Korean parents' attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism between Korean and English in Korea

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KOREAN PARENTS’ ATTITUDES, MOTIVATIONS, 
AND HOME LITERACY PRACTICES TOWARD BILINGUALISM 
BETWEEN KOREAN AND ENGLISH IN KOREA

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the 
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Doctor of Philosophy

In

The Interdepartmental Program in Linguistics

by

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To my mom and dad, and my wife and daughters
for the many sacrifices they made to ensure I had a college education
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to examine Korean parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward their children’s participation in bilingualism in Korean and English in Korea. The success of foreign language learning is influenced by positive attitudes and the level of motivation regarding the target language. Language learners’ attitudes and motivations toward a target language are closely related to their development of language proficiency, and children are often strongly influenced by their parents.

The present study was conducted by the survey that was comprised of four-part Likert-type statements. The participants consisted of parents who have children enrolled in the elementary school located in the center of Korea. Parents of 218 responded to the survey questionnaires on December 2011. For the research questions, a two-way analysis of variance was applied based on the parents’ demographic information, and a multiple regression in the methods was used to examine the correlations among attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices.

The results of this research indicate that most participants had highly favorable attitudes toward bilingualism based on the scores according to both holistic view and fragmented view. Although there was slightly a difference between the two views, the parents’ attitudes toward the holistic view of bilingualism were more favorable than those toward the fragmented view. Also, the parents showed favorable responses to all five motivations toward bilingualism. While the scores for the integrative motivation were the highest, on the other hand, those for the attributions about past failure were the lowest. In terms of home literacy practices, the parents’ responses were positive for all the practices. The formal practices were the preferred activity for children’s bilingualism, whereas the favorableness to CALL practices was the lowest. Attitudes
and motivations can influence each other without a hierarchy. The parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism were measured based on the demographic information such as gender, age, socio-economic status, etc, resulting in a variety of significant findings. Also, attitudes and motivations allow us to predict the favorableness of home literacy practices. The present study proposes some recommendations to policy makers and concludes with several suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Research in the past about attitudes and motivations regarding second or foreign language learning has been conducted from the viewpoint of social phenomena (Dörnyei, 2003). More recently, focus of the concern has shifted to the relationship between language learning and individual proficiency (Dörnyei, 2006). Recently, many researchers have tended to study attitudes and motivations toward language learning in terms of both individual and social phenomena (Dörnyei, & Csizer, 2002; Masgoret, & Gardner, 2003). In this view, the role of language learners’ attitudes and motivations becomes one of the important factors in language learning (Gardner, 1985). Therefore, the success of foreign language learning is influenced by positive attitudes and the level of motivation regarding the target language.

Language learners’ attitudes and motivations toward a target language are closely related to their development of language proficiency, and these are often strongly influenced by those of their parents. Therefore, understanding parents’ attitudes and motivations toward language learning also becomes a means to predict children’s success in language attainment because they can influence parents’ choices related to children’s successful bilingualism. For example, when parents have positive attitudes toward bilingualism, they might provide their children with home literacy practices such as the target language books and audio-visual materials to develop their children’s bilingualism. However, most research on attitudes and motivations toward second or foreign languages and bilingualism has focused on the language learner instead of the parent. Although some studies of parents’ attitudes and motivations toward language learning have been undertaken in bilingual community contexts, in the United States and Canada (Giacchino-Baker
& Piller, 2006; Young & Tran, 1999), there is a lack of such research in monolingual contexts. So this study, in the monolingual context of Korea, will examine parents’ attitudes, motivations and home literacy practices toward their children’s bilingualism.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

English is the most important foreign language in Korea because it is a mandatory subject at the primary and secondary schools. Many Koreans would consider English their second language (Seo, 2008). English skills are a requirement for most middle-class jobs and are often crucial to improving one’s career. English is a common subject on entrance exams of high-ranking secondary schools as well as college and university admissions. Myeongbak Lee, the Korean president, emphasized the importance of bilingualism for all students in 2008 (Seo, 2008). Korean parents are increasingly interested in bilingualism for their children (Shin, 2000). Parents continually pay attention to home literacy behaviors that affect their children’s successful bilingual education (Shin, 1994). Parents’ attitudes and motivations toward language learning are specially important in concepts when predicting children’s level of success in language attainment (Baker, 1992). To the extent that parents definitely understand advantages of bilingualism and how to foster it, their children’s foreign language learning will be more effective through appropriate home literacy practices.

Similarly, to the extent that teachers understand these attitudes, motivations and language learning behaviors at home, they might be able to provide the students with more effective materials and methods to improve their skills at school. Parents’ attitudes, motivations and home literacy practices can be affected by a variety of personal characteristics such as age, gender, educational levels, etc. However, there is little research that has investigated parents’ attitudes
and motivations toward bilingualism in Korea where English as a foreign language is taught in school. Most Korean-English bilingualism research has been conducted in bilingual contexts, such as the U.S., rather than in the monolingual context of Korea; one exception is (Shin, 1994, 2000). The study of parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward the learning of both Korean and English in Korea helps us predict children’s language attainment and school success.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to examine parents’ attitudes, motivations and home literacy practices toward bilingualism in Korean and English in Korea. This study will focus on six goals: (1) to explore how Korean parents define bilingualism in terms of both holistic and fragmented views, (2) to discover which types of motivations Korean parents have toward bilingualism in Korean and English; (3) to compare learners and parents’ responses to motivations toward bilingualism in English and Korean in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts like Korea; (4) to determine if there are correlations between parents’ attitudes and motivations, as well as between these attitudes and motivations and home literacy practices; (5) to investigate which types of home literacy practices Korean parents provide for their children’s successful bilingualism; and (6) to examine the impacts of a variety of factors such as age, gender, educational levels, economic-status, etc.

1.4 Significance of the Study

A learner’s attitudes and motivations toward second or foreign language learning can play a critical role in predicting their language achievements (Ager, 2001; Baker, 1992). Many researchers have focused on studying language learners’ attitudes and motivations toward
learning English as a second or foreign language (Cziser & Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, 2001). However, parents’ attitudes and motivations toward the target language learning are considerably significant in improving their children’s language proficiency (Chou, 2005; Luo & Wiseman, 2000; Ramos, 2007; Tse, 1998) because parents’ attitudes are significantly related to children’s attitudes in terms of language learning (Baker, 1992). Nevertheless, there is little research on parents’ attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism in the contexts where students are learning English as a foreign language. The studies of learners and parents’ attitudes and motivations toward learning languages should be combined for a more effective understanding of the language learning process.

The English-speaking population has continually increased throughout the world, and the number of non-native fluent English speakers has passed the number of native English speakers (Graddol, 2006). In Western Europe, English has become a mandatory subject at most primary and secondary schools and has even become the primary foreign language in the Netherlands (Labrie & Quell, 1997). Many non-English speaking countries have introduced English to primary students. According to Jung and Norton (2002), in over 50 countries, English is taught as an optional school subject in primary schools, and 25 countries have made it a mandatory subject. English education is introduced in Grade 4 in China, Grade 1 in Thailand, Grade 2 in France, Grade 3 in Norway, and Grade 3 in Israel (Jung & Norton, 2002). Recently, in Korea, English has also become a mandatory school subject beginning in Grade 1 of elementary school, so Korean parents are increasingly interested in English education and bilingualism in Korean and English. English is also the medium of instruction in many countries including India.

The findings from this study will help teachers, policy makers, and administrators understand how proficient parents want their children to become, and apply it to the school curriculum. For
example, when teachers and administrators are able to take into account parents’ motivations toward bilingualism, they might offer modified teaching methods to develop children’s motivations based on those of their parents’ motivations. In addition, if teachers and administrators are knowledgeable about types of home literacy practices that parents provide, they might connect them to school work. Parents who understand other parents’ attitudes and their motivations, and a variety of home literacy practices toward bilingualism can have the opportunity to review their own opinions as well as to learn more various and effective home literacy practices to develop their own children’s bilingualism. A variety of home literacy practices can be a useful means for the success of children’s bilingualism in the monolingual context, where the target language learning environment is otherwise available only at schools. Finally, the Korean government, which controls the educational curriculum of all schools from primary to secondary, could incorporate the results of parents’ attitudes and motivations into the new national curriculum, making it easier for children to reach their goals, to achieve school success, and to develop their English language proficiency.

1.5 Definitions of Terms Used

1. Bilingualism - The ability to communicate fluently through two or more languages. A bilingual person has the ability to speak the second languages as competently as the first (Bloomfield, 1933). Recently, a balanced bilingualism that indicates appropriate proficiency in two languages for using them according to different contexts functionally (Baker, 2001).

2. Additive bilingualism – “the addition of a second language and culture is unlikely to replace or displace the first language and culture” (Baker, 2001, p. 58).
3. Subtractive bilingualism – “the learning of a majority second language may undermine a person’s minority first language and culture” (Baker, 2001, p.58).

4. Holistic view of bilingualism - A view defining bilingualism as the ability to speak a second language with the same fluency as the first. In this view, the bilingual’s competence is similar to that of two monolinguals (Baker, 2001, p. 7).

5. Fractional view of bilingualism - An assessment of a bilingual’s competence that takes into account such differences as when, where and with whom they use the two languages (Baker, 2001, p. 9).

6. Attitude – refers to a sum of positive or negative emotions, feelings, and beliefs toward any object, such as people, things and ideas, through evaluations of our own mental states. That is, attitude means self perception and a result of observations of our own behaviors (Bohner & Dickel, 2011).

7. Motivation - a desire or stimulus to initiate behaviors. In this context, these behaviors include language learning and helping or encouraging language learners to sustain continuous learning processes (Ager, 2001).

8. Instrumental motivation - indicates a desire to learn a second language in order to get practical benefits, such as job acquisition and career development (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

9. Integrative motivation - exemplifies a desire to learn a second language in order to interact with other populations and communities (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

10. International posture - refers to a desire to learn a foreign language due to an interest in international affairs, communication with other populations, and overseas work (Yashima, 2009).
11. EFL (English as a foreign language) – learning English in a location where the language is used as the classroom medium in academic contexts, but not in everyday communication (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2002).

12. SLA (second language acquisition) - means “the process of learning another language, separate from your mother language ” (Blake, 2008, p.1).

13. FLL (foreign language learning) – learning a target language not in everyday communication but in academic setting (Mitchell, & Myles, 2004).

14. TWI (two-way immersion) – means a program in which native speakers of English and native speakers in another language can learn academic subjects by two languages in the same classroom (Cloud, Genese, & Hamayan, 2000).


16. Language learning - a process of learning a target language through conscious instruction based on the rules of the language (Mitchell, & Myles, 2004).


19. Interlanguage – “the linguistic creativity of students who are using their latent understanding of the first language to construct meaningful communication in the second language” (Baker, 2001, p. 363).

20. Interlanguage grammar – the linguistic rules created by language learners’ knowledge of their first language on the second language. (Baker, 2001)
1.6 Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded in the theoretical perspective of constructionism, which indicates that “all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practice, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). In constructionism, all meanings are generated by interaction between human beings and the world within a social context (Crotty, 1998). Meanings of the world are organized within this theory through human consciousness and interaction, which help us interpret the world. The meaning created is not simply ‘subjective,’ rather it is conceived meanings of the world and objects are constructed when subjectivity and objectivity are united. So meaning is born through interaction between object and subject, which is called ‘intentionality’ (Crotty, 1998). The goal of constructionism is to produce new useful, unrestricted, fulfilling, and rewarding interpretations instead of claiming one interpretation of the world to be objectively true and valid. Research on constructionism allows us not to maintain the conventional meanings of the object, but to reinterpret the object with potential for a fresh and for an extensive meaning. That is, researchers can interpret the object or the world with a critical perspective (Burr, 2003).

This study of parents’ attitudes toward bilingualism is also based on interpreting social phenomena through interaction between participant and researcher, providing a fresh perspective of an object in the world. I shall to work with constructionism for this study without biases and prejudices derived from subjective opinions and conventional meanings. Moreover, this study attempts to look at the participants’ personal experiences and ideas with the intentionality that meaning is constructed by interaction between subjectivity and objectivity. Participants interpret objective information and experiences through their own subjective experiences or unique
perspective. For this research, Korean parents as participants will respond to the statements in terms of bilingualism based on their experiences and ideas.
CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 The Education System and English Education in Korea

According to Jang (2005), the education system in Korea follows a 6/3/3/4 pattern. The primary school is comprised of six-years and is compulsory. The middle school consists of three-years; two of which are required, and one year is not mandatory. There are three years of high school that are not compulsory, and four years of college or university, neither of which is required. The Korean schools employ both public and private systems, all of which are controlled by the Korean government in all levels of curriculum.

2.1.1 Pre-school Education

Kindergarten education in Korea is not an officially compulsory educational system. However, many Korean parents send their children to private pre-schools (Jang, 2005). Kindergarten education enrolls children aged three to five and teaches five areas of study: physical, linguistic, expressive, inquiry, and social activities. Before entering the primary school, a number of Korean children attend private tutoring institutions, called Hakwon, which provide supplementary services to children throughout their academic careers, from primary to high school. The main teaching areas in private tutoring institutions are English, music, art, and sports. (Jung, 2001).

2.1.2 Elementary School Education

Elementary school education in Korea has been compulsory since 1953. When children become six or seven years old they can enter the primary schools, which are located in their residential areas. Usually elementary children advance to the next grade automatically, because there is not qualifying exam. In the 1980s, the average class consisted of sixty to seventy
students, but recently the Korean government has gradually decreased the class size to thirty five (Jung, 2001). In addition, since the 6th national curriculum in 1997, primary school students have taken English as an official subject, beginning in the 3rd grade (Ministry of Education, 1997). Later, a revision of the 7th national curriculum in 2008 made English education mandatory starting in the 1st grade.

2.1.3 Middle and High School Education

Middle school education in Korea consists of two years of compulsory and one year of optional education. Middle school enrollment is very high because of Korean parents’ passion for education (Jung, 2001). A class in middle schools consists of approximately thirty-five to forty-five students (Jung, & Norton, 2002).

Korean high school education is compulsory but not free. Middle school graduates apply to one of three school types: general, vocational, and technical high schools. Since the entrance exam was abolished at 1990’s, the admission to a high school mainly depends on grade point average (GPA) and records of children’s school life written by teachers. High school students are divided into two parts: some students enter the high level universities and others get a job upon graduation (Jung, & Norton, 2002).

2.2 Bilingualism, Attitudes, and Motivations

2.2.1 Bilingualism

The term bilingualism refers to the ability to speak two languages, but it is defined differently by different scholars (Baker, 2001; Grosjean, 1989). While some theorists argued that second language ability of a bilingual person is as proficient as their first (Bloomfield, 1933;
Cloud, Genese, & Hamayan, 2000), Grosjean demonstrated that a bilingual is an individual who fluently and functionally uses both first and second languages in various contexts. The definition of bilingualism has been flexible. Cummins (1977) proposed two theoretical perspectives of bilingualism: additive and subtractive. Additive bilingualism occurs when both the first and second languages are developed without the loss of the first. The view is similar to the holistic theory of complimentary relationships between two languages, for which Baker (1992, 2001) argued. That is, a bilingual is a person who learns a second language without competition between two languages. On the other hand, subtractive bilingualism means that while a child learns the target language, he/she loses the first language. Baker’s fractional view of bilingualism is also similar to subtractive theory, in that both involve competition between languages. For example, if Spanish is a second language of a bilingual, scores on Spanish language skill tests are compared against scores achieved by monolingual speakers. Canadian French immersion programs are a good example of additive bilingualism. Learners in these programs can develop language skills of both languages because their heritage language is still valued (Wu, 2005). In this language learning environment, direct exposure to and experience with a target language and its speakers are very important for learning two languages at the same time (Gardner, 2001). On the contrary, immigrants in the United States who seek an English monolingual environment are likely to lose their heritage languages because it is hard for their children to experience them. This is an example of subtractive bilingualism.
2.2.2 Attitudes and Motivations

2.2.2.1 Definitions of Attitudes

According to Bohner and Dickel (2011), an attitude is defined as a belief or thought toward any object, person, or event based on judgment. One example of attitude is self perception, which is a result of observations of our own behaviors. Also, Gardner (1985) argued that attitude is defined as “an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of individual beliefs or opinions about referent” (p. 9).

According to Baker (1992), attitudes consist of three components: cognition, affect, and readiness for action. Cognition comprises thoughts and beliefs. If, in the United States, minority language learners from Spanish-speaking populations have favorable attitudes toward the Spanish language, they might value their heritage language and culture maintenance. The affect is related to feelings or emotions for the object, such as love or hate, and passion for language learning and use. Both components of attitude, cognition and effect, are not always consistent with each other. That is to say, although a person might have a favorable attitude toward English language learning, he or she may have negative feelings about the instruction. Third, readiness for action indicates a tendency of language behavior\(^1\) in relation to a person or object in a specific context. It is connected with cognition and effect components. For example, in the United States, native Spanish-speaking parents who have favorable attitudes toward maintenance of their heritage languages and culture might send their children to bilingual schools where English and Spanish are both taught (Ramos, 2007).

\(^1\) Language behavior indicates that “both how humans behave when they use language and also how they behave towards others using language, or even towards the communication system being used” (Ager, 2001, p. 2).
Baker (1992) contends that attitudes and orientation can not be distinguished from each other for social world. He documented that language attitudes consist of two main elements: one element involves an instrumental and integrative orientation, and the other indicates preservation of a minority language. An instrumental orientation of a language means a desire to promote social knowledge and to gain practical advantages such as a good career or a better job opportunity. The orientation is also overlapped with the need for achievement. That is to say, an instrumental orientation is related to self success and achievement. The concepts of security and survival are connected to maintenance of a minority language (Baker, 1992, p. 32). On the other hand, an integrative orientation is related to social affiliation. An integrative attitude of a language indicates a desire to identify other language communities and to promote interpersonal relationships with them through fluent communication.

Attitudes, according to Ager (2001), are one significant component to understand motives, such as the objectives and goals of language groups in child education planning and types of language behavior of parents. As Baker demonstrated three elements of attitudes above, Ager suggested that attitudes consist of three components: knowledge, emotion, and potential action. Knowledge indicates the human being’s thoughts and knowledge of the objects in language use. Emotion consists of good or bad feelings toward the things, and potential action is made up of the behaviors in relation to the objects.

Attitudes can be formed on the basis of feelings and beliefs about objects and past actions toward them (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; 2011). Eagly and Chaiken demonstrated that attitudes form and change on the basis of implicit and explicit processes and attitudes. While explicit attitudes (attitudes in which activation can be governed by conscious processes) change more quickly through fast-learning systems and some degree of information, implicit attitudes
(attitudes in which activation is unconsciously controlled) change more slowly through slow-learning processes and sufficient information. Animate human behavior, different from inanimate mechanical behavior, is governed by internal goals. Attitude change is directed by these goals (Pyers, 2004). More recently, social psychologists have argued that attitudes and social contexts are inextricably related to each other (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). In other words, attitudes can be formed and changed, not through individual cognition but through social consensus from social interaction.

2.2.2.2 Definitions of Motivations

According to MacIntyre (2002), motivation indicates a thing or a condition. It tends to be motivated by individuals’ behaviours. For example, “people are motivated to eat, play games, work, socialize on so on, with potentially hundreds or thousands of more specific motives that could be cited” (p. 46). Ager (2001) defined motivation as a language behavior. Motivation prompts learners’ desire to achieve the target language learning and provides a stimulus for continuous learning activity. Motivation consists of three aspects: goals, attitudes, and motives. Concepts of three motivational components “are directed towards understanding why people make choices, and most are aimed at reducing the complexity of the human situation by trying to identify key variables” (p. 7).

Goal theory, which is one of three main elements to define motivation, consists of three types of goals: ideal, objective, and target\(^2\) (Ager, 2001). According to Locke and Latham (2006), when we have high and particular goals, higher performance of behaviors tends to be led.

However, all motivations cannot be explained by the goal theory. For instance, motives such as

\(^2\) There are three types of goal: “an ideal (vision, intention) is an idealistic future state, unlikely to be achieved but essential as an end-point towards which planning is ultimately directed; an objective (mission, purpose) is a way of achieving the vision, or at least a realizable ‘end’ on the way towards it; a target is a precise, achievable, identifiable point on the way towards the objective. Achievement of the target is measurable and often quantifiable.” (p. 8)
parental expectation (a parents’ desire for their children’s skill advancement in the target language), the experience of success (better efforts for high achievement), imitation (emulation of a leader whose success one hopes to aspire), and self-esteem (a desire to promote our own skills) are more likely to be explained by needs more than goals. The satisfaction of needs that can explain these motives is one type of goal theory. When the concept of the need is included into goal theory, it becomes more useful to explain seven motives such as identity, ideology, image creation, insecurity, inequality, instrumental, and integrative motives. However, not all motivations can be explained by goal theory.

