From Foreign Language Learning to Second Language Acquisition. The Use of Television in the Early Acquisition of a Second Language in Additive Contexts. Towards an Understanding of the Sociolinguistic, Political and Educational Factors Involved in the Development and Implementation of a Lifestyle Diglossia.

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ABSTRACT

From Foreign Language Learning to Second Language Acquisition. The Use of Television in the Early Acquisition of a Second Language in Additive Contexts. Towards an Understanding of the Sociolinguistic, Political and Educational Factors Involved in the Development and Implementation of a Lifestyle Diglossia.

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The aim of this doctoral thesis is to contribute to the understanding of the sociolinguistic, political and educational factors involved in the development and implementation of a Lifestyle Diglossia. Central to the thesis is the presentation, analysis and discussion of the results of a piece of research designed to throw some light on the nature of family language policy in relation to the use of television for children's acquisition of a foreign language in an additive context. The research was planned with three objectives in mind. First, to confirm the author's personal perception, drawn from observation within his own social networks, that technological advancement has not brought about a significant increase in the consumption of foreign television content in the original version. Second, to understand how these habits are affected by families' attitudes, beliefs and ideologies concerning the use of television as a tool for the acquisition of a foreign language in an additive context, and by families' efforts to influence language choice. Third, to study the environmental factors that play a major role in shaping family language policy.

The method adopted for this piece of research took the form of an Internet-based questionnaire that combined both closed-ended and open-ended questions addressed to parents with children in nurseries, and pre-primary and primary level schools from a particular region of Spain. The parents were asked about their habits, attitudes and beliefs in relation to foreign language learning in general and the use of television for their children's acquisition of English in particular, and about other variables that affect family language policy.

The data obtained from the answers to the questionnaire show that 18% of the respondents' children view television in English on a regular basis (every day or quite often). Through the use of chi-square tests (χ^2), the information gathered has allowed us to construct various ranks of dependence relationships between the different variables that conform and shape family language policy.

Finally, in the light of the research outcomes, we will conclude by recommending government top-down planning action aimed at promoting television-mediated foreign language acquisition at family level.

Key words: early foreign language acquisition, family language policy, language planning, lifestyle diglossia, television-mediated foreign language acquisition

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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"The trick to education is to teach people in such a way that they don't realize they're learning until it's too late." – Harold Eugene Edgerton

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

Ever since the time of the Treaty of Rome, interest in multilingualism within the European Union has been on the rise. Thus, the initial debate about the use of the different official languages within the European institutions and in the contact between these and the European citizens gave way to more ambitious policies aimed at the promotion of multilingualism in the educational systems of the different member states (European Commission, 2007b: 5). Multilingualism gained momentum when the European Commission (2003) claimed that linguistic diversity is one of the characteristics that defines the European Union and later in 2007, when multilingualism was given a permanent special status within the agenda of one of the European Commissioners. Furthermore, multilingualism is now seen as a source of economic growth and social cohesion for the Union (European Commission, 2007b: 5).

Since the Barcelona Council of 2002, in which the Presidency Conclusions asked for two foreign languages to be taught from a very early age (European Council, 2002), legislation and practice within the European Union have been shaped to meet this requirement. In this way, the European Commission (2005) proposed some key areas for action aimed at promoting multilingualism. Such actions included Early Language Learning (ELL), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), the promotion of languages in higher education, the study of the potential of using subtitles in films and television, the development of the academic field of multilingualism or the improvement of teacher training.

Later in 2007, under the request of the European Commission, a high-level group on multilingualism (2007) concluded that the main strategies for learning foreign languages are twofold. On the one hand, raising awareness, as many parents, educational organisations and policy-makers are not aware of the benefits of learning foreign languages; on the other, increasing motivation among learners. As regards the second conclusion, students' motivation, the authors claim that, given the limitations of formal education, it is essential to create additional learning opportunities (p. 9). Furthermore, it calls for research into different areas of multilingualism in order to

develop language policies, strategies and practices in this field. In this way, the first point of Research area 1, "The effectiveness of informal language learning; long-term effects of early language learning", television channels are encouraged to give parents the opportunity to choose the language by offering both dubbing and subtitling (p. 11).

In another communication on multilingualism, the European Commission (2008) pointed to the importance of subtitling as a source of informal language learning (p. 13). The idea of calling for the use of subtitling in films and television as a means of creating more language-friendly environments had already been proposed by the Commission (2003), who had also proposed launching a study on ways of promoting a wider use of subtitling.

At the same time, the European Commission's (2011) policy handbook on language learning at pre-primary school level, after outlining the benefits of Early Language Learning, highlights the importance of increasing the amount of time of exposure to a foreign language, especially away from traditional educational contexts (p. 13), recommends that the learning process should be adapted to the age of the children and that the settings of exposure should be meaningful and authentic (p. 17). Finally, the document highlights the importance of parents' involvement in the process of Early Language Learning in the home (p. 26).

Apart from the actions taken by the Commission itself, Member States are invited to establish their own national plans for the promotion of multilingualism. In Spain, some of the European Commission's proposals on multilingualism have been introduced into the education system. To mention just a few, and following the Ministry of Education's guidelines (2007), the curriculum has been adjusted so that a foreign language is now learnt at pre-primary school level and programmes for voluntary bilingual education in majority languages have started to be implemented in both primary and secondary schools under the CLIL methodological approach. Furthermore, following the recommendations of the Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), universities are now requiring future graduates to certify a level of proficiency equivalent to B1 or B2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in at least one foreign language.

However, the results of such measures are far from encouraging. In this respect for example, according to the European Commission's First European Survey on Language

Competences (ESLC) (2012, p. 94), the performance of the Spanish educational system is one of the lowest in this survey.

On the other hand, during the first decade of the 21st century, analogical television was gradually replaced by public digital terrestrial television so that, today, most Spanish citizens have access to free digital audio-visual content. Among other things, digital technology allows viewers to watch television in the original version and, sometimes, activate subtitles as well. This technological advancement has made that the Commission's proposal that subtitled contents should be made available by the media professionals, as expressed in the European Commission's study on the use of subtitling (2011a, p. 28), was outdated at the time of publication. However, no initiatives have been taken by Spanish institutions aimed at generalising the consumption of contents in the original version. As the European Commission's study on the use of subtitling (2011a, p. 23) points out, this language policy is based on historical reasons of a political, economic, social and cultural nature.

Finally, no policies whatsoever have been undertaken by Spanish institutions aimed at promoting parents' involvement in the process of Early Language Learning (ELL) in the home, as recommended by the European Commission (2011, p. 26).

We would finally like to make a reference to the Commission's *Final Report of High Level Group on Multilingualism* (2007, p. 19), which proposes the need to carry out research into different areas of multilingualism in order to develop language policies, strategies and practices in this field. More particularly, the fifth point of Research area 1, "The effectiveness of informal language learning; long-term effects of early language learning", suggests that one of the key areas of research should deal with language biographies, studying

> …people who have achieved high levels of multilingual proficiency, or multiliteracy; success factors; different types of individual multilingualism present in Europe. (p. 19)

In this respect, the topic of the present thesis precisely stems from the experience gained by the author through observation of his own children, aged nine, thirteen, fourteen and sixteen, over a period comprised between approximately eight and fifteen years for the youngest and the oldest respectively. Like the author, these children have Spanish as their only first language and live in Spain in a Spanish-speaking family, surrounded by a

Spanish-speaking wider community. At the time of writing this thesis, they had reached a remarkably high level of proficiency in productive and receptive skills in English. The kinds of contact with English have been varied and always according to their level of age-appropriate cognitive development, but one feature common to them all is that they have been fully immersed in a TV-in-English family language policy. As a matter of fact, these children are reaching considerably higher levels of communicative competence in English than those who only occasionally choose to view television in English or those who have attended bilingual programmes at their schools but continue watching television in their first language. For example, whereas the 16-year-old child could certify level C1 (CEFR) in English at the age of 14, the rest of his classmates could only certify level B1 after having received identical tuition within the school context; and whereas the 13-year-old and the 14-year-old children could both certify level B2 in English at the age of 12, the rest of their classmates could only certify level A2.

However, this successful acquisition process may also have been affected by other variables such as early literacy or above average levels of IQ. In other words, it is not clear that only-English television exposure can exclusively be given the credit for these outcomes. What is more, we have not found any research that can throw light on the effects of the IQ variable on the success of the television-mediated acquisition of a foreign language. Consequently, generalisations are not possible yet and longitudinal research would be necessary in order to show how much of the acquisition process is being affected by input from television and how much by factors such as those expressed above.

Six proposals that have come up so far so as to promote multilingualism in the European Union are of especial interest in the present thesis and will help us develop the arguments that underpin our discussion. First of all, the need to increase the amount of exposure to foreign languages; secondly, the importance of exploring informal approaches to foreign language learning, particularly to the role of subtitling in television and the cinema; thirdly, the importance of Early Language Learning; fourthly, the need to make learning meaningful to children; in the fifth place, the key role of parents in the process of ELL in the home, and finally, the need to carry out research into different areas of multilingualism in order to develop language policies, strategies and practices in this field.

Taking into consideration the ideas put forward so far, we move on now to state that the goal of the present PhD thesis, which was triggered by the author's experience in managing his own family's language policy as regards foreign language acquisition, is the study of the sociolinguistic factors involved in the development of a *lifestyle diglossia*, an acquisition/usage language planning action that could enable us not only to implement the European Union's recommendations above but also to take them a step further in such a way that foreign language learning in additive contexts could be transformed into second language acquisition and foreign languages could become second languages in certain domains. In this respect, for example, in her study of English in the Netherlands, Edwards (2014) concludes that

> A number of the results are suggestive of a gradual shift from EFL to ESL status. English is not learnt only in the foreign-language classroom, but acquired in wider societal domains. (p. 137)

1.1 Terminological Issues

Let's first of all contextualise the key concepts that have been used to express our goal. The term *diglossia* has been widely studied ever since it was first introduced by Ferguson (1959) in relation to two varieties of a language that exist side by side throughout a community, each having a definite role to play. What he identified were speech communities in which a High variety was used in contexts related to religion, education, politics or culture, and a Low variety was used in informal spoken everyday situations. This function specialisation was closely linked to the speakers' attitudes, values, and perceptions of language power and prestige.

Later, Fishman (1967) expanded the notion to include the use of totally unrelated languages and set out to bridge the gap between two research traditions which had focused on individual bilingualism, on the one hand, and diglossia (social bilingualism), on the other. He established four types of relationships between bilingualism and diglossia for the different speech communities. In this way, he identified speech communities in which there exist both bilingualism and diglossia, diglossia but not bilingualism, bilingualism but not diglossia, and neither bilingualism nor diglossia.

The concept "lifestyle diglossia" was first used by Saxena (2014) to refer to micro-level language choice practices through which people actively reflect their group affiliations drawing on both globalised and local lifestyles in contexts in which a majority and a

minority language co-exist. Another characteristic of lifestyle diglossia is that it has traditionally been studied in relation to subtractive language contact contexts in which a majority and a minority language have to co-exist, and is narrowly associated with studies of language attrition and language shift.

However, in our thesis, we have given the concept *lifestyle diglossia* a new dimension and will from now on be used in relation to a majority language monolingual context in which another majority foreign language is introduced for one particular domain or function, in this case for television viewing, as a core element of a foreign language acquisition planning action led by the appropriate education authorities, thus creating an additive context. Such a foreign language acquisition plan would be a grass-root intervention with a double objective in mind. First, to convince parents that their children should view television in one or more foreign languages as the norm, rather than the exception, and thus become a lifestyle. And second, to make this lifestyle a lifelong habit that passes down from generation to generation. Therefore, lifestyle diglossia would be the outcome of language planning action designed by a macro level institution and implemented by macro and meso level institutions at micro level aimed at creating an *additive* context in which two or more majority languages co-exist through a process of domain language specialisation for the foreign majority language. The longterm outcome of this planning action should be a permanent diglossic relationship between the majority language (Spanish) and the foreign language(s) chosen by children and adults alike for viewing television in the original version. In this way, learners of L2 would become future everyday users of L2. It wold be a scenario halfway between 'ESL' countries on the one hand and 'EFL' countries on the other (Schneider, 2003). In describing new Englishes, Schneider (2003) distinguishes between English as a Second Language countries, in which L2 would assume official status "as the language of politics, the media, jurisdiction, higher education, and other such domains (as in Ghana, Nigeria, India, Singapore, Papua New Guinea, etc.)", and English as a Foreign Language countries, in which "…English performs no official internal function but is still strongly rooted and widely used in some domains (like the press or tertiary education) because of its special international usefulness in such fields as business, the sciences, and technology (as in Israel, Egypt, or Taiwan)" (p. 237). Thus, in an ideal scenario, L2 would be acquired at school and in wider society (television) and used by large parts of the population, not only by the elite. Furthermore,

learners would turn into everyday users (as in ESL countries). However, L2 would lack an official status and would not be used for intranational communication. On the contrary, as in EFL countries, L2 would be used for international communication and would not serve expressive and emotive functions nor would it be a means of identity construction (Edwards, 2014).

We would also like to briefly say a few words about the concept *acquisition/usage language planning*. According to Haugen (1983), language planning is concerned either with decisions to implement linguistic changes such as standardisation of spelling or modernisation of terminology (which he calls *corpus planning*), or with the changes that society has to experience in the process of selecting, implementing and disseminating one or more languages for particular social functions such as the language of instruction, the language of the mass media or the official language of a polity. He calls this second function *status planning*. Cooper (1989, p. 33) introduces a third category, which he calls *acquisition planning*, to refer to the efforts made to increase the number of speakers of a particular language and which has traditionally been related to the acquisition of second or foreign languages through school instruction. However, Cooper (1989, p. 161) claims, despite successful lesson delivery by teachers, language use will be limited to the school context unless there is some practical motivation to extend its use beyond the classroom, thus curtailing the potential for an increase in the number of speakers and in the levels of proficiency. In this respect, Baker (2011) supports the idea that the school context, although important for the spread of a particular language, is not enough, which explains why, Baker (2011) claims, acquisition planners' focus has shifted from the school context to the family, placing the emphasis on the need to convince parents to raise their children bilingually. Only when families fail to promote the usage of a particular language in the home does the school take over such responsibility from the families (Baker, 2011).

Finally, according to Deumert (2001), status and acquisition planning are closely related in that new contexts of use of a language may attract more speakers and an increase in the number of speakers of a language may help support the spread of functions of that language (p. 645).

If we take Cooper's (1989, p. 45) definition of language planning as the "...deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or

functional allocation of their language codes"; or, for that matter, other definitions of language planning gathered by Cooper (1989, p. 30) himself referring to the role played by social actors such as political and administrative institutions in deciding about the teaching and use of language, we cannot but conclude that our attempt to promote a lifestyle diglossia can only be understood in the light of such approaches to language planning, clearly affecting spheres of life beyond the scope of the school, for which a thorough and inclusive description of the actors, contexts, planning directions and influencing factors involved must precede. In other words, the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia would fall within the scope of both acquisition and usage planning since the goal of a lifestyle diglossia language planning action will be increasing the number of speakers of one or more foreign languages and their level of proficiency in those languages by convincing parents that their children should view television in one or more foreign languages, assigning in this way a particular social function to one or more languages different from the children's first language. The difference between a lifestyle diglossia language planning action and traditional approaches to status and acquisition/usage planning lies in the fact that Baker's (2011) claim that the school context is not enough for the spread of a language and that the emphasis must, therefore, be placed on convincing parents to raise their children bilingually, is expressed in relation to *subtractive* language contact contexts in which a majority and a minority language have to co-exist, and is narrowly associated with studies of language attrition, language shift and language revitalisation. However, the lifestyle diglossia planning action that is being proposed in this thesis is aimed at creating an *additive* context in which two or more majority languages co-exist through a process of domain language specialisation for the foreign majority language.

For us, therefore, acquisition/usage language planning would be the efforts by macro level institutions to promote the acquisition of one or more foreign languages in an additive context through a process of domain language specialisation. It would be in this context in which foreign language learning would become second language acquisition, first of all because the language would not be formally learnt but involuntarily acquired, and secondly because the language of the foreign country would become part of our children's everyday lives and thus become a second language.

1.2 Actors, contexts and direction of the planning action

According to Ricento (2000, p. 23), the critical question to be answered by researchers is why individuals decide to use (or stop using) a particular language for a specific function in a particular context, and how people's choices influence (or are influenced by) institutional language policy decision-making (locally, nationally and supra-nationally). The author claims that this question can only be answered by integrating micro-level research (which he calls the sociolinguistics of language) with macro-level investigations (the sociolinguistics of society). Therefore, following Baldauf's (2004) categorisation of levels at which language policy can take place, we will evaluate data at macro, meso and micro levels concerning the different sociolinguistic variables involved in the development of a lifestyle diglossia in an autonomous community of the north of Spain.

A classical approach to understanding language planning stems from the attempt to answer Cooper's (1989, p. 31) question "Who plans what for whom and how?", which he posed to give account of the differences and similarities among previous definitions of language planning. Let's now look at this question in more detail. According to Cooper (1989, p. 31) the "Who" refers to the institutions, be they political, religious or educational, and the individuals who undertake the language planning. Resorting to Baldauf's (2004) three levels of language policy, it could be argued that macro-level planning policies are promoted by public and private macro institutions such as national governments legislating, for example, about the official language of a whole state or of a particular territory within, or by supranational institutions such as the European Union. Meso-level planning actions are taken on by public and private medium-sized institutions such as religious groups or schools deciding, for example, about the language of instruction in their classrooms. Finally, micro-level language planning measures are implemented by individuals within the local community or within the family, for example when they adhere to the 'One-Parent-One-Language' (OPOL) FLP.

The "what", according to Cooper (1989, p. 31), is on what language planners focus their attention, namely the planning of the status, the corpus, the acquisition and the use of a language mentioned above.

In answering the "for whom", Cooper (1989, p. 35) argues that the target of language planning cannot be limited to nation-states, as others before him had suggested. Thus,

starting at the macro level, it could be asserted that language planning developed by a macro institution (i.e. "who") would reflect a top-down process aimed at influencing (i.e. "for whom") not only macro-sized institutions such as states or supranational organisations, but also meso-sized domains such as ethnic groups, religious congregations or schools, and micro-sized settings such as families or school playgrounds. Likewise, decisions made at the meso level can be aimed at influencing medium-sized institutions (for example, imposing the language of instruction in a particular school context) or small-sized micro contexts such as the family (for example, when the school teachers recommend parents and children that television should be watched in a particular language, thus following a top-down process). Thirdly, planning concerning language use made at the micro level does not normally try to exert its influence beyond the micro level, although a bottom-up process can sometimes take place and a particular micro-level policy become institutionalised at meso and macro levels, for example the feminist campaign that began at grassroot level and was later adopted by higher levels of authority (Cooper, 1989: 38).

Finally, the answer to the "how" is twofold. According to Spolsky (2004), planning can be explicit, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document, or implicit. Where there is no explicit language policy, this must be searched in the practice. This idea is reinforced by Neustupný (1983), cited by Cooper (1989, p. 40), who claims that language planning "…refers to all planned and unplanned, conscious and unconscious language modification, whether by an individual or an organization." Cooper (1989, p. 98) also identifies four ways by which policies can be implemented, namely authority, force, promotion and persuasion.

Let's now focus on the parts of Cooper's (1989) question that address "who" and "for whom" language planning is designed and implemented. We believe that these are perhaps the key elements that will help us justify the effort to approach the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia from two different perspectives, on the one hand as a traditional school-based planning action aimed at foreign language learning and, on the other, as a government-based language planning action.

Kaplan and Baldauf's (1997, p. 122) distinction between "language planning" and "language-in-education planning" will help us understand this point. They affirm that the main difference between these two concepts is that, whereas language-in-education

planning only affects the education sector, language planning is the concern of more than one government agency, as it must "...penetrate many sectors of society" (p. 122). However, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) claim themselves that among the language policy and planning decisions that the education sector has to make, they include the "...need to devise strategies to garner parental and community support for any plan put in place" (p. 9).

If we look again at Cooper's (1989, p. 45) definition of language planning, a further distinction seems to emerge. Thus, whereas language planning is concerned with influencing people's behaviour in relation to language use (in other words, it would be aimed at promoting social change), language-in-education planning is primarily related to language teaching. However, this difference is again minimised by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), who state that the education sector does also have to secure parents' support for school-based language learning plans, which leads us to assume that influencing people's behaviour as to language use falls within the scope of both schools and macro level agencies. This is why we have called it acquisition/usage language planning.

Applied to the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia scheme, the ideas above result in a number of consequences as regards the nature of the actors, contexts and direction of the planning action. The first assumption is that we will be dealing with a classical top-down language planning approach, with two levels at which the planning is developed and two levels at which it is implemented. On top of the scale we would find one macro level agency developing both a language and a language-in-education planning actions, on its own or with the cooperation of other macro level agencies. Further down the scale, we would find meso level contexts acting as transmission belts and playing a double role, as recipients of the macro agencies' policies and guidelines as to implementation on the one hand, and as transmitters and implementors of the macro agencies' policies and guidelines at micro level on the other. Finally, at the bottom of the scale we would find the micro level contexts in which macro and meso level actors implement policies. In other words, the macro level institution, for example a national or a regional education authority, would set out to draw a plan to improve the school population's level of competence in a foreign language by increasing the amount of time of exposure to that foreign language away from traditional educational contexts. The guidelines would be passed down to the school network which, in turn, would

implement the policy on the following level, in this case the family, trying to convince both parents and children that television should be watched in that foreign language. Furthermore, the schools' interactions with families could also be supported by the national or regional education authority, who could launch different campaigns to promote viewing television in the original version with or without subtitles.

1.3 Factors that influence the planning action

We have so far identified the actors and the contexts that, in a classical intervention, take part in a language planning scheme. However, what we have not identified yet are the factors that trigger and influence particular planning actions.

1.3.1 Linguistic factors

According to the European Commission's study on the use of subtitling (2011a), in countries with a tradition in subtitling, the majority of the students that participated in the study self-evaluated their competence in their second language as close to mother-tongue level whereas in countries with a tradition in dubbing, that level was lower. Furthermore, the European study of linguistic competence (2012), based on the European Commission's First European Survey on Language Competences (ESLC) (2012), highlights the difference of attainment in listening comprehension of English between those countries in which the students have regular contact with this language through the consumption of audiovisual contents with and without subtitles, and those countries in which the students do not have such regular contact.

Although various theoretical models that take into account cognitive, biological and psychological factors predict successful foreign language acquisition through elements such as early exposure and the Input Factor, the studies cited above do not approach the linguistic factors that facilitate television-based second language acquisition from a cognitive, biological and psychological angle. We will, therefore, look at how these elements relate to television-mediated foreign language acquisition.

1.3.2 Socio-political factors

Next, we will move on to study the socio-political factors underlying particular language planning actions.

1.3.2.1 Political ideologies

According to Baker (2011), language policy is influenced by political ideology because politicians have different agendas about languages that are reflected in a number of linguistic ideologies. Deumert (2001) also refers to the ideological dimensions of language planning outlined by language planning theorists in the 1980s and 1990s.

Van Dijk (1998) has argued that the concept of ideology can be approached from three different disciplines related to cognition, society and discourse. Within the social field, ideologies are associated with

> group interests, conflict and struggle. They may be used to legitimate or oppose power and dominance, or symbolize social problems and contradictions. They may involve social collectivities such as classes and other groups, as well as institutions, organizations and other parts of social structure. (p. 5)

According to Romaine (2000), "Because languages and dialects are often potent symbols of class, gender, ethnic and other kinds of differentiation, it is easy to understand that language underlies conflict..." She concludes, however, that language conflicts themselves are not a problem but a reflection of an underlying struggle for economic advantage, power and status. Following this assertion, an assumption we can make is that, if we talk of economic advantage and power, we must also talk of interest in exercising control over such assets. This is, perhaps, the reason why language planning has traditionally been carried out at government level. Examples of how macro level institutions try to exercise control over language for political and ideological reasons can be found, for instance, in the enforcement of models of bilingual education that facilitate the accomplishment of their political and ideological goals (see for example, Artigal, 1993; Baetens-Beardsmor, 1993; Baker, 2011; Cummins, 2007; Johnstone, 2007; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981; Stubbs, 1991).

If we tried to find the common element underpinning government actions, we would probably come to the conclusion that the vast majority of such actions are political in nature. The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines the term *politics* as "the art or science concerned with winning and holding control over a government" as well as "the art or science concerned with guiding or influencing governmental policy". Therefore, political ideology, which permeates many dimensions of people's life, from territorial and social organisation to the economy, culture, education, health or labour

relationships, could be understood as the set of ideas that direct government actions. In other words, a mechanism that organises power relationships, not only between majority and minority language groups who speak different languages within the same territory, but also between majority language groups in different countries. From this assumption, it follows that the study of the predominant political ideologies at macro level must come under consideration in the first place in relation to the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia.

1.3.2.2 Linguistic ideologies

This initial step will necessarily lead us to explore the relationships between power, politics, ideologies and language in more detail. In this respect, because ideology can be understood as "... a system of ideas that aspires both to explain the world and to change it." (Cranston, 2014), it would be natural to think that, just as our actions are a reflection of our ideas, convictions and beliefs about all kinds of everyday situations, our daily choice of language will be ruled by our ideas, convictions and beliefs about language. Likewise, applied to a particular socio-political context, if language use is controlled by the government through language planning, it can be argued that such planning action will be a reflection of a particular linguistic ideology. According to Ricento (2000), linguistic ideologies are related to other ideologies (e.g. political) that influence and constrain language policies (p. 4). The study of the linguistic ideologies at stake will, therefore, follow the discussion of the political ideologies at macro level.

1.3.2.3 Language policies

We have so far identified two of the factors that influence language planning from a socio-political perspective, namely political ideology and linguistic ideology. Our next point of debate will have to do with describing how particular linguistic ideologies lead to specific language planning actions. This is done through language policy which, Spolsky (2004) claims, is closely associated with power and authority (p. 40). Thus, according to Spolsky (2004), language planning is one of the three components that make up language policy, the other two being the speakers' language practices and the speakers' beliefs about a particular language, the three of them tightly connected to each other. Language policies operate within speech communities of different sizes and types, and the three variables just mentioned, Spolsky (2004) adds, are affected by both linguistic and non-linguistic elements, variables and factors of a political, social,

religious, cultural, psychological or bureaucratic nature, though not necessarily in a causal way.

1.3.3 Educational factors

We discussed above that schools, at meso level, are also called to play a major role in the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia, acting as transmission belts between government agencies and families. According to Lang *et al.* (2016), "meaningful relationships between teachers and families during children's early years are linked to school readiness, later academic success, greater academic motivation, and stronger social emotional skills" (p. 40). Parental involvement is a multifaceted factor related not only to the time invested by parents in their children's education at home or at school, but also to the type of connections shaped between home and school (Lang *et al*., 2017). They argue that the parents-teachers relationships established during the first stages of children's schooling are essential to promote parents' involvement and to strengthen future relationships with teachers (p. 97).

1.3.4 Other factors

We would like to end this section, devoted to outlining the factors that influence language planning, by looking at the relevance to our study of an analysis of the present state of vitality of Spanish.

According to UNESCO (2003), "A language is in danger when its speakers cease to use it, use it in an increasingly reduced number of communicative domains, and cease to pass it on from one generation to the next. That is, there are no new speakers, adults or children." Following this definition, we could conclude that language vitality can be understood as the state of a language as regards the degree of usage in everyday communication amongst its speakers within a certain geographical context. The literature on the dangers that the 'weaker' languages have to face when two languages get in contact is abundant (see for example Appel and Muysken, 1987; Baker, 2011; Crystal, 2000; Dorian, 2004; Edwards, 1994; Fishman, 2011).

Language contact has traditionally taken place through trade, war, colonialism, religious proselytism and migrations. Language contact is usually detrimental to the weaker community. According to Appel & Muysken (1987), there are five situations where language contact is produced. The first situation is what these authors call the linguistic

archipelago, with small groups of unrelated minority languages (for example, tribes from the Amazon basin and from the Australian desert). The second context occurs when there is a stable border between two linguistic families such as Latin and Germanic languages in Switzerland or Belgium. Setting three would correspond to decolonised territories where the native languages and the language of the former colonial power coexist, for example in India. The next situation is that of indigenous minority languages surrounded by national languages such as Basque in France and Spain, and Welsh in the United Kingdom. The last situation is related to migratory movements from third world countries to European and North American countries.

However, more recently, language contact has also come about through the expansion of communication and transport networks, which has given rise to economic and cultural globalisation (Dorian, 2004). Both types of language contact are susceptible of affecting the vitality of the weaker of the two languages.

At societal level, the vitality of a particular language can suffer variations; in other words, the degree of usage can change. According to Baker (2011), variations in vitality can be understood as an increase/decrease in the number of speakers in a region, in the level of proficiency of its speakers or in the use of the language in different domains. The changes in these three variables are conceptualised as language shift when vitality decreases and language revitalisation when vitality increases. The power to become a lingua franca, also known as language spread, is another criterion that can be used to measure the vitality of a language.

For Weinreich (1953, p. 63), language shift is "the change from the habitual use of one language to that of another". Van Herk (2012) defines language shift as "the gradual replacement of one language by another as the primary language of communication and socialization within a speech community".

If we took the definitions of language shift given above literally, we would have to conclude that the successful implementation of a lifestyle diglossia in the context under consideration would be an example of self-induced language shift because the pattern of language usage for the domain of television viewing would be altered when the majority language (Spanish) is replaced by one or more majority languages. As we saw before, the literature on language vitality, which mostly focuses on the effects of language contact on the vitality of minority languages, predicts that the vitality of such minority

languages will suffer from contact with the majority language. Therefore, it is essential for us to be able to predict whether the language shift brought about by the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia will have the same effects on the vitality of the majority language replaced (Spanish) as the effects that language shift normally has on the vitality of minority languages, and to determine the degree of such alterations. Obtaining this information will give us an overall perspective of the potential dangers to which the majority language replaced will be exposed, in this way allowing us to design the necessary measures to limit such risks and to incorporate them into the language planning action.

Therefore, we will set out to study the implications that the emergence of new contexts of language contact (brought about by the expansion of communication and transport networks) are already having on the status and vitality of Spanish. The initial hypothesis, drawn from observation and personal experience, and which the analysis of the data will later have to confirm or reject, seems to indicate that, although the influence of English and other foreign languages is felt in all kinds of everyday communicative situations, Spanish language and culture enjoy, and are likely to keep on enjoying, a strong vitality, which will lead us to hypothesise that the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia is not likely to weaken such vitality.

1.4 Course of action

We will conclude highlighting the course of action that will be followed.

1.4.1 Literature Review (Chapter 2)

The Literature Review chapter will evaluate the data available on the variables that have just been outlined.

First of all, we will focus on the specific linguistic factors that underpin and justify the whole study. More particularly, we will evaluate the main theoretical models that predict successful foreign language acquisition through elements such as early exposure and the Input Factor, how these elements relate to television-mediated foreign language acquisition and how television-mediated foreign language acquisition adapts to the different European Commission's proposals mentioned above. We believe that, if we are going to develop a language planning action that proposes a change of paradigm for the way in which foreign languages are learnt, we must first be able to demonstrate that

those benefits for foreign language acquisition really exist and that television-mediated acquisition can make the difference.

In second place, because the language planning scheme that we are proposing stems from a series of recommendations by the European Union for the national states of which it is comprised, aimed at improving its citizens' competence in foreign languages, it seems logical to assume that a thorough study of the socio-political factors involved must start in the context of the European Union as a supranational polity. Next we will move on to examine the main political ideologies at a national level with a double perspective in mind; on the one hand, looking outward at its relationship with the European Union and, on the other, looking inward at its own national identity and at the integration of national and immigrant minorities. The study of linguistic ideologies and language policies at a national level will include policies dealing with the two areas of interest mentioned above. On the one hand, language policies that regulate the relationships between the national majority language and the indigenous/immigrant minority languages within its territory. On the other hand, language policies aimed at the acquisition of foreign languages. A third macro level will deal with the political nature of the Autonomous Community of Cantabria in relation to the rest of Spain and the linguistic ideologies that originate from it. We will conclude with a reflection upon the language policies aimed at the acquisition of foreign languages within the school context in this community.

Next, because of their influence on parents and children, we believe that schools and teachers could play a fundamental role in the promotion of a top-down language planning action like the one we are proposing here. Therefore, at meso level, we will evaluate the literature on parents-teachers co-caring relationships.

However, a top-down acquisition/usage language planning action that affects children interacting with television in their homes will necessarily have to count on the protagonists' parents. As Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, p. 14) claim, "…without the help of the communities involved, as well as of the larger community, a stable language ecology will not develop and no amount of planning is likely to bring sustained language change". In this way, following Ricento's (2000, p. 23) recommendations, we will be able to integrate micro-level with macro-level research. Therefore, after evaluating the socio-political and educational factors at macro and meso levels, we will

need to look at the existing data in relation to language policies at micro level. More particularly, this section of the Literature Review will be devoted to the revision of the literature concerning the different elements that make up family language policy (FLP). Precisely, the evaluation of the existing data in relation to FLP will anticipate the core element of research of the PhD thesis in Chapter 4, in which we will set out to dissect micro level FLP in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria through the analysis and discussion of the data obtained from research carried out to throw some light on the nature of FLP concerning the use of television for the acquisition of a foreign language in an additive context.

Finally, the Literature Review chapter will conclude with the analysis of the vitality of Spanish language and culture. We will use four frameworks of analysis that, although primarily intended for the measurement of the vitality of minority languages, can still be used for all languages. The four frameworks to which we are referring are Giles, Bourhis & Taylor's (1977), Conklin & Lourie's (1983), UNESCO's (2003) and Hyltenstam and Stroud's (1996).

1.4.2 Research presentation: Discussion and Analysis (Chapter 4)

Going back to the consequences regarding the areas of research that must be undertaken, it seems clear that, as we stated above, the best acquisition/usage language planning action aiming not only at demonstrating parents that their children can dramatically improve their proficiency in one or more foreign languages by systematically watching TV in those languages but also at convincing them to implement such plan is likely to fail unless we can win parents' hearts and support. It is, therefore, essential to assume that families, although at the bottom of the scale that indicates direction of the planning action, must necessarily become central in our study, as this is the context where the plan would be implemented. In consequence, we must gain as much insight into the various factors that affect families' motivations, beliefs and linguistic practices as possible. This information will be essential when it comes to designing ways of helping teachers and civil servants from the education sector and other sectors to approach parents.

In this respect, the role of the family has been widely researched in relation to different language-related processes (Schwartz and Verschik, 2013). For example, Fishman (1991) claims that the family "…has a natural boundary that serves as a bulwark against

outside pressures, customs and influences" and is the most common basis of intergenarational language transmission, which is critical for the maintenance of the home language. Harris (1995) defines the family as the context in which children learn the different patterns of behaviour that are acceptable inside and outside the family, which is particularly useful for bilingual children who use one language at home and a different one outside the home. Others have considered the family as an intermediate level between the individual and the community arguing that "…changes start at the level of the individual and eventually may become conventionalized at the community level" (Schwartz and Verschik, 2013). Finally, Spolsky (2012) has laid the foundations for the study of language policy at family level as a critical domain susceptible of being studied independently (Schwartz and Verschik, 2013).

Furthermore, we must bring back here the European Commission's (2011, p. 26) policy handbook on language learning at pre-primary school level, which we mentioned above, highlighting the importance of parents' involvement in the process of Early Language Learning in the home. The importance of parents' engagement has been widely explored. For example, Pomerantz, Moorman & Litwack (2007) document children's improvement in school achievement through an increase in motivation and engagement, and an improvement in children's mental health, of which their emotional and social functioning are an example. Walker & Hoover-Dempsey (2008, p. 853) argue that improvement in children's achievement can be accounted for by the influence that parents' involvement has on children's beliefs and behaviours.

Taking these ideas into consideration, we would like to point out that our research will be aimed at a full understanding of family language policy in relation to foreign languages learning. Based on the use of television for the early acquisition of a second language, we will present and discuss the results of research designed to throw some light on the nature of the sociolinguistic factors that define FLP in this respect.

1.4.3 Research methodology (Chapter 3)

The method adopted for the research, which will be discussed in detail following the Literature Review chapter, was a questionnaire-based survey that combined both closed-ended and open-ended questions addressed to parents with children in nursery school, and pre-primary and primary levels from a particular region of Spain. In order to draw conclusions regarding present family language policy, these parents were asked

about their habits, beliefs and attitudes in relation to foreign language learning in general and the use of television for their children's acquisition of English in particular, and about other variables that affect family language policy. The focus was placed on English because of its international status and because it is the dominant foreign language in the education system.

1.4.4 Conclusions (Chapter 5)

Finally, we will conclude by discussing the possibility of implementing a lifestyle diglossia in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria and, in case the answer is affirmative, whether television-mediated foreign language acquisition can become generalised by the drive of parents' initiative.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

As we anticipated in the previous chapter, the review of literature will focus on evaluating the data available on the linguistic, social, political and educational factors that influence a language planning action aimed at implementing a lifestyle diglossia.

2.1 L2 Acquisition

We will commence looking at the linguistic aspects of foreign language acquisition. In this respect, we will look at the main theoretical models that predict successful foreign language acquisition through elements such as early exposure and the Input Factor, and how these elements relate to television-mediated acquisition.

Given that this has become a broad field of research itself, it will have to be broken down into a number of subsections that will guide the review from general theoretical frameworks to the more specific aspects of L2 acquisition. The structure of this area of review will therefore lead us from the general to the concrete. The first step will necessarily make us face the main theoretical models of second language acquisition. Later, based on this analysis, we will look at how the hypotheses proposed by the theoretical models link to the European Commission's (2011, pp. 13, 17) recommendations that children should be exposed to meaningful and authentic settings and that time of exposure to a foreign language should be increased, especially away from traditional educational contexts. It will be then that we will be able to fully understand how television-mediated foreign language acquisition both conforms to the theoretical principles and helps materialise the European Commission's recommendations mentioned above. Finally, all the literature reviewed up to this point will lead us to the discussion of the nature of the benefits of television-mediated foreign language acquisition, which will help us verify the validity of the initial hypotheses.

However, to avoid terminological confusion, we should first clarify the use of the concepts "second" and "foreign" language that we will make in the present part of our thesis. In this respect, the literature normally applies the terms "second" and "foreign" language to two realities differentiated by the context in which the language is the usual means of communication. Thus, the term "second" is used when the language is the main means of communication in the community in which the user lives. On the contrary, the term "foreign" is used when the language is not the habitual means of

communication in the country where the user lives (Abbott, 2001). Nevertheless, when discussing theoretical frameworks of second language acquisition, both terms will be used indistinctly to refer to any additional language that is learnt after the mother tongue and the term "L2" will apply to both. The rationale behind this decision lies in the number of similarities between second and foreign language acquisition.

Having made this initial clarification, we move on to discuss what theory has to say about different issues regarding L2 acquisition.

2.1.1 Early acquisition

One of the recommendations made by the European Council (2002) and the European Commission (2011) is that the learning of foreign languages should start at an early age. Two arguments are put forward. On the one hand, it is assumed that learning is easier when it starts before a certain moment in people's lives. On the other, it is argued that the children's longer exposure to a foreign language derived from an early start should have a positive influence on the learning process and on the long-term consequences.

2.1.1.1 The Critical Age Factor

Let's begin with the argument that learning is easier when there is an early start. The role played by age in relation to the effort required to learn a second language before a certain age, to the level of attainment and to the efficiency of the learning process is precisely one of the key areas of debate in the field of L2 acquisition.

According to Inhelder and Piaget (1958), there is a milestone in the cognitive development of children that takes place around the age of puberty which is responsible for the onset of the stage of formal operations and in which the adolescent becomes an abstract thinker, capable of reflecting on rules and on his own thoughts. Krashen (1981, p. 76) claims that this milestone or "critical age" may also involve a weakening of the "acquisition" potential and a strengthening of the "learning" potential. This distinction that Krashen makes between "acquisition" and "learning" is key for understanding why L2 acquisition seems to be more effortless for children. Krashen (1982, p. 10) argues that, because acquisition is a subconscious process, those acquiring an L2 are not aware of the acquisition process. On the contrary, L2 learning implies a conscious reflection on rules, a conscious development of metalinguistic awareness that requires the activation of more cognitive mechanisms and, therefore, more mental effort. However,

it should be made clear that Krashen does not imply that acquisition disappears within the stage of formal operations. As a matter of fact, he explicitly maintains that the ability to "pick up" a language does not disappear at puberty and that adults have access to both mechanisms (1982, p. 10).

As regards the level of attainment, researchers cannot agree on the role of the critical age. On the one hand, it is a principle generally accepted, and evidence seems to support it (see for example Beatens, 1986: 129; Bialystok, 2003: 58; Krashen, 1981: 76), that early bilinguals attain higher levels of proficiency in L2 than late bilinguals and that learning a second language after the critical age makes it virtually impossible for the learner to attain native-like competence, particularly regarding the acquisition of the phonological system (Krashen, 1981; Bialystok, 2003). Some authors have put forward the idea that differences in attainment in L2 acquisition before and after the critical age could be explained by biology-related psychological changes taking place around the age of puberty. Thus, during the stage of formal operations, the adolescent develops self-consciousness and feelings of vulnerability derived from his new capacity to conceptualise other people's thoughts, which lead him to wrongly assume that he is the focus of other people's attention. For example, Krashen's (1982, p. 30) Affective Filter Hypothesis proposes that there is a psychological mechanism placed outside the language acquisition device that is strengthened as a consequence of these psychological transformations through which the adolescent goes. He claims that three affective variables that influence successful L2 acquisition, namely anxiety, motivation and self-confidence, are negatively affected by such strengthening of the affective filter, preventing the acquirer from utilising all the input that he receives. Another explanation for the different levels of attainment in L2 competence before and after puberty is proposed by Felix's (1982) Competition Model, cited by Beatens (1986). According to Felix (1982), the human mind is made up of different cognitive sub-systems. At the onset of puberty, the language-specific cognitive sub-system, which controls language acquisition, loses ground in favour of the problem-solving cognitive sub-system, resulting in lower levels of achievement in L2 (Beatens, 1986: 134).

With respect to the acquisition of the phonological system of a second language, Krashen (1981, p. 35) concludes that "Pronunciation seems to be the most difficult aspect of a second language to acquire after this age", perhaps because it reflects more than any other feature of language the speaker's personality. Furthermore, Bialystok's

(2003, pp. 78-80) review of research in relation to the question of phonological acquisition concludes that there exists a critical period that closes between five and seven years of age. Up to this critical age, any new phonological category for a second language can be created on its own irrespective of the similarities or differences with any known sounds from the learner's first language. Beyond this point, it is very difficult to establish new phonological categories and the learner has to adapt those already existing to the sounds of L2, making the production of native-like pronunciation virtually impossible to achieve. The evidence that Bialystok (2003, p. 79) reports relates to a change in the perceptual and sensorimotor processes taking place at this age.

However, as we stated above, there is controversy around the issue of attainment. For example, when summarising previous analyses on this point in question, Baker (2011, p. 152) concludes that, although early acquisition tends to produce higher levels of proficiency in L2 than late acquisition, this reflects the outcomes of acquisition but not the acquirer's potential to reach proficiency. According to the research cited by Baker (2011), the fact that older learners tend to achieve lower levels of mastery of L2 than younger learners could be attributed to social differences in the learning context, such as opportunities for usage, as well as to the learner's psychological characteristics, such as motivation and necessity. Furthermore, from the review of the research on this issue, Bialystok (2003, p. 77) argues that, with the exception of the phonological system, the evidence analysed reveals a progressive rather than a sharp decline in the ability to learn a second language around the age of puberty, which implies that this decline could be attributed to the effects of normal aging on language and cognition. Bialystok (2003) concludes that "…it may be that a critical period applies to phonology but not to other aspects of language such as syntax" (p. 80). At the same time, arguments against a critical age for the acquisition of the phonological system seem to emerge from other research. For example Johnstone (2002) reports findings revealing the attainment of native-like accent for learners who had acquired their second language after puberty. Likewise, Singleton's (1989) review of literature makes him conclude that "…the evidence does not consistently support the hypothesis that younger learners are inevitably more efficient than older learners in the phonetic/phonological domain" (p. 137).

From the discussion of the relationship between the critical age factor and level of attainment one may conclude that the critical age factor on its own cannot be decisive in

predicting levels of attainment. On the one hand, if the critical age is identified with the onset of the stage of formal operations, like some authors have proposed (Krashen, 1981), it can be counter-argued that, although the strengthening of the affective filter triggered at this moment can negatively influence L2 acquisition, its effects do not necessarily have to be permanent since, theoretically, the end of adolescence should lead to a psychological stabilisation, thus contributing to a weakening of the affective filter. On the other, the evidence revealing native-like pronunciation in late learners runs against the idea that a critical point between the ages of five and seven impedes the achievement of such high level of proficiency.

Finally, as regards determining whether it is more efficient to learn a second language before or after the critical age, measured in terms of time employed, Baker (2011, p. 151) for example argues that, because adults have superior intellectual skills derived from the onset of the stage of formal operations, less time will be required to master a second language. Krashen (1981, p. 41) proposes two hypotheses. On the one hand, he defends the efficiency of adults' informal learning environments, which could be identified with acquisition. On the other, he argues that formal environments, in which the second language is learnt rather than acquired, are more efficient.

Three conclusions emerge from the discussion of early acquisition in relation to the critical age factor so far. First, that early acquisition of L2 is more effortless than late acquisition/learning. The second conclusion is that, although it is generally accepted that young learners reach higher levels of proficiency than adult learners, from a theoretical approach age does not prevent late learners from reaching high levels of proficiency, as corroborated by evidence. And third, that learning processes are more efficient than acquisition processes in terms of time requirements. As Marinova *et al.* (2000) put it in their conclusions,

> Age does influence language learning, but primarily because it is associated with social, psychological, educational, and other factors that can affect L2 proficiency, not because of any critical period that limits the possibility of language learning by adults. (p. 28)

The second and third conclusions may lead us to wrongly assume that language policy and language planning aimed at promoting early acquisition, as proposed by the

European Council (2002) or the European Commission (2011), may not be as relevant as it looks. However, as we will see in the next section, this is far from true.

2.1.1.2 Length of exposure

A second important aspect of early acquisition has to do with the amount of time of exposure to a second language, which is potentially longer for early learners than for late learners. Apart from being strongly linked to the achievement of higher levels of proficiency, as we will see below, the length of exposure is also related to retardation of the start of dementia (Bialystok *et al.*, 2007) and of Alzheimer's disease (Schweizer *et al.*, 2011) by four years because decline in cognitive control is delayed or slowed down.

It has also been associated with improved cognitive development in young learners. Thus the age of acquisition seems to affect the early and the late bilingual's brain structure differently. Baker (2011, p. 177) cites the research below supporting this statement. For example, according to Hull and Vaid (2007), whereas most right-handed monolinguals process language mainly in the left hemisphere, bilateral processing seems to be more pronounced in early bilinguals than in late bilinguals. Research by Mechelli *et al.* (2004) shows that density of grey matter is higher in bilinguals than in monolinguals, and in early bilinguals higher than in late bilinguals. Another difference, pointed out by Kim *et al.* (1997), suggests that languages are stored more closely together in the brain in early bilinguals than in late bilinguals. Finally, Kharkhurin (2007) reports in his study that age of acquisition and level of proficiency both change the structure of a bilingual's memory, which may facilitate divergent thinking. To be able to cope with the increasing demand of processig two languages, bilinguals may undergo a structural change in their brain. Such morphological change may increase the cognitive abilities of bilinguals.

As regards the effects of the length of exposure on the achievement of higher levels of proficiency, summarising previous research on this issue, Baker (2011, p. 153) concludes that, although older learners in school settings tend initially to learn quicker than younger learners, children who begin instruction early tend to reach higher levels of proficiency. Likewise, Singleton (1989) notes that

> Concerning the hypothesis that those who begin learning a second language in childhood in the long run generally achieve higher levels of proficiency than those who begin later in life, one can say that there is

some good supportive evidence and that there is no actual counter-evidence. The data from school-based investigations which seem to contradict this hypothesis do not in fact bear on it, if one takes naturalistic situations as the basis for one's definition of 'long run', 'eventual', etc., since second language exposure-time involved in studies focusing on formal learning situations never approaches that involved in long-term naturalistic studies. (p. 137)

The literature reviewed seems to indicate, therefore, that the advantage of early acquisition of a second language in relation to the degree of proficiency lies not on the existence of a biological barrier after which high levels of proficiency are unattainable, but on the fact that early acquisition increases the potential for length of exposure, which the research has proved to relate to higher levels of proficiency. Unlike the hypothesis of a critical age, this second argument could be adopted in support of the language policies proposed by the European Council (2002) or the European Commission (2011) that were cited above.

We end here the discussion of some relevant literature on the importance of early acquisition for the attainment of high levels of proficiency in a second language. The next section will deal with the role played by input.

2.1.2 The Input Factor

Three of the recommendations by the European Commission cited in the Introduction above will help structure the present section. First, the need to increase the amount of exposure to foreign languages (2007, 2011). Secondly, the importance of exploring informal approaches to foreign language learning, particularly the role of subtitling in television and the cinema (2007, 2008). And thirdly, the need to make learning meaningful to children (2011). These three ideas will guide us in the discussion of the role played by input in the acquisition of a second language.

There are two main groups of theories of language acquisition, namely formal theories, which are based on Chomsky's generative grammar, and functional theories. Whereas the former claim that language acquisition is possible because there is a mechanism that is inherent to all human beings, a kind of mental and cognitive predisposition of the child, the latter argue that what produces acquisition are external factors that have to do with the linguistic input that the child receives (Bialystok, 2003: 32). According to Bialystok (2003), there are three issues that can be used to distinguish between formal

and functional approaches, namely the independence of language from other cognitive functions, the nature of the linguistic knowledge and, most important for us, the role of linguistic input (p. 33).

In this respect, Bialystok (2003) claims, formal theories postulate that input is only needed to activate the innate universal language structure and that the exposure to heard language is sufficient to create linguistic principles (p. 51) whereas functional theories claim that input shapes the acquisition process itself, that "Language is in the environment, children interact with the environment, and children learn language." (p. 51). What emerges from Bialystok's (2003) discussion is that input is a central element for the acquisition of any language, regardless of the fact that the paths for the acquisition of L2 are different or the same as for the acquisition of L1. However, our concern here is not with how input affects the unfolding of languages in the mind of a child but with how input can be used to help children acquire a second language.

According to Kavanagh (2006), Krashen's model of second language acquisition, known as the Monitor Model, is the most influential theory of second language acquisition in the post Chomsky period. Central to his model is the Input Hypothesis. Krashen (1985) argues that humans only acquire language "…by understanding messages, or by receiving comprehensible input" (p. 2). He further claims that if the conditions that input is comprehensible and that there is enough of it are met, the grammar is automatically provided (p. 2).

However, Krashen (1985, p. 3) argues, although comprehensible input is essential for acquisition to take place, there are certain psychological requirements with which the acquirer must comply. Thus, the acquirer must be open to the input, for which he needs that the affective filter to which we alluded in the previous section is low, so that there are no mental blocks that prevent acquisition. Only in this way will input be transformed into "intake". Krashen adds that the affective filter is down when the acquirer is self-confident and motivation high, and concludes that the filter is lowest when the acquirer is so involved in the message that he does not realise that he is immersed in another language (p. 4).

Three requirements for acquisition to take place emerge from the discussion above. Two of them refer to the nature of the input, namely that it is comprehensible for the L2 acquirer and that there must be enough of it. The third requirement relates to the fact

that acquirers' mental barriers must be as low as possible. We can conclude, therefore, that the principles that derive from Krashen's (1985) hypotheses constitute a valid theoretical framework of support for the European Commission's recommendations for the promotion of multilingualism cited above, which included the need to increase the amount of exposure to foreign languages, the importance of exploring informal approaches to foreign language learning and the need to make learning meaningful to children.

2.1.3 From theory to practice

As we anticipated above, the question that we should now consider is how viewing television in a foreign language relates to the theoretical principles that have just been discussed and how it can help materialise the European Commission's recommendations for language policy action. Let's begin by referring once more to the three conditions that Krashen (1985) considers necessary for second language acquisition to take place. We will first discuss the requirements that the input should meet and then the requirement that relates to the acquirer's affective filter.

2.1.3.1 The amount of input must be sufficient

In the first place, Krashen (1985) argues that for input to lead to L2 acquisition, it must be sufficient. According to Rodgers (2013, p. 1), watching television is the favourite leisure activity across countries surveyed by the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development. In Spain, according to the *Instituto Nacional de Estadística* (the Spanish national statistics agency) (2016), almost 90% of the Spanish population watch television every day. Because viewing television programmes in the original version is now possible and it is available to any second language acquirer, this has become a very powerful source of input.

In this respect, Lin (2014) reports studies that have been conducted to explore the ways in which popular movies and television may be used effectively for English language teaching and learning, concluding that gains in proficiency correlate positively with greater exposure to English language input. Likewise, a longitudinal study by Verspoor *et al*. (2011) reveals that students who had access to English media outside the classroom reached significantly higher levels of proficiency in both productive and receptive skills than students who did not. Lindgren and Muñoz (2010) report higher

listening proficiency in English as a result of higher levels of exposure to subtitled television and films. Similarly, other researchers (see for example Kuppens, 2010; Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia, 2014) report significant effects of long-term watching English-subtitled television and movies on the incidental acquisition of English as a foreign language. Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) also report a clear growth and development of chilren's vocabulary when exposed to subtitled television programmes. Furthermore, Alghonaim (2020) reports the acquisition of English pronunciation via prolongued exposure to television cartoons. Finally, evidence that television viewing can also contribute to a young viewer's L1 acquisition is reported by Rice (1983) and Rice and Woodsmall (1988).

2.1.3.2 The input must be comprehensible

Another of Krashen's (1985) claims is that input should be comprehensible. In this respect, Rodgers (2013, p. 2) states that, for a bottom-up processing of information, research reveals that the percentage of vocabulary that must be known before understanding and acquisition of new vocabulary can take place ranges from 90% to 99% for comprehension and from 95% to 98% for vocabulary acquisition when input comes from reading and listening. On the other hand, Rodgers (2013, p. 3) also admits that there is no research into the lexical coverage that is necessary for comprehension of input and acquisition of new vocabulary from viewing television, although research has shown that frequency of occurrence and the use of cognates facilitate the understanding and acquisition of new vocabulary (Peters and Webb, 2018). However, it is a fact that children who watch television in a foreign language learn the language, even when initial understanding is non-existent. This could be due to the fact that watching television involves a number of top-down processes that facilitate comprehension and acquisition when initial comprehension from linguistic sources is not possible.

