation of individuals through language and the socialisation of individuals to use language (Ochs, 1986). On the one hand, according to the survey responses from parent participants (Question 92), dialects are the main communication tool for many in the first generation and indeed for 50% of these grandparents, their dialect is their only language in daily life whereas 47% have acquired Mandarin skills. This may shed light on why some participating children select dialects when they speak with their grandparents – to achieve smooth communication and reflect their elders' own language competencies and preferences. On the other hand, even in the case of participating children whose grandparents can speak Mandarin as well as dialects, sometimes the children still opt for dialects to communicate with them. In this scenario, the children's use of dialects is more like a deliberate, active strategy

reflecting language socialisation whereas for children communicating with monolingual grandparents the 'choice' to use dialects is a more passive decision. The children's active language behaviours may be an indication that they want to be socialised into the norms and patterns of their culture by and through dialects (Schecter et al., 2004) or perhaps some of children are willing to speak dialects to express and affirm their close relationship with their grandparents. Regardless of whether children's decisions on language use are passive or active choices, it is clear that the children, as the information senders, are aware of the status of the intended information receivers in the speech activities and they adjust their language use accordingly in order to complete the interactive communication and achieve other social purposes.

Returning to the data in Table 3.1 and Table 3.3, this time focusing on synchronic changes in Mandarin use, 59% of participating children speak Mandarin monolingually with their parents, but when grandparents are the children's communication objects, the proportion declines to 47%. This shift is the inverse of the change reported in participating children's use of dialects, where 18% of children speak dialects monolingually with their parents but this proportion rises to 39% with their grandparents. As we have discussed above, the first generation have stronger power than the second generation to maintain dialects and transmit the culture of their dialects. If children wish to acquire cultural knowledge via the dialects and be socialised by the dialects into the norms of the culture, their first choice would naturally be their grandparents.

The participating children's active language choices and language socialisation with their grandparents might additionally be tracked to some other reasons. This study also investigated the time spent by children with grandparents, via the questionnaire for parent participants where Question 94 asked about the frequency of children's meetings and interactions with their grandparents. If the responses to this question are considered with the data in Table 3.3, there are 20 participating children who speak only dialects with grandparents and most of them meet their grandparents frequently or even every

day. Therefore, the time spent with the communication objects may be an important factor for children when actively choosing a specific language resource.

3.2.3 Children's linguistic emotional identification

Linguistic emotional identification refers to the individual's identification with or rejection of a certain language or language variety. The main method used in previous research to examine linguistic emotional identification involves participants evaluating how pleasant and friendly they find a particular language. The children's survey in this study included questions probing perceptions of these two qualities, as well as questions about the children's degree of confidence and embarrassment in using specific languages.

3.2.3.1 Participating children's emotional identification with Mandarin

In order to explore participating children's emotional identification with Mandarin, they were asked four questions:

Question 4. Do you think Mandarin sounds pleasant?

Question 5. Do you think Mandarin sounds friendly?

Question 32. Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in Mandarin?

Question 37. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others both speak Mandarin?

In response to Questions 4 and 5, 51 participating children think that Mandarin sounds pleasant, with 19 of them choosing the option "Relatively pleasant" and 32 choosing "Very pleasant". However, in their evaluations of the degree to "Mandarin sounds friendly", response patterns were less consistent and included "Not sure" and three children chose "Unfriendly". 25 participating children think Mandarin sounds "Very friendly" and 19 select "Relatively friendly". The children's thinking Mandarin friendly is highly correlated with the children participants' subjective feelings: the sense of closeness to Mandarin.

The data results related to children participants' evaluation of Mandarin are consistent with the research results of Xu (2017). She examined how friendly and pleasant do the middle school students in Wannian find Mandarin is. The data indicates that more children have higher evaluation of the degree to "Mandarin sounds pleasant" than the evaluation of the degree to "Mandarin sounds friendly". Specifically, as her data indicates, 81.1% of students think that Mandarin is very pleasant while 67% of them report that Mandarin sounds friendly.

Also, the correlation coefficient of Pearson test between the responses to Question 4 and responses to Question 5 is 0.726**, at a significance level of 0.01, indicating a significant positive correlation between these two factors. In other words, the more children think Mandarin "sounds pleasant", the more likely they are to think Mandarin "sounds friendly", and it is conjectured that the degree to which the children hold these positive perceptions can suggest how strongly they feel a sense of belonging to Mandarin.

When children are asked whether Mandarin sounds friendly, other factors would also influence their answers. According to Xu (2017), children's Mandarin proficiency could directly influence how they think of the degree of friendliness of Mandarin. The higher the level of Mandarin the children have, the more likely they would agree with the statement "Mandarin sounds friendly". In addition, the way of learning Mandarin would also affect children's perceptions of the degree of friendliness of Mandarin. Xu (2017) found that children who learn Mandarin by themselves may think Mandarin less friendly, while children who learn Mandarin by social communication with others would find Mandarin more friendly. In fact, dialect and Mandarin are two language resources commonly used in the family domain. How children indicate their perception of the friendliness of Mandarin is also highly related to the dialect used in the family domain. The data results of Xu (2017) suggest that children's evaluation of the degree of friendliness of Mandarin decreases with the increase of children's dialect proficiency.

Meanwhile, the more negative attitudes towards dialect the children hold, the more likely they are to find Mandarin pleasant.

However, it could be that "sounding friendly" is a better gauge than "sounding pleasant" of the inner emotional identification with a certain language or language variety. "Sounding pleasant" might be construed simply as a reflection on children's feelings about the superficial sound impression of spoken Mandarin while a probe about "sounding friendly" arguably is a better way to tap into people's sense of belonging to Mandarin because friendliness is associated with belonging or being welcome. The numbers of participating children choosing options "extremely friendly" and "relatively friendly" (Question 5) are lower than the numbers choosing "Very pleasant" and "Relatively pleasant" (Question 4). This suggests that although all of the participating children have a good impression of Mandarin, not all of them access the 'friendly' feelings which may convey a sense of belonging.

To summarise, all of the participating children think Mandarin "sounds pleasant" which might suggest that the children's impression of Mandarin is good. However, compared to "sounds friendly", "sounds pleasant" could be construed as a more superficial judgment rather than real emotional identification. Some children answer that Mandarin "sounds unfriendly" and this might reveal that these children's deeper emotional identification with the language (general sense of belonging to Mandarin) is not as strong as their evaluation of the pleasantness of Mandarin. "Sounds unfriendly" suggests that those children lack a sense of belonging to the language and a deep emotional identification with Mandarin. The sense of belonging to a language is a deeper and more fundamental aspect of a person's certain language identity. Some of the participating children may still lack that deeper emotional connection with Mandarin, even if they think their Mandarin proficiencies are sufficient for smooth communication with others.

Children participating in this study are also surveyed about how confident they feel when they speak Mandarin (Question 32). Most of the children indicate high confidence levels: 33 answer “extremely confident” and 18 say “Relatively confident”. None of them feel unconfident when they use Mandarin with others. The children are also probed about their embarrassment levels when communicating with others in Mandarin (Question 37). The vast majority, 47 children (92%), report seldom or never feeling embarrassed in this context. Considering the results of Question 32 and Question 37 together, it appears that most of the children feel confident and are also not prone to embarrassment. Only a very few children (three) feel embarrassed when they use Mandarin even though they are confident in their Mandarin proficiency. These exceptional situations may be because some special language environment such as the topics of the conversations and the relationship between speakers.

3.2.3.2 Participating children’s emotional identification with dialects

This section will first discuss participating children’s emotional identification with the Wuhan dialect, followed by other hometown dialects. Five survey questions explored the children’s feelings about the Wuhan dialect:

Question 8. Do you think the Wuhan dialect sounds pleasant?

Question 9. Do you think the Wuhan dialect sounds friendly?

Question 12. How do you like Wuhan?

Question 31. Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in the Wuhan dialect?

Question 36. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others both speak the Wuhan dialect?

Six survey questions explored the emotional identification with dialects felt by children in migrant families with non-Wuhanese hometown dialects:

Question 13. Is your hometown dialect the Wuhan dialect?

Question 14. How do you like your home town?

Question 15. Do you think your hometown dialect sounds pleasant?

Question 16. Do you think your hometown dialect sounds friendly?

Question 30. Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in your hometown dialect?
Question 35. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others both speak your hometown dialect?

In the investigation of the children's emotional identification with the Wuhan dialect, 36 children say that they think the Wuhan dialect sounds pleasant according to their impression and feeling. Of these children, 25 chose the option "Relatively pleasant", and less than half that number (11) chose "Very pleasant". The distribution of answers to Question 9 is similar: 37 children respond that the Wuhan dialect sounds friendly, and 14 of them choose "Very friendly" while 23 of them opt for "Relatively friendly". Considering the answers to Questions 8 and 9 together, it is apparent that not all children who think the Wuhan dialect sounds friendly think it sounds pleasant, but all the children who think the Wuhan dialect sounds pleasant also think it sounds friendly. This could be because perceptions of friendliness depend more on the individual's emotional response to the language, while the question of pleasantness may lead individuals to make judgments based on some relatively objective features.

In the study it is also found that children's emotional identification with the Wuhan dialect is closely related to their love of Wuhan as a place. Pearson tests of correlation were conducted in SPSS on the relationship between the data for Question 12 and the data for Question 8, and then between Question 12 and Question 9. For Q12/Q8, the correlation coefficient is 0.428** and for Q12/Q9 it is 0.411**. Both values reach significance (0.01 level) and show that there are significant positive correlations between children's feelings about Wuhan and their feelings about the Wuhan dialect. In other words, the greater the children's love for Wuhan the place, the more likely they are to feel that the Wuhan dialect is more pleasant and more friendly. The higher numerical value of the correlation coefficient for the pleasantness factor suggests that the children's love for Wuhan is slightly more strongly related to how pleasant sounding they find the Wuhan dialect than it is to how friendly they find the dialect.

In this research, there are 18 participating children whose families' hometown dialects are not the Wuhan dialect. These children were asked to evaluate the pleasantness and friendliness of both the Wuhan dialect and their hometown dialects. Their responses suggest that although the Wuhan dialect is their geographically local dialect, they have a stronger sense of belonging to their hometown dialects. None of these 18 children think their hometown dialects are unpleasant or unfriendly, but some of them think the Wuhan dialect sounds unfriendly or unpleasant. Furthermore, as Questions 8, 9, 15 and 16 all have response options on a five-level scale, scores were assigned to the answers to determine average scores for the group. The higher the average score, the more friendly or pleasant the children as a group think the dialect is. The average score was calculated for each of the four questions separately. All the averages are positive, but the two scores concerning the hometown dialect are both higher than the two scores concerning the Wuhan dialect. On the question of confidence when speaking dialects, more participating children say they are confident communicating with others in their hometown dialect than the numbers who are confident using the Wuhan dialect. Finally, most of the 18 children from non-Wuhanese speaking families report feeling embarrassed when they speak the Wuhan dialect, and fewer say they feel embarrassed speaking their hometown dialects.

The data above shows that 18 participating children whose families' hometown dialects are not the Wuhan dialect have a more negative emotional identification with the Wuhan dialect than their hometown dialects, while these children have a less positive emotional identification with their hometown dialects than Mandarin. On the basis of children's answers to Questions 4 and 5, 18 children say that they think Mandarin sounds pleasant. Of these children, 12 children chose option "Very pleasant" and six children chose option "Relatively pleasant". While in the investigation of how children evaluate the degree to "Hometown dialect sounds pleasant", 14 children think that their hometown dialects sound pleasant, with five of them choosing the option "Very pleasant" and nine choosing "Relatively pleasant". Furthermore, concerning the inner emotional identification with hometown dialect and Mandarin. Hometown dialect

seems to have few advantages. According to the data, of these 18 children participants, the number of children who think their hometown dialects sound friendly is 17 and, the number of children who say that Mandarin sounds friendly is 17 as well.

3.2.3.3 Participating children emotional identification with foreign languages

This discussion will follow the same general structure as the two sections above on Mandarin and dialects. The participating children's emotional identification with foreign languages including English was surveyed via the following questions:

Question 19. Do you think English sounds pleasant?

Question 20. Do you think English sounds friendly?

Question 23. Do you think foreign languages (except for English) sound pleasant?

Question 24. Do you think foreign languages (except for English) sound friendly?

Question 33. Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in English?

Question 34. Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in a foreign language (except for English?)

Question 38. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others (Chinese) both speak English?

Question 39. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others (Anglophone) both speak English?

Question 40. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others (Chinese) both speak foreign languages (except for English)

Question 41. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others (foreign language native speakers) both speak their language (except for English?)

Responses to the survey questions concerning English show that there are more participating children who indicate positive emotional identification with English than children who are not sure or have negative indicators. More than 84% of the children agree that English sounds pleasant and more than 64% think that English sounds friendly. The responses to Questions 19 and 20 also suggest that of the 33 participants who think English sounds friendly, all but one think English sounds pleasant. However,

of the 43 participants answering that English sounds pleasant, a smaller subset of 31 children (72%) think that English sounds friendly.

Turning to the participating children's evaluation of other foreign languages (Questions 23 and 24), the indicators of the children's emotional identification with other languages are not as positive as for English. Among the 51 participating children, 29 say that foreign languages (except for English) sound pleasant – a much smaller number than those who perceive English as pleasant. Moreover, only a minority of the children (18) hold the view that other foreign languages sound friendly, again a smaller number than those who think English is friendly sounding.

Concerning confidence in use of foreign languages, fewer children report confidence than that would be expected given the numbers who expressed positive affect about foreign languages. According to the data, only 19 children feel "Very confident" or "Relatively confident" to communicate with others in English, well under half the number of total respondents. When it comes to other foreign languages, even fewer children (seven) say they feel confident to communicate with others. This may reflect the reality in China for the learning of second foreign languages after English. Very few children are studying second foreign languages formally at school, so the small number of children in this study who are confident speaking in other foreign languages probably reveals the difficulty of being a new second foreign language learner. Even though many children feel unconfident about their abilities in foreign languages, they may not feel embarrassed in the process of using those languages. Children's responses Question 38 indicate that 24 of 51 children participants would not feel embarrassed when they speak English with others (Anglophone), and another 8 participants give uncertain answers to this question. Moreover, if they speak English with Chinese (Question 39), the numbers of participants who would not feel embarrassed is slightly larger: 30 participating children would not feel embarrassed and another six participants show uncertain attitudes. Moreover, the responses to Questions 41 and 42 suggest that whether the communication partner is a native foreign language speaker (except

English) is not an important variable affecting whether participating children feel embarrassed.

Table 3.4 Participating children's evaluation of pleasantness and friendliness of different language resources

	Average score (corresponding to 5-level scale of response options)		
Linguistic emotional identification	Mandarin	Dialects	English
Pleasant sounding	4.63	4.18	4.20
Friendly sounding	4.29	4.03	3.59

To compare emotional identification measures across the three different categories of language resources (Mandarin, dialects, foreign languages), average scores were calculated for how friendly and pleasant the children find the different languages. Their answers were assigned points corresponding to the five-point response scale (options A to E given 5 to 1 points respectively). The higher the average score for a particular language, the more the participating children tend to think the language sounds pleasant or friendly. Table 3.4 shows the average scores. From this set of data, it could be concluded Mandarin sounds the most pleasant to the group as a whole while the hometown dialects sound the least pleasant. Mandarin is also the language the children tend to think sounds the most friendly while English sounds the least friendly.

Using the same method of data processing and scoring, the children's average levels of self-confidence and embarrassment were calculated with respect to each of the three languages (Mandarin, dialects and English) and these are shown in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5 Participating children's levels of self-confidence and embarrassment

	Average score (corresponding to 5-level scale of response options)		
Linguistic Emotional identification	Mandarin	Dialects	English
Self-confidence	4.64	3.45	2.92
Lack of embarrassment	4.67	3.86	3.41

In Table 3.5, the higher the score, the more the participating children tend to feel confident and the less embarrassed they are when they use these languages. The data illustrate the close relationship between these two dimensions of language users' emotional experience. For example, the participating children feel the most confident when they speak Mandarin and they feel the least embarrassed when they speak Mandarin, but are more likely to feel embarrassed and also lacking in confidence when speaking English with others.

3.3 How FLP made by parents relates to the participating children

The analysis in this section draws on statistical calculations in SPSS and it focuses on whether and how parental FLP relates to children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages from the perspective of different languages or language varieties. Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages are three main language resources which will be discussed. In this section, I will analyse whether the three elements of FLP (language awareness, language behaviours and language management) affect language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages. The exploration of children's language use focuses on whether it is directly influenced by parental language use. The analysis of impacts on children's language learning covers many aspects, including learning motivations, learning goals and learning outcomes, to facilitate the cross-analysis with the three elements of FLP.

3.3.1 How parental family Mandarin policy influences children participants

The data from parent participants and the children show that the family Mandarin policy generated by parents has some impacts on children's Mandarin learning and use. Children's use of Mandarin at home is highly correlated with their parents' use of Mandarin at home. Moreover, the degree of parents' active attitudes towards their children's Mandarin learning can affect their children's setting of learning goals for Mandarin. In addition, specific Mandarin management behaviours by parents including the regulation of children's Mandarin learning time and the allocation of costs for that learning, is highly correlated with their children's Mandarin proficiency.

Questions referring to this section are listed below:
Question 2. At home, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you often use with your parents? Please select at least one option. (children)
Question 4. Do you think Mandarin sounds pleasant? (children)
Question 5. Do you think Mandarin sounds friendly? (children)
Question 6. What proficiency level of Mandarin would you like to achieve? (children)
Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option. (parents)
Question 23. What is your attitude towards your child learning Mandarin? (parents)
Question 32. Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in Mandarin? (children)
Question 35. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's Mandarin learning? (parents)
Question 37. Do you feel embarrassed if you and others both speak Mandarin? (children)
Question 87. What is your child's proficiency level in Mandarin? (parents)

Firstly, parents' use of Mandarin at home can strongly influence their children's Mandarin use. This finding emerged from correspondence analysis in SPSS using data

from the parent participants for Question 18 and data from the children for Question 2. Table 3.6 shows the results of the calculation.