Out of these seven learning motives, two motives- integrative and instrumental- are traditionally and classically the main components for foreign language learning (Gardner, 1985). While the instrumental motive focuses language behaviors for the improvement of life chances, career development, and the opportunity of better job, the integrative motive focuses on learning language as a lingua franca for fluent communication with family and other communities. Identity is related to ethnic nationalism, which indicates a motive of an ethnic group to remain a nation. Traditions, habits, and life patterns of the community are expressed through ethnic culture of a social group, and language helps members of a community achieve everyday communication. Inequality means the desire of the disadvantaged groups to enter the mainstream society to free themselves from discriminations in relations to language, gender, and ethnicity. That is, minority groups who have experienced discriminations in relation to the mainstream society might feel the need to learn the dominant language. Ideology refers to acceptance of diversity and multiculturalism between our own language and culture and those of other countries. It can provide people with motivation to understand other cultures and to learn a second or foreign language. Image indicates the creation of other countries’ favorable views
toward our own culture, traditions, history, and religion as well as acceptance of diversity like the case of ideology. People may feel the need to learn a second or foreign language in order to understand other cultures and countries. Finally, insecurity indicates the fear of losing the heritage language and culture, and destruction of tradition and history. The fear of language might inspire heritage language learning to reinforce cultural identity. These motives above might explain general reasons why bilingual programs can be successful. Goal theory, with associated attitudes, is a significant component in studying language learning motivation in social psychology. Proficiency in the target language is itself a goal for learners (Irie, 2003).

Second language learning activities play a critical role in interaction with other communities in bilingual and bicultural contexts. According to Gardner (1985) and Dörnyei (2003), motivation is the combination of positive attitudes to language learning with the desire to reach a language learning goal. Gardner demonstrated four components of attitudes and motivations for successful language learning: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, and instrumental orientation. Integrativeness refers to the desire to communicate and interact with other communities and members. Attitudes toward the learning situation refer to favorable or unfavorable evaluative reactions toward a teacher or course. Motivation is viewed as the desire to learn the language, and it influences second language acquisition directly. Finally, instrumental orientation means that the reason an individual decides to learn a second language is for the associated practical advantages, such as a better job and career development. However, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) argued that while integrative motivation was emphasized more than instrumental motivation in the SLL context, instrumental motivation in the FLL context was higher because the target language is used as the medium of ordinary communication and as the medium of academic communication and learning in schools.
Dörnyei (2006) extended the concepts of language learning motivation developed by Gardner and his colleagues based on the foreign language learning (FLL) context. While Gardner (1985) defined second language learning motivation in the social environment, Dörnyei (2006) argued for understanding language learning motivation as “a multi-faceted construct that comprises a number of more general, trait-like and more situation-specific, state-like components that direct and energize learning behavior” (p. 50). This interpretation motivation is more dynamic than static within a situation. New perspectives in foreign language learning motivations contain approaches of the classroom environment because a target language is used and learned in an academic learning situation.

Dörnyei (1990) conceptualized four components of motivation in order to achieve the goals such as development of children’s foreign language proficiency and their bilingualism in a FLL context: instrumental motivational subsystem, integrative motivational subsystem, need for achievement, and attributions about past failures. The instrumental motivational subsystem addresses the goals of FLL for practical advantages like career opportunities. The integrative motivational subsystem indicates a favorable disposition toward the target language group and fluent interaction with the community. In a more abstract sense, it refers to interests in other languages and cultural groups and their ways of life. In other words, four aspects can particularly be described: interest in the target language, culture and members; a desire to broaden one’s view; a desire to interact with other communities; and a desire for new stimuli and challenges. Need for achievement indicates the goals to achieve academic works such as getting good grades and entering competitive schools. Attributions about past failures refer to the goals of FLL influenced by bad learning experiences. Irish EFL learners also showed that specific learning experiences to the target language influenced their intrinsic motivational process (Ushioda, 2001). Instrumental
motivational subsystem and need for achievement were more significant than integrative motivational subsystem because the target language in FLL contexts is learned in an academic setting. That is, while foreign language learners are likely to have interests related to practical motivations, second language learners may have favorable disposition to integrative motivation because of differences of language learning environments (Oxford, 1996).

Recently Dörnyei (2005) demonstrated the concept of L2 motivational self system as contrast with Gardner’s (1985) ‘Integrativeness.’ According to Dörnyei, every language learner has ‘Ideal L2 Self,’ which refers to one’s ideal self as the representation of all desires to achieve the target language learning. In other words, ‘Ideal L2 Self’ is the mastery of an L2. Another L2 motivation dimension is ‘Ought-to L2 Self,’ which refers to the desire to downsize the distinctions between the learner’s real self and imagined or ought-to L2 selves (Cziser & Dörnyei, 2005). However, my study is based on Dörnyei’s original approaches that consist of four variables of motivations because it is not about learners but their parents.

2.2.2.3 Distinctions between Attitudes and Motivations

The researchers discussed above preferred various definitions of motivation and attitudes. Baker (1992) did not distinguish attitudes from motivation. He treated motivation, attitudes, and orientation that can influence language behavior. In contrast, Ager (2001) contended that there is a hierarchy between motivation and attitudes. That is, motivation influences attitudes that affect language learning behavior.

Ager (2001) and Baker (1992) argued for a hierarchy between attitude and motivation, whereas Gardner and Lambert (1972) demonstrated that both can influence each other. Baker considered both attitudes and motivations that can lead to language behavior. Ager (2001)
demonstrated that motivation can influence attitudes towards language learning activities. Gardner (1985) especially emphasized interrelationship between attitudes and motivation. For example, positive attitudes toward language learning can influence motivation for second language learning and then affect second language achievement. Attitudes can also be influenced by integrative motivation, and affect second language achievement in different ways. In other words, both attitudes and motivation are important components that can influence the target language attainments in different ways.

The relationships between attitudes and motivation can influence language behavior. For example, when we identify parents’ attitudes and motivations toward the target language, we can predict their language behaviors in the home context. That is, parents’ attitudes are very useful in predicting children’s language learning attainment. Parents’ attitudes toward bilingual education can provide insight into the potential success of their children’s attainment of success in bilingual education.

2.2.3 Why Parents’ Attitudes and Motivations Are Useful Concepts to Understand Children’s Foreign/Second Language Attainment

Concepts of parents’ attitudes and motivations are important in understanding children’s language attainment because they influence parents’ language behavior with regards to children’s language learning (Tse, 1998). In other words, parents’ attitudes toward languages considerably affect children’s attitudes (Baker, 1992). For example, Chou’s (2005) examination of Taiwanese EFL learners’ attitudes and motivations toward learning English as a foreign language, found that university students with higher positive attitudes to English learning produced higher scores on self-reported English proficiency. Scores on attitudes and motivations toward English learning were higher for the Taiwanese learners who experienced more parental
encouragement. The results indicate that there are interconnections between learners’ attitudes and their parental attitudes toward language learning.

Parents, especially mothers, play an important role in developing their children’s language because they serve as significant language learning models for their children (Bartram, 2006; Luo & Wiseman, 2000). For example, when parents have favorable attitudes toward bilingualism, they might select bilingual schools where their children can be exposed to a learning environment with both languages and become bilingual successfully. These parents are likely to provide their children a variety of family literacy practices such as shared reading of books, hiring tutors, participating in children’s learning activities, watching TV programs, etc, because they have specific motivations toward children’s language learning. These parents’ language behaviors might strongly influence their children’s second or foreign language attainment. Therefore, parent attitudes and motivations can be a significant way to understand children’s language attainment.

For example, Giacchino-Baker and Piller (2006) examined parents’ attitudes toward two-way immersion (TWI) found that the majority of parents were highly committed to place their children in the TWI programs. In the study conducted at the border region between Mexico and California, 30 parents from various ethnic backgrounds were surveyed and interviewed in the second year of a TWI program. Two thirds of participants (63.3%) used Spanish as their home and heritage language, and the rest of them (36.7%) used English. Almost 10% of the participants spoke both languages, English and Spanish. The education levels of English-speaking parents were higher than those of Spanish-speaking parents. Both groups agreed that

\(^3\) Participants of the study varied ethnically: Latino (72.4%), Anglo (20.7%), African American (6.9%), and Native American (3.4%).
TWI programs contribute to the development of second language proficiency and children’s bilingualism, children’s biliteracy ability, and instrumental advantages of bilingualism, like good careers and better jobs. Regarding their children’s success in the program, both English-speaking and Spanish-speaking parents emphasized family literacy practices, such as speaking in both English and Spanish at home, helping their children with English and Spanish homework, reading in both English and Spanish, and watching TV in English and Spanish, regardless of their different ethnic and linguistic backgrounds.

Parents’ favorable attitudes toward TWI encouraged them to enroll their children in the program. These attitudes and motivations allowed parents to select the TWI program and motivated them to provide their children with a variety of family literacy practices at home. Parents’ language behaviors, based on their attitudes and motivation, might considerably influence children’s language learning. Therefore, parent attitudes and motivation will be an important means in predicting children’s language attainment.

According to Bartram’s study (2006), parents’ attitudes toward foreign language learning can significantly influence children’s motivation and achievement. In order to provide some indication of the relationships between parental influences and children’s attitudes toward language learning, Bartram included 411 foreign language students of French, German, and English participated in this study. The foreign language learners attended three data collection activities. In the first stage, all the participants were surveyed through written questionnaires relevant to language attitude and influences. Subsequently, about half of them participated in the second stage to comment on the questions more thoroughly. In the third stage, about 80 students consisting of 14 focus groups attended the interviews.
The findings showed that parents strongly influenced children’s understanding of language status and importance. In terms of parental positive and negative attitudes toward children’s foreign language learning, the results of this study demonstrated that the German pupils (98.5%) were more likely to have positive attitude toward foreign language learning than English (48.2%) and French pupils (82.2%). There were a variety of ways in which parents affected children’s attitudes. Some students believed that their parents favorably influence their own attitudes because they helped them with their homework, gave them encouragement, and provided role model status. The parents’ value system is especially important due to their language proficiency, which is useful for their children to develop their foreign language skills. Interestingly, parents’ language proficiency also influenced children’s attitudes. If parents lack language skills, children recognize that the language is not important. In other words, limitations of parental knowledge can be a cause of failure or success in foreign language learning, so parents have a significant effect on children’s understanding of language significance and status (Oladejo, 2006).

However, the attitudes of some parents toward their children’s foreign language learning were not positive, because they thought that other academic subjects, such as math and science, were more important for their children than their foreign language proficiency. Parents’ attitudes can be a cause of failure in children’s foreign language learning and programs. Also, Cunningham (2001) demonstrated that parents’ attitudes and behaviors can strongly influence their children’s performances.

2.2.4 Research on Parent Language Attitudes and Motivations in Second and Foreign Language Contexts

Parents’ language attitudes and motivations might be influenced separately by second and foreign language contexts. However, there is not clear evidence to distinguish between the
extents to which both second and foreign language contexts should be considered in researching parents’ language attitudes and motivations. A great deal of studies (Craig, 1996; Giacchino-Baker, & Piller, 2006) in relation to parents’ attitudes and motivations were conducted in second language learning contexts, whereas much less research was implemented in foreign language contexts (Chalak, & Kassaian, 2010; Dörnyei, & Csizer, 2002).

2.2.4.1 Research on Parent Language Attitudes and Motivations in Second Language Context

Many studies of parent attitudes and motivations toward bilingual education, conducted in the second language context of the United States, demonstrated that the majority of parents had favorable attitudes toward bilingual education and children’s bilingualism, whereas parent responses of motivation were a little bit different with respect to a few factors (Craig, 1996; Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006; Lambert & Taylor, 1996).

According to the hypothesis that attitudes toward bilingualism of both Spanish- and English-speaking parents might be similar, but they would differ in the reasons for sending their children to the two-way immersion programs. Craig (1996) explored the relationships between two language groups’ attitudes toward bilingualism and the reasons of enrolling their children in the two-way immersion (TWI) programs. The parents of 194 students enrolled in TWI-provider elementary school in Metro County had different ethnic and language backgrounds. Both Spanish- and English-speaking parental groups held favorable views toward bilingualism and agreed with all aspects of bilingualism in TWI programs: children’s cross-cultural awareness, the importance of English proficiency in American society, pride, and better job opportunities. However, there was a significant difference between the attitudes of the two groups toward the minority language. While the Spanish-speaking parents advocated for their heritage language
maintenance, the English-speaking parents were not positive to the question because English, a dominant language in the United States, is used as the medium of everyday communication. That is, the native English-speaking parents did not feel the need for specific heritage language maintenance, since their children’s English would easily be maintained regardless of it. Two variables, parental ethnic and language background, influenced parent attitudes, also.

Similarly, in Giacchino-Baker and Piller’s (2006) study that examined parent attitudes toward TWI programs, both English- and Spanish-speaking parents selected TWI for their children because of advantages of the program: the development of another language proficiency other than English, children’s biliteracy ability, and instrumental advantages of bilingualism toward achieving good careers and better jobs that help children enter a bilingual society and a multilingual world. However, Spanish-speaking parents stressed the maintenance of their heritage language and communication within the family as motivation of enrolling their children in TWI, whereas English dominant parents did not share these concerns. Immigrant parents who live in the English mainstream society hope that their children will learn their heritage language and culture in TWI and communicate with family through their heritage language because children can gradually lose their native language and culture (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006). In the same context Wu (2005) found that immigrant Chinese parents from Taiwan, China, and Hong Kong to the U.S. agreed with their children’s bilingualism and the importance of their heritage language maintenance and of learning English for academic success. That is, there were gaps between immigrant parents and mainstream parents in terms of motivation of dual language education. These parent motivations were also influenced by parental ethnic and language background.
In order to examine perceptions of Cuban American mothers of foreign language immersion programs based on social class\textsuperscript{4}, Lambert and Taylor (1996) interviewed 108 Cuban American mothers regarding the reasons why parents selected a foreign language immersion program. In response, working-class mothers emphasized the development of children’s English proficiency and hoped their children to be assimilated into U.S. society successfully. They were not concerned about maintenance or loss of the heritage language and culture and considered Spanish proficiency as an instrumental value to communicate in a specific context like Miami. In contrast, mothers of middle-class families emphasized the development of Spanish fluency as an important agent for their children to become bilingual and to identify with their own heritage language and culture. That is, based on social class, parents’ motivation was different. Working-class families that emphasized economic success and assimilation in American society focused only on the development of English language proficiency, regardless of loss of their heritage language and culture, because they probably believed that English fluency would allow their children to get better jobs and to overcome potential financial difficulties. On the other hand, middle-class families that did not experience financial problems in their daily life emphasized maintenance of their heritage language and culture and their children’s bilingualism.

The four studies discussed above, explored parent attitudes and motivation in second language context, showed that parents had alternative motivations to second or foreign language learning beyond traditional and classical components such as integrative and instrumental motivations. That is, language minority groups (Craig, 1996; Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006; Wu, 2005) and middle-class groups (Lambert & Taylor, 1996) stressed maintenance of their

\textsuperscript{4} In this study, a working-class group consists of mothers with children who are involved into a free lunch program; a middle-class group comprises mothers with children who are not qualified for a free lunch program.
heritage language and culture. These parental attitudes and motivations were influenced by factors such as ethnic and language background as well as social class.

2.2.4.2 Research on Parent Language Attitudes and Motivations in Foreign Language Context

Because there is little research that has explored learners’ parents’ language attitudes and motivations in foreign language contexts, research examples in this section were based on the studies that examined learners’ language attitudes and motivations. Although participants in the study were children, not parents, the findings from these studies might be pertinent to those from research of parents’ language attitudes and motivations.

In the foreign language learning context of Hungary, Dörnyei (1990) conceptualized that both need for achievement and attributions about past failures, among four components of motivation in FLL context, were alternative motivations beyond the classical motivation. Because a foreign language is used only as the classroom medium in foreign language context, children focused on academic achievement. Similarly, in the same context Dörnyei and Csizer (2002) found children’s new motivations for learning the foreign languages. Although the majority of Hungarian children agreed with foreign language learning in terms of five motivational components: integrativeness, instrumentality, direct contact with L2 speakers, cultural interest, and vitality of L2 community, the documentation of a ‘language globalization’ process was a motivation that predominantly influenced children’s L2 motivation. Children were influenced by the current international trend of world English learning.

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5 There were four components of motivation: Instrumental MotivationalSubsystem, Integrative Motivational Subsystem, Need for Achievement, and Attributions about Past Failures.
6 The process of a language globalization indicates a trend that while World English learning is increasing, non-World English learning is declining. (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2002, p. 454)
In another European context, Netherlands, Dronkers (1993) conducted a study in order to explore the reasons why the English language education grew in the Netherlands. In 1989, 237 students who enrolled in four schools where both the International Baccalaureate (IB) and the pre-university education (VWO) programs were provided, were interviewed based on four hypotheses\(^7\). The causes of growth of English language education\(^8\) were not social classes or higher level education, but the cohesion between the economies of Europe that has influenced the internationalization of education and the development of a cosmopolitan culture among the Dutch elites.

Gardner’s concept of integrativeness was replaced with motivation of international posture in learning English in a Japanese context (Yashima, 2002, 2009; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008). The researchers commonly agreed that the concept of integrativeness is not appropriate in Japanese as a foreign language context. Japanese learners’ attitudes toward English foreign language learning were favorable with international posture as a motivation, rather than integration to the target community. The researchers argued that international posture refers to an interest in international affairs and a willingness to communicate with intercultural partners and to stay or work overseas. Learners’ dimension of international posture can influence motivations as well as language proficiency in English. The motivation also influenced self-confidence in communication with the target language speakers because the context that L2 learners can directly interact with native speakers, can favorably influence attitudes and motivations (Baker &

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\(^7\) Four hypotheses of this research are following: (a) the growth of English language education in Netherlands is related to a consequence of the increased cohesion between the countries by part of the EC, and the resulting development of a cosmopolitan culture by part of the Dutch elite; (b) inequality of opportunity in education; (c) the social class of the student’s family; (d) development of the intended level of education. (Dronkers, 1993, p. 288).

\(^8\) Originally, the English language education in the Netherlands was not for ordinary Dutch children, but for particular Dutch children who have lived outside the country and are staying at the Netherlands temporary. Nevertheless, schools that have English language education programs were steadily increased in the 1980s.
MacIntyre, 2000). Chalak and Kassaian (2010) explored that Iranian EFL learners’ attitudes and motivations toward learning English. They found that the EFL learners held favorable attitudes toward the target language and community and showed both instrumental and integrative motivations.

Also, Oladejo (2006) examined parents’ attitudes towards bilingual education policy in Taiwan. The sample of this study consisted of 1,160 Taiwanese parents with children enrolled in the primary and secondary schools. A questionnaire translated in Chinese was sent home with students to give to their parents. Out of the 1,800 questionnaires, 1,200 were returned. To analyze the collected data, Oladejo used ANOVA tests and factors such as gender, age, and income levels. The results of this study indicated that gender was not related to parents’ attitudes toward bilingual education. However, there was a significant difference between age and parents’ opinions on the statements claiming that foreign language learning would negatively influence children’s first language proficiency. Older parents were more likely to agree than younger parents (r = .078, p < .01). The parents’ income levels were significantly related to responses to the statement, “The English instruction as a foreign language needs to be conducted from kindergarten” (r = .065, p < .05). Lower income parents were less likely to agree than higher income parents. In the same question, the highly educated parents had more positive response than the lower educated parents.

On the other hand, the majority of the parents (95.3%) had favorable attitudes toward the statement that children (in Taiwan) learn English as a foreign language (versus a second language). In terms of the question on introduction of English as a foreign language, many parents agreed with the introduction of English from the kindergarten level (32.7%). On the statements claiming that foreign language learning negatively influences children’s knowledge of
the heritage language and culture, many parents (around 50%) disagreed. Approximately 40% of parents agreed with the statement in favor of employing native-speaking English teachers. In Taiwan, the majority of the parents preferred English as a foreign language and the introduction of English instruction from the kindergarten level, because in order to promote proficiency, parents and educators should increase instructional time and curriculum providing the opportunity to be exposed to an English learning environment.

Researching parents’ attitudes and motivations toward second or foreign language learning is a very complex process in which attitudes and motivations are not clearly defined and distinguished from each other (Ager, 2001; Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985). It is not easy to decide to what extent second and foreign language contexts can be treated separately in researching parents’ attitudes and motivations because the results from second language context cannot be transferred perfectly to foreign language context. However, it is true that parents’ attitudes and motivations can be considered separately in second and foreign language contexts.

Instrumental and integrative motivations were commonly stressed in second and foreign language contexts so that two traditional motivations from one context might be used in the other (Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner, 1985; Kizitepe, 2000). However, parents’ language attitudes and motivations, like maintenance of the heritage language in second language context, are unlikely to be transferred to foreign language context where the target language is used as an everyday language. Parents might believe that their heritage language and culture, which children are exposed to in their daily life, will be preserved automatically. These components of parents’ language attitudes and motivations were also influenced by a variety of factors such as gender, ethnic background, language background, and social class.
In contrast, motivation like need for achievement might have advantages more in foreign language context than second language context because the foreign language is used only in the classroom. In addition, there were other components of motivation to foreign language context: attributions about past failures, the cohesion between the economies of Europe, the development of a cosmopolitan culture among the Dutch elites, the documentation of a ‘language globalization’ process, international posture, etc. Therefore, researchers need to interpret and conceptualize new components of parent attitudes and motivation as having the interest of contexts as well as a variety of factors that can influence them.

Even though attitudes and motivations are not clearly defined and distinguished, both concepts are a good means to understand children’s language attainment through parents’ language behaviors. In addition, attitudes and motivations can be treated similarly or separately according to second and foreign language contexts. In these perspectives, parents’ attitudes and motivations toward foreign language learning, in an English foreign language context like South Korea, might be a good way to understand whether or not children can attain the target language because they strongly influence parents’ language behaviors such as program selection and family literacy practices at home. Nevertheless, there is little research that has studied parents’ attitudes and motivations in foreign language contexts. Thus, the goal of the research is to explore parent language attitudes and motivations for children’s successful bilingualism.