Thus, according to Nation (2007, p. 2), comprehension is enhanced when the learner is familiar with the content of the input. In this way, for example, Rodgers (2013, p. 2) argues that, for a top-down processing of information, television programmes offer a variety of topics and genres that facilitate that the acquirer becomes interested in and familiarised with the contents. In citing research into comprehension of video, he adds that

Learners could also build up familiarity with a program by viewing multiple and successive episodes. In doing so the learners would learn about the characters and storylines which may improve comprehension in future episodes. (p. 2)

Another condition that must be met in order to facilitate understanding of input, according to Nation (2007, p. 2), is that learners can use context cues and background knowledge. In this respect, citing previous research into video comprehension, Rodgers (2013, p. 2) claims that, in television viewing, top-down processing is facilitated by context cues such as imagery, which include observing lip movements, hand motions, facial gestures and body gestures (p. 9), and by background knowledge activated by its episodic nature, with its related storylines, recurring characters and repeated settings. Furthermore, background knowledge is also activated by the repetition of unconnected television programmes, which is a characteristic of some popular Spanish television channels that target children and teenagers.

In other words, there is, according to Rodgers (2013, p. 6), a complex interaction between top-down and bottom-up processes that results in the listener's construction of a mental representation of the input.

Nation (2007, p. 23) concludes that the fact that learners are interested in the input and want to comprehend it should also pave the way for understanding. Following this argument, Rodgers (2013, p. 3) discusses research into language learners' interest in learning through videos and into learners' belief that comprehension of video is easier than other input modes, and claims that, being television-viewing a comprehension-focused activity regarded by many as a very popular leisure activity, the acquirers' positive attitudes should contribute to enhancing comprehension and, therefore, acquisition.

2.1.3.3 The affective filter must be low

Krashen (1985) also hypothesises that, for the acquirer to turn input into intake, and thus produce acquisition, the affective filter must be down. In this respect, he suggests that the filter is lowest when the acquirer is so involved in the message that he does not realise that he is immersed in another language. This can be achieved, for example, when television is used in informal contexts for entertainment and not for learning purposes. In this respect, Rodgers (2013, p. 7) cites research demonstrating that visual

support facilitates a reduction in the levels of anxiety when the learner is not familiar with what speakers are talking about.

Therefore, from the discussion of the relationship between the theoretical principles of second language acquisition analysed and the different aspects involved in the process of viewing television in a second language, we can conclude that television could be successfully used as an adequate source of input leading to acquisition.

Likewise, we can conclude that viewing television in a foreign language could help materialise the European Commission's (2011, p. 13) recommendations for language policy action. For example, using television with children in informal settings like the home could help increase both the synchronic and the diachronic amount of time of exposure to a foreign language. It could also comply with the recommendations (European Commission, 2011: 17) that the learning process should be adapted to the age of the children and that the settings of exposure should be meaningful and authentic. Finally, viewing television could also help implement the proposal that motivation must be increased by creating additional learning opportunities (European Commission, 2007b: 9).

We conclude here the section devoted to discussing some relevant theoretical and practical issues of second language acquisition, in which we have focused on understanding the benefits of television viewing for the acquisition of a second language, the theoretical framework that predicts that television-mediated acquisition is feasible and the implications for language planning, as proposed by the European Commission.

2.2 Macro level socio-political variables

Having looked at the linguitic factors that can influence language planning, we now move on to analyse socio-political variables at three macro levels, first in the context of the European Union as a supranational polity, secondly at the nation-state level and thirdly, at a regional level.

2.2.1 European Union

2.2.1.1 Political ideologies

We will commence looking at the ideologies that underpin the working of the European Union. In this respect, the own nature of the European Union makes its politics and political ideologies unique. Thus, there seems to be a consensus that "…the EU sits somewhere between a traditional international organization and a state…" (Cini and Borragán, 2016: 3; Leuffen *et al.*, 2012; McCormic, 2017). This is so because, ever since the foundation of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957, there has been a movement towards integration that the Treaty of Rome explicitly states as one of its objectives in Article 2. Such integration, which refers to the process "…whereby political actors in several, distinct national settings are persuaded to shift their loyalties, expectations and political activities toward a new centre, whose institutions possess or demand jurisdiction over the pre-existing national states" (Haas, 1958: 16), is explained by different theories, each of them providing an understanding of "…why policy-makers choose particular policies and institutional arrangements" (Wiener, 2019: 12).

The relationship between the dimension of European integration and the ideological left/right dimension can be approached from different perspectives. For example, based on neofunctionalism, Sweet and Sandholtz (1997) argue that "European integration is provoked and sustained by the development of causal connections between three (exogenous) factors: transnational exchange, supranational organization, and European Community (EC) rule-making" (parentheses added) so that integration will be "…welcomed where it is perceived to be useful as a pragmatic and instrumental step in securing specific goals…" (Aspinwall, 2002: 83). On the other hand, governmentalists claim that integration is the result of "…state behaviour (which) reflects the rational actions of governments constrained at home by domestic societal pressures and abroad by their strategic environment" (parentheses added) (Moravcsik, 1993: 474). Another perspective argues that governments integration preferences are the consequence of "unique historical experiences". For example, in the British case, the relationship with the European Union has been framed by a desire to preserve sovereignty whereas in the case of Italy transfer of sovereignty to the European Union has been seen as an alternative to poor ruling by their own national governments (Aspinwall, 2002: 83). Finally, realism holds that national leaders' positions on the European Union are

determined by the pursuit of national interest (Marks and Steenbergen, 2004: 5). These four approaches are "…independent from the left/right concerns that frame domestic politics" (Marks and Steenbergen, 2004: 6).

However, Aspinwall (2002) claims, domestic political leaders' preferences as regards integration are also motivated by their position in the left-right continuum so that political parties and governments with centrist ideologies tend to favour integration whereas extreme parties and governments tend to be unfavourable to European integration. Others claim that the left pushes for European common market regulations and supports environmental, social, infrastructural and redistributive policies whereas the right prefers less EU regulation (Marks and Steenbergen, 2004: 7-9). In these cases, the dimension of pro/anti EU integration can be fused into the left/right dimension.

Finally, these two dimensions, pro-/anti-integration on the one hand and left/right on the other cannot always be fused so that, when there is a conflict between the allocation of resources between social groups and territories, dichotomies and division within political parties can emerge (Marks and Steenbergen, 2004).

2.2.1.2 Linguistic ideologies and policies

As we argued in the introductory chapter above, language policy is influenced by political ideology because politicians have different agendas about languages that are reflected in a series of linguistic ideologies (Baker, 2011). According to Bourhis (2001), there are four clusters of linguistic ideologies defining a continuum that modern states apply to promote the integration of national language minorities and immigrant communities into the dominant majority.

First, Bourhis (2001) claims, pluralism ideology believes that it is both rightful and valuable that minorities maintain key features of their linguistic distinctiveness, and is willing to support financially and socially private activities aimed at their promotion as long as such minorities comply with the public civil values of the majority group.

Next in the continuum, civic ideology also expects minorities to abide by the values of the majority group and is willing to respect minorities' rights to use, maintain or promote their own linguistic affiliation. However, unlike pluralism, civid ideology adopts a neutral stance as regards financing activities aimed at promoting minority languages and does not allocate public resources to this aim.

In third place, assimilation ideology expects "national minorities and immigrants to abandon their own cultural and linguistic distinctiveness for the sake of adopting the language and values of the dominant group constituting the core of the nation state" (Bourhis, 2001). Language shift and language loss can be left to occur voluntarily and gradually across generations or it can be accelerated through laws and regulations.

Finally, ethnist ideology forces or encourages minorities to stop using their own language so that they adopt the majority language and, in some cases, it does not expect minorities to be linguistically assimilated because they are not considered part of an ancestral ethnolinguistic group (Bourhis, 2001).

According to Schjerve and Vetter (2012), the prominent role that multilingualism has gained in the European Union since the 1990s could be attributed to an invention by the European Union itself "…in order to ensure its goal of an ever-closer political and economic integration". In this respect, Schjerve and Vetter (2012) claim that linguistic diversity is above all an ideological concept reflecting a cultural diversity which has a key significance within the European unification process since "the aim is to achieve political integration into an ever-closer Union without compromising the cultural distinctiveness and the linguistically defined identities of the member states" (p. 11), since such cultural and linguistic diversity can be said to be one of the core elements that defines European identity. In words of Pinxten *et al.* (2007), "The notion of European identity ought to be one that endorses at least the three values of equal opportunities for all, freedom for all, and respect of diversity" (p. 696).

We may then conclude that, considering the European Union as a political entity, pluralism is the linguistic ideology that best reflects the political movement towards a closer integration. In the same way, the linguistic policies proposed since the foundation of the European Economic Community, and more particularly since the 1990s, have been a reflection of this drive towards integration in its different variants. For example, Krzyżanowski and Wodak (2011) link the development of multilingualim to certain European Union's key political strategies, more particularly, to "the EU's 2000–2010 Lisbon Strategy on the European Knowledge-Based Economy" and with the Europe 2020 initiative (p. 116). In this respect, Krzyżanowski and Wodak (2011) claim that language policies from this period are oriented towards economic integration, specially towards employment and employability, and "the skills and tools which seem to be

necessary to achieve economic targets" (p. 119). Thus, for example, various documents from this period conclude that improving foreign language skills enhances mobility and employability (European Commission, 2000: 8), contributes to the competitiveness of the European economy (European Commission, 2007a: 1) or improves the skills and competences of the population (European Commission, 2007c: 2). A second variant addresses the role of cultural and linguistic diversity as a catalyst for the construction of a European identity (European Commission, 1973; European Parliament/European Council, 2000). A third variant shows linguistic policies aimed at the democratisation of the European Union institutions by establishing multilingualism in the contact between the Commission and European Union citizens (European Commission, 2005). Finally, a fourth variant addresses the value of multilingualism as an instrument for intercultural dialogue and social cohesion, two elements that are seen as necessary for the construction of a common public sphere that leads to the formation of a European polity with which its citizens can identify (Schjerve and Vetter, 2012: 13).

In conclusion, European linguistic ideologies and policies reflect two of the three perspectives on languages and bilingualism/multilingualism introduced by Ruiz (1984). On the one hand, languages are seen as a right in as far as language policies propose multilingualism as the form of communication between the European Union institutions and the European Union citizens in order to democratise access to the European Union institutions.

On the other, language policies regard languages and multilingualism as a resource that can help both strengthen economic integration, and foster intercultural dialogue and social cohesion among European Union citizens.

2.2.2 Spain

2.2.2.1 Political ideologies

We will commence looking at the political ideologies concerning the relationship with the European Union. According to Gómez (2014), Spaniards' self-perception of the Europeanness of Spain has been historically affected by some peculiarities, for example, "…the American dimension of the Spanish Monarchy in the past centuries or its historical decline through a series of conflicts, where Spain demonstrated some specific religious or cultural characteristics, signalling a partition with the rest of the continent"

(p. 75). During Franco's regime, dictatorship kept Spain separated from Europe, and Europe's condemnation and rejection of the Spanish political regime accentuated this cleavage between Europe and Spain. These are the reasons why, throughout the 20th century, many Spanish thinkers and political actors saw Europe as a reference for democracy that could bring progress, modernisation and normalisation to Spain (Gómez, 2014).

Between Franco's death in 1975 and accession to the European Community in 1985, European integration was seen by the political elites as an opportunity to undergo economic reforms, to consolidate democracy and to overcome isolation (Jiménez and de Haro, 2011). The urgency of the moment made that the debate about the specific details of the economic and political consequences of the accession were ignored or postponed both by the political parties and by the public opinion for the sake of a quick adhesion process that would consolidate the changes during this period of transition to democracy (Gómez, 2014). In words of Gómez (2014),

> Europeanism, which during the dictatorship had been a flag of anti-Francoist opposition, had now become a universal attitude, shared by all of the political actors from left to right and including peripheral nationalist parties, trade unions and employers' organisations. (p. 87)

After accession in 1985, and despite the economic and political difficulties that arose at a time at which the European Monetary Union (EMU) project was being launched, the Maastricht Treaty was becoming effective and Spain was undergoing an economic crisis, most of the political parties showed increased support for the integration process (Jiménez and de Haro, 2011).

However, some discontent commenced to emerge. Thus, the communist party expressed its opposition to the lack of a social dimension in the process of integration and to the neoliberal economic model adopted by Maastricht which, on the contrary, was supported by the rest of political parties in the left-right ideological continuum. Leftist parties also focused their criticisms on the "democratic deficit" of the European Union, which was based on "...the European Parliament's minor role in the European legislative process and the absence of essential mechanisms for citizens' participation in EU politics" (Jiménez and de Haro, 2011: 131). On the contrary, conservative parties were more critical with the transfer of power, national sovereignty and autonomy to a federalist EU. But all in all, the structural and cohesion funds received from Europe

have helped strengthen Spanish confidence in further integration (Jiménez and de Haro, 2011: 130). Furthermore, according to Marks and Hooghe (2003), high levels of national and regional identity seem to have been compatible with support for European integration, and a positive association between attachment to the country and to the European Union seems to have emerged (p. 7).

Next, we will move on to discuss the main political ideologies concerning the Spanish national identity and the integration of national and immigrant minorities. According to Keating (2000), modern nation-states like Spain are currently undergoing eroding pressures from institutions above the state level such as the European Union and also from territorial disputes from below. Keating (2000) asserts that the Spanish state has been historically uncapable of achieving national integration, with Catalan, Basque and Galician nationalist parties demanding recognition of the singularities of these territories and pushing for special status within the State (p. 5). The end of Franco's political regime in 1975 brought about an attempt by all the political actors of the time to transform the centralist state into something different (Martínez-Herrera and Miley, 2010). Thus, the ideological climate facilitated that, during the preparation of the preliminary draft of the new Constitution, consensus among leftist, centrist, rightist and nationalist political leaders was reached as to the symbolic recognition of "…'regional' and/or 'peripheral nationalist' aspirations" (Martínez-Herrera and Miley, 2010: 8). This consensus was later articled in the 1978 Spanish Constitution which, according to Martínez-Herrera and Miley (2010), "…enshrined the recognition of linguistic, cultural, and some degree of 'national' pluralism in the country and outlined procedural mechanisms for the creation of regional 'autonomies', which has given rise to a *de facto* asymmetrical federal state" (p. 6).

Finally, we will discuss reception and integration policies of immigrant minorities. In the 1980s, Spain stopped being a country of emigration and became a country of immigration. The first waves of immigrats were Spaniards who had themselves emigrated after the Civil War and during Franco's regime. By the end of the decade, however, there was a substantial increase in the number of foreign immigrants (Gaya, 2002). According to Driessen (1998), fast economic growth after Franco's death and proximity to the Maghreb turned Spain into a country of immigration where immigrants had no papers and were economically exploited in the services or the agricultural sectors, and faced discrimination regarding housing, health and education (p. 97). Later,

with the turn of the century, Pérez and Buján (2005) claim, the origin of immigrants shifts from Africa to South America, mainly because racial tensions in the year 2001 led the government to opt for culturally closer immigration. The integration of Spanish women into the labour market, facilitated and demanded by years of economic prosperity, required that their former role as backbone of the family be taken over by South American female domestic workers that shared language and religion with their employers (Pérez and Buján, 2005: 63). With the enlargement of the Eurpopean Union in 2007 to include countries of Eastern Europe, Valero-Matas *et at.* (2014) claim, immigrants from Romania became the largest group of immigrants, outnumbering those of Moroccan origin. Finally, China's change in their migration policies after 2005 resulted in an increase of arrivals from this country that made its nationals the largest Asian community in Spain. According to the Spanish national statistics agency (INE), at the end of 2019 there were approximately 5 million immigrants living in Spain, which amounted to 10.64% of the total population. The territorial distribution of these immigrants was as follows: about 36% came from the EU, 25% were from South and Central America, 22% from Africa, 9% from Asia and the remaining 9% from European countries outside the EU and from North America. Of those coming from the EU, about 37% came from Romania, about 72% of all Africans were from Morocco and approximately 48% of all Asians came from China.

As for integration, Alencar and Deuze (2017) argue that the Spanish process of integration of immigrants is bidirectional, requiring mutual adaptation which affects both Spanish and immigrant citizens. Emphasis is placed on the recognition of differences between different cultures and, at the same time, on integration of the immigrant "…as part of the dominant project of identity politics within nation-states" (p. 155). Thus, Rodríguez (2008) claims, immigration policies are aimed at promoting among immigrants knowledge of the common values of European citizens, knowledge of their rights, compliance with the obligations of all those living in Spain, and knowdedge of the official languages of the different territories and of the social norms of coexistence of Spanish society (p. 225).

2.2.2.2 Linguistic ideologies and policies

We shall commence looking at the ideologies and policies regulating the acquisition of foreign languages in the education system. According to Villacañas de Castro (2017), the accession of Spain to the European Community in 1985 meant coming under the influence of social and economic globalisation led by the United Kingdom and the United States, particularly the latter, which became hegemonic during the second half of the 20th century. This originated the replacement of French by English as the preferred foreign language within the education system.

Since the promulgation of the 1978 Constitution, different regulatory changes have affected the provision of foreign language teaching (Zayas, 2013). Such changes, Zayas (2013) argues, have been the consequence of two opposing forces. On the one hand, the European Union legislation prioritising the learning of foreign languages as a way of socially structuring the economic union and its incipient political union. On the other, the political configuration of Spain into a *de facto* federal state made up of regional "autonomies" with competences in educational matters, which has caused a multiplicity of linguistic policies in which the teaching of some co-official languages of the State has prevailed over others to the detriment of active policies, which affects the overcoming of the traditional deficit of knowledge in foreign languages of Spanish citizens (pp. 63-64). As for the former of these two forces, Villacañas de Castro (2017) argues that, after 1990 and particularly with the turn of the third milenium, the teaching of foreign languages was linked to the strengthening of a multilingual and multicultural Europe, and the different European Union recommendations were introduced into the Spanish education system. For example, a first foreign language came to be optionally introduced in the pre-primary level, an optional second foreign language began to be taught in the secondary level and the CEFR started to be widely used as a reference for curricular developments, testing and textbooks.

Zayas (2013) argues that the learning of foreign languages is being constantly obstructed by lack of legislative stability triggered by political alternation rather than by pedagogical criteria (p. 66). He also argues that traditional protectionism-driven promotion of dubbing over subtitling has deprived Spaniards of permanent contact with other languages.

As regards the implementation of bilingual education in primary, secondary and A-Levels, the present applicable legislation in each autonomous community comes from the *Real Decreto 126/2014* and *Real Decreto 1105/2014*, two statewide laws that allow regional education administrations to introduce the teaching of part of the national curriculum in a foreign language (Mármol, 2017). However, already in 2006, the *Ley Orgánica 2/2006* asked for recognition and support for teachers who taught their subject in a foreign language (Andrés, 2014).

Finally in this section, we will look at language ideologies and policies that regulate the relationships between the national majority language and the indigenous/immigrant minority languages within its territory.

During the Franco dictatorial regime, an assimilationist linguistic ideology supported the political ideology of the time, which resulted in the denial and suppresion of linguistic rights (Lasagabaster, 2017). However, after Franco's death, the new Constitution acknowledged the country's multilingual and multicultural character (Huguet, 2007). According to Ramallo (2018), the territorial-bound co-official status that some indigenous minority languages have in Spain as a result of the Constitution has allowed the different Spanish governments to

> downplay its responsibility with respect to a nation-wide language policy aimed at the strategic promotion of minority languages within the country, despite the commitments it made upon ratifying the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRMO) in 2001. (p. 465)

Therefore, since the restoration of democracy after Franco's death, attempts to revitalise languages like Basque, Catalan and Galician have always been fostered by the autonomous governments within each region. We may conclude then that, although linguistic pluralism was theoretically enshrined by the Spanish Constitution, the different Spanish governments seem to have adopted a civic ideology with respect to regional languages rather than a pluralist stance.

Revitalisation policies implemented in these regions since the 1980s have succeeded in increasing the symbolic and economic value of vernacular languages. Thus, for example, in the Basque Autonomous Community, Ortega *et al.* (2015) claim, the decline of Basque has been reversed by grassroots and institutional efforts to provide Basque language classes for adults and Basque-medium schooling for children. According to Urrutia and Irujo (2008), the success of Basque revitalisation started in

1982 with the provision of a legal framework which, over the decades, has legislated to guarantee the right to receive teaching in both official languages, to receive publications, radio and television programmes, and other media in Basque, and to carry out professional work, political and trade union activities in Basque (p. 179). Furthermore, the law guarantees citizens' right to use both Basque and Spanish in their dealings with the Public Administration which, subsequently, led to enforcing the requirement to speak Basque to join the Public Administration. The requirement criterion to speak the indigenous language to be able to apply for public employment has also been enforced in the Catalan Administration. However, unlike the Basque education system, in which there is freedom to choose the language of instruction, the Catalan language policies have enforced the obligatory use of their vernacular as language of instruction. As a result of these policies, the number of new speakers who have not acquired the language through intergenerational transmission but through immersion or through the education system has increased too (Lasagabaster, 2017: 585).

However, despite the success of these revitalisation processes, Hoffmann's (1996) statement that, in their attempt to revitalise indigenous languages in particular regions, certain language planners seemed to be adopting measures that repeated the same injustices that they had meant to amend and that these measures would further divide and harm their societies, appear to have come true. In this respect, Garvía and Santana (2020) claim that linguistic immersion in Catalan schools has made that Spanish is no longer a language of instruction, which has resulted in political and legal controversy, and widespread contestation, with detractors of immersion arguing that parents have lost the right to choose the language of instruction of their children (Garvía and Miley, 2013). To sum up, following De La Calle and Jeffrey Miley (2008), we may conclude claiming that different linguistic ideologies are behind present language policies being implemented both in the Basque Autonomous Community and in the Autonomous Community of Catalonia. Thus, a sort of civic ideology seems to underpin the respect for parents' choice of language of instruction in the school context in the Basque Autonomous Community, which contrasts with a more assimilationist ideology undelying the compulsory use of the vernacular in Catalonia.

As regards the linguistic ideologies and policies in relation to immigration, the literature suggests that, although politicians seem to favour linguistic pluralism and multiculturalism within the school context, in practice very few programmes aimed at

the promotion of interculturalism have been enforced (see for example, García Castaño *et al.*, 2008; de Lizarrondo Artola, 2009). Thus, García Castaño *et al.* (2008) highlight the linguistic programmes that different autonomous communities have implemented to promote the teaching of the language and culture of origin in the school in order to help children not lose the bond with their homeland (p. 37). In other instances, special classrooms have been created in which remedial help is provided to those immigrants experiencing trouble with the majority language. This support, however, focuses on linguistic content and, García Castaño *et al.* (2008) argue, leaves out the entire cultural universe that surrounds the language (p. 35). Notwithstanding what has been described here as regards support for immigrants' integration, policies are always developed and implemented at a regional level because competencies in education have been transferred to the autonomous communities.

Finally, according to Lasagabaster (2017), immigrant students tend to have more favourable attitudes towards Spanish and English than towards minority indigenous languages. Immigrants' positive attitudes towards English are due to "its role as lingua franca and its perceived usefulness for obtaining a job" (p. 589).

2.2.3 Autonomous Community of Cantabria

2.2.3.1 Political ideologies

Cantabria is a monolingual region that had a population of 581,078 inhabitants at the end of 2019, of which 35,837 (6.16%) were foreigners (INE). It is one of the seventeen autonomous communities into which Spain was divided within the new democratic political framework after Franco's death. Historically, Cantabria had been one of the provinces that made up Castille, the largest region of Spain, situated on the central plateau. However, with the Constitution of 1978, it was singled out as a uniprovincial community for political and geographical reasons. It is also one of the fourteen non-historical communities and has a low level of regional awareness (Rabadán, 2019). Rabadán (2019) goes on to claim that the debate between the political parties tends to take place along the ideological right-left continuum rather than around the centre-periphery conflict.

2.2.3.2 Linguistic ideologies and policies

The steps taken by the successive regional authorities concerning the learning of foreign languages include legislating in order to create a legal framework within which different policies could be developed and impletented. According to Andrés (2014), the implementation of bilingual education programmes in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria is an example of the process of adaptation of European linguistic ideology to a particular regional context through the development of specific education policies (p. 40). They are regulated by Orden ECD / 123/2013, which establishes their modalities, objectives, general characteristics, access criteria, means of evaluation, incidence in the work of teachers, as well as pedagogical principles (Andrés, 2014: 53). Apart from the introduction of bilingual education, policies aimed at promoting foreign languages within the school context incorporate measures to encourage teacher training, the hiring of foreign language assistants, the introduction of a second foreign language in Primary Education, nursery school-based early acquisition of English or the introduction of external assessment of students' level of communicative competence with respect to the CEFR in 6th grade of Primary Education and 4th grade of compulsory Secondary Education (Andrés, 2014). Pupils' level of attainment in a foreign language is established by the curriculum developed by the regional education authorities. In this respect, pupils in the last year of Primary Education are expected to reach level A1 when they are not enrolled in any of the bilingual programmes and level A2 when they are. As for Secondary Education, pupils are expected to attain level A2 at the end of this cycle in ordinary school settings and level B1 in bilingual education contexts.

2.3 Meso level educational variables - Schools and families relationships

We discussed above that the actors within meso level contexts are also called to play a major role in the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia, acting as transmission belts between government agencies and families. Thus, according to Ferguson (2006), the education sector is a core element in the implementation of language policies because it is largely funded and, therefore, controlled by the state, and because the curriculum offers "…unequalled opportunities to shape the attitudes and behaviours of the next generation" (pp. 33-34). Examples of the role to be played by the school can be seen in the processes of language revitalisation undergone in places such as Wales, the Autonomous Community of Catalonia or the Basque Autonomous Community.

However, the attempts by the schools to shape children's attitudes and behaviours become more effective and more efficient when parents' involvement is achieved. In their review of the literature on parental involvement in children's education, Pryor and Pryor (2009) conclude that teachers' variables such as perceptions and practices more strongly influence levels of parental involvement than family characteristics such as children's grade level, parental education, family size or parental work outside the home. Furthermore, in their review of the literature on the topic of teachers' attitudes, knowledge and practices in the context of parent-teacher relationships, Forry *et al.* (2011) found a number of positive outcomes for children, families and teachers. As for children, they found that positive parent-teacher relationships resulted in improvements of children's health and wellbeing, of cognitive and academic skills, of social skills and of problem behaviours (pp. 9-10). In relation to family outcomes, they report an improvement of parents' satisfaction with school services, more participation in school activities, improved mental health and improved parent-child relationships (pp. 10-11). Finally, concerning teachers' outcomes, they conclude that positive parent-teacher relationships produce an improvement of teachers' confidence in and attitudes towards their role as educators, and an improvement of the relationships with parents.

Lang *et al.* (2016) identify three dimensions that characterise teacher-parent relationships. The first dimension refers to communication, understood as the exchange of information, the nature of the strategies used to communicate and the topics of discussion. The second dimension is concerned with whether parent-teacher interactions are dominated by undermining or by support. Thus, Lang *et al.* (2016) claim, lack of support from teachers or criticism of parental practices may lead parents to weaken their bonds with the school setting which, in turn, produces adjustment disorders in the children (p. 42). Finally, the third dimension involves the level of agreement or disagreement between parents and teachers as regards childrearing practices. In this respect, Lang *et al.* (2016) claim, "When there are differences in childrearing beliefs and practices, and if these differences are not actively negotiated, parents may be less involved in their children's education, and parents and teachers may provide inconsistent or incongruent messages to the child" (p. 42). On the contrary, where there is consistency between home and school practices, positive outcomes emerge, for example, preschool children have higher social competence (p. 41).

2.4 Micro Level Variables - Family language policy (FLP)

As we anticipated in the Introduction above, the next step in the analysis of the sociolinguistic factors involved in the development and implementation of a lifestyle diglossia corresponds to the understanding of family language policies in relation to this issue. Therefore, after having evaluated the linguistic aspects of L2 acquisition, and the social, political and educational factors at macro and meso levels, we will need to look at the existing data in relation to language policies at micro level. More particularly, this section of the Literature Review will be devoted to the revision of the literature concerning the different elements that make up family language policy (FLP). The evaluation of the existing data in relation to FLP will outline the core element of research of the PhD thesis in Chapter 4, in which we will set out to dissect micro level FLP in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria through the analysis and discussion of the data obtained from research carried out to throw some light on the nature of FLP concerning the use of television for the acquisition of a foreign language in an additive context.

Before initiating this discussion, however, we will briefly clarify that the concepts "foreign" and "second" language acquisition, which for the sake of simplification have been used so far to refer to the acquisition of any additional language that is learnt after the mother tongue, will from now on be used according to their original sense. In other words, the term "second" will be applied when the language being learnt is the language of the country where the learner lives and the term "foreign" will be used when the language being learnt is not the language of the country where the learner lives. In this way, this terminological distinction will help the reader focus on the topic of the present thesis, which is FLP in relation to the acquisition of foreign languages and not second languages.

The review of literature regarding FLP will be divided into three subsections. We will commence with the contextualisation of FLP within the general framework of language policy. Next, we will look at the different elements that make up FLP. Finally, we will discuss the environmental factors that affect FLP.

2.4.1 A general context for Family Language Policy

For the contextualisation of FLP, we will follow Spolsky's (2004) general framework of language policy. According to Spolsky (2004), language policy is the result of the interaction between the following three components of any speech community. First of all, the language practices of the speech community, which is what the members of that community actually do when they use language. Practices would be "the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire" (p. 5). Secondly, Spolsky (2004) refers to what the speakers of a community think about different aspects of language and language use, which he defines as language beliefs and ideologies. Finally, he speaks of the "specific efforts to modify or influence that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management" (p. 5).

2.4.1.1 The nature of the speech community

Spolsky (2004) himself clarifies the nature of the speech community to which he alludes stating that "language policy operates within a speech community, of whatever size" (p. 40). According to Baldauf (2004), language policy can take place at three levels, namely macro, meso and micro levels. This idea will be expanded in the next subsection, in which language planning will be discussed.

2.4.1.2 Language planning

As regards Spolsky's (2004) third component of his model of language policy, commonly known as language planning, this may adopt one or more of three basic lines of action. According to Baker (2011), these lines include status planning, corpus planning and acquisition planning. Status planning tries to raise the status of a language. Corpus planning aims, for example, at modernising terminology or at standardising spelling. And thirdly, acquisition planning deals with the management of language learning contexts such as schools. Baker (2011) introduces a fourth line of action, which he calls usage or opportunity language planning, aiming at integrating a minority language into a number of domains of everyday usage. As we saw in the Introduction above, Cooper (1989) states that we could summarise the nature of language planning by answering the following question: "Who plans what for whom and how?" (p. 31). In other words, we could argue that we would be referring to those institutions or individuals who focus their attention on planning the status, the corpus, the acquisition

and/or the use of a language, trying to influence whole countries, organizations or individuals in a more or less planned and conscious manner.

2.4.1.3 Interactions between practice, beliefs/ideology and planning

The nature of the interactions between practice, beliefs/ideology and planning is affected by innumerable non-linguistic variables of a political, social, cultural, psychological or economic nature, to mention the most relevant. Taken together, language and the (non-)linguistic variables that affect language policy constitute the environment in which language policy exists. Haugen (1971) uses the concept "language ecology" to speak of the interactions of any given language with its environment. Such environment can be sociological when the language interacts with society or psychological when, for example, two or more languages interact in the mind of a bilingual or multilingual speaker. Haugen (1971) claims that "Sociologists have extended the meaning of the term *language ecology* to the interrelations between human societies and their environments" (italics added).

We have attempted in this section to briefly introduce the reader to the most relevant aspects of Spolsky's (2004) theory of language policy. In the next two sections (2.4.2 and 2.4.3), we will review the literature that explains how the three elements of his theory, namely practice, beliefs and planning, together with the factors that influence the relationships among them, operate at family level.

2.4.2 Practice, beliefs and planning at FLP level

As we anticipated above, the piece of research presented in Chapter 4 of our thesis, which analyses and discusses the role of family language policy in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition in additive contexts, draws precisely on Spolsky's (2004) theoretical framework, which states that the interactions between practice, beliefs and planning are affected by psychological forces, and by forces of a social, cultural, political and economic nature.

Drawing on Spolsky (2004), King *et al*. (2008) conclude that FLP

> "...takes into account what families actually do with language in day-to-day interactions; their beliefs and ideologies about language and language use; and their goals and efforts to shape language use and learning outcomes."

Therefore, in the Analysis and Discussion chapter further below, we will be looking at what the participants in the research actually do (practice), at what they think (beliefs) or at how they manage actions (planning) in relation to their children viewing television in a foreign language, and analysing the underlying forces that may have influenced the participants' responses.

King *et al.* (2008) also draw on Cooper (1989) when they claim that, applied to the family context, the question: "<u>Who</u> plans <u>what</u> for <u>whom</u> and <u>how</u>?" can be narrowed to

> "Which *caretakers* attempt to influence what *behaviors* of which *family members* for what *ends* under what *conditions* by what *means* through what *decision-making process* with what *effect*?" (p. 4).

In other words, we would be talking of language planning undertaken by individuals within micro-level contexts that is aimed at micro-level settings, thus leaving out institutional planning undertaken at macro or meso levels aimed at micro-level contexts.

In discussing these three variables of FLP we should, first of all, mention that we face a problem in this thesis that has to do with the fact that most of the research into FLP done up to the present moment deals with the role of families in relation to processes of shift, maintenance and revitalisation of minority languages. However, relatively little research has been carried out concerning FLP in additive contexts. In this respect, the most relevant research has mainly been addressed to the study of the "One-Parent-One-Language" (OPOL) approach. King *et al.* (2008), King and Fogle (2006), King and Logan-Terry (2008), Schwartz and Verschik (2013) or Slavkov (2016) cite some relevant literature dealing with this aspect of FLP. Piller (2001) also reports on research into other parental language strategies for raising bilingual children in a non-native language different from OPOL. Furthermore, such research has focused on the different patterns of oral communication that individual parents use to raise bilingual children. For example, referring to the home language vs. community language dichotomy, Piller (2001) cites Pavlovitch (1920) or Fantini (1982, 1985). Piller (2001) highlights research by Harding and Riley (1986) and Tabouret-Keller (1962) when discussing parents' strategies consisting of code-switching and language mixing. Finally, when discussing the strategy of consecutively introducing the two languages, Piller (2001) reports research by Zierer (1977) and by Kouritzin (2000).

Another field of interest concerning FLP and additive bilingualism has been the relationship between FLP and bilingual education. Thus, for example, Slavkov (2016) discusses the language policies of monolingual English-speaking families in the province of Ontario (Canada) who send their children to French immersion or Francophone schools (see also King and Fogle, 2006; Schwartz, 2010; Schwartz and Verschik, 2013).

As for FLP in relation to television-mediated "foreign" language acquisition in additive contexts, no literature has been found that can provide us with any empirical evidence concerning the practice, beliefs and planning/management involved at this level, or with theoretical principles that may help us frame the research presented in our thesis and predict its outcomes. As far as we have been able to review, the only exception to this absence of literature is research by Rodgers (2013) and a number of studies cited by Rodgers (2013) himself addressing learners' attitudes towards various aspects of English language learning through viewing television. Such aspects include beliefs about the comprehension of videos, beliefs about vocabulary learning, affective attitudes towards learning through viewing videos, general language learning experience through watching videos and the difficulties that learners perceive to be part of language learning from videos (p. 135). Although our topic of discussion involves FLP from the standpoint of the parents, research studying learners' attitudes could be helpful indirectly because, as we will see below, FLP may be shaped by parents' previous experiences in learning a foreign language.

Assuming this limitation will inevitably lead us to draw on what we already know about FLP with respect to the vitality of minority languages and on what we already know about specific family language policies in additive contexts.

2.4.2.1 Attitudes, beliefs and ideology

As many authors have pointed out (see for example Baker, 1992; Baker, 2011; De Houwer, 1999; Johnson and Martin, 1985; King *et al.*, 2008; Purkarthofer, 2019; Schwartz, 2010), attitudes, ideologies and beliefs are the underpinning factors that influence particular language practice and planning at family level. Understanding the ideologies, beliefs and attitudes that underlie television-mediated early foreign language acquisition in additive contexts is, therefore, a priority for our discussion.

De Houwer (1999) identifies the following attitudes and beliefs:

> "…parental beliefs about how children acquire language and parents' own roles in the acquisition process, and parental attitudes to a particular language, to bilingualism in general, and to particular patterns of language choice."(p. 81)

De Houwer (1999) also refers to the "parental belief that parents can exercise some sort of control over their children's linguistic functioning", which she calls impact belief (p. 83). For Nakamura (2019), impact belief is an "enabling" factor of FLP. She argues that, although particular parental language ideologies lead to particular linguistic practices within the family, there is sometimes a mismatch between them, which she attributes to parents' lack of impact belief. In other words, positive attitudes are not sufficient for active bilingualism. Through readiness for action (Baker, 1992), parents must also believe in their role as regards their children' language development.

Something that De Houwer (1999) does not take into consideration is parents' expectations and aspirations as to the level of proficiency that their children could reach when learning a foreign language. Yamamoto and Holloway (2010) claim that, "Although parental aspirations and expectations are conceptually distinct, the terms are sometimes used interchangeably" (p. 191). Discussing students' aspirations, expectations and school achievement, Reynolds and Pemberton (2001) claim that the main difference between aspirations and expectations is that the former reflect what students wish to achieve whereas the latter are subjective beliefs about what they will achieve. In this respect, although she does not make a distinction between expectations and aspirations, Purkarthofer (2019) argues that "Drawing on experiences from their own biographies, parents build their FLP to accommodate expectations" about their children's language use. Likewise, Davis-Kean (2005) claims that parents' expectations model the intellectual investments that parents make for the provision of a more cognitively stimulating environment (p. 303). Similarly, Alexander *et al.* (1994) affirm that "Expectations can help to bring about the desired outcomes only by setting into motion actions that are reasonably appropriate to the task at hand" (p. 296). Furthermore, Yamamoto and Holloway (2010) refer to research confirming that parents with higher expectations "…tend to be more engaged in achievement-related activities, including reading to their children, sending them to extracurricular lessons, and monitoring their academic progress" (p. 204).

In other words, applied to the topic of our thesis, we could conclude that parental expectations as to their children's future level of attainment in English competence might trigger parents' linguistic practices and managerial styles aimed at creating English-friendly environments that facilitate the fulfilment of such expectations. Furthermore, our experience as foreign languages teachers shows that parents' expectations/aspirations can play a very important role when it comes to designing and implementing children's paths towards effective foreign language acquisition. An example of parental expectations/aspirations influencing FLP can be seen in the number of children that spend time abroad learning other languages. Thus, according to a study carried out by the Spanish statistics institute (INE) and published in 2015, 11.9% of the Spanish population aged between 18 and 34 has followed a language course abroad. How parents' expectations/aspirations are formed will be dealt with further below.

Finally, we will close the discussion on attitudes, beliefs and ideologies with a brief mention to the role of integrative and instrumental motivations, which have been studied in relation to both, second and foreign language acquisition (see for example Bernaus *et al.*, 2004; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006; Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Lamb, 2004; Sung and Padilla, 1998; Warden and Lin, 2000).

Integrative motivation is related to the concept of identity. Thus, according to Baker (2011), integrative motivation is the learner's desire to affiliate or identify with a different language community. For Baker (2011), the problem lies in the fact that, whereas it is normally easy to establish with whom the second language learner wishes to integrate when such speaker has a minority language (for example, immigrants learning the official language of the new country), things are more complex when it comes to identifying the target community for foreign language learners in additive contexts with no permanent contact between two language communities. This issue has been analysed by Dörnyei *et al.* (2006). They claim that integrative motivation is a rather ambivalent concept, mainly used in relation to acculturation and assimilation with native speakers, which has been expanded to include integration with the global community. Such global community could be defined, for example, as those who speak international English in additive contexts. Dörnyei *et al.* (2006, p. 16) propose that, particularly in additive contexts, integrative motivation may have more to do with the need for self-esteem, that is, for an "ideal self" represented by the attributes that one

aspires to possess. Thus, when one of those attributes is the mastery of a foreign language such as English, one may feel the attraction and the satisfaction of being seen as a modern "citizen of the world". Similar conclusions are reached by Lamb (2004) who, in reporting his research into the motivation of Indonesian children as they begin formal study of English in an urban junior high school, concludes that, as globalisation expands and English stops being associated with a particular Anglophone culture, individuals (particularly during their adolescence) replace their desire to integrate into that particular culture with the desire to develop a "bicultural identity which incorporates an English-speaking globally-involved version of themselves in addition to their local L1-speaking self" (p. 1). Likewise, Pavlenko (2002a, p. 279) argues that the acculturation or desire to join a particular cultural group that might be produced in the process of learning a second or an additional language is more likely to occur in particular immigrant settings, whereas millions of learners and users of additional languages do not consider the idea of becoming part of the target language group. This idea links to the status of the target language, an external factor that brings together psychological factors and integrative motivation.

A different example of integrative motivations at play in additive contexts, in which two language communities are permanently in contact, is described by Graham and Brown (1996), cited by Trent (2011, p. 13) in his research into the relationship between the media, second language acquisition and acculturation. Graham and Brown (1996) hold that one of the reasons why native Spanish speakers in the Mexican locality of Colonia Juárez, close to the American border, are achieving native-like levels of proficiency in English is "…their favourable attitudes toward the English-speaking community and the fact that they developed close friendships with native English-speaking peers" together with exposure to English-based media. These two factors, combined with a gradual increase of intergroup marriages and enrolment in the bilingual schools, may be signs of assimilative motivations at play. Graham and Brown (1996) call this situation a second language context, which contrasts with the foreign language environment made up of native Spanish speakers in Colonia Juárez who do not attend bilingual programmes and do not socialise with native English speakers. Furthermore, Ruggiero and Yang (2010), also cited by Trent (2011, p. 13) state that a stronger sense of belonging to an ethnic group influences the choice of language in media consumption which, at the same time, is a predictor of the level of adaptation to the host culture.

Likewise, instrumental motivation could be a very clear predictor of success in foreign language acquisition. According to Baker (2011), instrumental motivation is utilitarian in nature, in other words, a foreign language is learnt because it is useful in so far as it can provide us with economic, working or educational advantages. Again, the notion of the perceived status of the target language is clearly connected to the instrumental value of the language. Gardner and Lambert (1972) had argued that integrative motivation is more powerful than instrumental motivation because, unlike the latter, it aims at establishing long-lasting personal relationships. Although one may counter argue that establishing personal relationships with the target-language population in additive contexts (with no permanent contact between two linguistic communities) is not an easy task, thus making instrumental motivation more relevant in these settings, we hold that cultural relationships more than personal relationships could be the priority in additive contexts because contact with the target culture could be made permanent thanks to technological breakthroughs such as the Internet or digital television. In this way, Baker's (2011) concern about "with whom to integrate" mentioned above could be replaced by "with what".

The question that will have to be clarified in the research, however, does not have to do with integrative and instrumental motivations to learn English but with parents' beliefs about the integrative and instrumental usefulness of English in a number of situations and how this factor influences FLP in relation to television viewing in additive contexts and in relation to other linguistic practices within the family as well as the rest of factors that make up family language policy.

Following De Houwer (1999) and the rest of authors that have been mentioned in this section, we will set out to identify the research participants' ideologies, beliefs and attitudes underpinning television-mediated early foreign language acquisition in additive contexts. These ideologies, beliefs and attitudes have been grouped into the following categories.

First, we will look at parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition. Thus, we asked parents about whether very early acquisition of a foreign language is a decisive factor that would help their children reach an excellent command of English (Questions 24a/53a), about the best age to start learning a foreign language (Questions 25/54), about the usefulness of watching TV/DVDs to learn English (Questions 24c/53c), about

the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt (Questions 26/55), about whether very early acquisition of a second language could affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue (Questions 27/56) and about their expectations as regards their children's future level of proficiency in English (Questions 30/59).

Secondly, parents were questioned about their beliefs regarding their role in their children's foreign language acquisition process. To be more precise, they were asked about whether it is parents or the education system who should take the initiative regarding how children learn a foreign language (Questions 32/61) and about the best way to influence their children to watch TV in English (Question 82).

Next, we will try to obtain information about parents' beliefs in relation to the usefulness of English for different situations of everyday life.

Concerning parents' attitudes, the parents from our sample were questioned about their interest in learning foreign languages (Questions 20/49), about English (Questions 21/50) and about Anglo-Saxon culture (Questions 22/51).

Finally, as far as ideologies are concerned, we requested parents' opinion about whether or not they agree with the idea that TV channels should be made to broadcast all programmes in the original version (Questions 31/60).

2.4.2.2 Language planning and management

The statement above by King *et al.* (2008) in which, drawing on Cooper (1989), they summarise the nature of language planning at family level answering the following question:

> "Which *caretakers* attempt to influence what *behaviors* of which *family members* for what *ends* under what *conditions* by what *means* through what *decision-making process* with what *effect*?"

can help us anticipate the kind of elements for which we will be looking in our research.

In this respect, King *et al.* (2008), for example, state that the same three types of planning discussed above, namely status, corpus and acquisition, exist at family level as well. Thus, status planning would correspond to decisions made by parents concerning whether and when to use one language or the other with their children. Corpus planning

would correspond to the variety of the foreign language to be used depending on the types of literacy activities. And acquisition planning would be like how and when to acquire the foreign language, both formally and informally. Neustupný (1983), for example, claims that attempts to modify language policy can be planned and unplanned, conscious and unconscious (see also Baldauf, 1994). King and Logan-Terry (2008) discuss different managerial styles such as maintaining or negotiating a more or less monolingual context with the children when implementing OPOL. Furthermore, language managerial styles have also been studied in relation to other FLPs such as parents using their second language. Saunders (1988), for example, discusses how parents manage FLP when their children are reluctant to use the target language. In discussing specific implementational factors, King *et al*. (2008) argue that the consistency with which families adhere to a particular language policy and how explicit the language policy is made are two elements that also need to be taken into consideration when trying to predict child language outcomes. In this respect, this consistency to which we have just alluded could be explained by Baker's (1992) readiness for action, one of the three components of language attitude, or by De Houwer's (1999) impact belief.

Finally, the European Commission's (2011) policy handbook on language learning at pre-primary school level argues in favour of parents' involvement in children's early language learning. Johnstone (2002) also addresses the age factor and its implications for language policy. For a full review of the role that the age factor plays in second language acquisition, see Johnstone (2002).

Finding out how the elements of planning and management just outlined apply to FLP in relation to television viewing will be, therefore, one of the aims of the research that we have undertaken in Chapter 4 of our thesis. More particularly, parents were asked about the age at which the children from our sample first started to have contact with English on a regular basis (Question 64), particularly the age at which they started to view television in English (Question 69), about whether they ask their children about the language in which they want to watch television (Questions 70a/70b), about the frequency with which children ask to have the language changed back to Spanish when they are watching TV or DVDs in English (Questions 71a/71b) and about what they do when asked by their children to change the language from English back to Spanish (Questions 72a/72b).

2.4.2.3 Language practice

As we said above, most attention to linguistic practices within the family has been given to the different patterns of oral communication that individual parents use to raise bilingual children, for example, the OPOL approach, the home language vs. community language approach, both parents using both languages, the consecutive introduction of two languages, parents using their second language or parents who rely on their extended family or paid caretakers (Kim and Longman-Terry, 2008). Therefore, as regards language practice, we will not be able to make predictions based on previous studies of FLP concerning television-mediated foreign language acquisition.

However, there is research concerning the influence of parents' linguistic practices on their children's behaviour in bilingual contexts. Thus, for example, De Houwer (1999) analyses the relationship between parents' behaviour and their children's different degrees of active and passive bilingualism.

For our research, we will be looking at linguistic practices within the family that could be contributing to create "English-friendly" environments that affect children's viewing of television in English in a positive way. In this sense, as De Houwer (1999) claims, a very strong impact belief "…may include the notion that the parent has an important exemplary function to fulfil" (p. 83). The concept of teaching/leading by example has been widely researched. Thus, for example, in discussing how to teach values to your children, Eyre and Eyre (2010) claim that parents have the potential to be, by example, a more influential force than any other person, factor, element or group. Furthermore, in studying the transmission of beliefs from adults to children, Adriani *et al.* (2018) claim that "…parents strategically adopt behaviors aimed at setting examples to their children" (see also Betz, 2002; Güth *et al.*, 2007; Hermalin, 1998; Levati *et al*., 2007; Potters *et al.*, 2007).

We will, therefore, set out to find whether such practices exist and, if they do, we will look at how they influence children's viewing of television in English and at how they interact with each other to construct more sophisticated English-friendly environments. We will start making a thorough description of shared linguistic practices within the family. In this respect, we will be discussing whether or not parents watch television in English too (Questions 18d/47d); whether or not they share this activity with their

children (Question 77); how often parents and children use English to communicate with each other (Questions 17b/46b and 65a/65b); how often parents use English to communicate with each other (Questions 17a/46a), with friends (Questions 17d/46d) or at work (Questions 17e/46e); and how often their children use English to communicate with their siblings (Question 65c) and with their friends (Question 65d).

On the other, we will look at practices through which children have regular contact with English individually, either as a means to learn English or as a means of entertainment. More precisely, we will look at how often children watch DVDs in English (Question 66c); how often they have private lessons or go to a language school (Question 66d); how often they read, listen to music and play video games in English (Questions 66e, 66f and 66g); and finally how often children exchange emails and videoconference with friends abroad (Questions 66h and 66i). In this way, we expect to be able to have an overall understanding of the nature of linguistic practices within the family.

2.4.3 Factors that influence FLP regarding television-mediated early foreign language acquisition in additive contexts

Spolsky (2004) identifies a number of factors, mainly psychological, cultural, economic, political and social, that affect language policy. We will try to understand how these factors unfold as we adapt them to the context of FLP in additive settings. As we will see below, factors may be internal to the family or external.

2.4.3.1 Intra-family factors

In her study of how different home variables affect immigrant children's second-language acquisition in the homes of four Chinese immigrant families in Canada, Li (2007) resorts to Coleman's (1988, 1990, 1991) social theory of family capital according to which, physical, human and social capital within the family affect children's educational attainment. Physical or financial capital is identified with the family's level of income and, therefore, with socioeconomic status. Human capital relates to the parents' level of education whereas social capital refers to the networks of social relationships within the family and between the family and the community. Li (2007, p. 285) concludes that her analysis "…demonstrates that parental educational backgrounds (human capital), their occupational choices and chances (physical capital), and their adaptation and integration into Canadian society (social capital) had a

significant impact on the families' accumulation and activation of family capital to support their children's second-language learning." (parentheses added). For example, although the families with lower educational backgrounds also had high aspirations for their children's linguistic achievements, their involvement in their children's second-language learning process at home was limited by their level of education. However, the families with higher levels of education were able to provide higher levels of involvement (pp. 292-293).

In her study of how parents' education influences their children's educational attainments, Eccles (2005) argues that

> "Probably the most prominent and direct explanation of the link between parents' education and their children's academic achievement relies on the assumption that parents learn something during schooling that influences the ways in which they interact with their children around learning activities in the home" (p. 191)

She claims that schooling shapes parents' skills and values that, in turn, lead to intervention in their children's education. Eccles (2005) also states that parents with more education have higher expectations for their children's educational attainment (p. 192). Similarly, Alexander *et al.* (1994) affirm that parents' lack of Coleman's (1988) human capital (i.e. education) has a direct effect on how parents form "unrealistic", "irrational" or "inappropriate" expectations about their children's academic attainment (see also Li, 2007, p. 292).

Another conclusion by Li (2007) is that parents' occupational status more than their level of income is a more reliable predictor of parents' involvement. This seems to partially align with King and Fogle's (2006) findings reported above which, although for different reasons, conclude that SES is no longer a decisive factor in language enrichment additive approaches to second language acquisition as these practices have become common in middle class circles. However, other research has linked SES to higher parental expectations. For example, Stull (2013), Davis-Kean (2005) or Lippman *et al.* (2008) conclude that higher parental income leads to higher academic expectations. For our research, the question that needs to be answered is how parents' socio-economic status affects parents' expectations as to their children's level of attainment in English.

According to Spolsky (2004, p. 43), one of the three major conditions that affect language choice is the speaker's proficiency in that language. Such statement could help us anticipate that television is more likely to be viewed in English more often when parents' proficiency in English tends to be higher.

King and Fogle's (2006) also claim to have found that parents base language learning decisions for their children on their own learning experiences (p. 695). More particularly, they affirm that

> "Parents framed their own experiences as critical in shaping their decisions (1) to raise their children bilingually, (2) to introduce the second language at an early age and (3) to use specific methods for teaching a second language. For both majority and minority language parents, personal experiences in learning language shaped their goals for their children. Many felt that they had missed opportunities by not being exposed to their heritage language or a second language early in life." (p. 704)

This idea is supported by Purkarthofer (2019), who concludes that parents' linguistic repertoire and parents' expectations concerning their children's linguistic functioning are shaped by their personal experiences (p. 729). Likewise Stavans (2012), in discussing Family Language Policy regarding language literacy development of children in Ethiopian immigrant families in Israel, describes how Ethiopian parents, according to their cultural background, will rather tell stories than read books. Similarly, Li (2007) attributes immigrant Chinese parents' intense involvement in their children's English-language learning at home to their educational experiences, "particularly their ability to read, write and speak English" (p. 291).

Finally, in their study of the role of parental age in the intergenerational transfer of resources to adolescent offspring, Powell *et al.* (2006) identify general patterns leading them to conclude that parental advancing age provides an advantage for their children regarding parents' allocation of physical, human and social capital, including parental expectations for their children's education. However, they also admit that the introduction of other variables such as children's age could make parental advancing age negatively affect resources allocation. Finally, De Houwer (1999) and Schwartz and Verschik (2013) state that parents' beliefs can also be influenced by their children's language use.