Table 3.6 Results of correspondence analysis between Question 18 for parent participants and Question 2 for participating children

Question		Number of parents could speaking Mandarin with children at home		*P*
Number of children speaking Mandarin with parents at home		Yes	No	0.000**
	Yes	39 (91%)	2 (25%)	
	No	4 (9%)	6 (75%)	

(Note: Answers "Yes" and "No" mean "use Mandarin" and "do not use Mandarin" respectively.)

In SPSS, the *P* value is important for the judgment of whether there is a difference between X analysis item and Y analysis item. If the *P* value is less than 0.05, it means that there is a difference between two analysis items and further correspondence analysis can be carried out. As shown in Table 3.6, *p* is 0.000**, which indicates that there is a strong difference between "Parents speak Mandarin with children at home" and "Children speak Mandarin with parents at home".

Table 3.6 indicates that there is a high consistency between parent participants and their children concerning their reported use of Mandarin at home. There are 43 families where parents say they use Mandarin to communicate with their children in the home domain, and 39 children (91%) report that they use Mandarin at home with parents. Only four children (9%) give responses which are inconsistent with their parents and say they use other languages or language varieties with their parents. It seems that whether one or both parents use Mandarin in the family is not a significant factor. In other words, even if only one of the parents communicates with their children using Mandarin, the probability of their children responding that they use Mandarin with their parents is still very high. Among the 51 participating families, there are 37 families where both parents talk to their children in Mandarin, and the probability of their

children saying that they use Mandarin is 100%. In the case of six families where only one of the parents use Mandarin with their children, the probability of children saying they use Mandarin is 83%. There are eight families where parents do not use Mandarin with their children, but speak other languages or language varieties instead. In these families, six children (75%) also report that they do not use Mandarin with their parents and two children (25%) say that they do use Mandarin.

The above two situations show that parents speak or do not speak Mandarin at home will have a greater impact on the distribution of their children's use of Mandarin. The responses of the vast majority of children will use the same language resources with their parents' reports of what language is used at home. If parents speak Mandarin, then most of the children report that they speak in Mandarin. If parents do not report speaking Mandarin, very few of their children report using Mandarin with their parents. In addition, considering the exceptional situations which are discussed above in Table 3.6, 9% children participants would not speak Mandarin to response their parents when they parents speak Mandarin to them, but 25% children would use Mandarin even if their parents use other language(s) or language variety(ies) with them. It could be seen that from a proportional point of view, when parents and children use different language(s) or language variety(ies) to communicate, it seems to be easier for children participants to maintain Mandarin than to give up Mandarin.

Secondly, there is a correlation between the level of parental supporting attitudes towards children's Mandarin learning and the children's setting of their Mandarin learning goals. Correspondence analysis was calculated in SPSS on the parent participants' responses to Question 23 and participating children's responses to Question 6. Table 3.7 shows the results.

Table 3.7 Results of correspondence analysis between Question 23 for parent participants and Question 6 for children participants

Question	Parental degree of support for children to learn Mandarin					*P*
Children's Mandarin learning goals	Answer	1+1	1+2	1+3	Total	0.000**
	1	30 (71.43%)	5 (71.43%)	1 (50%)	36 (70.59%)	
	2	12 (28.57%)	2 (28.57%)	0 (0.00%)	14 (27.45%)	
	4	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	1 (50%)	1 (1.96%)	
	Total	42	7	2	51	

As shown in Table 3.7, the *P* value is 0.000**, indicating that there is a strong difference between “Parental degree of supporting attitudes towards children learning Mandarin” and “Children’s Mandarin learning goals”. Question 23 requires parent participants to choose from five answers, and the values from 5 to 1 correspond to the different degrees of supporting attitudes: “Strongly agree”, “Partially agree”, “Not sure”, “Partially disagree”, “Strongly disagree”. Some answers to Question 23 of families in Table 5.7 are “1+1”, which means both parents in the same family answer “Strongly agree”. Accordingly, answers “1+2” and “1+3” mean one parent responses “Strongly agree” and the other parent in the same family answers “Partially agree” and “Not sure” respectively.

Similarly, Question 6 requires participating children to choose from five answers representing different levels in their target Mandarin proficiency: skilled level, general level, not sure, the level of only understanding Mandarin and zero level, corresponding with values 5 to 1. The results in Table 3.7 show that in the families where parents are very supportive of Mandarin learning, the children's Mandarin learning goals are generally higher. There are 42 families in which both parents strongly support their children's learning of Mandarin. Of the children in these 42 families, 30 (71%) say that their learning goals are to achieve a high level of Mandarin proficiency and accurate pronunciation. For 12 children (29%), the goal is to achieve the general level of

Mandarin proficiency and relatively accurate pronunciation. Moreover, there are seven families in which one parent is strongly supportive and the other parent is partially supportive of their children's Mandarin learning. In these families, five children's (71%) Mandarin learning goal is to achieve a high level of Mandarin proficiency and accurate pronunciation, and two children (39%) aim for general proficiency and relatively accurate pronunciation.

A two-dimensional map was drawn (Figure 3.2) to depict the corresponding relationship between the parent participants' answers to Question 23 and the children's answers to Question 6. In two-dimensional graphs of this kind, if there is a strong correspondence between two variables, they will be represented very close together on the graph; otherwise, they will be distant from each other. Figure 3.2 further confirms the correlation shown in Table 3.7. That is, children in families where both parents are strongly supportive of their children's Mandarin learning are more willing to set a high level of proficiency as their Mandarin learning goal. Children in families where one parent is strongly supportive and the other is not sure of their children's Mandarin learning are more likely to think that the aim for a level of just understanding Mandarin is enough.

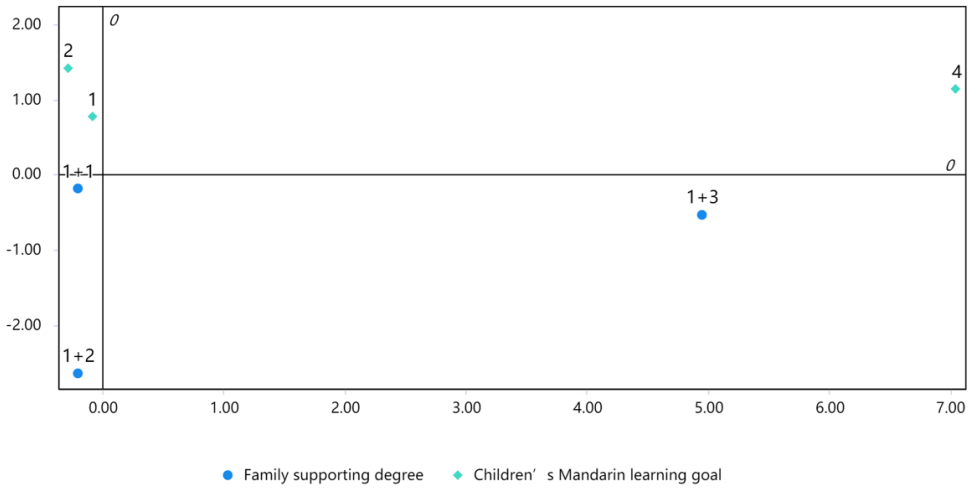

Figure 3.2 Two-dimensional map depicting two variables: level of family supportive attitudes and participating children's Mandarin learning goal

The third main finding in this section is that parental management of children's Mandarin learning affects their children's Mandarin learning outcomes to a certain extent. As language managers, parents are involved in children's Mandarin learning in terms of managing the time for the children's learning and managing financial investment in that learning. Tests of correlation were carried out in SPSS using data from parental responses to Question 87 and responses to each of Question 35 and Question 36. Positive correlations were found between these parental management inputs and children's Mandarin learning outcomes. The correlation coefficient between family financial investment in children's Mandarin learning and children's Mandarin ability is 0.741**, at a significance level of 0.01, indicating a significant positive correlation between these two factors. Family time management of children's Mandarin learning is also correlated with their children's Mandarin ability. The correlation coefficient here is 0.290*, at a significance level of 0.05, indicating a significant positive relationship between these two factors. The correlation coefficient value indicates the strength of the correlation: the larger the value, the stronger the correlation. Comparing the two correlation coefficients above (0.741** and 0.290*), it is apparent that parental management of planned money invested in language learning has a stronger correlation with the children's Mandarin learning outcomes than parental management of planned time spent on language learning. In other words, money management has a stronger impact than time management on the children's Mandarin proficiency level.

Parents can spend money on their children's Mandarin learning in many ways, such as purchasing books in Mandarin and buying online or face-to-face Mandarin courses for their children. One or more investment methods might be chosen by parents seeking to improve their children's Mandarin skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Unlike parents' financial investment in their children's Mandarin learning, in the management of Mandarin learning time, parents were only asked about the proportion of total language learning time that Mandarin should occupy, rather than specifying what aspects of Mandarin learning should be carried out in the specified time. Parental

time management as a factor only indicates the quantum of time given to their children's Mandarin learning, not the specific learning content. Therefore, the question on time management and the resulting data can only provide a crude measure of parental efforts to improve their children's Mandarin.

Furthermore, it is found that parents' Mandarin management seems only to have an impact on the children's Mandarin learning outcomes, not the children's deep emotional identification with Mandarin. To recap section 3.2.1 above, children's emotional identification with Mandarin was probed in Questions 4, 5, 32 and 37 to the participating children.

Pearson tests were used to examine the correlations between the children's responses to these four questions and the parent participants' responses to Question 35 and Question 36. The results show that every *P* value is greater than 0.05 which means there is no correlation between parents' Mandarin management and children's emotional identification with Mandarin. In other words, given that what the parental strategies are doing is increasing exposure (time and opportunities) for children to learn and use Mandarin, a cautious interpretation of the result would be that this increased exposure by itself is unlikely to affect children's deep emotional identification with Mandarin. However, based on the children's answers to Questions 4, 5, 32 and 37, the dominant attitude is that Mandarin sounds "pleasant" and "friendly", and the children feel "confident" and "not embarrassed" when communicating with others in Mandarin. These patterns in the data suggest that children's emotional identification with the language may not be controlled or heavily influenced by their parents' Mandarin management strategies or planning, but there must be some powerful factors in operation that make the children's emotional responses to Mandarin so consistent.

3.3.2 How parental family foreign languages policy influences participating children

In this investigation family foreign languages policy mainly refers to family English policy because English is currently the dominant (or only) foreign language in the participating children's academic lives. Family English policy made by parents can affect their children's English learning. Parental willingness to invest, and behaviours related to financial investment, have a relatively strong impact on children's English learning.

In the discussion of Section 3.3.2, the following questions will be used:

Question 19. Do you think English sounds pleasant? (children)

Question 20. Do you think your English sounds friendly? (children)

Question 21. What proficiency level of English would you like to achieve? (children)

Question 50. Are you willing to enhance your child's proficiency in this foreign language by paying? (parents)

Question 54. How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of this foreign language? (parents)

Question 55. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should this foreign language account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning. (parents)

Question 90. What is your child's proficiency level in English? (parents)

Parents' willingness to pay for their children's English learning can affect their children's expectations for their English proficiency. To explore this relationship, parents' responses to Question 50 and children's responses to Question 21 were put to a test of correlation, producing a correlation coefficient of 0.308* at the 0.05 significance level. This shows that there is a significant positive correlation between the family's willingness to pay for children's English learning and the children's own expectations for their English proficiency. In other words, the stronger the parents'

willingness to pay, the more children tend to set themselves higher English learning goals. However, although some families have shown their willingness to invest money to improve their children's English levels, there are differences among the parents in terms of how much they would like to pay.

Children may have clear English learning goals for themselves, but data on their learning outcomes are needed to gauge whether those goals are actually realised. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate the relationship between how much parents are willing to pay to support English learning and the children's achieved English proficiency level, using data from two scale questions (54 and 90) in the parent participant questionnaire. The correlation test yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.329* (significance level 0.05) indicating a significant positive correlation between parental financial investment towards children's English learning and the children's actual English proficiency. It suggests that the parental language management strategy of paying to improve children's English has a positive impact on the child's English outcomes.

Data above show that families' money investment in children's English learning could influence children's goals-setting of English learning and English academic performance. Similar results are also concluded by previous studies. Research in the past also found that family socioeconomic status could impact children's academic achievement, and families with higher economic status can afford the economic cost of children's English learning, which essentially means that the family's economic investment in children's learning will have a positive relationship with children's academic performance (e.g., Coleman, 1988; Brook-Gunn et al., 1997; Dincer et al., 2010; Li, 2019).

Nevertheless, not all family strategies to manage English have impacts on children English learning. For instance, parental time planning awareness for their children's English learning does not appear to influence their children's level of English

proficiency. Data for Question 55 were put to a correlation test with data for Question 90 (asking parents to evaluate their children's English level). No correlation was found between parental time planning for children's English learning and children's actual English proficiency. This finding is potentially helpful to parents who are developing their family English language policy. In managing children's English learning, priority should be given to management behaviours that can lead to improvements in their children's English according to the available evidence. Judging from the findings in this study, planning language learning time for children does not appear to play a role in improving children's English level. This maybe because as a time planning advisor, parents are not able to decide the actual time that their children spend in English learning. Thus, parents may choose not to make this management strategy the main focus of their English policy. Instead, parents could consider prioritising funds for appropriate paid methods to support their children's English learning with a view to seeing improvements in their children's English proficiency level.

Family English policy developed by parents also has a significant relationship to children's emotional identification with English. Every participating child is asked how friendly and pleasant-sounding they find English (Questions 19 and 20). Their evaluations of pleasantness (Question 19) were compared with the data on parent participants' willingness to pay for children's English learning (Question 50), again by conducting Pearson's test which produced a coefficient of 0.317* (0.05), showing a significant positive correlation. The relationship suggests that the more families show willingness to pay for their children's English learning, the more the children think English sounds pleasant and have a good impression of English. However, when a Pearson test was used to explore a link between how friendly-sounding the children find English (Question 20) and parental willingness to invest (Question 50), there was no significant correlation. This suggests that although parents' investment in English learning has a positive influence on the children's judgments about whether English sounds pleasant, such willingness to invest does not appear to affect children's thoughts

on how friendly English sounds, which is a factor more closely linked to children's sense of language belonging and identity.

Furthermore, other studies also illustrate that financial investment may affect children's emotional identification with English. As Wu (2018) points out, parental financial investment could provide children with experiences to learn and use English in many ways, such as attending English training classes, exchanging abroad and even studying abroad. These opportunities are likely to promote children to have a good impression of English. But it is obvious that these efforts could only give children a superficial identification with English, as it is difficult for children to have a feeling of belongingness to English.

Turning to the use of English in the home domain, 102 parents and 51 children all report that they do not use English at home. On the one hand, this finding could reflect parental language background: some of parent participants do not have the ability to communicate in English. On the other hand, 48 parent participants do have the ability to use English, and according to the data there are a number of families where both parents have English language skills. Even in the families where both parents can speak some English, they do not choose to speak English within their home.

This choice is probably the reason why children do not speak English with their parents at home, but there are many possible factors having influence on parents' language decisions. One the one hand, in the home domain, the environment (including language environment and media environment) is huge objective factor which could influence children's participants language choices at home. On the other hand, unlike bilingual families built on transnational marriages, traditional Chinese families do not have a strong emotional and cultural grounding for English and tend to regard English only as a language skill. English thus can not be a suitable language to communicate when the language environment is the home domain, a place which needs to use language to express individuals' sense of belongings. These families may be more inclined to use

dialects or Mandarin, with which they feel a stronger sense of belonging. In addition, according to the report of the EF English Proficiency Index (2020)[2], the average English proficiency level in China is still at a medium level which is not high enough for parents to speak English fluently with native English speakers. Oral communication skills in English may be another particular concern which makes parents avoid speaking English with their children. Some parents would be worried that their shortcomings in pronunciation and expression of English are likely to have passive impacts their children's English learning.

3.3.3 How parents' family dialect policy influences participating children

This section discusses how parent participants' family dialect policy relates to participating children drawing on the parents' and children's answers to questions as follows:

Question 2. At home, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you often use with your parents? Please select at least one option. (children)

Question 8. Do you think the Wuhan dialect sounds pleasant? (children)

Question 10. What proficiency level of the Wuhan dialect would you like to achieve? (children)

Question 15. Do you think your hometown dialect sounds pleasant? (children)

Question 17. What proficiency level of your hometown dialect would you like to achieve? (children)

Question 18. When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option. (parents)

Question 57. What is your attitude towards your child learning the Wuhan dialect? (parents)

Question 58. What is your attitude towards your child learning your hometown dialect? (parents)

[2] https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/ref

First, the responses to Question 2 for children and Question 18 for parents show that if only one parent speaks a dialect, children tend to say they do not use that dialect. For example, there are eight families where only the mother or father speaks the Wuhan dialect with their children, and only two children (25%) from these 8 families report that they speak to their parents in the Wuhan dialect. There are 6 families where only the mother or father speaks a non-Wuhan dialect with their children, and only one child (17%) from these families says that he/she use that dialect to speak to their parents.