2.3 The Impact of Home Literacy Practices upon Children’s Language Learning

Home literacy refers to experience with various literacy-related activities, like knowledge usage processes (Leseman & de Jong, 1998). Sénéchal et al (1998) demonstrated that home literacy activities are divided into two forms: formal and informal. Formal literacy practices refer to activities in which language learners focus on understanding print itself. For instance, while
children read a book with their parents, they are able to experience the formal print. On the other hand, while shared book reading with parents, children can develop comprehension of the message or story involved in the book. This is the informal printed literacy. Home literacy practices are divided into a variety of activities based on purposes, participants, and types of interaction: reading, writing, school-related activities like homework, entertainment like reading game rules, religious activities like reading Bibles, domestic chores such as reading and writing shopping lists and paying bills, and communication by reading and writing letters, notes, and holiday cards (Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, p. 316). These literacy practices at home can directly influence children’s language learning and school performance (Hammer, Miccio, & Wagestaff, 2003).

2.3.1 Research on a Variety of Home Literacy or Literacy-related Practices Which Influence Language Learning and School Performance

2.3.1.1 Family Literacy Practices and Constructive Cooperation and School Performance

Many researchers found that interactions with home literacy environments, including various prints, family members, community, etc, contribute to development of literacy skills and knowledge on a target language (Leseman & de Jong, 1998; Yuet-Han & McBride-Chang, 2005). Recently, computer-based literacy learning practices have emerged as new and effective language learning activities at home (Tschirner, 2001).

First, a variety of prints such as books, shopping lists, notes, various cards, newspapers, magazines, a TV schedule, religious texts like the Bible, observation of parent reading and writing are some of the most basic components of learning all target languages involving a first language and second or foreign at home because the language learners can easily experience these materials in their daily life (Leseman & de Jong, 1998). Learners who experience a variety
of prints might be likely to be familiar with literacy of the target language and have favorable attitudes toward the language learning activities. For example, Heath (1983) found that while children from a mainstream community achieved their schoolwork successfully, children from working-class communities were not successful because the latter had not experienced home literacy practices such as language characters on the wall, cloth books, storytelling from parent, and interaction with adults like the former. Home literacy activities among the communities were influenced by socioeconomic status (SES) and impacted children’s school performance differently.

Interactions with others such as family, peers, neighbors, etc, were especially effective for children to improve their literacy knowledge and skills, which are processes of knowledge construction (Dagenais & Day, 1999; Ramos, 2007). Shared-book reading and joint writing with parents positively influenced their children’s literacy learning and school performance (Aram & Levin, 2002; Sénéchal, 2006). Some people argued that joint writing activities were stronger than shared-book reading with parents in developing children’s literacy abilities (Bus, Van Ijzendoorn, & Pellegrini, 1995; Yuet-Han & McBride-Chang, 2005). In contrast, Sénéchal and LeFevre (2002) in a 5-year longitudinal study in Canadian context demonstrated that while children’s own book reading was effective for their improvement of vocabulary and listening skills, shared-book reading with parents did not influence children’s language and emergent literacy 

9. Home literacy practices such as storybooks and shared reading did not significantly affect development of children’s emergent literacy.

Interaction among siblings (García, 2005) and peers (Haworth, et al, 2006) was another important process of children’s literacy skills and knowledge development. Older peers often

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9 Emergent literacy skills mean a developmental reading ability before and after schooling can influence success of children’s reading performance in the school (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998).
play as a critical role in developing bilingualism of other children in bilingual or multilingual contexts because younger peers observe and imitate language use of older peers (Haworth, et al, 2006). Language competence of elder siblings was also a good means to predict literacy skills and knowledge of younger siblings (Stainthorp & Hughes, 2000). Cooperation between siblings was more significant than cooperation with parents or relatives during language learning (Duursma, Romero-Contreras, Szuber, Proctor, Snow, August, & Calderon, 2007).

2.3.1.2 Community Cultural Literacy and School Performance

There are three components of family culture that affects home literacy practices: parents’ attitudes toward language literacy, community culture of a target language, and communication between parents and school. Parents’ attitudes toward literacy practices for learning their heritage language are one of the most important factors to predict children’s literacy proficiency (Li & Rao, 2000; Stainthorp & Hughes, 2000; Tozcu & Coady, 2003). Li and Rao (2000) found that parents of Chinese preschoolers in three different contexts showed various attitudes and literacy practices of children’s Chinese language learning in various sociocultural societies which languages more than one are used. While parents from Beijing emphasized moral education, parents from Hong Kong and Singapore focused on the entertainment function of the language. The parents created different literacy practices based on their attitudes. For example, the majority of parents from Hong Kong and Singapore provided their children with writing practices of Chinese characters at home, whereas parents from Beijing gave their children more opportunities to read books.

The majority of parents in Beijing and Hong Kong who hope their children learn Chinese, more effectively, bought or borrowed Chinese books once a month, but many parents in Singapore did so only twice a year or did not do so at all. Children in Beijing and Hong Kong
had more opportunities to read books. Different literacy practices among the three communities were strongly related to the prediction of children’s literacy learning. Children who were frequently exposed to home reading tend to have more advantages to develop their heritage language literacy skills such as vocabulary, phonological awareness, and word reading (Kim, 2009). However, parents’ teaching at home was not effective for their children to improve the literacy skills. The frequent experiences to book reading and shared-reading book with parents at home are significant for children to become bilingual in the bilingual or multilingual contexts (Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010). Parents believed that frequent access to books and literacy experiences through library visiting helps children understand book story and connect their experiences from the book reading to other contexts.

In addition, higher Armenian parents’ motivations toward school success brought stronger learners’ reading activities in learning Turkish as their first language rather than Armenian as a second language because of practical advantages like getting a job (Tozcu & Coady, 2003). Parents’ beliefs about their children’s reading proficiency were closely related to phonology sensitivity and word reading in kindergarten (Stephenson, Parrila, Geogiou, & Kirby, 2008). Even Halle et al, argued that parent beliefs rather than parent behaviors can positively influence children’s language achievement (Halle, Kurtz-Costes, & Mahoney, 1997), although there is considerable gap between parental beliefs toward language and their language behaviors (Yu, 2010). Parents’ attitudes and beliefs can influence their literacy behaviors at home and then help to predict their children’s language development. As stated above, Heath (1983) argued for the relationship between community cultural literacy and types of home literacy practices and school success.
Frequent communication between parents and school becomes one of the main factors to conduct children’s literacy development and academic success (Brooker, 2002). For instance, parents with more frequent communication with teachers helped their children have longer communication and more literacy learning experiences in class. Parental communicational interaction with schools contributes to understanding of values on family literacy practices and formation of children’s confidence about language learning and school success (Anderson, 2007). When communication programs between school and home are often opened, we can predict children’s successful language learning and academic achievement.

2.3.1.3 Socio-economic Status (SES) and School Performance

SES of family can considerably influence children’s literacy development and academic achievement because of the differences of the quality and frequency of family literacy practices in terms of economic issues (Hecht, Burgess, Torgesen, Wagner, & Rashotte, 2000; Lonigan, Burgess, Anthony & Barker, 1998). Children from low social status environment do not experience a lot of printed materials at home and, in turn, often meet reading difficulty later (Storch, & Whitehurst, 2001). Concerning with parental involvement like shared book reading, there exist socio-economic gaps between affluent home environment and poor surroundings (Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002; Phillips, & Lonigan, 2009). Home literacy practices are closely related to SES because family literacy environment at home can be a key explanation of literacy performance and largely be predicted by SES. However, a lot of parents tend to provide supportive family literacy environment, despite lower SES (Drummond & Stipek, 2004).
2.3.2 Family Literacy Practices and School Performance in Bilingual and Multilingual Learning Contexts

Acquisition of a heritage language at home contributes to success of the second language development, positively (Goldenberg, Rueda, & August, 2006; Hancock, 2002). Home literacy experiences in a heritage language contribute to development of the target language reading of language-minority students (Hancock, 2002). On the other hand, home literacy practices to the target language bring children’s reading motivations, literacy development of the second language, and academic success (Koskinen, Blum, Bisson, Phillips, Creamer, & Baker, 2000; Monzó & Rueda, 2001). Shared-book reading in classrooms and home rereading activities helped children have more peer interaction and increase reading comprehension and motivation of the target language learning (Koskinen, Blum, Bisson, Phillips, Creamer, & Baker, 2000). Shared-book reading activities with parents at home in a target language also developed vocabulary and content comprehension (Kalia, 2009).

Parental assistance with homework played a critical role in ensuring family involvement in children’s heritage and second language learning (Peterson & Heywood, 2007). The parents in the study argued that minimal homework rather than large amounts of homework was more successful for language learning because the high levels of stress brought on by excessive homework could be more disadvantageous than helpful. To achieve homework success, Japanese parents hired various private tutors in a heritage language as well as second language, as an educational supplement to aid in several academic subjects (Haneda & Monobe, 2009; Zhou & Kim, 2006). The hired tutors reduced stress in homework completion and improved development of the target language and familiarity of the target culture.
On the other hand, Li (2006) demonstrated that home literacy practices based on a target language instead of heritage language negatively affected children’s bilingualism and biliteracy development because of loss of the heritage language. The exposure to the second language through books at home did not improve the development of the target language (Hancock, 2002). The exposure to the heritage language at home was not helpful in children’s second language and literacy development (Monzó & Rueda, 2001).

Recently, language learning through technologies such as computer and media has emerged to a new home literacy practice. Technology is considered a more effective means for successful second or foreign language learning in terms of exposure to the language learning environment (Blake, 2008, p. 1). L2 learners have to be exposed to between 700 and 1,320 hours for fluent second or foreign language use in fulltime-study. In learning a Roman language, at least 20 weeks intensively with 30 hours in full-time instruction are required, whereas 44 weeks at 30 hours per week are needed for leaning other languages such as Russian and Chinese. When these amounts of time, effort, and patience are provided, the learning of the second or foreign language can be successful. Although the direct interaction with the target language speakers is the best means for successful language learning (Long, 1991), it brings considerable financial problems. Through technology like computers with Internet access and multimedia, however, foreign language learners can experience many literacy learning environments without going abroad. Therefore, technology can be one of the best ways to experience written and spoken practices of target languages without going abroad (Blake, 2008). Multimedia and computers are some of the main tools in language teaching and learning in terms of curriculum (Tschirner, 2001). Language learners’ attitudes and motivations toward computer assisted language learning (CALL) might play a critical role in learning the target language.
For instance, language learners’ stable use and access to technology like the Internet influenced their attitudes toward CALL (Akbulut, 2008). Akbulut found that Turkish freshman students who have had an advanced English proficiency, have favorable attitudes toward CALL because of advantages for learning English through computer such as comfort and independent learning, instrumental benefits, and empowerment. There are significant differences between Turkish freshman foreign language students’ attitudes toward CALL and PC experience and hours of Internet use. When learners have positive attitudes toward language learning activities, their motivations will be increased and, in turn, acquisition will be improved (Liaw, Huang, & Chen, 2007; Merisuo-Storm, 2007). Computerized gaming was very effective for learners’ vocabulary development and communicative skill improvements (Peterson, 2010), and text-based blogs and podcasting were effective for intercultural awareness through intercultural exchanges (Lee, 2009). Media activities such as watching TV programs and movies were useful in the foreign language learning (Kuppens, 2010, p.76). The above home literacy practices can probably be connected to second language acquisition theories.

2.4 Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Theories

Chomsky (1981) proposed the existence of Universal Grammar (UG), an innate core of knowledge which attempts all human languages share. Linguists have argued that the UG to identify intrinsic linguistic knowledge\textsuperscript{10} that second language learners hold in their minds (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). This knowledge of language is also called “linguistic competence,” which all human beings hold for their native language. The UG consists of two components: principles and parameters. Both of these are essential to control what form human languages can

\textsuperscript{10} Knowledge of language means “the subconscious mental representation of language that underlies all language use” (Mitchell, & Myles, 2004, p. 53).
take and how human languages are similar to each other. According to Chomsky (1981), principles are universal to all human languages, whereas parameters play a role in determining differences between languages. The UG stresses interlanguage grammar instead of the social environment (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). In contrast to the UG focus on hypotheses regarding linguistic systems, the focus of cognitive approaches is psychological hypotheses, which endeavor to understand the acquisition of complicated procedural skills. When language learners understand the skills, the target language is successfully acquired. In addition, cognitive approaches attempt to understand second language learning process itself. The learning process can be characterized by understanding how learners’ brains process and learn new knowledge.

Input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), and output hypotheses (Swain, 1985) focus on understanding the engagement of learners in a language learning environment, while UG and cognitive approaches are mainly interested in understanding individual language learners. According to the natural approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), there are five principles with respect to SLA hypotheses: acquisition-learning, natural order, input, monitor, and affective filter. The acquisition-learning hypothesis refers to two independent systems of SLA, acquisition and learning. While the first system indicates subconscious process that is acquiring linguistic skills from spoken language, the learning system refers to conscious process which is learning grammar rules of a target language. The natural order hypothesis refers to the acquisition of grammatical structures by a natural order. Grammatical structures of a target language can be acquired through a specific natural order which is predictable, for example, plural in English tends to be acquired earlier than past tense.

The input hypothesis indicates that comprehensible input is the only requirement in the language learning process. Krashen (1985) documents that human beings acquire language by
understanding input and by receiving comprehensible input which is a little above the current level of competence. Human beings move “from i, their current level, to i + 1, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing i + 1” (Krashen, 1985, p.2). The monitor hypothesis means that if time is enough, the second language learners for more effective language learning have to focus form instead of meaning because the monitor helps us correct deviations from the speech.

The affective filter hypothesis emphasizes affective variables such as self-confidence, motivation, and anxiety state, which can significantly influence SLA (Krashen, 1985). When a second language learner holds high motivation toward target language learning, the second language learned can be more successfully. Krashen (2004) demonstrated that the comprehension hypothesis, in which natural approach principles are joined, refers to the mental process as subconscious acquisition. As input of a second language containing i + 1 is provided and understood, the second language learner can acquire the target language because the grammatical structure can be subconsciously acquired in a predictable order.

Long (1996) and Swain (1985), who argue for the interaction hypothesis and output hypothesis respectively, challenge against Krashen’s input hypothesis. Long (1996) argues that comprehensible input and modified conversational interaction that make input comprehensible are important elements in SLA. In this respect, second language learners acquire their target language through the interaction with others rather than simplification of linguistic form. Long (1991) demonstrated that “interactionist theories are more powerful, all other things being equal, than either nativist or environmentalist theories, because they invoke both innate and environmental factors to explain language learning” (p. 266). The modified interaction is more
effective for SLA than linguistic simplification because negotiation for meaning contributes to acquisition through connections between input and output.

On the other hand, Swain (1985, 1995) questions Krashen’s assertion that comprehensible second language input is enough to guarantee all interlanguage rules. In her study with immersion students exposed to French-medium instruction in Canadian context, Swain (1985) found the importance of output in SLA. Although comprehensible second language input of reading and listening in the classroom was provided, immersion students had high levels of speaking and writing competence in French. Furthermore, Swain demonstrated that children’s second language development beyond category of comprehensible input in this classroom is due to reflective role of output such as metalinguistic interaction between peers (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). As children share comprehensible input through interaction, they can develop their language proficiency beyond the input. Also, Swain (1995) argued that “output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended nondeterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production” (p.128). Therefore, input as well as output can contribute to SLA of language learners.

Some theoretical perspectives of SLA turn to the socio-cultural approach based on Vygotskian precepts, because a number of researchers felt the need to expand SLA to reflect the sociolinguistic approach in terms of all second or foreign language learners of the world (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Language learning in SLA is accomplished through communication activities with other people in the social sphere (Vygotsky, 1986). He argued for the notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) that refers to the gap between language development by individual learning practices and language development by collaborative interaction with adults or more intelligent peers. Language learners have more effective
opportunities to develop a target language through socio-cultural interaction with target culture members (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Lantolf and Thorne (2007) stated that the individual and the social are not separated each other. The individuals exist within social interaction in the social world. For example, language learners tend to develop their language skills through scaffolding language use of others, as a learning process for promoting a harder language learning.

2.5 Conclusion

The parents in previous research have held favorable attitudes toward bilingualism and bilingual education regardless of context (Lao, 2004; Oladejo, 2006). In particular, parents of participants in the ESL context tended to be concerned about the loss of their heritage language, culture, and ethnic identity while their children were learning English as a second language. The Korean parents in this research might have positive attitudes toward bilingualism, and I predict that they will not be afraid of losing their native language, Korean, while learning English as a foreign language, since English in Korea is used exclusively in academic settings, such as schools and private institutes instead of everyday life. In addition, demographic information of the parents, such as gender, age, socio-economic status, etc, might not influence attitude formation and change toward bilingualism because many parents realize the importance of English competence in Korean society and the increasingly globalized world.

In terms of the motivations for bilingualism, many researchers demonstrated that parents or language learners in the ESL context preferred the integrative motivation to the instrumental motivation, whereas in the EFL context, they were favorable to the instrumental motivation rather than the integrative motivation (Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner, 1985). This research also predicts that Korean parents might have more favorable scores to the instrumental motivation
than the integrative motivation in Korea, a monolingual context, because English competence is an important means to enter top schools, to get a job, to improve performance in school or work, etc. In addition, this research suggests that demographic information involving parents’ socio-economic status, their children’s grade levels, international travel, etc, will be related to the participants’ responses to the motivations. In particular, children’s grade levels might strongly influence formation of parents’ motivations such as the instrumental motivation and integrative motivation because English proficiency is frequently tested in secondary school, but not in primary school.

Regarding home literacy practices, previous research showed that most parents provided their children with a variety of home literacy practices for successful bilingualism (Haneda, & Monobe, 2009; Koskinen, Blum, Bisson, Phillips, Creamer, & Baker, 2000). There were statistically significant differences in the favorableness of types of home literacy practices according to socio-economic status because language learning behaviors at home are closely related to financial issues. This research predicts that Korean parents will have favorable attitudes toward all types of home literacy practices provided in the study. Also, the parents’ attitudes toward home literacy practices will be influenced by socio-economic status, the number of children, grade levels of their children, and international travel in terms of demographic information because the factors are related to financial circumstances.

Finally, some researchers have demonstrated that the relationships between attitudes and motivations are hierarchical (Baker, 1992), whereas the others argued that there are correlations between both terms (Gardner, 1985). This study expects that attitudes and motivations are closely connected to each other without the hierarchical relationship. In addition, there was little
research that explores whether attitudes and motivations affect literacy practices at home. This study predicts that attitudes and motivations favorably influence home literacy practices.

2.6 Pilot Study

In 2010, I undertook a pilot study to examine Korean mothers’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices regarding bilingualism. My motivation to do so was that there were few similar research projects that had been conducted in the EFL context. The purpose of my pilot study was to explore what types of attitudes and motivations the parents have toward bilingualism, and what kinds of home literacy practices Korean parents provide for children’s bilingualism based on their attitudes and motivations. For this study, I used a qualitative research method of interviews. The eight Korean mothers who participated in the interview were living in a big city of Korea, and working in a rehabilitation hospital as nurses. I transcribed and translated from Korean to English. Grounded theory was used to analyze the interviews because it helped me understand participants’ attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism based on code analysis. The participants were aged from 31 to 45 and were female. In terms of educational levels, all parents have had Bachelor’s degrees or higher. SES of the parents was high, in that children of the participants had international travel.

According to the results of the pilot study, all the parents had favorable attitudes toward bilingualism and agreed with supporting their children’s. Based on analysis of the data, they especially argued for the importance of additive bilingualism, rather than subtractive bilingualism. In the study, parents responded to questions about nine motivations: instrumental motivation; integrative motivation; need for achievement; language globalization; internationalism; maintenance of a native language, culture, and ethnic identity; attributions
about past failure; international posture; and the ability to travel. The four motivations most commonly stressed by all the participants involving integrative motivation, language globalization, maintenance of a native language, culture, and ethnic identity, and international posture based on categories produced by coding processes. The parents particularly were more favorable to integrative motivation than instrumental motivation although English in EFL context like Korea is used as an academic language in schools.

Interestingly, in lower grade levels, all participants with one or more children enrolled in daycares or elementary school showed more favor toward integrative motivation than instrumental motivation. On the other hand, the parents with one or more children enrolled in junior high and high schools were favorable to the need for achievement motivation that indicates good performance and grades in the school. The two categories of parents changed their motivations from integrative to instrument when their children advance to junior high or high schools.

In terms of home literacy practices, three types of practices for all parents were found: formal activities, informal practices, and private institute participations. For example, they provided their children with a variety of activities such as giving English books, CDs, DVDs, and TV programs, sharing story-book reading, and sending the children to private institutes. The majority of parents were more favorable to the formal literacy activities than to the informal literacy practices. In particularly, they strongly emphasized the need of the private institute practices for their children’s bilingualism. The participants agreed that the frequent exposure to English learning environments is one of the most significant methods to develop their children’s bilingualism.
The pilot study was based on only qualitative research method that eight mothers participated in the interviews. So, the results of study were unlikely to be generalized because of one-way data collection, small participants, and no gender difference. The study to resolve the problems should change a few aspects such as research method and number of subject for more qualified results.
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions were generated based on the literature review:

**Research Question 1**: What are Korean parents’ attitudes toward bilingualism in Korean and English in an EFL context?

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ attitudes toward the holistic view of bilingualism.