To frame our research, we will also need to borrow from Fishman's (1991) model for reversing language shift (RLS). Central to Fishman's (1991) model is the notion that language shift can be reversed when intergenerational transmission is secured. According to Fishman (1991), the context in which this can best be accomplished is the family since it is the family which "…serves as a bulwark against outside pressures, customs and influences" (p. 94). The concept that we will borrow from Fishman (1991) for our discussion is that of intergenerational transmission, not because our study is concerned with intergenerational transmission of minority languages, but because it deals with the intergenerational transmission of FLP. This idea coincides with King and Fogle's (2006), and Purkarthofer's (2019) claim that many parents rely on their personal experiences with language learning when managing language policy within their own families. Thus, in our search for factors that shape FLP, we predict that inherited FLP may be one of the elements that influence parents' choices. We will try to demonstrate this point by asking parents how their television-mediated foreign language learning background has influenced practice in relation to their own children on the one hand (Question 78a), and by drawing parallelisms between the participants' experience in this regard and actual practice regarding their children on the other. In this respect, it will also be worth applying Caminal *et al.*'s (2018) conclusion that parents' improved command of a second language in a bilingual context is related to their predisposition to transmit this second language to their children.

In sum, the study of parents' education (Questions 10/39), level of English (Questions 11/40, 14/43 and 15/44), occupational status (Questions 8/37 and 9/38), level of income (Question 4), learning experiences (Questions 12/41, 13/42 and 78a) and age (Questions 5/34) will be accommodated to our research in an attempt to understand whether they can also influence the use of television for foreign language acquisition in additive contexts on the one hand and the rest of factors that make up family language policy on the other. In this respect, it will be useful to look at how the aforementioned intra-family variables affect our sample parents' linguistic practices, their beliefs about foreign language acquisition, their expectations/aspirations regarding their children's attainment in English and the way in which they plan and manage their family linguistic policies.

2.4.3.2 External factors

We have been able to find some relevant literature concerning the external factors that influence parents' beliefs about good parenting practices in additive contexts. Thus, King and Fogle (2006) claim that parents' beliefs can be influenced by parenting literature and popular press, by expert advice, by childcare professionals and by more private personal sources such as family and friends networks. As we will do with the intra-family factors seen above, King and Fogle's (2006) external factors will be accommodated in our attempt to explain FLP, particularly in relation to television viewing.

Social and family networks have been widely studied in relation to bilingualism and their role in L2 acquisition (see for example Baker, 2011; Cooper, 1989; Pavlenko, 2002a; Riagáin, 1997). In relation to their role in the revitalisation of endangered languages, Fishman (2001, p. 171) argues that

> "…most definitions *of speech networks and speech communities* demand that members of a given speech community share norms for interacting in the language, attitudes concerning language use, or the use of a specific variety, typically developed by engaging in regular interaction." (italics added)

However, applied to the topic of our discussion, this definition could be useful for predicting that families who follow the same language policy in relation to television viewing are susceptible to constitute networks, as they are likely to share the same attitudes towards this form of language usage. Through networking, families may obtain guidance, encouragement and support from other families in their everyday practice, particularly if one does not hold very strong convictions about such FLP. Sheldon (2002), for example, claims that "Social networks provide parents emotional and instrumental support and affect parents' attitudes and behaviours" (p. 304). And further below, he goes on to affirm that "(For Coleman and others,) social networks help produce social capital to the extent that social relationships encourage the exchange of information, shape beliefs, and enforce norms of behaviour" (parentheses added). Our research will try to give account of the role of networking by reflecting whether families share their experiences with other families in the same situation (Question 80) and whether it helps them to do so (Question 81). Once this preliminary approach to networking in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition has been

analysed and discussed, we will proceed to look at its role in relation to the rest of factors that make up family language policy.

Another concept that will be of interest for our research is "compulsion" in language policies. Discussing immersion bilingual education in Canada, Baker (2011, p. 281) attributes its success, among other factors, to the fact that bilingual education has been optional. Fishman's (1991, p. 82) claim that "Much RLS can be implemented without compulsion" is another example of the role of compulsion in language policy. Likewise, discussing about the convenience of introducing some element of Welsh compulsion for in-migrants, May (2000) concludes that this idea is widely rejected, "…even among a group that is largely well disposed to a formalised bilingual policy" (pp. 116-117). As we stated above, Cooper (1989, p. 98) identifies four means through which policies can be implemented, namely authority, force, promotion and persuasion. At macro level, this factor has a political nature. Schwartz and Verschik (2013, p. 3) observe that there might arise tension between macro and micro levels as regards FLP. This claim is relevant to FLP in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition, for example if government agencies tried to exert a top-down influence on family practice by legislating, for example, against television channels dubbing specific contents produced in a foreign language. However, following Fishman (1991), we can conclude that, the same as government action in support of an endangered language will be ineffective if there are no initiative, involvement or commitment at grassroots levels, specific FLP in relation to television viewing in additive contexts should not be made compulsory by any institution as this may clash with families' sensibilities and priorities. Instead, as Fishman (1991) claims, the first step to take should be to arouse popular support. This is the reason why television channels should not be made to stop dubbing programmes produced in a foreign language.

In this respect, participants in the research were asked whether they agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles (Questions 31/60), our prediction being that impositions or interference with family practice by government agencies will not be accepted. However, the introduction of compulsion into our discussion raises a second variable that will also need to be treated in the research and that may lead to the emergence of a certain degree of contradiction. This variable has to do with parents' attitudes towards

giving their children the liberty to choose the language in which they want to view television and will be treated in the Analysis and Discussion chapter below.

Other external factors of a socio-political nature are identity, symbolic status and nationalism, which have been widely studied in relation to their role both in preserving minority language vitality and in securing the supremacy of majority languages. For example, Conklin and Lourie (1983) argue that the vitality of a minority language is more easily maintained when the speakers identify with their ethnic group rather than with the majority language group, and this is often done, for example, by creating an emotional attachment to the mother tongue.

Likewise, factor 8 of UNESCO's (2003) Evaluative Factors of Language Vitality states that community members' attitudes towards their own language are a key element of vitality. Attitudes can be positive or negative but rarely neutral, and they are shaped by the symbolic status of a language. Positive attitudes, for example because the language is seen as a symbol of resistance or as a symbol of ethnic identity, normally lead to high vitality. On the contrary, negative attitudes, for example because the language is seen as a problem for economic advancement or mobility, weaken its vitality.

Finally, ethnic awareness and linguistic vitality within minority language groups can play a positive role in strengthening each other. According to Baker (2011), minority languages represent markers of ethnic identity. In this case, the minority language creates loyalty to the group for those who speak it and serves as an imaginary boundary for those who do not. The vitality will be even stronger when the aim of the minority group is its political independence (for more on language, identity, symbolic status and nationalism in minority language contexts, see for example Baker, 2011; Blommaert, 2006; Britton, 1999; Fishman, 2001; Giles *et al.*, 1977; Noels *et al.*, 1996; Norton and Toohey, 2011; Phillipson, 2003; Tsui and Tollefson, 2017).

However, these three factors can also be said to underpin the strength of majority languages. In this respect, Baker (2011) claims that the need for a common national language emerged during the 19th century to preserve the national unity demanded by the emergence of democracy (see also Hobsbawn, 1996; Wright, 2007). Very strong nationalist attitudes in relation to the national language can be seen in countries such as France and the United States (for a discussion on language, policy and identity in

majority language contexts, see for example Blommaert, 2006; Hobsbawn, 1996; Pavlenko, 2002b; Tsui and Tollefson, 2017).

To find about the perceived vitality of Spanish language and culture, parents were asked about whether viewing television in English could contribute to the loss of their own culture (Questions 28/57) and about whether learning other languages could endanger their own language (Questions 29/58).

2.5 Analysis of vitality

We will conclude the Literature Review chapter with an analysis of the present state of vitality of Spanish. As we had stated in the introductory chapter above, the initial hypothesis, drawn from observation and personal experience seems to indicate that, although the influence of English and other foreign languages is felt in all kinds of every day's communicative situations, Spanish language and culture enjoy, and are likely to keep enjoying, a strong vitality, which will lead us to hypothesise that the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia is not likely to weaken such vitality.

For our analysis, we will use frameworks of measurement of vitality by Giles, Bourhis & Taylor (1977), Conklin & Lourie (1983), UNESCO (2003), and Hyltenstam and Stroud's (1996). These models, although originally designed to give account of the vitality of minority languages, can also be adapted to the analysis of the vitality of majority or international languages. Because several of the variables are common to the four models, our present discussion will be structured around Giles, Bourhis and Taylor's (1977) model and references to the other frameworks will be made whenever appropriate.

Giles *et al.* (1977) divide factors into three categories, namely demographic, status and institutional support factors.

2.5.1 Demographic factors

In Giles *et al.*'s (1977) model, there are three demographic factors that must be taken into consideration when measuring language vitality, namely, the number and density of speakers, the geographical distribution of speakers and the effects of interlinguistic (exogamy) or intralinguistic marriages (endogamy). Likewise, UNESCO's Factor 2

refers to the need to look at the absolute number of speakers. Finally, Hyltenstam and Stroud (1996) also include demography as one of their speech community factors.

The decrease in the number of speakers of a language plays a key role in predicting vitality loss. In fact, the ultimate stage in a continuum of decreasing vitality is language death, which takes place when no native speakers of a language are left. According to Fernández Vítores (2019), Spanish is spoken by more than 580 million people in the world and it is the world's second language by number of native speakers with nearly 483 million. Another 75 million have a limited competence of Spanish and almost 22 million are learning Spanish as a foreign language, which makes it the fourth most studied foreign language in the world after English, French and Madarin Chinese. In the twenty-one countries in which Spanish is the official language, over 94% of the population are native speakers of Spanish (91.9% in Spain). Furthermore, it is estimated that by the year 2050, the native speakers of Spanish will represent 6.35% of the world's population, a slight increase compared to the 6.29% of the year 2018.

2.5.2 Status factors

The status or prestige of a language is derived from a number of attributes. Having many of them will mean that the language is considered to have a high status. On the contrary, having few or none of them will be interpreted as being of low prestige. Giles *et al.* (1977) distinguish between economic, social and symbolic status.

2.5.2.1 Economic status

The economic status of a language is associated to the economic success of the community where it is the mother tongue. Hyltenstam and Stroud (1996) claim that economic conditions such as industrialisation/urbanisation, distribution and ownership of businesses, infrastructures, communications and the labour market play a key part in preserving vitality when they are oriented towards the interests of the majority and the minority alike.

Fernández Vítores (2019) claims that, from an economic point of view, the number of speakers, their purchasing power and the international projection of the language are key indicators of the economic potential of that language. In this respect, Spanish is among the top five languages in the world in number of speakers, in number of countries where it is the official language and in geographical extension.

Furthermore, all Spanish-speaking countries contribute 6.9% to the world GDP. If we look at the percentage of the world GDP generated by those countries where each of the six official languages of the United Nations has the status of official language, Spanish would occupy the third position, behind English and Chinese, which are the languages linked to the main economies of the world (Fernández Vítores, 2019: 38).

It is estimated that the joint purchasing power of the Spanish speakers in the world, not including students of Spanish as a foreign language, equals about 10% of the world GDP (Fernández Vítores, 2019: 42).

Finally, some of the characteristics of Spanish as an international language could explain why sharing this language contributes so much to business internationalisation in the Spanish-speaking world. Thus, Spanish is a homogeneous and geographically compact language, as most of the Spanish-speaking countries occupy contiguous territories. Spanish has an official and vehicular nature in twenty-one countries of the world and it is the language of an international culture.

2.5.2.2 Social and symbolic status

The social and symbolic status of a minority language is associated to the perception of prestige that it confers to its speakers. According to Appel & Muysken (1987), it has to do with the group's self-esteem and it is directly dependent on the economic status of the group. It also has to do with its standing as an international language of globalisation (Conklin & Lourie, 1983). Or it may also be expressed through its literary heritage. Thus a community with a long-standing history of literary production will find it easier to develop a strong sense of pride in its literary tradition, which may ultimately help maintain the vitality of the language. The prestige of a language can also be measured by its presence in areas such as diplomacy, or the Internet and social networks. In this respect, Fernández Vítores (2019) claims, Spanish is one of the six official languages of the UN and one of the twenty-four official languages of the UE. Spanish is also the third and second most used languages on the Internet and on Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter and Wikipedia respectively. As for culture, eleven writers of the Spanish-speaking world have won a Nobel prize in Literature, just behind English (28), French (15) and German (15). Furthermore, Spain is the third largest book exporter in the world, and Spain and Argentina are among the top fifteen book

producers in the world. Finally, Spain, Argentina and Mexico were in the 15 top film producing countries in 2015.

2.5.3 Institutional support factors

The support that Spanish language and culture receive from the institutions can be seen, for example, in the strength of the Cervantes Institute. The institute was founded in 1991 to help promote the worldly teaching, learning and use of Spanish, and the dissemination of Spanish culture abroad. Up to the present moment, the institute has 76 offices in the five continents. Its activities are guided by a board of trustees whose honorary presidency corresponds to the King of Spain. The executive presidency is exercised by the Prime Minister. In addition, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Minister of Education and Culture, the Secretary of State for International Cooperation and Latin America, the Secretary of State for Culture, the President of the Spanish Institute, the Director of the Royal Spanish Academy, the Secretary General of the Permanent Commission of the Association of Language Academies and the Director of the Institute itself are also ex-officio members. Finally, the elected members have been appointed from among prominent representatives of Spanish and Latin American literature and culture, of the Royal Academies, universities and other social institutions. Furthermore, the Board of Directors, the body that approves the general plans of the institute, is made up of representatives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, European Union and Cooperation, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and the Finance Ministry (De Tamarón, 1999).

2.5.4 Linguistic factors

Among others, linguistic factors are dealt with, for example, by Conklin & Lourie (1983), Crystal (2000), Hyltenstam & Stroud (1996) or UNESCO (2003). The most relevant linguistic factors introduced by the authors above include modernisation, standardisation and literacy.

A high degree of modernisation is a factor that can help maintain the symbolic status and, consequently, the vitality of a language. For example, a language that is not updated in terms of scientific and technological terminology, so that it can keep up with the latest developments, will stop being used in that particular domain and lose part of its vitality. Likewise, linguistic standardisation is an element of modernity and prestige

that can also strengthen the vitality of a language. In this respect, numerous public and private institutions keep Spanish language up to date with terminological standardisation issues. Such institutions include Aenor, the *Asociación Española de Normalización*, the International Organization for Standardization or the European Commission Terminology Unit among many others.

Finally, according to UNESCO (2003), vitality is at its highest (Grade 5) when "there is an established orthography, literacy tradition with grammars, dictionaries, texts, literature and everyday media. Factors such as education and standardisation interact to increase the level of literacy of the population which, in turn, helps maintain the stability of a language. In relation to this issue, the Royal Spanish Academy regularly publishes official grammars, dictionaries, orthography manuals and corpora with the latest updates. Prestigious literary awards, such as the Miguel de Cervantes Prize or the Planeta Prize, arouse great literary, social and media expectation in the Spanish world every year, and are yet another example of the strength and drive of Spanish language.

2.5.5 The influence of other languages and conclusion

Despite the strength that Spanish seems to enjoy, as we have seen in the analysis above, we must not underestimate the role that the influence of other languages can play in the vitality of Spanish. For example, Rodríguez González (2019) claims that, during Franco's political regime, the first signs of a relative liberalisation fostered by the United States after 1950 meant opening the door to a massive introduction of Anglicisms, particularly exceptional after the 1980s with the arrival of information technology, the Internet and the social media. However, Rodríguez González (2019) affirms, Anglicisms contribute to the strength of Spanish because they often come along with new referents that name new realities. Furthermore, according to Lapesa (1989), the invasion of Anglicisms must be observed from a historical perspective and within a long-term time perspective. Lapesa (1989) claims that trivial and unnecessary Anglicisms are not to be feared, and that they do not pose a bigger threat to Spanish than the threat posed by the numerous words from Arab introduced during the *Reconquista* or reconquest, by the Gallicisms adopted from the 11th to the 15th centuries and after the 18th century, or by the Italianisms incorporated between the 16th and 18th centuries. Lapesa (1989) concludes that many of the Anglicisms will go out of fashion

without a trace and that those that settle will sooner than later adapt to the Spanish phonological and morphological systems.

In conclusion, the numerous strengths of the Spanish language discussed in this section seem to suggest that the vitality of Spanish is not at risk by the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia.

2.6 Basic research questions

With the formulation of the basic research questions, we conclude the Literature Review chapter, in which we have attempted to give a detailed account of the data available on the sociolinguistic factors involved in the development and implementation of a lifestyle diglossia language planning action, with special emphasis on the analysis of the elements that underlie Family Language Policy.

As we have previously commented in this chapter, a lot of research has been done in the field of language policy in general and FLP in particular, with special emphasis on minority language contexts. However, less numerous are the studies of FLP in additive contexts and non-existent with regard to television-mediated foreign language acquisition.

Therefore, based on Spolsky's framework of language policy and the rest of literature reviewed in this chapter, we propose the following basic research questions:

1. Do parents from the Autonomous Community of Cantabria (Spain) use television as an instrument to help their children learn English?
2. How is television-mediated foreign language acquisition affected by other linguistic practices within the family, by parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial styles, and environmental factors?
3. How do linguistic practices, beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial styles, and environmental factors relate to each other?

By addressing these three basic questions we expect to contribute to the understanding of how FLP works in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition and, in this way, facilitate future language planning that helps implement the European Commission's recommendations concerning the use of subtitling in television and the cinema on the one hand, and the promotion of parents' involvement in Early Language Learning (ELL) on the other.

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CHAPTER 3 - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Next, the methodology adopted in the study of Family Language Policy will be discussed. Following Bell (2010, p. 117) or Cohen *et al.* (2007, p. 209), this chapter will start by referring to the purpose of the research, for which its main goals are formulated once more.

3.1 Purpose and research questions

As stated in Chapter 1, the thesis under consideration was triggered by the author's experience in managing his own family's language policy in relation to the acquisition of English as a foreign language. In this respect, Chapter 4 aims at presenting and discussing the results of research designed to throw some light on the nature of Family Language Policy concerning the use of television for the acquisition of a foreign language in an additive context. The research was planned with a triple objective in mind. First, to find about families' habits in relation to foreign language acquisition and, more specifically, in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition; secondly, to understand how these habits are affected by families' attitudes, beliefs and ideologies concerning the use of television as a tool for the acquisition of a foreign language, and by families' efforts to influence language choice; thirdly, to study the environmental factors that play a major role in shaping family language policy. The goals of the research can be summarised in the three research questions outlined in the previous section:

1. Do parents from the Autonomous Community of Cantabria (Spain) use television as an instrument to help their children learn English?
2. How is television-mediated foreign language acquisition affected by other linguistic practices within the family, by parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial strategies, and environmental factors?
3. How do linguistic practices, beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial strategies, and environmental factors relate to each other?

As we remarked in Chapter 1, the focus of the research was placed on English because of its international status and because it is the dominant foreign language in the Spanish education system.

Underpinning these goals is the desire to contribute to the design and implementation of future language planning actions that align with the European Commission's recommendations outlined previously in this thesis, particularly that national governments should explore ways to promote parents' involvement in ELL in order to improve the level of competence in foreign languages. The belief is that, to be able to carry out such an endeavour, preliminary research must be done so as to learn about family language policy in relation to the television-mediated acquisition of foreign languages in an additive context. This approach is based on the assumption that language planning that takes into account habits but ignores the underlying shaping factors is destined to failure.

Bearing these objectives in mind, the methodology used in this thesis will be explained next.

3.2 Research method

Best (1970), cited by Cohen *et al.* (2007, p. 205) claims that descriptive research methods are adopted frequently in education as they are concerned not only with practices, beliefs and attitudes held, but also with relationships between past and present events. De Vaus (2002, p. 4) argues that surveys serve a triple function. First of all, they describe how a group of people will react in a particular situation; secondly, they help to establish causal relationships; and finally, they help to understand why causal relationships occur. Likewise, Cohen *et al.* (2007, p. 205) state that surveys are useful for collecting data from a wide target population, for making generalisations and for describing relationships. Therefore, when the three research questions previously stated were taken into consideration, it became clear that a survey would perfectly fit the research purposes, as it would allow the gathering and analysis of information about parents' habits in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition and about the different factors that affect family language policy in this respect.

Furthermore, because underlying this research is the desire to contribute to the design and implementation of language planning aimed at the promotion of television-mediated foreign language acquisition, one needed to analyse a large sample so that the results obtained could be generalised to the wider community. The instrument that best fitted the purpose of this study was the online questionnaire because it could be e-mailed to potential participants, it was economical in terms of time and money, and the

answers obtained could be quickly processed with the appropriate software. On the contrary, interviewing all participants needed to be able to generalise the results would have required, obviously, dozens of researchers and too much time, which was beyond the scope of this thesis.

The awareness existed that the lack of face-to-face contact provided by the interview could lead to misunderstandings when interpreting the meaning of particular questions. Therefore, to clarify questions as much as possible, the questionnaire was piloted to refine the contents as well as the length and the wording. For the piloting phase, a school was singled out and the headteacher was approached. When the proposal to pilot the questionnaire was accepted, the school was sent an informative email with a link to the questionnaire which was forwarded to the parents.

In planning the survey, the guidance and directions of Cohen *et al.* (2007, p. 209) were followed. These authors propose that after the objectives of the research and the research questions have been formulated, defining the sampling should come next.

3.3 Defining the population

The potential participants in the research were the parents of 52,251 children aged between 0 and 11, distributed in 220 independent and state nurseries and primary schools in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria, Spain (Educantabria). We opted for the school context because it was the only context by which parents could be accessed. Also, because universal access to television contents in the original version had only been available for the previous ten years to the time the survey was launched, we decided to limit the research to children up to the age of 11.

It was decided, in the first place, to work out an estimate of the total amount of potential participants, both male and female. To obtain the number of potential female participants, we divided the school population aged 0 to 11 (52,251) by the average fertility rate between 2005 and 2015 which, according to ICANE (office for regional statistics), amounted to 1.21 children per mother.

$$\text{Potential female participants } = \frac{\text{no. of children}}{\text{average fertility rate}} = \frac{52,251}{1.21} = 43,182$$

Next, to obtain the potential number of male participants, we adopted the criterion "One-Mother-One-Father", which gives us another 43,182 potential male participants.

Table 1. Population structure.

Concept	
Total population (all ages) on January 1st, 2016	581,477
Total population aged 0 to 11 on January 1st, 2016	68,231
School population aged 0 to 11 in September 2016	52,251
Average fertility rate for the period 2005-2015	1.21
Estimated potential female participants (population size 1)	43,182
Estimated potential male participants (population size 2)	43,182
Total estimated potential participants	86,364

Sources: INE & ICANE

3.4 Sampling

Next, we calculated the sample size:

Table 2. Sample size.

Criteria	Female	Male
Population size	43,182	43,182
Confidence level	95%	95%
Margin of error	3%	3%
Distribution	50%	50%
Sample size	1,041	1,041

In accessing the samples and delivering the questionnaire, two problems were faced. These problems derived from the fact that, as stated before, the nature of the research made it necessary that a large number of participants took part. On the one hand, given

that only one researcher was involved in the study, approaching the samples individually as well as delivering and collecting the questionnaires, or processing the information one by one, was unfeasible. Therefore, an automatic process had to be considered. On the other, the samples could not be accessed directly by the researcher without jeopardising their anonymity because Spanish legislation (Data Protection Act) specifically prohibits schools or any other public institution to share personal or contact details with outsiders without prior consent by the interested party.

These limitations were approached in the following way. To deal with the problem of the sample size and the restrictions on human resources, a web-based questionnaire was designed, powered by Google Forms, which could be delivered automatically. Furthermore, in this way, the data obtained could be instantly exported to a spreadsheet for analysis.

To avoid contacting the samples directly, an indirect approach was adopted, for which the following steps were taken. First, schools and parents' associations were contacted and their cooperation was requested. Secondly, those schools and parents associations that agreed to cooperate were sent an e-mail which they would forward to potential participants, who were all the parents with children aged 0 to 11 in each of the schools approached. Finally, the e-mail received by the participants was electronically linked to the questionnaire.

To meet the requirements of sample size, a simple random sampling approach (Cohen *et al*., 2007: 105) was taken, which would allow a gradual delivery of the questionnaire until the required number of both male and female participants was reached. During the pilot testing of the questionnaire, we had obtained a 13.37% return out of 344 potential participants. Taking this figure as a starting point, we then calculated that, in order to reach a sample size of 1,041 male and 1,041 female participants, the questionnaire would have to be initially sent to 20% of all potential participants considering that those schools contacted would agree to cooperate.

As regards sampling criteria, it was decided that a random selection would lead to achieving the level of representativeness that was needed to make generalisations and thus satisfy the objectives of the research. However, rather than drawing from the wider population, which was not possible due to the restrictions mentioned previously, an official list of nurseries and schools (220 according to Educantabria) was used and a

number of selecting criteria was set up, which facilitated grouping them into categories and thus choose from each category (see Table 3 below).

Table 3. Nurseries and schools selection criteria.

Selecting criteria	School type		
Setting	Urban	Rural	
Village/Town size (no. of inhabitants)	Fewer than 10,000	10,000 to 50,000	More than 50,000
School size (no. of pupils)	Fewer than 100	100 to 400	More than 400
Age range	0 to 3 3 to 6	0 to 6 3 to 11	0 to 11 6 to 11
Ownership	Independent	State	
Gender	Single sex	Mixed	
Confession	Non-confessional	Roman Catholic	

Once a nursery or school had been randomly sampled and the directors or parents' association had agreed to cooperate, they were sent an invitation email with a link to the questionnaire, which they were asked to forward to all parents with a registered contact address. One email was sent to each family because they were meant to be completed by both father and mother together. Only when the two parents did not live in the same household were emails sent separately.

It should be clarified, however, that the criteria used for sampling nurseries and schools do not fall within the scope of our study because school type has not been identified in this study as one of the factors affecting family language policy.

3.5 Questionnaire design

There was one single questionnaire with 83 questions, which was divided into an introduction and four sections (see APPENDIX A). The introduction informed participants of the nature of the research and of the working of the questionnaire. Participants were informed that cooperation with the research was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time before submission. Should the participants have felt

that any of the questions were inappropriate, it could be left unanswered. The legitimacy of the research was accounted for by the inclusion of the coat of arms of the University of Wales Trinity Saint David.

Section one aimed at collecting basic information about families' socio-economic status. Sections two and three targeted fathers or male guardians, and mothers or female guardians individually. They aimed at collecting information about their cultural and educational background, their daily interaction with English and their attitudes towards and beliefs regarding foreign languages and their acquisition. Finally, section four dealt with family language practice in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition.

The research used mostly closed-ended questions in the form of nominal and ordinal scales. Question types included multiple-choice questions, checkboxes and multiple-choice grids. Some open-ended questions were also used to find about families' attitudes.

As regards anonymity, no identification or contact details were required from the participants during the whole process and the online software used to collect the data was set to not produce reports that included identification or contact information concerning the participants.

3.6 Data collection, storage and retrieval

The data collected through the questionnaire were stored in Google's servers and were password protected, which secured confidentiality. They were then exported to a spreadsheet generated by Google Forms itself for analysis. The participants' identification and contact details were not provided by Google Forms either.

3.7 Methods of data analysis

Two types of data distributions were produced, univariate and multivariate. The study of both univariate and multivariate distributions was done with instruments for descriptive statistics. Analysis of percentage, mean, median and mode were used for distributions with one variable and Chi-square tests ($\chi2$) of independence for analysis of dependence relationships in distributions with two variables.

According to Franke *et al.* (2012), "The chi-square test of independence determines whether two categorical variables in a single sample are independent from or associated with each other." It "…collects data on a single sample, and then compares two variables within that sample to determine the relationship between them." A significant test rejecting the null hypothesis (H$_0$) would suggest that, within the sample, one variable is associated with a second variable.

On the other hand, McHugh (2013) states that, for a chi-square test of independence to be useful, a number of assumptions have to be met. Thus, the data must be obtained through random selection, the data in the cells must be frequencies rather than percentages and the sample size must equal at least the number of cells multiplied by five (p. 144).

Following the two authors above, we can conclude that the use of the chi-square test ($\chi2$) is relevant to our study as it aligns with the purpose of our research, which is the analysis of the strength of the dependence relationships between categorical variables reflecting different aspects that make up family language policy among one single sample. In this way, the significance of the differences between the expected and the observed frequencies in each of the cross-tabulations carried out will lead us to either reject the null hypothesis (H$_0$) and, therefore, conclude that there exists a dependence relationship between the variables under observation, or to accept the null hypothesis (H$_0$) and conclude that there exists no relationship among such variables. Furthermore, the ease to implement the chi-square test ($\chi2$) and its simplicity to interpret make it practical and suitable for our data, which also aligns with McHugh's (2013) assumptions as they were obtained through random selection, they represent frequencies rather than percentages, and the sample size for each cross-tabulation clearly exceeds the number of cells multiplied by five.

Finally, the consistency in the patterns of distribution of relative frequencies obtained for each cross-tabulation will help us mitigate any potential limitation as to the causal nature of the relationships between variables.

CHAPTER 4 - ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 The sample

We will commence this section with an analysis of the sample for which, when possible, comparisons with the wider population will be made. The following tables and figures show some of the main features regarding the participants in the study.

Table 4 illustrates the schools that cooperated in the study, the period of data collection and the nature of the questionnaires returned.

Table 4. Schools, period of data collection and questionnaires.

Potential participating schools	220 (100.00%)
Schools contacted	133 (60.45%)
Schools that agreed to cooperate in relation to the schools contacted	89 (66.90%)
Schools that did not agree to cooperate in relation to the schools contacted	44 (33.10%)
Period of data collection	February 8th to April 30th 2017
Returned questionnaires	1,112 (100.00%)
Invalid questionnaires	36 (3.24%)
Valid questionnaires	1,076 (96.76%)

The criteria followed to select the schools were described in the previous chapter. We must admit that, after the piloting phase, we had estimated a smaller amount of time than we actually needed to deliver and collect the questionnaires (Fig. 1). This is because we had not expected that so many schools would refuse to take part in the study and because the local education authorities raised some concerns with which we had to deal before completing this phase.

Period of data collection.

Figure 1. Period of data collection and daily number of responses.

A number of questionnaires had to be dismissed on the grounds that they had been returned unanswered. Each questionnaire represents a household, most of which were formed by both parents and one or more children (see Figure 2 below).
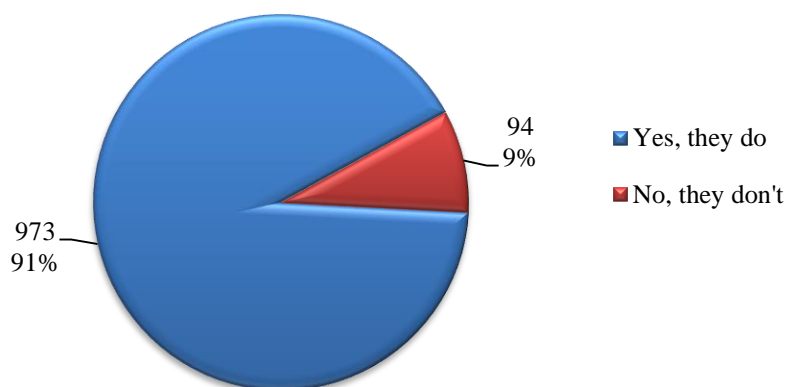
Figure 2. Absolute and relative (%) frequency concerning whether both parents live in the same household. Question 3 (1,067 responses).

As for the number of individual participants, we obtained a slightly higher number of responses from male than from female respondents (Table 5). As we stated before (see section 3.5 on page 77), sections two and three of the questionnaire targeted fathers or male guardians, and mothers or female guardians individually. Therefore, apart from the questions about the socio-economic status of the family (section one) and the questions about family language practice in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition (section four), which were meant to be answered by father and mother together, each of the 1,076 valid questionnaires returned one set of male-related answers (section two) and another set of female-related answers (section three). The discrepancy between the number of male and female responses can be attributed to the fact that some of the valid questionnaires had left either the male or the female set of answers blank.

Table 5. Potential and actual number of participants.

	Male	Female	Total
Potential participants from the 220 schools	43,182 (50.00%)	43,182 (50.00%)	86,364 (100.00%)
Actual number of participants	1,068 (50.76%)	1,037 (49.24%)	2,105 (100.00%)

Table 6 and Figure 3 represent the distribution of respondents and of the wider population in age bands. A look at both reveals relatively similar distribution patterns. It should be highlighted that both age band sets coincide in that there is a considerable gap after bands 26-30 and 25-29 respectively, which coincides with the age at which women have their first child. Furthermore, the two largest bands are the same in both the sample and the wider population groups (36-45 for the sample group and 35-44 for the wider population).

Table 6. Distribution of the sample and the wider population of Spain in age bands. Questions 5/34 (2,105 responses).

Sample			Wider population (Spain)*		
Age bands	Total	%	Age bands**	Total	%
16-20	3	0.15%	15-19	23,514	0.43%
21-25	1	0.05%	20-24	80,351	1.48%
26-30	29	1.44%	25-29	477,985	8.81%
31-35	207	10.31%	30-34	1,175,274	21.66%
36-40	625	31.13%	35-39	1,310,179	24.14%
41-45	783	38.99%	40-44	1,219,784	22.48%
46-50	360	17.93%	45-49	1,139,782	21.00%
More than 50 years old			More than 50 years old***	-	-
Total	2,008	100.00%	Total	5,426,869	100.00%

*No data are available for the region of Cantabria.
**The age bands for the wider community group provided by INE are slightly different.
***No data available for women over 50 years of age.
Source: INE
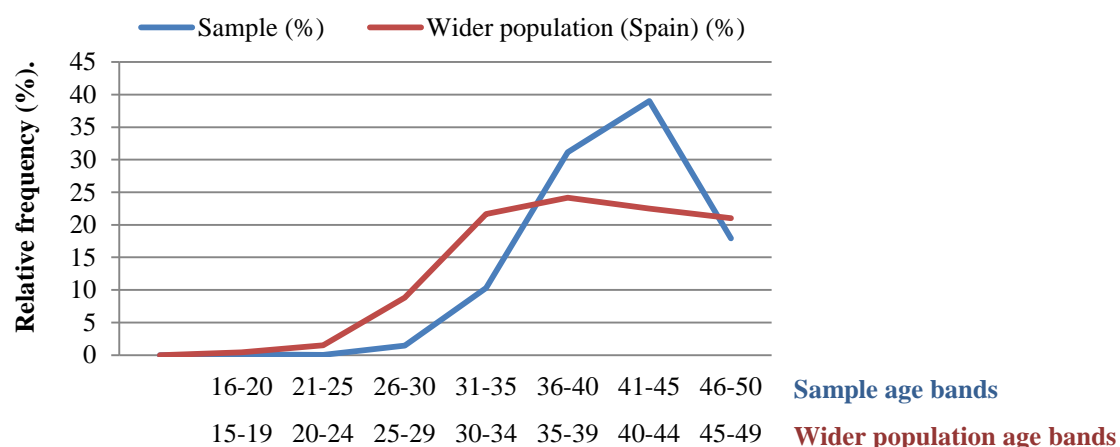
Figure 3. Distribution of the sample and the wider population of Spain in age bands. The wider population age band for people above 50 is not available so the same age band within the sample group has been removed for comparison purposes. Questions 5/34 (2,105 responses).

Regarding the place of birth, as Table 7 shows, the majority of the respondents claimed to have been born in Spain.

Table 7. Distribution of the sample and the wider population by place of birth. Questions 6/35 (2,096 responses).

	Sample		Wider population (Cantabria)	
	Total	%	Total	%
In Spain	1,965	93.75%	260,262	87.46%
In an English-speaking country	8	0.38%	-	0.1%*
In a different country	123	5.87%	-	12.44%**
Total	2,096	100.00%	297,579	100.00%

*This figure only refers to those born in the UK.
**This figure may include people born in an English-speaking country other than the UK.
Those cells for which no data are available have been left empty.

Source: INE

In relation to the size of the village or town where the respondents live, we obtained similar distributions for the sample and the wider community, except for those participants who live in the smallest and in the biggest towns and cities (Table 8 and Figure 4). Such differences may be attributed to the fact that schools in rural areas were more cooperative than schools in Santander, the capital city of the Autonomous Community of Cantabria.

Table 8. Relative distribution (%) of the sample and the wider population by town size. Question 1 (1,076 responses).

|	Sample (%)	Wider population (Cantabria) (%)
< 1,000 inhabitants	9.94%	3.10%
1,000 to 5,000 inhabitants	19.89%	18.10%
5,001 to 15,000 inhabitants	19.24%	19.60%
15,001 to 60,000 inhabitants	19.89%	22.40%
> 60,000 inhabitants	31.04%	36.80%
Total	100.00%	100.00%

Source: INE
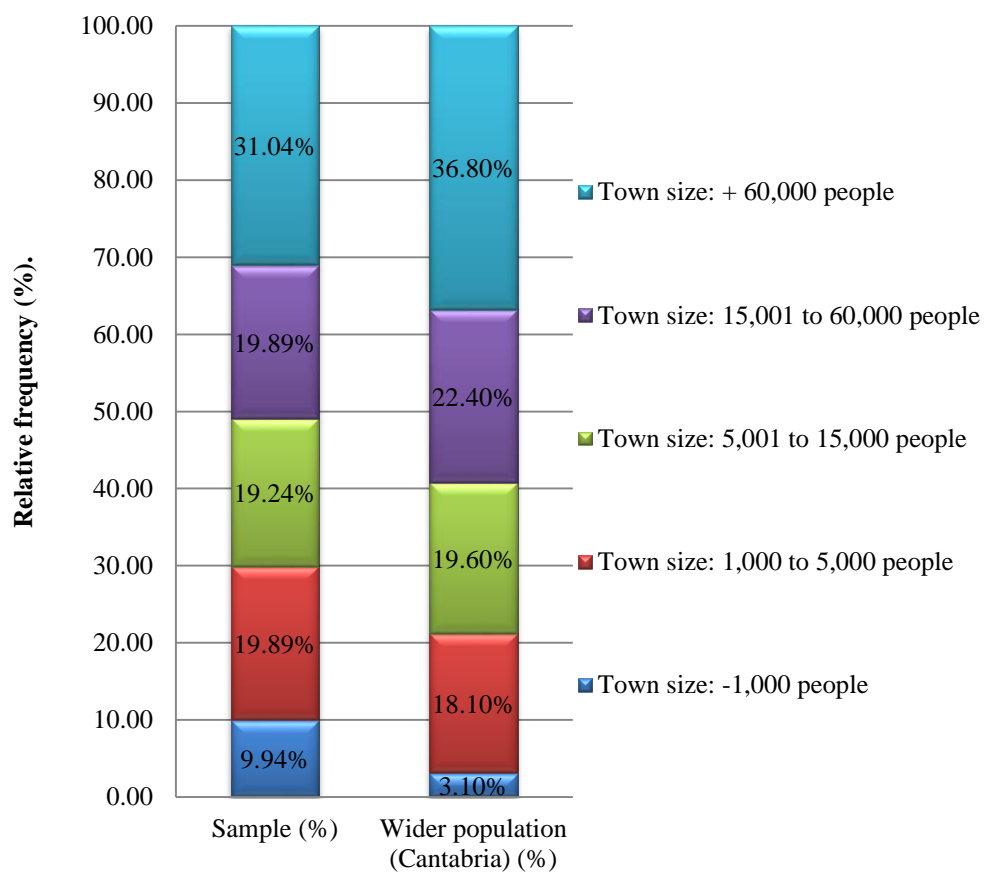
Figure 4. Sample distribution by town size. Question 1 (1,076 responses).

Figure 5 shows that the vast majority of the respondents (95.12%) only have Spanish as their first language. The same data for either Cantabria or Spain are not available and, consequently, no comparisons can be made.
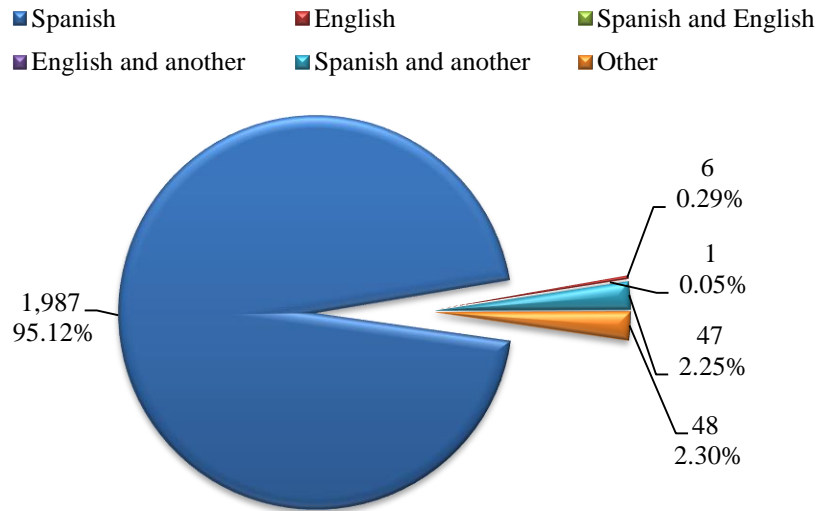
Figure 5. Absolute and relative (%) frequency regarding parents' first language. Questions 7/36 (2,089 responses).

Table 9 compares household size between the sample and the wider population, whereas Figure 6 gives account of the sample distribution by number of people per household. The average number of members per household within the sample is consistent with the mode (4) and the median (4), and slightly higher than the average number of members per household within the wider community.

Table 9. Average number of members per household within the sample and the wider community. Question 2 (1,071 respondents).

	Sample	Wider population (Cantabria)
Average no. of members per household	3.77	3.19
Mode	4	3
Median	4	3
Confidence interval	[3.72, 3.82]	

Source: ICANE

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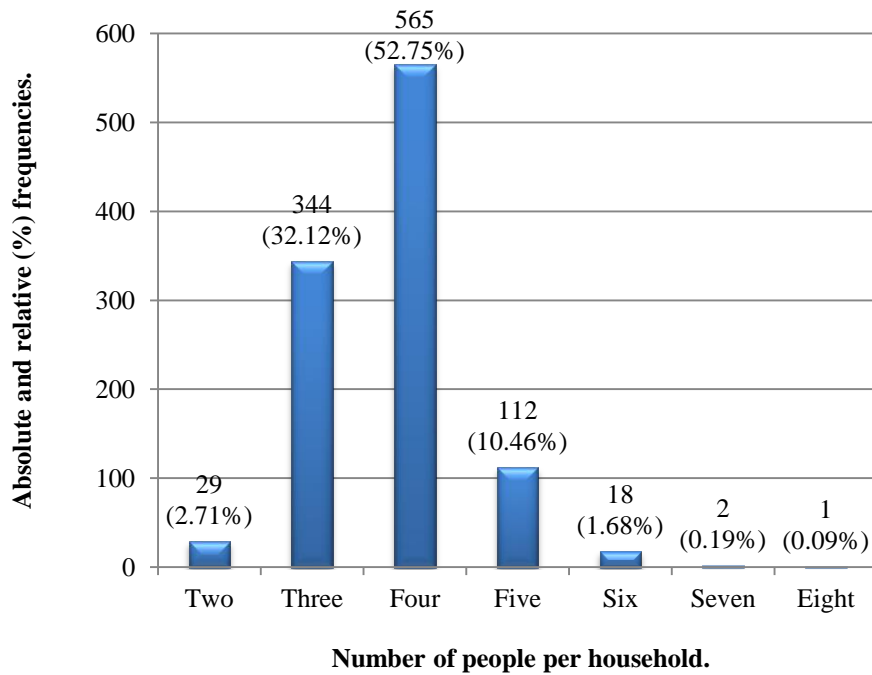
Figure 6. Respondents distribution by household size. Question 2 (1,071 responses).

As regards parents' level of schooling, Table 10 and Figure 7 below show that the level of schooling of the sample does not match the level of schooling of the wider population, particularly in relation to the number of respondents who claimed to have completed a higher education programme. The fact that the more educated respondents are those who most questionnaires returned may be interpreted as an indicator of the level of involvement in their children's education. However, this statement cannot be verified with the information collected from the questionnaires and other factors, such as access to the Internet or time availability, may also be involved. Furthermore, according to Hornby and Lafaele (2011), barriers to parental involvement in education are varied in nature. In this respect, they discuss how parents' beliefs about parental involvement, parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement or parents' current life contexts, which includes parents' level of education, all contribute to parents' reluctance to get involved in the education of their children.

Table 10. Relative distribution (%) of the sample and the wider population by level of schooling. Questions 10/39 (2,075 responses).

	Sample (%)	Wider population (Cantabria) (%)
No schooling at all	0.72%	2.00%
Primary level	5.59%	14.60%
Secondary level	3.86%	29.10%
A-Levels / Intermediate-Level Vocational Training	14.70%	22.70%
High-Level Vocational Training	17.98%	31.60%*
University degree	57.16%	
Total	100.00%	100.00%

Source: INE

*INE does not distinguish between High-Level Vocational Training and University studies. The term *Higher Education* is used instead.
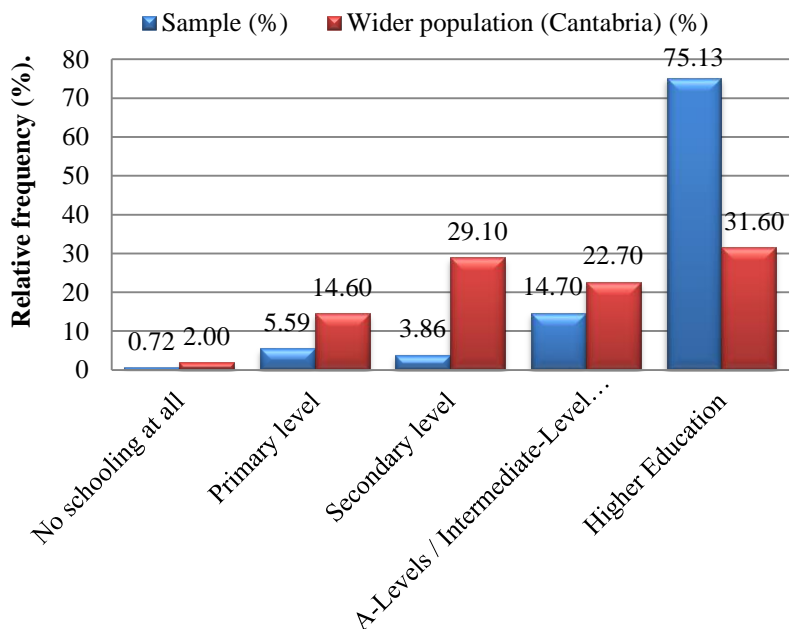
Highest level of schooling completed.

Figure 7. Sample and wider population distribution by highest level of schooling completed (%). Questions 10/39 (2,075 responses).

Next, we looked at parents' employment status. As Table 11 and Figure 8 below reveal, both the sample and the wider population groups present significant similarities for the different categories, with a slightly bigger mismatch for the unemployment rates and the percentage of full-time employees.

Table 11. Relative distribution (%) of the sample and the wider population by employment status*. Questions 8/37 (2,071 responses).

	Sample (%)	Wider population (Cantabria) (%)
Self-employed	14.58%	16.00%
Full-time employee	54.47%	47.95%
Part-time employee	14.20%	13.20%
Unemployed	8.59%	14.07%
Other (for example homemaker, retired worker, pensioner, etc)	8.16%	8.78%
Total	100.00%	100.00%

*The percentages within the sample category have been adapted to provide for the fact that they are not measuring the same variables. For the absolute figures, see APPENDIX C.

Source: INE
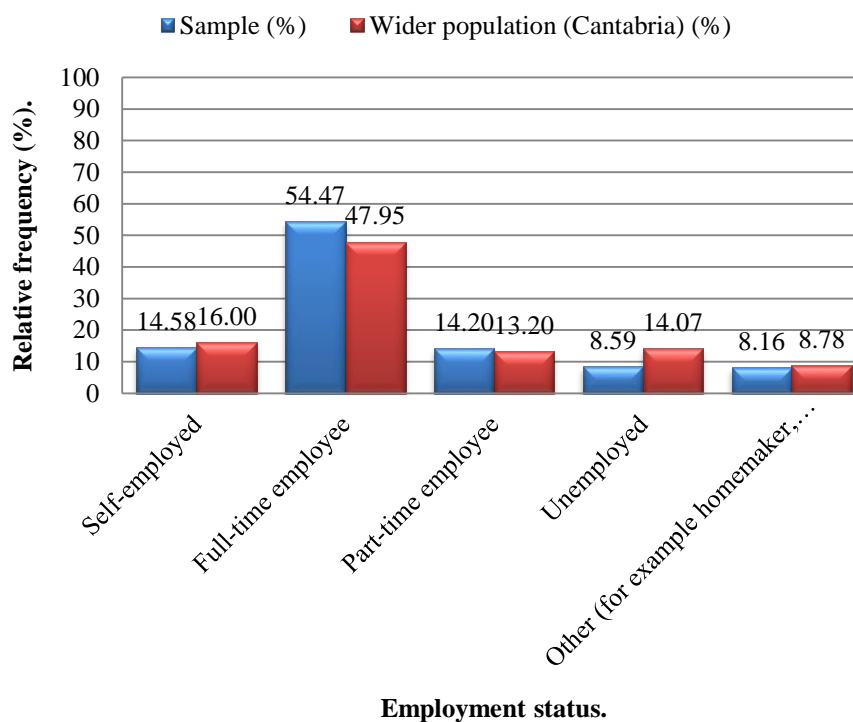
Figure 8. Relative frequency (%) concerning parents' employment status. Questions 8/37 (2,071 responses).

As for the type of employment, and despite the fact that we have not been able to establish a very reliable correlation between the sample and the wider population because the employment categories provided by the Spanish statistics institute do not match the ones that we had designed for our questionnaire, the data in Table 12 below have emerged. As we can see, though far from being a perfect match, certain patterns of similarity seem to emerge. For example, the second employment category is the largest and the first employment category is the smallest in both groups. Likewise, employment categories 3 and 4 have similar distributions in both the sample and the wider population.

Table 12. Relative distribution (%) of the sample and the wider population by employment category. Questions 9/38 (1,710 responses).

	Sample (%)	Wider population (Cantabria) (%)*
Junior staff, cleaner and helper, both in the private and public sectors. Labourer: construction, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, transport, mining .... Peddler	8.01%	9.35%
Administrative assistant in both public and private companies. Personal services worker: cook, waiter, hairdresser, ... Shop assistant. Salesperson. Agricultural or fishery qualified worker. Qualified craftsman. Plant and machine operator. Heavy vehicles or heavy mobile equipment driver. Non-commissioned officer of the armed forces	31.64%	47.30%
Intermediate-level technician: engineering, construction, navigation, health, legal services, public administration, ... Officer of the armed forces	29.24%	21.55%
Manager of public or private companies. Scientific and intellectual professional: engineer, physicist, chemist, doctor, teacher (except foreign languages teachers), lawyer, architect, senior official in the government, high-ranking officer of the armed forces	28.36%	21.80%
Foreign languages teacher**	2.75%	-
Total	100.00%	100.00%

*The employment categories provided by the Spanish statistics institute do not match the ones that we had designed for our questionnaire.

**No statistics available for the wider community.

Source: INE

Finally, a look at the level of net income per person between the sample and the wider population, as can be seen in Table 13, reveals that the average net income per person of the sample has a 3.2% variation with regard to the wider population. The average net income per person is consistent with the mode and with the median. Figure 9 depicts the distribution of the sample according to the annual net income per person. It can be seen that most participants concentrate in the second and third lowest income bands.

Table 13. Average net income per person within the sample and the wider community. Question 4 (987 respondents).

	Sample	Wider population (Cantabria)
Average net income per person	€11,016	€10,670
Mode	€10,540	
Median	€10,814	

Source: INE

Annual net income per person bands in €.
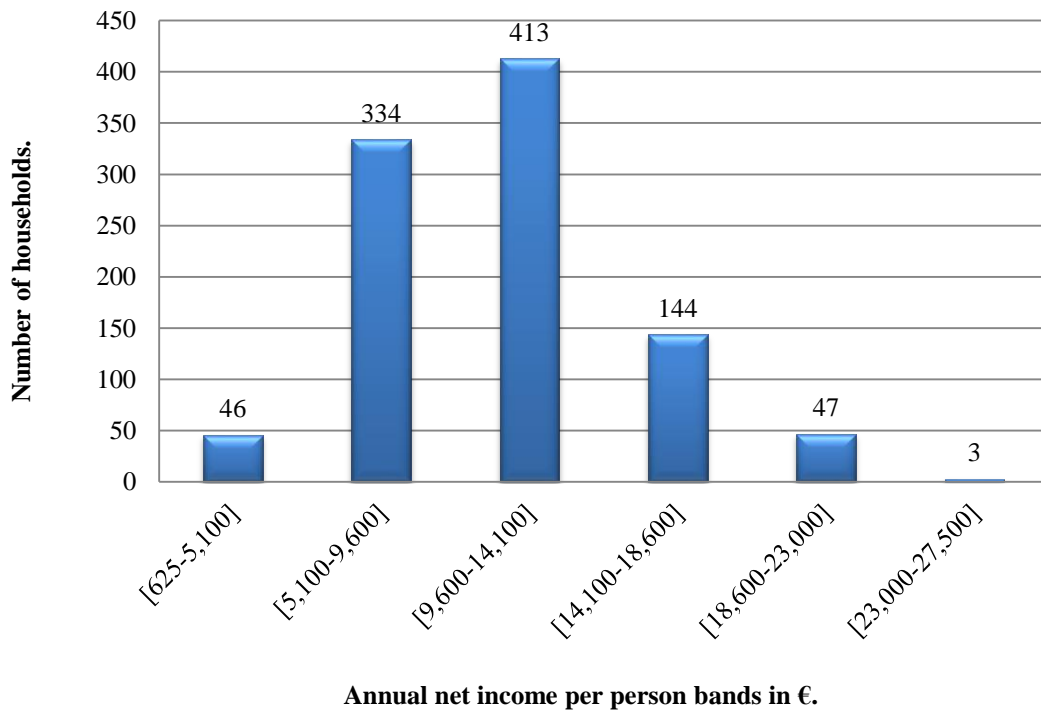
Figure 9. Absolute frequency regarding the households' annual net income per person. Question 4 (987 responses).