The proportion of children who use dialects with their parents is seen to increase if both parents in one family report that they speak that particular dialect with their children. In 10 families where both parents speak non-Wuhan dialects with their children, six children (60%) in these families report that they speak to their parents in these dialects. In the case of both parents speaking the Wuhan dialect, the proportion of children who use the dialect is even larger. In eight families where two parents speak the Wuhan dialect with their children at home, eight children (100%) also say they use the Wuhan dialect with their families. Essentially, parental language use is a substantial part of a child's language environment. If parents provide a strong language environment where both of them use the same dialect, the likelihood of the child using the dialect is increased. However, the decrease in dialect use among children may be not only affected by weak dialect environment in the home domain but also influenced by other strong language environments such as the school domain, where children are mainly exposed to Mandarin. In addition, the data discussed above also show that in families where both parents speak non-Wuhan dialect at home, children are less likely to speak the dialect than in families where both parents speak the Wuhan dialect. This may be partly because the parents in those families may have different dialect backgrounds (both non-Wuhan), so the children are not in a language environment where the two parents speak the same dialect.

Parental family dialect policy has some correlations with children's dialects learning. Judging from the data from parent participants and the children, parental attitudes

towards learning a dialect is a factor influencing children's dialect learning. Parental attitudes towards dialect learning could also be related to children's emotional identification with the dialect. Parents' responses to their attitudes towards their children's hometown dialect learning have to be combined with their answers to Question 57 and Question 58 considering Wuhanese and non-Wuhanese. And children's responses must be exacted by their answers to Question 15 and Question 16. SPSS was used to analysed for correlation between parental answers and children answers. The correlation coefficient between the degree of parental active attitudes for children's dialect learning and the children's perceptions of the pleasantness of dialects is 0.379** (significance level 0.01), indicating a significant positive correlation. The more supportive the parents' attitudes to dialect learning, the more inclined their children are to think their hometown dialects sound pleasant, which in turn might suggest stronger emotional identification with their hometown dialects.

Another interesting finding is that parents' attitudes towards children's dialect learning could also be associated with children's setting of learning goals for their dialect learning. A test of correlation was used to explore the relationship between parents' attitudes towards children's hometown dialect learning (Questions 57 and 58) and the children's goals for hometown dialect proficiency (Question 10 and 17 in the children's survey). The correlation coefficient is 0.302*, at a significant level of 0.05, a positive correlation indicating that the more active attitudes the family have to support their child to learn hometown dialects, the more likely their child is to set a higher dialect learning goal. In conclusion, parental attitudes towards their children learning hometown dialects are very important factors which can influence how their children approach learning their hometown dialects.

In fact, parents' FLP have impacts on children's language outcomes. First, the language use of parents at home could affect the language choice of children in the home domain. For example, Mandarin and dialect are two language varieties which are mostly used

in the family domain. Whether it is Mandarin or dialect, the data above shows that they both maintain a relatively high consistency with their parents in the use frequency at home. Second, children's language learning also can be affected by their parents' FLP. For instance, the data indicates that the more supportive a family is towards children's Mandarin learning, the easier it is for their children to set higher Mandarin learning goals. For another example, in the process of English learning, the more parents are willing to invest in financial support, the more likely their children are to set higher learning goals, and the better their outcomes will be. Third, a child's emotional identification with a certain language is also highly related to the parental FLP. Taking dialect as an example, if parents have a positive attitude towards children learning dialect, it is easier for their children to have a good impression of dialect and think it is more pleasant.

4. Influencing factors on parental FLP development

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will examine factors which can impact on parental development of FLP. Specifically, the factors were categorised as internal factors and external factors. The internal factors include parent participants' gender, age, salary, language background, educational level and language experience. The external factors category draws on Spolsky's (2012) work theorising that economic, political and socio-cultural factors may also influence parental FLP decisions. This study therefore seeks to explore which internal factors and external factors are linked to parents' development of FLP and the extent of the factors' roles. To this end, the chapter addresses the following specific research questions:

QR1: Which internal and external factors can impact parents' decisions when making FLP?

QR2: Do these factors exert the same degree of influence on parents' FLP making? If not, how do these factors impact parental development of FLP separately?

To answer these two questions, this chapter identifies factors that were thought to influence FLP made by parents, and these factors were put to the test in the parent participant questionnaires and subsequent statistical analyses in SPSS. It will then report the data and describe and compare how these factors affect FLP making. The chapter sections are grouped according to the stated classification of external and internal factors.

4.2 External factors

Parents, as the main architects of FLP in the family domain, can be affected by the wider environment when they develop their language policies for their children. The

wider environment can include the economic, political and socio-cultural environment that parents are exposed to. Correspondingly, parents can be influenced by certain economic, political and socio-cultural factors when making and adjusting FLP.

4.2.1 Political factors

Political factors can relate to national policies on language and/or education as well as how individuals assert their own language rights. The parent participant survey questions concerning political factors are listed below:

Question 4. To what extent do national language policies (such as the promotion of Mandarin, the protection of dialects, etc.) affect your language policy for your child?

Question 5. To what extent do national educational policies (such as reducing the weight given to English scores and increasing the weight given to Chinese scores in the National College Entrance Examination) affect your language policy for your child?

Question 6. Do international situations and foreign affairs such as relationships among nations, globalisation, etc. affect your language policy for your child?

Question 7. Do you agree with the statement "Maintaining a language or abandoning a language is a right for people"?

Question 23. What is your attitude towards your child learning Mandarin?

Question 27. To what extent do national education policies such as the National College Entrance Examination affect your attitude towards your child's Mandarin learning?

Question 28. To what extent do national language policies such as the promotion of Mandarin affect your attitude towards your child's Mandarin learning?

Question 45. To what extent do national education policies such as the National College Entrance Examination affect your attitude towards your child's learning of this foreign language?

Question 46. To what extent do the international situations and foreign affairs such as globalisation and relationships between nations affect your attitude towards your child's learning of this foreign language?

Question 57. What is your attitude towards your child learning the Wuhan dialect?

Question 58. What is your attitude towards your child learning your hometown dialect?
Question 60. Do you agree with the statement "Maintenance of dialect is loyalty to the language"?
Question 66. To what extent do national language policies such as the protection of dialects affect your attitude towards your child learning dialect?

In China, there are many national language policies seeking to promote language normalisation on the one hand and minority language protection on the other. Specifically, Mandarin has been promoted as the national language while regional dialects have been given protections 1950s. Moreover, national education policy addresses linguistic issues: for instance, the reform of the Chinese Test in the National College Entrance Examination and the education of foreign language majors. Specific matters of national education policy may influence many parents and impact their FLP making process.

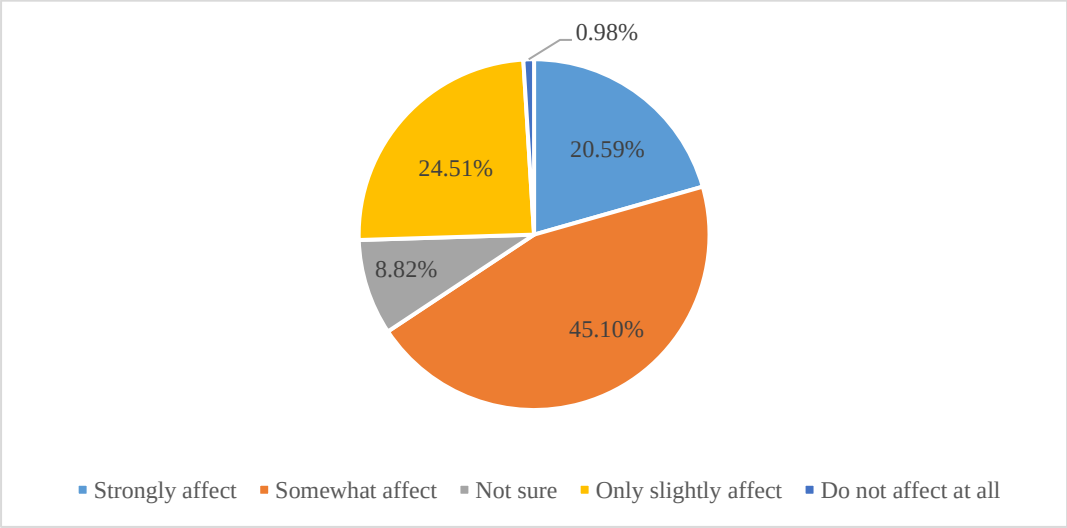

Figure 4.1 Influence of national language policies on parents' FLP making

If we consider that the essential purpose of national language policies are to officially affirm the value of language(s) and regulate use of language(s), then the data here indicates that many parents adopt a compliant attitude towards the guiding role of official language policy. Question 4 poses a general question to parents about the extent

to which they consider national language policies when they formulate FLP for their children. The data summarised in Figure 4.1 are drawn from parent participants' responses to Question 4 and shows that 67 parents (66%) state that national language policies strongly or somewhat affect how they make FLP for their children. In conclusion, for many parent participants, national language policy is an influencing factor and it appears that the content and strategies of national language policy are salient for parents when they develop FLP for their children. Furthermore, Figure 4.1 also indicates that 26 (25%) participants say that national language policies only slightly or oven do not impact their FLP making at all. Generally speaking, national language policy is made from a macro perspective and may only undergo some minor changes in a few years. If parents are not very sensitive to national language policy when they develop FLP for their children, they are more likely to ignore it. Moreover, some parents may be unfamiliar with national language policy, therefore, they will not consider it as well when they make their children's FLP.

According to Fu and Zhang (2019), China's national language policy has had seven dimensions to serve for the tasks proposed in the 13th Five-Year Plan of national language affairs: (i) popularisation of standard spoken and written Chinese language; (ii) standardisation and informatisation of standard spoken and written Chinese language; (iii) protection of language resources; (iv) construction of a language service; (v) inheritance and transmission of language culture; (vi) language exchange and cooperation; and (vii) construction of a language governance system. These dimensions of language policy in China relate to all the language resources commonly used by Chinese families, such as Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages. The language policies are also the concrete manifestations of the national language strategies. Therefore, an understanding of the nation's language policies does help parents to formulate or adjust FLP for their children in order to meet the needs of national policy and thus seek to improve their children's language skills in a strategic manner. This is potentially beneficial not only to the realisation of children's short-term linguistic goals, but also their longer-term linguistic, educational and career achievements.

As discussed above, national language policy encompasses various language resources including Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages. Although most parent participants indicate that they pay heed to the guidance in national language policy generally, responses to Questions 28 and 66 suggest that parents have preferences for certain language policies. Table 4.1 below summarises parent participants' answers to these questions, indicating that language policies on Mandarin and dialects are influential for more than half of the parent participants: 69 (68%) believe that Mandarin language policy affects their attitudes towards their children's Mandarin learning, while 55 (54%) say that dialects policy influences how they view their children's dialects learning.

Table 4.1 Influence of certain language policies on parent participants' attitudes towards children's language learning

Degree of influence	Parents' attitudes towards children's Mandarin learning	Parents' attitudes towards children's dialects learning
Strongly affect	21	11
Somewhat affect	48	44
Not sure	10	11
Only slightly affect	16	29
Do not affect at all	7	7

More parents are affected by Mandarin policy than by dialects policy, suggesting that more parent participants believe that language policy related to Mandarin rather than dialects can impact their attitudes to children's language learning. The fact that Mandarin language policy is so comprehensive, well embedded and effectively implemented may be responsible for this phenomenon. In fact, the promotion of Mandarin dates back 65 years, to the State Council's issue of the "Instructions on the Promotion of Putonghua" in 1956. By contrast, national language policies to protect dialects in China were initiated much more recently, with the establishment of the National Language Resources Monitoring and Research Centre in 2004. Even by

tracing the use of the term “language resource” in academic circles back to 1981, it is apparent that research on the protection of language resources has only been developing for 40 years. Thus, the content of policy on protection of language resources is not as comprehensive as the promotion of Mandarin. Indeed, the work of promoting Putonghua has gone through many phases, from the time when the government aimed to improve the people's spoken and writing skills, through to the period in which the nation is seeking to use Mandarin promotion as a way to alleviate poverty. In the past few years, people have been exposed to diverse strategies and rationales for the promotion of Mandarin. Through these regularly updated language policies on Mandarin, people have attained a broad understanding of the national importance of Mandarin promotion and thus it is not surprising that they would pay more attention to Mandarin promotion than other language policies. As for language protection policies, although the specific programmes are not complete, language protection work has seen some progress such as the Language Resource Protection Project which is the largest project of its kind in the world at present. Therefore, public attention to language policy on dialects is increasing. As the data shows, more than half of participating parents (54%) consider dialects protection policy when they make family dialects policy for their children.

Table 4.1 also shows that some parents hold the view that national language policy could not or only slightly affect their attitudes towards children’s Mandarin and dialects learning. As Table 4.1 indicated, seven participating parents think that their attitudes towards children learning Mandarin would not be affected by national language policy. According to parents’ responses to Question 23, seven parents all show strongly supportive attitudes towards children’s Mandarin learning. In fact, parental attitudes towards children’s Mandarin learning are coincidentally consistent with general national language policy. However, seven parent participants state that national language policy could not affect their attitudes towards children’s dialects learning. When these seven parent participants answer Question 57 and 58, most of them (5) disagree their children to learn dialects. Parental attitudes towards children’s dialects

learning show inconsistency with some national language policies. In fact, two phenomena indicate that some parents may not consider national language policy when they develop FLP for their children, and they may pay more attention to the benefits that certain language or language variety can produce for their children, especially the short-term benefits such as better academic performance.

Turning to another domain of national policy in China, the present study shows that many parents are also concerned with education policy when they develop FLP for their children. Question 5 explores the extent to which parent participants are affected by educational policy when making FLP, and their responses are summarised in Figure 4.2 below. The data suggests that educational policy has a significant influence on parental language policy, with over 70% parents indicating that current educational policy affects their FLP for their children.

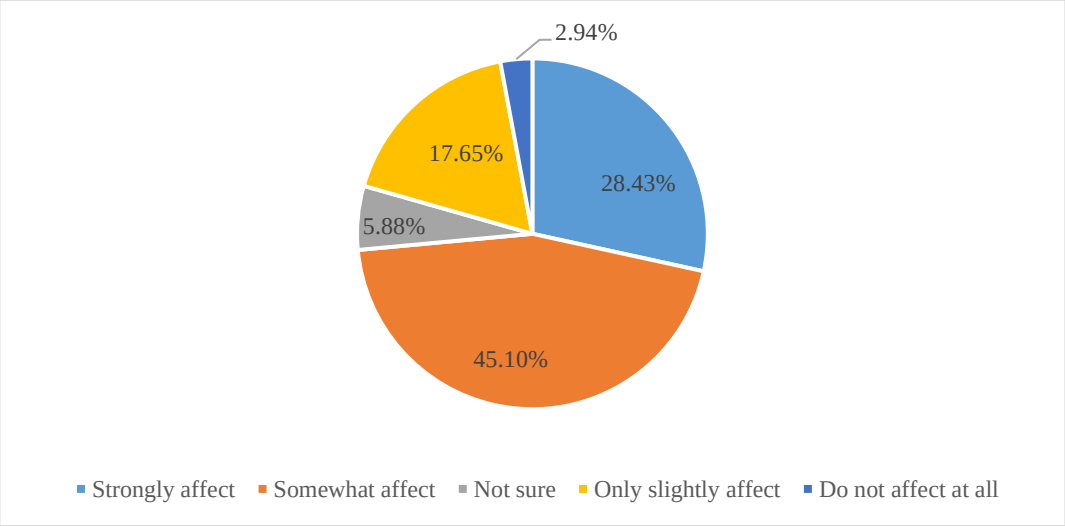

Figure 4.2 Influence of educational policy on parents' FLP making

While educational policy and language policy differ because of their different purposes, the language resources targeted in educational policy and language policy overlap but are not necessarily the same. The current language education system in China has five aspects: Chinese language education, foreign languages education, minority languages education, special language education and international Chinese education. Considering the language situations in Wuhan, the questionnaire in this study mainly

examines how parents view the nation's education policy as a factor when they are planning for their children's Mandarin and foreign languages.

Table 4.2 Influence of educational policies on parent participants' attitudes towards their children's language learning

Degree of influence	Attitudes towards their children's Mandarin learning	Attitudes towards their children's foreign languages learning
Strongly affect	33	51
Somewhat affect	47	42
Not sure	5	5
Only slightly affect	11	4
Do not affect at all	6	0

Table 4.2 tabulates parent participants' responses to Questions 27 and 45 on the impact of educational policies on their attitudes towards their children's Mandarin learning and foreign language learning. The data shows that relevant education policy influences the great majority of parents, with 80 (78%) indicating that current education policy affects their attitudes towards children learning Mandarin and 93 (91%) saying that it affects their stance on children learning foreign languages. Comparing the results in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2, it seems that more parent participants are influenced by national educational policy than by current language policy. The reason is that considering language-related education policies can help parents, as policy-makers, to achieve short-term goals to improve their children's school performance. For example, the reform of the Chinese test in the National College Entrance Examination is an important aspect of current education policy and also a topic of high social concern and public debate. In recent years, the Chinese test in the National College Entrance Examination has increasingly emphasised the importance of candidates' reading ability. In light of the changes in the orientation and function of the Chinese test in the National College Entrance Examination, parents are likely to modify their attitudes towards their

children's learning of Mandarin and to adjust their language planning strategies for their children. The reason is that this particular reform is closely related to children's academic performance and can directly affect the realisation of parents' short-term goals for their offspring.