Hypothesis 2: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ attitudes toward the fragmented view of bilingualism.

**Research Question 2**: What types of motivations do Korean parents have toward bilingualism in Korean and English in an EFL context?

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to instrumental motivation toward bilingualism.

Hypothesis 2: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to integrative motivation toward bilingualism.

Hypothesis 3: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to need for achievement motivation toward bilingualism.

Hypothesis 4: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to attributions about past failure motivation toward bilingualism.
Hypothesis 5: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographic, in the Korean parents’ responses to international posture motivation toward bilingualism.

**Research Question 3**: What kinds of home literacy practices do Korean parents provide for children’s bilingualism in an EFL context?

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to formal literacy practices for their children’s bilingualism.

Hypothesis 2: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to informal literacy practices for their children’s bilingualism.

Hypothesis 3: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to computer-assisted literacy practices for their children’s bilingualism.

Hypothesis 4: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to private institute participation for their children’s bilingualism.

Hypothesis 5: There will be significant differences, in terms of the demographics, in the Korean parents’ responses to overseas experiences for their children’s bilingualism.

**Research Question 4**: Are there correlations between attitudes and motivations as well as home literacy practices toward bilingualism?

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant correlations between attitudes and motivations as well as home literacy practices toward bilingualism.
3.2 Participants and Context

A survey was used for this study of Korean parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism in Korean and English. Participants were selected on the basis of the age of their children. All children attended the same school where I was able to secure permission to distribute surveys. I was curious about how parents with the same nationality view bilingualism in Korean and English, because now bilingualism is being highly embraced in Korea. In particular, I focused on parents with children enrolled in grade 3 to grade 6. Because English in Korea is frequently tested from secondary school (7-12 grades), I was wondering attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism of Korean parents with children enrolled in upper grades of primary school. In addition, I selected an elementary school located in a medium size city in a relatively middle class area, where parents have a lot of interest in their children’s successful bilingualism. The total numbers of enrolled students were about 1,275 from grades 1 to 6, and all 861 children’s parents in grades 3 to 6 took part in the study. The public school is controlled by the National Curriculum for all subjects involving English. The school is currently opened in a community where parents have the general interests and supports for their children’s school success and bilingualism.

I also thought that surveying Korean parents who come from the same country may be easy because they have the same culture and language. When surveying participants through the same language, Korean, the researcher might be able to collect the data easily and to analyze the meanings that participants want to convey because communication between participants and the researcher is easier.
3.3 Methods of Data Collection

The present study examined Korean parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism. The data for this study were collected through anonymous surveys. I printed 800 survey questionnaires and received 218. The survey which can be found in Appendix A and contained 58-items, was comprised of four-part Likert-type statements: a 9-item personal information questionnaire, a 16-item questionnaire on parents’ attitudes toward bilingualism, a 15-item questionnaire on parents’ motivations toward bilingualism, and an 18-item questionnaire on home literacy practices for bilingualism.

The first part of the survey consisted of nine questions about personal information: gender, age, educational levels, economic-levels, the number of languages spoken, etc. No identifying information, such as name or address, was requested. On the other hand, the second part in the present study asked the participants to respond to statements via a five-point Likert-type system that rated the extent to which they agreed (i.e., 1 being the lowest score and 5 being the highest score). Furthermore, similar questions were used in the third and fourth parts. The questions were incorporated from Baker (1992) on parents’ attitudes toward bilingualism. An 8-item holistic view of bilingualism and an 8-item fractional view of bilingualism were the two variables with respect to the survey questions produced.

The third part of the survey on parents’ motivations toward bilingualism included five variables which came from the EFL context like Korea. Adapted from Dörnyei’s (1990), the first four variables consisted of 10 Likert-type questionnaires: a 3-item questionnaire regarding instrumental motivational subsystem, a 3-item questionnaire regarding integrative motivational subsystem, a 2-item questionnaire regarding need for achievement, and a 2-item questionnaire
regarding attributions about past failures. The last section is a 5-item questionnaire regarding international posture from Yashima (2002), although Yashima considered these questions to replace these regarding integrative motivation, they were added to the survey as an independent measure of motivation in the study.

The fourth part of the survey was about home literacy practices, and consisted of five variables: a 3-item questionnaire regarding formal practice, a 3-item questionnaire regarding informal practice, a 5-item questionnaire regarding CALL, a 3-item questionnaire regarding private institute participations, and a 4-item questionnaire regarding overseas experiences. The instrument was comprised of a total of 18 scale questions incorporated from many studies (Dagenais & Day, 1999; Duursma, Romero-Contreras, Szuber, Proctor, Snow, August, & Calderon, 2007; García, 2005; Kuppens, 2010; Lee, 2009; Leseman & de Jong, 1998; Peterson, 2010; Tschirner, 2001; Yuet-Han & McBride-Chang, 2005). The data collected from part 2 to 4 were computer-coded.

The following is a summary of the 12 sub-tests adapted from many researchers’ works:

1. Holistic attitude toward bilingualism: The scale with respect to holistic view consists of 8 items of positive words with respect to complimentary relationships between two languages (questions 1 to 8). A high score indicates favorable attitudes toward bilingualism.

2. Fractional attitude toward bilingualism: The scale related to fractional view toward bilingualism consists of an 8-item questionnaire with unfavorable words with respect to competitive relationships between two languages (questions 9 to 16). The scores were reverse-coded. A high score indicates positive attitudes to bilingualism.
3. Instrumental motivational system toward bilingualism: The scale consists of a three-item questionnaire which emphasizes practical advantages of bilingualism such as getting a job and career development as reasons for learning English (questions 17 to 19). Several items are based on concepts that many researchers have discussed (Baker, 2001; Gardner, 1985). A high score refers to confirmation of instrumental reasons in terms of learning English.

4. Integrative motivational system toward bilingualism: Four questionnaire items stress the interaction with other populations for learning English (questions 20 to 22). These items come from existing theoretical concepts discussed by Dörnyei (1990) and Gardner (1985). A high score indicates verification of integrative motivation for learning English.

5. Need for achievement: The two items refers to achievements, such as good grades in school, as reasons for learning English (questions 23 to 24). The items are on the basis of the arguments that researchers have demonstrated (Dörnyei, 1990). A high score refers to evidence of need for achievement for learning English.

6. Attributions about past failure: The two items with a high score refer to avoidance of past failure repetition (questions 25-26). The few items are based on the findings of the prior research (Dörnyei, 1990). A high score indicates evidence of attributions about past failures for learning English.

7. International posture: The ten item questionnaire refers to an interest in terms of international affairs, overseas work, and communication with others (questions 27 to 31). A high score indicates evidence international posture for learning English.
8. **Formal home literacy practices for successful bilingualism:** This measure consists of three items of favorable words about formal practices like providing print sources for successful bilingualism (questions 32-34). Although there are a few items, they come from the findings of several researches (Duursma, Romero-Contreras, Szuber, Proctor, Snow, August, & Calderon, 2007; Yuet-Han & McBride-Chang, 2005). A high score refers to a positive attitude toward formal home literacy practices for learning English.

9. **Informal home literacy practices for successful bilingualism:** The three items refer to favorable words toward informal practices, such as shared reading with parents, for successful bilingualism (questions 35-37). The items are on basis of theoretical concepts discussed by the researchers (Duursma, Romero-Contreras, Szuber, Proctor, Snow, August, & Calderon, 2007; Yuet-Han & McBride-Chang, 2005). A high score refers to a positive attitude toward informal home literacy practices for learning English.

10. **CALL practices:** The scale consists of five item questionnaires with positive words regarding computer-based English learning activities for successful bilingualism (questions 38-42). A high score indicates favorable attitude toward CALL for learning English.

11. **Private institute participations:** The three items refer to favorable words toward private institutes, such as hiring tutors for successful bilingualism (questions 43-45). A few items are based on the private activities that are provided in Korea. A high score indicates a positive attitude toward private institute for learning English.
12. Overseas experience: The scale consists of the four items with positive words toward overseas experience, such as sending children to the target language speaking countries for successful bilingualism (questions 46-49). A high score refers to positive attitude toward overseas experience for learning English.

I used Cronbach’s alpha coefficient to determine reliability of all variables in the study. Before collecting the real data, the researcher attempted to check the reliability of the survey instrument. The temporary instruments were sent to the 20 parents who were living in Korea through email, and all the responses were returned within five days. Reliability for all variables by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was greater than good internal consistency (α=.70). Actually, reliability of all variables in the instrument of this study was higher than good consistency: holistic view toward bilingualism (α=.90); fractional view toward bilingualism (α=.78); instrumental motivation toward bilingualism(α=.86); integrative motivation toward bilingualism (α=.87); need for achievement toward bilingualism (α=.72); attributions about past failure toward bilingualism (α=.76); international posture toward bilingualism (α=.70); formal practices for successful bilingualism (α=.83); informal practices for successful bilingualism (α=.80); CALL for successful bilingualism (α=.84); private institutes for successful bilingualism (α=.77); overseas experiences (α=.86).

3.4 Procedures

To recruit the participants for the study, I contacted a vice-principal of an elementary school with 861 of 3rd to 6th gradestudents in Korean city. The vice-principal allowed me to collect the data from the parents with children enrolled in the school. Because I was unable to travel from the United States, the surveys were collected by my colleague who is a faculty
member of a university located in the middle of South Korea. I emailed the survey instrument to my Korean colleague, who visited the school and distributed 800 printed surveys to the teachers of 3\textsuperscript{rd}, 4\textsuperscript{th}, 5\textsuperscript{th}, and 6\textsuperscript{th} grade classes, individually. The teachers sent them home with students, and 218 of the 800 instruments were returned in four days. My friend collected the completed surveys and sent them by mail to me.

3.5 Methods of Data Analysis

To analyze the research questions, I used the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) version 19. The Likert-type questionnaires of 12 sub-variables that the participants responded to the survey were computed. For research questions 1, 2, and 3, a two-way analysis of variance based on the parents’ demographic information was applied. Before the tests, the data quality involving outliers, accuracy, and missing values was checked, and the assumptions such as independent and random samples, normality, and homogeneity of variance were examined. Also, a multiple regression in the methods was used to resolve the research question 4, and the assumptions involving normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were verified before the tests.

In terms of the demographic information, a two-way ANOVA was used to analyze the parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism based on relationships between a dependent variable and two independent variables. Dependent variables were the 12 sub-scales which include attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices, whereas independent variables are the demographic factors. All eleven sub-scales except for one attribution about past failure were commonly measured based on seven cases: gender and age; educational and economic-status; international travel and the number of languages spoken; educational levels and the number of languages spoken; economic stature and the number of
languages spoken; educational levels and international travel; and economic standing and international travel.

This component of the survey was designed to explore whether or not basic variables such as gender and age significantly impact participants’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism, and whether gender and age are related to each other. For instance, the mothers might have different scores with respect to attitudes toward bilingualism than the fathers. In other words, the female parents can have less favorable attitudes toward the fragmented view of bilingualism because the mothers who usually take more concern and time for their children’s education in Korea, might hope their children become bilinguals and lose their native language, culture, and ethnic identity. This section also examines how socio-economic status and foreign language experiences, respectively, influence parents’ responses, and whether or not the factors are related to each other because they might be significant to form attitudes or motivations, as many investigations demonstrated. For example, when people are rich, they might have more interest in developing their children’s foreign language competences because they are able to provide their children with a variety of materials and private institute participation for English learning which much money is required.

In addition to the seven tests, a two-way analysis of variance was added based on the relationships between the economic stature and the number of children with respect to parents’ attitudes toward the two views involving the holistic and the fragmented models of bilingualism because the number of children can be connected to the economic-status of households. Regarding the motivational sub-systems toward bilingualism, the three dependent variables involving instrumental, integrative, and need for achievement motivations, which are included in basic motivation that indicates practical and unrealistic advantages of bilingualism, were
analyzed by eight two-way ANOVA tests. That is, one more case such as relationships between international travel and grade levels of children was added. These factors were added because there are a lot of English tests for entering top schools at junior high and high school levels, whereas the tests at elementary levels are not required. In addition, participants with international travel might prefer the integrative motivation, rather than the instrumental motivation because they probably experience the importance of English communicative competences while traveling internationally. This research predicts that the two variables strongly influence the formation of these motivations. In terms of the attribution about past failure motivation, this study explores the way in which basic variables such as gender and age affect the attribution about past failure motivation. These factors were queried to determine if differences of gender or age might be related to parents’ responses regarding motivation and the attribution about past failures based on relationships between basic factors and socio-economic status such as: gender and educational levels; gender and economic-status; age and educational levels; age and economic-status; and gender and age.

Regarding the sub-scales of home literacy practices, the three dependent variables involving formal practices, informal practices, and private institute participations were examined by relationships between grade levels of children and overseas experiences in addition to the seven common cases. These factors were included because parents’ responses to home literacy practices can be changed by special Korean National Curriculum with respect to English subject and direct experiences of English learning environments at the target language speaking countries. In terms of overseas experiences motivation, a two-way analysis of variance was measured by age and grade levels of children, and age and overseas experiences. Parents’ age levels can influence their responses to the motivation with respect to grade levels of their
children and international travel because participants’ perspectives to English competence may depend on their children’s grade levels and their own experience of international travel.
CHAPTER 4. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The purpose of this study is to examine Korean parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism in Korea. This chapter consisted of the findings from the statistics tests in terms of four research questions: descriptive statistics and four sections including answers to the research questions. For the study, although a total of 218 responses (about 25%) out of the 800 instruments were gathered, in early contact with the vice-principal, who has frequent survey experiences with the parents, she told the researcher that the returned responses would be representative of the parents who have strong interests in their children’s bilingualism and school success. She told me that usually 50 to 60% of parents with children enrolled in the school respond to surveys. Also, she mentioned that the high frequency of surveys at the school itself might produce lower rates of responding because the school conducted a survey for parents two days before the collection of my data. Although 218 parents responded to the survey, four of those submissions were incomplete.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Study

Table 4.1.1 showed the characteristics of the participants for the survey. The groups under ten percent in terms of educational levels, the number of languages spoken, and grade levels of children were removed in the analysis process of this study because of the generalizable findings of this research, although the data were collected. All demographic groups are based on a socially accepted idea in Korea. The total number of participants consisted of 39 male (18.2%) and 175 female (81.8%) who were divided into four age groups because usually people tend to get married between the beginning of 20’s to the end of 30’s in Korean society: 34 to 37 years old (12, 5.9%); 38 to 41 years old (87, 42.9%); 42 to 45 years old (80, 39.4%); and older than 45
years (24, 11.8%). For the educational levels, there were 54 participants (26.3%) with a high school diploma, 125 (61.0%) with bachelors’ degrees, and 26 (12.7%) with masters’ degrees. Each participant was grouped into one of five economic levels, based on monthly income: 26 (12.4%) of $ 2,000 to 3,000/month, 61 (29.0%) of $ 3,001 to 4,000/month, 53 (25.2%) of $ 4,001 to 5,000/month, 34 (16.2%) of $ 5,001 to 6,000/month, and 36 (17.1%) of more than $ 6,000/month. An overwhelming majority, 69.5% (146) were parents who speak only their native language, and 64 (30.5%) spoke one foreign language (English). Eighteen (8.7%) of the subjects had one child, 160 (76.9%) had two, and 36 (14.4%) had three children. Based on their children’s grade levels, the subjects were divided into three categories: 104 participants (53.6 %) had one or more children in grades 1-6; 35 participants (18.0%) had one or more children not yet in grade 1, and also one or more in grades 1-6; 55 participants (28.4%) had one or more children in grades 1-6 and one or more in grades 7-12. One-hundred ten (52.1%) of the subjects have travelled internationally and 101 (47.9%) have not.

Table 4.1.2 displays the average scores of the participants’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism between Korean and English in Korea. In terms of attitudes, the subjects showed high favorable scores regarding their holistic view (M=4.13, SD=.52) and their fragmented view (M=4.09, SD=.46). In other words, the Korean parents responded positively to complimentary, rather than competitive, relationships. This allows us to interpret that the respondents had positive attitudes toward bilingualism (Cummins, 1979). The parents’ motivations toward bilingualism were higher than the average scores of favorableness (M=3.0): instrumental (M=3.53, SD=.93); integrative (M=4.47, SD=.61); need for achievement (M=3.86, SD=.70); attribution about past failure (M=3.12, SD=.89); international posture (M=3.74, SD=.49). While the participants showed the highest favorableness toward integrative
Table 4.1.1 Descriptive statistics of the demographic information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>81.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34-37 years old</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38-41 years old</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42-45 years old</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older than 45 years old</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational levels</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic-status level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ 2,000-3,000</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ 3,001-4,000</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ 4,001-5,000</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ 5,001-6,000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than $ 6,000</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of language spoken</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of children</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grade levels of children</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before 1 and 1-6</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-6 and 7-12</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>International travel</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
motivation for bilingualism (M= 4.47, SD=.61), the scores of attributions about past failures as a motivation for bilingualism were the lowest (M=3.12, SD=.89). Regarding home literacy practices, the parents displayed favorable attitudes beyond the average degrees of the favorableness to the whole subscales, indicating that because they recognize the importance of home literacy practices for their children’s successful bilingualism: formal (M=3.93, SD=.60); informal (M=3.90, SD=.50); CALL (M=3.28, SD=.68); private institutes (M=3.29, SD=.74); overseas experience (M=3.77, SD=.63). The subjects showed less interest toward CALL and private institute participations, whereas they were highly favorable toward formal, informal literacy practices, and overseas experience for their children’s successful bilingualism.

Table 4.1.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Sub-scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistic view</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragmented view</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivations</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrative</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for achievement</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attributions about past failure</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International posture</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home literacy practices</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALL</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private institute participations</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overseas experience</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

4.2. Research Question 1: What Are Korean Parents’ Attitudes toward Bilingualism?

The parents showed moderately high scores of favorableness for attitudes including holistic and fragmented views toward bilingualism as seen in Table 4.1.2. In terms of the holistic
view, Table 4.2.1 revealed that the subjects highly agreed with the statements such as “speaking Korean and English is a valuable skill” (M=4.24, SD=.61), “speaking both Korean and English helps children to be more knowledgeable about the world” (M=4.21, SD=.65), and “speaking Korean and English helps children to reach their goals” (M=4.21, SD=.58). The participants agreed with the statements in which the terms “developing language knowledge and skills” and “reaching goals” were included. It means that the Korean parents have a positive attitude toward bilingualism. On the other hand, the parents showed less favorable attitudes toward the question regarding the pleasure bilingualism children’s life might bring to, “speaking Korean and English makes children’s lives more enjoyable” (M=3.94, SD=.80). The results show that the parents had favorable attitudes toward practical advantages, such as development of language proficiency and knowledge, rather than improvement of their children’s life quality in the future.

Table 4.2.1 The Korean parents’ attitudes toward the holistic view of bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I help my children to speak both Korean and English.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking both Korean and English helps children to be more knowledgeable about the world.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Korean and English is a valuable skill.</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If children know Korean and English, they can have more friends and know more people.</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Korean and English should be important in Korea.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Korean and English is significant for the future of Korea.</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Korean and English helps children to reach their goals.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Korean and English makes children’s lives more enjoyable.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)
Regarding the holistic view of bilingualism, the results of eight two-way ANOVA tests demonstrated that, between the number of languages spoken and international travel, there were significant differences in the main effect only for international travel, and the interaction effect was non-significant. However, the results revealed that no main effect for the other factors in the seven other cases was significant, and there were no significant differences in the interaction effects between the two variables on the attitudes toward the holistic view. According to a two-way analysis of variance based on international travel and the number of languages spoken, a main effect was found for international travel \[F (1, 203) = .378, p<.05\] in terms of the Korean parents’ attitudes toward the holistic view of bilingualism, as seen in Table 4.2.2.

Table 4.2.2 Differences in the parents’ attitudes toward the holistic view of bilingualism according to international travel and the number of languages spoken

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>.378*</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofLang</td>
<td>1.559</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.559</td>
<td>6.172</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel*NofLang</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>.438</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>51.294</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

The parents with international travel had higher scores (M=4.21) than did the participants without international travel (M=4.04) in the mean difference. This was an extremely small difference (Partial Eta Squared =.002). However, there were no significant differences in the main effect for the number of languages spoken \[F (1, 203) = 6.172, p>.05\] and in the interaction effect between international travel and number of languages spoken \[F (1, 203) = .483, p>.05\]
with respect to the holistic view of bilingualism. The finding shows that international travel experiences can positively influence parents’ attitudes toward holistic view of bilingualism. In other words, when parents visit other countries, they probably have experiences that allow them to change their unfavorable attitudes toward holistic view of bilingualism to favorable responses.

Regarding the fragmented view toward bilingualism, all the statements were reverse-coded. Table 4.2.3 illustrates that the Korean parents revealed less favorable attitudes with the statements which articulate problems with acquiring two languages at the same time, such as “children have to forget Korean in order to learn English well” (M=4.55, SD=.59) and “if children learn both Korean and English, they will suffer in the future” (M=4.38, SD=.66).