From the analysis of the sample above we can state that the typical respondents, represented as the mode in each of the measurements done, are the parents of a 4-member family with an average net income of around €11,000 per person/year (around €44,000 per family), who have been born in Spain and live in Santander, the capital city. They are aged between 36 and 45, only have one first language (Spanish) and have completed a higher education programme. They are full-time employees and their job is within one of the three highest job scales provided. Most variables from the sample seem to coincide with those of the wider population with the exception of parents' level of education and the distribution of the sample according to the geographical area, which were already mentioned above. The data concerning parents' jobs must be taken with caution as they represent a mere estimate. We can conclude, therefore, that both quantitatively and qualitatively the sample is fairly representative of the population from the Autonomous Community of Cantabria and that the conclusions that we will draw when the rest of the information is analysed and discussed below are likely to be valid for the wider population.

Bearing the facts above in mind, we now move on to analyse the rest of the data obtained from the questionnaires to help us answer the basic research questions as stated in the previous chapters, namely:

1. Do parents from the Autonomous Community of Cantabria (Spain) use television as an instrument to help their children learn English?
2. How is television-mediated foreign language acquisition affected by other linguistic practices within the family, by parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial strategies, and environmental factors?
3. How do linguistic practices, beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial strategies, and environmental factors relate to each other?

To analyse the correlations between linguistic practices, parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial strategies together with environmental factors we will use the chi-square test (χ^2) and Pearson's linear correlation test (for the income variable).

4.2 Family Language Policy: Linguistic practices (television-mediated foreign language acquisition)

We will commence presenting the data in relation to parents' use of television as an instrument to help their children learn English. In this respect, questions 66b and 75 give account of the frequency with which children are exposed to television/DVDs in English and the percentage of the time of exposure to television/DVDs in Spanish out of the total amount of time of exposure to television/DVDs respectively.

As Figure 10 and Figure 11 reveal, very few respondents claimed that their children watch television (18%) or DVDs (17%) in English every day or quite often.
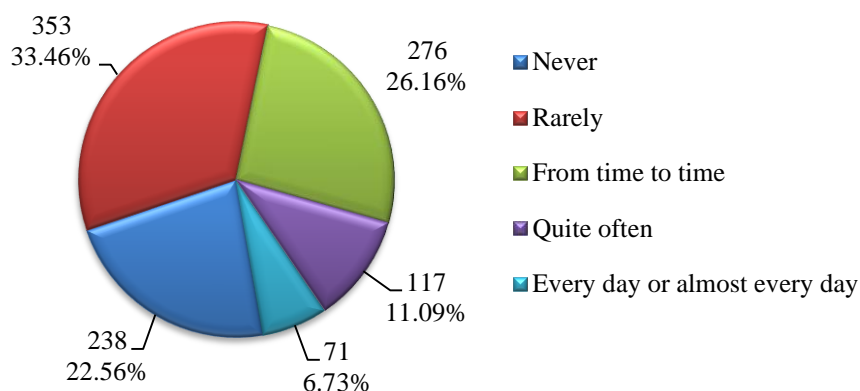
Figure 10. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning how often children have contact with English through television programmes. Question 66b (1,055 responses).
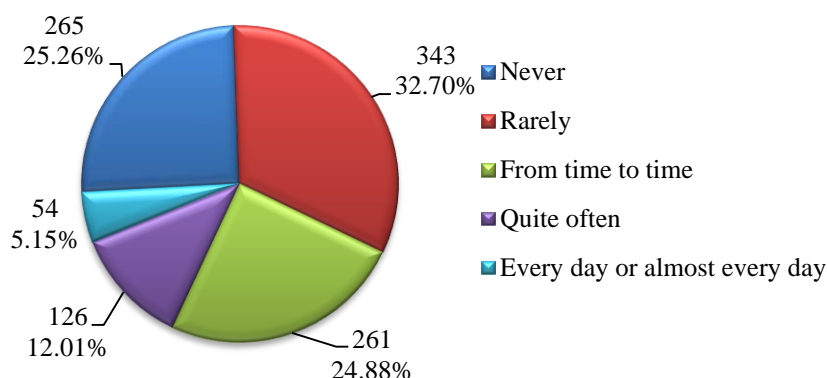
Figure 11. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning how often children have contact with English through DVDs. Question 66c (1,049 responses).

Furthermore, as Figures 12 and 13 show, the vast majority of respondents (71%) claimed that their children watch television/DVDS in Spanish between 70% and 100% of the time.
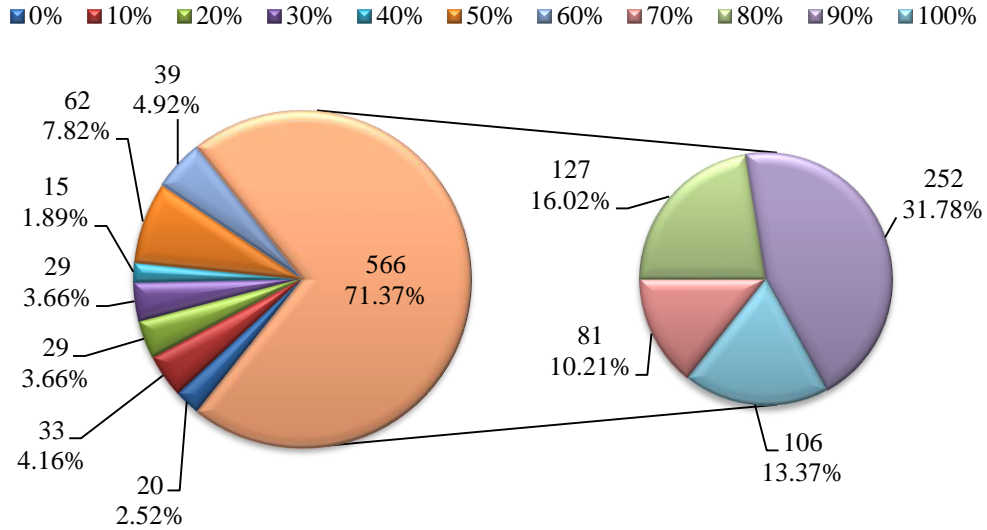
Figure 12. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding the amount of time that children spend watching TV or DVDs in Spanish in comparison to other languages. Question 75 (793 responses).
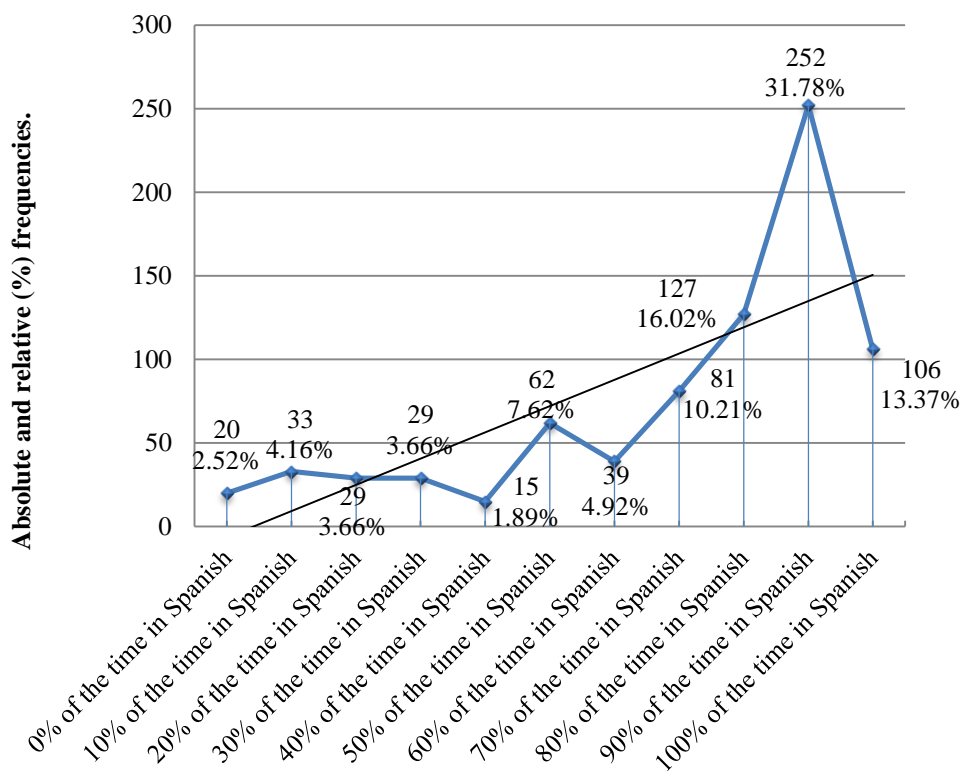
**Amount of time that children spend watching TV or DVDs in Spanish
in comparison to other languages.**

Figure 13. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding the amount of time that children spend watching TV or DVDs in Spanish in comparison to other languages. Question 75 (793 responses).

From the data appearing in the figures above we can now answer Research Question 1 by stating that technological advancement has not brought about a significant increase in the consumption of television content in foreign languages and thus conclude that the hypothesis presented in the Introduction, based on the author's personal perception of families' habits in relation to viewing television in English and which was drawn from observation within the author's social networks, is correct.

4.2.1 Family Language Policy: Shared linguistic practices

In answering Research Question 2, we will be looking at the data that relates to other linguistic practices within the family as well as parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, managerial strategies and environmental factors. For each variable, we will first present the results obtained from the survey and then we will define the level of correlation between each variable and question 66b.

First, we wanted to learn about shared linguistic practices within the families of our sample. In this way, we intended to find how often parents watched television in English themselves, how often they shared this activity with their children, how often they used English to talk to their children, how often their children used English to talk to their parents, how often parents used English to communicate with each other, with friends or at work; and finally how often children spoke English to their siblings and friends.

In answering the first question, we found that the vast majority of parents never (58.25%) or rarely (21.90%) watch television in English, whereas only 4.60% do it quite often, and 3.05% every day or almost every day (Fig. 14).
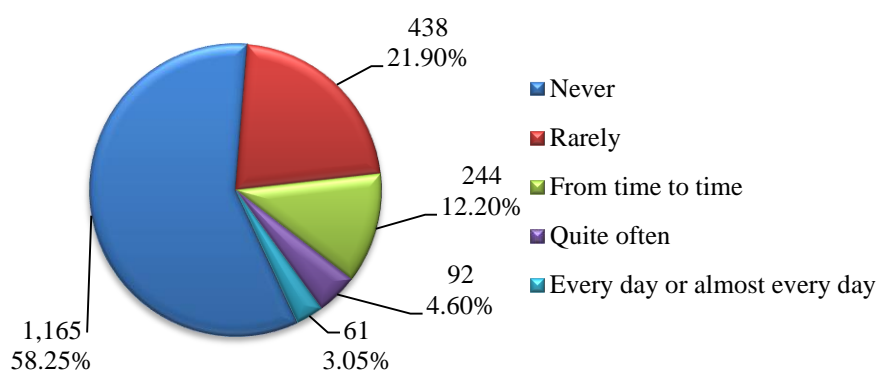
Figure 14. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of parents who watch television in English. Questions 18d/47d (2,000 responses).

The measure of the strength of the relationship between variables 66b and 18d/47d was obtained by calculating the relative variation between the chi-square obtained and the chi-square expected for the corresponding contingency table, in this case, 95.70% (see Contingency Table *Qs 66b – 18d/47d* in APPENDIX D). In other words, in 95.70% of the samples, the frequency with which children watch television in English is related to the frequency with which their parents watch television in English too.

Therefore, given a null hypothesis such as "H$_0$: There is no relationship between the frequency with which parents and their children watch television in English", we would be able to reject such hypothesis and establish an alternative one such as "H$_1$: There is a strong relationship between the frequency with which parents and their children watch television in English".

The chi-square test returns the second highest level of correlation between Question 66b and any other variable measured, in this case applying to 95.70% of the respondents. The statistic reveals that the relative number of children who watch television in English (almost) every day or quite often increases when the frequency with which parents watch television in English increases too. By contrast, the relative number of children who never or rarely watch television in English rises when the frequency with which parents view television in English decreases (Figure 15).
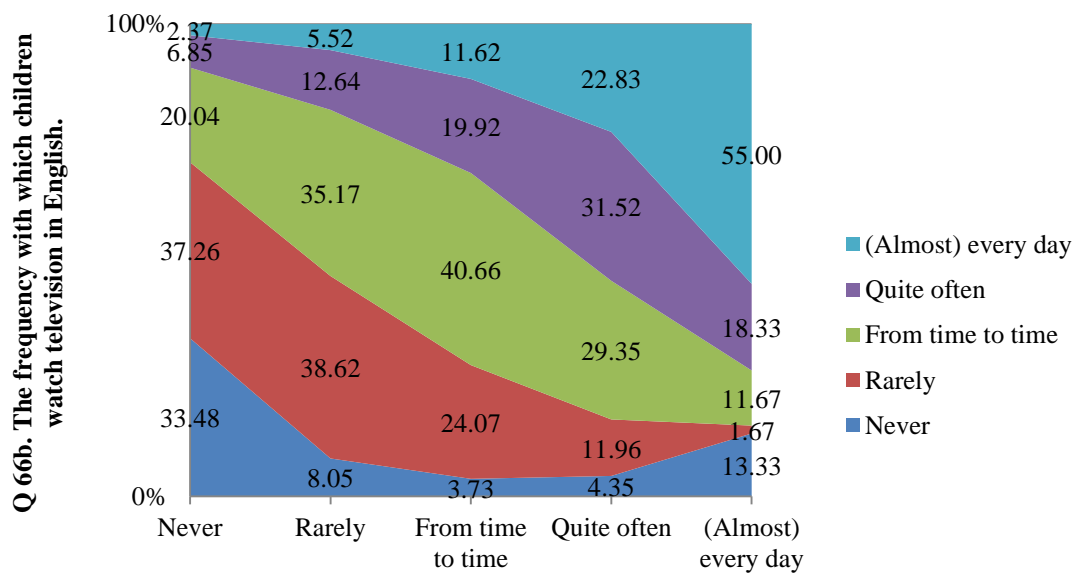
Qs 18d/47d. How often parents watch television in English without subtitles.

Figure 15. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles. Questions 66b and 18d/47d (1,966 responses).

Next, we wanted to know how often those parents who view television in English shared this activity with their children. The analysis of the questionnaire reveals that only 30% of the respondents claimed that they never (6.93%) or rarely (22.96%) shared television viewing with their children, whereas the rest did it from time to time (33.83%), quite often (26.63%) or always (9.65%) (Fig. 16).
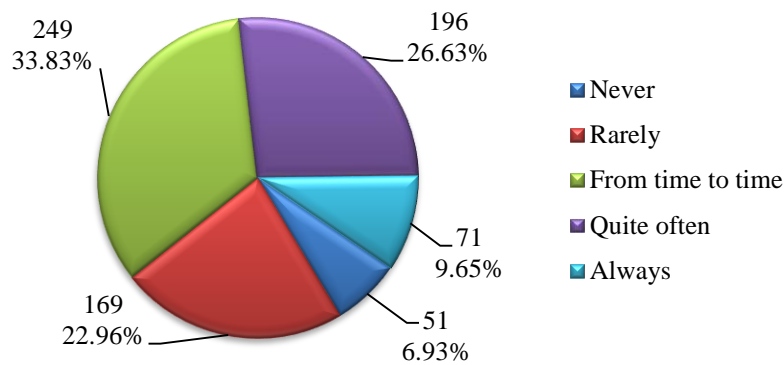
Figure 16. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of parents who watch television in English with their children. Question 77 (736 responses).

A look at the chi-square statistic corresponding to these two variables shows a very high degree of correlation, which affects 80.84% of the respondents. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies that emerged from cross-tabulating variables 66b and 77 shows that the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time increases as the frequency with which their parents share the viewing with them increases too. On the contrary, the relative number of children who rarely watch television in English rises when the amount of time that parents spend with their children decreases (see Figure 17 below). Interpreted in this way, we may conclude arguing that, by viewing television in English with their children, parents could be setting a model to be followed in by them, thus overtly or covertly using a linguistic practice to manage their children's linguistic practices. Such strategy could be attributed to De Houwer's (1999) very strong impact belief which, as we reported in the Literature Review chapter above, "…may include the notion that the parent has an important exemplary function to fulfil".

Figure 17. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which parents share this activity with their children. Questions 66b and 77 (729 responses).
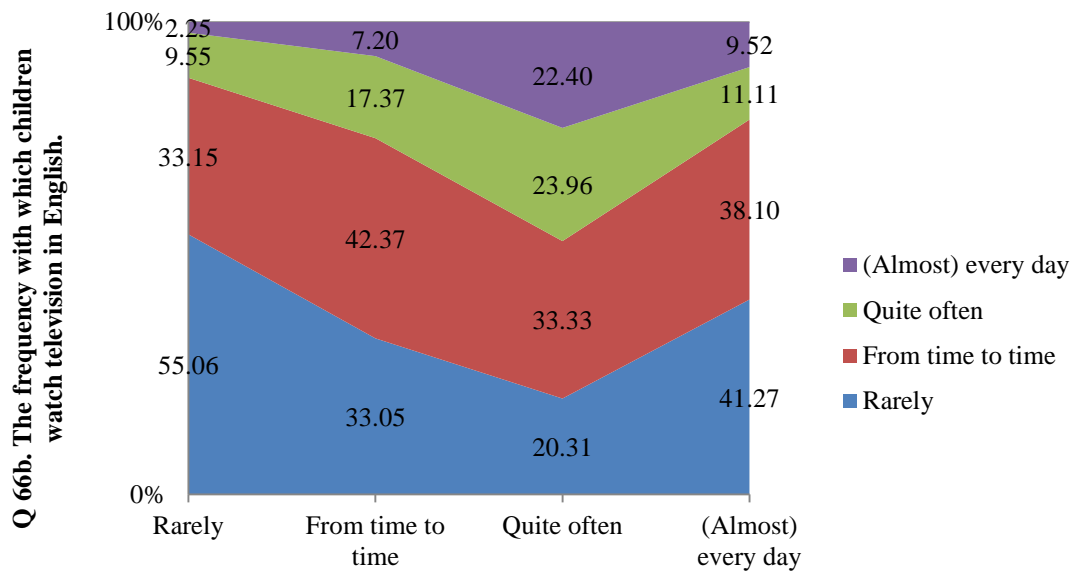
We now move on in this section to report on the findings obtained from looking at the relationship between the frequency with which English is used to talk among the different members of the same family or between members of the family and outsiders, and the number of children who view television in English. We shall begin by looking at the relative frequency with which parents speak English to their children. The information gathered in the questionnaire shows that the majority of the parents never (32.08%) of rarely (32.37%) speak English to their children. On the contrary, 2.38% do it every day or almost every day, 6.9% quite often and 26.27% from time to time (Fig 18). Of the seven hundred and thirteen parents who speak English to their children from time to time or more, only three have English as their first language, whereas six hundred and ninety-three have Spanish as their first language.
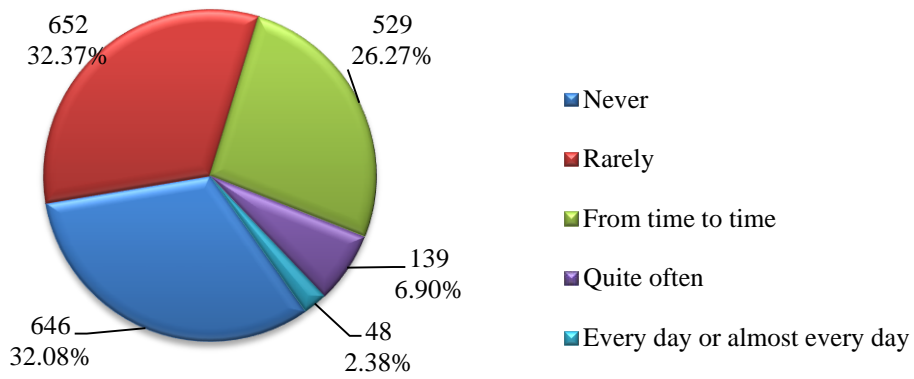
Figure 18. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of parents who use English to talk to their children. Questions 17b/46b (2,014 responses).

The analysis of the chi-square reveals correlations that affect 92.69% of the respondents. Like in the previous cross-tabulations analysed, the relative number of children who view television in English (almost) every day or quite often seems to increase when parents use English to talk to them with more frequency. On the contrary, the relative number of children that never or rarely do it seems to grow when parents speak English to them less frequently (Fig. 19).

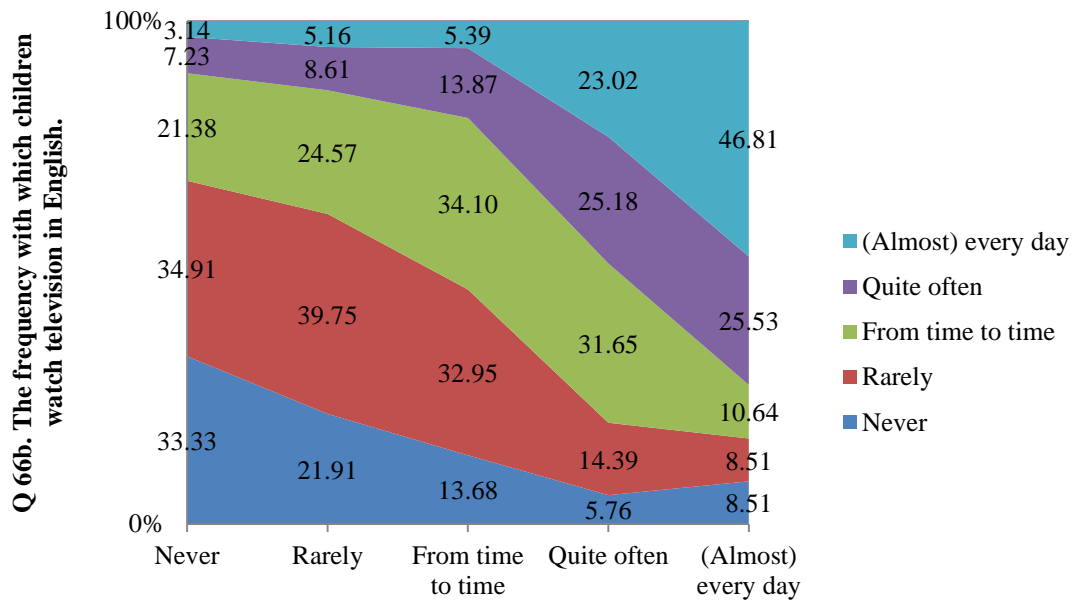**Qs 17b/46b. How often parents use English with their children.**

Figure 19. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which parents use English with their children. Questions 66b and 17b/46b (1,980 responses).

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Next, we considered that it would also be interesting to know what happened when we asked parents whether it was their children who used English to communicate with them. In this case, the data obtained reveals that children used English to talk to their parents significantly less often than vice versa. Thus, 58% of the respondents claimed that their children never speak English to them and 24.21% rarely do it. Only 1.09% and 3.16% respectively do it (almost) every day or quite often (Fig. 20).
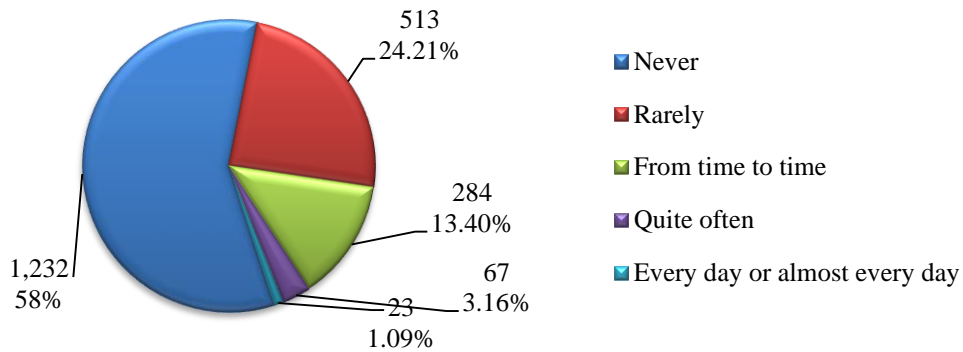
Figure 20. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who use English to talk to their parents. Questions 65a/65b (2,119 responses).

The chi-square analysis indicates a correlation degree between these two variables that affects 93.03% of the respondents. In this case, the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children speak English to their parents go hand in hand. In other words, when one of the two variables increases, the other one increases too and vice versa (Fig. 21).
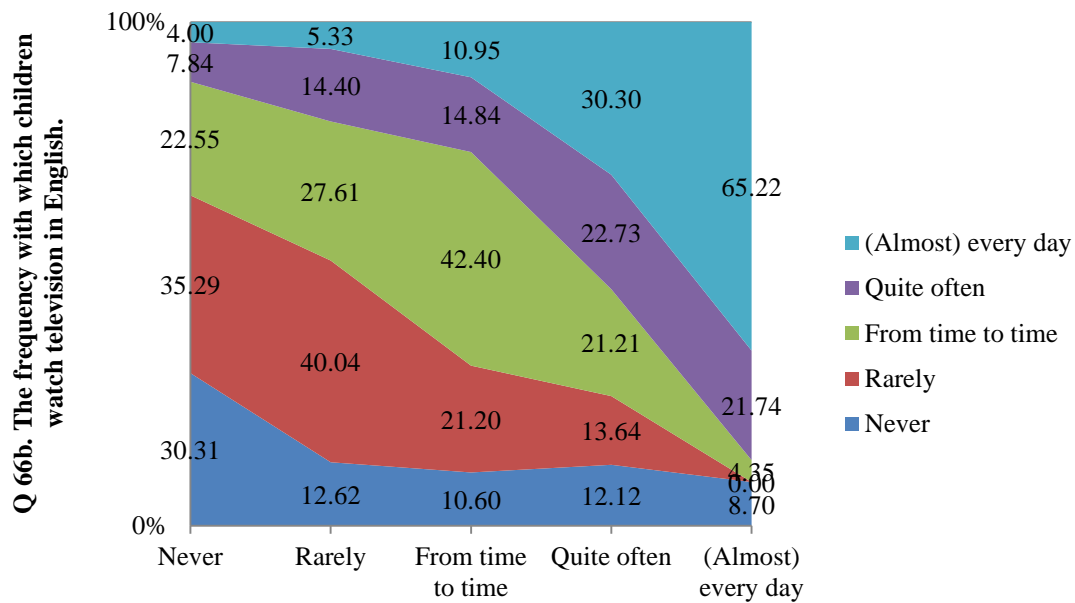
Figure 21. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children use English to talk to their parents. Questions 66b and 65a/65b (2,103 responses).

Next, we will be discussing how often parents use English to communicate with each other, with friends or at work. As regards parents using English to talk to each other we found that the vast majority of the respondents never (81.47%) or rarely (11.80%) do it (Figure 22). We should not be surprised by this finding since we are talking of a sample in which 95.12% of the participants claimed to have Spanish as their only first language. What is more, 92.96% of the respondents are couples in which both parents have Spanish as their first language and only one parent claimed to have both Spanish and English as first languages. However, more significantly, we discovered that forty couples in which both parents had Spanish as their first language claimed to speak English with their spouses from time to time, quite often or (almost) every day.

Figure 22. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of parents who use English to talk to each other. Questions 17a/46a (1,991 responses).
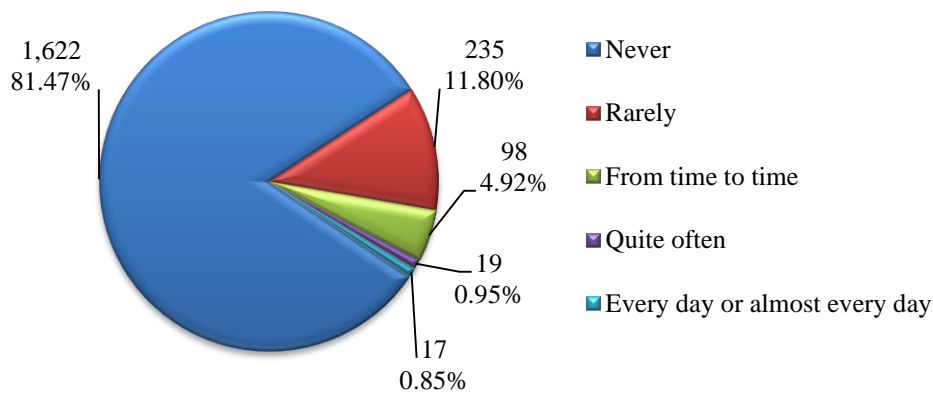
When we compared variables 66b and 17a/46a, we obtained a degree of dependence that affects 89.15% of the respondents. As Figure 23 below shows, there is a clear tendency by which the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time grows when the frequency with which their parents use English to talk to each other increases too. By contrast, the relative number of children that never o rarely do it rises as the frequency with which their parents speak English to each other decreases.

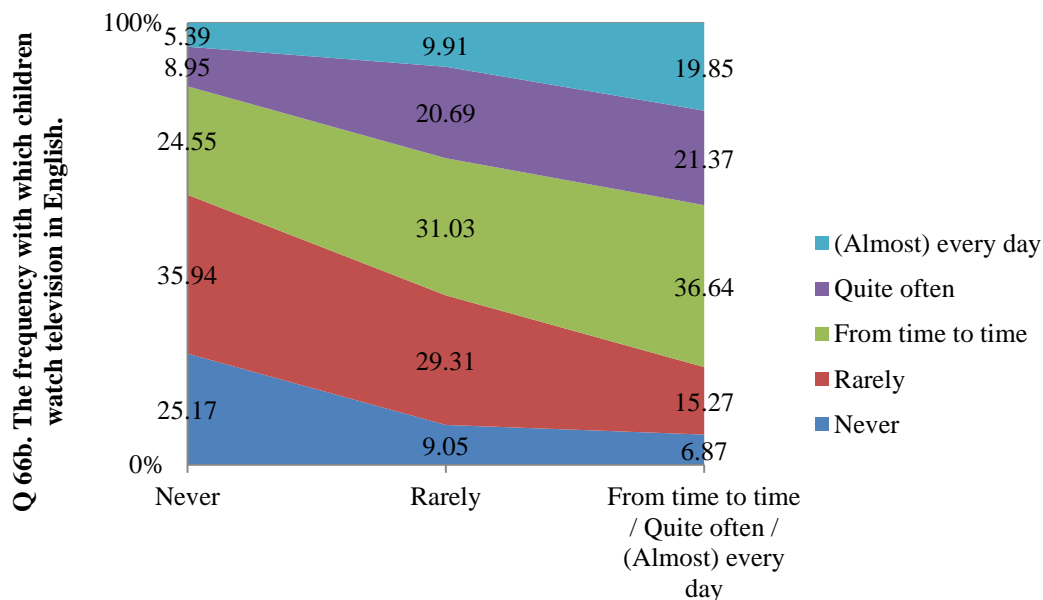**Qs 17a/46a. How often parents use English with each other.**

Figure 23. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which parents use English to talk to each other. Questions 66b and 17a/46a (1,960 responses).

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Next, we looked at the frequency with which the parents of our sample use English to talk to their friends. As Figure 24 shows, the distribution resembles the one seen before, with a vast majority of parents who never (76.30%) or rarely (13.29%) do it and a minority who do it from time to time (8.66%), quite often (1.31%) or (almost) every day (0.45%). In this case, finding out about the parents' interlocutors' first language is unfeasible. What we can learn is the first language of those parents who speak English to their friends from time to time, quite often or (almost) every day. Thus, we found that of the two hundred and six parents who claimed to speak English to their friends with the frequencies just mentioned, 91.26% stated that Spanish was their first language, only 0.97% said that their first language was English and 7.77% that they had a first language different from Spanish or English.

Figure 24. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of parents who use English to talk to their friends. Questions 17d/46d (1,987 responses).
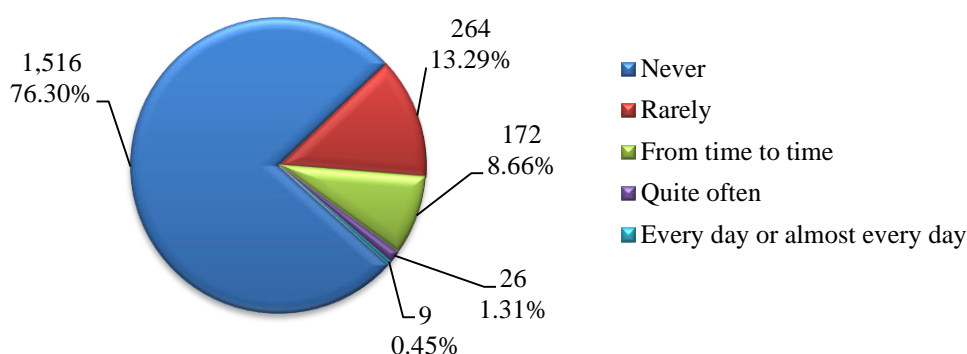
When we cross-tabulated these data with the answers given for Question 66b, we found that there was a strong relationship between the two variables, which affected 86.45% of the respondents. Once again, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies reveals a tendency which shows that the frequency with which children view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time rises as the frequency with which parents use English to talk to their friends rises too. By contrast, the frequency with which children rarely or never watch television in English grows when the frequency with which parents speak English to their friends decreases (Figure 25).

Figure 25. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which parents use English to talk to their friends. Questions 66b and 17d/46d (1,958 responses).
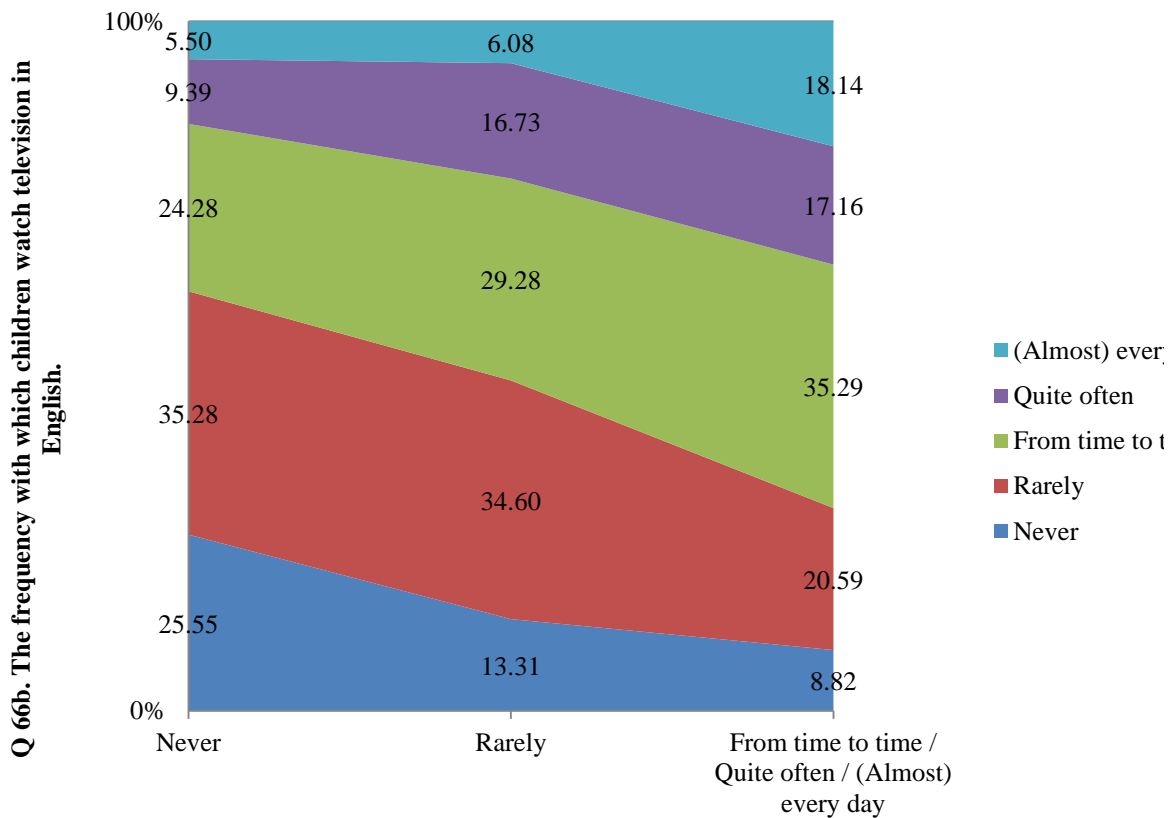
Next, we set out to find how often parents use English at work (variable 17e/46e). As Figure 26 below shows, although those parents who never (48.69%) or rarely (22.84%) use English at work still clearly outnumber those who do it from time to time (14.11%), quite often (6.88%) or (almost) every day (7.48%), the gap between these two groups has narrowed with respect to the two previous analyses. What these data represent is one of the consequences of the current process of economic globalization, one of its characteristics being the use of English as a common language for business (see Crystal, 2012; Neeley, 2012; Ricento, 2015; Smokotin *et al.*, 2014; Warschauer, 2000).
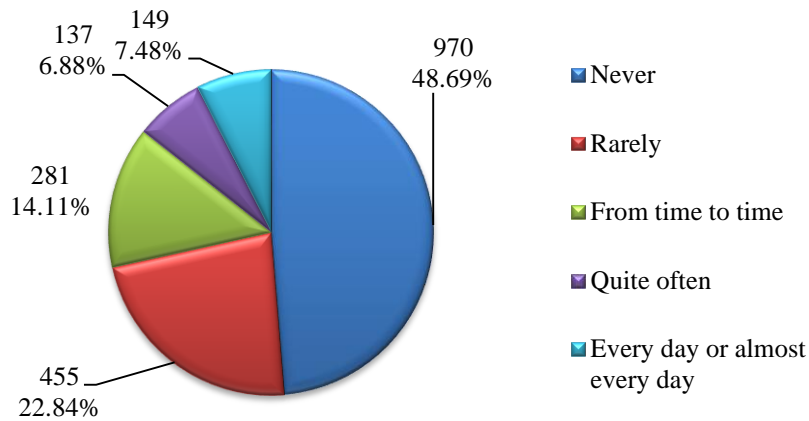
Figure 26. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of parents who use English at work. Questions 17e/46e (1,992 responses).

The study of the value of the correlation between variables 66b on the one hand and 17e/46e on the other reveals a degree of dependence that affects 81.99% of the respondents. As Figure 27 below reveals, the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time rises as the frequency with which parents use English at work increases too. Contrariwise, the relative number of children that never or rarely watch television in English tends to increase when the frequency with which parents use English at work decreases.


Qs 17e/46e. How often parents use English at work.

Figure 27. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which parents use English at work. Questions 66b and 17e/46e (1,962 responses).

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Finally, this section concludes with a look at the frequency with which children speak English to their siblings and to their friends. A look at Figure 28 below reveals that for the vast majority of the families, children never (71.29%) or rarely (17.94%) use English to talk to their brothers or sisters. However, once again, it may be worth looking at the first language of those who do speak English to their siblings. Thus, of the one hundred and eleven families in which the children do so from time to time or more often, two have English as their only first language, whereas one hundred and four have Spanish as their only first language and four more have Spanish as one of their two first languages.
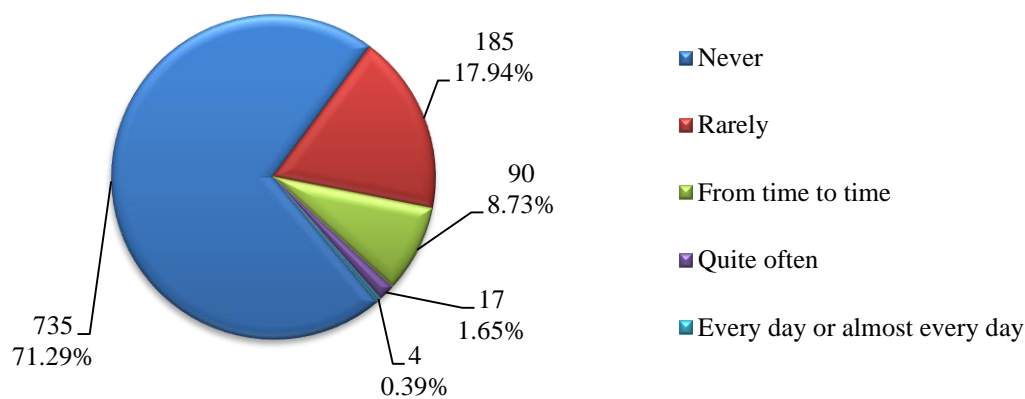
Figure 28. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of families in which children use English to talk to their siblings. Question 65c (1,031 responses).

After merging columns "From time to time", "Quite often" and "Every day or almost every day" in order to account for the number of cells with absolute frequencies below 5, the chi-square statistic returned a strong degree of correlation affecting 79.22% of the respondents. As in the variables analysed before, the tendency is for the relative number of families in which the children (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time view television in English to increase when the children also use English to talk to their siblings and to decrease when they tend not to. By contrast, the relative number of families in which the children rarely or never watch television in English rises when they tend not to speak English to their siblings (Fig. 29).

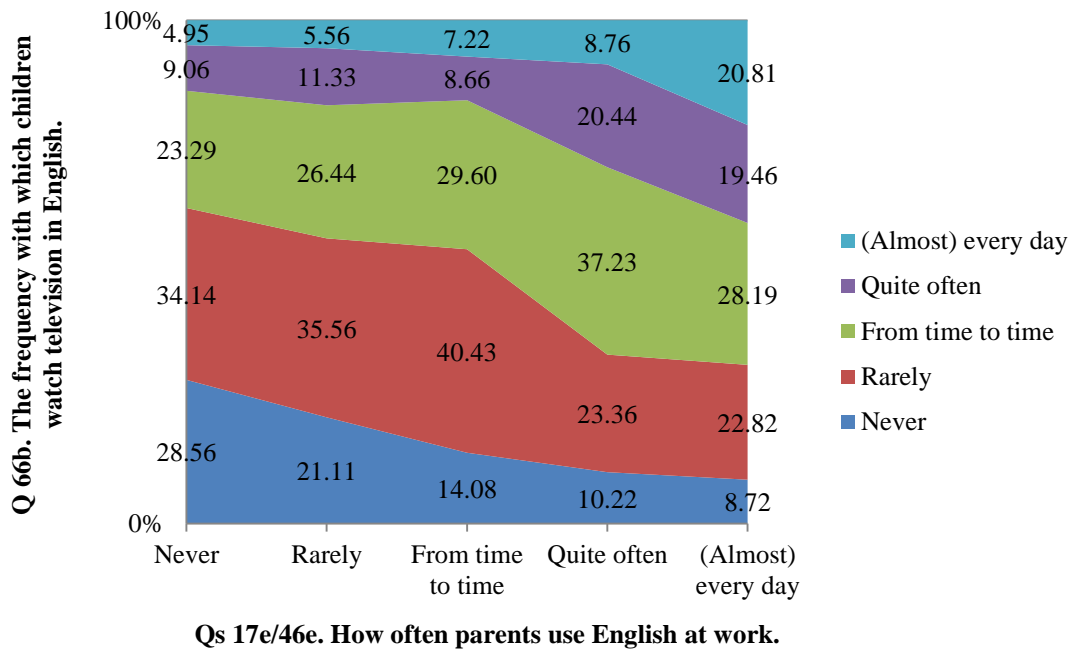**Q 65c. How often children use English to talk to their siblings.**

Figure 29. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children use English to talk to their siblings. Questions 66b and 65c (1,024 responses).

The last piece of analysis has to do with the frequency with which children use English to talk to their friends (variable 65d). As Figure 30 reveals, only a very small minority of the children use English to talk to their friends from time to time (11.63%), quite often (2.27%) or (almost) every day (0.28%), whereas the vast majority never (57.23%) or rarely (28.57%) do it. However, of the one hundred and fifty families in which the children use English to talk to their friends from time to time or more often, one hundred and forty-one have Spanish as their only first language and six more have Spanish as one of their two first languages.
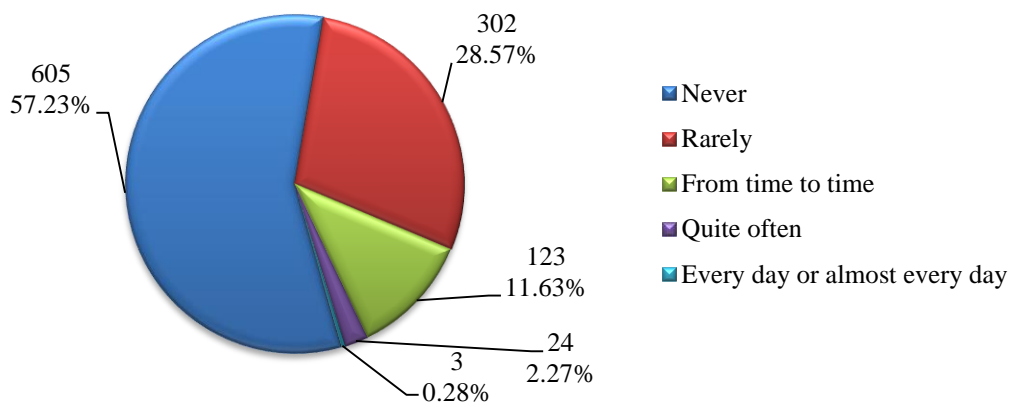
Figure 30. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of families in which the children use English to talk to their friends. Question 65d (1,058 responses).

The chi-square statistic returned a strong degree of correlation affecting 81.19% of the respondents. As in the variables analysed before, the tendency is for the relative number of families in which the children view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from to time to increase as the frequency with which they use English to talk to their friends rises too. By contrast, the relative number of families in which the children rarely or never view television in English tends to grow when the children rarely or never use English with their friends (see Figure 31 below).

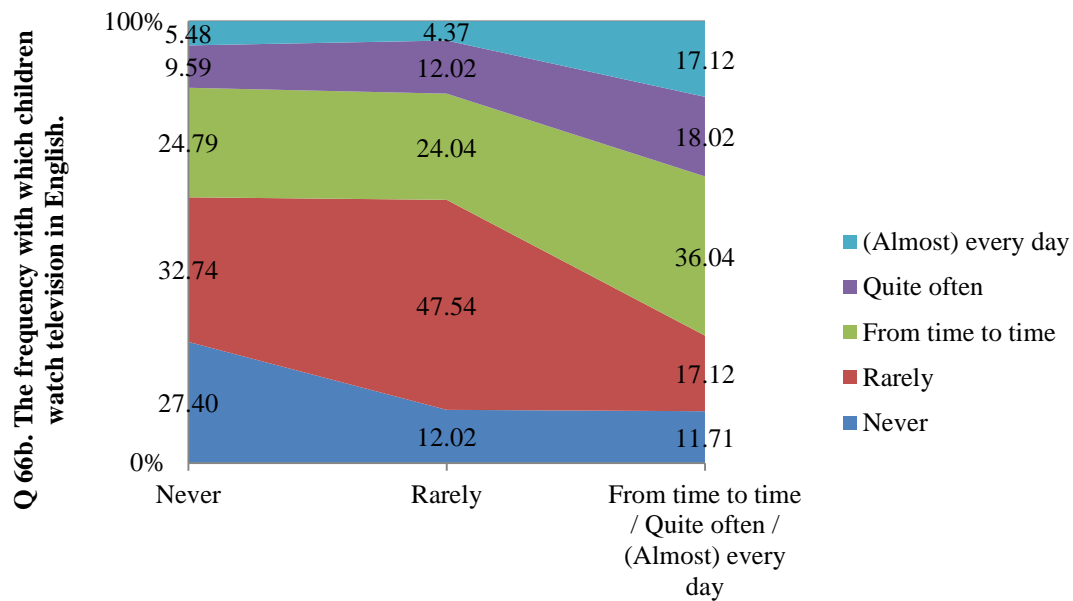**Q 65d. How often children use English to talk to their friends.**

Figure 31. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children use English to talk to their friends. Questions 66b and 65d (1,048 responses).
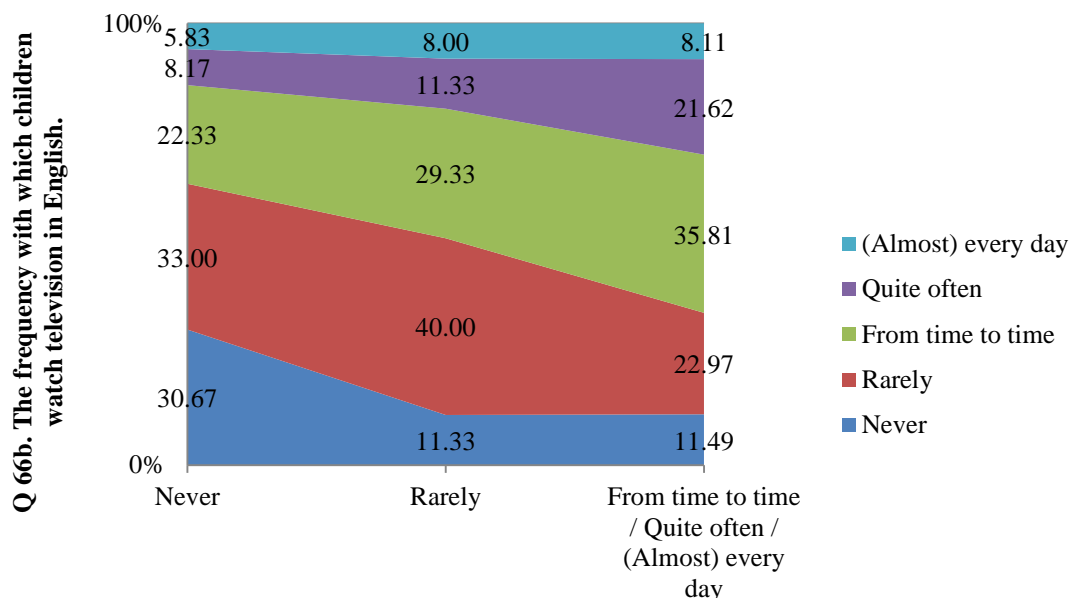
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The first conclusion that can be reached after looking at the shared linguistic practices within the respondents' families is that, quite expectedly, Spanish is the main language concerning both television consumption and oral communication (see Table 14 below). However, we must not underestimate the number of parents and children that make use of English from time to time (15.99%), quite often (6.54%) and (almost) every day (3.25%) on average in the different communicative contexts discussed above.

In general terms, we could argue that, in the case of children, the use of English is more frequent for television viewing than for oral communication with other family members or with friends. In the case of parents, the highest frequencies of English usage correspond to the number of occasions on which they engage in oral interactions with their children. In both cases, parents seem to be playing an active role in the promotion of proficiency in English among their children, establishing in this way a clear linguistic policy (see below). By contrast, the use of English among children decreases on those occasions on which they could play a more active role, for example, when engaging in oral interactions with their parents, siblings and friends.

Table 14. Relative frequencies concerning shared linguistic practices within the respondents' families. Questions 66b (1,055 respondents), 18d/47d (2,000 respondents), 77 (736 respondents), 17b/46b (2,014 respondents), 65a/65b (2,119 responses), 17a/46a (1,991 responses), 17d/46d (1,987 responses), 17e/46e (1,992 responses), 65c (1,031 respondents) and 65d (1,058 responses) (see APPENDIX C).

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often	Every day or almost every day / Always	Total
How often children watch television in English. Q 66b	22.56%	33.46%	26.16%	11.09%	6.73%	100.00%
How often parents watch television in English. Qs 18d/47d	58.25%	21.90%	12.20%	4.60%	3.05%	100.00%
How often parents watch television in English with their children. Q 77	6.93%	22.96%	33.83%	26.63%	9.65%	100.00%
How often parents use English with their children. Qs 17b/46b	32.08%	32.37%	26.27%	6.90%	2.38%	100.00%
How often children use English to talk to their parents. Qs 65a/65b	58.14%	24.21%	13.40%	3.16%	1.09%	100.00%
How often parents use English with each other. Qs 17a/46a	81.47%	11.80%	4.92%	0.95%	0.85%	100.00%
How often parents use English with their friends. Qs 17d/46d	76.30%	13.29%	8.66%	1.31%	0.45%	100.00%
How often parents use English at work. Qs 17e/46e	48.69%	22.84%	14.11%	6.88%	7.48%	100.00%
How often children use English to talk to their siblings. Q 65c	71.29%	17.94%	8.73%	1.65%	0.39%	100.00%
How often children use English to talk to their friends. Q 65d	57.18%	28.54%	11.63%	2.27%	0.38%	100.00%
Average	51.29%	22.93%	15.99%	6.54%	3.25%	100.00%

On the other hand, the different chi-square statistics obtained (see Table 15 below) reveal very strong dependence relationships between variable 66b and the rest of variables analysed, which affect 86.94% of the participants on average. Since the nine variables studied have correlation values affecting more than 70% of the respondents, they will all be taken into consideration in the next phase of our research.

Table 15. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b – 18d/47d, Qs 66b – 77, Qs 66b – 17b/46b, Qs 66b – 65a/65b, Qs 66b – 17a/46a, Qs 66b – 17d/46d, Qs 66b – 17e/46e, Qs 66b – 65c and 66b – 65d* (see APPENDIX D).