Table 4.2 also indicates that national education policy affects more parent participants' attitudes towards children learning foreign languages than Mandarin. This might be explained by considering specific initiatives and reforms in educational policy. The reform of the Chinese test in the National College Entrance Examination seeks to improve Mandarin skills as one of the important aims, but this is not the only target. The Chinese test evaluates candidates' Chinese literacy. The language knowledge required falls into three categories: the first is basic Chinese knowledge such as the characters, words and syntax of Chinese; the second is literary aesthetic knowledge; the third is basic understanding of domestic and foreign cultures including in the areas of art, history, science and other fields in Chinese and foreign cultures. Furthermore, the test of basic Chinese knowledge covers classical Chinese as well as modern Chinese (closely related to Mandarin). However, when it comes to foreign languages education, whether the policies are on training goals, training concepts or the construction of curriculum, they are all linked with modern foreign languages themselves. Therefore, no matter how the foreign languages education policy changes, this policy area will directly affect more parents' attitudes towards children's learning of foreign languages and the influence will not be diluted by other factors in the educational policy. This might be the reason why no one state that educational policy would not affect their attitudes towards children's foreign languages learning.

Besides language policy and education policy, there are other issues that can be categorised as political factors, including international relations and foreign affairs. In fact, the relationship between China and other countries is one of the important reasons for the strategic adjustment of language services in China. Among different nations, languages serve the communication and the interconnection of resources and

information. For example, the One Belt and Road initiative proposed by China in 2013 has promoted economic and political cooperation between China and many countries. Under the influence of this initiative, China has gradually laid out a pilot project for language services. In order to meet the country's demand for skills in minor foreign languages (such as Portuguese and Serbian), many universities in China actively responded to the national call and initiated training programmes in minor languages. Similarly, globalisation trends have brought closer relations between countries all over the world. Both commercial trade and political interdependence have highlighted and underpinned the importance of English learning. Therefore, such changes in international relations may have influenced parents' policies on language planning to a certain extent. Question 6 investigates whether parents consider the importance of international situations and foreign affairs in their development of FLP for their children. The parents' responses are summarised in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Impact of international situations and foreign affairs on parents' FLP development

Degree of influence	Number of parents	Percentage (%)
Strongly affect	10	9.80%
Somewhat affect	49	48.04%
Not sure	12	11.76%
Only slightly affect	26	25.49%
Do not affect at all	5	4.90%

Table 4.3 shows that 59 (58%) parent participants take current international situations and foreign affairs into consideration when they make FLP for their children. However, of these parents, the large majority (83%) answered that world situations only "Somewhat affect" their FLP making rather than "Strongly affect". Meanwhile, almost a third of all respondents (30%) reported a different view, that international situations

and foreign affairs do not influence their FLP making decisions. Therefore, there is a mixed picture in terms of parents' perceptions of the impact of international relations and foreign affairs and this factor does not seem to be as powerful as national language and education policy when parents make language plans for their children. Essentially, language policy and educational policy are both domestic factors, while international situations and foreign affairs are foreign factors. Domestic situations especially policies related to language are more likely to directly affect parents' FLP decisions making, but international situations and foreign affairs are more of an indirect influence on parental FLP development. Moreover, the impact scope of the foreign factor is relatively small, which weakens its influence. Therefore, these may be the reasons why some parents (31) state that international situations and foreign affairs only slightly affect or do not affect their FLP making at all.

Furthermore, parental responses to Question 46 suggest that global contexts can specifically influence parents' views on foreign languages learning for their children, not just FLP more broadly. A correlation test was applied to examine the relationship between parental answers to Question 6 and Question 46. The test yielded a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.39**, at a significance level of 0.01. This result indicates that parents whose approach to FLP is affected by world situations are also influenced by this factor in their attitudes towards children's foreign language learning.

Every citizen has linguistic rights, and the awareness of linguistic rights also can be classified as a political factor. Language issues, language resources and linguistic rights are key research topics in the field of language planning and policy. Although the scholarly literature in the past has not provided a clear agreed definition of linguistic rights, according to Li's (2008) interpretation, the notion of linguistic rights is generally believed to include the rights to learn, use and renounce certain language resources. The research findings examined in Section 2.2.4 show that language awareness can affect language behaviour and language management. Correspondingly, parents' awareness of linguistic rights will also affect their language planning for their children

to some extent. However, in this study, not all parent participants have awareness of linguistic rights. The questionnaire for parent participants asked whether they agree with the statement that "Maintaining a language or abandoning a language is a right for people" (Question 7) and their answers are summarised in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Parents' attitudes towards the statement "Maintaining a language or abandoning a language is a right for people"

Degree of influence	Number of parents	Percentage (%)
Strongly agree	10	9.80%
Partially agree	48	47.06%
Not sure	15	14.71%
Partially disagree	18	17.65%
Strongly Disagree	11	10.78%

Table 4.4 shows that 58 (57%) parent participants agree with the statement "Maintaining a language or abandoning a language is a right for people" while 29 (28%) parents disagree. This suggests that many parents in this study have awareness of linguistic rights, outnumbering the parent participants who do not seem to be aware that it is their own basic right to maintain or abandon a language.

4.2.2 Economic and sociocultural factors

Economic and sociocultural factors are also significant considerations for participating parents when they play the role of FLP makers for their children. In this study, the economic factors mainly relate to the economic value of skills in certain languages or language varieties. The economic value of language can be embodied in many aspects: for example, learning a certain language can bring more employment opportunities and thus increase potential for higher income. Sociocultural factors primarily relate to parental concerns about the cultural value of certain languages or language varieties

when they develop FLP for their children in the home domain. Language and culture are inseparable and language can be used as a carrier tool for culture. The cultural value of language can also be embodied in the identification with a certain cultural identity. A series of survey questions referred in this section are shown as follows, and the influences of economic and sociocultural factors on participating parents were probed via some of these questions:

Question 4. To what extent do national language policies (such as the promotion of Mandarin, the protection of dialects, etc.) affect your language policy for your child?

Question 5. To what extent do national educational policies (such as reducing the weight given to English scores and increasing the weight given to Chinese scores in the National College Entrance Examination) affect your language policy for your child?

Question 8. To what extent does the economic value of language (such as being able to speak certain language can help to find a better job) affect your language policy for your child?

Question 9. To what extent does the cultural value of language (such as learning a certain language to help develop a certain cultural identity) affect your language policy for your child?

Responses to Question 8 are summarised in Figure 4.3. The data indicates that most parent participants (90; 88%) consider the economic value of the languages or language varieties as one of their criteria in making FLP for their children. Moreover, only four parents (4%) are not sure about this issue. The findings therefore show that in most of the families studied, parents have clarity about the role played by the economic value of languages or language varieties although only some of these parents regard this as a powerful influence (“Strongly affects”) while for the majority the impact of economic value is moderate (“Somewhat affects”).

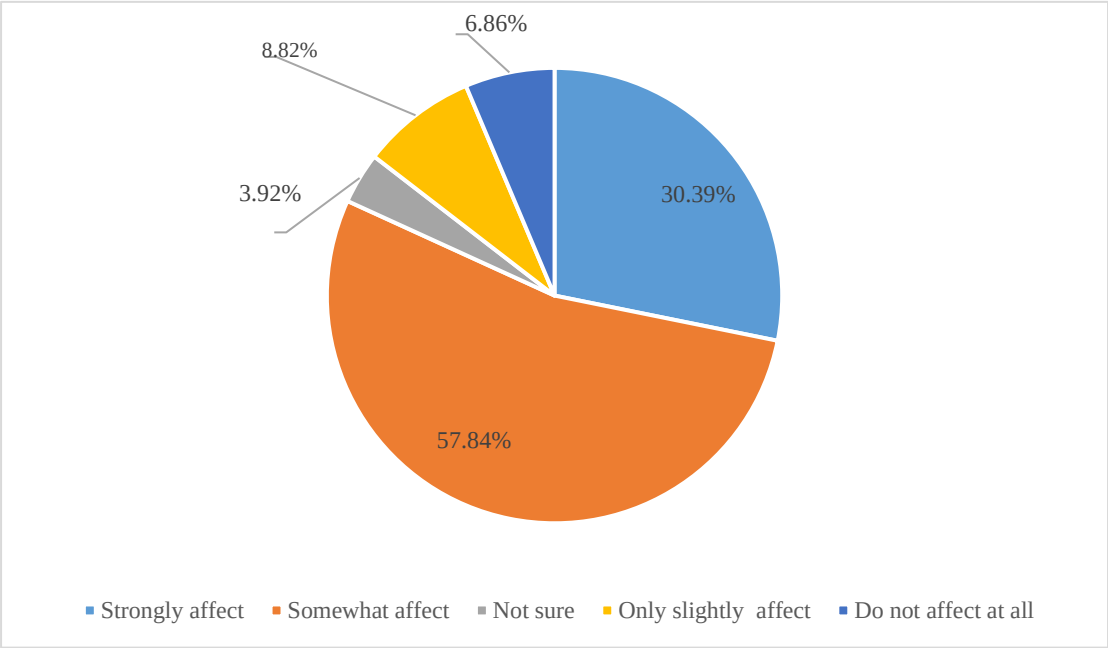

Figure 4.3 Influence of economic factors on parents when they make FLP

Turning to the significance of the perceived cultural value of language learning, Question 9 probed the extent to which parents consider the cultural value of language when they develop FLP. Figure 4.4 shows the results: the great majority (88; 86%) of parent participants are influenced by the cultural value of language and only a few parents (10; 16%) do not take this factor into account when they manage language resources for their children. Overall, the data suggests that cultural value is another important variable impacting on parents' language plans for their children.

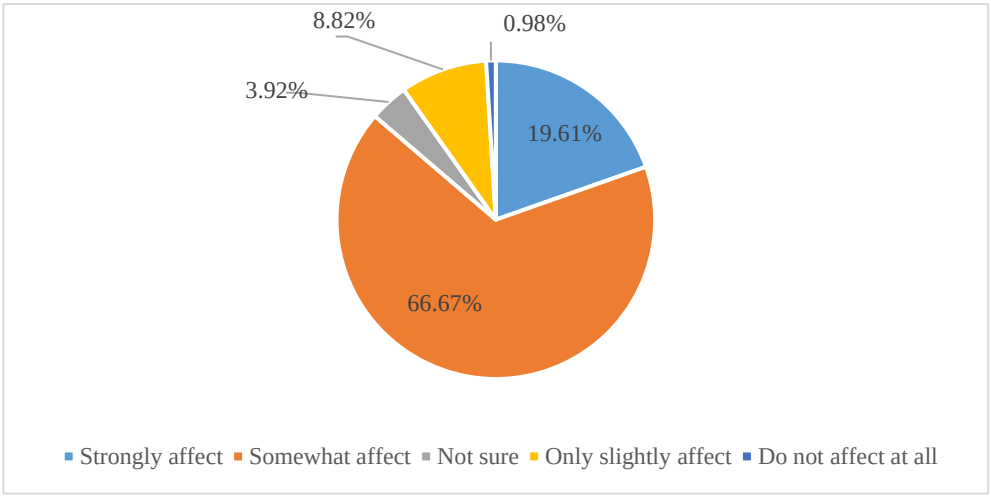

Figure 4.4 Influence of sociocultural factors on parents when they make FLP

Comparing the data in Figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4, language and education policy as well as the economic and cultural value of language all emerge as significant factors influencing a sizable number of parent participants in their FLP. On the other hand, looking across the relevant data, more parents express uncertainty on the issues of language policy (Question 4) and education policy (Question 5) compared with the higher rates of clarity about the role of cultural value (Question 9) and the economic value of language (Question 8). The reason may be that policies including language and education policy is less understood and thus some parent participants may be not confident with the knowledge of them.

4.3 Internal factors

Section 4.2 has examined the extent to which certain external factors including political, economic and cultural considerations have impact on parent participants' FLP making. Section 4.3 will focus on the internal factors which might influence parental FLP development. Previous studies indicate that many internal factors can influence parental FLP development (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009; Wu, 2019). On the basis of studies in the past, this study finds that the gender, age, incomes and educational backgrounds of parent participants can influence FLP to different degrees. These factors can impact the general formulation of FLP as well as specific aspects of FLP. Consistent with Chapters Two and Three, these specific aspects relate to language awareness, language behaviours and language management, and the chapter will explore data for the relevant questions in the questionnaire to analyse these impacts. The specific language resources discussed are the same as in previous chapters, that is, Mandarin, dialects, and foreign languages.

To explore which internal factors impact parental development of FLP, one-way ANOVA in SPSS is used. One-way ANOVA is a function which can test whether particular factors have a significant influence on particular variables. The premise of this test is that data must include one independent variable and one or more dependent

variables (Li et al., 2015). Therefore, it is a suitable data analysis method for exploring which internal factors can influence parental FLP development.

4.3.1 Gender

Questions used in this section are listed as follows:

Question 13. What do you think is the extent of your impact on your child's language development?

Question 51. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you buy foreign languages-related reading materials (such as books, newspapers and magazines) for your child?

Question 53. In order to improve your child's skill in this foreign language, how often do you send your child to participate in paid training courses in this foreign language?

Question 75. What is your gender?

Gender differences were found mainly in two aspects of FLP. First, fathers and mothers differ in their general awareness of language issues including their beliefs about parental impact on children's language learning. Second, there are obvious gender differences in the management of foreign languages for children. Compared to fathers, mothers more often buy courses or reading materials in order to improve their children's foreign language proficiency. These two points are explained further below.

Fathers and mothers indicate major differences in their responses to the general questions on FLP making. Question 13 probed parental impact beliefs (their evaluation of how important their role is in children's language development), and the relationship between the responses to this question and Question 75 (gender) were tested in SPSS using one-way ANOVA. The resulting *P* value is 0.011* (see Table 4.5), which is less than 0.05 and therefore shows a significant difference between fathers and mothers in terms of the strength of their impact beliefs. The five response options for Question 13 (from "Strongly affects" to "Does not affect at all") were assigned the values 5 to 1 and

Table 4.5 shows the average values for both genders. The data indicates that the average value for mothers (4.1) is much higher than the average value for fathers (3.65), again underscoring gender differences in the extent to which participants think they have impact on their children's language leaning. Compared to fathers, mothers think they have more influence on this matter.

Table 4.5 ANOVA results: gender and parent participants' impact beliefs

Question 13	Gender (Average value)		*P*
	Female	Male	
	4.10	3.65	0.011*

Table 4.6 presents a fuller breakdown of the parents' responses to Question 13. The results suggest that more female participants (46) than male participants (35) are confident they can affect children's language development and play an important role in this regard. Moreover, fewer mothers (four) than fathers (nine) have uncertainty (answering "Not sure") about their influence over children's language development.

Table 4.6 Breakdown of mothers' and fathers' responses on impact beliefs

	Mothers	Fathers	Total
Strongly affect	11	9	20
Somewhat affect	35	26	61
Not sure	4	9	13
Only slightly affect	1	3	4
Do not affect at all	0	4	4
Total	51	51	102

Turning to the matter of specific languages or language varieties, gender differences were also found in parents' responses on foreign languages policy for their children. This study investigates the frequency of paid methods used by parent participants to improve children's foreign languages proficiency, and fathers and mothers tend to

respond differently to Question 51 on the frequency of buying relevant foreign languages materials and Question 53 on sending children to participate in paid foreign languages training courses. Table 4.7 sets out the results of the two ANOVA analyses of these issues. The *P* values are 0.033* ($P<0.05$) and 0.035* ($P<0.05$) respectively, indicating that parents show significant gender differences when they answer Questions 51 and 53. To explore this distinction, the five response options for the two questions (from "Frequently" to "Never") were assigned the values 5 to 1, and the average values for fathers and mothers are shown in Table 4.7. For both questions, the average values for mothers (4.55 and 4.65) are higher than the average value for fathers (4.14 and 4.20). While it is apparent that all four averages are high, with fathers and mothers both reporting high frequency to purchase foreign languages training courses or reading materials, in the case of both purchase categories the participating mothers buy resources more often than the fathers do and the difference is statistically significant.

Table 4.7 ANOVA results: gender and parent participants' frequency of paying for methods to improve children's foreign languages

Question	Gender (average value)		*P*
	Female	Male	
Question 51 (materials)	4.55	4.14	0.033*
Question 53 (courses)	4.65	4.20	0.035*

Gender differences shown above may be because in Chinese families, most mothers are mainly responsible for their children's learning including language learning. Compared to fathers, mothers report more highly frequent of arranging various activities to improve their children's language proficiency level. Therefore, it is reasonable for mothers to think that they play a greater role in children's language development than fathers. In fact, joint efforts of the both fathers and mothers are likely to further help their children to achieve better language learning outcomes. It could be ideal that fathers

increase their frequency of participating in children's languages learning improvement activities in the future.

4.3.2 Age

Age is another factor that influences parental FLP. Questions referred to in this section are listed below:

Question 13. What do you think is the extent of your impact on your child's language development?

Question 29. In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in Mandarin?

Question 43. Do you agree with the statement "Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children's school performance"?

Question 47. Do you agree with the statement "Being able to speak this foreign language can reflect a higher social status"?

Question 49. In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in foreign languages?

Question 63. Do you agree with the statement "Learning dialect can help an individual to integrate into society or the community"?

Question 76. What is your age?

The participants' responses to Question 76 show that the parents' ages are concentrated in two age groups: 31-40 years old (45 participants) and 41-50 years old (53 participants); the number of parents in other age groups is relatively small (4 parent participants). Therefore, in order to obtain an objective data processing result, two age groups (31-40 years old and 41-50 years old) were used for the statistical analyses, using one-way ANOVA tests to explore the relationships between age (Question 76) and responses to questions relevant to parental FLP making.

Table 4.8 ANOVA results: exploring parental age as an influencing factor

Question	Age group (Average value)		*P*
	31-40 years old	41-50 years old	
Question 13	**4.09**	3.72	0.035*
Question 29	**4.07**	3.55	0.050*
Question 43	4.51	**4.75**	0.043*
Question 47	3.44	**3.96**	0.023*
Question 49	**4.27**	3.85	0.028*
Question 63	3.31	**3.85**	0.015*

(Note: For the convenience of explanation, higher average value in each question is bolded.)