Table 4.2.3 The Korean parents’ attitudes toward the fragmented view of bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children only become bilinguals if they learn both Korean and English from childhood and have no accent.*</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is impossible to speak both Korean and English well.*</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children have to concentrate on only Korean as their native language instead of learning English.*</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children who speak English are not real Koreans.*</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children have to forget Korean in order to learn English well.*</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If children are not going to live abroad, they don’t need to learn English.*</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If children learn both Korean and English, they will suffer in the future.*</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The more English children use, the worse their Korean will become.*</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree); *These statements were reverse-coded.
The participants showed an average favorableness about attitudes toward the questions such as “children only become bilinguals if they learn both Korean and English from childhood and have no accent” (M=3.18, SD=.97). The term showed that a bilingual means a person who has second language skills as proficient as the first (Cloud, Genese, & Hamayan, 2000). The score (M=3.94, SD=.81) with respect to the statement that frequent use of English language interrupts children’s development in Korean was relatively lower than the others. In addition, the parents had highly positive attitudes (M=4.07, SD=.74) toward the statement, such as “Children have to concentrate on only Korean as their native language instead of learning English.” This response can be interpreted to mean that parents’ fear of loss of their native language (Baker, 2001).

In terms of the fragmented view toward bilingualism, two-way ANOVA tests showed that there were significant differences in the main effects for socio-economic status with respect to the number of children. In other words, between educational levels and the number of children only, the main effect for educational levels was significant. Also, between the number of children and economic-status, there were significant differences in the main effect only for economic-status. That is, socio-economic status becomes the one factor that significantly influences attitude formation toward bilingualism. However, there were no significant differences in the interaction effects between the two variables in either case. Also, in terms of the other cases, there were no significant differences in main effects for the independent variables and in the interaction effects between two variables. It implies that only parents’ socio-economic status among many factors can significantly influence formation of attitudes toward the fractional view of bilingualism.
There were significant differences between the parents’ attitudes toward the fragmented view of bilingualism with respect to socio-economic status in terms of the number of children in their family. According to Table 4.2.4, the results of a two-way analysis of variance involving educational levels and the number of children, showed that there were significant differences in the main effect only for educational levels \( [F(2, 184) = 3.085, p<.05] \). In contrast, there were no significant differences in the means among the groups of educational levels according to the post hoc Tukey method at the .05 level. However, the main effect for the number of children \( [F(2, 184) = 1.323, p>.05] \) and the interaction effect between two factors \( [F(4, 184) = 1.332, p>.05] \) were non-significant.

Table 4.2.4 Differences in the parents’ attitudes toward the fragmented view of bilingualism according to educational levels and the number of children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>1.259</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.630</td>
<td>3.085*</td>
<td>.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofChildren</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>1.323</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*NofChildren</td>
<td>1.088</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.272</td>
<td>1.332</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>37.555</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\*\*\*p<.001; \*\*p<.01; \*p<.05

A two-way ANOVA was used to analyze the Korean parents’ attitudes toward the fragmented view of bilingualism, based on economic-status and the number of children. Table
4.2.5 shows that the significant main effect in this analysis was obtained only for economic-status [F (4, 183) =3.808, p<.01], whereas there were no significant differences in the main effect for the number of children [F (2, 183) =2.181, p>.05] and for the interaction between two factors [F (8, 183) =1.628, p>.05]. However, the mean differences in all pairwise comparisons among the groups for economic-status were non-significant by the Tukey test. Therefore, we have to consider economic-status when understanding people’s attitudes toward language learning (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006).

Table 4.2.5 Differences in the parents’ attitudes toward the fragmented view of bilingualism according to economic-status and the number of children

Dependent Variable: ATT_Fragmented view

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>3.039</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.760</td>
<td>3.808***</td>
<td>.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofChildren</td>
<td>.870</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.435</td>
<td>2.181</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels*NofChildren</td>
<td>2.597</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>1.628</td>
<td>.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>36.505</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

4.3 Research Question 2: What Are Korean Parents’ Motivations toward Bilingualism?

Table 4.3.1 indicates that the Korean parents responded with the highest favorableness to the statement regarding the role of English competence related to career development: “English competence is required for career development” (M=3.78, SD=.90). On the other hand, the participants held less positive scores toward the statement regarding school entrance: “English competence is required for entrance into competitive schools” (M=3.24, SD=1.17).
Table 4.3.1 The Korean parents’ responses to instrumental motivation toward bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English competence is required for entrance into competitive schools.</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English competence is required for getting a good job.</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English competence is required for career development.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

Two-way ANOVA tests were used to analyze the Korean parents’ motivations toward bilingualism with respect to their demographic information. In terms of the instrumental motivation, significant differences were found in the main effects for educational levels and the number of languages spoken, and in the interaction effect as well. Also, there were significant differences in the interaction effect between economic-status and the number of children, whereas the main effects for both factors were non-significant. However, there were no significant differences in the main effects for the other variables in the other cases and in the interaction effects between both variables. There were significant differences between instrumental motivational subsystems based on educational levels and the number of languages spoken. All other factors showed non-significant differences.

Regarding educational levels and the number of languages spoken, the results of a two-way ANOVA revealed that the main effects for educational levels [F (2, 196) =4.820, p<.01] and for the number of languages spoken [F (1, 196) =4.504, p<.05] were obtained in the parents’ instrumental motivation toward bilingualism as seen in Table 4.3.2. The parents who speak a foreign language had slightly more favorable scores (M=3.55) than did the participants speaking only their native language (M=3.53). This was an extremely small difference (Partial Eta...
Squared = .02). In terms of educational levels, the post hoc Tukey test showed that there were no significant differences in the mean difference at the .05 level. Also, the interaction effect between number of languages spoken and educational levels was significant \([F (2, 196) =7.056, p=.001]\).

Table 4.3.2 Differences in instrumental motivation toward bilingualism according to educational levels and the number of languages spoken

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>7.995</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.998</td>
<td>4.820**</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofLang</td>
<td>3.735</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.735</td>
<td>4.504*</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*NofLang</td>
<td>11.704</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.852</td>
<td>7.056***</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>162.556</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

Figure 4.3.1 indicates that in the group of participants who speak a foreign language, the mean differences for the subjects with a bachelors’ degree (M=3.85) were larger than the means for parents with either a high school diploma (M=2.58) or a master’s degree (M=3.35) with respect to three educational groups as the main effect. In other words, there was a slight difference (M=0.5) in the means for the groups with a bachelor’s degree and a master’s degree; in contrast, the mean difference was great (M=1.27) between the group with a high school diploma and the group with a bachelor’s degree. Also, there was a large gap in the means for the parents in a master’s degree and a high school diploma. On the other hand, for the group of parents who speak only their native language, the results showed that there was small mean difference among the three educational groups. The mean of the subjects with a master’s degree
(M=3.93) was higher than those with a high school diploma (M=3.54) or a bachelor’s degree (M=3.49), whereas there was little mean difference between the group with a high school diploma (M=3.54) and the group with a bachelor’s degree (M=3.49). Thus, the results demonstrate that the educational levels of the parents did not evenly affect participants with different language proficiency in terms of the instrumental motivation. In other words, the interaction was significant between educational levels and the number of languages spoken.

Figure 4.3.1 The interaction between educational levels and the number of languages spoken in terms of instrumental motivation

Table 4.3.3 demonstrates that there were significant differences in the interaction between economic-status and the number of children [F (8, 189) =2.780, p<.01] with respect to
the instrumental motivation, whereas the main effects for both factors were non-significant: economic-status \([F (4, 191) =.925, p>.05]\); number of children \([F (2, 189) =.066, p>.05]\).

Table 4.3.3 Differences in instrumental motivation toward bilingualism according to economic-status and the number of children

Dependent Variable: MOT_Instrumental

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>3.066</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.767</td>
<td>.925</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofChildren</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*NofLang</td>
<td>18.430</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.304</td>
<td>2.780**</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>156.626</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

The means among the groups in terms of the economic-status differed significantly based on the number of children. Two out of five economic-status groups, namely the group with a monthly income of $3,001 to $4,000 and with a monthly income of $5,001 to $6,000 were separated from this interpretation because of their small sample size based on the results of ANOVA test. In the group of parents with one child, the mean of the scores for the group with a monthly income of $4,001 to $5,000 (M=4.33) was greater than the means for the groups with a monthly income of $2,001 to $3,000 (M=3.78) and with a monthly income of more than $6,000 (M=2.78), as seen in Figure 4.3.2. The mean difference was relatively small between the group with $2,001 to $3,000 income and the group with $4,001 to $5,000 income. However, there was a large mean difference between the group in $4,001 to $5,000 and the group in more than 6,000.
Figure 4.3.2 The interaction between economic-status and the number of children in terms of the instrumental motivation

For the subjects with two children, the mean of the parents with a monthly income of more than $6,000 (M=4.07) was larger than the means for the participants in either $2,001 to $3,000 (M=3.35) or in $4,001 to $5,000 (M=3.38). There was a slight difference in the means for the parents in $2,001 to $3,000 and in $4,001 to $5,000, whereas the mean difference was relatively large between the group with a monthly income of more than $6,000 and the group with $4,001 to $5,000 income. Also, there were large mean differences among the three groups of economic-status in the parents who have three children. The mean of the group with a monthly income of $2,001 to $3,000 (M=4.33) was greater than the means for the group in
$4,001 to $5,000 (M=3.43) and the group in more than $6,000 (M=3.60). There was little
difference in the means between the group with $4,001 to $5,000 income and the group with
more than $6,000 income. On the other hand, the mean difference was somewhat large between
the subjects with $2,001 to $3,000 income and those with $4,001 to $5,000 income. Therefore,
the parents’ responses to instrumental motivation according to their economic-status were not the
same as those based on the number of children. This implies that the parents did not respond
consistently based on their economic levels and the number of children whom they have had.
That is, the interaction effect was significant between economic-status and the number of
children.

Table 4.3.4 The Korean parents’ response to integrative motivation toward bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I hope my children broaden their own worldview.</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope my children have a desire for new stimuli and challenges.</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope my children have a desire to actually become-integrated into another community.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale
(1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

Regarding the integrative motivational subsystem, Table 4.3.4 also shows that the
participants in the study had relatively high favorable scores among the three statements which
stress the importance of English competence for fluent communication with other populations: “I
hope my children broaden their own worldview” (M=4.52, SD=.74); “I hope my children have a
desire for new stimuli and challenges” (M=4.52, SD=.68); and “I hope my children have a desire
to actually become integrated into another community” (M=4.35, SD=.64).
A two-way analysis of variance was used to examine the integrative motivation based on the demographic information. The results showed that between the number of children and economic status there were significant differences in the main effects only for economic-status, and, between educational levels and international travel, in the main effects only for international travel. This implies that parents’ economic status and international travel experiences can significantly influence their attitude formation in terms of the integrative motivation. However, there were no significant differences in the interaction effects between the two variables in either case. Also, no main effect or interaction effect was found in the other cases.

Table 4.3.5 Differences in integrative motivation toward bilingualism according to educational levels and international travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>.275</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>.384</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>1.754</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.754</td>
<td>4.903*</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*InterTravel</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>69.782</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

Regarding educational levels and international travel, the parents’ responses to the integrative motivation toward bilingualism were measured by a two-way ANOVA. According to Table 4.3.5, while the main effect for international travel was significant [F (1, 195) =4.903, p<.05], there were no significant differences for educational levels [F (2, 195) =.384, p>.05]. In terms of the mean difference, the parents with international travel had greater scores (M=4.59) than did the participants without international travel (M=4.38). This was an extremely small
difference (Partial Eta Squared = .03). Through these findings, we predict that experiences for traveling other countries allow parents to have more favorable attitudes toward the integrative motivation. However, there were no significant differences in the interaction effect [F (2, 195) = .554, p > .05].

A two-way ANOVA was used to analyze the Korean parents’ responses to the integrative motivation in terms of educational levels and the number of children. Table 4.3.6 shows that there were significant differences in the main effect for economic-status [F (4, 189) = 2.769, p < .05], whereas the main effect for the number of children was non-significant [F (2, 189) = 1.276, p > .05]. Regarding mean difference, there were significant differences among the groups of different economic standing levels in the post hoc Tukey method at the .05 level. Also, the interaction effect between economic stature and the number of children was non-significant [F (8, 189) = 1.321, p > .05].

Table 4.3.6 Differences in integrative motivation toward bilingualism according to economic-status and the number of children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>3.971</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.993</td>
<td>2.769*</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofChildren</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>1.276</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*NofLang</td>
<td>3.789</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td>1.321</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>67.761</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>.359</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05
The Korean parents were slightly more favorable than moderate toward need for achievement motivation with the two statements that indicate good performance in a job and at school, as shown by Table 4.3.7: “English competence is required for achieving high performance in a job” (M=3.89, SD=.75); “English competence is required in order to get good grades in school” (M=3.83, SD=.83).

Table 4.3.7 The Korean parents’ response to need for achievement toward bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English competence is required for achieving high performance in a job.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English competence is required in order to get good grades in school.</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

The results of a two-way ANOVA statistics test with respect to the demographic information revealed that, between the number of languages spoken and educational levels, there were significant differences in the main effect only for educational levels, whereas there were no significant differences in the interaction effect between the two variables. In addition, the main effect for economic standing differed significantly, however there were no significant differences in the main effect for the number of children. The interaction effect was non-significant between the two independent variables. In terms of grade levels of children and international travel, the main effect was significant only for grade levels of children, while there were no significant differences in the interaction effect. For the other cases there were no significant differences in the main effects and interaction effects.

According to educational levels and the number of languages spoken, the statistics test revealed significant differences only for educational levels [F (2, 196) =3.155, p<.05] in the
parents’ responses as seen in Table 4.3.8. However, the mean difference among the three educational groups was non-significant in the post hoc Tukey method at the .05 level. In addition, there were no significant differences in the main effect for the number of language spoken [F (1, 196) = .356, p > .05] and the interaction effect between two variables [F (2, 196) = 2.402, p > .05].

Table 4.3.8 Differences in need for achievement motivation toward bilingualism according to educational levels and the number of languages spoken

Dependent Variable: MOT_Need for achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>2.992</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.496</td>
<td>3.155*</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofLang</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*NofLang</td>
<td>2.278</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.139</td>
<td>2.402</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>92.944</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

Table 4.3.9 indicates that the parents’ responses on the basis of economic-status and number of children differed significantly not for the number of children [F (2, 189) = 1.960, p > .05] but for economic-status [F (4, 189) = 3.433, p < .05] in terms of the need for achievement motivation. According to the Tukey test, the mean difference was significant at the .05 level. That is, the parents with a monthly income of more than $6,000 (M=4.22) were more favorable toward bilingualism than the group in $3,001 to $4,000 (M=3.77). This was a tremendously small difference (Partial Eta Squared=.07). On the other hand, the interaction effect between the two factors did not differ significantly [F (8, 189) = .995, p > .05].
Significant differences, as seen in Table 4.3.10, with respect to the Korean parents’ responses to the need for achievement were found for grade levels of children \[F (2, 185) =3.216, p<.05\], although the main effect for international travel was non-significant \[F (1, 185) =.016, p>.05\]. According to the post hoc Tukey test, the mean differences among the three groups were non-significant at the .05 level. There also were no significant differences in the interaction effect between grade levels of children and international travel \[F (2, 185) =1.376, p>.05\].
Regarding the attributions about past failure motivation, Table 4.3.11 demonstrates that the responses of the Korean parents were roughly close to neutral in the degree of agreement with the two motivational statements: “I have experiences of past failure because of lack of sufficient competence of English” (M=3.00, SD=1.02); “English competence is required to avoid repeating past failures” (M=3.25, SD=.95).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have experiences of past failure because of lack of sufficient competence of English.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English competence is required to avoid repeating past failures.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

Throughout the five cases, the Korean parents’ responses to the attribution about past failure toward bilingualism were statistically measured by a two-way ANOVA test. The results showed that, between gender and educational levels and between age and economic-status, there were significant differences in the main effects only for gender and age, respectively. However, the interaction effects between the two variables in either case were non-significant. No significant difference was found in the main effects and in the interaction effects for the other cases.
According to Table 4.3.12, significant differences were found in the main effect for gender \([F (1, 198) =3.957, p<.05]\), while there were no significant differences for educational levels \([F (2, 198) =.642, p>.05]\) in terms of the parents’ motivation of attributions about past failure toward bilingualism. The male participants’ evaluations (M=3.39) were more favorable than the female parents (M=3.06). The effect size was an extremely small (Partial Eta Squared=.02). Also, there were no significant differences in the interaction effect between gender and educational levels \([F (2, 198) =.271, p>.05]\).

Table 4.3.12 Differences in the attributions about past failure motivation toward bilingualism according to gender and educational levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>(F)</th>
<th>(\text{Eta})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>3.139</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.139</td>
<td>3.957*</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>1.019</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender*EduLevels</td>
<td>.430</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.215</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>157.057</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***\(p<.001\); **\(p<.01\); *\(p<.05\)

Table 4.3.13 shows the results of a two-way ANOVA analysis in the attributions about past failure on the basis of age and economic-status. The main effect for age was significant \([F (3, 179) =2.886, p<.05]\), whereas there were no significant differences for economic-status \([F (4, 179) =1.784, p>.05]\). The Tukey test showed that the mean difference was significant between the group of parents aged 38 to 41 years old and the group of parents older than 45 years at
In other words, the parents older than 45 years (M=3.57) were significantly more favorable than those aged 38 to 41 years old (M=3.02). The effect size difference was very small (Partial Eta Squared=.05). On the other hand, the interaction effect did not differ significantly [F (12, 179) =1.148, p>.05].

Table 4.3.13 Differences in attributions about past failure motivation toward bilingualism according to age and economic-status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>6.675</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.225</td>
<td>2.886*</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>5.500</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.375</td>
<td>1.784</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age*EcoLevels</td>
<td>10.617</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.885</td>
<td>1.148</td>
<td>.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>137.983</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

The Korean parents had highly favorable scores based on the three statements that emphasize the importance of English competence in the globalized society, as shown by Table 4.3.14: “I hope that my children have a general interest in foreign languages, cultures, people, and events” (M=4.18, SD=.60); “Children should learn English because it is a world language” (M=4.07, SD=.65); “I hope that my children can freely go on trips overseas without an obstacle of language” (M=4.22, SD=.69). Also, the parents showed relatively moderate degree of agreement with the question that asks about working in international organizations: “I hope that my children will work in an international organization such as the United Nations” (M=3.35, SD=.82).
However, the parents were less favorable with respect to the statement that describes living in foreign countries: “I hope that my children will live in a foreign country at some point in time” (M=2.84, SD=.90).

Table 4.3.14 The Korean parents’ responses to the international posture toward bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I hope that my children have a general interest in foreign languages, cultures, people, and events.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children should learn English because it is a world language.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope that my children will live in a foreign country at some point in time.</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope that my children will work in an international organization such as the United Nations.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope that my children can freely go on trips overseas without an obstacle of language.</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

The results of a two-way analysis of variance revealed that only the main effects for international travel differed significantly between socio-economic status and international travel, whereas the interaction effects were non-significant. There were no significant differences in the main effects and interaction effects with respect to the other cases. Based on the two variables involving international travel and educational levels, the results of a two-way analysis showed that significant differences in the main effect were obtained for international travel [F (1, 195) =8.212, p<.01], whereas there were no significant differences in the main effect for educational levels [F (1, 195) =.138, p>.05], as seen in Table 4.3.15. The parents with international travel
showed a more favorable score (M=3.87) than those without them (M=3.61), although the effect size in this difference was extremely small (Partial Eta Squared=.04). Also, the interaction effect between international travel and educational levels was non-significant [F (2, 195) =.106, p>.05].

Table 4.3.15 Differences in the international posture motivation toward bilingualism according to international travel and educational levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>1.965</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.965</td>
<td>8.212**</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel*EduLevels</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>46.671</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

Also, Table 4.3.16 reveals that in the statistics test involving the two variables such as economic-status and international travel, the main effect differed significantly for international travel [F (1, 196) =8.161, p<.01], while there were no significant differences in the main effect for economic-status [F (4, 196) =.706, p>.05]. Regarding the mean difference, the participants with international travel showed more favorable scores (M=3.87) than those without international travel (M=3.64). However, the effect size in the difference was very small (Partial Eta Squared=.04). The interaction effect was not significant between the two factors [F (4, 196) =.690, p>.05].
Table 4.3.16 Differences in the international posture motivation toward bilingualism according to economic status and international travel

Dependent Variable: MOT_International posture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>1.861</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.861</td>
<td>8.161**</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel*EcoLevels</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.690</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>44.692</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>.228</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05


The Korean parents in Table 4.1.2 show slightly high favorable agreement with the five subscales with respect to home literacy practices for their children’s bilingualism.

Table 4.4.1 The parents’ formal practices for promoting their children’s bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is important to provide my children with many prints such as English</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>books, flash cards, etc. from childhood for developing English vocabularies and reading skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to provide my children with a lot of audio-visual materials such as English tapes, videos, CDs, DVDs, TV programs, etc, from childhood for developing communicative English skills.</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to provide my children with frequent interactions with English-speaking populations for developing communicative English skills.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)
Concerning the formal literacy practices, the subjects showed moderately higher favorableness in the statements about providing many prints like English books (M=3.88, SD=.70), audio-visual materials like CDs and DVDs (M=3.87, SD=.73), and meeting native-speaking populations (M=4.03, SD=.65), as shown by Table 4.4.1.