Qs 66b – 18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English. (1,966 responses)	95.71%
Qs 66b – 77	How often parents watch television in English with their children. (729 responses)	78.95%
Qs 66b – 17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children. (1,980 responses)	92.69%
Qs 66b – 65a/65b	How often children use English to talk to their parents. (2,103 responses)	93.03%
Qs 66b – 17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other. (1,960 responses)	89.15%
Qs 66b – 17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends. (1,958 responses)	86.45%
Qs 66b – 17e/46e	How often parents use English at work. (1,962 responses)	81.99%
Qs 66b – 65c	How often children use English to talk to their siblings. (1,024 responses)	79.22%
Qs 66b – 65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends. (1,048 responses)	81.19%
Average		86.49%

Finally, all the cross-tabulations between variable 66b and each of the variables related to shared linguistic practices produced similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies. After merging them all, a general pattern of distribution of the average relative frequencies was obtained. As we can observe in Figure 32 below, for bands "(Almost) every day" and "Quite often", the number of relative frequencies steadily increases as the number of relative frequencies corresponding to the other variables also increases. On the other hand, for bands "Rarely" and "Never", the number of relative frequencies rises as the number of relative frequencies corresponding to the other variables decreases. In other words, children view more television in English when the

usage of English among parents and children in the rest of the variables increases. By contrast, children tend to view television in English less frequently when the use of English within the other variables decreases as well.
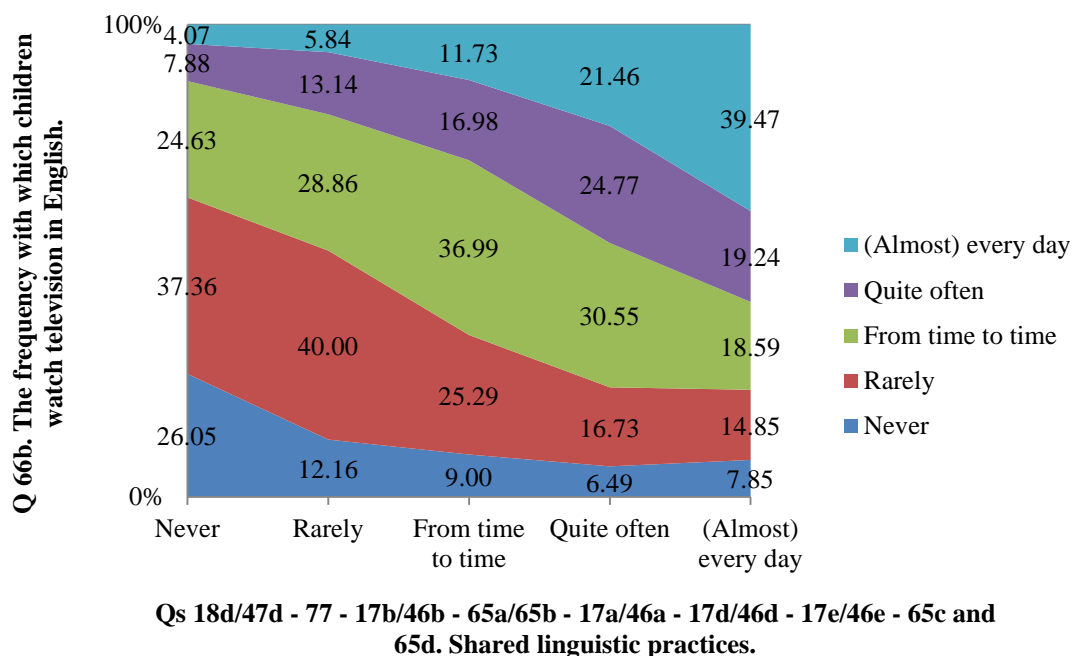
Figure 32. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing relevant correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and shared linguistic practices. Questions 66b and 18d/47d - 77 - 17b/46b - 65a/65b - 17a/46a - 17d/46d - 17e/46e - 65c - 65d (1,630 responses on average).

As we pointed out above, parents seem to have started to take it into their own hands to raise their children bilingually by creating home-based favourable environments that facilitate the acquisition of English. As Piller (2001) says, "In many cases, childhood bilingualism is the result of private language planning" (p. 61) (see section 2.4.2 in the Literature Review chapter above).

4.2.2 Family Language Policy: Individual linguistic practices

When looking at individual practices, we will be discussing the different ways in which children have regular contact with English individually, either as a means to learn English or as a means of entertainment. More precisely, we will look at how often children watch DVDs in English; how often they have private lessons or go to a language school; how often they read, listen to music and play video games in English; and finally how often children exchange emails and videoconference with friends abroad. In this way, we expect to be able to have an overall understanding of the nature of linguistic practices within the family.

We will commence looking at how often children watch films and documentaries in English on DVD. Not surprisingly, the figures that we obtained for this variable resemble the ones obtained for variable 66b (how often children watch television in English). Thus, more than half of the families questioned answered saying that their children never (25.26%) or rarely (32.70%) view films, documentaries or similar content in English on DVD. Only 5.15% of the families admitted that their children did it (almost) every day (Fig. 33).
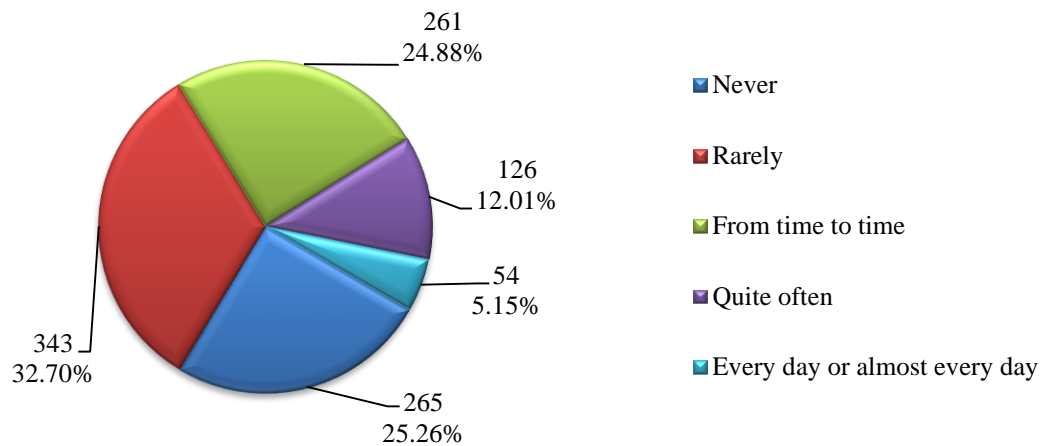
Figure 33. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who watch films and documentaries in English on DVD. Question 66c (1,049 responses).

The chi-square test returned the strongest value representing the strength of the relationship with variable 66b, which affects 98.83% of the respondents. What figures 34 and 35 below reveal is that children have almost the same habits as regards watching television and DVDs in English so that, within band "Never" from variable 66b, the largest group corresponds to those who never watch DVDs in English (70.61%). Within band "Rarely", the largest group corresponds to those who rarely view DVDs in English (73.39%) and so on.
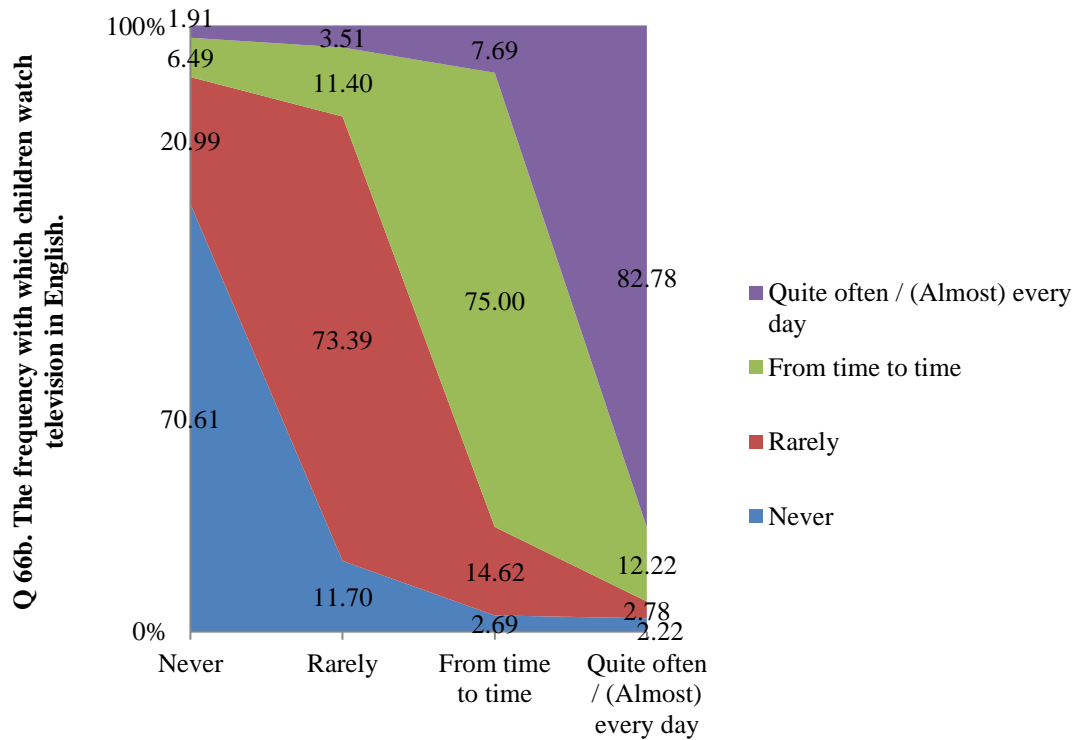
Figure 34. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc). Questions 66b and 66c (1,044 responses).
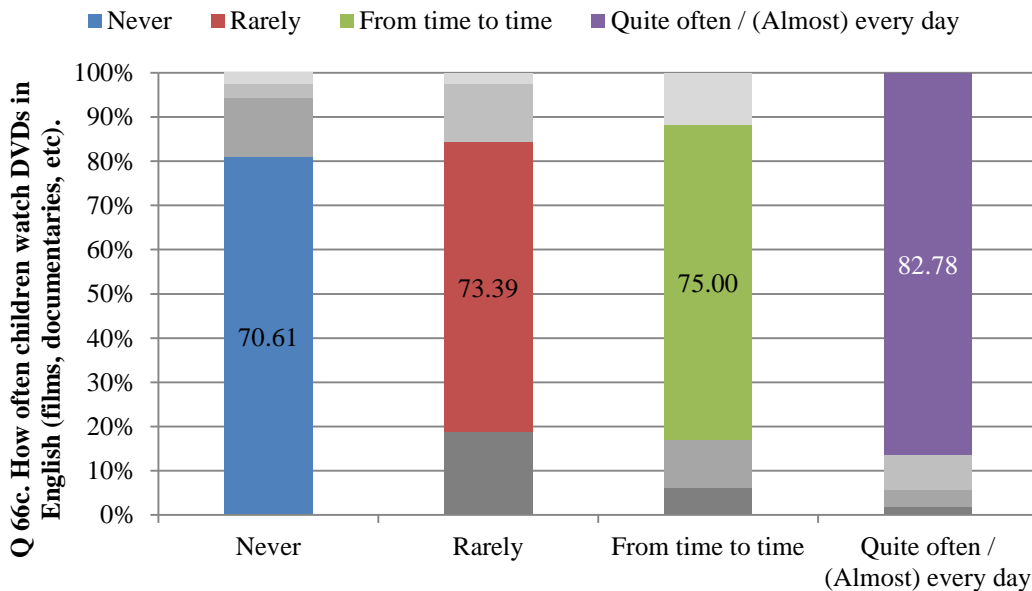
Q 66b. The frequency with which children watch television in English.

Figure 35. How often children view television and DVDs in English. Questions 66b and 66c (1,044 responses).

Next we enquired parents about whether their children had private lessons or went to a language academy. On this occasion, the largest number of frequencies corresponds to those families in which children had contact with English through these means quite often (42.49%) (Fig 36).

Figure 36. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who have private lessons or go to a language academy. Question 66d (1,059 responses).

However, in this case, the chi-square does not show a clear dependence relationship between variables 66b and 66d, affecting only 51.26% of the respondents. Perhaps the only clear pattern of distribution seems to emerge when we focus on both ends of axis *x*, which represents Question 66d (see Figure 37 below). Thus, we can observe that the smallest relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time tends to be given when they never have private lessons or go to a language academy, whereas their biggest relative number appears when they have private lessons or go to a language academy (almost) every day. However, the relative number of children that rarely or never view television in English almost doubles when they never have private lessons or go to a language school. In other words, more exposure to television in English seems to go hand in hand with more private lessons.
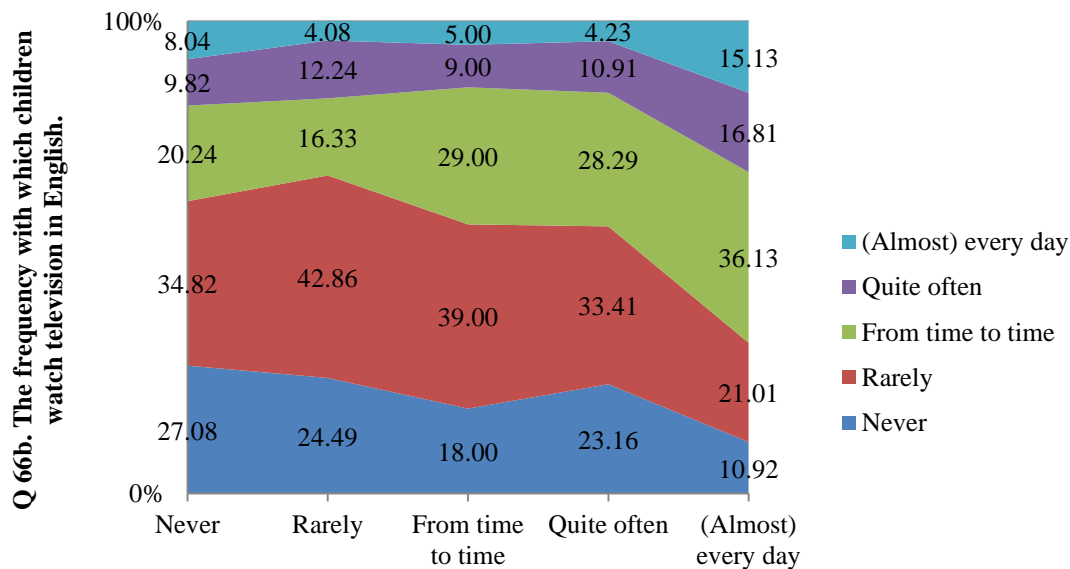
Figure 37. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children have private lessons or go to a language academy. Questions 66b and 66d (1,053 responses).

We must admit that, in this case, we were expecting opposite tendencies for bands "(Almost) every day", "Quite often" and "From time to time". In other words, we believed that, by increasing the time of informal meaningful exposure to English in the home context, parents would reduce the frequency with which their children learn English in other traditional formal or informal extracurricular learning contexts such as private academies and private lessons. A possible explanation may arise from the fact parents may not be fully aware of the potential of television-based second language acquisition because, as we said in the introductory chapter above, foreign language acquisition policies deployed so far have systematically ignored the use of television to enhance people's level of command of a foreign language.

The third individual language practice related to children's contact with English at which we wanted to look was the frequency with which they read in English. In line with other practices analysed before, an overwhelming majority of parents admitted little contact through this means. Thus, only 2.68% of the parents that had taken part in the questionnaire claimed that their children read in English (almost) every day and 10.42% that they did quite often, whereas 33.17% stated that they never did it and 29.06% that they rarely did it (Fig. 38).
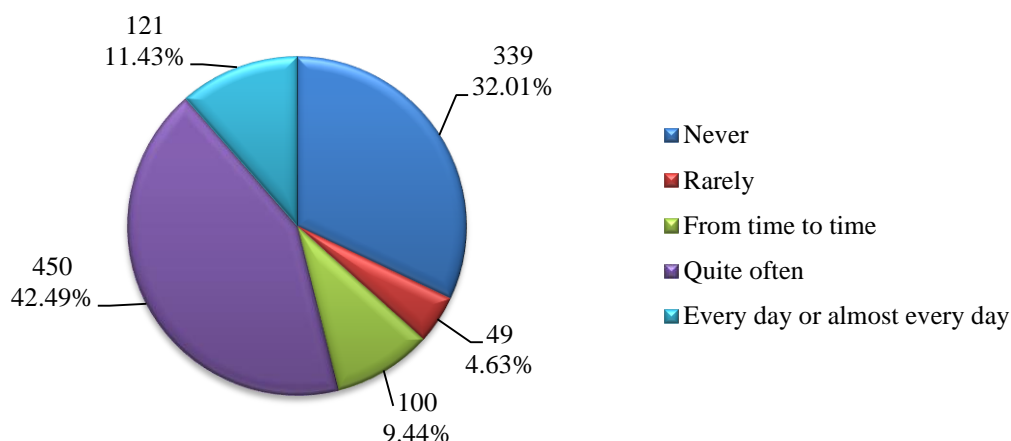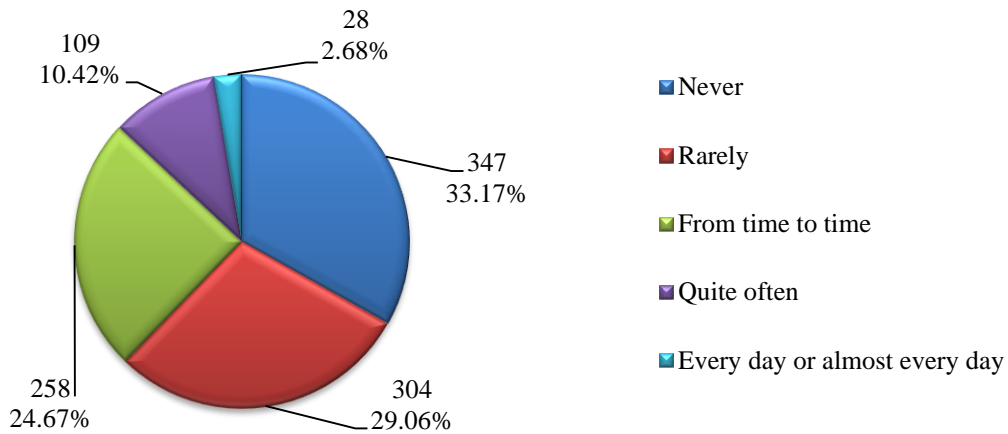
Figure 38. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who read in English. Question 66e (1,046 responses).

The chi-square returned strong levels of correlation between both variables that affected 84.67% of the respondents. As Figure 39 below shows, the relative number of children who view television in English increases when these same children read in English too, but decreases as the relative number of children who do not read in English increases.

Q 66e. How often children read in English.
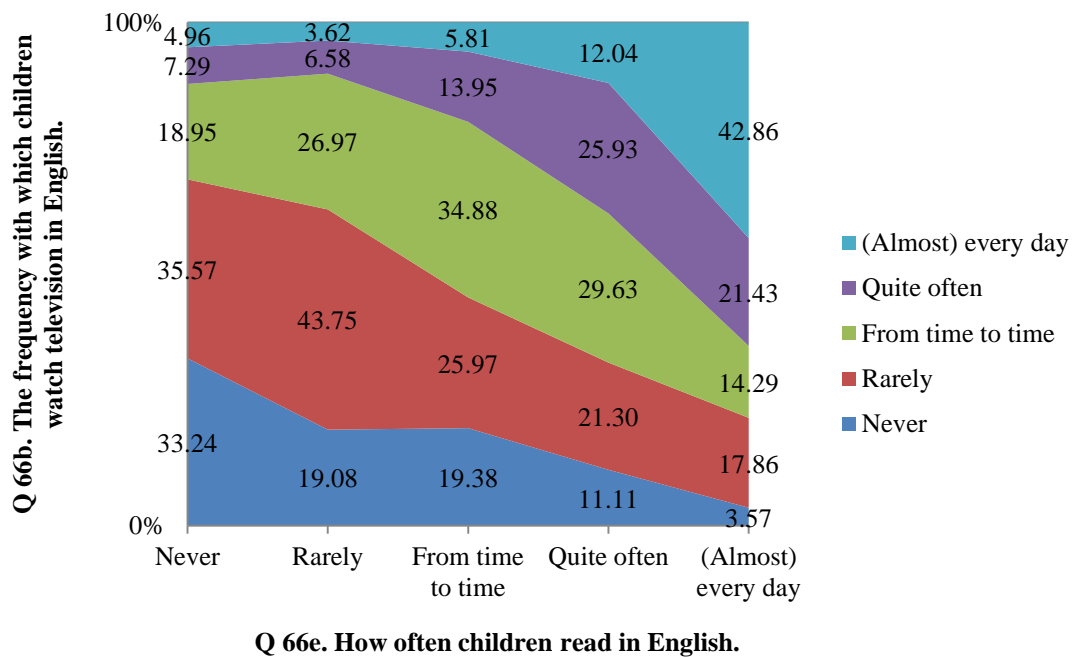
Figure 39. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children read in English. Questions 66b and 66e (1,041 responses).

Our next piece of analysis corresponds to variable 66f, used to ask parents about the frequencies with which their children listen to music in English. On this occasion, the biggest frequencies correspond to categories "Every day or almost every day" (24.26%), "Quite often" (33.68%) and "From time to time" (24.55%) (Fig. 40).
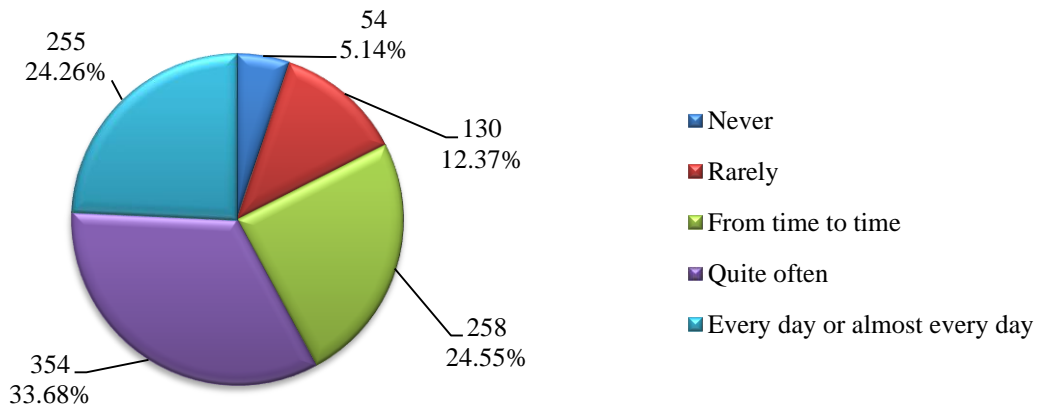
Figure 40. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who listen to music in English. Question 66f (1,051 responses).

Once more, the chi-square returned strong levels of correlation between both variables which, on this occasion, affected 81.27% of the respondents. As Figure 41 below shows, the relative number of children that view television and listen to music in English go hand in hand so that the former increases when the latter increases too and vice versa, the number of children who view television in English decreases as the number of children who listen to music in English decreases as well.

Q 66f. How often children listen to music in English.

Figure 41. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children listen to music in English. Questions 66b and 66f (1,043 responses).

The fifth language practice that we have analysed has to do with those families in which children play video games in English (variable 66g). Figure 42 reveals that playing video games in English is not a common practice among Spanish children as only 13.72% do it quite often and 3.17% (almost) every day.
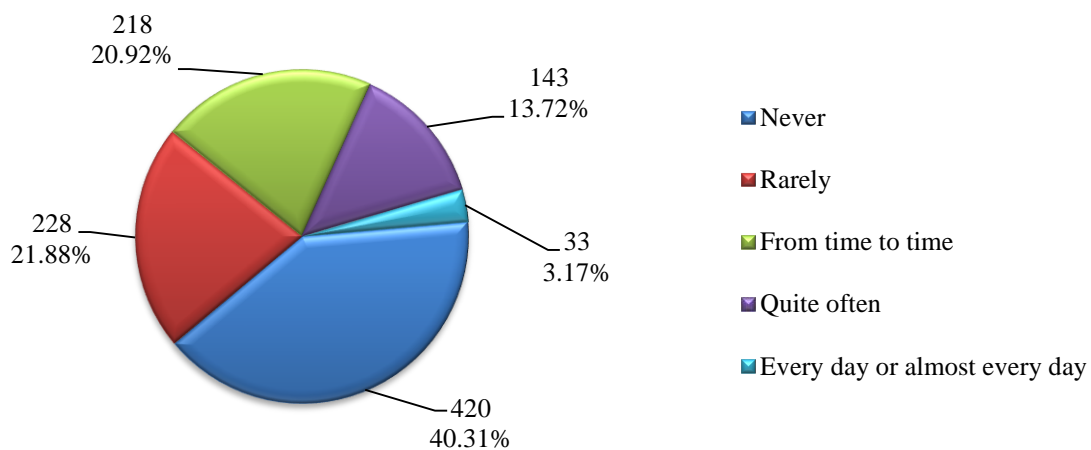
Figure 42. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who play video games in English. Question 66g (1,042 responses).

For variables 66g and 66b, the correlation value obtained from the chi-square test is less relevant than in previous analyses, affecting only 63.03% of the participants. Thus, Figure 43 below shows rather irregular distribution patterns, particularly for bands

"Quite often" and "From time to time" of Question 66b. However, as we saw in the cross-tabulation between variables 66b and 66d above, a more clear pattern of distribution seems to emerge when we focus on both ends of axis *x* which, in this case, represents Question 66g. Thus, we can observe that the smallest relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time appears when they never play videogames in English, whereas the biggest relative number emerges whey they play videogames (almost) every day. However, if we look at bands "Rarely" and "Never", we can see that the relative number of children that never play videogames in English clearly outnumbers the relative number of children that do so (almost) every day.
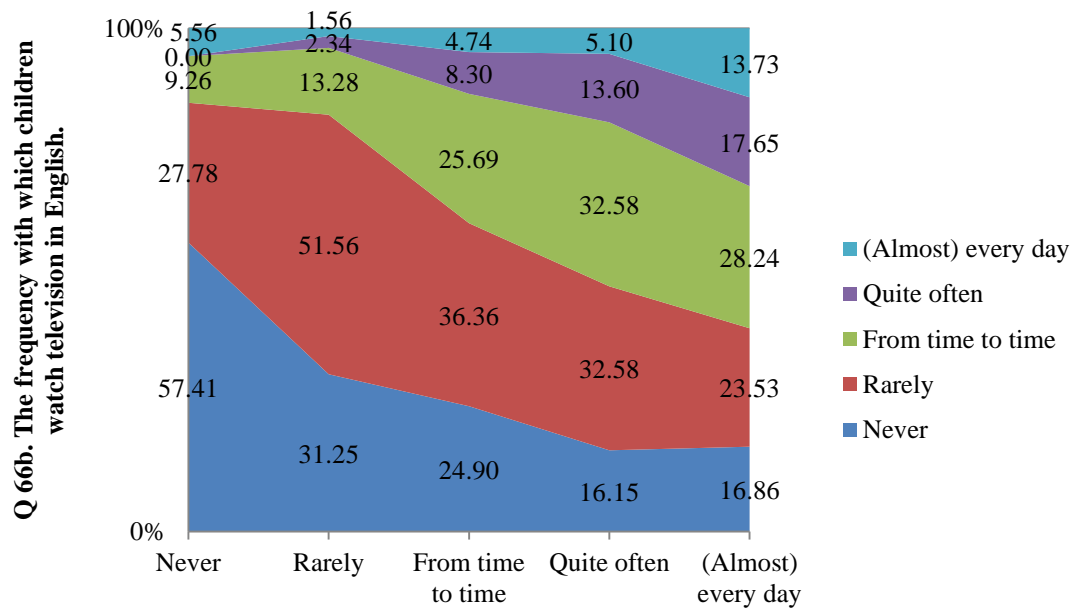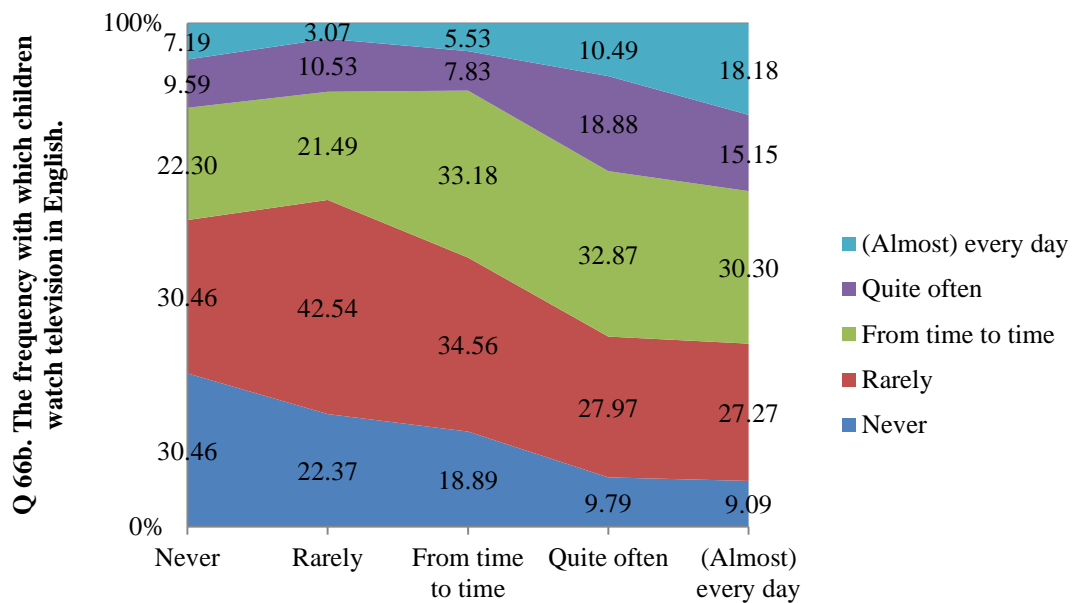

Figure 43. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children play video games in English. Questions 66b and 66g (1,038 responses).

Two more variables will be analysed before concluding this section, both related to the use of information technology. The first of these variables corresponds to Question 66h, through which we asked parents how often their children exchanged e-mails with friends abroad. Figure 44 below reveals that the vast majority of children (80.57%) never write e-mails to friends abroad.
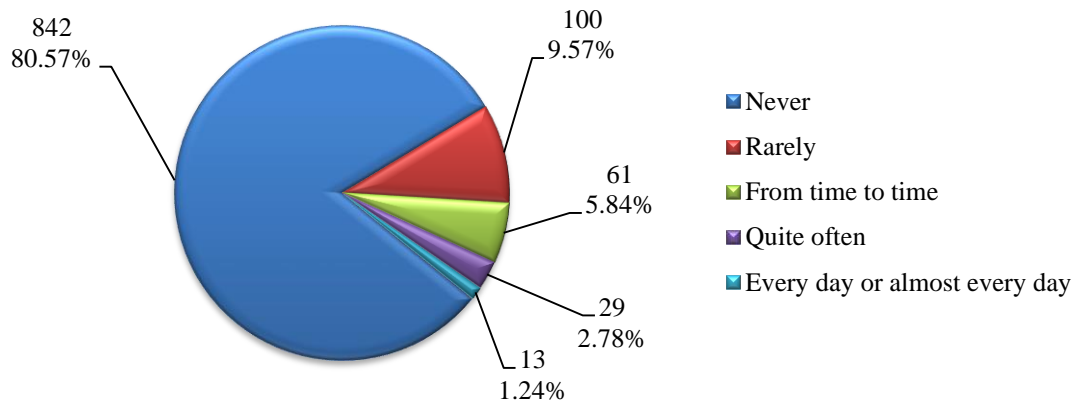
Figure 44. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who exchange e-mails with friends abroad. Question 66h (1,045 responses).

After merging variables "Quite often" and "(Almost) every day" of Question 66h to minimise the number of cells with distribution values below 5, the value obtained from applying the chi-square analysis (69.11%) does not reach the minimum required to accept the relationship as relevant. However, if we ignore the irregularity produced by category "Rarely" of variable 66h, a more regular distribution seems to emerge. Thus, a look at Figure 45 below will let us see how the frequency with which children watch television in English increases when the frequency with which children exchange e-mails with friends abroad increases too. By contrast, the frequency with which children view television in English decreases when the frequency with which they exchange e-mails with friends abroad also decreases.
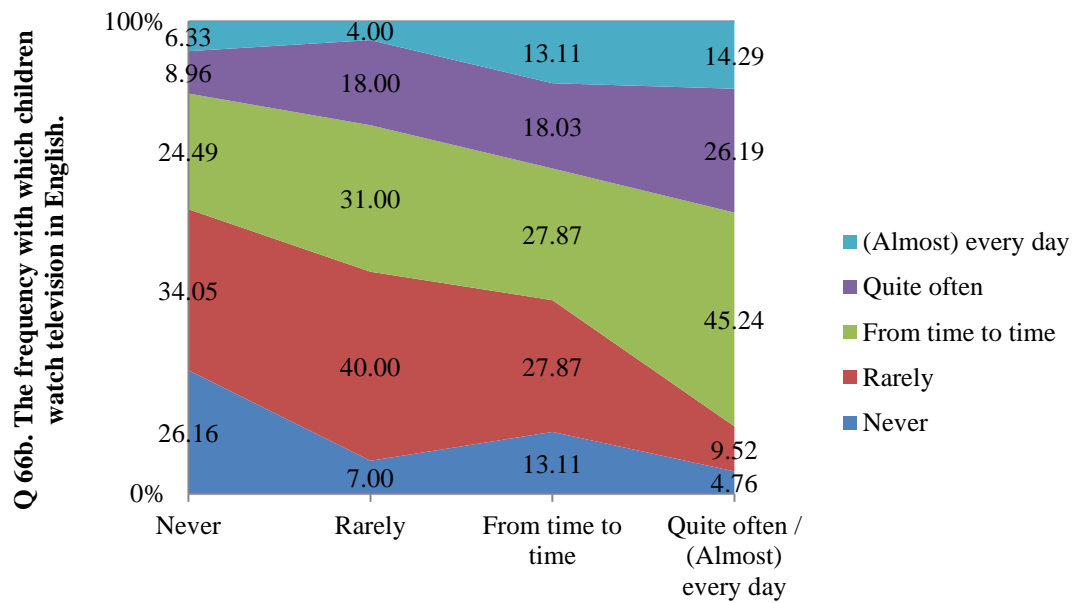
Q 66h. How often children exchange e-mails with friends abroad.

Figure 45. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children exchange e-mails with friends abroad. Questions 66b and 66h (1,040 responses).

This section finally comes to an end with the analysis of the relationship between variable 66b and variable 66i, which measured the frequency with which children videoconference with friends abroad. In the first place, as Figure 46 below shows, following the tendency depicted in Figure 45 above, the number of children who never or rarely videoconference with friends abroad (92.84%) clearly surpasses the number of children who do so from time to time or more often (7.16%).
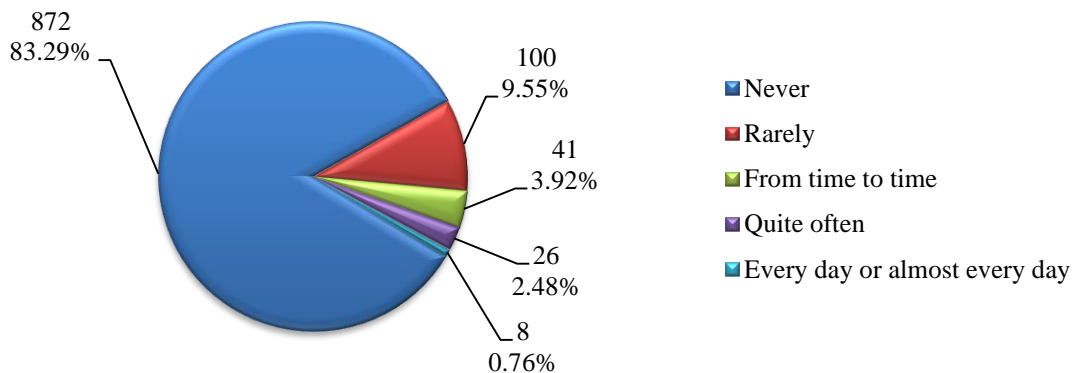
Figure 46. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the number of children who videoconference with friends abroad. Question 66i (1,047 responses).

After merging variables "Quite often" and "(Almost) every day" of Question 66h, the value obtained from applying the chi-square analysis (73.29%) shows a strong relationship between the two variables cross-tabulated. As in the previous analysis of correlations, Figure 47 shows a tendency that lets us see how those children that view television in English more often are also the ones that videoconference with friends abroad more often. On the contrary, the children who view television in English less often are the ones that videoconference with friends abroad less often too.

Q 66i. How often children videoconference with friends abroad.

Figure 47. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children videoconference with friends abroad. Questions 66b and 66i (1,042 responses).

From the analysis of individual language practices within the respondents' families, we can draw the conclusion that children seem to have contact with English through more traditional means such as music or private lessons/language academies. On the other hand, more modern information technology-related means of entertainment or communication such as video games, e-mails and videoconferences are still far from becoming a popular instrument for learning.

Table 16. Relative frequencies concerning individual linguistic practices within the respondents' families. Questions 66b (1,055 respondents), 66c (1,049 respondents), 66d (1,059 respondents), 66e (1,046 respondents), 66f (1,051 respondents), 66g (1,042 respondents), 66h (1,045 respondents) and 66i (1,047 respondents) (see Apendix C).

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often	Every day or almost every day	Total
They watch television in English. Q 66b	22.56%	33.46%	26.16%	11.09%	6.73%	100.00%
They watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries. etc). Q 66c	25.26%	32.70%	24.88%	12.01%	5.15%	100.00%
They have private lessons or go to a language school. Q 66d	32.01%	4.63%	9.44%	42.49%	11.43%	100.00%
They read in English. Q 66e	33.17%	29.06%	24.67%	10.42%	2.68%	100.00%
They listen to music in English. Q 66f	5.14%	12.37%	24.55%	33.68%	24.26%	100.00%
They play video games in English. Q 66g	40.31%	21.88%	20.92%	13.72%	3.17%	100.00%
They exchange e-mails with friends abroad. Q 66h	80.57%	9.57%	5.84%	2.78%	1.24%	100.00%
They videoconference with friends abroad. Q 66i	83.29%	9.55%	3.92%	2.48%	0.76%	100.00%
Average	40.29%	19.15%	17.55%	16.08%	6.93%	100.00%

On the other hand, the different chi-square tests used (see Table 17 below) reveal very strong dependence relationships between variable 66b and four of the variables analysed, affecting 74.49% of the participants on average. However, three of the seven variables studied have correlation values affecting fewer than 70% of the participants.

Table 17. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b – 66c, Qs 66b – 66d, Qs 66b – 66e, Qs 66b – 66f, Qs 66b – 66g, Qs 66b – 66h* and *Qs 66b – 66i* (see APPENDIX D).

Qs 66b – 66c	How often children watch films and documentaries in English on DVD. (1,044 responses)	98.83%
Qs 66b – 66d	How often children have private lessons or go to a language academy. (1,053 responses)	51.26%
66b – 66e	How often children read in English. (1,041 responses)	84.67%
Qs 66b – 66f	How often children listen to music in English. (1,043 responses)	81.27%
Qs 66b – 66g	How often children play video games in English. (1,038 responses)	63.03%
Qs 66b – 66h	How often children exchange e-mails with friends abroad. (1,040 responses)	69.11%
Qs 66b – 66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad. (1,042 responses)	73.29%
Average		74.49%

Finally, the cross-tabulations between variable 66b and each of the variables related to individual linguistic practices produced similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies. After merging them all, a general pattern of distribution of the average relative frequencies was obtained. As we can observe in Figure 48 below, for bands "(Almost) every day", "Quite often" and "From time to time", the number of relative frequencies steadily increases as the number of relative frequencies corresponding to the other variables increases too. On the contrary, for bands "Rarely" and "Never", the number of relative frequencies grows as the number of relative frequencies corresponding to the other variables decreases. In other words, children tend to view television in English with more frequency when the frequency with which they have other types of contact with English increases. By contrast, children tend to view television in English less frequently when contact with English as expressed in the other variables decreases.

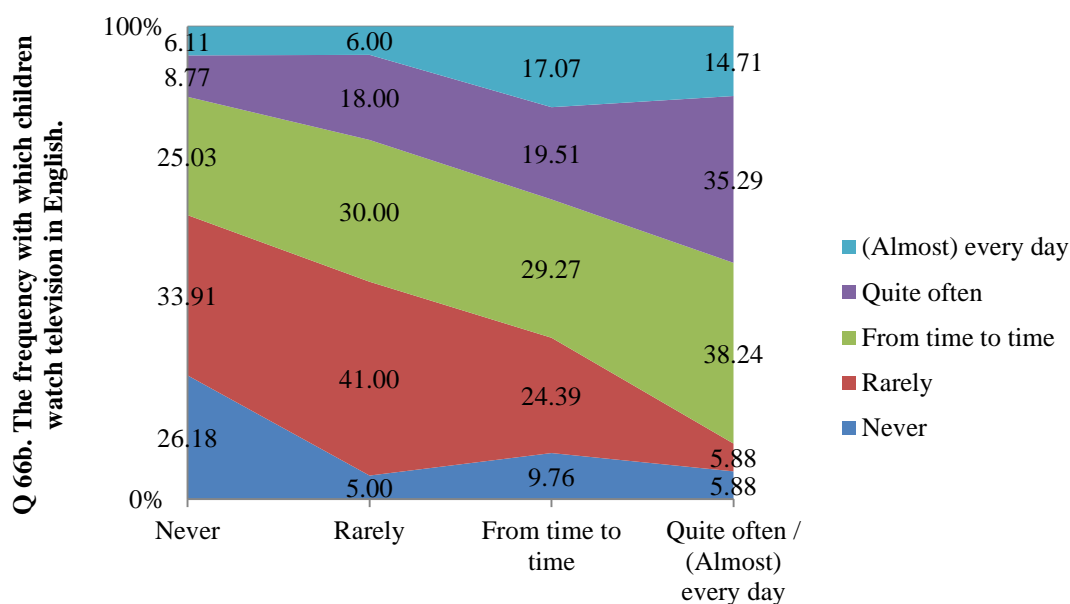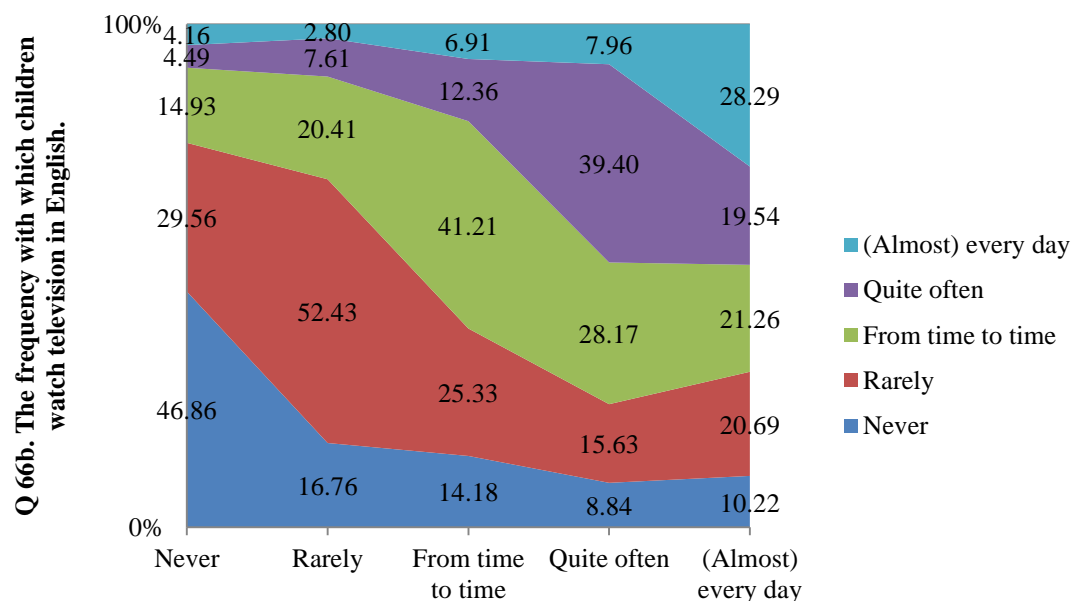**Qs 66c - 66e - 66f and 66i. Individual linguistic practices.**

Figure 48. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and individual linguistic practices. Questions 66b and 66c – 66e – 66f – 66i (1,042 responses on average).

4.3 Family Language Policy: Beliefs, attitudes and ideology

Having concluded the first block of analysis, in which we have focused on the dependence relationships between variable 66b and the rest of shared and individual linguistic practices within the families, we now move on to discuss the second block of factors that, according to Spolsky (2004), make up family language policy. We will commence discussing the different types of beliefs, as identified in the Literature Review above.

4.3.1 Beliefs about foreign language acquisition

As we anticipated in section 2.4.2.1 of the Literature Review, we have followed mainly De Houwer (1999) in trying to identify the parents' attitudes, ideology and beliefs underpinning television-mediated foreign language acquisition in additive contexts (for contributions by other authors, see section 2.4.2.1 above). Asked about a series of beliefs related to foreign languages acquisition, parents answered as follows.

First of all, most parents seem to share the belief that very early acquisition of a foreign language is a decisive factor that would help their children reach an excellent command of English (see Figure 49 below).
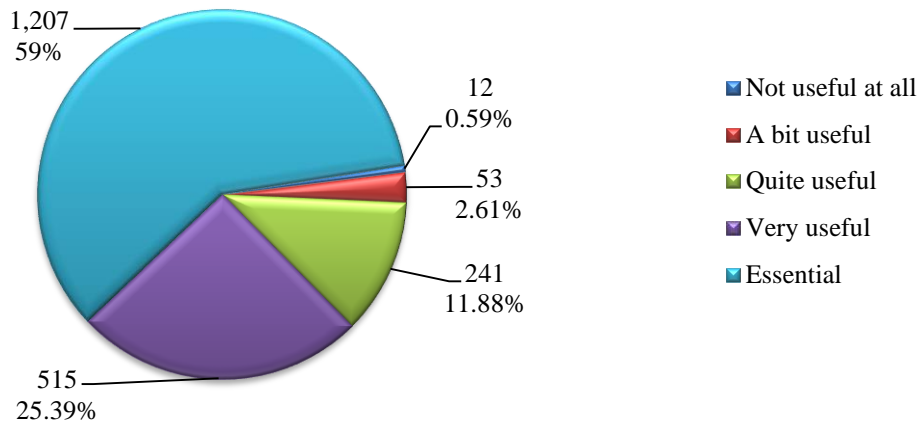
Figure 49. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies in relation to parents' beliefs about the usefulness of early acquisition to help children reach an excellent level of English. Questions 24a/53a (2,028 responses).

When the chi-square test was applied, a statistically significant relationship emerged between the two variables studied (79.79%). In this case, we can observe how the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time rises as parents' opinion about the usefulness of early acquisition improves, whereas the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English grows as parents hold more and more negative attitudes towards the usefulness of early acquisition (see Figure 50 below).
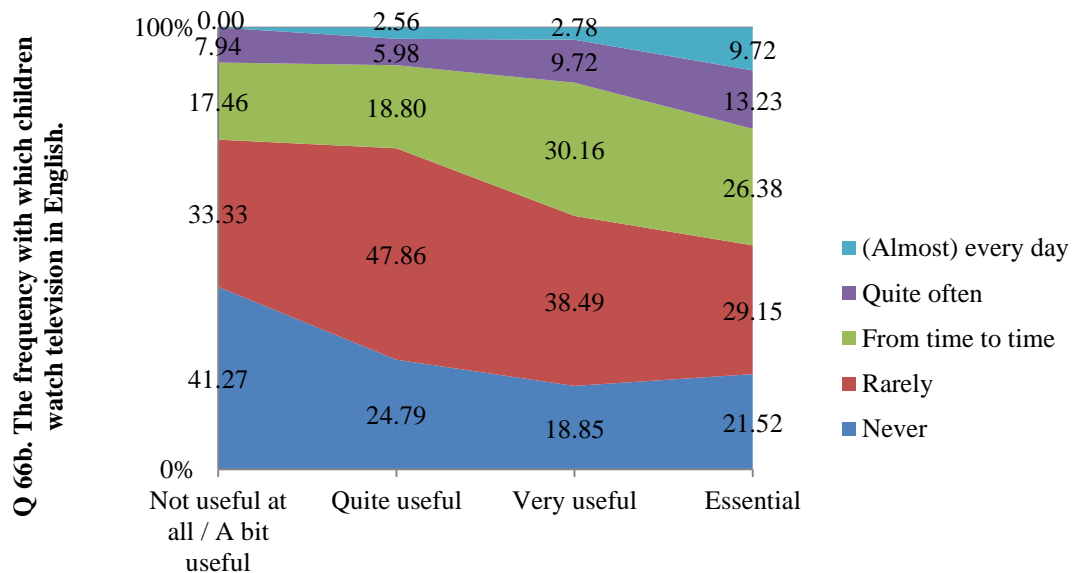
Qs 24a/53a. Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.

Figure 50. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition. Questions 66b and 24a/53a (1,995 responses).

As regards the best age to start learning a foreign language, Figure 51 reveals that over 90% of the parents consulted claimed that the best age is before 3 (51.33%) or before 12 (41.73%), and only 0.54% claimed to believe that it is better to start after the age of 12 or that it does not matter (3.74%).
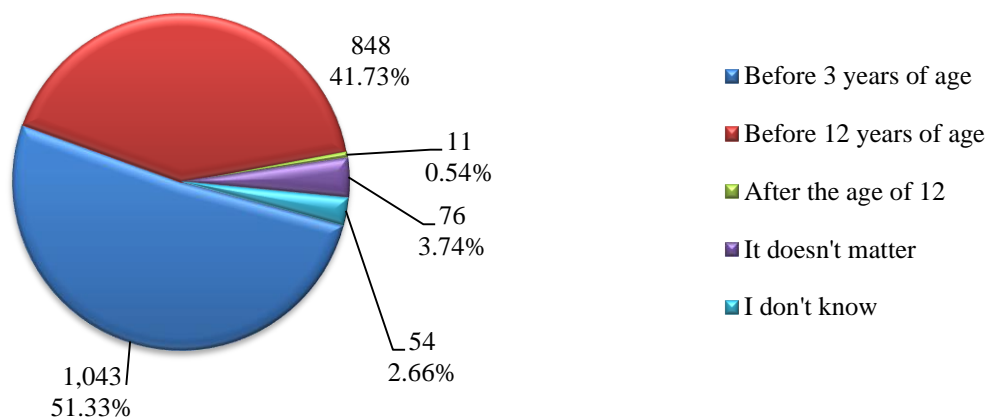
Figure 51. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning parents' beliefs about the best age to start learning a foreign language. Questions 25/54 (2,032 responses).

When we applied the chi-square test, we found a very weak relationship between the two variables studied, indicating that only in 12.41% of the samples parents' belief about the best age to start learning a foreign language is related to the frequency with which their children watch television in English.

Likewise, Figure 52 lets us see that an overwhelming 91% of the parents were convinced that watching television/DVDs in English is quite useful, very useful or essential to help their children reach an excellent level of English.
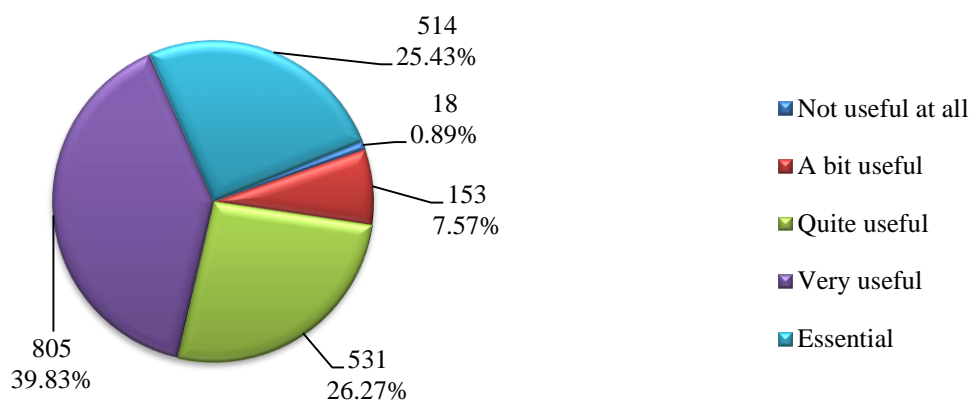
Figure 52. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies with respect to parents' beliefs about the usefulness of watching TV/DVDs to learn English. Questions 24c/53c (2,021 responses).

Again, from the chi-square statistic applied, a very strong correlation emerges between the two variables analysed. The pattern of relative (%) frequencies obtained (see Figure 53 below) reveals that the relative number of children that watch television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time rises as parents hold more and more positive beliefs about its usefulness. By contrast, the relative number of children who rarely or never view television in English grows as parents hold more and more negative beliefs about the usefulness of watching television in English.

In conclusion, Figure 53 below reflects a direct relationship between parental beliefs about the usefulness of watching television in English to help children acquire this language and children's linguistic practice. In other words, following Nakamura (2019), we can see a strong impact belief underlying the process through which a particular parental language belief leads to a particular linguistic practice within the family.
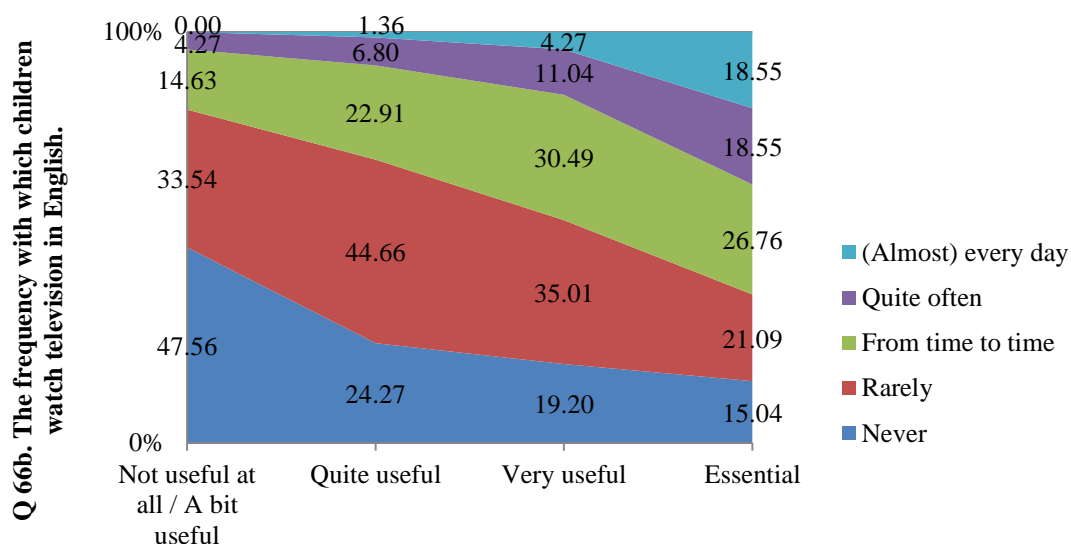
Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 53. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' opinion about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English. Questions 66b and 24c/53c (1,988 responses).