Table 4.8 summarises the results showing that there are significant differences between the two age groups in relation to all selected questions. Moreover, the one-way ANOVA is a test to explore under the condition of single factor's influence, whether there is a difference in the average value of one or more dependent variables. Every response option in each relevant question thus has to be assigned scores. The principle of assignment is to assign 1 to 5 points to express the strength of the options and the number of options from low to high. The ANOVA test can then calculate the average value based on the assignment for comparison of differences between independent variables. Table 4.8 summarises the data for the relevant questions in the parents' questionnaire, showing differences between the two parental age groups by recording the mean values for each question by each age group.

In terms of general language awareness development, age can influence parent participants' impact beliefs. In Table 4.8, the ANOVA result for the relationship between age and parents' responses to Question 13 shows that the *P* value is 0.035* ($P<0.05$), indicating that parent participants from different age groups differ in their impact beliefs. The average values for parents in the 31-40 years group and the 41-50 years group are 4.1 and 3.7 respectively. These results suggest that the younger parents have stronger impact beliefs that they can play an influential role in their children's

language learning.

Age differences are also found concerning specific language policies on Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects and regarding different aspects of language planning. First, regarding Mandarin language policy, the *P* value for the relationship between age and parental answers to Question 29 (see Table 4.8) is 0.050*, which means a significant difference. Thus, on the issue of whether parents try to promote children's Mandarin by listening to Mandarin radio broadcasts, different age groups answer differently. Five response options for Question 29 ("Frequently" to "Never") were assigned the values 5 to 1 and Table 4.8 sets out the average values. Higher scores for the age group 31-40 years indicate that the younger parents more frequently use the strategy of radio listening as a way to improve children's Mandarin proficiency.

Second, age is a factor in parents' different opinions on their family foreign languages policy making. Younger and older parents not only differ in their opinions on some questionnaire statements about children's learning of foreign languages but also differ in their use of specific management methods for those languages. An example of a statement eliciting different opinions by age group is "Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children's school performance" (Question 43). A one-way ANOVA test of the relationship between questions 76 and 43 yielded a *P* value of 0.043*, indicating significant difference. Then, by comparing the average values for the two parental age groups (see Table 4.8), it is found that younger parents do not seem to agree as strongly as older parents that learning this foreign language (English) is beneficial to their children's school performance.

Another statement producing disagreement (*P* value: 0.023* <0.05) among parents of different ages is that being able to speak this foreign language (English) can reflect a higher social status (Question 47). The average values for parents aged 31-40 (3.44) and aged 41-50 (3.96) indicate that the younger parents are less supportive of the idea that English proficiency represents a higher status. When English was not popularised,

the average level of Chinese people's English proficiency was low, and people often associate English proficiency with higher social status. With the popularity of English, English has gradually become a relatively common skill in China. Compared with the past, children may begin to learn English in kindergarten. Therefore, the new generation is bound to associate English with a higher social status less frequently than the older generation. This finding also resonates with changes in attitudes to foreign languages from a historical perspective in China. With the development of the times, parent participants are less and less associate English with higher social status. Another age difference emerges in how often parents use the strategy of watching TV to help with children's foreign language skills. The ANOVA test of the relationship between age and parents' answers to Question 49 yielded a *P* value of 0.028* ($P<0.05$), showing a significant difference between the two age groups. For this question, the five response options ("Frequently" to "Never") were assigned the values 5 to 1 and Table 4.8 shows the average values. It is found that the younger age group (4.27) tends to use TV more frequently than the older age group (3.85) as a strategy to improve children's foreign languages proficiency.

Third, there are age differences in parent participants' attitudes towards the statement "Learning dialect can help an individual to integrate into society or the community" (Question 63). Here, the *P* value (see Table 4.8) is 0.015* ($P<0.05$). The average values for parents in the 31-40 years group and those in the 41-50 years group are 3.31 and 3.85 respectively, according to the assignment principle described above. For Question 63, the higher the score is, the more parents agree with the role that dialect plays in integrating into society or the community. The average values indicate that the older group of parents tends to be more aware of the function of dialect to help integration into the collective.

From the account of the ANOVA results for each question in Table 4.8, many differences were found between the two age groups (31-40 and 41-50) and some patterns emerge. The younger parents have higher average values for Questions 13, 29 and 49 while the older parents have higher average values in Questions 43, 47 and 63.

The exploration of how the higher average values are distributed suggests that the younger parents are more confident about their role in their children's language learning and more frequently use mass media, such as radio and TV, with the clear objective to improve their children's language proficiency.

Turning to trends in the older set of parents, their focus on language policy making appears to be the impact of foreign languages on academic performance and even social status. They support more strongly the statement that "Learning this foreign language (English) is beneficial to children's school performance". They also have more support for the statement that "Being able to speak this foreign language (English) can reflect a higher social status". In terms of dialect learning, the older parents believe that dialects are helpful for individuals to integrate into the community or society. The younger parents (31-40 years old) do not feel as strongly as the older parents on these issues. From a diachronic point of view, the decrease in the average value of responses to Question 43 from the older set to the younger set indicates the declining importance of foreign languages with younger ages. This may be related to the reform of the student examination system in China, such as the decrease (from 120 to 100) in the weight of the English total score in the high school entrance examination in China. Considering Question 47, the decrease in average scores from older to younger parents also illustrates the decline in the status of foreign languages in parental language planning, which may be linked to the rise in the status of other languages such as Mandarin. Moreover, concerning the finding that young parents are less likely to think that dialects are helpful for integration into the community or society, this may also be linked with the promotion of Putonghua across society, which weakens the unique integration function of dialects.

4.3.3 Income

Income is also a significant factor that can influence parental FLP decisions. In this study, parents' incomes are classified into three groups according to their monthly

income (Question 80) and differences are found in how the income groups answer the first two questions as follows in the parent participant questionnaire:

Question 55. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should this foreign language account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 74. In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should dialect account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 80. Your monthly income is?

Table 4.9 summarises the results of one-way ANOVA tests of the relationships between parents' income (Question 80) and the first two questions above. The differences found between the three income groups mainly relate to parents' language management strategies for foreign languages and dialects.

Table 4.9 ANOVA results: Parents' income and Questions 55 and 74

Question	Income group (Average value)			*P*
	Lower	Middle	Higher	
	<4000 Yuan per month	4000-8000 Yuan per month	>8000 Yuan per month	
Question 55	2.19	2.13	1.70	0.008**
Question 74	1.33	1.28	1.02	0.038*

Regarding Question 55 and parental income, the one-way ANOVA yielded a *P* value of 0.008*, which is less than 0.01 and indicates a significant difference between the different income groups (lower, middle, higher income group) in parents' management of their children's foreign languages learning time. The five response options for Question 55 were assigned the values 1 to 5. The higher the average score, the more time parents would like to plan for their children to learn foreign languages. The data

in Table 4.9 shows that overall the time allocation for children's foreign language learning decreases with increased income. However, although there is not a large difference between the low-income group (average 2.19) and the middle-income group (average 2.13), the time allocation reported by the high-income group (average 1.70) is much less than that of the two groups below. Table 4.10 sets out a breakdown of the proportion of hours planned for children's foreign language learning time.

Table 4.10 shows that the proportion of high-income people who allocate less than 20% of children's total language learning time to foreign languages is larger (37.21%) than for the middle and lower income categories (19% and 22% respectively). Of the parents who plan foreign languages learning for their children to take up 40% to 60% of total language learning time, the proportions in the middle and lower income groups are relatively large (30% and 28%), while the high-income parents account for only 6.98% in this category. According to the data of parental background, many high-income parents (70%) are in 41-50 years old group and their children are relatively old. In fact, many children are middle school students or high school students. The academic pressure of junior or high school students are relatively high, therefore, parents may understand more the importance of reasonable time allocation for children's language learning and strive to make rational time distribution of children's time spent in language(s) or language variety(ies) that they want their children to learn.

Table 4.10 How parents plan children's foreign language learning: proportion of total language learning time

Question 55	Income group		
	Lower	Middle	Higher
	<4000 Yuan per month	4000-8000 Yuan per month	>8000 Yuan per month
<20%	5 (18.52%)	17 (21.88%)	16 (37.21%)
20%-40%	13 (48.15%)	15 (46.88%)	24 (55.81%)
40%-60%	8 (29.63%)	9 (28.13%)	3 (6.98%)

60%-80%	1 (3.70%)	1 (3.13%)	0 (0%)

Parents' allocation of children's learning time for dialects (Question 74) also shows differences between income groups. As Table 4.9 shows, parents with higher incomes are less willing for their children to spend more time learning dialects and have less emphasis on children's dialect learning. As with the ANOVA test of the relationship between income and Question 74, there is no large difference between lower and middle income groups in time planning for their children's dialect learning (averages 1.28 and 1.33 respectively). However, the average value reported by parents in the high-income group (1.02) is more distinctly lower than those in the two income groups below.

The time allocated to learning foreign languages could reflect different parental management strategies of language resources. In the process of planning children's language learning, the management of learning time plays a very important role, and parents with differing economic status will have different time management strategies. The data above shows that parents with higher economic status are more likely to reduce the time spent on foreign languages learning under appropriate circumstances. However, when it comes to children's dialect learning, parents with any economic status all show negative attitudes towards spending time in learning, especially the parents with higher economic status, who would expect a much lower proportion of their children's time to be spent learning dialect.

4.3.4 Educational background

Based on answers to Question 81, parents' educational backgrounds are classified into "Below Bachelor's degree", "Bachelor's degree" and "Above Bachelor's degree". The numbers of parent participants in these groups are 46, 31 and 25 respectively. There are significant differences in how parents with different educational backgrounds answer the following questions, and Table 4.11 sets out the respective ANOVA results.

Question 6. Do international situations and foreign affairs such as relationships among nations, globalisation, etc. affect your language policy for your child?

Question 7. Do you agree with the statement “Maintaining a language or abandoning a language is a right for people”?

Question 16. What proportion of overall learning time do you think your child’s language learning should account for?

Question 38. How many foreign languages do you want your child to master?

Question 46. To what extent do the international situations and foreign affairs such as globalisation and relationships between nations affect your attitude towards your child’s learning of this foreign language?

Question 50. Are you willing to enhance your child’s proficiency in this foreign language by paying?

Question 52. In order to improve your child’s foreign languages skills, how often do you buy online courses in this foreign language for your child?

Question 55. In your opinion, what percentage of the child’s total language learning time should this foreign language account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 57. What is your attitude towards your child learning the Wuhan dialect?

Question 61. Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is beneficial to children’s school performance”?

Question 62. Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is beneficial to children’s future careers”?

Question 74. In your opinion, what percentage of the child’s total language learning time should dialect account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.

Question 81. Your educational level is？

Table 4.11 ANOVA results: influence of parental educational background

Question		Educational background – level of qualification (Average value)			*P*
		Below bachelor's degree	Bachelor's degree	Above bachelor's degree	
Group One	Question 7	2.85	3.48	3.80	0.002**
	Question 52	3.74	4.19	4.60	0.018*
	Question 55	3.83	4.16	4.28	0.025*
Group Two	Question 38	2.28	1.77	1.76	0.012*
	Question 57	3.72	3.71	2.88	0.011*
	Question 61	2.89	2.48	2.28	0.042*
	Question 62	3.15	2.74	2.36	0.012*
	Question 74	1.39	1.03	1.00	0.003**
Group Three	Question 6	3.02	3.71	3.40	0.025*
	Question 16	3.91	4.19	3.56	0.026*
	Question 46	3.48	4.97	3.20	0.014*
	Question 50	2.83	3.42	3.28	0.015*

Table 4.11 shows that the ANOVA analyses for all listed questions yielded *P* values less than 0.01 or 0.05, which means that for these questions there are differences in the views of parents with different educational qualification levels. The questions in Table 4.11 produced data patterns that can be categorised into three groups. The first group includes Questions 7, 52 and 55, where the average values increase with the increase in educational level. Question 7 relates to parents' general language awareness: whether they connect languages with language rights. The results in Table 4.11 show that parents with higher educational levels understand that it is a basic right to use or give up a certain language. Questions 52 and 55 are both about how participating parents develop foreign languages policy for their children. Question 52 deals with parental frequency to buy courses to help their children improve in foreign languages, and the average values indicate that parents with more advanced education are more inclined to invest money in online courses to boost their children's foreign languages proficiency. Therefore, the higher the educational qualification held by the parent participants, the more they tend to recognise the value of paid-for foreign language training classes for their children.

Parental responses to Questions 52 and 55 indicate that parents with higher educational backgrounds would emphasise more on children's foreign languages learning and have greater investment in their children's foreign languages learning. As Chu's (2021) investigation indicates, young university teachers, as a group of parents in a high educational group, would pay more attention to their children's language development and have a unique plan for their children's foreign languages learning. And one of the characteristics of their foreign languages planning for their children is their active investment in children's foreign languages training courses and online courses.

Questions 38, 57, 61, 62 and 74 fall into the second group, where the average values of the parents' responses decrease with higher levels of parental educational. Question 38 probes parents about how many foreign languages they want their children to learn. The results in Table 4.11 show that parents with higher education (bachelor degree or above) tend to want their children to learn fewer foreign languages than do the parents with lower qualifications. Specifically, parents with a bachelor's degree (1.77) or above (1.76) recommend that their children master just one or two foreign languages, while parents with below-degree qualifications aspire for their children to learn two or more foreign languages. Odlin claims (1989) that when learning two foreign languages, the learning of one language will be affected by the learning of the other language positively or negatively, and the impacts stem from the commonalities and differences between two different languages. University-educated parents may be more aware of the challenges of learning foreign languages and perhaps worry that attempting to acquire too many foreign languages may negatively affect each other results when children have limited time to learn foreign languages.

Questions 57, 61, 62 and 74 concern how parents develop family dialect policy for their children. Table 4.11 shows that highly educated parents are less supportive of children's dialects learning. First, the average values for Question 57 suggest that the higher the education level, the lower the average score and the less support for the principle of children learning dialects. The more highly educated parents are, the less they are

inclined to think that learning dialects are helpful for children's academic performance (Question 61) and career achievement (Question 62), as the average values for these questions decrease with increasing educational level (2.89, 2.48, 2.28 for Question 61 and 3.15, 2.74, 2.36 for Question 62). This conclusion is consistent with the research of He et al. (2015). They claim that parents with master's degrees have a low degree of the recognition of dialect, but parents with high school degrees have a relatively high degree of the recognition of dialect. Furthermore, on the issue of time management of children's dialects learning (Question 74), parent participants with more advanced education want their children to spend less time on dialects: the average values for parents with postgraduate degrees and bachelor degrees are 1.0 and 1.03 respectively, while 1.39 is the average for parents with lower qualifications. On the one hand, parents with higher education background may think of dialect learning oriented by "target achievement". Highly educated parents may believe that in short-term, dialect learning can not help their children with academic performance. Moreover, in the job market, dialect can not play a significant role when their children would like to find better jobs in the future.

Group Three includes Questions 6, 16, 46 and 50. In this set, the highest average values are in the group of parents who have bachelor degrees. For example, the responses to Question 6 indicate that these parents are more influenced by international situations when they make FLP for their children, compared to participants in the other parental education categories. Similarly, parents with bachelor degrees are most influenced by this same factor, international situations, when they make family foreign language policy for their children (Question 46). In addition, when it comes to language learning time as a proportion of children's overall learning time (Question 16), the average values show that bachelor degree-educated parents report the highest proportions, followed by parents with higher university qualifications.

5. Conclusion

5.1 A summative discussion of this project

The overall aim of this study is to complete a comprehensive investigation of parental FLP in Wuhan. To achieve this, the study has explored the characteristics of Wuhan parent participants' FLP, the influence of different factors on parental FLP development and the impacts of parental FLP on children's language learning and planning. The following research questions have been addressed:

QR1. What are the general characteristics of FLP according to the parent participants' survey responses? What is the relationship between language ideologies, language behaviours and language management represented in this survey?

QR2. Regarding the development of FLP in a family, what aspects of FLP are relatively easy for parent participants to reach agreement on, and what aspects of FLP prompt differences of opinion between co-parents?

QR3. What are the patterns of FLP through SPSS among the parents as policy makers and what do these patterns look like?

RQ4. What do the participating children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages look like? What are the correlations among the children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages?

RQ5. What are the connections between parent participants' FLP and participating children's language learning, language use and emotional identification with languages?

QR6: Which internal and external factors can impact parents' decisions when making FLP?

QR7: Do these factors exert the same degree of influence on parents' FLP making? If not, how do these factors impact parental development of FLP separately?

5.1.1 General characteristics of parental FLP

The various statistical analyses employed in this study have provided comprehensive evidence that allows the following conclusions to be drawn. First, parental FLP differs according to different language resources. Concerning parent participants' language ideologies, almost all of the parents' attitudes in this investigation are positive towards children's Mandarin learning and foreign languages learning. With regard to dialects, especially parents' hometown dialects, more than one-third of parent participants have an unclear or even negative attitude towards children's dialects learning. Concerning parents' language behaviours with their children, Mandarin is the language most frequently used by parent participants, dialects are the second most frequently used language in the family domain and foreign languages are the least frequently used. As for parents' language management strategies, parent participants want their children to spend the largest amount of their language learning time on foreign languages and the least amount of time on learning dialects. Correspondingly, parents are inclined to invest the most money in children's learning of foreign languages and they spend the least on children's dialects learning.

According to the data summarised above, the rankings of the three different language resources can be determined in terms of parents' language ideologies, language behaviours and language management. Rankings were assigned corresponding scores of 1, 2 and 3 and Table 5.1 presents the total scores calculated, indicating that regarding language ideologies, language behaviours and language management foreign languages ranked first in importance while dialects ranked third according to parent participants' survey responses, which means parents pay the most attention to foreign languages in FLP, closely followed by Mandarin. Dialects have the least attention.