Regarding the formal literacy practices for children’s bilingualism, a two-way ANOVA was used to analyze the parents’ responses based on their demographic information. The results showed that there were no significant differences in the main effects and interaction effects with respect to all the cases.

Table 4.4.2 shows that the average scores of parents were moderately highly favorable to the informal literacy practices for their children’s bilingualism. There were no large differences in the means among the three statements: shared-book reading (M=3.93, SD=.59), listening to English News (M=3.90, SD=.60), and watching English TV programs (M=3.86, SD=.59).

| It is important for shared-book reading with parents to develop comprehension of the message or story involved in the book. | 3.93 | .59 |
| It is important for listening to English news to understand other people and the world. | 3.90 | .60 |
| It is important for providing English TV programs, video, and DVDs to understand cultures of the targeted language countries. | 3.86 | .59 |

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

A two-way ANOVA test with respect to the demographic information was used to examine the parents’ responses to their informal literacy practices for promoting their children’s bilingualism. Significant differences were found in the main effects for grade levels of children.
in relation to international travel, and for international travel with respect to economic-status, whereas the interaction effects between the two variables, respectively, were non-significant. Also, there were significant differences in the interaction effects between educational levels and the number of languages spoken, and between economic-status and international travel. However, there were no significant differences in the main effects and interaction effects regarding the other cases.

A two-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the interaction effect differed significantly between educational levels and the number of languages spoken levels \([F (2, 196) =3.762, p<.05]\) in terms of the informal literacy practices for bilingualism, as seen in Table 4.4.3. However, there were no significant differences in the main effects for educational levels \([F (2, 196) =2.969, p>.05]\) and the number of languages spoken \([F (1, 196) =.559, p>.05]\).

Table 4.4.3 Differences in the informal literacy practices for children’s bilingualism according to educational levels and the number of languages spoken

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>1.511</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>2.969</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofLang</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.559</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*NofLang</td>
<td>1.914</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.957</td>
<td>3.762*</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>49.870</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

In the group of Korean parents speaking two languages, the groups with the bachelor’s degrees (M=4.01) and a master’s degrees (M=4.00) had more favorable scores than did the group with high school diploma (M=3.46), as shown by Figure 4.4.1. In other words, there was an
extremely small difference in the means for the group with the bachelor’s degrees and master’s degrees, whereas the mean difference was somewhat large between the groups with the bachelor’s degrees and the group with high school diploma.

Figure 4.4.1 The interaction between educational levels and the number of languages spoken in terms of the informal literacy practices

Contrarily, the mean difference was very small among the three groups of education levels in terms of the group who speaks one language: high school diploma (M=3.91), bachelor’s degrees (M=3.86), and master’s degrees (M=3.93). The lines connect the means were not parallel. Thus, the data showed that the parents differently responded to the informal practices for their
children’s bilingualism based on educational levels and the number of children because there were significant differences in the interaction effect between the two independent variables.

Concerning the two variables, grade levels of children and international travel, the results of a two-way ANOVA analysis revealed that there were significant differences in the main effect for grade levels of children \([F (2, 185) = 3.444, p < .05]\) in terms of the informal literacy practices as seen in Table 4.4.4, whereas the main effect did not differ significantly for international travel \([F (1, 185) = 1.129, p > .05]\). According to the post hoc Tukey method, there were significant differences between the group of parents with one or more children in grades 1-6 (M=3.83), and the group with one or more children in grades 1-6, and also one or more children in grades 7-12 (M=4.05) at the .05 level, reflecting the main effect for grade levels of children. This was an extremely small difference (Partial Eta Squared=.04). Also, there were no significant differences in the interaction effect between grade levels of children and international travel \([F (2, 185) = .980, p > .05]\).

Table 4.4.4 Differences in the informal literacy practices for children’s bilingualism according to grade levels of children and international travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GradLevels</td>
<td>1.610</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.805</td>
<td>3.444*</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>1.129</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GradLevels*InterTravel</td>
<td>.458</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>43.227</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05
In regards to the informal literacy practices according to international travel and economic-status, the parents’ responses were analyzed by a two-way ANOVA analysis of variance. Table 4.4.5 illustrates that significant differences were found in the main effect not for economic-status \([F (4, 197) =1.701, p>.05]\), but for international travel \([F (1, 197) =7.731, p<.01]\). The group of parents with international travel showed vaguely higher degree of the agreement \((M=3.99)\) than the group with no international travel \((M=3.84)\). The effect size in the mean difference was very small \((\text{Partial Eta Squared}=.04)\). There were significant differences, however, in the interaction effect between the two factors \([F (4, 197) =1.701, p<.05]\).

Table 4.4.5 Differences in the informal literacy practices for children’s bilingualism according to international travel and economic-status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>.960</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td>1.071</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>1.732</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.732</td>
<td>7.731**</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels*InterTravel</td>
<td>2.211</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>2.466*</td>
<td>.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>44.141</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

Figure 4.4.2 reveals that in the group of parents without international travel, the mean difference was a tremendously small between the group in a monthly income of $2,001-$3,000 \((M=3.83)\) and the group in $3,001-$4,000 \((M=3.86)\). There was little difference in the means for the subjects in $3,001-$4,000 \((M=3.86)\) and for the parents in$4,001-$ 5,000 \((M=4.01)\). However, the mean difference was largest between the parents in$4,001-$ 5,000 \((M=4.01)\) and
the participants in $5,001-$6,000 (M=3.58). Also, there was relatively large mean difference in the means for the subjects in $5,001-$6,000 (M=3.58) and in more than $6,000 (M=3.81).

**Figure 4.4.2** The interaction between international travel and economic-status in terms of the informal literacy practices

For the parents with international travel, there was large difference in the means for the groups of a monthly income in $2,001-$3,000 (M=4.23) and in $3,001-$4,000 (M=3.99). Also, the mean of the subjects in $4,001-$5,000 (M=3.85) indicated relatively large differences with respect to the means for the parents in $3,001-$4,000 (M=3.99) and in $5,001-$6,000 (M=3.98).
However, there was an extremely small difference in the means between the group in $5,001-
$6,000 (M=3.98) and in more than $6,000 (M=4.05).

According to Table 4.4.6, the Korean parents were roughly moderate favorableness to the
CALL practices for their children’s bilingualism. The parents had somewhat high favorable
scores to the four statements out of the five: the most useful means to learn English (M=3.22,
SD=.84); need to use frequent CALL (M=3.13, SD=.82); CALL’s role to help more English
learning environment (M=3.43, SD.79); and benefits in financial problem (M=3.36, SD=.78).
However, their scores were lower than an average slightly to the statement, “CALL can replace
the teacher in an English classroom” (M=2.75, SD=.83). This means that the parents agreed with
the advantages of CALL for developing English skills, but they were negative for replacing the
teacher by CALL in the classroom.

Table 4.4.6 The parents’ CALL practices for their children’s bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At present, computers are the most useful means to learn English as a</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foreign language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALL will be more competitive in learning English when CALL is used more</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frequently.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALL provides children with more opportunities to be exposed to</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALL is a very effective way to learn English without financial problems.</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALL can replace the teacher in an English classroom.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale
(1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

To analyze the parents’ responses to the CALL practices for their children’s bilingualism
with respect to the demographic information, a two-way ANOVA test was used. The results
showed that while significant differences were found in the main effects for the number of languages spoken with respect to economic-status and for international travel in terms of educational levels. On the other hand, the interaction effects between the two variables were non-significant. The main effects and interaction effects in the other cases did not differ significantly.

In terms of the two variables involving economic-status and the number of languages spoken, Table 4.4.7 reveals that the main effect for the number of languages spoken differed significantly \([F (1, 196) =3.925, p<.05]\), whereas there were no significant differences in the main effect for economic stature \([F (4, 196) =1.124, p>.05]\). The participants who can speak two languages were more favorable \((M=3.43)\) than the parents speaking a native language \((M=3.22)\) toward the CALL practices for their children’s bilingualism. The effect size in the mean difference was a tremendously small \((\text{Partial Eta Squared}=.02)\). In addition, the interaction effect was non-significant between economic-status and the number of languages spoken \([F (4, 196) =.053, p>.05]\).

Table 4.4.7 Differences in the CALL practices for children’s bilingualism according to economic-status and the number of languages spoken

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>2.111</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.528</td>
<td>1.124</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofLang</td>
<td>1.844</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.844</td>
<td>3.925*</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender*NofLang</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>92.074</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05
A two-way ANOVA analysis was used to examine the parents’ responses to the CALL practices on the basis of educational levels and international travel. Table 4.4.8 indicates that there were significant differences in the main effect for international travel \[ F (1, 196) = 6.497, \ p < .05 \]. However, the main effect for educational levels was non-significant \[ F (2, 196) = .727, \ p > .05 \]. The parents with overseas experiences showed little higher degree of the agreement (M=3.36) than those without international travel (M=3.15). This was an extremely small in the mean difference (Partial Eta Squared=.03). Also, there were significant differences in the interaction effect between international travel and educational levels \[ F (2, 196) = 2.954, \ p > .05 \].

Table 4.4.8 Differences in the CALL practices for children’s bilingualism according to international travel and educational levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>.649</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>.727</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>2.902</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.902</td>
<td>6.497*</td>
<td>.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*InterTravel</td>
<td>2.639</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.320</td>
<td>2.954</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>87.559</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

Regarding the parents’ responses to the private institute participation for children’s bilingualism, Table 4.4.9 reveals that they had a moderate degree of the favorableness to all the three statements: sending private institutes (M=3.21, SD=.96); hiring tutors (M=3.31, SD=.83); and effectiveness of private institutes (M=3.36, SD=.86). This indicates that the parents were somewhat favorable to their children’s private institute participation for successful bilingualism.
Table 4.4.9 The parents’ private institute participations for their children’s bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is very important to send my children to private institutes including English kindergarten, private schools and English hakwon in order to improve their English proficiency.</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is very important to hire English tutors in order to improve children’s English competence.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private institutes are more effective than public schools for children’s bilingualism.</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)

In terms of the private institute participation according to the demographic information, the results of a two-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the main effects were significant for economic-status with respect to international travel, for grade levels of children concerning to international travel, and for international travel in terms of the number of languages spoken. On the other hand, there were no significant differences in the interaction effects between both variables, respectively. In addition, the main effects and interaction effects with respect to the other cases were non-significant.

Table 4.4.10 illustrates that in terms of the two variables, economic-status levels and international travel, the main effect differed significantly only for economic-status levels [F (4, 196) =3.425, p<.05], whereas significant differences was not found for international travel [F (1, 196) =1.595, p>.05]. According to the post hoc Tukey test, the mean difference was significant between the group of a monthly income in $5,001-$6,000 and the group in more than $6,000 at the .01 level. The group whose a monthly income is more than $6,000 had greater favorable scores (M=3.62) than did the group in $5,001-$6,000 (M=3.01). This was a tremendously small
in the effect size (Partial Eta Squared=.07). In addition, there were no significant differences in the interaction effect between international travel and economic-status [F (4, 196) =1.761, p>.05].

Table 4.4.10 Differences in the private institute participation for children’s bilingualism according to economic-status and international travel

Dependent Variable: HOM_Private institute participations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>6.717</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.679</td>
<td>3.425*</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>1.595</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels*InterTravel</td>
<td>3.453</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.863</td>
<td>1.761</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>96.096</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

The independent variable, international travel, in a two-way ANOVA analysis, was not significant difference in the main effect [F (1, 184) =.432, p>.05], whereas the second variable, grade levels of children, differed significantly in the main effect [F (2, 184) =5.931, p<.01], as seen in Table 4.4.11. The mean difference was significant between the group with one or more children not yet in grade 1 and in grades 1-6 (M=3.21), and the group with one or more children in grades 1-6 and in grades 7-12 (M=3.58) at the .05 level by the post hoc Tukey test. Also, the means differed significantly between the group with one or more children in grades 1-6 and in grades 7-12 (M=3.58), and the group with one or more children in grades 1-6 (M=3.17) at the .001 level. The effect size was very small (Partial Eta Squared=.06). On the other hand, the interaction effect between international travel and grade levels of children was non-significant [F (2, 184) =.610, p>.05].
Table 4.4.11 Differences in the private institute participation for children’s bilingualism according to grade levels of children and international travel

Dependent Variable: HOM_Private institute participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GradLevels</td>
<td>6.044</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.022</td>
<td>5.931**</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>.432</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GradLevels*InterTravel</td>
<td>.621</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>93.755</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.510</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

A two-way analysis of variance involving international travel and the number of languages spoken was used to examine the parents’ responses to the private institute participations. Table 4.4.12 shows that the main effect for international travel was significant [F (1, 202) =4.197, p<.05], whereas there were no significant differences in the main effect for the number of languages spoken [F (1, 202) =.001, p>.05]. The participants without international

Table 4.4.12 Differences in the private institute participations for children’s bilingualism according to international travel and the number of languages spoken

Dependent Variable: HOM_Private institute participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NofLang</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>2.211</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.211</td>
<td>4.197*</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NofLang*InterTravel</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>106.389</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05
travel had significantly lower favorable scores (M=3.20) than did the group with international travel (M=3.40). This was an extremely small in the effect size (Partial Eta Squared=.02). On the one hand, there were no significant differences in the interaction effect between international travel and the number of languages spoken [F (1, 202) =.407, p<.05].

Table 4.4.13 indicates that in terms of the participants’ responses to the overseas experiences for children’s bilingualism, the parents had higher moderate scores to all the four statements: sending to the English-speaking countries for developing English skills (M=3.56, SD=.87); sending to the English-speaking countries for improving other cultures (M=3.71, SD=.79); interactions with English native speakers in the countries for developing English skills (M=3.97, SD=.60); and overseas experience to the targeted language countries for developing future career (M=3.83, SD=.83). That is, the parents revealed the favorableness to children’s overseas experience for successful bilingualism.

Table 4.4.13 The overseas experiences for their children’s bilingualism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sending my children to the English-speaking countries is the most effective way to improve their English skills.</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sending my children to the English-speaking countries is the most effective way to understand other cultures.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactions with English native speakers in the countries are more helpful in developing English skills.</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overseas experience to the targeted language countries will be important for children’s future career.</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from a 5-Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4= agree; 5=strongly agree)
A two-way analysis of variance was used to examine the participants’ responses to the overseas experience for bilingualism based on the demographic information. According to the results of the statistics test, there were significant differences in the main effect for economic-status with respect to educational levels, and for international travel in terms of economic-status, whereas the interaction effects between the two variables were non-significant. In contrast, the interaction effects were significant in two other cases: age and grade levels of children; age and international travel, even though significant differences were not found in the main effects for each variable. There were no significant differences in the main effects and interaction effects in the other cases.

The results of a two-way ANOVA test involving the two factors, educational levels and economic-status, showed that the main effect for educational levels was non-significant [F (2, 187) =1.259, p>.05], whereas there were significant differences in the main effect for economic-status [F (4, 187) =3.065, p<.05] as shown by Table 4.4.14.

Table 4.4.14 Differences in the overseas experiences for children’s bilingualism according to educational levels and economic-status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels</td>
<td>.957</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.479</td>
<td>1.259</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>4.661</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.165</td>
<td>3.065*</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EduLevels*EcoLevels</td>
<td>2.356</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>71.097</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>.380</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05
The post hoc Tukey test indicated that there were significant differences in the means at the .05 level, reflecting the economic-status. The parents of a monthly income in $5,001-$6,000 had more favorable scores (M=3.50) than did the group in more than $6,000 (M=3.98). The effect size was very small (Partial Eta Squared=.06). Also, the interaction effect was significant between educational levels and economic-status [F (8, 187) =.774, p<.05].

In terms of the independent variable, international travel, there were significant differences in the main effect [F (1, 197) =4.119, p<.05] according to a two-way analysis of variance involving another variable, economic-status, as seen in Table 4.4.15. On the other hand, the main effect for economic-status was non-significant [F (4, 197) =2.217, p>.05]. The parents with no international travel showed lower degree of favorableness (M=3.68) than those with international travel (M=3.88). The effect size was a tremendously small (Partial Eta Squared=.02). In the interaction effect, significant difference was not found [F (1, 197) =1.057, p>.05].

Table 4.4.15 Differences in the overseas experiences for children’s bilingualism according to economic-status and international travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels</td>
<td>3.312</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>2.217</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>1.538</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.538</td>
<td>4.119*</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EcoLevels*InterTravel</td>
<td>1.580</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.395</td>
<td>1.057</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>73.576</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>.373</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05
According to Table 4.4.1, although there were no significant differences in the main effects both for international travel \([F (1, 192) =.643, p>.05]\) and for age \([F (3, 192) =.703, p>.05]\) with respect to the dependent variable, overseas experiences, the interaction effect was significant between two factors \([F (3, 192) =5.770, p<.01]\).

Table 4.4.16 Differences in the overseas experiences for children’s bilingualism according to age and international travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.760</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td>.703</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InterTravel</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age*InterTravel</td>
<td>6.240</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.080</td>
<td>5.770**</td>
<td>.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>69.214</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>.360</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

In the group of parents without international travel, the group aged 34-37 years old was removed in the analysis because of the very small sample. Figure 4.4.3 indicated that the mean difference among the three age groups was relatively small: the group aged 38-41 years old (M=3.67); the group aged 42-45 years old (M=3.53); and the group older than 45 years (M=3.72). On the other hand, in the group with international travel, there was large difference in the means between the parents aged 34-37 years old (M=3.32) and the other three groups such as: the group aged 38-41 years old (M=3.75); the group aged 42-45 years old (M=3.99); and the group older than 45 years (M=4.02). On the other hand, there was small difference in the means among the three groups.
except for the parents aged 34-37 years old. Thus, the interaction effect was significant between age and international travel in terms of overseas experiences.

Figure 4.4.3 The interaction between age and international travel in terms of the overseas experiences

Table 4.4.17 also indicates that there were significant differences in the interaction effect between age and grade levels of children \[F\ (5, 177) = 2.669, p < .05\] according to a two-way ANOVA analysis. However, the main effects were non-significant for age \[F\ (3, 177) = 1.505, p > .05\] and for grade levels of children \[F\ (2, 177) = 1.376, p > .05\].
Table 4.4.1 Differences in the overseas experiences for children’s bilingualism according to age and grade levels of children

Dependent Variable: HOM_Overseas experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.765</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.588</td>
<td>1.505</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GradChildren</td>
<td>1.076</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>1.376</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age*GradChildren</td>
<td>5.218</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.044</td>
<td>2.669*</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>69.198</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05

In this analysis, the group aged 34-37 years old was excluded due to the small sample size.

Figure 4.4.4 reveals that for the parents with one or more children not yet in grade 1 and in grades 1-6, there was a slight difference in the means between the subjects aged 38-41 years old (M=3.56) and the participants aged 42-45 years old (M=3.58), whereas the mean difference was large between the subjects aged 42-45 years old (M=3.58) and the parents aged older than 45 years (M=4.00). Similarly, for the group with one or more children in grades 1-6, although the mean difference was small between the subjects aged 38-41 years old (M=3.76) and the participants aged 42-45 years old (M=3.73), there was relatively huge difference in the means between the subjects aged 42-45 years old (M=3.73) and the parents aged older than 45 years (M=4.04). On the one hand, in the parents with one or more children in grades 1-6 and in grades 7-12, there was relatively small mean difference among the three groups: the subjects aged 38-41 years old (M=3.65), the participants aged 42-45 years old (M=3.91), and the parents aged older than 45 years (M=4.00). Therefore, there were significant differences in the interaction effect between age and the grade levels of children because the parents’ responses to overseas experiences based on age were not the same as those according to the grade levels of children.
Figure 4.4.4 The interaction between age and grade levels of children in terms of the overseas experiences
4.5 Research Question 4: Correlations between Korean Parents’ Attitudes and Motivations as well as Home Literacy Practices toward Bilingualism

To examine the relationships among the Korean parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism, multiple linear regression statistics was used. To test the normality the study constructed histogram and normal P-P plots of regression standardized residuals. The results showed that the dependent variable was normally distributed. For linearity and homoscedasticity, the study constructed plot residuals against the predicted values. Although there were a few outliers, the linear pattern of scatter plot was not obvious. Also, the homoscedasticity assumption was not violated. Therefore, the assumptions in the data were true. According to the results of the statistics test, for the parents, significant correlations among the three variables were found. Table 4.5.1 shows that there were significantly positive correlations between the participants’ attitudes and the other variables: motivations (r=.414, p<.01) and home literacy practices (r=.450, p<.01). Also, the correlation between the parents’ motivations and home literacy practices was positively significant (r=.661, p<.01).

Table 4.5.1 Correlations among the parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>Motivations</th>
<th>Home literacy prac</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.414**</td>
<td>.450**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.661**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home literacy prac</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
The results of multiple linear regression analysis indicated that the multiple correlation coefficient (R) and the coefficient of determination (R²) were R=.689 and R²=.475. The R² means that this model can account for 47.5% of the variance in the home literacy practices scores by the two predictors, attitudes and motivations. The regression model was significant because the value computed went beyond the critical value [F (2, 201) =90.753, p<.05]. The t values for two predictors such as attitudes (t=3.783, p≤.001) and motivations (t=10.203, p≤.001), exceeded the critical value. This implies that this regression model was as effective as the two-variable model. For the two predictor variables involving attitudes and motivations to the dependent variable, home literacy practices, the regression equation was \( \hat{y} = .234x1 + .533x2 + .682 \).