We also wanted to know about the order in which parents thought that the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. As Figure 54 shows, 73.00% of the respondents stated that both the mother tongue and the foreign language should be learnt at the same time.
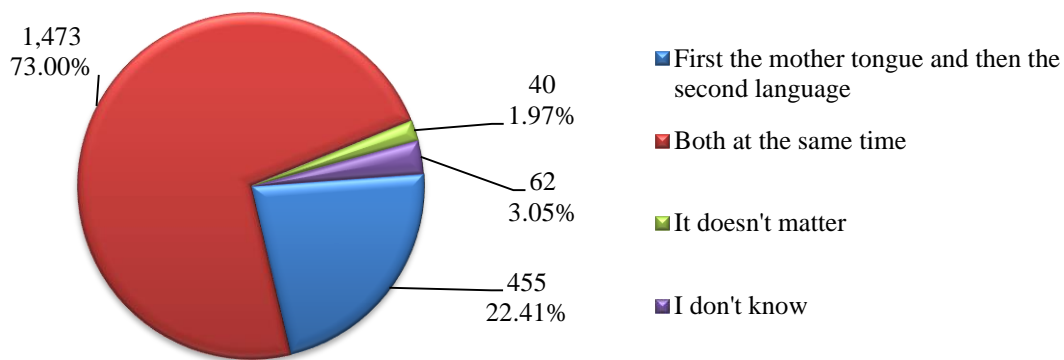
Figure 54. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding parents' beliefs about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. Questions 26/55 (2,030 responses).

When the chi-square test was applied, we obtained a degree of dependence that affected 60.00% of the respondents. However, if we focus on the first two categories, which have the largest number of responses and which express radically opposing views, the strength of the dependence relationship reaches 74.24% of the participants. When we obtained the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies associated with this new cross-tabulation, we found that the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day or quite often is higher when their parents believe that both the mother tongue and a second language can be learnt simultaneously. By contrast, the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English, or do it from time to time, grows when parents think that the first and second language must be learnt consecutively (see Figure 55 below).

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Qs 26/55. Parents' belief about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt.

Figure 55. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' belief about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. Questions 66b and 26/55 (1,894 responses).

Next, we asked parents whether very early acquisition of a second language could affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue, to which an overwhelming 89% of parents responded negatively (Fig. 56).
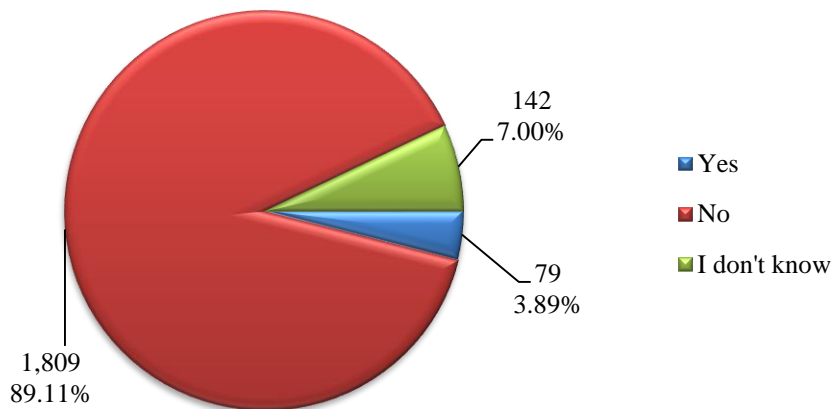
Figure 56. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies in relation to parents' beliefs about whether very early acquisition of a second language can affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue. Questions 27/56 (2,030 responses).

However, the chi-square value obtained (18.55%) leads us to conclude that this variable does not seem to influence children's viewing of television in English (Fig. 57).
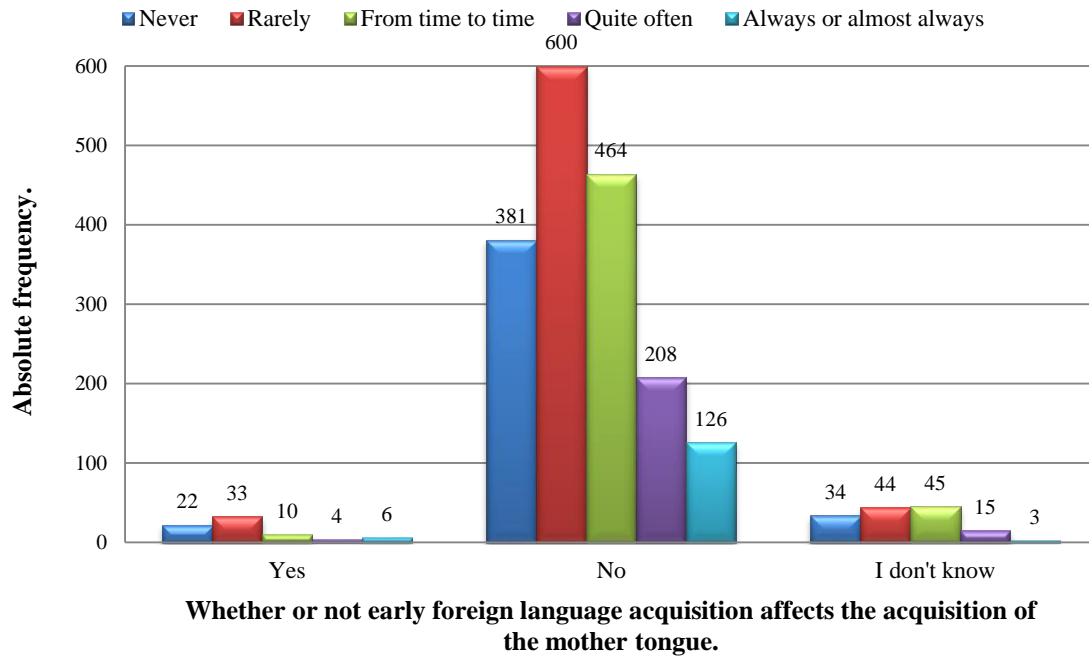
Figure 57. Correlation between parents' beliefs about whether very early acquisition of a second language can affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue and the frequency with which their children view TV in English. Questions 66b - 27/56 (1,995 responses).

Finally, we asked parents about their expectations regarding their children's future level of proficiency in English. Overwhelmingly, parents expected their offspring to achieve a high (38.97%) or very high (45.65%) level of English. On the contrary, only 0.69% and 0.30% respectively expected their children to attain a low or very low level of English (Fig. 58).
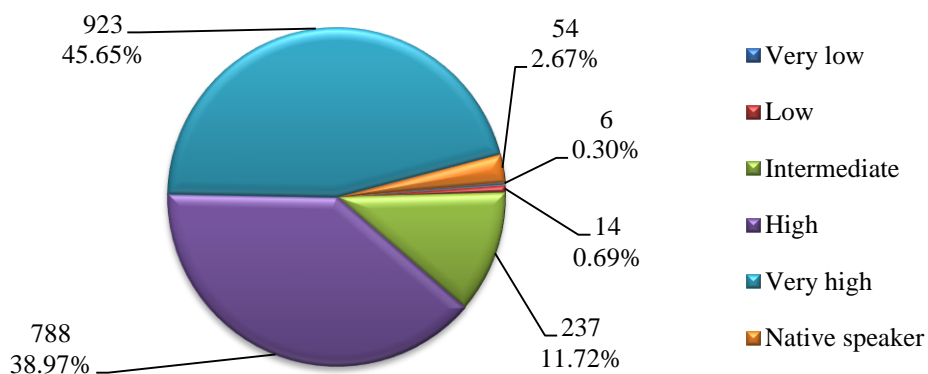
Figure 58. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies in relation to parents' expectations about their children's future level of English. Questions 30/59 (2,022 responses).

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After merging columns "Very low" and "Low" because the number of cells with absolute frequencies below 5 exceeded 20% of the total, once more the chi-square statistic returned a very strong correlation between the two variables (90.64%). In this case, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained from this cross-tabulation (see Figure 59 below) shows that the clearest rising tendency of relative frequencies corresponds to bands "(Almost) every day" and "Quite often", whereas the clearest lowering tendency corresponds to the band "Never". Thus, according to the pattern below, the relative number of households in which children tend to watch television in English almost every day or quite often progressively rises as their parents' expectations regarding their children's attainment in English get higher and higher. On the contrary, the relative number of children who never spend time watching television in English increases as parents' expectations get lower and lower.

This finding seems to corroborate Davis-Kean's (2005), Alexander *et al.*'s (1994), and Yamamoto and Holloway's (2010) conclusions (see Literature Review above) that parental expectations as to their children's educational attainment model their actions to bring about the desired outcomes. Furthermore, we can see yet another example of a strong impact belief underlying the process through which a particular parental language belief leads to a particular linguistic practice within the family.
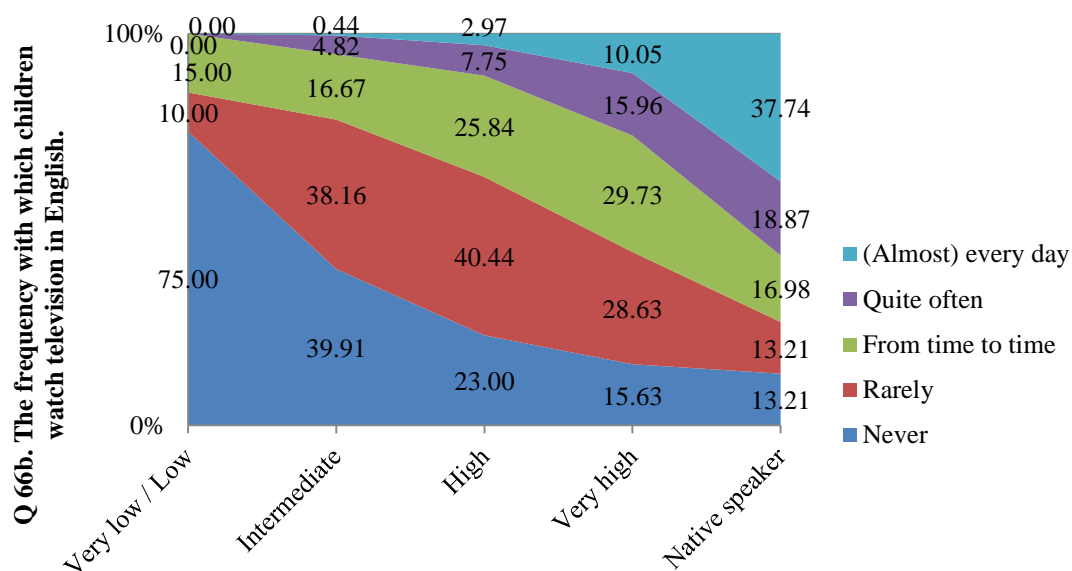
Qs 30/59. The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.
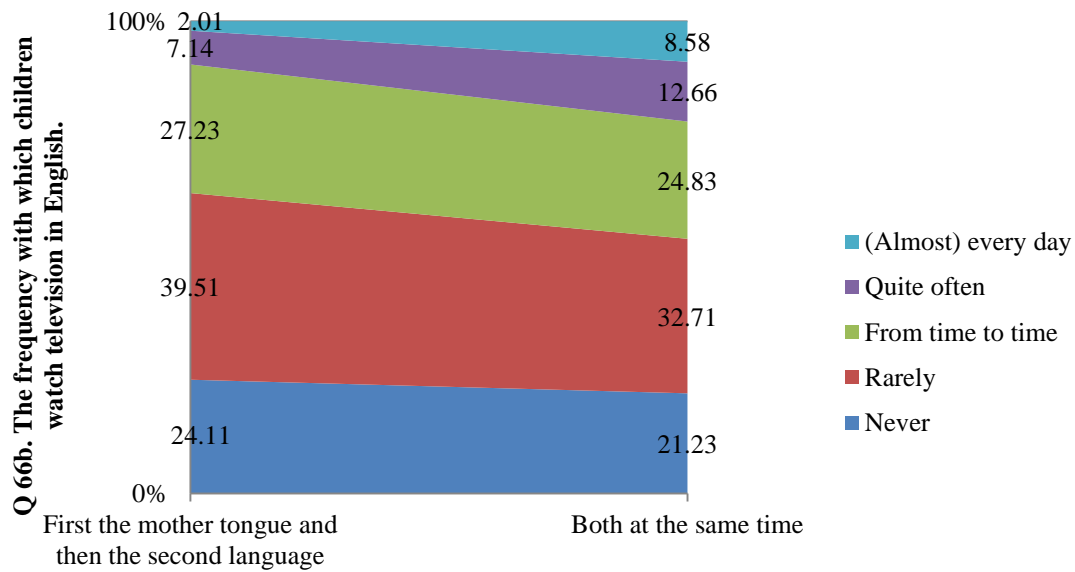
Figure 59. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' belief about the level of English parents think their children will be able to reach. Questions 66b and 30/59 (1,990 responses).

In conclusion, the linguistic practice under consideration (variable 66b) seems to be influenced by parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition in varying degrees. Particularly relevant for our study is the role played by parents' beliefs about the usefulness of early acquisition and the usefulness of watching television or DVDs to learn English, and parents' expectations about their children's future level of English (see Table 18 below).

Table 18. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b – 24a/53a, Qs 66b – 25/54, Qs 66b – 24c/53c, Qs 66b – 26/55, Qs 66b – 27/56* and *Qs 66b – 30/59* (see APPENDIX D).

|		
Qs 66b – 24a/53a	Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of early acquisition to help children reach an excellent level of English. (1,995 responses)	79.79%
Qs 66b – 25/54	Parents' beliefs about the best age to start learning a foreign language. (1,986 responses)	12.41%
66b – 24c/53c	Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of watching TV/DVDs to learn English. (1,988 responses)	93.17%
Qs 66b – 26/55	Parents' beliefs about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. (1,894 responses)	60.00%
Qs 66b – 27/56	Parents' beliefs about whether very early acquisition of a second language can affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue. (1,854 responses)	17.53%
Qs 66b – 30/59	Parents' expectations about their children's future level of English. (1,990 responses)	90.64%
Average		58.92%

4.3.2 Beliefs about parents' own role in the acquisition process

Following De Houwer (1999), we next asked parents about their beliefs in relation to their role in their children's foreign language acquisition process.

Questioned about who should take the initiative on how children learn a foreign language, about 91% claimed that this responsibility corresponds to the parents, either exclusively (6.30%) or shared with the education system (84.84%) (Fig. 60).
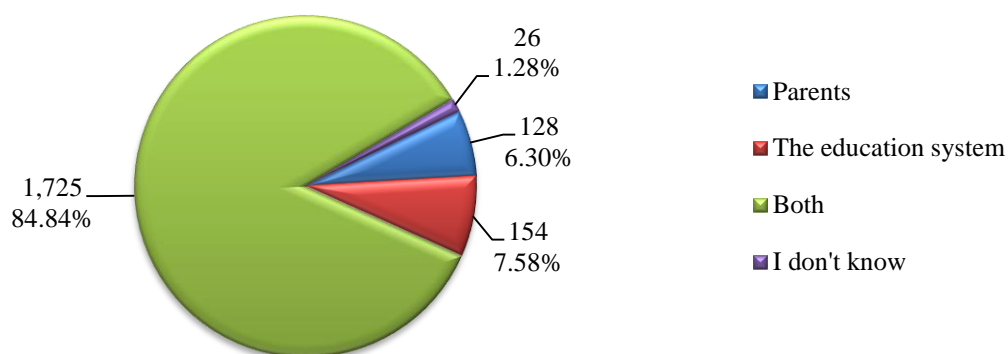
Figure 60. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies in connection with parents' beliefs about who should take the initiative regarding how children learn a foreign language. Questions 32/61 (2,033 responses).

However, the chi-square test reveals that this element seems to exercise very little influence on parents' decision to make their children watch television in English, more precisely on 20.09% of the sample.

Another idea analysed in the questionnaire was De Houwer's (1999) claim that many parents believe that they can exercise some sort of control over their children's linguistic functioning. In this way, when asked which they thought was the best way to influence their children so that they watched television in English, only 45 out of the 768 families who answered Question 82 (5.86%) admitted that parents could not influence their children, whereas the remaining 94.14% claimed that children could be influenced in different ways.

Furthermore, considering the 1,156 times that any of the answers to this question was selected by the 768 families, the 45 times that parents chose "We cannot influence them" only represent 3.89% of the total number of responses (Fig. 61).
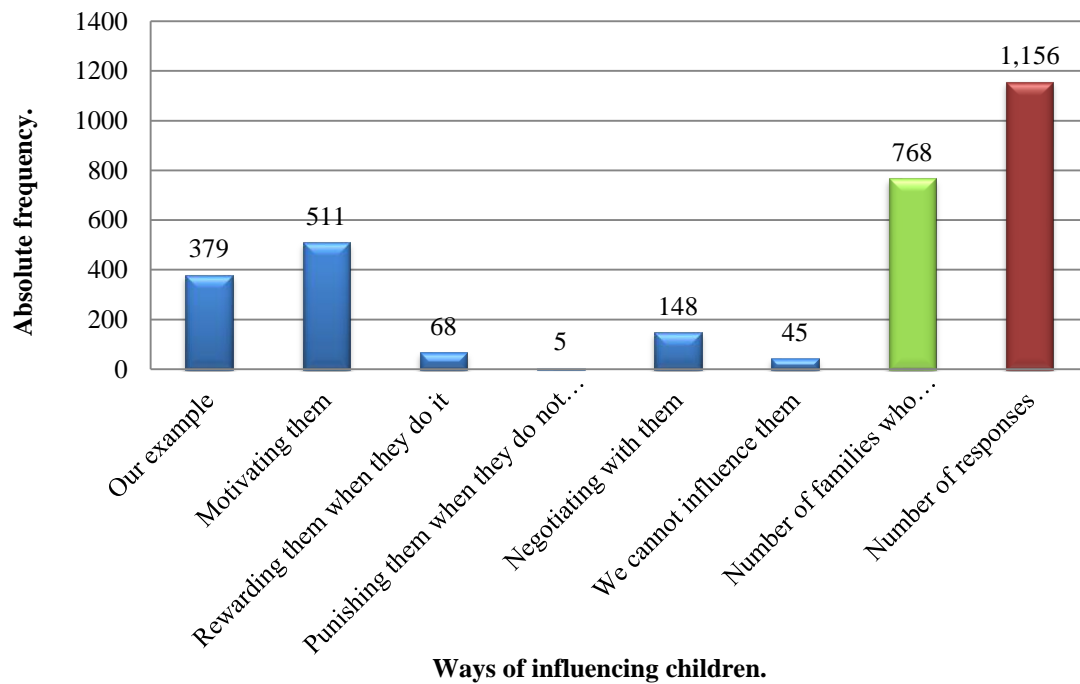
Figure 61. Parents' beliefs about the best way to influence their children to watch TV in English. Question 82 (768 responses).

The chi-square test reveals, however, that parents' opinion about their role in the acquisition process only has an influence on 20.34% of the respondents. One apparently striking feature that needs a brief explanation is the irregular behaviour of variable "Punishing them when they do not do it" across the different bands. However, such behaviour is explained by the fact that this option was chosen only by five respondents, which makes it irrelevant for our analysis (Fig. 62).
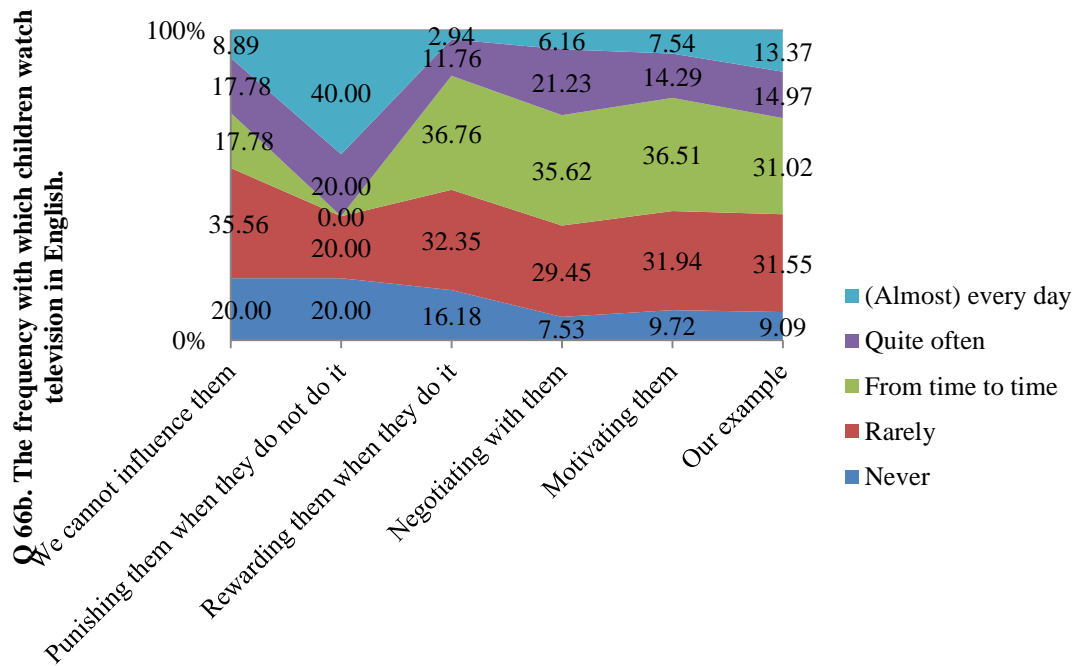
Q 82. The best way to influence children so that they watch television in English.

Figure 62. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' beliefs about the best way to influence their children so that they watch television in English. Questions 66b and 82 (768 responses).

We can conclude, therefore, pointing out that the two variables analysed here do not seem to exercise much influence on practice.

However, despite the low degree of dependency between these two variables, some interesting data deserve to be discussed. Thus, if we consider the three most frequent answers in absolute terms, "Our example", "Motivating them" and "Negotiating with them", we found that, when parents believe that the best ways to influence their children to view television in English is through their example and negotiating with them, there is a relatively steady increase in the relative frequency with which children watch television in English (see figures 63 and 64 below).
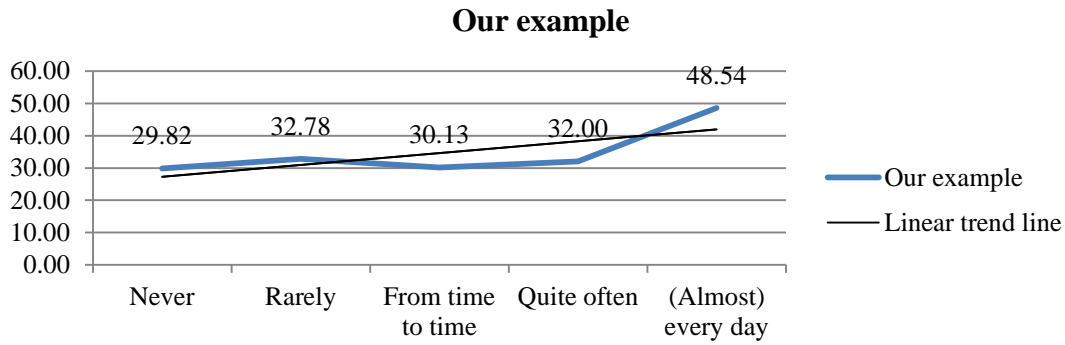
Our example

Figure 63. Linear trend line for band "Our example".

Negotiating with them
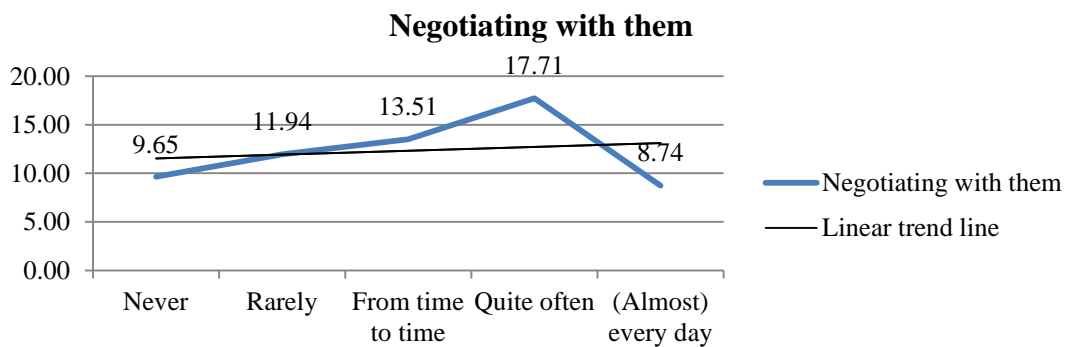
Figure 64. Linear trend line for band "Negotiating with them".

By contrast, when parents think that the best way to influence their children to view television in English is motivating them to do so, there is a relatively steady decrease in the frequency with which children watch television in English (see Fig. 65 below).
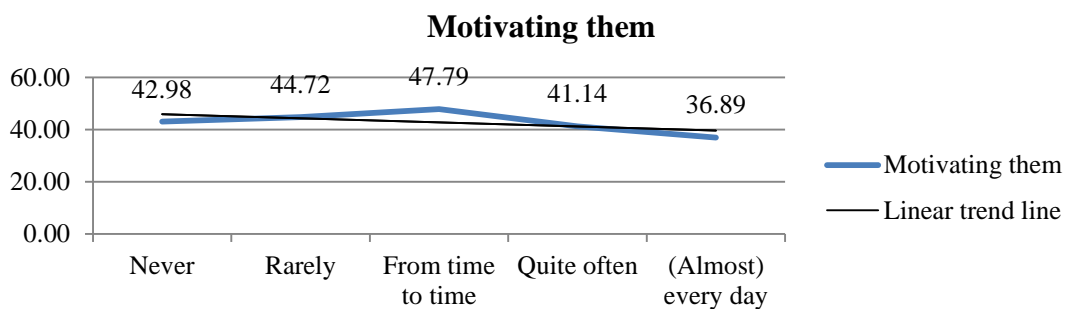
Motivating them

Figure 65. Linear trend line for band "Motivating them".

What figures 63 and 64 above seem to suggest is that not only are parental example and negotiation the two most effective means to influence children, according to the parents, but also that they reflect the highest level of coherence between parents' beliefs and children's practice which, according to De Houwer (1999), could be attributed to a very

strong impact belief. On the other hand, the lack of coherence seen in Figure 65 above could be ascribed to Nakamura's (2019) parents' lack of impact belief.

Further below, we will need to come back to these two variables to try to find how these very strong impact beliefs about the role of parental example and negotiation are formed.

4.3.3 Beliefs about the usefulness of English for different situations of everyday life

We also tried to measure parents' beliefs in relation to the integrative and instrumental usefulness of English in different situations of people's lives. The highest levels of usefulness were reported with reference to travelling (Questions 23a/52a) and getting or changing jobs (Questions 23c/52c and 23d/52d). As Figure 66 and Table 19 below illustrate, in the additive context studied, parents tend to believe that English is more useful for the instrumental than for the integrative purposes about which we wanted to learn. This finding, however, does not contradict Gardner and Lambert (1972) who, as we saw in the Literature Review chapter above, had claimed that integrative motivations are more powerful than instrumental motivations to learn a language because we are not measuring motivations but beliefs.

	For travelling (Q 23a/52a)	For your personal life (Q 23b/52b)	For your personal satisfaction (Q 23e/52e)	For entertainment (for example DVDs, television, music) (Q 23h/52h)	To get a job (Q 23c/52c)	To change your job (Q 23d/52d)	To use computers and other technological gadgets (Q 23f/52f)	To read books, magazines, etc. related to your job or to your hobbies (Q 23g/52g)
		Integrative				Instrumental		
Not useful at all	10	563	122	271	59	62	51	406
A bit useful	82	653	331	552	145	170	391	511
Quite useful	362	392	557	540	397	400	641	423
Very useful	775	299	719	463	682	665	640	422
Essential	801	116	296	189	741	719	297	257
Total	2,030	2,023	2,025	2,015	2,024	2,016	2,016	2,019

Figure 66. Absolute frequency connected to parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English in a number of situations. Questions 23/52 (2,022 responses on average).

Table 19. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English for integrative and instrumental purposes. Questions 23/52.

	Very useful	Essential	Total	%
Integrative uses	2,256	1,402	3,658	22.61%
Instrumental uses	2,409	2,014	4,423	27.34%
Total number of answers			16,172	100.00%

However, when we applied the chi-square test, we observed that the lowest levels of correlation corresponded precisely to those situations for which English was thought to be most useful, namely for travelling, to get a job and to change jobs. This indicates that parents' opinions about the usefulness of English in these three contexts do not seem to exert a big influence on their decisions in relation to television viewing (Table 20).

Table 20. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for contingency tables *Qs 66b - 23/52* (see APPENDIX D).

How useful do you think English is in the following situations?

Qs 66b – 23h/52h	For entertainment (for example DVDs, television, music) (1,981 responses)	80.63%
Qs 66b – 23b/52b	For your personal life (1,990 responses)	80.56%
Qs 66b – 23g/52g	To read books, magazines, etc. related to your job or to your hobbies (1,986 responses)	80.11%
Qs 66b – 23e/52e	For your personal satisfaction (1,992 responses)	77.82%
Qs 66b – 23f/52f	To use computers and other technological gadgets (1,987 responses)	60.66%
Qs 66b – 23a/52a	For travelling (1,996 responses)	55.75%
Qs 66b – 23c/52c	To get a job (1,991 responses)	49.83%
Qs 66b – 23d/52d	To change your job (1,983 responses)	48.57%
Average		66.74%

As a matter of fact, as Table 20 above shows, the average obtained reveals that parents' opinions about the usefulness of English are relatively relevant when it comes to influencing their decision to choose the language in which their children watch television.

The general pattern of distribution of the average relative frequencies obtained from the four relevant cross-tabulations reflects that parents' positive beliefs lead to an increase in children's exposure to English through television. Thus, we can observe how the relative number of children who (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time view television in English steadily rises as parents' beliefs become more and more positive. By contrast, the relative number of children who rarely or never watch television in English grows as parents' beliefs become more and more negative (see Figure 67 below).

Qs 23b/52b – 23e/52e – 23g/52g and 23h/52h. Instrumental and integrative usefulness of English.
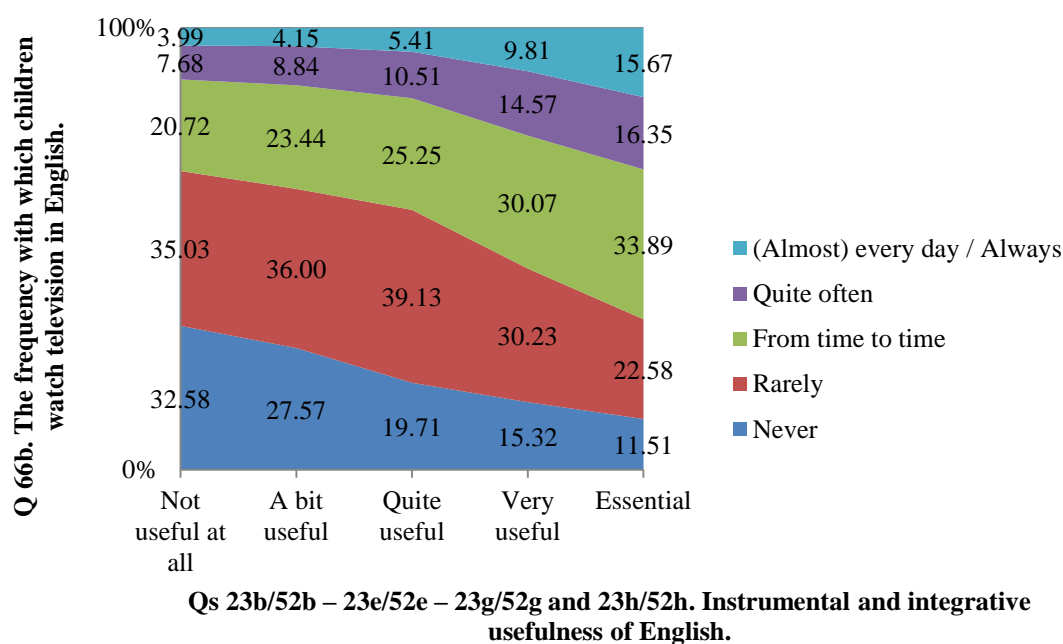
Figure 67. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English. Questions 66b and 23b/52b – 23e/52e – 23g/52g – 23h/52h (1,987 responses on average).

However, underlying the eight variables under consideration there exist some regularities that deserve our attention. Thus, we found that bands "From time to time" and "Never" follow, although opposite, regular patterns across the eight variables. In this way, we can see in Figure 68 below how the relative number of children who watch television in English from time to time progressively increases as parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English in any of the eight situations analysed become more and more positive.

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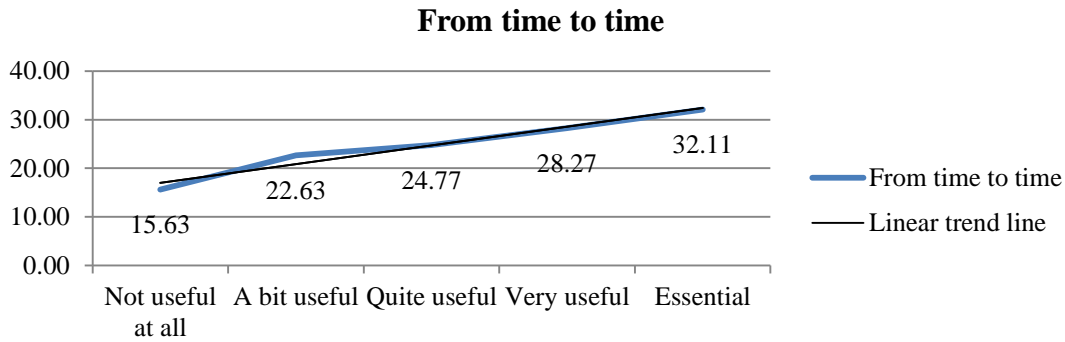
Figure 68. Linear trend line for band "From time to time".

Contrariwise, Figure 69 below reveals how the relative number of children that never view television in English steadily increases as parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English in each of the eight situations described become more and more negative.
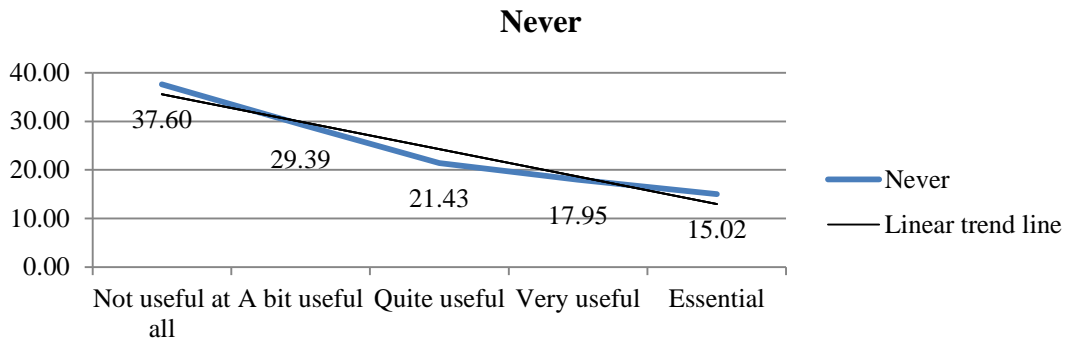
Figure 69. Linear trend line for band "Never".

In conclusion, both figures seem to reflect coherent patterns of impact belief because, although in different ways, they project high levels of consistency between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English and children's linguistic practice.

4.3.4 Parental attitudes

Next, we attempted to measure parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English language and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. De Houwer (1999) had predicted that parents' attitude towards a particular language and towards bilingualism in general may underpin a particular language practice within the family. As Figure 70 below depicts, when parents were asked how interested they were in the three elements measured, the most positive attitudes were given to English followed by learning foreign languages, whereas interest in Anglo-Saxon culture obtained the least positive attitudes.

	Learning foreign languages (Qs 20/49)	English (Qs 21/50)	Anglo-Saxon culture (Qs 22/51)
■ Not interested at all	116	57	163
■ Very little interested	221	120	313
■ A bit interested	684	410	746
■ Quite interested	587	802	568
■ Very interested	417	641	238
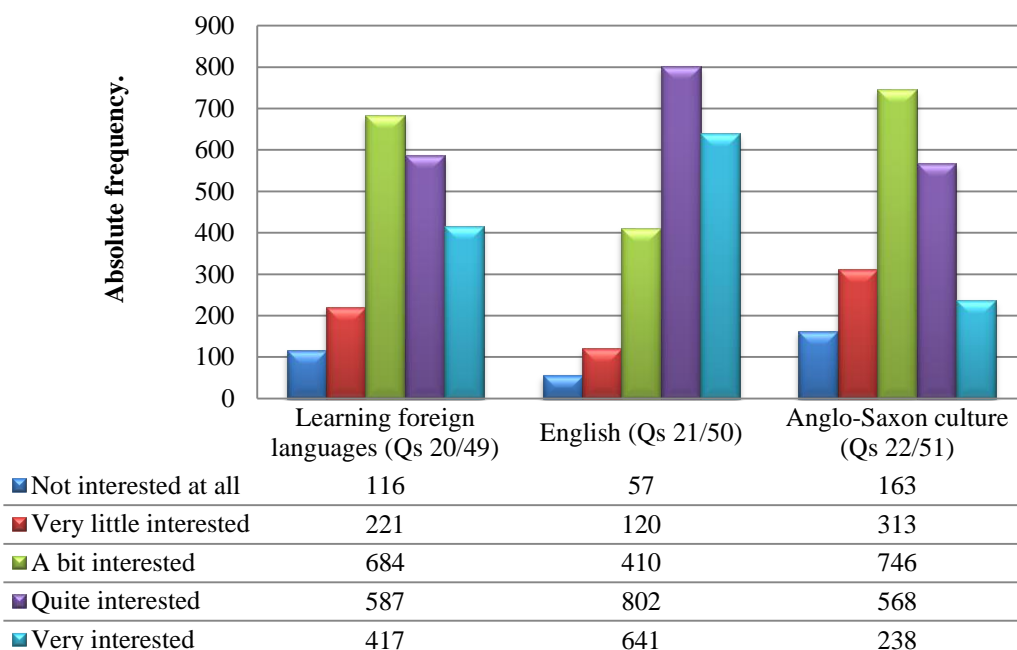
Figure 70. Absolute frequency related to various parental attitudes. Questions 20/49 (2,025 responses), 21/50 (2,030 responses) and 22/51 (2,028 responses).

A look at the results of the chi-square test applied to the three variables reveals strong correlations (Table 21).

Table 21. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b - 20/49*, *Qs 66b - 21/50* and *Qs 66b - 22/51* (see APPENDIX D).

How interested are you in…

Qs 66b - 22/51	…Anglo-Saxon culture? (1,992 responses)	82.33%
Qs 66b - 20/49	…learning foreign languages? (1,989 responses)	81.62%
Qs 66b - 21/50	…in English? (1,994 responses)	81.39%
Average		81.78%

Figure 71 below, which represents the general pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 66b and variables 20/49, 21/50 and 22/51, perfectly reflects the three individual patterns of distribution obtained for the three cross-tabulations. As we can observe, the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time rises when parents' interest in the three items under study rises. By contrast, the relative number of children who never or rarely watch television in English grows as

parents' interest decreases. Put differently, we could conclude that those children whose parents show less interest in the elements measured tend to watch television in English less often. Likewise, those children whose parents show higher levels of interest tend to watch television in English more often.
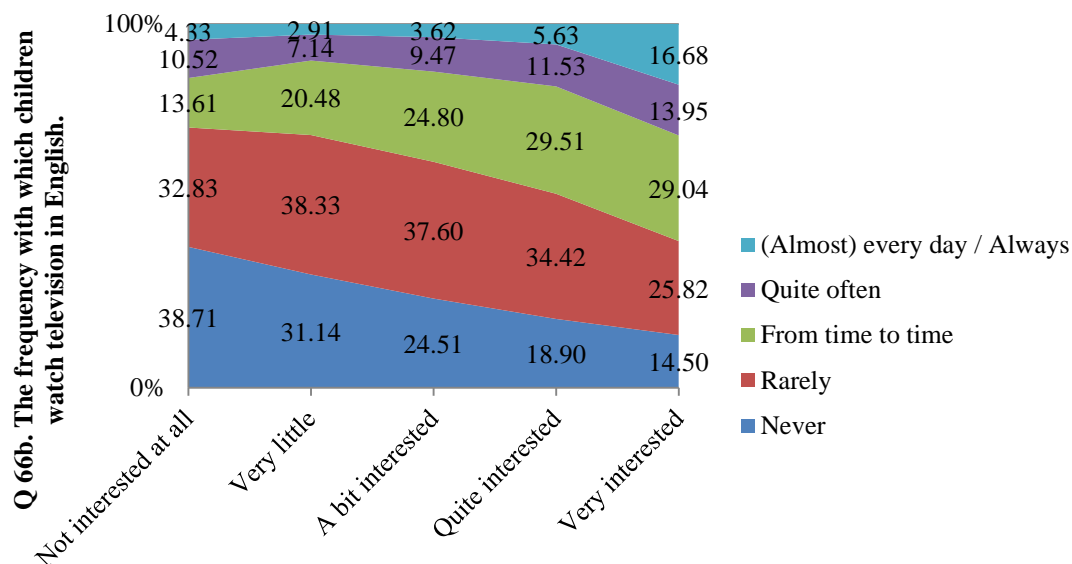
Qs 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 71. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 66b and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (1,992 responses on average).

Consequently, we can assert that De Houwer's (1999) claim that parental attitudes help determine their behaviour appears to be valid for the participants in our research, both when their attitudes are positive and when they are not so.

4.3.5 Parental ideologies

Finally, we looked at parental ideologies as regards the government making television channels broadcast foreign content in its original version. As we can see in Figure 72 below, the "Yes" option was clearly the preferred option for parents.
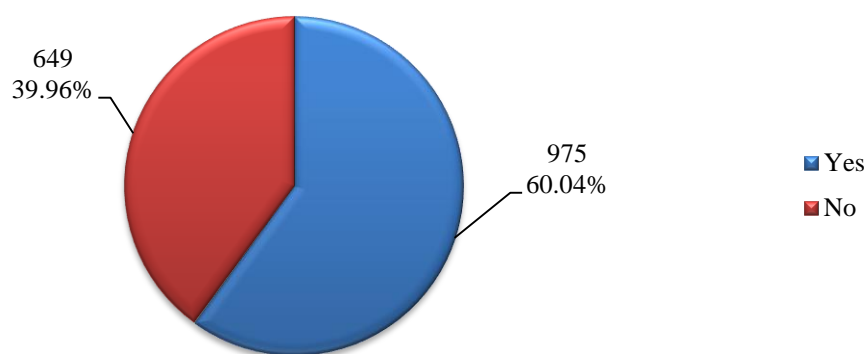
Figure 72. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning whether parents agree with the idea that TV channels should be made to broadcast all programmes in original version. Questions 31/60 (1,624 responses).

However, as we will see further below, this finding will necessarily have to be reinterpreted in the light of new findings regarding other factors, such as parents' level of English.

Once again, the chi-square test indicates a very strong relationship between the variables, which affects 83.40% of the participants. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies in Figure 73 below shows that the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time increases when parents prefer subtitling to dubbing, whereas the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English rises when parents prefer dubbing to subtitling.
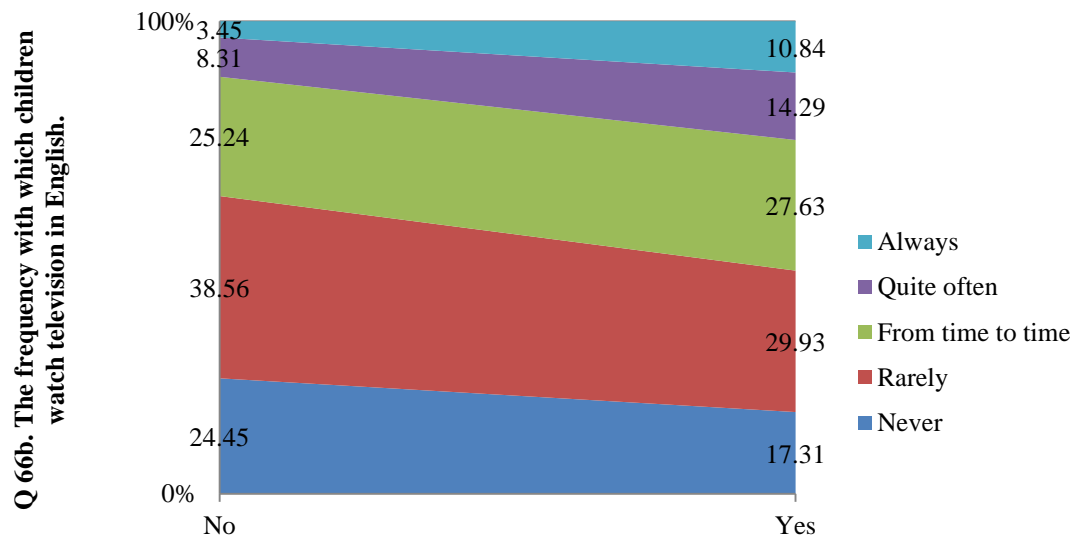
Figure 73. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and whether parents agree with the idea that television should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Questions 66b and 31/60 (1,597 responses).

We can conclude this block, devoted to the analysis and discussion of the dependence relationship between variable 66b on the one hand, and the different types of beliefs, attitudes and ideologies identified in the Literature Review above claiming that, whenever a relevant dependence relationship has been identified, the same pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies has emerged again and again. This pattern of distribution reveals that the relative number of children that view television in English more frequently rises when their parents' beliefs, attitudes and ideologies are more positive. By contrast, the relative number of children that watch television in English with less frequency grows as their parents' beliefs, attitudes and ideologies become more and more negative. In sum, positive beliefs, attitudes and ideologies lead to an increase in the frequency with which children watch television in English.

4.4 Family Language Policy: Language management and planning

Next in our research, as we had anticipated in section 2.4.2.2 of the Literature Review chapter above, we aimed at identifying the different managerial strategies among parents participating in the study and how these influence variable 66b. We were particularly interested in finding the age at which the children from our sample first started to have contact with English on a regular basis (Question 64), particularly the

age at which they started to view television in English (Question 69), whether parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch television (Questions 70a/70b), the frequency with which children ask to have the language changed back to Spanish when they are watching TV or DVDs in English (Questions 71a/71b) and what parents do when asked by their children to change the language from English back to Spanish (Questions 72a/72b).

Concerning the age at which children first started to have contact with English on a regular basis, we can observe in Figure 74 below that the vast majority started at about the age of three (45.92%), at about the age of two (34.74%) or since they were born (13.9%).
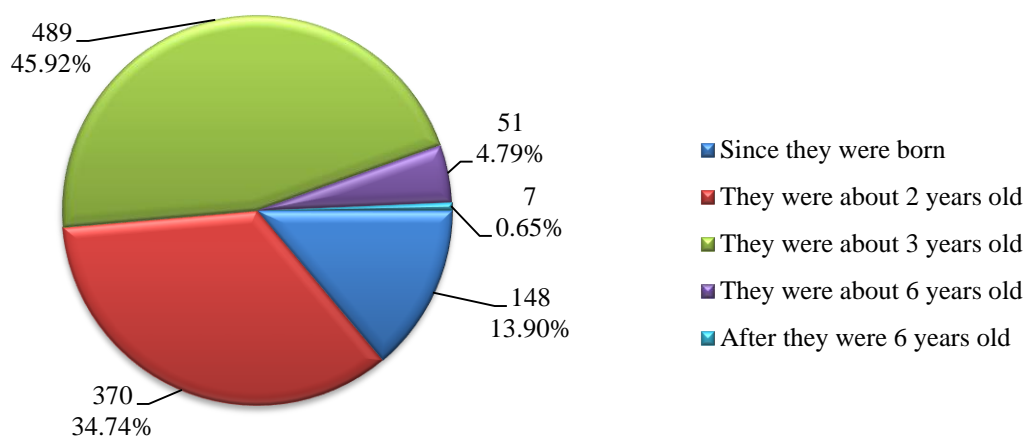
Figure 74. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding the age at which children started to have regular contact with English. Question 64 (1,065 responses).

The chi-square test shows a very strong correlation between variables 66b and 64, which affects 92.36% of the participants. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies in Figure 75 below gives us a clear picture of the nature of such dependence relationship. Thus, we can observe how the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time rises as the age at which they started to have a regular contact with English is reduced. Contrariwise, we can observe how the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English grows as the age at which they first started to be in contact with English rises. In other words, a very early regular contact with English seems to favour that children also view television in English.
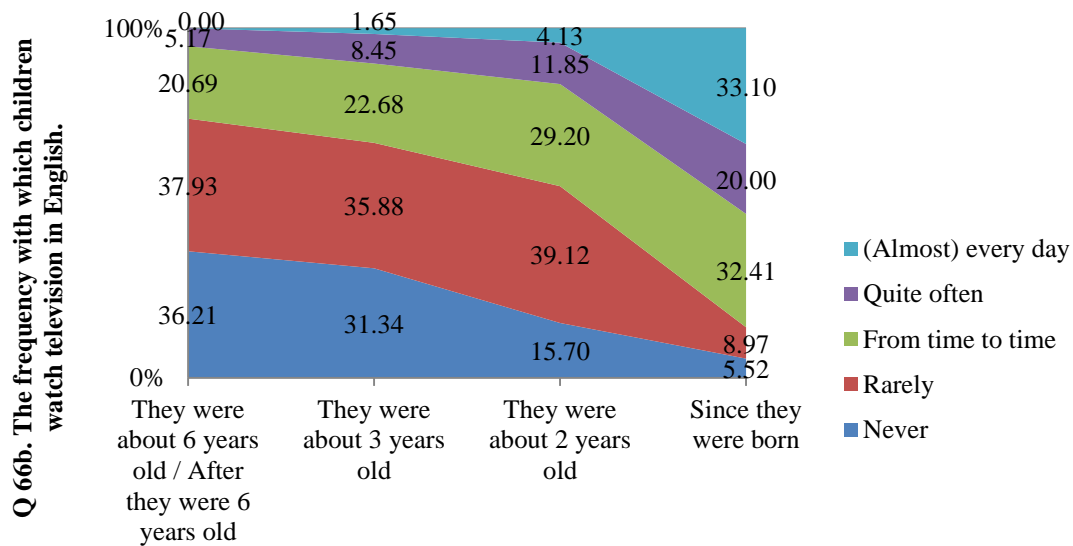
Q 64. The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc.

Figure 75. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc. Questions 66b and 64 (1,051 responses).

We were also interested in finding how old children were when they first started to view television in English, regardless of the fact that they may do it with very low frequency. As Figure 76 below shows, the majority of the children who view television in English started at the age of three or before.
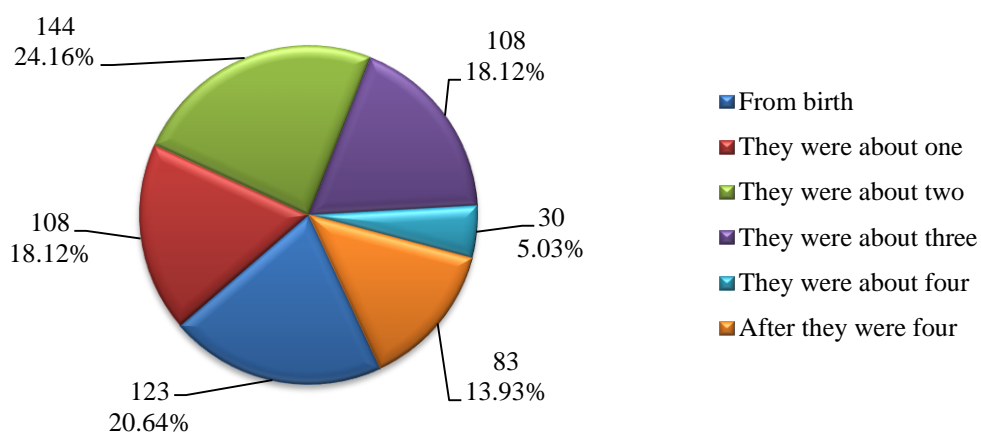
Figure 76. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding the age at which children start to view television in English. Question 69 (596 responses).

The chi-square analysis reveals a strong relationship between the two variables under study, which affects 73.88% of the respondents. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies (see Figure 77 below) reveals that the relative number of children that (almost) every day or quite often watched television in English at the time that the research was done rises as the age at which they began this linguistic practice decreases. On the contrary, the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English tends to grow when the age at which this practice began rises. In short, the data analysed suggests that the younger children were when they began to view television in English, the more frequently they watched television in English at the time that their parents were questioned about this issue.

Q 69. The age at which children first began to view television in English.

Figure 77. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the age at which children first began to view television in English. Questions 66b and 69 (591 responses).

If we compare the age at which children started to have some contact with English (Question 64) and the age at which they started to view television in English (Question 69), we can conclude that a significantly higher number of children have had regular contact with English through means other than television and that the gap increases as children grow older (see figures 78 and 79 below).

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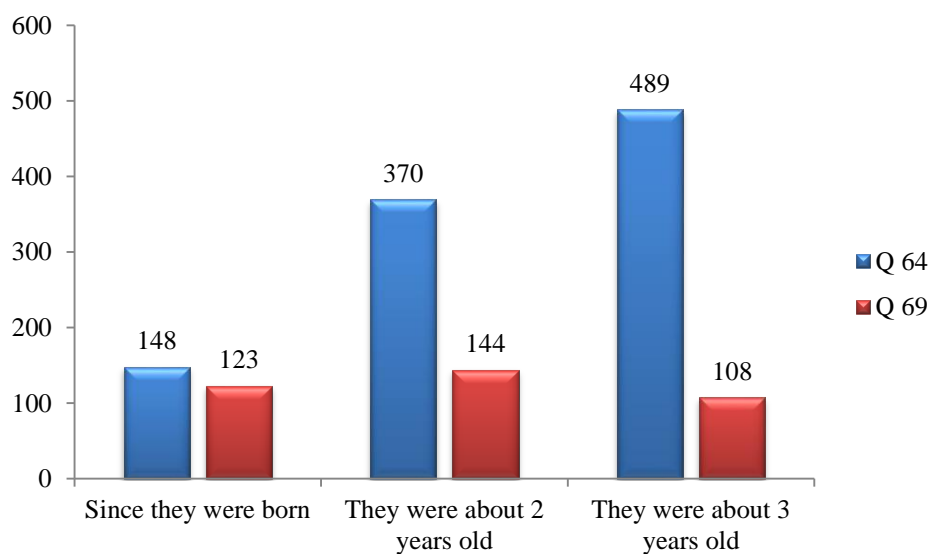
Figure 78. A sample of the absolute frequencies regarding the age at which children started to be in contact with English (Q 64) and to view television in English (Q 69).
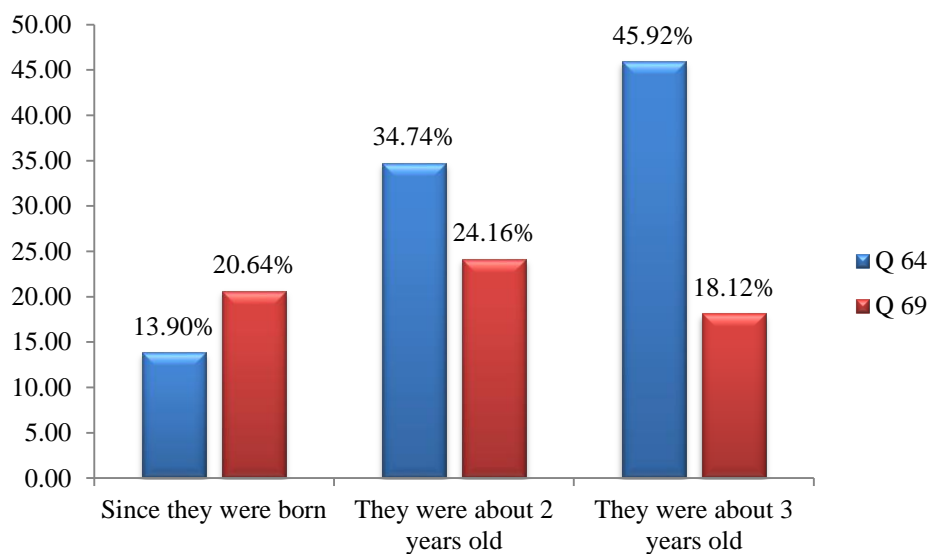
Figure 79. A sample of the relative frequencies regarding the age at which children started to be in contact with English (Q 64) and to view television in English (Q 69).