Table 5.1 Ranking of Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages in dimensions of parental FLP

	Language ideologies	Language behaviours	Language management	Total
Mandarin	3	3	2	8
Dialects	1	2	1	4
Foreign languages	3	1	3	10

5.1.2 Consistencies and differences between co-parents when they make FLP

In a family, FLP cannot be developed and enacted by individuals; it is a work co-produced by both fathers and mothers together and requiring the participation of their offspring. Therefore, this study also explores levels of agreement between spouses as FLP co-makers when they develop FLP for their children. It is found that parent participants are more in agreement with each other on issues related to family foreign languages policy making than for Mandarin and dialects policy. Consistent with this, foreign languages are the only language resource where the findings indicate that FLP co-makers find agreement with their partners more frequently than they disagree. Differences within pairs of FLP makers are the greatest on matters of family dialects planning.

First, as for Mandarin policy, questions about language awareness in FLP for Mandarin learning elicited high rates of answer agreement among parent participants. For example, most parents have the same or similar attitudes as their spouses towards children's Mandarin learning and the role that Mandarin plays in children's development. However, there are some differences between spouses in terms of parental language awareness in family Mandarin policy. Participating parents tend to think differently from their partners about the impacts that macro-level policy such as educational policy and language policy can have on their attitudes towards children's Mandarin learning. Parental management strategies for children's Mandarin learning

are another area on which there is some disagreement in couples, or at least a mixed picture: specifically, although co-parents may have the same overall plan of time management and investment of money in children's Mandarin learning, they tend not to concur about how to implement the plans to manage Mandarin learning.

Second, when it comes to foreign languages, parents tend to diverge from their partners in the choices of second foreign languages that their children should learn (after English as the first foreign language). Furthermore, co-parents do not have completely matching motivations for urging their children to learn foreign languages. Most parent participants hold more than one motivation for foreign languages selection and parents may share some of the same motivations with their partners and have other different motivations with their partners. The three most commonly cited motivations among parents are children's learning interests, children's future employment and current education policies. Furthermore, parents have different preferences for paid methods for improving children's foreign language proficiency. For example, many spouses are not in agreement about purchasing online foreign languages courses.

Finally, on matters related to family dialect policy making, most parent participants disagree with their partners. The questions which prompt between-spouse agreement indicate that parents are united in their low level of support for their children's dialects learning. For instance, they are aligned about not spending much money on this learning or allocating too much time.

5.1.3 FLP patterns

The FLP patterns through SPSS found in this study are discussed in relation to Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects. Studies in the past generally take

Three patterns of family Mandarin policy have emerged (referring to Section 2.4.1). Regardless of which pattern, all families have a positive attitude towards children's

Mandarin learning. However, families have differences in the management of Mandarin learning when their Mandarin policies are different. Few parents in the FLP pattern accounting for the most participating families think they should invest money or allocate too much time in children's Mandarin learning. Many parents in the second most common and the least common FLP pattern hold the view that they should invest both money and time in children's Mandarin learning. However, parent participants in the second most common FLP pattern have relatively conservative strategies of time and money investment while most parent participants in the least common FLP pattern tend to emphasise the significance of investing both time and money for children's Mandarin learning.

There are two main representative patterns of family policies on foreign languages (referring Section 2.4.2). Although families in both patterns are in favour of children learning foreign languages and would like to invest both money and time to manage this learning, there are differences in the extent of this willingness and spending. Parents in the most common FLP pattern are somewhat in favour of paying for their children's foreign language learning but parents in the other pattern indicate a stronger desire to make such investment.

FLP patterns for dialect policy are in three clusters (referring Section 2.4.3). In all these clusters, parent participants do not seem willing to take positive action to promote children's proficiency in dialects. Parents in two of the patterns express support for children's dialects learning, but this does not translate into corresponding strategies and actions. None of the families surveyed are inclined to spend money or time on their children's dialects learning.

5.1.4 How does parents' FLP impact children's language learning?

The results of the statistical analyses indicate that parents' family language policy for different language resources influence children's language learning in many different

ways respectively. First, parental planning for children's Mandarin can affect children's language awareness, language use and language outcomes related to Mandarin. The study has shown that children's use of Mandarin, goal-setting for Mandarin and actual Mandarin proficiency levels are all highly correlated with their parents' Mandarin policy. Second, children's learning of foreign languages is influenced by foreign language policy made by their parents. Parents' management behaviours for foreign languages, especially their actions to pay for resources and teaching, seem to affect children's learning of those languages. For example, on the one hand, children's English proficiency can be affected by their parents' willingness to dedicate funds to this learning. Moreover, the stronger the parents' willingness to invest financially in children's English, the higher the children's own expectations regarding their English proficiency. Parental willingness to invest in English learning can also influence children's emotional identification with English: the greater the parents' willingness to invest, the more children tend to think that English sounds friendly and pleasant. Third, parents' planning and management of dialects in the family context does appear to affect children's learning of dialects. Children's use of dialects tends to align with parental dialect behaviours. In families where only one parent speaks a particular dialect with their children, it is not common for parents and children to have communication in that dialect. However, if both parents speak a certain dialect with children, children's use of the dialect is increased. Furthermore, parental attitudes towards children's dialect learning influence the children's emotional identification with a particular dialect as well as children's own goal setting for learning the dialect.

5.1.5 Factors influencing parental FLP

This study finds that the influences on parental FLP development include external factors and internal factors. External factors mainly refer to the wider economic, political and socio-cultural environments to which parents are exposed: all three types of these factors have been considered in this investigation for their potential effects on parental development of FLP. It is found that there are economic, political and socio-

cultural impacts on parental FLP decision making to different degrees and in different aspects. The political environment is a variable influencing many parent participants' language plans for their children. The government's language policies and educational policies offer information to the parents to develop FLP. The economic value of certain language resources is also considered by most parent participants in their FLP. Economic value in this sense pertains to the perceived monetary value for children's development and future achievement and success that might arise from proficiency in a certain language. Likewise, most parent participants pay heed to the wider socio-cultural value of a given language when they make FLP decisions for their children, for example the role of a language in preserving and continuing cultural identity. This study finds that all three of these dimensions have significant impacts on FLP, with cultural value emerging as the factor which the largest number of parents identified, while political context resonated with the smallest number of participants but by a modest margin.

Internal factors include gender, age, incomes, educational backgrounds and language backgrounds of parent participants. These factors can influence FLP made by parent participants to different degrees. The parents can be classified into different groups according to their patterns of responses about these internal factors.

This study finds that foreign languages and dialects are two language resources that tend to elicit differences of opinion among parents from the different groups. Gender differences are apparent in parents' overall impact beliefs and their management of children's foreign language learning. Specifically, mothers more frequently use paid methods than fathers in seeking to improve children's proficiency in foreign languages. Age differences are also apparent when parents make FLP for their children. Parents in different age groups have different opinions on children learning foreign languages and about choice of methods to support this learning. Age differences emerge in dialects FLP as well. For example, the older group of parents in the study tend to be more supportive of children's dialects learning than the younger group of parents. Income is

another internal factor which is linked to different findings. Three broad income groups were identified in the set of parent participants, and differences between these groups mainly relate to two language resources: foreign languages and dialects. Parents from different income groups take different stances on the extent of their time allocation in their children's foreign language learning, with higher-earning parents allocating less foreign languages learning time for children than lower earning parents. Moreover, they have different views about time investment for children's dialects learning, with higher-earning parents tending to favour less time for this. Educational background is another variable that would impact parents' answers to questions related to foreign languages and dialects. For example, parents with more advanced education are more inclined to invest money in online or face-to-face courses to boost their children's foreign languages proficiency but they are less supportive of children's dialects learning and want their children to spend less time on dialects.

5.2 Limitations to the current study

This research uses quantitative methods to analyse the collected data and this brings some limitations. The aim of this quantitative research is to provide a general description of FLP by averaging out responses across the whole participant group. Therefore, it is not within the scope of the study to conduct a deep exploration of every participant, and individual cases cannot be studied and presented in the report. So, although this study may contribute potentially valuable quantitative data to the field of FLP, the more explanatory capacity of this piece of quantitative research is rather limited because the study is not sensitive to the underlying reasons for particular observations and findings.

Therefore, future studies could introduce more qualitative methods to address specific questions including open questions as well as closed questions and produce richer data. Face-to-face interviews could be used to explore in depth the motivations and reasons for participants' FLP choices. For example, the present survey data could be combed to

isolate the parent participants strongly in favour of paid methods to improve children's foreign languages learning, and semi-structured interviews with these parents could explore the deeper issues underlying their position on foreign languages FLP in the context of their own individual circumstances.

Moreover, the scale of the study and its data is relatively small. Altogether, 51 families (102 parent participants and 51 child participants) were invited to take part in this project. Although this size and scale was the largest I could realistically undertake and achieve, the data analysis could be enhanced and the study would have more power if an even larger number of participants could have been involved. Furthermore, this project took the city of Wuhan as the location for the study. Due to the impacts of COVID-19, the fieldwork had to be carried out online rather than face-to-face. With all participants completing their questionnaires online, I could not always answer their queries about the questionnaires immediately.

For similar studies in the future, I would seek to expand participant recruitment. For example, I would aim to recruit more participants overall and with more diverse backgrounds including more variation in age, income, occupation, region, etc. A larger and more diverse sample of participants would potentially make the analyses more sensitive to any differences connected with different participant factors (e.g., different ages) and potentially boost the generalisability of the findings and conclusions. I would also conduct the data collection face-to-face with participants as far as possible.

In this study of FLP in Wuhan, the three principal language resources are Mandarin, foreign languages and dialects. In Wuhan, the local dialect is widely regarded to be a 'strong' dialect, but in most Chinese cities, the Wuhan dialect are not regarded as strong. Thus the study's findings regarding dialects could only cautiously be applied to some other cities like Shanghai and Guangzhou, where Shanghainese and Cantonese are also strong dialects but with their own unique features. Parental attitudes in those cities towards strong dialects, use of those dialects and management of them could have their

own characteristics. Therefore, some of the findings and conclusions of this study might be tentatively applied to cities which resemble Wuhan in linguistic terms, but they cannot be extended to the whole country without further evidence.

In the future research, I would expand the fieldwork locations in future research to other Chinese cities to explore how this factor (location/city) influences any differences in FLP. On the one hand, new research would seek to conduct similar research in more cities like Wuhan in order to verify the validity and generalisability of the findings which the present study claims. On the other hand, it would be interesting to study participants in Chinese cities that are larger and more economically developed than Wuhan to see the extent to which the results converge or diverge with the present study. A multi-location new study would be potentially informative about the overall picture for FLP across China. Future studies would be further refined in terms of the internal factors which potentially impact parent participants' FLP, by investigating FLP of families from different economic classes or educational backgrounds. In other words, the group being investigated would be further specified. For example, the FLP of middle-class parents in the same city or middle-class parents in different cities will be studies specifically as a topic.

5.3 Conclusive aspects of this project

According to the findings of this study, the conclusive aspects of this project are summarised as follows:

First, this is a case study carried out in Wuhan that explored how parents in Wuhan make and develop their FLP for their children. The data I collected could provide a general understanding of FLP in Wuhan to a certain degree especially how parental language awareness, language behaviours and language management look like and how children participants' language development look like. Therefore, on the one hand, the research data in this project has been integrated and some meaningful results have been

obtained through data processing, which could be used as an intuitive data reference for parents when they reflect on their current FLP. It is found that parents generally make some efforts towards their children's language development. However, it seems that few parents evaluate or reflect on their FLP for their children comprehensively. What this project provides is a reasonable assessment framework (including language awareness, language behaviours and language management) which can help parents discover the strengths and weaknesses of their FLP and further improve parents' family language planning ability for their children.

On the other hand, this field work was carried out in Wuhan, and Wuhan is a representative city in the central area of China and it is located in the Yangtze River Economic Belt. In view of the current situation (referring to Section 1.1.2), research into family language policy is still developing. Only a few cities have carried out field work. There are many minority languages and dialects in China, and the language situation of each city and region has its own characteristics. Therefore, nationwide research activities can provide a general and clear picture of China's family language planning. And whether from the perspective of research methods or analysis methods, this project could contribute to research work related to family language planning in other cities, especially the cities in the central area of China.

When it comes to FLP development, this project not only took each parent participant as a unit to analyse but also took a family (including a father and a mother) as a unit. Meantime, this project innovatively puts forward the concept of an FLP pattern and explores how language awareness, language behaviours and language management in certain FLP pattern manifest respectively considering participants' responses to the survey. According to the collected data, different FLP patterns for each language resource (Mandarin, dialects, foreign languages) are identified through statistical processing software. FLP patterns provide a new research theme for the subsequent analysis of FLP. Moreover, FLP patterns can be used to accurately and quickly show the current situation of FLP of certain families. The development of the FLP patterns

can help the policymakers in the government have a clear view of parental FLP via a relatively scientific way in a short time. Different FLP patterns will present different characteristics and parents' inclination toward language planning. Therefore, combining with current national language strategies, the government can formulate targeted policies or make corresponding adjustments to the country's policies, especially language policies and educational policies, based on the information provided by FLP patterns to achieve the effect of strengthening language supervision.

Second, this study has confirmed the results of past research: parental FLP could impact children's language development. However, previous studies seem to pay less heed to which aspects of parental FLP could influence on children's language development. In fact, solving this problem may help parents modify their own FLPs in response to the difficulties encountered by their children in their language development. To bridge this gap, this issue is one aspect of the research focus in this project. On the one hand, how parental FLP impact children's language development needs to be explained specifically and separately considering different language resources. For example, when it comes to family foreign language policy, it is found that parental willingness to invest in children's foreign languages learning is important because it could be positively correlated to children's goal setting of foreign languages. And when it comes to family dialect policy, this study finds that parental use of dialect in the home domain is positively correlated to their children's use of dialect in the home domain. This study explored what could impact children's language development in parental FLP and these findings could be used by parents when they develop their FLP because the findings may help them achieve their goal planning for their children. Taking the findings mentioned above as examples, if parents would like their children to set a higher goal of foreign languages learning, they should adjust their management strategies in their foreign languages policy (increase their investment in children's foreign languages learning). And if parents would like to increase their children's frequency of dialect use, they must increase the frequency of their own use of dialect in the home domain.

On the other hand, this project also finds that joint efforts of parents could exert greater impact on their children's language development. For example, both father and mother in a family speaking the same dialect at home will increase the probability of children using that dialect in the home domain. Therefore, it is very important for parents to be involved in the children's language planning together. Aside from the home domain, the school domain is also closely related to children's language development. Therefore, teachers in schools may take advantage of these findings to discuss with parents how to jointly promote their children's language development.

Third, this study finds that when parents make FLP decisions for their children, they are inclined to agree with their partners on some issues while other issues tend to show inconsistency in families. In fact, in the process of FLP development, it is difficult to say whether consistency or inconsistency in families can be beneficial to children's language development. For example, this study finds that it is relatively easy for parents to reach agreement on the issues of the investment in children's foreign languages learning, and they all have positive attitudes towards the cost of their children learning foreign languages, which could improve children's foreign languages proficiency. Therefore, parents' consistency with their partners on this issue is worthy of encouragement. Many parents share similar opinions with their own parents on the issue of children's dialect learning with negative attitudes, which could cause a decline in children's interests in dialects learning and even lead to giving up learning their own dialect. There are various dialects in China, and every dialect is a precious language resource. Parental consistency with their partners for this issue on dialects should be avoided. Consistencies and inconsistencies found in this study should attract the attention of government, and the government should set up a family language planning department to offer advice to families on how to take advantage of favourable parental agreements and disagreements with their partners and avoid unfavourable parental consistencies and inconsistencies with their partners.

Finally, the study also proves that many factors can influence parental FLP decision-

making. On the one hand, many parents' internal factors could influence their FLP development. Results in this study show that parents age, income, gender, educational backgrounds all could be influencing driving force when they make FLP for their children. The results of this study not only verified internal factors which could impact parental FLP in the past, but also supplemented new influencing factors. The investigation of internal factors provides more reasonable explanations for parents' development of FLP with different characteristics. Meantime, the exploration of internal factors also provides a multi-dimensional research perspective for the field of FLP. For example, follow-up FLP research could focus on a specific group such as age group, gender group and income group with more scientific theoretical support.

On the other hand, most parents would consider external factors such as political, economic and socio-cultural factors when they develop FLP for their children. This study finds that socio-cultural factors could impact the largest number of parent participants. In other words, most of the parent participants would consider the socio-cultural value of language when they plan language resources for their children. Therefore, if the government promotes a certain language and digs deep into the cultural value for parents, it is likely to drive parents to place that language in an important position in their children's language learning. Economic value is another factor that many parents would take into consideration. If the government wants to support the popularisation of a certain language, reducing the cost of learning that language is one effective ways. In addition, some parents would have a good understanding of national language policies and educational polices before they develop FLP. The government can build a national language policy and education policy network information platform accordingly, which will be conducive to parents' understanding of the policy and making practical language plans for their children.