In summary, the results of the study show that the majority of parents had high favorable attitudes toward the holistic and fragmented views of bilingualism without a large mean difference. To explore the relationships between the parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices, along with the demographic factors, a two-way analysis of variance was used. Based on the basic factors such as gender and age, there were no significant differences in the main effects and interaction effects between the two variables. According to the results of the tests, in terms of the holistic view, only one main effect differed significantly: international travel with respect to the number of languages spoken. However, there were no significant differences in the interaction effect between the two variables. In terms of the other cases, there were no significant differences in the main effects and the interaction effects between both factors. In terms of the fragmented view, two-way ANOVA tests demonstrated that significant differences were found in the main effects for socio-economic status involving educational levels and economic-status with respect to the number of children, although the interaction effects between the two variables were non-significant.
Regarding the parents’ motivations toward bilingualism, they responded positively to all five motivations. The majority of subjects had the highest favorable scores to the integrative motivation, and showed the lowest responses to the attributions about past failure. According to a two-way analysis of variance that examined the relationships between the parents’ motivations and demographic variables with respect to the instrumental motivation, there were significant differences in the main effects for educational levels and the number of languages spoken. The interaction effect between the two variables was also significant. Also, regarding economic-status and the number of children, there were significant differences in the interaction effect between the two independent variables, whereas the main effects for both factors were non-significant. In terms of the integrative motivation, economic status with respect to the number of children was a significant factor that strongly affected the participants’ responses, as was international travel in relation to educational levels. However, the interaction effects between the two variables in each case were non-significant. In terms of the need for achievement motivation, there were significant differences in the main effects for educational levels with respect to the number of languages spoken, for economic-status regarding the number of children, and for grade levels of children in relation to international travel. In contrast, the interaction effects between the two variables in the three cases were non-significant.

In addition, significant differences were found in the main effects for gender with respect to educational levels and age regarding economic status in terms of the attributions about past failure motivation. However, the interaction effects in the two cases did not differ significantly. In terms of the international posture motivation, the main effects only for international travel with respect to socio-economic status differed significantly, whereas there were no significant differences in the interaction effects between the two variables in either case.
Finally, the majority of parents had relatively positive responses to the five types of home literacy practices. The participants preferred formal and informal literacy practices, and overseas experiences to CALL and private institutions for their children’s bilingualism. Regarding the demographic variables, home literacy practices were measured by a two-way analysis of variance. In terms of the formal literacy practices, there were no significant differences in the main effects and interaction effects in all cases. However, in terms of the informal literacy practices, there were significant differences in the main effects for grade levels of children regarding international travel and for international travel with respect to economic-status. Significant differences were not found in the interaction effects between grade levels of children and international travel, whereas there was significant difference in the interaction effect between economic-status and international travel. Also, the interaction effect was significant between educational levels and the number of languages spoken, although the main effects for both factors were non-significant.

In terms of CALL practices, significant differences were found in the main effects for the number of languages spoken regarding economic-status and for international travel concerning educational levels. However, there were no significant differences in the interaction effects between both factors. The main effects were significant for the three independent factors in terms of the private institutions: for economic stature with respect to international travel; for grade levels of children regarding international travel; and for international travel in relation to the number of languages spoken. In contrast, the interaction effects were non-significant between the two factors, respectively. While both economic-status in relation to educational levels and international travel in relation to economic stature were important factors in terms of overseas experiences because the main effects were significant, in contrast, there were no significant
differences in the interaction effects between the two factors. On the other hand, the interaction effects between the two variables differed significantly in two cases: age and grade levels of children; age and international travel.

According to the multiple linear regression model, the three variables—attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices—are positively correlated to each other. Also, the significant regression model can explain 47.5% of the variance in home literacy practice scores through two predictors such as attitudes and motivations.
CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Discussion

5.1.1 Korean Parents’ Attitudes toward Bilingualism

The results based on the Korean parents’ attitudes toward the holistic and fragmented views showed that they were highly favorable to bilingualism or bilingual education. They might hold a variety of different definitions and concepts of bilingualism. On the other hand, although the parents understand concepts of bilingualism relatively well, they are concerning about their children’s loss of their native language, culture, and ethnicity. This finding indicates that Korean schools and government should help parents recognize accurate concepts about learning two or more languages at the same time in childhood, recognizing that bilingual education will not cause their children to lose their native language, culture, and ethnic identity. If parents do not understand the principles of bilingualism correctly, their home literacy practices for their children’s bilingualism can negatively impact language learning and further goal achievements.

Regarding the holistic view of bilingualism, the participants were more favorable to their children’s development of practical language skills and knowledge than becoming bilingual to improve quality of their children’s life. This implies that they are interested in immediate advantages that adhere to developing English competence, rather than those in the future. Parents with international travel had more favorable scores than did the group without international travel. This finding probably means that the subjects with international travel might feel the need of English competence to communicate with other populations while living in or traveling other countries. The experiences might affect the attitude formation of participants.
In terms of the fragmented view of bilingualism, the majority of parents showed high reversed-scores. This means that they hold positive attitudes toward bilingualism. In particular, the participants agreed with additive rather than subtractive bilingualism in the hope that their children can learn Korean and English at the same time (Cummins, 1977). The parents had a relatively moderate score about the statements that ask about loss of Korean by using English. Probably it means that they are concerned about the loss of their native language, culture, and ethnic identity (Baker, 2001). There were significant differences in terms of socio-economic status such as educational levels and economic stature (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006). Rich people are more likely to have favorable attitudes toward bilingualism because wealth might allow parents to shift their financial resources towards their children’s foreign language learning. Formation of these attitudes toward bilingualism might be influenced by the process of conscious or unconscious perception based on the parents’ experiences and information that are taught in society (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Therefore, parents’ perceptions and attitudes toward foreign languages and foreign language programs must be studied regardless of the contexts.

5.1.2 Korean Parents’ Motivations toward Bilingualism

In terms of the basic motivations, the parents showed a favorable response to the integrative more than to the instrumental motivations in an EFL context. Many researchers argued that language learners in ESL contexts tended to prefer the integrative motivation to the instrumental motivation, whereas in EFL contexts, they had a preference for the instrumental motivation because English is the medium of academic learning (Dörnyei, 1990; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). However, in this study the majority of parents showed a favorable response to the integrative motivation, rather than to the instrumental motivation, even though the data were collected in the EFL context. These results imply that the parents approve of the globalization
that is developing, and hope their bilingual children can participate in the globalized society more easily because the fast technological breakthroughs might promote more international communication with others and international travel. Therefore, the parents seemed to feel intensely the importance of communicative English skills which allow their children to take part in the global society. This parent motivation has to be reflected in the Korean National Curriculum because parents’ motivations toward bilingualism can strongly influence the degree of motivation which can affect their language learning. In other words, the children with parents who have the integrative motivations might similarly have the same motivation because they probably experience home literacy practices on the basis of the motivation. The school for more effective and successful bilingualism has to understand students’ motivations and apply them to the curriculum.

However, the subjects of this study consisted of parents instead of language learners who are participants in other studies. If another study, in which Korean EFL learners participate, is conducted, the results can be different from those of this study because it is possible for learners to have different attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism from their parents. For example, students might focus on reaching the practical and present goals such as good grades and top school entrance, whereas their parents probably hope their children might improve their English skills for a more ideal and a more enjoyable life in the future.

In particular, the majority of parents responded differently based on their educational levels and number of languages spoken, and there was interaction between the two factors. The participants speaking a foreign language and with higher educational levels were more favorable to the instrumental motivation. It implies that the parents with higher educational levels and foreign language skills probably have more interest in and better understand the significance of
English competence in academic works. Also, the significant interaction between economic-status and the number of children in terms of the instrumental motivation can mean that when the parents have more children than do the others, they might experience financial difficulty in providing their children with the opportunities for learning English. Therefore, economic-status with the number of children might similarly influence the formation of parents’ motivation toward bilingualism. In other words, socio-economic status involving educational and economic standing influenced the parents’ responses to the instrumental motivation toward bilingualism. The subjects with high socio-economic status were more favorable towards the instrumental motivation than those with lower stature. It seems that the parents who are high socio-economic status might have the interest in the need of speaking foreign languages in addition to their native language for their children’s future because they probably had more experiences to speak and learn English, so that they might feel the importance of English competences for entering top schools and getting jobs.

The parents’ responses to the integrative motivation differed based on international travel. This means that the parents with international travel had stronger motivations because they might realize how important English competence is for their children to succeed in a globalized society. When children have greater interests about national phenomena, their power will be stronger in the modern society (Beck, 2005).

In terms of need for achievement motivation, the grade level of children was a significant factor that affected the parents’ responses. In terms of the result, we might guess that motivation can be changed based on goal-directed perspective (Ager, 2001; Pyers, 2004). For example, the parents with children not yet in grade 1 and in grades 1-6 might change their goals from fluent interaction with other populations to better career development and getting good jobs because in
Korea English is one of the main subjects that influences school success and entrance into top school. According to the current Korean educational policy (Ministry of Education, 2007), children in grades 1-6 do not have to take English test for top school entrance, whereas a variety of English tests from the 7th grade are required to enter into top schools or universities. Therefore, the independent variable- grade levels of children- can be a significant main effect that strongly influences the parents’ responses to the need for achievement.

In addition, gender and age significantly affected the parents’ responses to the attribution about past failure. In other words, the male parents and older parents had higher favorableness. It seems that the fathers’ roles mainly are to earn money to help their family, so that while getting jobs or conducting performances in their places, they might experience the failures associated with poor English skills and feel the importance of foreign language competency. Also, older people might encounter more difficult situations because of poor English competency because they have experienced a globalized society for a longer time. Thus, it is possible for the attribution about past failure to be closely related to gender and age.

Regarding the international posture motivation toward bilingualism, the participants were favorable for all the statements except for a question that asks about living in foreign countries. In other words, the majority of parents hope their children will have interest in foreign languages and culture, travel overseas, and work in an international organization, yet they did not wish that their children live in foreign countries. It seems that the parents hope their children will continue to live in their own country with their family and maintain their language, culture, and ethnic identity. Also, the parents who understand the value of English in international society through speaking English and overseas experiences might be influenced by a variety of experiences with respect to English.
The favorableness to motivations toward bilingualism based on international travel might indicate that the participants seem to understand concepts and advantages of bilingualism (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000). As seen in the results, the parents’ responses to motivations toward bilingualism were influenced by international travel with respect to four out of five motivations. It implies that direct experiences can significantly influence the formation of motivation.

5.1.3 Korean Parents’ Home Literacy Practices Promoting Their Children’s Bilingualism

The results showed that the majority of Korean parents were favorable to all types of home literacy practices. They presented the highest favorableness for formal practices, whereas the scores for CALL practices were the lowest. These findings imply that the parents probably think that when children are exposed to a variety of English learning materials such as English books, flash cards, CDs, DVDs from early childhood, they will be able to improve their English competences (Sénéchal, LeFevre, Thomas, & Daley, 1998). In other words, as children continuously experience the input for learning English, they might understand it better and develop the target language skills effectively (Krashen, 1985; Monzo & Rueda, 2001) because the frequent exposure to the comprehensible input lets them be familiar with and have a favorable attitude toward English (Leseman & de Jong, 1998). Also, the parents were very favorable toward informal literacy practices, even though the mean difference with the formal literacy practices was slight. It seems that the parents might prefer the formal practices to the informal practices because they are likely to be afraid of using English as a foreign language.

However, the high favorableness of the informal practices probably means that the majority of parents seemed to understand the importance of conversational interaction with others like shared-book reading with parents to acquire the target language successfully (Ramos, 2007).
When children listen to and read the target language literacy through interactions with others, they might develop the skills beyond the input provided (Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). In particular, interaction with parents in English might positively influence children’s attitudes toward target language acquisition (Aram & Levin, 2002; Bus, Van Ijzendoorn, & Pellegrini, 1995). The parents’ responses to the informal literacy practices, private institute participations, and overseas experiences in the study differed significantly based on the economic-status. Many researchers argued that economic-status influenced strongly home literacy practices (Heath, 1983). However, there were no significant differences among the economic-status groups in this study. Also, the parents with international travel strongly approved of the informal literacy practices, rather than those without international travel since they might directly see, feel, and experience the effects of informal practices while living in target language speaking countries. Similarly, international travel significantly influenced CALL practices, private institute participations, and overseas experiences.

The Korean parents’ responses to CALL literacy practices were the lowest, even though it was positive. Blake (2008) argued that the frequent exposure through technology becomes a good way to learn target language skills because second or foreign language learners have to experience target language learning environments for a long time. It might be explained by the input hypothesis (Koskinen, Blum, Bisson, Phillips, Creamer, & Baker, 2000; Krashen, 1985). Particularly, technology such as a computer in an EFL context like Korea is a best means to learn English without the financial problem. However, the Korean parents in this study might not understand completely advantages of CALL practices. The parents speaking English were more favorable to CALL practices than those not. They might realize the importance and need of
English competence to live successfully in a modern society, so that they probably guess CALL practices can help their children become bilinguals.

Regarding the private institute participations, an independent variable, grade levels of children, was an important factor in influencing the parents’ responses. The parents with children in grades 1-6 and in grades 7-12 had more favorable scores than did those with children not yet in grade 1 and in grades 1-6. When children are enrolled in secondary (grades 7-12), they have to get good grades in English in order to enter top high schools or universities, so that their parents tend to depend on participation in the private institutes for their children’s success in English. In the pilot study, a mother showed that private institutes can replace schools with respect to learning English. Also, they prefer private institutes or hiring native English speakers to Korean English teachers because they might understand the advantages of direct interactions with native speakers in the social context. Through communication activities with native English speakers Korean children might be likely to acquire the target language more effectively (Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Vygotsky, 1986). The arguments can be explained by the parents’ responses to overseas experience motivation that they had high favorableness. The parents probably agree that visiting English-speaking countries or the attendance at private English-instruction institutes are among the best ways to develop English skills because the frequent meeting with native speakers is very effective for language learners to acquire the target language. However, these language practices may be an option just for rich families because of financial difficulty. Thus, the policy makers should consider a variety of teaching materials and methods which are able to experiences the same practices at school without the financial problems at home.
5.1.4 The Relationships between Attitudes and Motivations as well as Home Literacy Practices

According to the results of multiple linear regressions, three variables involving attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices were positively correlated to each other (Lao, 2004). Parents’ choices about home literacy practices such as school or private institute participations were influenced by their attitudes and motivations toward their children’s bilingualism. It means that attitudes and motivations can influence each other (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) against the arguments that there are hierarchical relationships between the two (Ager, 2001; Baker, 1992). The scores that reflect the parents’ attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism, allowed us to predict their responses to home literacy practices for their children’s bilingualism. In other words, the parents’ attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism are able to affect their home literacy practices (Li, 2006; Li & Rao, 2000; Stainthorn & Hughes, 2000). However, Hammer and colleagues demonstrated that parents’ beliefs and home literacy practices were not related to each other in the research in which Puerto Rican mothers with children enrolled in bilingual programs participated (Hammer, Rodriguez, Lawrence, & Miccio, 2007).

5.2 Conclusion

The results of this research indicate that the majority of participants had highly favorable attitudes toward bilingualism based on the scores to holistic view and fragmented view. Although there was slightly a difference between the two views, the parents’ attitudes toward the holistic view of bilingualism were more favorable than those toward the fragmented view. Also, the parents showed favorable responses to all five motivations toward bilingualism. While the scores to the integrative motivation were the highest, on the other hand, those to the attributions about past failure were the lowest. In terms of the home literacy practices, the parents’ responses
were positive for all the practices. The formal practices were the preferred activity for children’s bilingualism, whereas the favorableness to CALL practices was the lowest. Attitudes and motivations can influence each other without a hierarchy. The parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism were measured based on the demographic information, so that a variety of significant findings were found. Also, attitudes and motivations allow us to predict the favorableness of home literacy practices. The findings of this research allow Korean parents to understand the concept of bilingualism accurately and recognize the usefulness of CALL, which lets foreign language learners improve their proficiency without an increased financial burden. An example would be frequent experiences of the language learning environments.

In addition, they help the policy makers recognize parents’ attitudes and motivations toward their children’s bilingualism and reflect them to the Korean national curriculum. According to the findings, parents’ attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism positively influenced literacy practices which they provide for their children’s success in bilingualism at home. If classroom teachers understand parents’ attitudes and motivations toward the target language, they might be able to provide school literacy practices based on a variety of students’ home literacy behaviors in the classroom, so that students can participate in successful bilingualism.

The findings give a motivation to other researchers for exploring whether or not parents’ attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism are directly related to children’s school achievements in further research and influence formation and change of teachers’ attitudes and motivations. The findings from other researches might help Korean government, policy makers,
or school administrators find effective methods that apply the results to improve children’s language proficiency and school achievements.

For generalization of findings, the further work should randomly select the sample in bigger populations that come from several schools. In addition, when the researcher previously examines demographic information of the sample to remove bias in terms of the division of groups, findings of the study will be in equal distribution and generalizable. In particular, usage of both quantitative and qualitative research methods in a study of socio-psychological approaches might be able to increase the validity and value of the data. The survey instrument with the statements which are not enough for the participants to understand and to respond accurately might not bring the generalizable findings that represent other populations. Therefore, the further research should develop more understandable survey instrument.

5.2.1 Limitations

The results of this research are limited by the small number of participants, the non-random selection of subjects, and standardized data collection such that the possibility of generalization of these results to help other researches use the findings of this study is greatly constrained. The group of respondents consisted of only 214 parents, which is not sufficient to represent all Korean parents. So the results cannot be generalized as reflecting the thoughts of Korean parents as a whole. In terms of sample selection, the participants of this research were not selected randomly. There was no chance to select the subjects randomly because 800 copies of the survey instruments by 800 children out of about a total of 861 children from grade 3 to grade 6 had to be distributed to their parents. That is, almost all parents had to respond to the
survey. Also, a limitation exists in the sample selection from only one school. If the participants had been selected from several schools, the findings of the research might be generalizable.

Regarding the demographic information of the respondents, there was a certain degree of bias because the division of groups based on personal information did not always result in equal distribution. For example, there were large gaps in sample size among the four groups of parents’ educational levels or economic-status; more than 60% of the participants held a bachelors degree as their highest level of education. In general, the more wealthy and educated parents were more likely to respond to the statements. In the process of collecting the data, the researcher did not remind the participants about responding to the survey instrument or contact with them further. When the researcher has more contact with the participants, they are likely to respond and answer the survey with more interest. However, the researcher in this study did not attempt to increase response.

Also, because a single methodology was used, the validity of the gathered data is decreased. The data collected by quantitative research methods might miss important contents that help a researcher interpret participants’ thoughts accurately and in detail. In fact, the pilot study for this research in which a qualitative method was used produced data that were not found in the study using only quantitative research method.

The research on attitudes and motivations toward languages is closely related to socio-psychological approaches (Dewaele, 2009). So, the combination between quantitative and qualitative research methods is best to collect more valuable and valid data in this field (Dörnyei, 2007; MacIntyre, 2007). Both of them demonstrated the advantages and disadvantages of quantitative and qualitative methods, respectively. The quantitative method contributes to
produce reliable and replicable results through systematic and focused measurement, whereas it is difficult to examine uncharted areas and to explore the wider picture (Dörnyei, 2007). Qualitative research methodology especially helps a researcher gather data which describes participants’ own ideas (MacIntyre, 2007). For future research, the multi-method approaches of the research methodology in a study of language attitudes and motivations form the best method. Thus, the next study will be examined and processed by both the quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

In addition, some of the scales had only two or three items in the questionnaires, making it difficult for the participants to fully understand and respond clearly to the intensions and concepts of the statements. The misunderstanding of the scales by participants might disturb a qualified data collection. Although all scales, even those with fewer items, were based on the theoretical concepts of many researchers, more items should be added to further research questionnaires which participants are more easily able to understand and in which they can respond more thoroughly to the questions.

5.2.2 Implications

This study is the first to investigate Korean parents’ attitudes toward their children becoming bilingual. The participants in this study consisted of Korean parents in monolingual context who were queried regarding their attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism in Korean and English. However, this study did not take into account children’s responses to the issues would likely be different from their parents’ in the same context. Further research could select children as the subjects, allowing the researcher to verify whether parents’ attitudes and motivations, and those of their children are related to each other. In other words, we might be able to predict
children’s success in bilingual educational settings by examining how parents’ attitudes and motivations influence their children’s attitude formation and change that are important for successful bilingualism and school achievement. When teachers understand parents’ attitudes and motivations through frequent meetings with parents, they might be able to predict types of home literacy practices for students’ bilingualism. Teachers’ understanding of a variety of home literacy practices becomes a critical means for crafting school literacy behaviors against different literacy practices from various sociocultural contexts (Purcell-Gates, 2007). Another future study on teachers might contribute to their ability to increase their students’ academic success and goal achievements because the teacher might help students have more favorable attitudes toward bilingualism through more accurate teaching materials and methods.