This could be attributed to the fact that, over the last years, the age at which children start nursery school has been gradually reduced down to two or three years of age, to the increase in the number of children schooled at two and three years of age (see Figure 80

below) and to the high number of children that learn English at pre-primary level (see Figure 81 below).
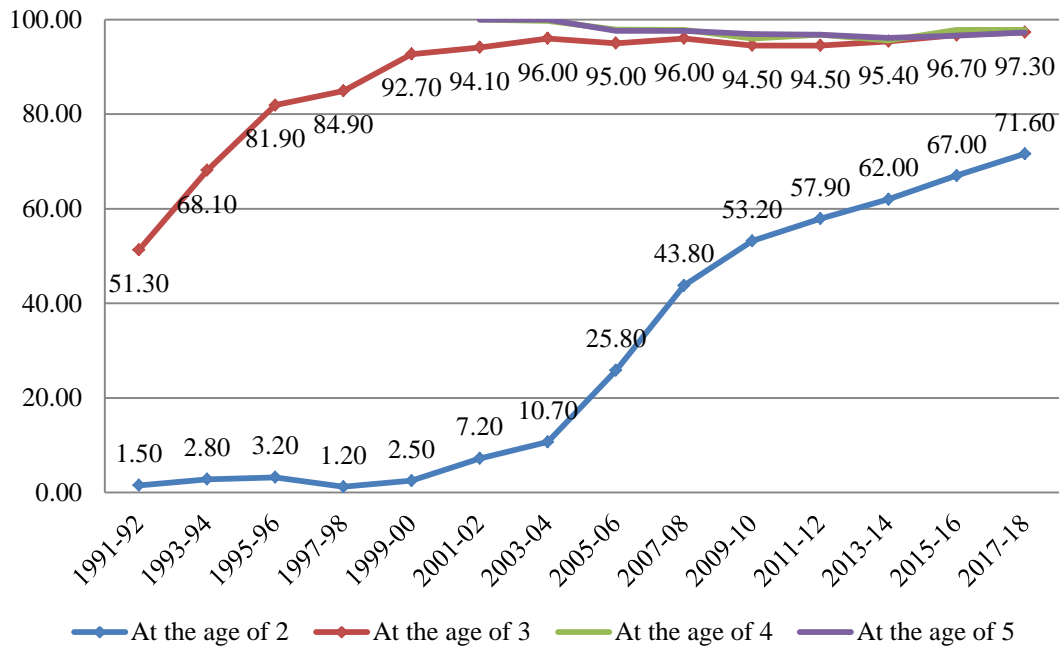
Figure 80. Percentage of children schooled at the ages of 2, 3, 4 and 5 in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria.
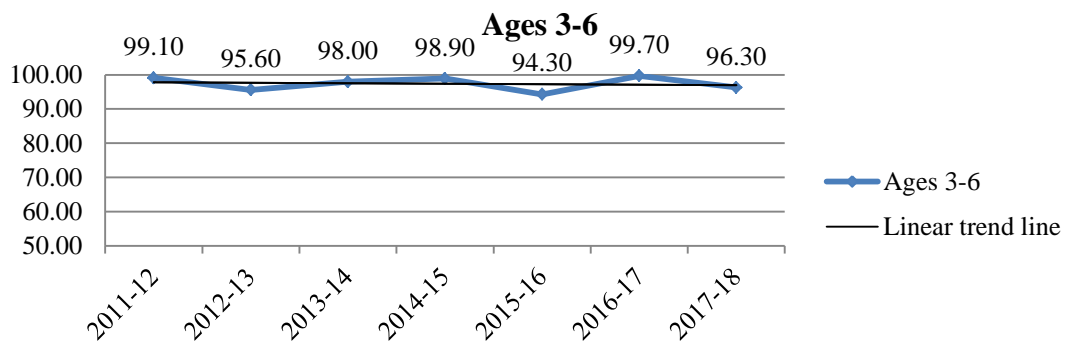
Source: INE

Figure 81. Percentage of school children that learn English as a subject between the ages of 3 and 6 in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria.
Source: INE

As regards asking children about the choice of language, we found that more than half the participants (52.59%) never discuss this issue with their children. However, what

stands out here is the fact that the remaining 47.41% do ask their children about this issue (see Figure 82 below), adopting an apparently more or less negotiable approach.
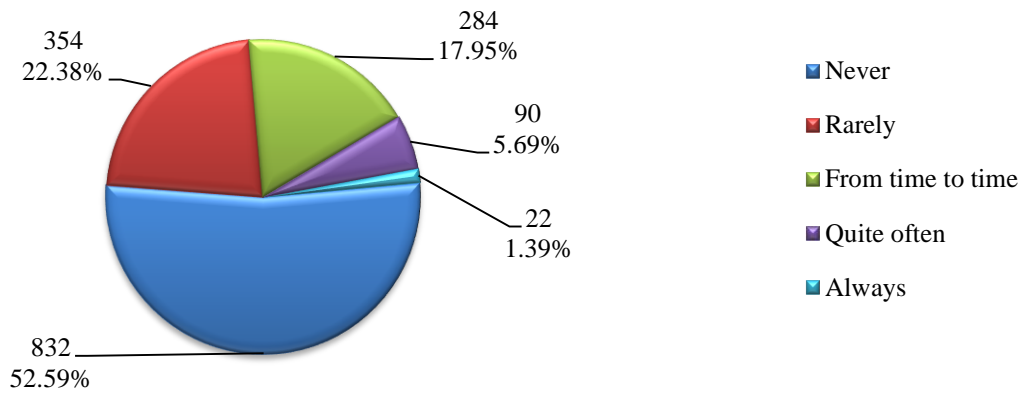
Figure 82. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding whether parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV. Questions 70a/70b (1,582 responses).

The chi-square test highlights another strong relationship between the variables, affecting 80.02% of the participants. Here again, we were expecting that the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies would show that the relative number of children that view television in English rose as the frequency with which they were given the chance to choose the language decreased. However, in this case, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained reveals a change of direction in the tendency observed up to this moment. Thus, we can see how the largest number of co-occurrences in bands "(Almost) every day" and "Quite often" appears on the left of axis *x*, which corresponds to what we believed to be the most negative values regarding management practices. Likewise, the largest number of co-occurrences in the rest of bands tends to appear on the right of axis *x*, which corresponds to what we thought to be the most positive values concerning managerial practices. In other words, children view television in English with more frequency when parents give them the opportunity to choose the language (Fig. 83).
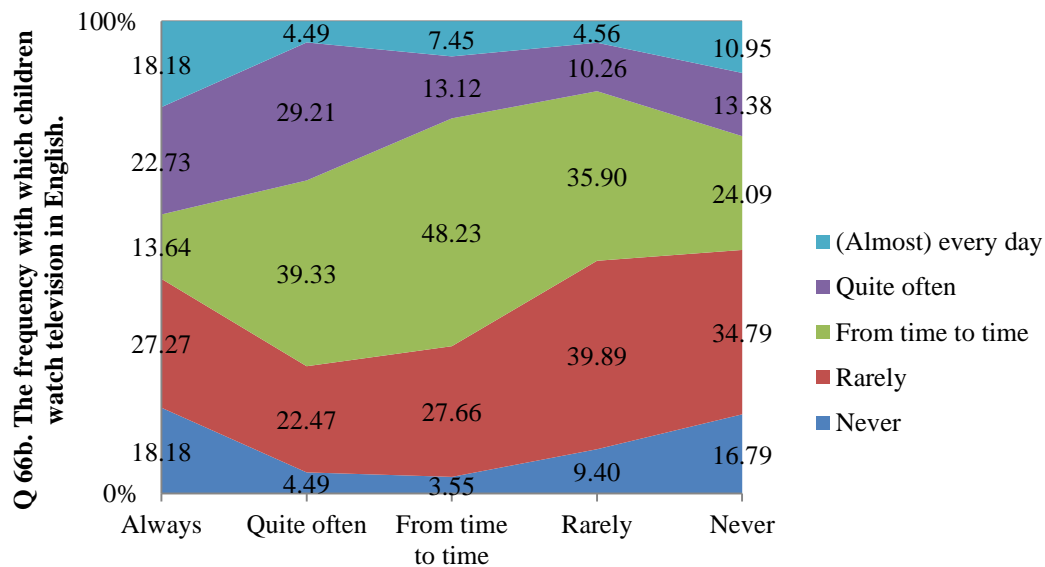
Qs 70a/70b. Whether or not parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV or DVDs.
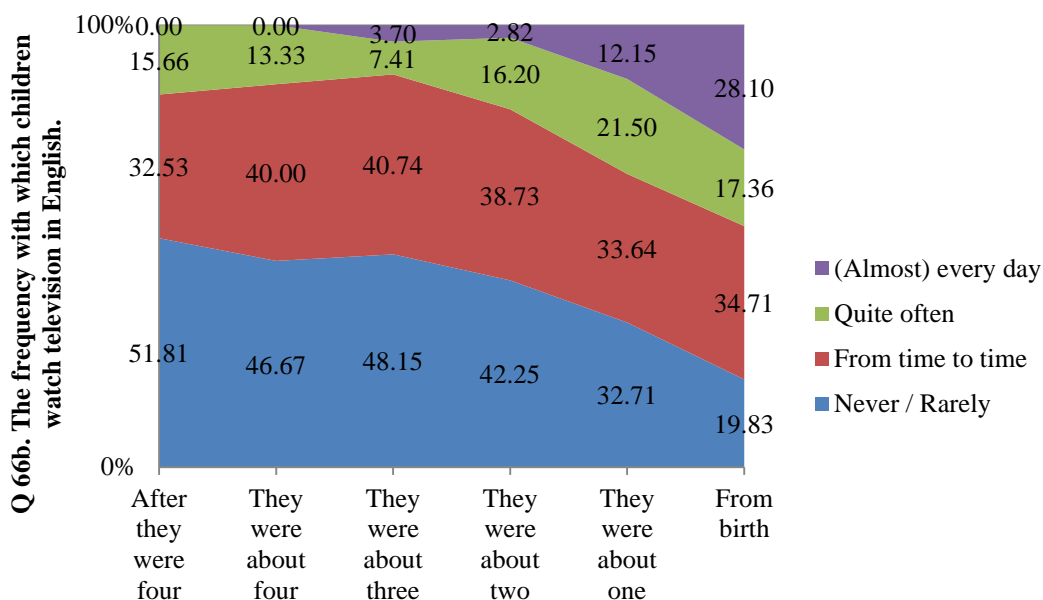
Figure 83. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and whether parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV of DVDs. Questions 66b and 70a/70b (1,566 responses).

Concerning the frequency with which children who watch television in English ask their parents to change the language back to Spanish (Questions 71a/71b), we found that 40.32% never (26.12%) or rarely (14.20%) make this request. On the other hand, a similar 40.65% demand a change of language quite often (22.57%) or always (18.08%) (see Figure 84 below).
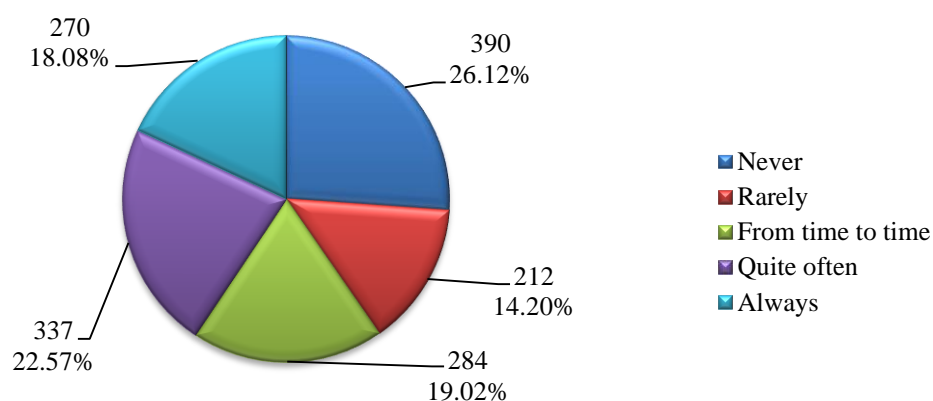
Figure 84. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the frequency with which children that watch television in English ask their parents to change the language back to Spanish. Questions 71a/71b (1,493 responses).

For the cross-tabulation between this variable and variable 66b, we obtained a chi-square value that affects 92.50% of the participants. If we observe the pattern of

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distribution of relative (%) frequencies that emerged from this cross-tabulation (see Figure 85 below), we will be able to see how the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day or quite often rises as the frequency with which they demand a change of language is reduced. On the other hand, the relative number of children that rarely watch television in English or do it from time to time grows when the frequency with which they make this request increases.
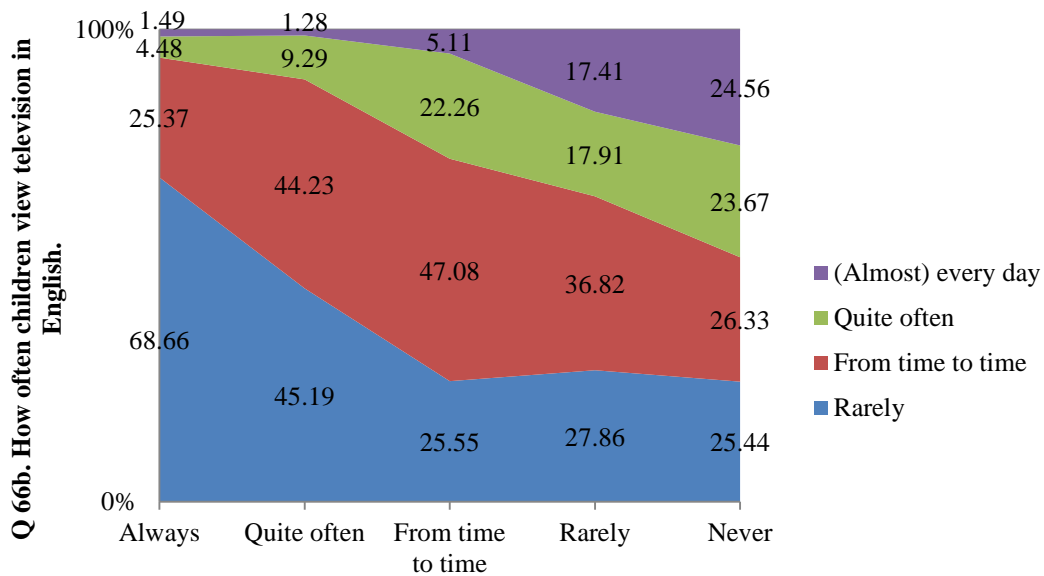
Qs 71a/71b. How often children ask to have the language changed back to Spanish when they are watching TV or a DVD in English.

Figure 85. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the frequency with which children ask to have the language changed back to Spanish when they are watching TV or DVDs in English. Questions 66b and 71a/71b (1,326 responses).

With respect to what parents do when asked by their children to change the language back to Spanish (Questions 72a/72b), 38.67% claimed that they refuse to do it, either by ignoring the request (8.84%) or by convincing their children to leave it as it is (29.83%). By contrast, 50.41% agree to do it, either sometimes (30.99%) or always (19.42%) (see Figure 86 below).
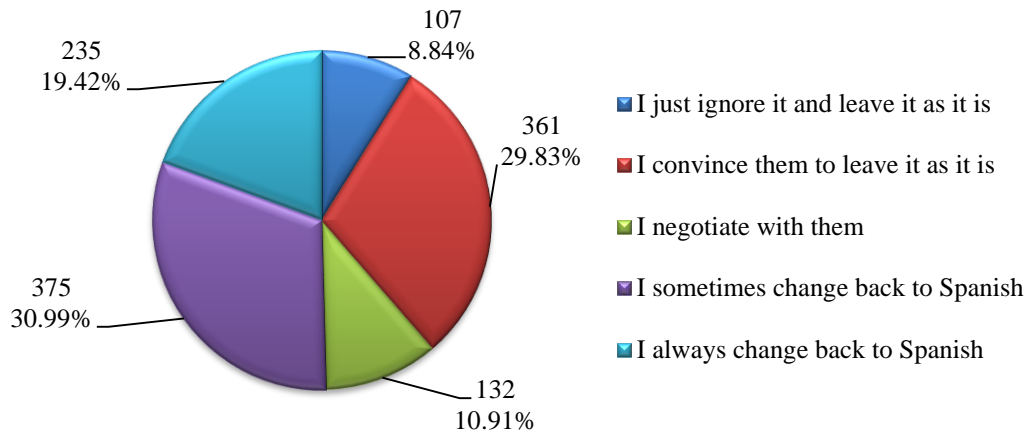
Figure 86. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies about what parents do when their children ask them to change the language of the TV back to Spanish. Questions 72a/72b (1,210 responses).

The chi-square test indicates that the correlation between these two variables affects 91.27% of the respondents. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies (see Figure 87 below) reveals that the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day or quite often clearly rises as parents pay less attention to their children's requests. Contrariwise, the relative number of children that rarely watch television in English, or do it from time to time, grows as parents pay more and more attention to their children's demands. What is more, 17% of the participants stated that their children never ask to have the language changed back to Spanish when they are watching television in English, which could be reinforcing the idea that children end up accepting particular parental policies when they perceive that their parents remain firm in their convictions. Therefore, we can see how clear managerial strategies, which reflect parents' beliefs as we will see later below, help consolidate particular linguistic practices.

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Figure 87. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish. Questions 66b and 72a/72b (1,302 responses).

We can conclude this section on the dependence relationships between variable 66b on the one hand, and planning and managerial strategies on the other by affirming that certain strategies seem to favour that children view television in English more than others. Thus, when parents plan and take the necessary steps leading to their children having regular contact with English at an early age, the chances that they will stick to this practice later on during their childhood are higher. Likewise, adhering to one's convictions and, in this way, ignoring children's demands, also contributes to the success of this linguistic practice. Further down we will look at how the group of variables dealing with planning and management interact with each other.

On the other hand, in the light of the findings concerning Questions 70a/70b, which refer to whether parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV of DVDs, we feel compelled to reformulate our concept of what seemed a good managerial practice. Thus, we had claimed that asking children about the language in which they want to view television could not be considered a good managerial practice. However, the data analysed reveals that children view television in English with more frequency when they are given the opportunity to choose. The analysis and discussion of the relationship between variable 70a/70b and other variables further down will help us confirm or reject this initial conclusion about variable 70a/70b.

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4.5 Family Language Policy: Internal and external factors

Having dealt with the key elements of linguistic planning and management, next we move on to discuss the internal and external factors that shape FLP, both individually and in relation to their degree of correlation with variable 66b.

4.5.1 Intra-family factors

For our study, we decided to look at parental education, including proficiency in the target language, SES, intergenerational transmission of FLP, personal experiences with language learning and age.

4.5.1.1 Parental education

In this respect, if we look at Figure 88, we will see that only 6.31% of the respondents did not complete education beyond the age of compulsory schooling, whereas a significant 75.13% attained tertiary education, either High-Level Vocational Training (17.98%) or University degrees (57.15%).
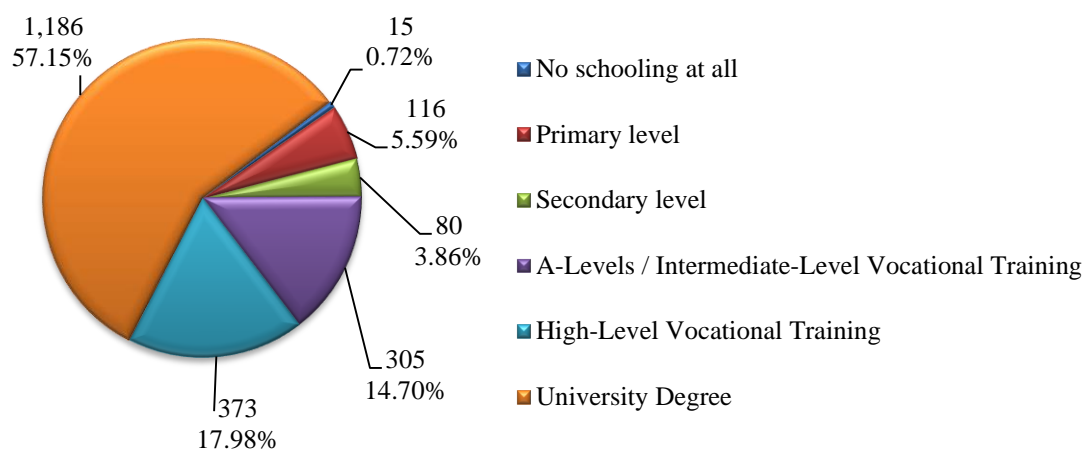
Figure 88. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding parents' level of schooling. Questions 10/39 (2,075 responses).

The chi-square test returns a strong relationship between the variables, which affects 73.84% of the respondents. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies in Figure 89 below shows how the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time increases as parents highest level of schooling completed rises too, whereas the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English grows when parents' highest level of

education completed becomes lower. Our first conclusion is, therefore, that children view more television in English when their parents' level of schooling is higher.
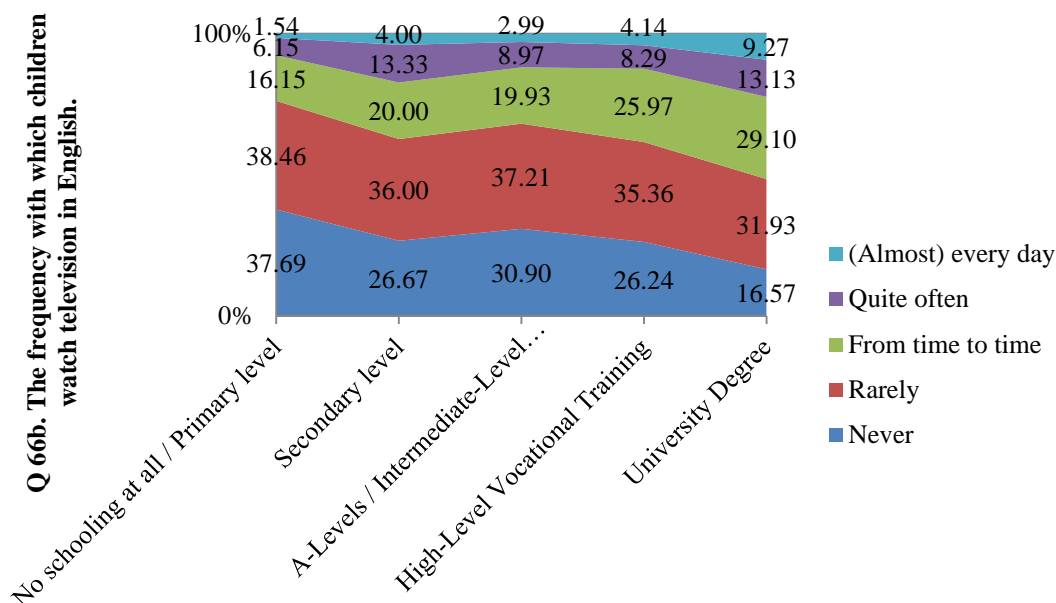
Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling.

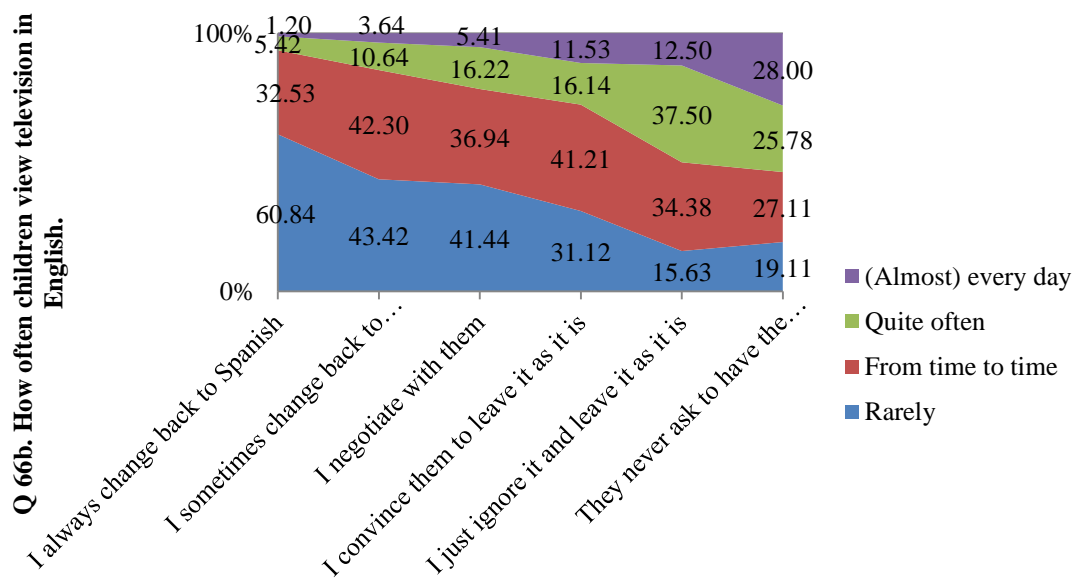**Figure 89**. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' highest level of schooling. Questions 66b and 10/39 (2,033 responses).

These findings lead us to conclude that Li's (2007) argument that parental educational backgrounds have a significant impact on the families' higher levels of involvement in support of their children's second-language learning is also valid in the context under debate.

4.5.1.2 Parents' proficiency in the target language

As we pointed out earlier in Chapter 2, Spolsky (2004) had claimed that parents' proficiency in the target language is another major factor influencing FLP. To verify Spolsky's statement within our framework of study, we posed parents three questions in this respect. First, we simply asked what they considered their level of English to be. The two largest answer categories obtained correspond to those who claimed to have a low (35.50%) or an intermediate level of English (37.98%). On the contrary, only 6.56% claimed to have a very high level of English (Fig. 90).
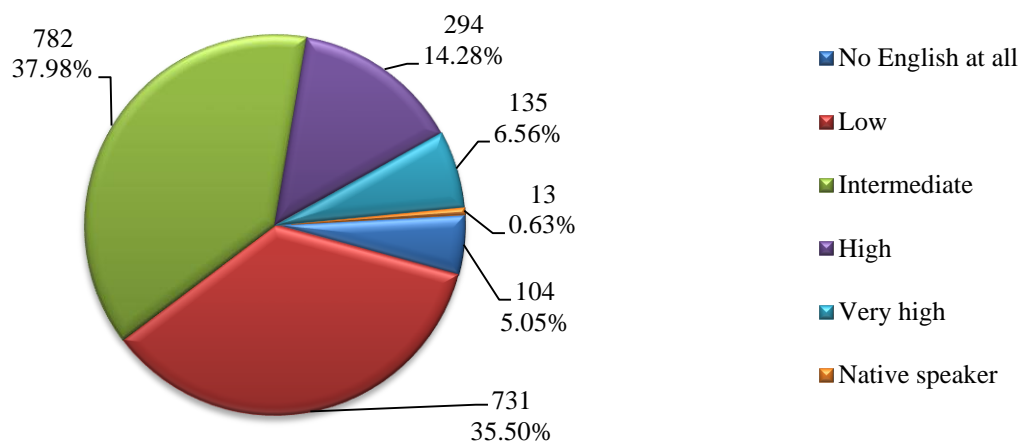
Figure 90. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning parents' present level of English. Questions 14/43 (2,059 responses).

Next, we asked about their level of comprehension of TV or DVD content in English without subtitles. Again, almost 80% of the participants responded that they understand between nothing and 50% of what they hear in English (Fig. 91).
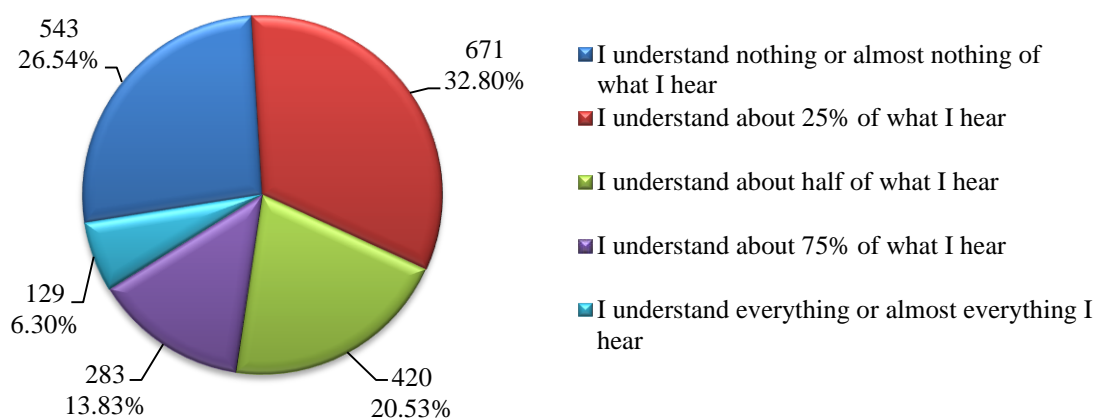
Figure 91. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies in connection with parents' level of comprehension of TV and DVDs in English without subtitles. Questions 15/44 (2,046 responses).

Finally, we also wanted to know how difficult English had been for parents when they were at school. If we ignore the 8.06% who had not done English at school, we can observe that the largest category (42.45%) of the remainder corresponds to those who claim that English had had an average level of difficulty for them. If we compare the relative number of parents for whom English had been difficult or very difficult on the one hand (27.40%) with those for whom English had been easy or very easy on the other (22.10%), we will observe that the former outnumber the latter (see Figure 92 below).
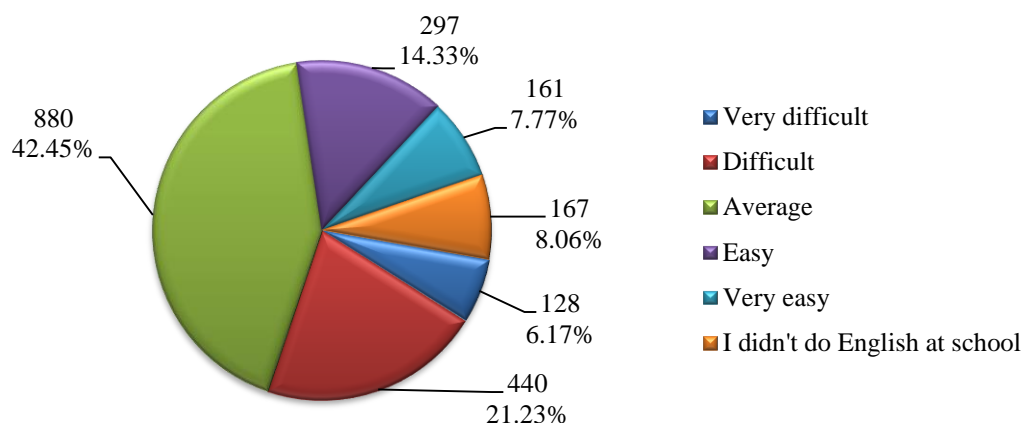
Figure 92. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding how difficult English was for parents at school. Questions 11/40 (2,073 responses).

The chi-square tests reveal a very strong dependence for the cross-tabulation between variable 66b and parents' level of English (variable 14/43), which affects 88.74% of the respondents, and between variable 66b and parents' level of comprehension of TV and DVDs in English without subtitles (variable 15/44), which affects 89.19% of the participants. In both cases, we can see similar patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies (see figures 93 and 94 below). Thus, the relative number of children who view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time grows as parents' level of English increases. By contrast, the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English rises as their parents' level of English gets lower. As we will see further below, parents' level of English is a key element in understanding parental linguistic practices which, in turn, affect those of their chidren.
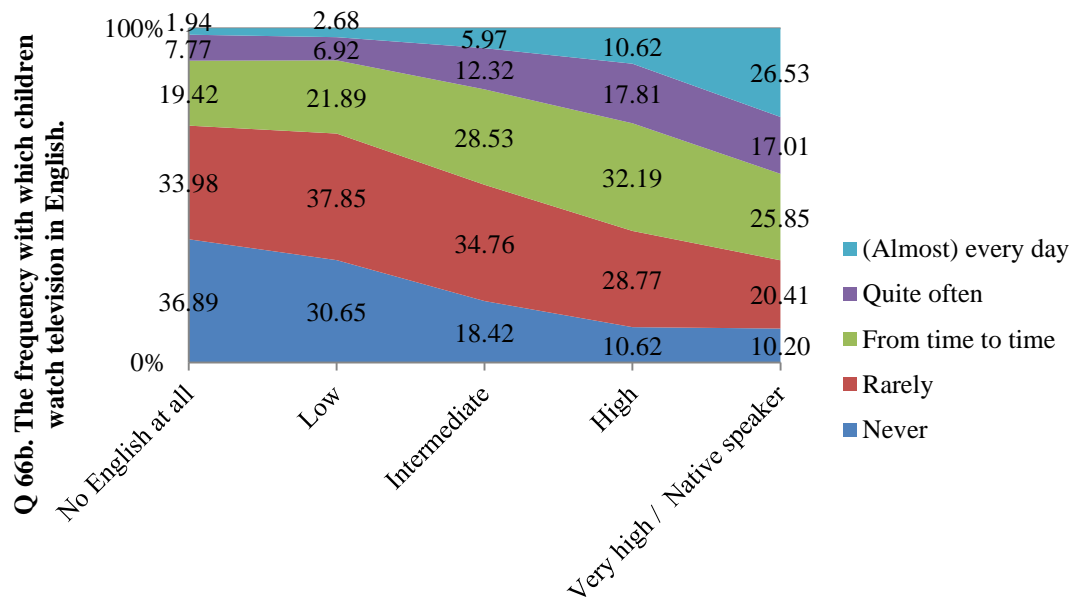
Qs 14/43. Parents' present level of English.

Figure 93. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' present level of English. Questions 66b and 14/43 (2,021 responses).
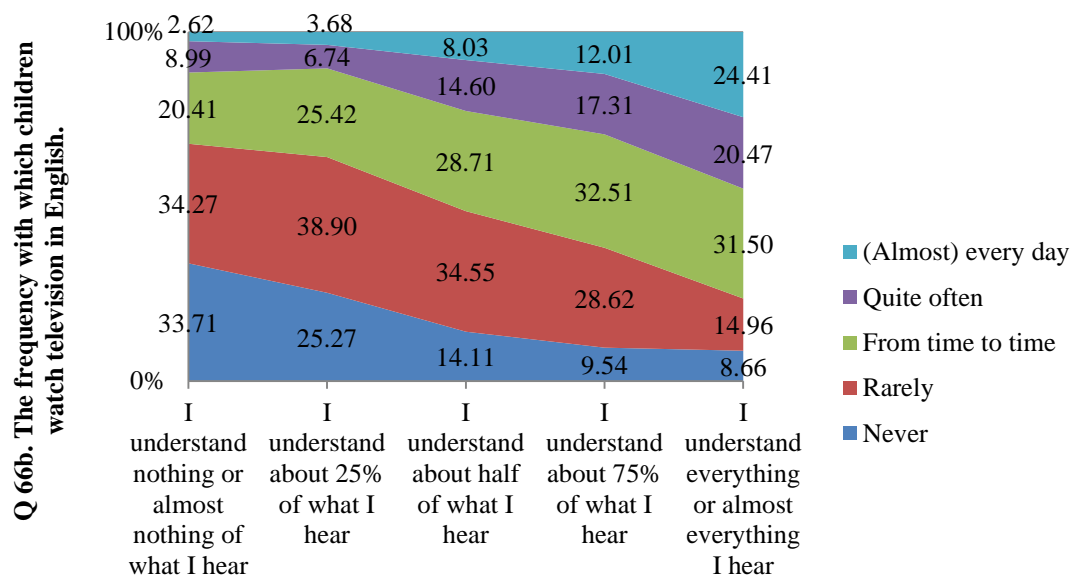
Qs 15/44. Parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVDs in English.

Figure 94. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVDs in English. Questions 66b and 15/44 (2,008 responses).

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On the other hand, the dependence relationship between variables 66b and 11/40 only affects 57.22% of the respondents for which, in general terms, variable 11/40 cannot be said to have a very relevant influence on parents' decision to make their children view television in English. However, if we look at Figure 95, we will observe that bands "Never" and "(Almost) every day" follow similar patterns of distribution to those observed for the same bands in figures 93 and 94 above. In this case, we can conclude that what makes a difference between variables 11/40 on the one hand, and 15/44 and 14/43 on the other is the irregular distribution of bands "Rarely", "From time to time" and "Quite often" in the former. As a matter of fact, these two categories taken on their own, the value of the chi-square would rise to affect 76.55% of the participants.

Qs 11/40. How difficult English was for parents when they were at at school.

Figure 95. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and the degree of difficulty that English had for parents when they were at school. Questions 66b and 11/40 (1,865 responses).

We can conclude, therefore, that our findings about the role played by parents' proficiency in the target language coincide with Spolsky's (2004) claim that language choice is affected by the speaker's proficiency in that language. But also Caminal *et al.*'s (2018), who had affirmed that parents' improved command of a second language in a bilingual context is related to their predisposition to transmit this second language to their children. In this particular case, English would be transmitted through television.

Table 22. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b - 14/43* and *Qs 66b - 15/44* (see APPENDIX D).

Qs 15/44	Parents' level of comprehension of TV in English without subtitles (2,008 responses)	89.19%
Qs 14/43	Parents' present level of English (2,021 responses)	88.74%
Qs 11/40	How difficult English was for parents when they were at school.	57.22%
Average		78.38%

4.5.1.3 SES

The socio-economic status of the families was calculated by asking about three different variables. In the first place, we wanted to know about the families' annual net income (Question 4). As Figure 96 below shows, except for the band including those families with incomes below 10,000 euros per year, there was a relatively balanced distribution among the other five income bands.
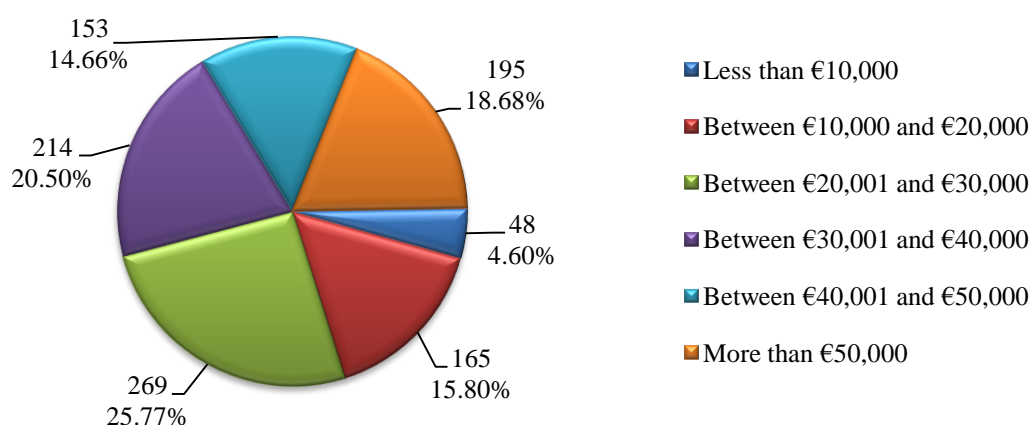
Figure 96. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding the annual net income per household. Question 4 (1,044 responses).

The cross-tabulation between variables 66b and 4 produced a chi-square value that affects 21.34% of the participants. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained is shown in Figure 97 below. As we can observe, unlike bands "Quite often" and "Rarely", which present very irregular distributions, bands "(Almost) every day", "From time to time" and "Never" present more regular tendencies,. Thus, the relative number of children that (almost) always or from time to time view television in English steadily rises as the annual income per household grows. By contrast, the relative

number of children who never watch television in English grows as the annual income per household decreases.
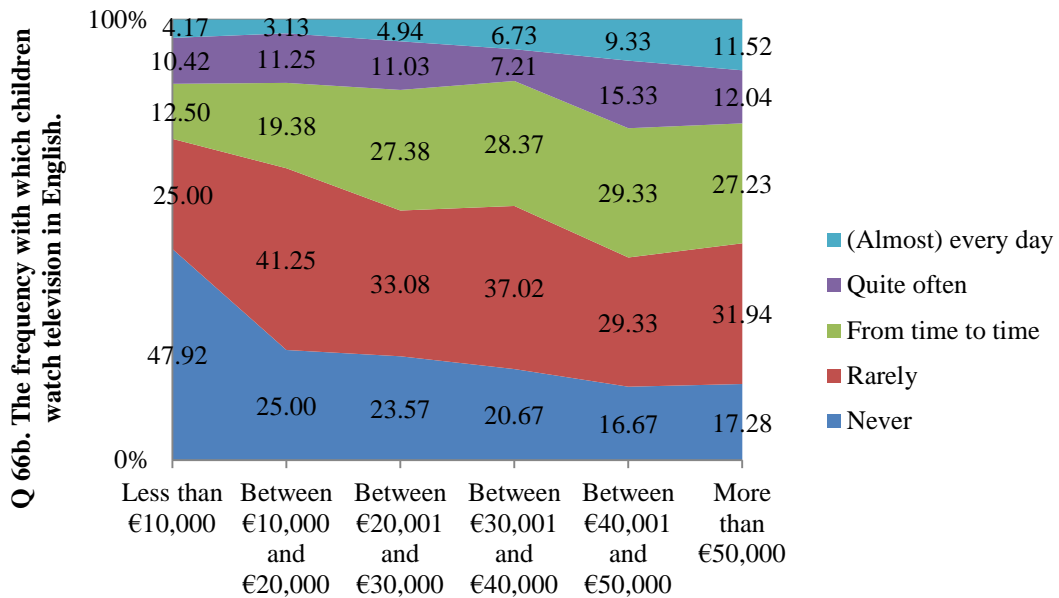

Figure 97. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and annual income PER HOUSEHOLD. Questions 66b and 4 (1,020 responses).

The problem that we found with this measurement is that it does not take into account the number of members within each household and, consequently, its value is relative. When we calculated the new income bands that took into account the number of members per household, the following figures emerged (Fig. 98):

Net income per person bands in €.
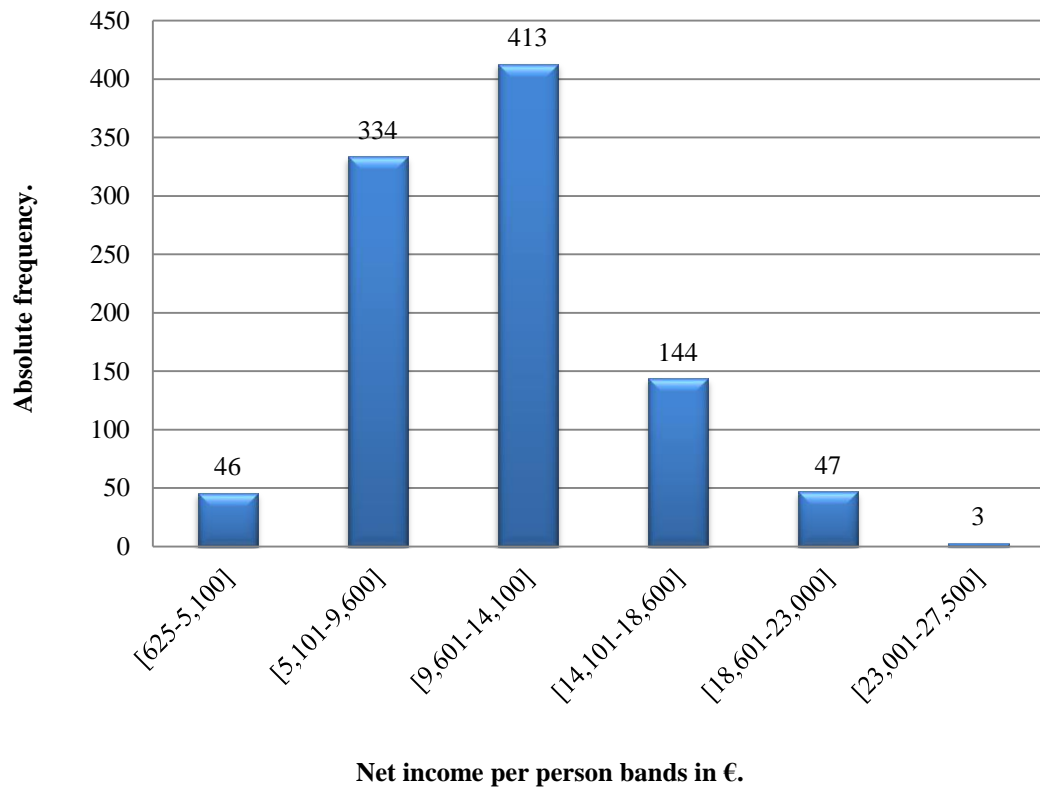
Figure 98. Absolute frequency regarding the annual net income per person. Question 4 (987 responses).

When we cross-tabulated variables 66b and 4 again, but looking this time at the income per person rather than per household, we obtained a chi-square value that affects 28.84% of the participants. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained (see Figure 99 below) shows high irregularities for bands "(Almost) every day" and "Quite often". However, the other three bands have more regular tendencies. In this respect, the relative number of children that view television in English from time to time rises steadily as income per person increases. Contrariwise, the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English grows as income per person decreases.

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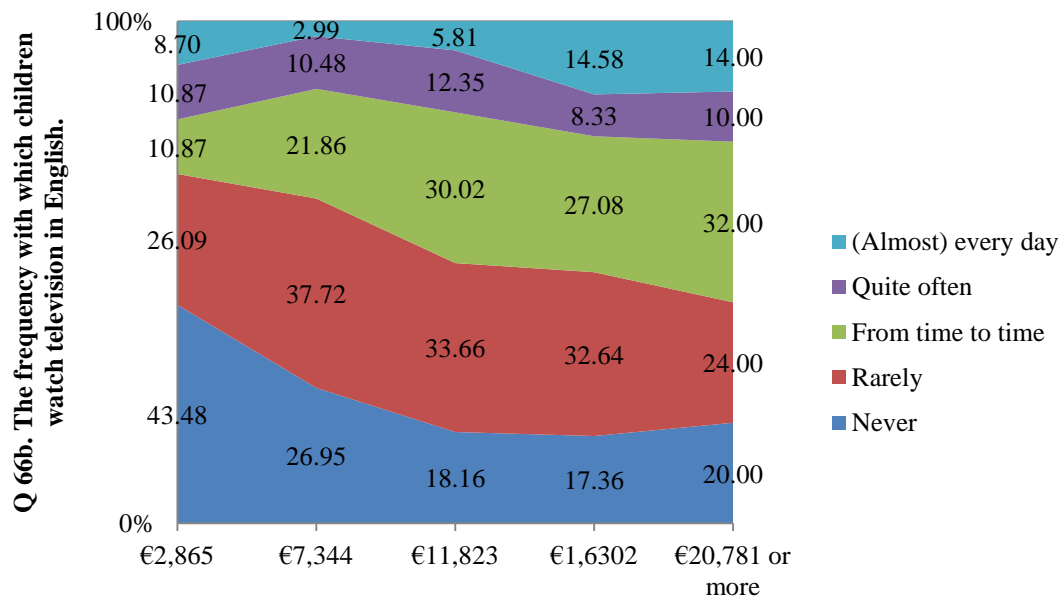
Figure 99. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and annual income PER PERSON. Questions 66b and 4 (987 responses).

When we applied the Pearson correlation coefficient test, we obtained a value for r = 0.16, which means that the degree of dependence between the two variables is very low.

However, despite the low degree of dependence between variables 66b and 4 observed in the two cross-tabulations that were carried out, what seems to emerge is a general tendency according to which, the frequency with which children view television in English tends to increase as the level of income rises.

The second variable used to measure the families' SES was the respondents' employment status. As Figure 100 illustrates, more than 50% of the participants claimed to be full-time employees. On the other hand, 9% of all respondents admitted being unemployed. This last figure falls significantly below the official unemployment rate for the Autonomous Community of Cantabria (14.07% in March 2017 according to INE).
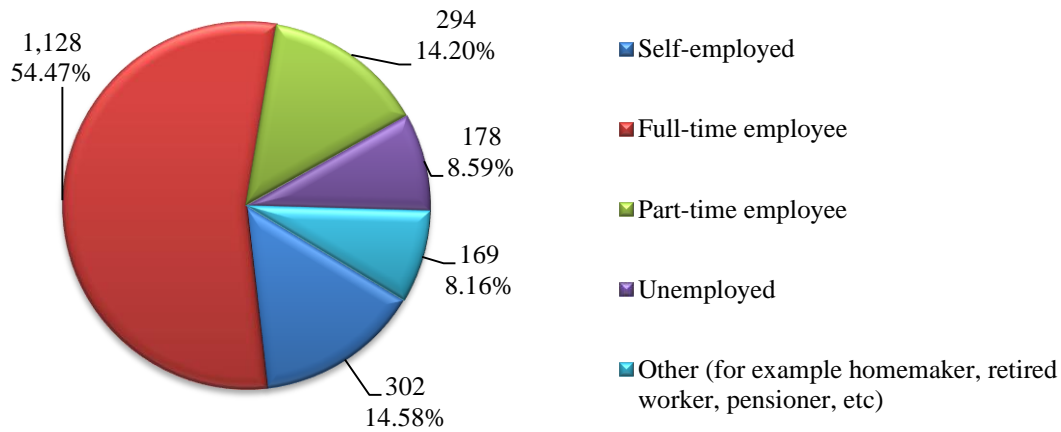
Figure 100. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning parents' employment status. Questions 8/37 (2,071 responses).

The chi-square value obtained (49.81%) leads us to conclude that parents' employment status (variable 8/37) does not play a very relevant role in the question of affecting variable 66b. However, notwithstanding the low value of the chi-square obtained, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies that emerged from the cross-tabulation reveals similar broad tendencies to the ones seen before, only that with more irregularities (see Figure 101 below).
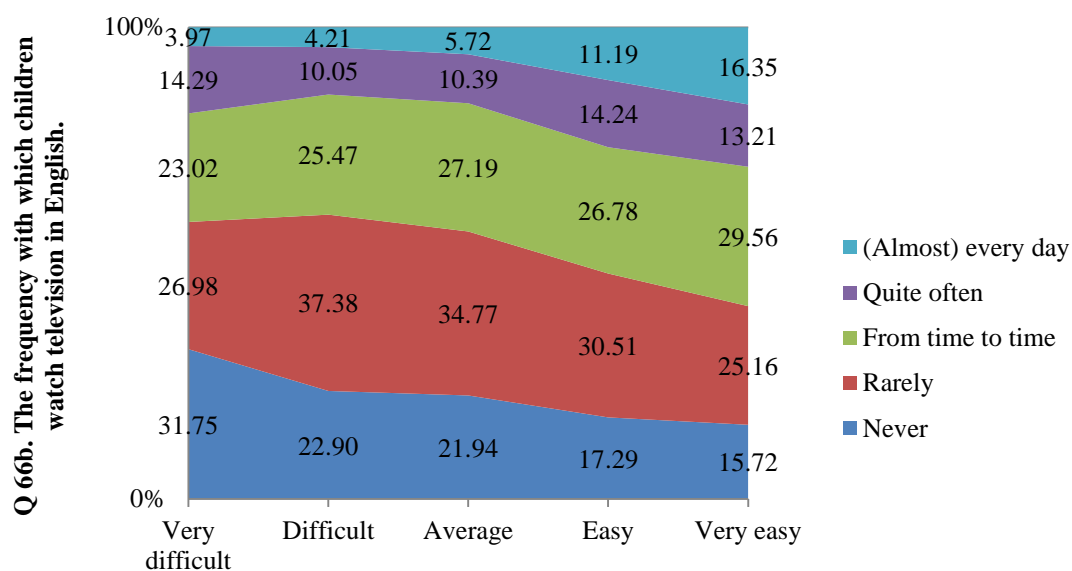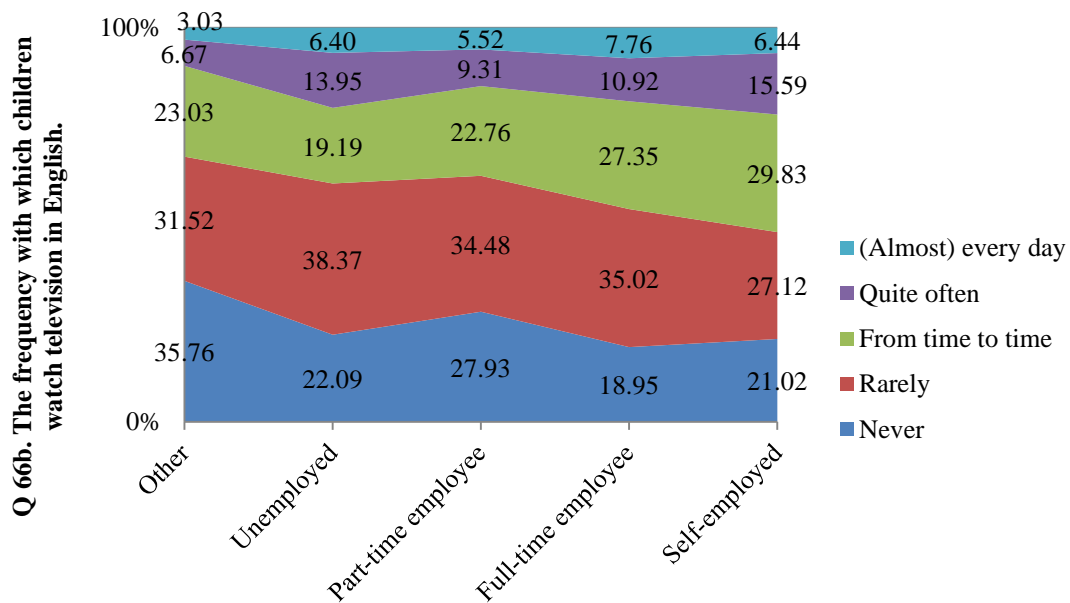

Qs 8/37. Parents' employment status.