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Appendix A: The Survey of Parents

A Questionnaire

Study on Family Language Policy in China:

A case study of Wuhan

Part 1 For Parents

（1）General questions

1．您的家庭编号是？（What is your family number?）

2. 您对孩子的语言学习是否有明确的规划?（父母对孩子语言规划指的是父母对孩子语言学习、语言使用和语言管理中所做的选择。）（Do you have invisible FLP for your child? Note: parental FLP refers to parents' choice made in children's language learning, language use as well as language management for children.）

a. 有 Yes
b. 没有 No
c. 不确定 Not sure

3. 您是否主动了解、接触过与孩子语言学习相关的资料（如图书、报刊、杂志、网络在线资源）等？（Have you ever taken initiatives to access resources such as books, newspapers, magazines, online resources, etc. relating to children's language learning?）

a. 有 Yes
b. 没有 No
c. 不确定 Not sure

4. 国家的语言政策（如推广普通话、方言保护）在多大程度上会影响您对孩

子的语言规划？(To what extent do national language policies (such as the promotion of Mandarin, the protection of dialects, etc.) affect your language policy for your child?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect
e. 完全没有影响 Do not affect at all

5. 国家的教育政策（如推行英语减分、语文加分的高考制度）在多大程度上会影响您对孩子的语言规划？（To what extent do national educational policies (such as reducing the weight given to English scores and increasing the weight given to Chinese scores in the National College Entrance Examination) affect your language policy for your child?）

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect
e. 完全没有影响 Do not affect at all

6. 世界局势（如国家间的关系、全球化的趋势）会影响您对孩子语言的规划吗？(Do international situations and foreign affairs such as relationships among nations, globalisation, etc. affect your language policy for your child?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect
e. 完全没有影响 Not affect at all

7. 您对“对某种语言的坚持或对某种语言的放弃是一种权利”这种观点的态度是？（Do you agree with the statement “Maintaining a language or abandoning a language is a right for people”?）

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree
b. 比较支持 Partially agree
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 不太支持 Partially disagree
e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

8. 语言的经济价值（如学习某种语言可以找到更好的工作），在多大程度上会影响您对孩子的语言规划？(To what extent does the economic value of language (such as being able to speak certain language can help to find a better job) affect your language policy for your child?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affects
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affects
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affects
e. 完全没有影响 Does not affect at all

9. 语言的文化价值（如通过语言培养孩子对某种身份的认同），在多大程度上会影响您对孩子的语言规划？（To what extent does the cultural value of language (such as learning a certain language to help develop a certain cultural identity) affect your language policy for your child?）

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affects
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affects
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affects
e. 完全没有影响 Does not affect at all

10. 您认为一个人所具备的语言能力可以体现一个人的社会地位吗？（Do you agree that people’s language abilities can reflect their social status?）

a.非常支持 Strongly agree

b.比较支持 Partially agree

c.不确定 Not sure

d.不太支持 Partially disagree

e.不支持 Strongly disagree

11. 您认为哪种语言能力最容易获取高的社会地位？(Which language or language variety do you think is the most likely to indicate the highest social status?)

a. 武汉方言 the Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言(除武汉方言外) Your hometown dialect (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话 Mandarin

d. 英语 English

e. 除英文外的其他外语 Foreign languages (except for English)

12. 您认为哪种语言能力最有可能获取低的社会地位？（Which language or language variety do you think is the most likely to indicate the lowest social status?）

a. 武汉方言 the Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言(除武汉方言外) Your hometown dialect (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话 Mandarin

d. 英语 English

e. 除英文外的其他外语 Foreign languages (except for English)

13. 您认为您对孩子语言发展的影响程度是？（What do you think is the extent of your impact on your child's language development?）

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affects

b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affects
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affects
e. 完全没有影响 Does not affect at all

14. 在制定语言规划的过程中，您认为孩子的语言能力对您制定规划的影响程度是：（In the process of making language policy for your child, how does your child's language ability affect your language policy making.）

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affects
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affects
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affects
e. 完全没有影响 Does not affect at all

15. 您认为语言教育在对家庭教育中的重要程度是？（How important do you think language education is in family education?）

a. 非常重要 Extremely important
b. 比较重要 Comparatively important
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本不重要 Comparatively unimportant
e. 完全不重要 Not important at all

16. 您认为孩子语言学习应该占总学习时间的多少? (What proportion of overall learning time do you think your child's language learning should account for?）

a. <20%
b. 20%-40%
c. 40%-60 %
d. 60%-80%
e. >80%

17. 您与父母交流时，所使用的语言或语言变体有（至少选择一项）?（When you communicate with your own parents, what language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.）

a. 武汉方言 The Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言(除武汉方言外) Their hometown dialect(s) (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话 Mandarin

d. 英语 English

e. 除英文外的其他外语 Foreign languages (except for English)

18. 您与孩子交流时，所使用的语言或语言变体有（至少选择一项）? (When you communicate with your child, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.)

a. 武汉方言 The Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言(除武汉方言外) Your hometown dialect (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话 Mandarin

d. 英语 English

e. 除英文外的其他外语 Foreign languages (except for English)

19. 您与配偶交流时，所使用的语言或语言变体有（至少选择一项）? (When you communicate with your spouse, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you use? Please choose at least one option.)

a. 武汉方言 The Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言(除武汉方言外) Your hometown dialect (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话 Mandarin

d. 英语 English

e. 除英文外的其他外语 Foreign languages (except for English)

20. 如果与父母交流时所使用语言或语言变体不同时，您会做出何种选择？(What choice will you make if you use a different language or language variety when you communicate with your parents?)

a. 继续使用自己所使用的语言 Maintain use of my language or language variety

b. 使用对方语言 Change to use parents' language or language variety

c. 要求对方使用自己使用的语言 Ask parents to use my language or language variety

21. 如果与孩子交流时所使用语言或语言变体不同时，您会做出何种选择 (What choice will you make if you use a different language or language variety when you communicate with your children?)

a. 继续使用自己所使用的语言 Maintain use of my language or language variety

b. 使用对方语言 Change to use child's language or language variety

c. 要求对方使用自己使用的语言 Ask my child to use my language or language variety

22. 如果与配偶交流时所使用语言或语言变体不同时，您会做出何种选择？(What choice will you make if you use a different language or language variety when you communicate with your spouse?)

a. 继续使用自己所使用的语言 Maintain use of my language or language variety

b. 使用对方语言 Change to use spouse's language or language variety

c. 要求对方使用自己使用的语言 Ask my spouse to use my language or language variety

(2) Mandarin

23. 您对孩子学习普通话的态度是? (What is your attitude towards your child learning Mandarin?)

a.非常支持 Strongly agree

b.比较支持 Partially agree

c.不确定 Not sure

d.不太支持 Partially disagree

e.不支持 Strongly disagree

24. 您对“学习普通话有助于孩子的学业”的观点的态度是? (Do agree with the statement “Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children’s school performance”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

25. 您对“学习普通话可以帮助孩子未来就业”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Learning Mandarin is beneficial to children’s future careers”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

26. 您对“会说普通话能够彰显更高的社会地位”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Being able to speak Mandarin can reflect a higher social status”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

27. 国家的教育政策（如高考制度）在多大程度上影响了您对孩子学习普通话的态度? (To what extent do national education policies such as the National College Entrance Examination affect your attitude towards your child's Mandarin learning?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect

b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect

e. 完全没有影响 Do not affect at all

28. 国家的语言政策（如推广普通话、保护方言等）在多大程度上影响了您对孩子学习普通话的态度? (To what extent do national language policies such as the promotion of Mandarin affect your attitude towards your child's Mandarin learning?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect

b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect

e. 完全没有影响 Do not affect at all

29. 为了孩子更好地学习普通话，您会有意在家中收听普通话类的广播吗？(In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in Mandarin?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

30. 为了孩子更好地学习普通话，您会有意在家中观看普通话类的电视节目吗？(In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in Mandarin?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

31. 您愿意通过付费的方式来提高孩子的普通话吗？(Are you willing to enhance your child's Mandarin proficiency by paying?)

a. 非常愿意 Strongly willing

b. 比较愿意 Partially willing

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太愿意 Partially unwilling

e. 不愿意 Strongly unwilling

32. 为了孩子更好地学习普通话，您愿意为孩子购买普通话类的读物（如图书、报刊、杂志）吗？(In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you buy Mandarin-related reading materials (such as books, newspapers and magazines) for your child?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

33. 为了孩子更好地学习普通话，您愿意为孩子购买普通话在线课程吗？(In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you buy online courses in Mandarin for your child?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

34. 为了孩子更好地学习普通话，您愿意让孩子参加付费的普通话类培训课程吗？(In order to improve your child's Mandarin skill, how often do you send your child to participate in paid Mandarin training courses?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

35. 您愿意为孩子普通话学习花费百分之多少的家庭收入？(How much household income do you want to spend on your child's Mandarin learning?)

a. <20%

b. 20%-40%

c. 40%-60 %

d. 60%-80%

e. >80%

36. 您认为孩子普通话学习时间应该占语言学习总时间的多少?"语言学习"包括普通话、方言和外语的学习。(In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should Mandarin account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.)

a. <20%

b. 20%-40%

c. 40%-60 %

d. 60%-80%

e. >80%

(3) Foreign languages

37. 谈到外语学习，您首先想到的外语是? (When it comes to foreign languages learning, what is the first foreign language you think of?)

a. 英语 English

b. 法语 French

c. 西班牙语 Spanish

d. 阿拉伯语 Arabic

e. 俄语 Russian

f. 德语 German

g. 日语 Japanese

h. 葡萄牙语 Portuguese

i. 印地语 Hindi

j.其他 Other languages

38. 您希望您的孩子掌握几门外语？(How many foreign languages do you want your child to master?)

a. 一门 One

b. 两门 Two

c. 三门 Three

d. 三门以上 More than three

39. 请选择您希望您孩子学习的外语种类是（可多选）? (Please select language(s) that you want your child to learn. Please choose at least one option.)

a. 英语 English

b. 法语 French

c. 西班牙语 Spanish

d. 阿拉伯语 Arabic

e. 俄语 Russian

f. 德语 German

g. 日语 Japanese

h. 葡萄牙语 Portuguese

i. 印地语 Hindi

j.其他 Other languages

40. 对于孩子外语学习种类的选择，您的主要依据是：（多选，请选出三项）(What are the main motivations that drive you to choose which foreign language(s) your child should learn? Please select three options.)

a. 您个人的喜好 Your personal preferences

b. 孩子的个人兴趣 Child's personal interests

c. 学习所花费用 Cost of learning

d. 未来就业前景 Future employment prospects

e. 国家教育政策（如高考制度）National education system such as the National College Entrance system

f. 国际外交局势（如国家间的关系）International situations and foreign affairs such as relationships between nations

41. 请问您的孩子目前主要学习的外语是? (What is the main foreign language your child is currently learning?)

a. 英语 English

b. 法语 French

c. 西班牙语 Spanish

d. 阿拉伯语 Arabic

e. 俄语 Russian

f. 德语 German

g. 日语 Japanese

h. 葡萄牙语 Portuguese

i. 印地语 Hindi

j.其他 Other languages

请根据题 40 您的孩子目前主要学习的外语，回答以下问题：

Please answer the following questions based on your answers to Question 41.

42. 您对孩子学习该外语的态度是? (What is your attitude towards your child learning this foreign language?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

43. 您对“学习该外语有助于孩子的学业”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children’s school performance”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

44. 您对“学习该外语可以帮助孩子未来就业”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Learning this foreign language is beneficial to children’s future careers”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

45. 国家的教育政策（如高考制度）在多大程度上影响了您对孩子学习该外语的态度? (To what extent do national education policies such as the National College Entrance Examination affect your attitude towards your child's learning of this foreign language?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect
e. 完全没有影响 Do not affect at all

46. 世界局势（如全球化的趋势、国家间的关系）在多大程度上影响了您对孩子学习该外语的态度? (To what extent do the international situations and foreign affairs such as globalisation and relationships between nations affect your attitude towards your child's learning of this foreign language?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect
b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect
e. 完全没有影响 Do not affect at all

47. 您对"会说该外语能够彰显更高的社会地位"的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement "Being able to speak this foreign language can reflect a higher social status"?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree
b. 比较支持 Partially agree
c. 不确定 Not sure
d. 不太支持 Partially disagree
e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

48. 为了孩子更好地学习该外语，您会有意在家收听该语言类的广播吗？(In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in foreign languages?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

49. 为了孩子更好地学习该外语，您会有意在家观看该语言类的电视节目吗？（In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in foreign languages?）

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

50. 您愿意通过付费的方式来提高孩子的该外语能力吗？(Are you willing to enhance your child's proficiency in this foreign language by paying?)

a. 非常愿意 Strongly willing

b. 比较愿意 Partially willing

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太愿意 Partially unwilling

e. 不愿意 Strongly unwilling

51. 为了孩子更好地学习该外语，您会购买外语类的读物吗？ (In order to improve your child's foreign languages skills, how often do you buy foreign languages-related reading materials (such as books, newspapers and magazines) for your child?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

52. 为了孩子更好地学习该外语，您会购买外语在线教育课程吗？(In order to improve your child’s foreign languages skills, how often do you buy online courses in this foreign language for your child?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

53. 为了孩子更好地学习该外语，您会付费让孩子参加培训类课程吗？（In order to improve your child’s skill in this foreign language, how often do you send your child to participate in paid training courses in this foreign language?）

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

54. 您愿意为孩子该外语的学习花费百分之多少的家庭收入？(How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of this foreign language?)

a. <20%

b. 20%-40%

c. 40%-60 %

d. 60%-80%

e. >80%

55. 您认为孩子学习该外语的时间应该占语言学习总时间的多少(“语言学习”包括普通话、方言和外语的学习)？(In your opinion, what percentage of the child’s total language learning time should this foreign language account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.)

a. <20%

b. 20%-40%

c. 40%-60 %

d. 60%-80%

e. >80%

(4) Dialects

56. 请问您是否土生土长的武汉人. (Are you a native of Wuhan?)

a. 是 Yes

b. 否 No

57. 您对孩子学习武汉方言的态度是？（What is your attitude towards your child learning the Wuhan dialect?）

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

58. 您对孩子学习家乡方言的态度是？（What is your attitude towards your child learning your hometown dialect?）

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

59. 武汉方言和家乡方言，您支持孩子学习哪种方言？（Which dialect do you want your child to learn, the Wuhan dialect or your hometown dialect?）

a. 武汉方言 The Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言 Your hometown dialect(s)

c. 都学习 Both of them

d. 都不学习 Neither of them

60. 您对“对方言的坚持是出于对语言本身的忠诚”的观点的态度是? (Do you

agree with the statement “Maintenance of dialect is loyalty to the language”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

61. 您对“学习方言有助于孩子的学业”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is beneficial to children’s school performance”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

62. 您对“学习方言可以帮助孩子未来就业”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is beneficial to children’s future careers”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

63. 您对“学习方言可以帮助融入集体或社会”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect can help an individual to integrate into society or the community”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

64. 您对“学习方言是保护文化的一种有效方式”的观点的态度是? (Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is an effective way to protect culture”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

65. 您对“方言是维护家庭亲密关系的一种有效方式”的观点的态度是?(Do you agree with the statement “Learning dialect is an effective way to develop a bond among family members”?)

a. 非常支持 Strongly agree

b. 比较支持 Partially agree

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太支持 Partially disagree

e. 不支持 Strongly disagree

66. 国家的语言政策（如推广普通话、保护方言等）在多大程度上影响了您对孩子学习方言的态度? (To what extent do national language policies such as the protection of dialects affect your attitude towards your child learning dialect?)

a. 非常有影响 Strongly affect

b. 有一定影响 Somewhat affect

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 基本没有影响 Only slightly affect

e. 完全没有影响 Do not affect at all

67. 为了孩子更好地学习方言，您会有意收听方言类广播吗？(In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to listen to the radio in dialect?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

68. 为了孩子更好地学习方言，您会有意观看方言类的电视节目吗? (In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you consciously allow your child to watch TV shows in dialect)?

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

69. 您愿意通过付费的方式来提高孩子的方言能力吗？(Are you willing to enhance your child's proficiency in dialect by paying?)

a. 非常愿意 Strongly willing

b. 比较愿意 Partially willing

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太愿意 Partially unwilling

e. 不愿意 Strongly unwilling

70. 为了孩子更好地学习方言，您会为购买方言类的读物（如图书、报刊、杂志）吗？(In order to improve your child's dialect skill, how often do you buy dialect-related reading materials such as books, newspapers and magazines for your child?

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

71. 为了孩子更好地学习方言，您会为购买方言在线教育课程吗？(In order to improve your child’s dialect skill, how often do you buy online courses in dialect for your child?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

72. 为了孩子更好地学习方言，您会付费让孩子参加培训类课程吗？(In order to improve your child’s dialect skill, how often do send your child to participate in paid training courses in dialect?)