An important new finding from this research is that parents emphasized integrative advantages of bilingualism over instrumental motivation regardless of gender, age, and grade levels of their children. However, school education is still focusing on teaching methods based on instrumental motivation, rather than integrative motivation at secondary schools because of the importance of doing well on English tests for top school entrance on basis of academic skills. My research has shown that there is a contrast between this school curriculum and parents’ motivations toward bilingualism, so that children’s motivations which considerably depend on their parents’ motivations are more likely to be decreased at schools. This might negatively influence students’ language learning, school success, and goal achievement. Therefore, another implication from my research is that language policy makers should reflect parents’ opinions toward bilingualism to a new national curriculum.

For Korean parents who want their children to be bilingual and biliterate in English and Korean, Korean government and schools need to introduce foreign language immersion
programs for public school because they help children develop their English competence and academic knowledge as learning school subjects in the target language (Lenker, & Rhodes, 2007). Although some Korean schools are providing foreign language immersion programs, there are many obstacles, such as big class size, financial difficulty, lack of qualified immersion teachers, and children’s differentiated abilities, in implementing them throughout all public schools. That is, foreign language immersion schools in Korea are available only to economically privileged upper-middle socio-economic class students. Therefore, the Korean government as well as principals of school should consider methods to resolve the obstacles that go beyond Korea as soon as possible for successful bilingualism with English of Korean, in accord with the Presidential decree mentioned in the introduction.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A: SURVEY INSTRUMENT IN ENGLISH AND KOREAN

Survey

Dear parents,

My name is Byunghyun Jang and I’m doing research involving bilingualism in Korea. I am currently attempting to review Korean parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism between Korean and English in Korea. The following four-part survey has been designed to diagnose your overall attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices. Thank you for assisting me in this research study.

Byunghyun Jang
bjang1@tigers.lsu.edu

Part I. Demographics

1. Gender: 1) male 2) female

2. Age: 1 9 __ __

3. Educational levels: 1) Less than high school 2) High school 2) Bachelor 3) Master degree 4) Ph. D

4. Educational levels of spouse: 1) Less than high school 2) High school 2) Bachelor 3) Master degree 4) Ph. D

5. Economic-status level (monthly income):
   1) less than $2,000  2) $2,001 - $3,000  3) $3,001 – $4,000  4) $4,001 - $5,000
   5) $5,000 - $ 6,000  6) more than $6,000

6. How many languages do you speak?
   1) one (Korean) 2) two 3) three 4) more than three

7. How many children do you have?
   1) One 2) two 3) three 4) four 5) more than four
8. What grade levels are your children enrolled?
   1) before 1 and 1-6   2) 1-6   3) before 1, 1-6, and 7-12  4) before 1, 1-6, and beyond 12  5) 1-6 and 7-12   6) 1-6, 7-12, beyond 12  7) 1-6 and beyond 12  8) others

9. Does your family have experiences of going abroad?
   1) Yes   2) No

Part II. RQ 1: Korean parents’ attitudes toward bilingualism

*Holistic view of bilingualism*

1. I help my children to speak both Korean and English.

2. Speaking both Korean and English helps children to be more knowledgeable about the world.

3. Speaking Korean and English is a valuable skill.

4. If children know Korean and English, they can have more friends and people.

5. Both Korean and English should be important in Korea.

6. Speaking Korean and English is significant for the future of Korea.

7. Speaking Korean and English helps children to reach their goals.

8. Speaking Korean and English makes children’s lives more enjoyable.

*Fractional view of bilingualism*

9. Children only become bilinguals if they learn both Korean and English from childhood and have no accent.

10. It is impossible to speak both Korean and English well.

11. Children have to concentrate on only Korean as their native language instead of learning English.

12. Children who speak English are not real Koreans.

13. Children have to forget Korean in order to learn English well.

14. If children are not going to live abroad, they don’t need to learn English.

15. If children learn both Korean and English, they will suffer in the future.

16. The more English children use, the worse their Korean will become.

**Part III. RQ 1: Korean parents’ motivations toward bilingualism**

**Instrumental motivational subsystem**

17. English competence is required for entrance into competitive schools.

18. English competence is required for getting a good job.

19. English competence is required for career development.

**Integrative motivational subsystem**

20. I hope my children broaden their own worldview.

21. I hope my children have a desire for new stimuli and challenges.
22. I hope my children have a desire to actually become-integrated into another community.

Need for achievement

23. English competence is required for achieving high performance in a job.

24. English competence is required in order to get good grades in school.

Attributions about past failures

25. I have experiences of past failure because of lack of sufficient competence of English.

26. English competence is required to avoid repeating past failures.

International posture

27. I hope that my children have a general interest in foreign languages, cultures, people, and events.

28. Children should learn English because it is a world language.

29. I hope that my children will live in a foreign country at some point in time.

30. I hope that my children will work in an international organization such as the United Nations.

31. I hope that my children can freely go on trips overseas without an obstacle of language.
Part IV. RQ 2: Home literacy practices for successful bilingualism

Formal activities

32. It is important to provide my children with many prints such as English books, flash cards, etc. from childhood for developing English vocabularies and reading skills.

33. It is important to provide my children with a lot of audio-visual materials such as English tapes, videos, CDs, DVDs, TV programs, etc, from childhood for developing communicative English skills.

34. It is important to provide my children with frequent interactions with English-speaking populations for developing communicative English skills.

Informal activities

35. It is important for shared-book reading with parents to develop comprehension of the message or story involved in the book.

36. It is important for listening to English news to understand other people and the world.
   b. Strongly disagree  b. Disagree  c. Neutral  d. Agree  e. Strongly agree

37. It is important for providing English TV programs, video, and DVDs to understand cultures of the targeted language countries.

CALL (Computer-assisted language learning)

38. At present, computers are the most useful means to learn English as a foreign language.

39. CALL will be more competitive in learning English when CALL is used more frequently.

40. CALL provides children with more opportunities to be exposed to English learning environment.
41. CALL is a very effective way to learn English without financial problems.  

42. CALL can replace the teacher in an English classroom.  

Private institute

43. It is very important to send my children to private institutes including English kindergarten, private schools and English hakwon in order to improve their English proficiency.  

44. It is very important to hire English tutors in order to improve children’s English competence.  

45. Private institutes are more effective than public schools for children’s bilingualism.  

Overseas experiences

46. Sending my children to the English-speaking countries is the most effective way to improve their English skills.  

47. Sending my children to the English-speaking countries is the most effective way to understand other cultures.  

48. Interactions with English native speakers in the countries are more helpful in developing English skills.  

49. Overseas experience to the targeted language countries will be important for children’s future career.  
설 문 조 사

친애하는 부모님께,

제 이름은 장병현입니다. 저는 영어와 한국어 사이의 이중 언어 능력에 대해 연구하고 있습니다. 즉, 아이들의 이중언어능력에 대한 부모님들의 태도, 동기, 그리고 집에서의 활동들을 조사하고자 합니다. 다음 네 부류로 나뉘어진 질문들은 부모님들의 태도, 동기, 집에서의 활동들을 진단하게 될 것이다. 이 연구를 위해 저를 도와주셔서 감사드립니다.

장 병 현

bjang1@tigers.lsu.edu

Part I. 신상정보

1. 성 별: 1) 남  2) 여
2. 생년월일: 19 ___ ___

3. 교육수준: 1) 고졸이하  2) 고 졸  3) 대학교  4) 석사  5) 박사

4. 배우자의 교육수준: 1) 고졸이하  2) 고 졸  3) 대학교  4) 석사  5) 박사

5. 경제수준 (월평균):
   1) 이하 이백만원  2) 이백일만원 - 삼백만원  3) 삼백일만원 - 사백만원
   4) 사백일만원 - 오백만원  5) 오백일만원 - 육백만원  6) 육백만원 이상

6. 몇 개의 언어를 당신은 할 수 있습니까?
   1) 한 개 (한국어)  2) 두 개  3) 세 개  4) 세 개 이상

7. 몇 명의 자녀분을 두고 있습니까?
1) 한 명  2) 두 명  3) 세 명  4) 네 명  5) 네 명 이상

8. 몇 학년입니까?

1) 초 1 학년  2) 초등학교  3) 초 1 학년  중등학교

4) 초 1 학년  중등학교  이상  5) 중등학교  및  대학

7) 중등학교  이상  8) 기타

9. 당신 가족은 해외에 다녀온 경험이 있습니까?

1) 예  2) 아니오

Part II. 질문 1: 이중 언어 능력에 대한 학생들의 태도

거시적 견해

1. 나는 나의 아이들이 영어와 국어를 둘 다 말할 수 있도록 돕는다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

2. 영어와 국어를 둘 다 말할 수 있는 아이들의 능력은 세상에 대한 지적능력을 넓힐 수 있도록 돕는다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

3. 국어와 영어를 둘 다 말할 수 있는 능력은 가치있는 기술이다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

4. 만약 아이들이 영어와 국어를 둘 다 말할 수 있다면 보다 많은 친구들과 사람들을 사귈 수 있다.
1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

5. 영어와 국어는 둘 다 한국에서는 중요한 언어들이다.  
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

6. 영어와 국어 둘 다 말할 수 있는 능력은 한국의 미래를 위해 중요하다.  
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

7. 영어와 국어를 둘 다 말하는 능력은 아이들이 자신의 목표를 달성하는데 도움이된다.  
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

8. 영어와 국어 둘 다 말하는 능력은 아이들의 삶을 보다 즐겁게 만들 수 있다.  
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

부분적 견해

9. 국어와 영어를 어린시절부터 배울 때와 어떤 역량도 가지고 있지 않음때만 이중언어 능력자가 될 수 있다.  
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

10. 영어와 국어를 둘 다 잘하는 것은 불가능하다.  
    1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

11. 한국 사람들은 모국어인 국어를 배우는데 집중해야 한다.  
    1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

12. 영어를 말하는 사람들은 진정한 한국인이 아니다.
1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

13. 영어를 배우는 사람들은 보다 잘 배우기 위해 국어를 잊어버려야 한다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

14. 해외에서 살 것이 아니면 영어를 배울 필요가 없다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

15. 영어와 국어 둘 다 배우는 사람은 나중에 고통스러울 것이다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

16. 영어를 많이 사용하면 할수록 한국어 사용능력은 떨어진다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

Part III. 질문 1: 이중언어 능력에 대한 학생들의 동기

도구적 동기

17. 영어는 좋은 학교에 들어가기 위해 배워야 한다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

18. 영어는 좋은 직업을 갖기 위해 배워야 한다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

19. 영어는 좋은 경력을 쌓기 위해 필요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다
통합적 동기

20. 나는 아이들이 그들의 시야를 넓히길 바란다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

21. 나는 아이들이 새로운 자극과 도전에 관심을 가지길 바란다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

22. 나는 아이들이 다른 집단과 교류하고 싶은 마음을 가지길 바란다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

업적 달성을 위한 필요성

23. 영어는 직장에서 높은 성과를 올리기 위해 필요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

24. 영어는 학교에서 높은 성적을 얻기 위해 필요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

과거의 실패에 대한 귀속
25. 나는 부족한 영어 능력 때문에 어떠한 일에 실패한 경험이 있다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

26. 영어는 과거 실패의 경험을 되풀이 하지 않기 위해 필요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

국제적 태도

27. 나는 아이들이 외국 사람, 언어, 문화, 해외 토픽에 관심을 가지길 바란다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

28. 아이들은 영어가 세계 공용어기 때문에 배워야 한다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

29. 나는 아이들이 인접한 외국에서 살기를 바란다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

30. 나는 아이들이 유엔과 같은 국제 조직에서 일하길 바란다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

31. 나는 아이들이 언어의 장벽없이 해외여행을 다닐 수 있게 바란다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다  2) 동의하지 않는다  3) 중립이다  4) 동의한다  5) 매우 동의한다

Part IV. 질문 2: 아이들의 성공적인 이중언어 능력을 위한 집에서의 활동

형식적 활동들
32. 아이들의 영어 어휘와 읽기 능력을 향상시키기 위해 어린 시절부터 영어 책, 단어장과 같은 것을 제공해 주는 활동들은 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

33. 아이들의 영어 회화 능력을 키우기 위해 어린 시절부터 영어 테일, 비디오, CD, DVD, TV 프로그램과 같은 보고들을 수 있는 것들을 제공해 주는 활동들은 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

34. 아이들의 영어 회화 능력을 키우기 위해 영어를 말 할 수 있는 사람들과의 빈번한 교류를 제공해 주는 행위들은 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

비형식적 활동들

35. 부모님과 함께 영어 책을 읽는 활동은 책 속에 담긴 메세지나 스토리를 이해하는데 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의하다

36. 영어 뉴스를 듣는 활동은 다른 사람들과 세상을 이해하는데 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

37. 아이들에게 영어 TV 프로그램, 비디오, DVD 등을 제공해주는 활동은 그 나라의 문화를 이해하는데 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

컴퓨터를 이용한 언어 학습

38. 요즘 컴퓨터는 외국어인 영어를 배우기 위한 가장 유용한 수단이다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

39. 컴퓨터를 통한 언어 학습은 많이 사용되면 필수록 영어를 배우는데 효과적이다.
40. 컴퓨터를 통한 언어 학습은 영어를 배울 수 있는 환경에 보다 더 노출 될 수 있는 기회를 제공해준다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

41. 컴퓨터를 통한 언어 학습은 재정적 문제 없이 영어를 배울 수 있는 매우 효과적인 방법이다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

42. 컴퓨터를 통한 언어 학습은 교실에서 선생님을 대신할 수 있다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

43. 아이들의 영어 능력을 향상시키기 위해 영어 유치원, 사립 학교, 학원등에 보내는 활동은 매우 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

44. 아이들의 영어 능력을 향상시키기 위해 영어 과외를 시키는 활동은 매우 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

45. 아이들의 이중언어 능력을 위해 학원은 학교보다 더 효과적이다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

사교육

43. 아이들의 영어 능력을 향상시키기 위해 영어 유치원, 사립 학교, 학원등에 보내는 활동은 매우 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

44. 아이들의 영어 능력을 향상시키기 위해 영어 과외를 시키는 활동은 매우 중요하다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

45. 아이들의 이중언어 능력을 위해 학원은 학교보다 더 효과적이다.
   1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

해외경험

46. 아이들을 영어를 말하는 나라에 보내는 것은 그들의 영어능력 향상을 위해 가장 효과적인 방법이다.
1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

47. 아이들을 영어를 말하는 나라에 보내는 것은 다른 문화를 이해하는데 가장 효과적인 방법이다.
1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

48. 영어를 모국어로 말하는 사람들과의 교류는 아이들의 영어능력 향상을 위해 보다 효과적이다.
1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다

49. 배우고자하는 언어를 말하는 나라를 방문하는 것은 아이들의 미래 경력을 위해 중요하다.
1) 매우 동의하지 않는다 2) 동의하지 않는다 3) 중립이다 4) 동의한다 5) 매우 동의한다
APPENDIX B: AN IRB EXEMPTION AND CONSENT FORM
IN KOREAN AND ENGLISH

Application for Exemption from Institutional Oversight

Institutional Review Board
Dr. Robert Mathews, Chair
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall
Batson Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8692
F: 225.578.6792
irm@lsu.edu | lse.edu/irb

A Complete Application Includes All of the Following:
(A) Two copies of this completed form and two copies of parts B thru E.
(B) A brief project description (adequate to evaluate risks to subjects and to explain your responses to Parts 1 & 2).
(C) Copies of all instruments to be used.
(D) If this proposal is part of a grant proposal, include a copy of the proposal and all recruitment material.
(E) The consent form that you will use in the study (see Part 3 for more information).
(F) Certificate of Completion of Human Subjects Protection Training for all personnel involved in the project, including students who are involved with testing or handling data, unless already on file with the IRB.

Training link: (http://cme.cancer.gov/cncl/education/humanparticipant-protections.asp)

1) Principal Investigator: Byounghun Jang
Rank:___
Dept: Linguistics Ph: 225-232-4332 E-mail: jang@lsu.edu

2) Co-Investigators (please include department, rank and e-mail for each one)
If student, please identify name of supervising professor in the space

3) Project Title:
Korean parents' attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism and home literacy practices in Korea

4) LSU Proposal? (yes or no) (if yes, LSU Proposal Number)
If yes, LSU Proposal Number:

Also, if yes, either:
C: This application completely matches the scope of work in the grant.
D: More IRB applications will be filed later.

5) Subject pool (e.g. Psychology Students, Korean parents)
Circle any "vulnerable populations" to be used: (children <18; the elderly; pregnant women; the aged, other). Projects with incarcerated persons cannot be exempted.

6) PI Signature ___
** Date: 03/11/2009 **

"I certify that my responses are accurate and complete. If the project scope or design is later changed I will resubmit for review. If I obtain written approval from the Authorized Representative of all non-LSU institutions in which the study is conducted. I also understand that it is my responsibility to maintain copies of all consent forms at LSU for three years after completion of the study. If I leave LSU before that time the consent forms should be preserved in the Departmental Office.

***Effective August 1, 2007, all Exemptions will expire three years from date of approval, unless a continuation report, found on our website, is filed prior to expiration date.***

Screening Committee Approval Date:
Informed Consent

Protocol Title: Korean parents' attitudes and motivations toward bilingualism and home literacy practices in Korea

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to investigate Korean parents' attitudes and motivations toward Korean-English bilingualism and types of home literacy practices.

What you will be asked to do in the study: To answer the survey and interview questions.

Time required: 10-15 minutes for survey, 30 minutes for interview

Performance site: an elementary school or home, South Korea

Risks and Benefits: There is no direct benefit to the participant in this research. No more than minimum risks are anticipated.

Compensation: There is no compensation for participating in the study.

Confidentiality: Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. The final results will be presented in a dissertation paper and to linguistic journals and magazines for possible publication. No identifiers of you or your family will be in final report.

Voluntary participation: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating.

Right to withdraw from the study: You have the right to withdraw from the study at anytime without consequence. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer.
Whom to contact if you have questions about the study:

Byunghyun Jang, Graduate Student, Department of interdepartmental Linguistics, Baton Rouge, LA. ph 225-218-4432. Available time: 3:00 pm - 6:00 pm.

Where to get more information about your rights as a research participant in the study:

Link: www.lsu.edu/irb

http://appl003.lsu.edu/osp/osp.nsf/5content/LSU%20IRB%20Documents/$File/chklist.txt

This study has been approved by the LSU IRB. For questions concerning participant rights, please contact the IRB Chair, Dr. Robert C. Mathews, 578-8692, or irb@lsu.edu.

Agreement:

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Participant: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Principal Investigator: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Study Exempted By:
Dr. Robert C. Mathews, Chairman
Institutional Review Board
Louisiana State University
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall
225-578-8692 | www.lsu.edu/irb
Exemption Expires: 01-18-2014.
동의서

연구제목: 이중언어능력에 대한 부모님의 태도, 동기, 집에서의 활동들

참석여부를 결정하기전에 이 동의서를 주의깊게 읽으십시오.

연구목적: 이중언어능력에 대한 부모님의 태도, 동기, 집에서의 활동을 조사하는 것.

참여자의 의무: 설문지 완성

소요예상시간: 10-15 분

설문조사 장소: 집

득과 실: 이 연구에서 참여자들에게 직접적인 득과 실을 없을 것이다.

보상: 없음.

비밀유지: 참여자의 대한 개인적인 정보는 비밀유지 될 것이다. 연구 결과는 박사학위 논문, 언어학 저널이나 잡지등에 등재될 수 있다. 하지만 어떤 개인적인 정보도 노출되지 않을 것이다.

자발적 참여: 이 연구에서 당신의 참여는 완전히 자발적이며. 연구 불참여에 대해서 아무런 불이익도 없을 것이다.

연구참여 취소 권리: 당신은 언제라도 연구참여에 대해 취소할 권리가 있고, 원하지 않는다면 인터뷰 질문에 대답하지 않을 권리 또한 가지고 있다.

연구에 대해 질문이 있으면 연락처
장병현, 언어학과 박사과정 대학원생, 배튼루지, 루이지애나, 전화:1-225-218-4432

이 연구의 참여자로서의 권리에 대한 연락처
Link: www.lsu.edu/irb
이 연구는 LSUIRB 에 의해 허가되었다. 만약 참여자의 권리에 대한 의문이 있다면 IRB Chair, Dr. Robert C. Mathews, 578-8692, or irb@lsu.edu. 로 연락하시오.

동의:

나는 위에서 기술된 절차를 읽었고, 이 연구 절차에 자발적으로 참여할 것을 동의한다.

참여자: _________________ 날짜:

연구자: _________________ 날짜:
In Jeungpyeong Gun, Byunghyun was born in 1974. After getting the bachelor’s degree and a masters’ degree at the Cheongju University in South Korea, Byunghyun came to California State University, Chico to study teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). Teaching experiences in Korea and background knowledge in TESOL field obtained by a master’s degree encouraged him to enroll in an education specialist program at the University of Florida, Gainesville, in 2006. The interest in research during the studies made him to enter a doctoral degree program at the Interdepartmental Linguistics, Louisiana State University (LSU), Baton Rouge, in 2009. Byunghyun has presented several research papers at prestigious conferences, such as American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE), and Southeastern Conference on Linguistics (SECOL). Byunghyun’s major study is to explore Korean parents’ attitudes, motivations, and home literacy practices toward bilingualism between Korea and English in Korea, and is planning to graduate in May, 2012.