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

73. 您愿意为孩子方言学习付出百分之多少的家庭收入？(How much household income do you want to spend on your child's learning of dialect?)

a. <20%

b. 20%-40%

c. 40%-60 %

d. 60%-80%

e. >80%

74. 在普通话、方言和外语的学习中，您觉得小孩方言学习应占用几成的时间？(In your opinion, what percentage of the child's total language learning time should dialect account for? Language learning includes Mandarin, dialects and foreign languages learning.)

a. <20%
b. 20%-40%
c. 40%-60 %
d. 60%-80%
e. >80%

(5) Background

75. 请问您的性别是? (What is your gender?)

a. 男 Male

b. 女 Female

76. 请问您的年龄是？（What is your age?）

a. 20-30 岁 20-30 years old

b. 31-40 岁 31-40 years old

c. 41-50 岁 41-50 years old

d. 51-60 岁 51-60 years old

e. 60 岁以上 More than 60 years old

77. 请问您具备以下哪几种语言能力? (Which language(s) or language variety(ies) can you speak? Multiple choice.)

a. 普通话 Mandarin

b. 武汉方言 The Wuhan dialect

c. 家乡方言（武汉方言除外）Your hometown dialect (except for the Wuhan dialect)

d. 英语 English

e. 外语（英语除外）Foreign languages (except for English)

78. 您对武汉的喜爱程度是？（How do you like Wuhan?）

a. 非常喜欢 Strongly like

b. 喜欢 Partially like

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太喜欢 Partially dislike

e. 不喜欢 Strongly dislike

79. 您对家乡的喜爱程度是？（How do you like your hometown?）

a. 非常喜欢 Strongly like

b. 喜欢 Partially like

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太喜欢 Partially dislike

e. 不喜欢 Strongly dislike

80. 请问您的月收入是？（Your monthly income is？）

a. 2000 元以下 Less than 2000 RMB

b.2000-4000 元 2000-4000 RMB

c.4000-6000 元 4000-6000 RMB

d.6000-8000 元 6000-8000 RMB

e .8000-10000 元 8000-10000 RMB

f. 10000 元以上 More than 10000RMB

81. 请问您的教育程度是？（Your educational level is？）

a. 初中 Lower secondary education

b. 高中 Upper secondary education

c. 专科 Vocational education

d. 本科 Bachelor’s or equivalent

e. 硕士研究生 Master’s or equivalent

f. 博士研究生 Doctoral or equivalent

82. 请问您是否在以下地区有过旅游经历？(Do you have any travel experience in the following areas?)

a. 欧洲 Europe

b. 除中国外亚洲其他地区 Parts of Asia other than China

c. 北美洲 North America

d. 南美洲 South America

e. 大洋洲 Oceania

f. 没有此类出国经验 No experience

83. 请问您在以下哪个地区有过留学的经验？（Do you have any experience of studying overseas in the following areas?）

a. 欧洲 Europe

b. 除中国外亚洲其他地区 Parts of Asia other than China

c. 北美洲 North America

d. 南美洲 South America

e. 大洋洲 Oceania

f. 没有此类出国经验 No experience

84. 请问您在以下哪个地区有过超过一年以上的生活、居住的经验？（Do you have any experience of living for more than one year in the following areas?）

a. 欧洲 Europe

b. 除中国外亚洲其他地区 Parts of Asia other than China

c. 北美洲 North America

d. 南美洲 South America

e. 大洋洲 Oceania

f. 没有此类出国经验 No experience

85. 请问您在平时生活中需要长时间与外国人接触吗？（Do you need to meet foreigners in your normal life?）

a. 每天都需要接触 Every day

b. 经常接触 Frequently

c. 偶尔接触 Sometimes

d. 很少接触 Seldom

e. 不接触 Never

86. 请问您的小孩具备以下哪几种语言能力? (可多选) (Which of the following languages can your child speak? Please select at least one option.)

a. 普通话 Mandarin

b. 武汉方言 The Wuhan dialect

c. 家乡方言（武汉方言除外）parental hometown dialect(s) (except for the Wuhan dialect)

d. 英语 English

e. 外语（英语除外）Foreign languages (except for English)

87. 您觉得您的孩子的普通话水平是？（What is your child's proficiency level in Mandarin?）

a. 可以流畅交流，发音非常准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is very accurate

b.可以交流，发音比较准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is relatively accurate

c. 能听懂大部分，但是不会说 Can understand most of the conversations, but cannot speak it

d. 只能听懂只言片语，不会说 Only can understand several simple sentences and words, but cannot speak it

88. 您觉得您的孩子的武汉方言水平是？（What is your child's proficiency level in the Wuhan dialect?）

a. 可以流畅交流，发音非常准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is very accurate

b.可以交流，发音比较准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is relatively accurate

c. 能听懂大部分，但是不会说 Can understand most of the conversations, but cannot speak it

d. 只能听懂只言片语，不会说 Only can understand several simple sentences and words, but cannot speak it

89. 您觉得您的孩子的家乡方言水平是？（如果您的孩子会说您和您配偶的两种

家乡，请选择孩子更擅长的家乡方言进行作答。）（What is your child's proficiency level in the hometown dialect? Note: If your child can speak both you and your spouse's hometown dialects, please answer the question according to the dialect at which your child is more proficient.）

a. 可以流畅交流，发音非常准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is very accurate

b.可以交流，发音比较准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is relatively accurate

c. 能听懂大部分，但是不会说 Can understand most of the conversations, but cannot speak it

d. 只能听懂只言片语，不会说 Only can understand several simple sentences and words, but cannot speak it

90. 您觉得您的孩子的英语水平是？（What is your child's proficiency level in English?）

a. 可以流畅交流，发音非常准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is very accurate

b.可以交流，发音比较准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is relatively accurate

c. 能听懂大部分，但是不会说 Can understand most of the conversations, but cannot speak it

d. 只能听懂只言片语，不会说 Only can understand several simple sentences and words, but cannot speak it

91. 您觉得您的孩子的外语（除英语外）水平是？（What is your child's proficiency level in other foreign language (except for English)）?

a. 可以流畅交流，发音非常准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is very accurate

b.可以交流，发音比较准确 Can use it in simple communication, and the pronunciation is relatively accurate

c. 能听懂大部分，但是不会说 Can understand most of the conversations, but cannot speak it

d. 只能听懂只言片语，不会说 Only can understand several simple sentences and words, but cannot speak it

92. 请问您的父母具备以下哪几种语言能力（可多选）？（Which of the following language(s) can your parents speak？Please select at least one option.）

a. 普通话 Mandarin
b. 武汉方言 The Wuhan dialect
c. 家乡方言（武汉方言除外）Their hometown dialect (except for the Wuhan dialect)
d. 英语 English
e. 外语（英语除外）Foreign languages (except for English)

93. 请问您是否和父母住在一起？(Do you live with your parents?)

a. 是 Yes

b. 否 No

94. 请问您父母与小孩见面的频率是? (What is the frequency of your parents meeting with your child?)

a. 每天都见面 Every day

b. 经常见面 Frequently

c. 偶尔见面 Sometimes

d. 很少见面 Seldom

e. 不见面 Never

95. 请问您父母与小孩平均每周相处的时间是？（What is the average weekly time that your parents spend with your child?）

a. <5 小时 <5 hours

b. 5-10 小时 5-10 hours

c. 10-15 小时 10-15 hours

d. 15-20 小时 15-20 hours

e. >20 小时 >20 hours

Appendix B: The Survey of Children

A Questionnaire

Study on Family Language Policy in China:

A case study of Wuhan

Part 2 For Children

1.你的家庭编号是？（What is your family number?）

2. 在家中，你和父母通常使用什么话交流？（至少选择一项）(At home, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you often use with your parents? Please select at least one option.)

a. 武汉方言 the Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言 Their hometown dialect(s)（except for the Wuhan dialect）

c. 普通话 Mandarin

d. 英语 English

e. 除英语外的其他外语 Foreign language(s) (except for English)

3. 在家中，你和祖父、祖母通常使用什么话交流？（至少选择一项）(At home, which language(s) or language variety(ies) do you often use with your grandparents? Please select at least one option.)

a. 武汉方言 the Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言 Their hometown dialect(s)（except for the Wuhan dialect）

c. 普通话 Mandarin

d. 英语 English

e. 除英语外的其他外语 Foreign language(s) (except for English)

4. 你认为普通话的好听程度是? (Do you think Mandarin sounds pleasant?)

a. 非常好听 Very pleasant

b. 比较好听 Relatively pleasant

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太好听 Not quite pleasant

e. 不好听 Unpleasant

5. 你认为普通话的亲切程度是？（Do you think Mandarin sounds friendly?）

a. 非常亲切 Very friendly

b. 比较亲切 Relatively friendly

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太亲切 Not quite friendly

e. 不亲切 Unfriendly

6. 你希望你对普通话的掌握程度是？（What proficiency level of Mandarin would you like to achieve?）

a. 熟练掌握，发音很标准 Skilled level, and the pronunciation is accurate

b. 一般掌握，发音比较准确 General level, and the pronunciation is comparatively accurate

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 能听懂就可以 The level I can understand is enough

e. 不需要掌握 There is no need to master it

7. 如果你希望掌握普通话，请选出你认为掌握普通话的理由（可多选）。（If you want to master Mandarin, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option.）

a. 父母的期望 Parents' expectations

b. 对学习有帮助 Academic development

c. 有助于未来就业 Future employment

d. 便于和他人交流 To communicate with others

e. 显得有教养 To look well-educated

f. 可以显现更高的社会地位 To show higher social status

g. 其他原因 Other reasons

8. 你认为武汉方言的好听程度是? (Do you think the Wuhan dialect sounds pleasant?)

a. 非常好听 Very pleasant

b. 比较好听 Relatively pleasant

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太好听 Not quite pleasant

e. 不好听 Unpleasant

9. 你认为武汉方言的亲切程度是? (Do you think the Wuhan dialect sounds friendly?)

a. 非常亲切 Very friendly

b. 比较亲切 Relatively friendly

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太亲切 Not quite friendly

e. 不亲切 Unfriendly

10. 你希望你对武汉方言的掌握程度是？（What proficiency level of the Wuhan dialect would you like to achieve?）

a. 熟练掌握，发音很标准 Skilled level, and the pronunciation is accurate

b. 一般掌握，发音比较准确 General level, and the pronunciation is comparatively accurate

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 能听懂就可以 The level I can understand is enough

e. 不需要掌握 There is no need to master it

11. 如果你希望掌握武汉方言，请选出你认为掌握武汉方言的理由（可多选）。

（If you want to master the Wuhan dialect, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option.）

a. 父母的期望 Parents' expectations

b. 有助于融入集体 To integrate into the community

c. 有助于未来就业 Future employment

d. 便于和他人交流 To communicate with others

e. 能够更好地了解武汉的文化（比如更好地理解武汉腔，武汉方言词汇，武汉方言作品 (To l earn the culture of Wuhan by using the Wuhan dialect (especially, the accent and vocabulary of the Wuhan dialect and get access to cultural works related to the Wuhan dialect)

f. 其他原因

12. 你对武汉的喜爱程度是? (How do you like Wuhan?)

a. 非常喜欢 Strongly like

b. 比较喜欢 Partially like

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太喜欢 Partially dislike

e. 不喜欢 Strongly dislike

13. 请问你的家乡方言是武汉方言吗？（Is your hometown dialect the Wuhan dialect?）

a. 是 Yes

b. 否 No

14. 你对家乡的喜爱程度是？（How do you like your home town?）

a. 非常喜欢 Strongly like

b. 比较喜欢 Partially like

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太喜欢 Partially dislike

e. 不喜欢 Strongly dislike

15. 你认为家乡方言的好听程度是？（Do you think your hometown dialect sounds pleasant?）

a. 非常好听 Very pleasant

b. 比较好听 Relatively pleasant

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太好听 Not quite pleasant

e. 不好听 Unpleasant

16. 你认为家乡方言的亲切程度是？（Do you think your hometown dialect sounds friendly?）

a. 非常亲切 Very friendly

b. 比较亲切 Relatively friendly

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太亲切 Not quite friendly

e. 不亲切 Unfriendly

17. 你希望你对家乡方言的掌握程度是？（What proficiency level of your hometown dialect would you like to achieve?）

a. 熟练掌握，发音很标准 Skilled level, and the pronunciation is accurate

b. 一般掌握，发音比较准确 General level, and the pronunciation is comparatively accurate

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 能听懂就可以 The level I can understand is enough

e. 不需要掌握 There is no need to master it

18. 如果你希望掌握家乡方言，请选出你认为掌握家乡方言的理由（可多选）。（If you want to master your hometown dialect, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option):

a. 父母的期望 Parents' expectations

b. 对家乡的喜爱 Love for your hometown

c. 便于和家乡人交流 To communicate with people from the hometown

d. 能更好地了解家乡文化 To learn the culture of the home town by the hometown dialect

e. 其他原因 Other reasons

19. 你认为英语的好听程度是? (Do you think English sounds pleasant?)

a. 非常好听 Very pleasant

b. 比较好听 Relatively pleasant

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太好听 Not quite pleasant

e. 不好听 Unpleasant

20. 你认为英语的亲切程度是? (Do you think English sounds friendly?)

a. 非常亲切 Very friendly

b. 比较亲切 Relatively friendly

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太亲切 Not quite friendly

e. 不亲切 Unfriendly

21. 你希望你对英语的掌握程度是? (What proficiency level of English would you like to achieve?)

a. 熟练掌握，发音很标准 Skilled level, and the pronunciation is accurate

b. 一般掌握，发音比较准确 General level, and the pronunciation is comparatively accurate

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 能听懂就可以 The level I can understand is enough

e. 不需要掌握 There is no need to master it

22. 如果你希望掌握英语，请选出你认为掌握英语的理由（可多选）。（If you want to master English, please choose the reason why you want to master it. Please select at least one option.）

a. 父母的期望 Parents' expectations

b. 对学习有帮助 Academic development

c. 有助于未来就业 Future employment

d. 便于交流 To communicate with others

e. 显得更有教养 To look well-educated

f. 可以显现更高的社会地位 To show higher social status

g. 个人兴趣 Personal interest

h. 为了了解西方文化 To learn western culture

i. 其他原因 Other reasons

23. 你认为外语（除英语外）的好听程度是? (Do you think foreign languages (except for English) sound pleasant?)

a. 非常好听 Very pleasant

b. 比较好听 Relatively pleasant

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太好听 Not quite pleasant

e. 不好听 Unpleasant

24. 你认为外语（除英语外）的亲切程度是? (Do you think foreign languages (except for English) sound friendly?)

a. 非常亲切 Very friendly

b. 比较亲切 Relatively friendly

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太亲切 Not quite friendly

e. 不亲切 Unfriendly

25. 你希望你对外语（除英语外）的掌握程度是? (What proficiency level of foreign languages (except for English) would you like to achieve?)

a. 熟练掌握，发音很标准 Skilled level, and the pronunciation is accurate

b. 一般掌握，发音比较准确 General level, and the pronunciation is comparatively accurate.

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 能听懂就可以 The level I can understand is enough

e. 不需要掌握 There is no need to master it

26. 如果你希望掌握外语（除英语外），请选出你认为掌握外语（除英语外）的理由（可多选）。(If you want to master foreign languages (except for English), please choose the reason why you want to master them? Please select at least one option.)

a. 父母的期望 Parents' expectations

b. 对学习有帮助 Academic development

c. 有助于未来就业 Future employment

d. 便于交流 To communicate with others

e. 显得更有教养 To look well-educated

f. 可以显现更高的社会地位 To show higher social status

g. 个人兴趣 Personal interest

h. 为了了解说该语言的国家的文化 To learn culture of the nations or regions where this language is spoken

i. 其他原因 Other reasons

27. 你最愿意收听以下哪种语言类的广播节目？ (Which language type of radio programme do you want to listen to most?)

a. 武汉方言类 The Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言类（除武汉方言外）Your hometown dialect(s) (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话类 Mandarin

d. 英语类 English

e. 外语类（除英语外）Foreign languages (except for English)

28. 你最愿意观看以下哪种语言类的电视节目？或者收听（Which language type of TV programme do you want to watch most?）

a. 武汉方言类 The Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言类（除武汉方言外）Your hometown dialect(s) (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话类 Mandarin

d. 英语类 English

e. 外语类（除英语外）Foreign languages (except for English)

29. 你最愿意阅读以下哪种语言类的读物（如图书、报刊、杂志）？（Which language type of reading materials such as books, newspapers and magazines do you want to read most?）

a. 武汉方言类 The Wuhan dialect

b. 家乡方言类（除武汉方言外）Your hometown dialect(s) (except for the Wuhan dialect)

c. 普通话类 Mandarin

d. 英语类 English

e. 外语类（除英语外）Foreign languages (except for English)

30. 你是否有充分的自信能够用家乡方言与人沟通？（Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in your hometown dialect?）

a. 非常自信 Very confident

b. 比较自信 Relatively confident

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太自信 Not quite confident

e. 不自信 Unconfident

31. 你是否有充分的自信能够使用武汉方言与人沟通？（Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in the Wuhan dialect?）

a. 非常自信 Very confident

b. 比较自信 Relatively confident

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太自信 Not quite confident

e. 不自信 Unconfident

32. 你是否有充分的自信能够使用普通话与人沟通？（Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in Mandarin?）

a. 非常自信 Very confident

b. 比较自信 Relatively confident

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太自信 Not quite confident

e. 不自信 Unconfident

33. 你是否有充分的自信能够使用英语与人沟通？（Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in English?）

a. 非常自信 Very confident

b. 比较自信 Relatively confident

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太自信 Not quite confident

e. 不自信 Unconfident

34. 你是否有充分的自信能够使用除英语外的其他外语与人沟通？(Do you have enough confidence to communicate with people in a foreign language (except for English?))

a. 非常自信 Very confident

b. 比较自信 Relatively confident

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太自信 Not quite confident

e. 不自信 Unconfident

35. 与对方同时使用家乡方言时，你会感到害羞吗？（Do you feel embarrassed if you and others both speak your hometown dialect?）

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

36. 与对方同时使用武汉方言时，你会感到害羞吗？（Do you feel embarrassed if you and others both speak the Wuhan dialect?）

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

37. 与对方同时使用普通话时，你会感到害羞吗？（Do you feel embarrassed if you and others both speak Mandarin?）

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

38. 与对方（对方为中国人）同时使用英语时，你会感到害羞吗？（Do you feel

embarrassed if you and others (Chinese) both speak English?）

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

39. 与对方（英语母语者）同时使用英语时，你会感到害羞吗？（Do you feel embarrassed if you and others (Anglophone) both speak English?）

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

40. 与对方（对方为中国人）同时使用外语（除英语外）时，你会感到害羞吗？（Do you feel embarrassed if you and others (Chinese) both speak foreign languages (except for English))?

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never

41. 与对方（对方为外语母语者）同时使用外语（除英语外）时，你会感到害羞吗？（Do you feel embarrassed if you and others (foreign language native speakers) both speak their language (except for English?))

a. 经常会 Frequently

b. 偶尔会 Sometimes

c. 不确定 Not sure

d. 不太会 Seldom

e. 不会 Never