Figure 101. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' employment status. Questions 66b and 8/37 (2,030 responses).

The third and last variable used to measure the families' SES was the respondents' jobs, which were classified into five categories. Figure 102 reveals a balanced distribution between groups 2, 3 and 4.

Junior staff, cleaner and helper, both in the private and public sectors. Labourer: construction, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, transport, mining ...... Peddler

Administrative assistant in both public and private companies. Personal services worker: cook, waiter, hairdresser, ... Shop assistant. Salesperson. Agricultural or fishery qualified worker. Qualified craftsman. Plant and machine operator. Heavy vehicles

Intermediate-level technician: engineering, construction, navigation, health, legal services, public administration, ... Officer of the armed forces

Manager of public or private companies. Scientific and intellectual professional: engineer, physicist, chemist, doctor, teacher (except foreign languages teachers), lawyer, architect, senior official in the government, high-ranking officer of the armed fo

Foreign languages teacher
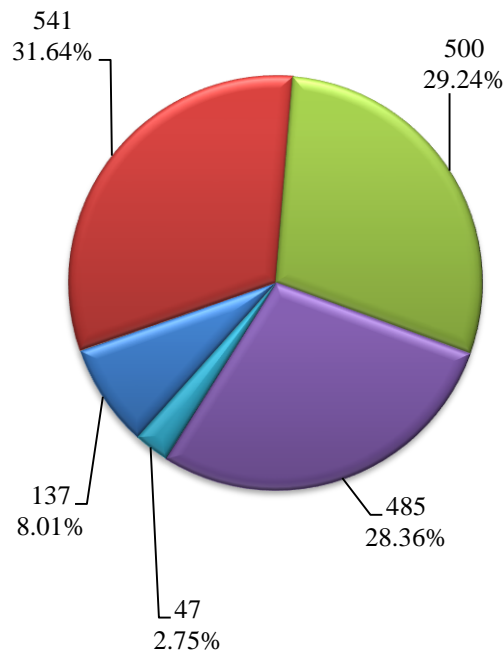
Figure 102. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding parents' job. Questions 9/38 (1,710 responses).

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As for the strength of the relationship between variable 66b and parents' job, we found that it was relevant for 80.76% of the participants. Furthermore, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained reveals the same tendency as in previous cross-tabulations. In this respect, as Figure 103 below shows, the relative number of children that (almost) always, quite often or from time to time view television in English grows with the quality of parents' job. And vice versa, the relative number of children that rarely or never view television in English rises as parents report to have less qualified jobs.
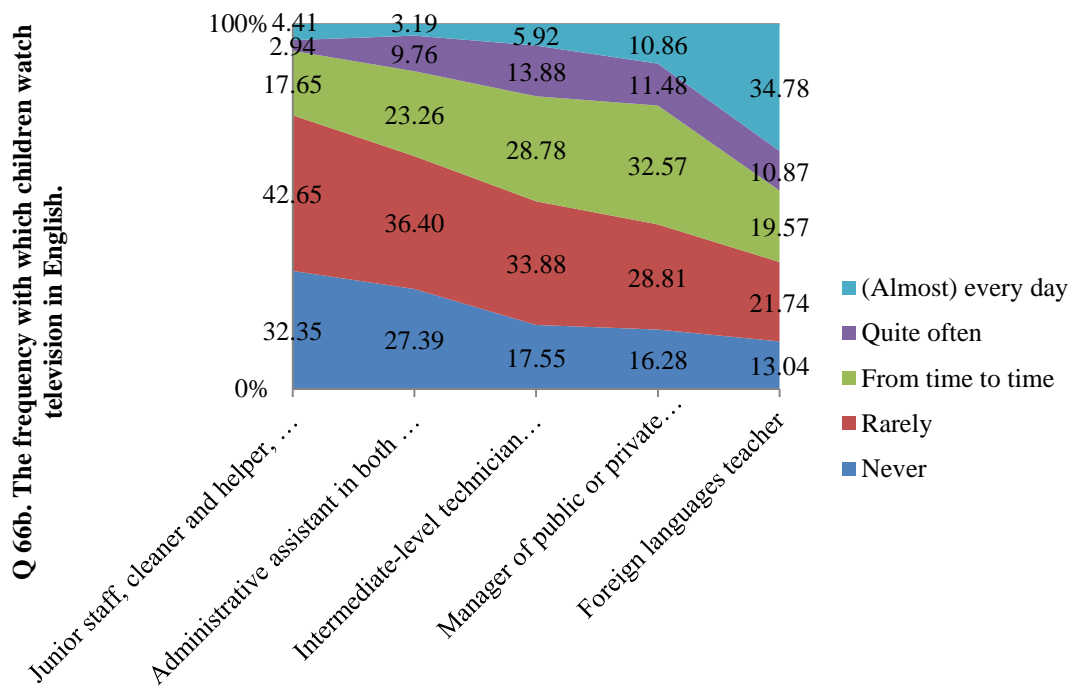
Figure 103. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' job. Questions 66b and 9/38 (1,684 responses).

We were particularly interested in learning about language practice within households in which at least one of the parents is a foreign languages teacher. As Figure 104 below illustrates, there appears to be a tendency towards higher consumption of television content in English among foreign language teachers' children.

Frequency with which foreign language teachers' children watch TV in English.
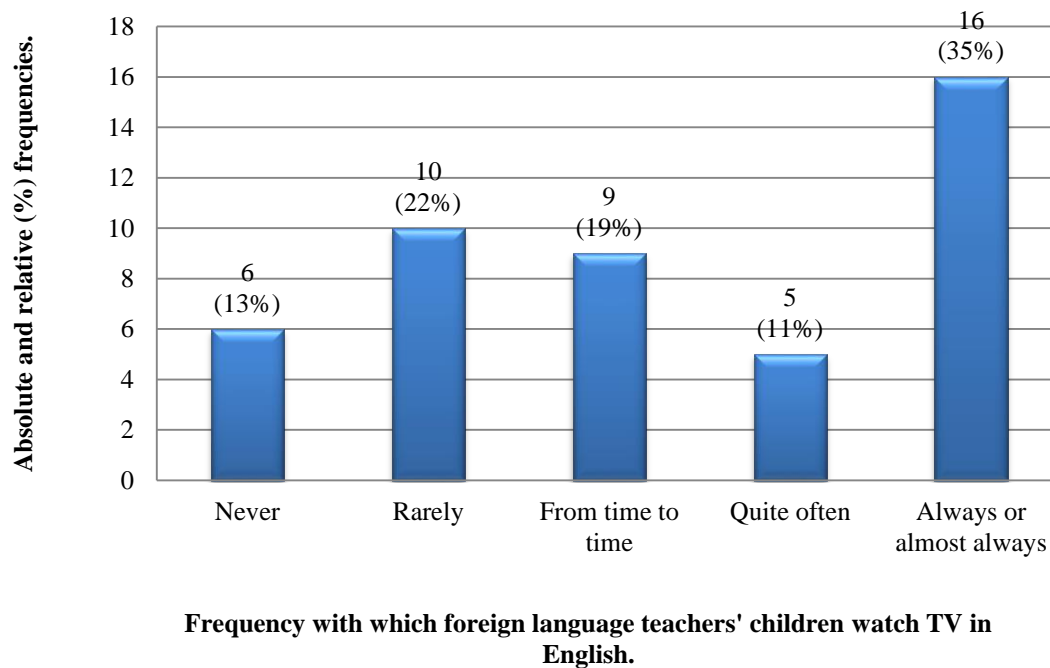
Figure 104. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies in connection with foreign language teachers whose children watch TV in English. Questions 9/38 (46 responses).

When we applied the chi-square test to Qs 9/38 without teachers, the degree of dependence that resulted reflects that 74.86% of the respondents are affected by such relationship.

Table 23. Chi-square test ($\chi2$): relative variation for Contingency Tables Qs 66b - 8/37 and *Qs 66b - 9/38*.

Qs 66b - 9/38	Parents' jobs including foreign languages teachers (1,684 responses)	80.76%
Qs 66b - 9/38	Parents' jobs excluding foreign languages teachers (1,638 responses)	74.86%
Qs 66b - 8/37	Parents' employment status (2,030 responses)	49.81%
Average (including foreign languages teachers)		65.28%
Average (excluding foreign languages teachers)		62.33%

To sum up, if we were to confirm the validity of our claim in section 2.4.3.1, based on King and Fogle's (2006) research, in which we stated that we are justified to expect children from less wealthy families to be viewing as much or as little television in English as children from wealthier backgrounds, thus making SES a less relevant factor, we would have to conclude that, for the sample under study, such statement is partially correct for the net income per person and for the employment status variables, and

incorrect for the job variable. However, our findings are fully in line with Li's conclusion (2007) that parents' occupational status more than their level of income is a more reliable predictor of parents' involvement.

4.5.1.4 Parental learning experiences and intergenerational transmission of FLP

Next we will try to elucidate whether there exists any correlation between the participants' television-mediated language learning experience and practice in relation to their own children, and thus try to prove King and Fogle's (2006) claim that many parents rely on their personal experiences with language learning when managing language policy within their own families.

Figure 105 shows that the vast majority of the respondents never (69%) or rarely (19%) had watched television, videos or DVDs at home to learn foreign languages during their school years.
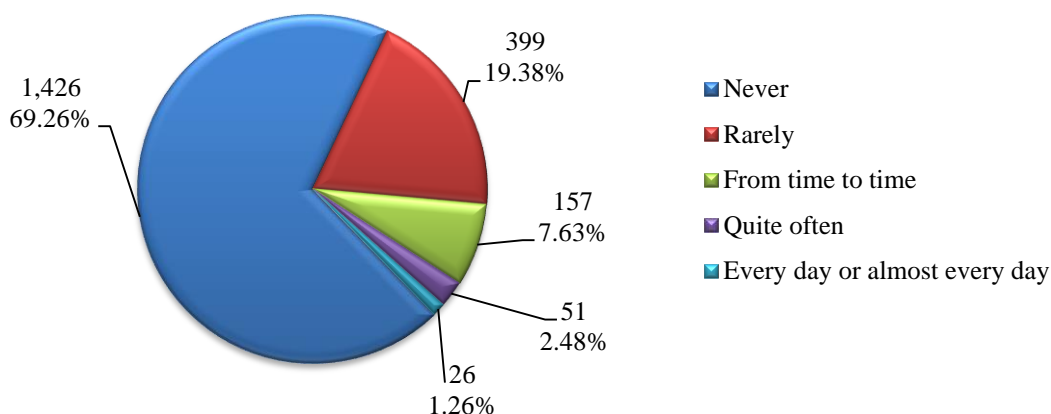
Figure 105. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies as regards whether parents used to watch television, videos or DVDs at home in another language when they were at school. Questions 12/41 (2,059 responses).

As regards the dependence relationship between variables 66b and 12/41, the chi-square test reveals a relatively weak relationship between them, which affects 66.06% of the participants, but which deserves to be taken into consideration. A look at the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies in Figure 106 below will let us see that there seems to be a tendency for children to be following in their parents' footsteps regarding the habit of watching television in English. Thus, the relative number of households where the children watch view television in English (almost) every day or quite often increases when the frequency with which their parents watched television in other

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languages during their school years rises too. By contrast, the relative number of children who rarely or never view television in English grows as the frequency with which their parents viewed television in other languages decreases.
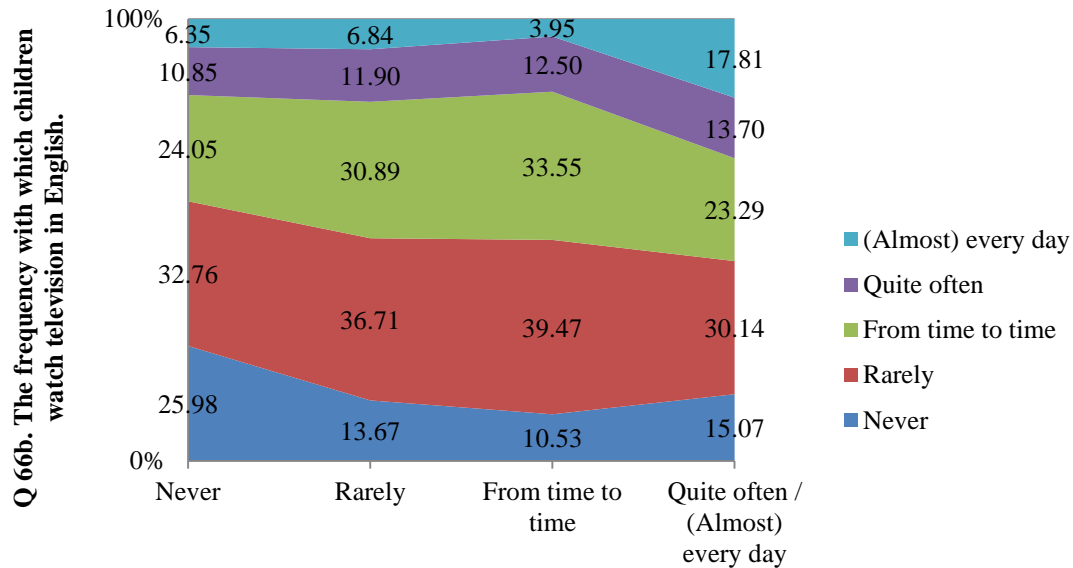
Qs 12/41. Whether parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language during their school years.

Figure 106. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and whether parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language during their school years. Questions 66b and 12/41 (2,021 responses).

Likewise, almost half of the respondents (49.52%) claimed to have had a positive experience learning foreign languages through television, video or DVDs sometime in their lives and only 4.81% affirmed to have had a negative experience (Fig. 107).
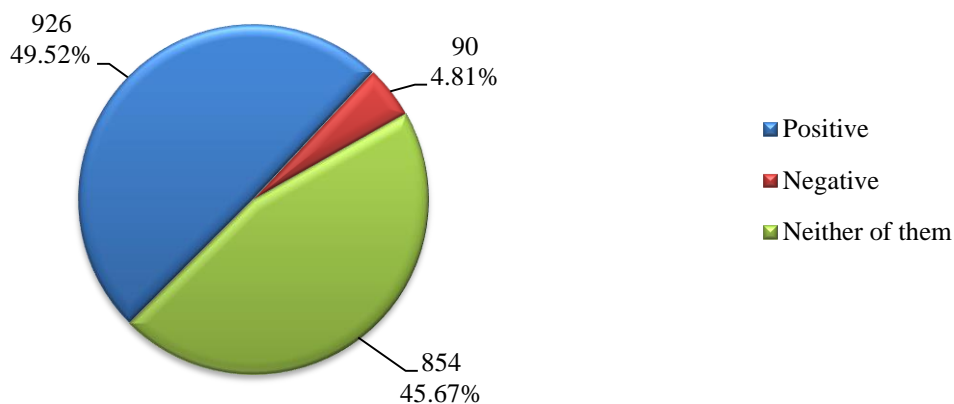
Figure 107. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning the quality of the experience of having learnt foreign languages through viewing TV, videos or DVDs sometime in the parents' lives. Questions 13/42 (1,870 responses).

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The chi-square test reveals another strong dependence between the variables, affecting 76.09% of the respondents. Such dependence seems to suggest that more children tend to watch television in English when their parents have had some kind of positive experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television sometime during their lifetime and this tendency is reversed when the parents' experience has been negative. In this respect, we can observe in Figure 108 below how the relative number of children who (almost) always, quite often or from time to time watch television in English is higher when parents' experiences have been positive, particularly with respect to parents' negative experiences. Contrarily, the relative number of children who rarely or never watch television in English is higher when parents' experiences have been negative.

Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 108. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' experience in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives. Questions 66b and 13/42 (1,839 responses).

Finally, we also asked parents how much their own experience from the time they were children had influenced their decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English. As Figure 109 shows, only 22.62% claimed that they had been quite influenced (11.08%) or influenced a lot (11.54%).
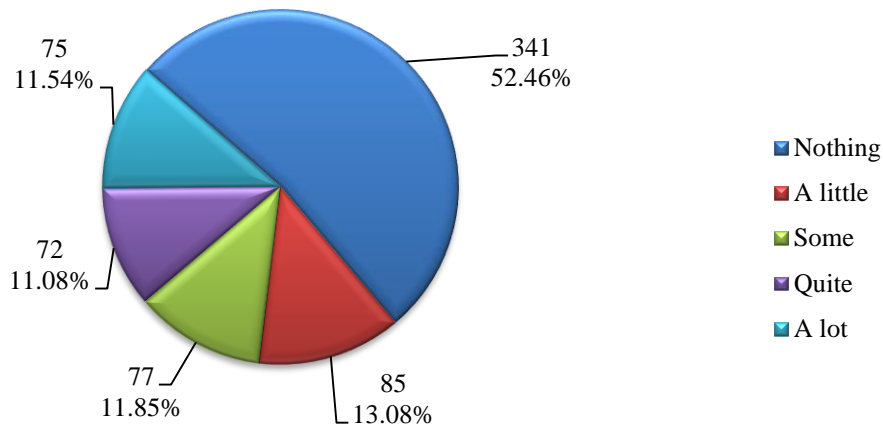
Figure 109. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding how much their own experience from the time they were children influenced parents in their decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English. Question 78a (650 responses).

The chi-square test reveals a weak relationship between the variables, affecting only 30.74% of the respondents. However, although only applicable to 30.74% of the participants, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies reveals similar tendencies to the ones seen before. Thus, we can see in Figure 110 below how the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time rises as parents claim to have been more and more influenced by their own learning experience in this respect. Conversely, the relative number of children that rarely watch television in English grows as parents claim to have been less and less influenced by their learning.
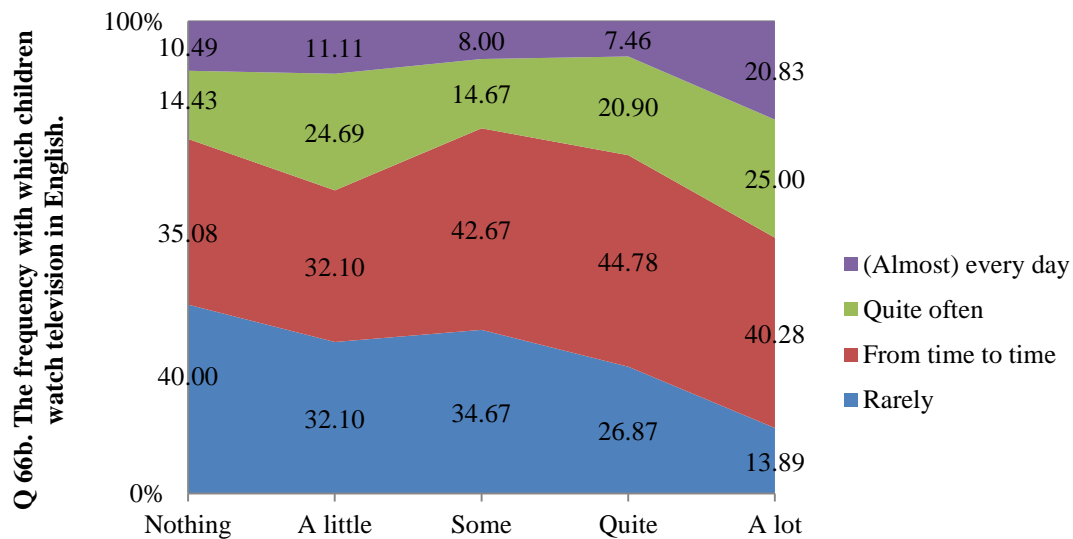
Figure 110. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and how much parents' own experience from the time they were children has influenced their decision to make their children view television in English. Questions 66b and 78a (600 responses).

To sum up this section, we can argue that King and Fogle's (2006) claim that many parents rely on their personal experiences with language learning when managing language policy within their own families applies to our sample in different ways. Thus, we have seen its relative validity for variable 12/41, which refers to whether parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language during their school years. More straightforward is the validity of variable 13/42, which measures parents' experiences regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives. However, this relationship weakens when parents are asked to verbalize it in Question 78a.

To conclude, we can argue that parental learning experiences seem to affect television-based foreign language acquisition by children.

4.5.1.5 Parents' age

The last intra-family factor under analysis refers to the degree by which television-mediated foreign language acquisition is influenced by parental age (Questions 5/34). For this factor, we had to merge the first four categories, those which comprised parents aged between 16 and 20, between 21 and 25, between 26 and 30 and between 31 and 35,

given the low number of participants within the first three bands, 3, 1 and 29 respectively. The chi-square value obtained indicates a low level of dependence between these two variables, as it only affects 39.54% of the participants (see Figure 111 below).
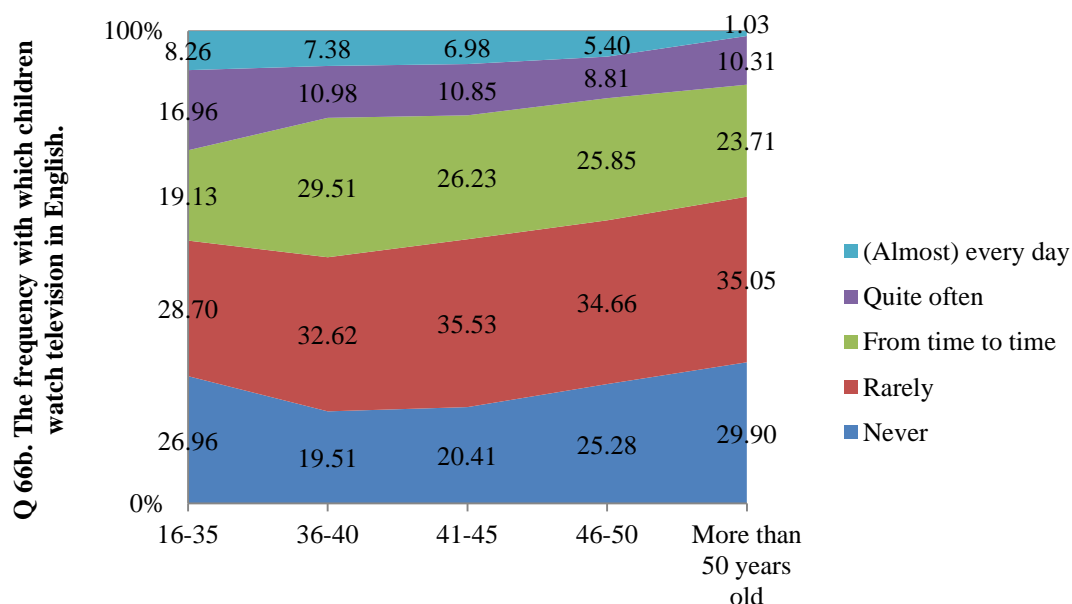
Figure 111. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and parents' age. Questions 66b and 5/34 (2,063 responses).

There are, however, some relevant elements that should be considered. These allude to the fact that the highest relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day or quite often occurs when parents are under 40 years of age and gradually decreases as parents grow older. This finding could be explained by the fact that, as we can see in Figure 112 below, the highest relative number of parents that used to watch television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language when they were at school corresponds to parents aged between 16 and 35. Likewise, the highest relative number of children that rarely or never view television in English occurs when their parents are more than 50 years old, which coincides with the findings in Figure 112 below, where we can observe how the highest relative number of parents that never or rarely watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language when they were at school corresponds to parents aged 50 or above.
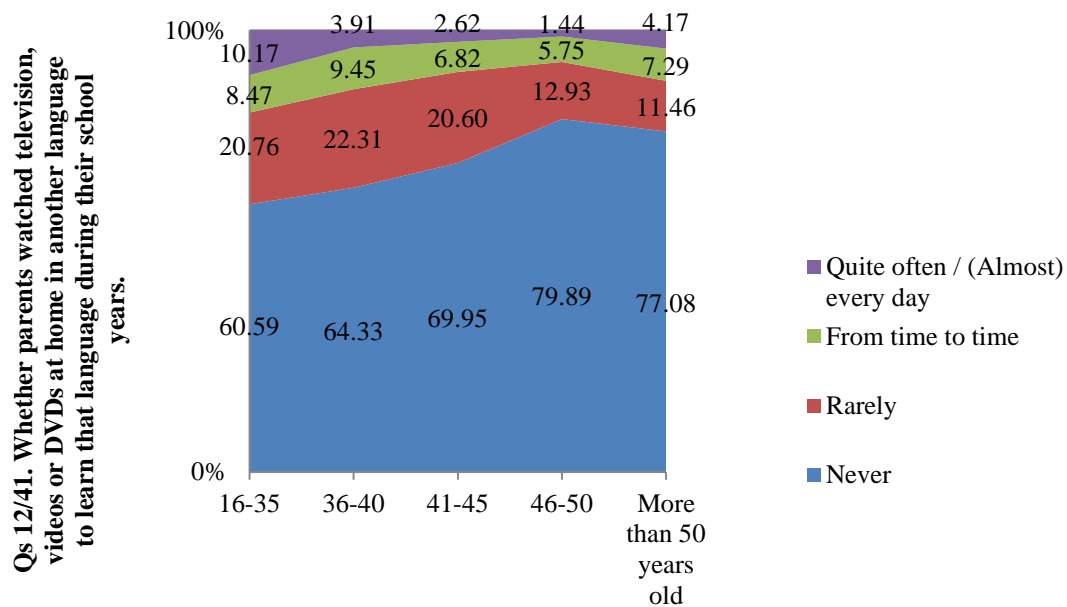
Figure 112. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language during their school years and parents' age. Questions 12/41 and 5/34 (2,056 responses).

However, in general terms, we can claim that Powell *et al.*'s (2006) conclusion that advancing age provides an advantage for children regarding parents' allocation of physical, human and social capital does not apply to our sample. On the contrary, we can affirm that, as far as television-mediated foreign language acquisition is concerned, more resources seem to be provided by younger parents.

We will conclude this section, devoted to the analysis of the role that intra-family elements play in this particular linguistic practice (variable 66b), claiming that unequal outcomes have emerged. Thus, we have found that pare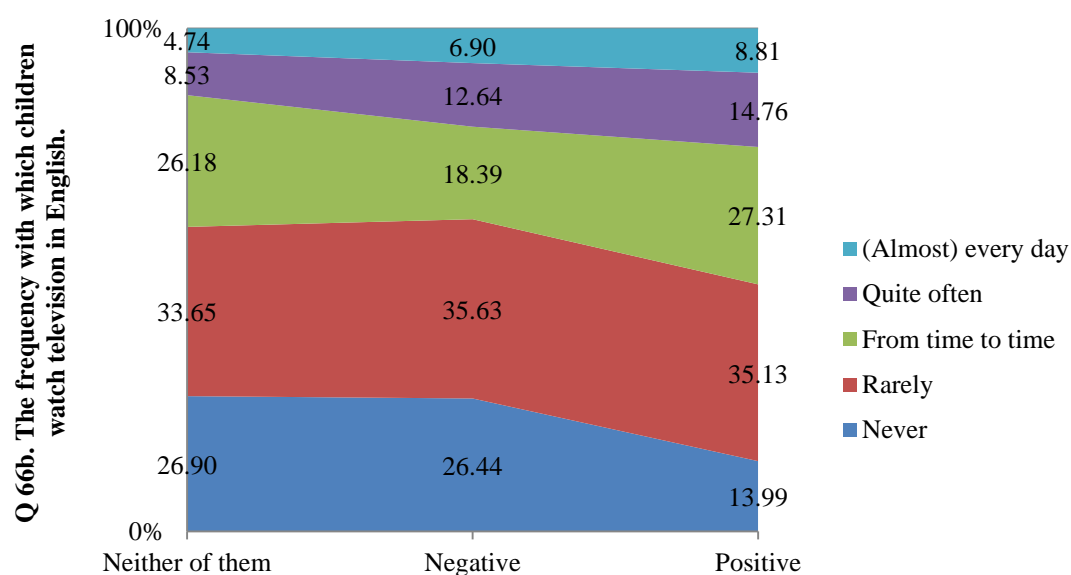nts' level of schooling, parents' level of English, parents' job and parents' experience in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives influence the frequency with which children view television in English, with dependence values affecting 70% or above of the participants in the study. By contrast, the role of parents' income, parents' employment status and parents' age is minimized by the lower levels dependence with variable 66b.

4.5.2 External factors

Finally, we looked at a series of external factors which, according to King and Fogle (2006), can influence parents' beliefs about good parenting practices in additive

contexts, namely parenting literature and popular press, expert advice, childcare professionals and more private personal sources such as family and friends' networks. As Figure 113 reveals, parents stated that the biggest influence to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been exercised by their own experience from the time they were children, followed by the school, specialised publications, friends, next the family and finally the media. However, the biggest group corresponds to those who claimed that they had not been influenced by anybody, as it had always been very clear to them.
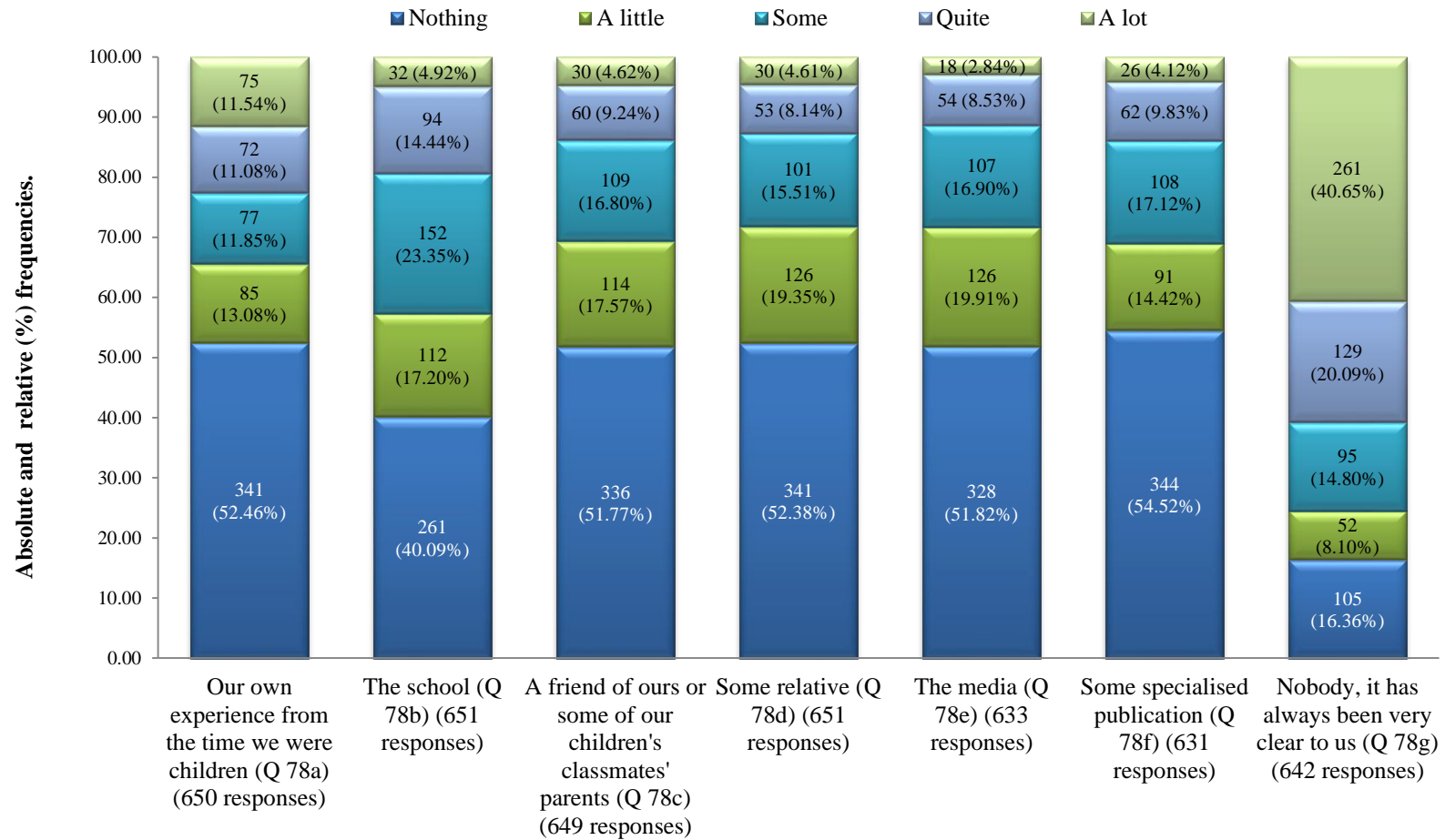
Figure 113. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies in connection with how much different factors influenced parents' decisión to make their children watch television or DVDs in English. Question 78 (644 responses on average).

A look at the relative variation obtained from applying the chi-square test reveals that a dependence relationship only exists for variables 78g (strong), 78a (weak) and 78d (very weak) (see Table 24 below). For the rest of the variables, there is no correlation at all. The contingency table for variable 78g (see APPENDIX D) seems to indicate that the relative number of children who watch television in English more often tends to increase when their parents have always had it clear that their children should do so, which could indicate a high degree of determination.

Table 24. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b - 78* (see APPENDIX D).

Who influenced your decision to make your children watch television or DVDs in English?		
Qs 66b - 78g	Nobody, it has always been very clear to us (637 responses)	83.91%
Qs 66b - 78a	Our own experience from the time we were children (646 responses)	34.91%
Qs 66b - 78d	Some relative (647 responses)	13.86%
Qs 66b - 78c	A friend of ours or some of our children's classmates' parents (645 responses)	-8.52%
Qs 66b - 78e	The media (629 responses)	-29.45%
Qs 66b - 78b	The school (647 responses)	-32.88%
Qs 66b - 78f	Some specialised publication (627 responses)	-70.13%

A closer look at how these external factors correlate with variable 66b will let us visualise some interesting data. For example, Figure 114 below shows the relative frequencies obtained when parents claim that each of the external factors has influenced 66b a lot.
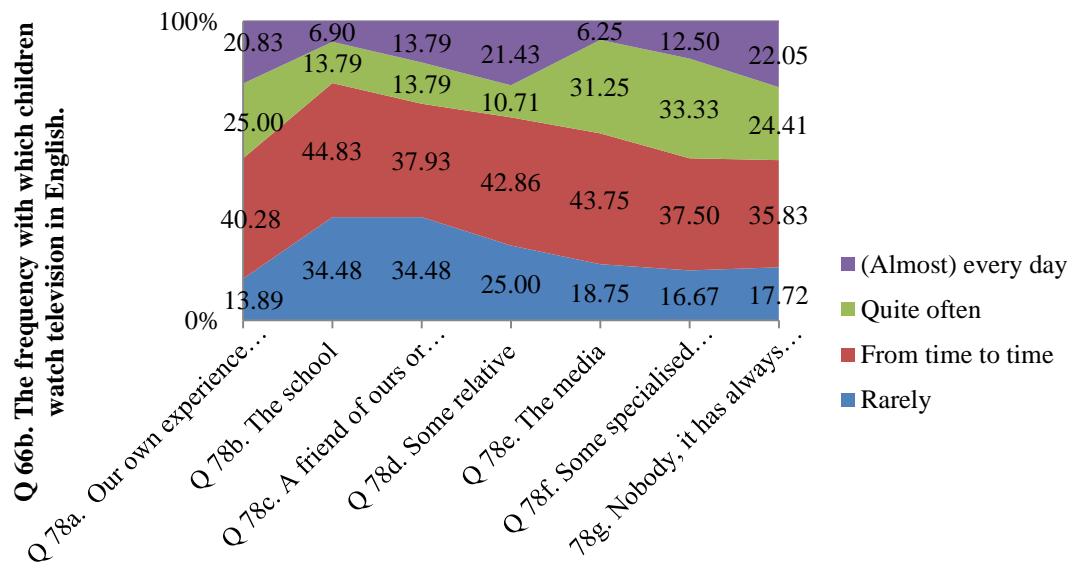
Q78. Who influenced A LOT your decision to make your children watch television or DVDs in English?

Figure 114. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children watch television in English and external factors when these influenced parents A LOT to make their children watch television or DVDs in English. Questions 66b and 78a – 78b – 78c – 78d – 78e – 78f – 78g (231 responses).

For example, in Figure 115 below, we can observe an influence rank showing how the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day varies depending on the origin of the influence. In this respect, we can see how the highest relative number of children that view television (almost) every day emerges when this linguistic practice has always been very clear to parents (variable 78g). This is followed by influence exerted by some relative (variable 78d) and by parents' own experience from the time they were children (variable 78a). By contrast, the lowest relative number of children that watch television (almost) every day emerges when parents report to have been very influenced by the school or by the media.
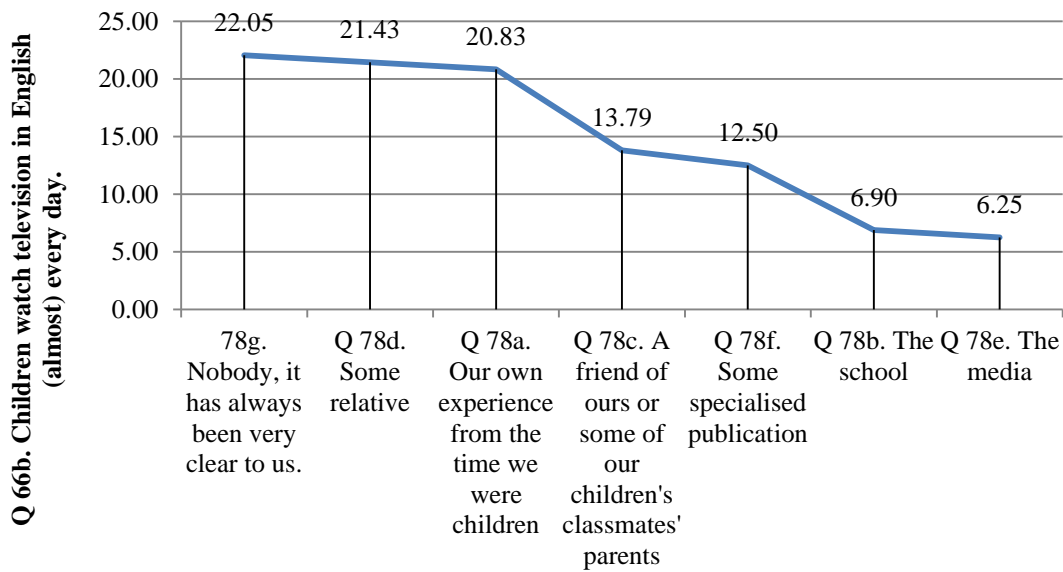
**Q 78. Who influenced A LOT your decision to make your children watch
television or DVDs in English?**

Figure 115. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the
frequency with which children watch television in English when they do it (almost) every day and
external factors when these influenced parents A LOT to make their children watch television or
DVDs in English. Questions 66b and 78a – 78b – 78c – 78d – 78e – 78f – 78g (231 responses).

However, if we take the opposite angle and look at children that rarely view television
in English, we can observe that the highest relative number corresponds to those whose
parents report to have been very influenced by the school. On the contrary, the lowest
relative numbers correspond to those families in which the parents admit to have been
very influenced by their own experience from the time they were children (Fig. 116).
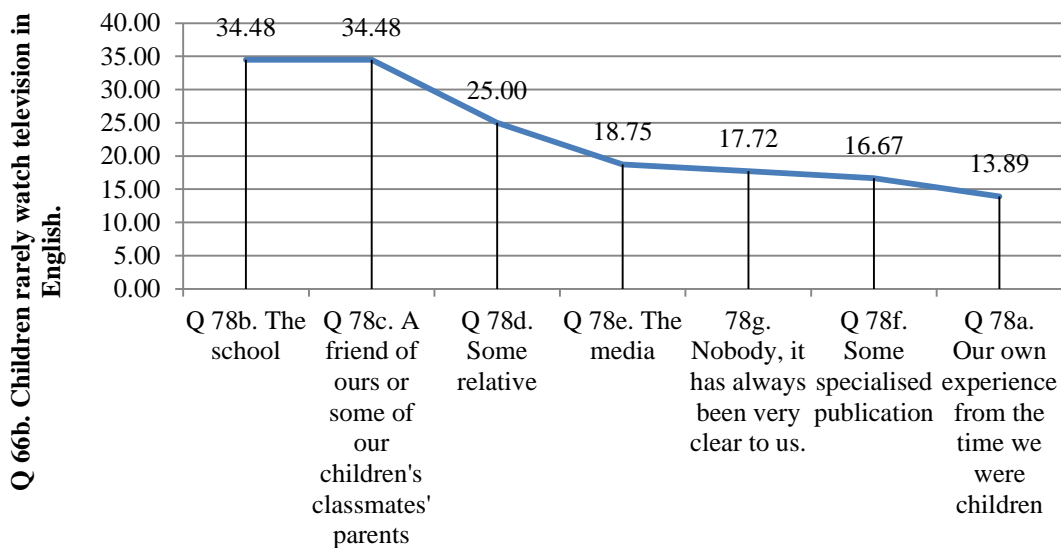
Q 78. Who influenced A LOT your decision to make your children watch television or DVDs in English?

Figure 116. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children watch television in English when they rarely do it and external factors when these influenced parents A LOT to make their children watch television or DVDs in English. Questions 66b and 78a – 78b – 78c – 78d – 78e – 78f – 78g (231 responses).

The conclusion that we can draw from this analysis is that parents' own experience learning a foreign language through television seems to be the most decisive factor when children watch television in English (almost) every day, whereas the school emerges as the least or one of the least decisive factors.

Additionally, a different approach to the data would allow us to draw similar conclusions. In this respect, if we look at Figure 117 below, we will observe how the relative number of parents that claim to have been influenced a lot by their own experience from the time they were children (variable 78g) or the relative number of parents who affirm that they have not been under the influence of any external factor (because it has always been clear to them that they should carry out the linguistic practice under study, namely variable 66b) rises when children watch television in English more frequently.
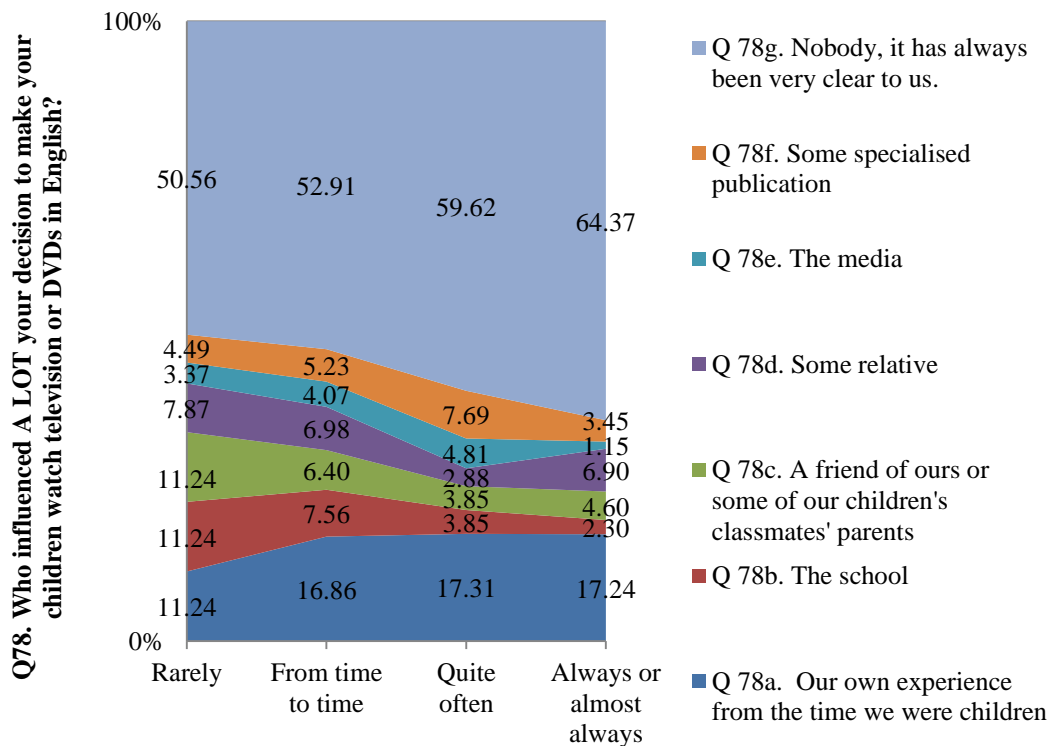
Q 66b. The frequency with which children watch television in English.

Figure 117. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between external factors when these influenced parents A LOT to make their children watch television or DVDs in English and the frequency with which children watch television in English. Questions 78a – 78b – 78c – 78d – 78e – 78f – 78g and 66b (231 responses).

Next, we will refer to the role of families' networks. As Figure 118 reflects, most parents (69.86%) stated that they do not share their experiences with other families in the same situation as regards their children watching television in English.
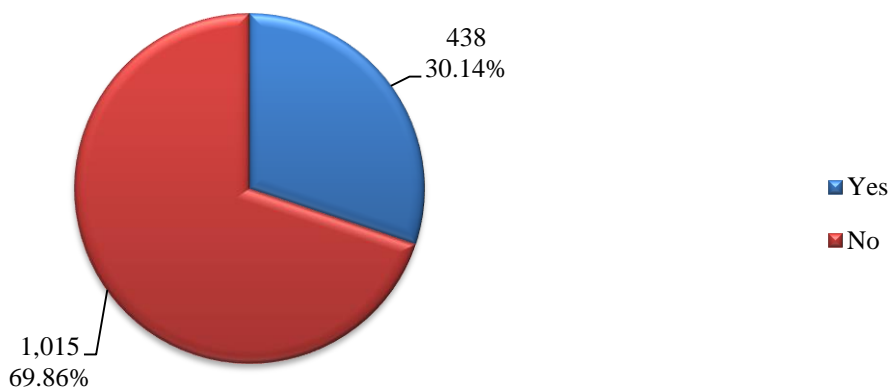
Figure 118. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies about whether parents normally share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English. Questions 80a/80b (1,453 responses).

Concerning whether talking about this issue with other families in the same situation helps parents manage this particular language practice, an overwhelming 73.92% claimed that it does not (Fig. 119).
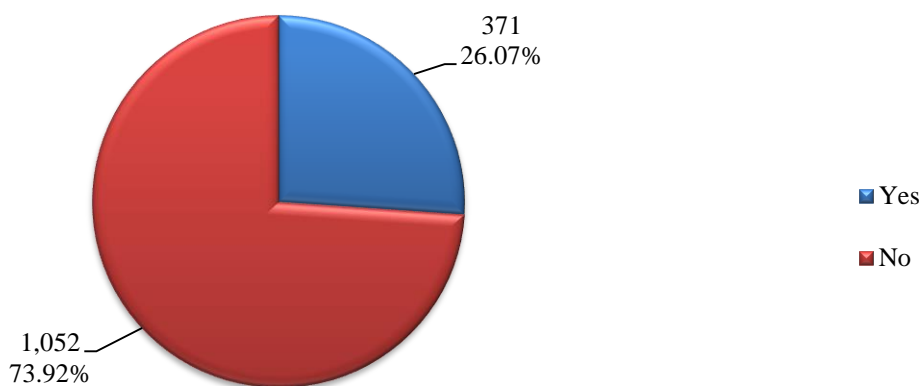
Figure 119. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies about whether it helps parents to talk about FLP with other families in the same situation. Questions 81a/81b (1,423 responses).

As far as variable 80a/80b is concerned, King and Fogle (2006) had predicted that beliefs can be influenced, among others, by more private sources such as friends networks. In this respect, the chi-square test reveals that there exists a very strong dependence between the two variables, affecting 91.06% of the participants. The pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies (see Figure 120 below) reveals that the relative number of children that watch television in English (almost) every day or quite often clearly rises when parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English. Contrariwise, the relative number of children that rarely or never view television in English distinctly grows when parents do not share their experiences with other families. Following Sheldon (2002), what may be happening here is that, as we had argued earlier in Chapter 2, through networking families may be obtaining guidance, encouragement, and emotional and instrumental support from other families in their everyday practice.
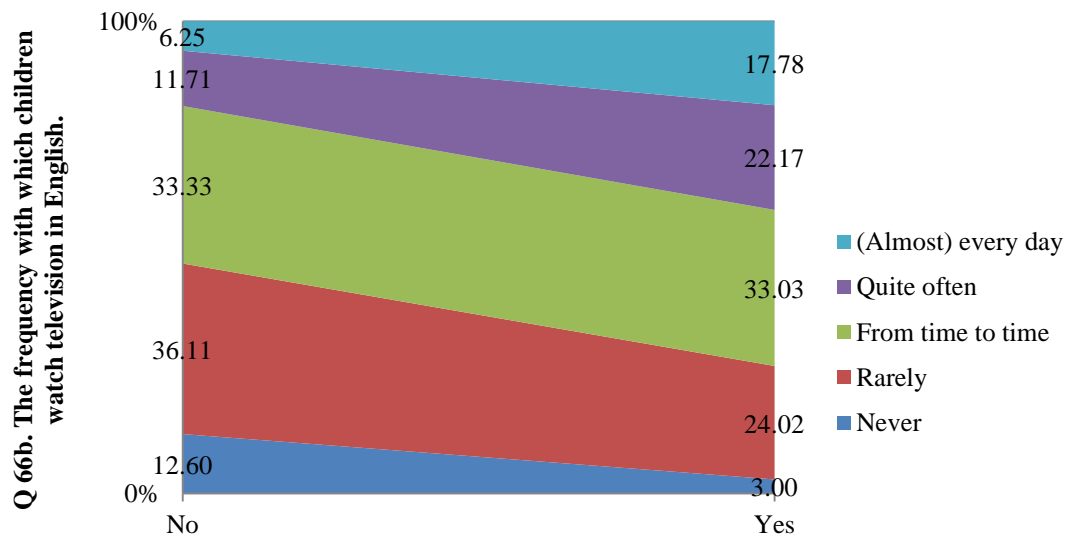
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 120. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children watch television in English and whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English. Questions 66b and 80a/80b (1,441 responses).

As for variable 81a/81b, which measured whether it helps parents when they talk about FLP with other families in the same situation, the chi-square test reveals a relatively strong relationship between the variables, which affects 65.14% of the respondents. As we can observe in the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies (see Figure 121 below), the relative number of children that view television in English (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time increases when parents state that sharing their children's linguistic practices with other families helps them. By contrast, the relative number of children that rarely or never view television in English rises when parents admit that discussing their children's linguistic practices with other families does not help them. Referring to Sheldon (2002) once more, we could argue that this relatively strong correlation seems to indicate that social networks help encourage the exchange of information, shape beliefs and enforce norms of behaviour.
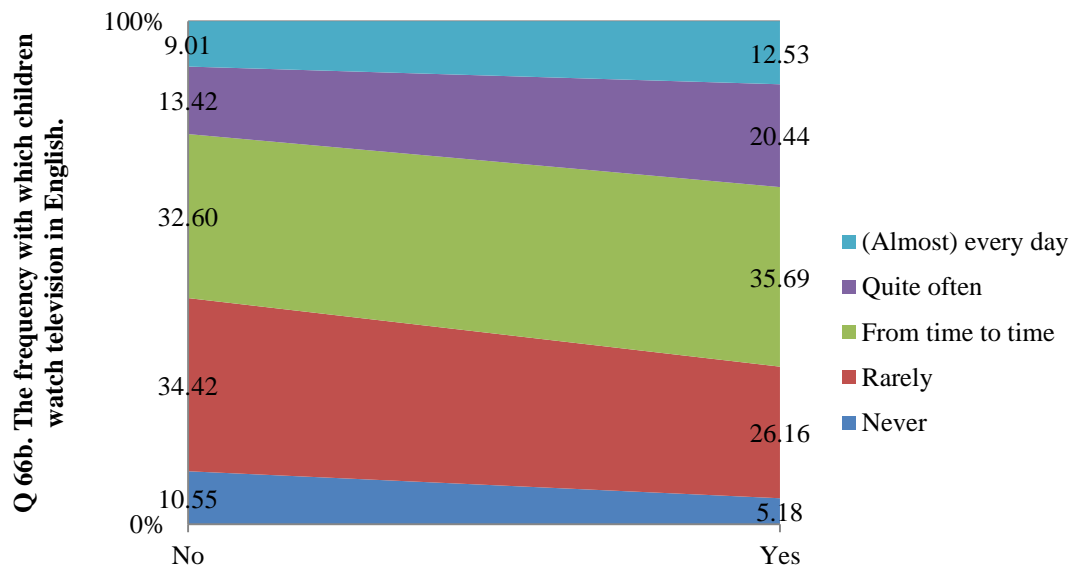
Qs 81a/81b. Whether it helps parents when they talk about FLP with other families in the same situation.

Figure 121. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children watch television in English and whether it helps parents when they talk about FLP with other families in the same situation. Questions 66b and 81a/81b (1,410 responses).

We can therefore conclude that, for our sample, networking seems to play an important role in shaping family language practice (see Table 25 below).

Table 25. Chi-square test (χ^2): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b – 80a/80b* and *Qs 66b – 81a/81b* (see APPENDIX D).

Qs 66b – 80a/80b	Parents sharing their experiences with other families (1,441 responses)	91.06%
Qs 66b - 81a/81b	Parents getting help from talking about this language practice with other families (1,410 responses)	65.14%
Average		78.10%

The last point of analysis deals with the influence of identitarian factors, which had already been introduced in the Literature Review chapter. In this respect, we questioned parents if they thought that watching television in English could contribute to the loss of their own culture, to which 96.14% of parents answered negatively (Fig. 122).
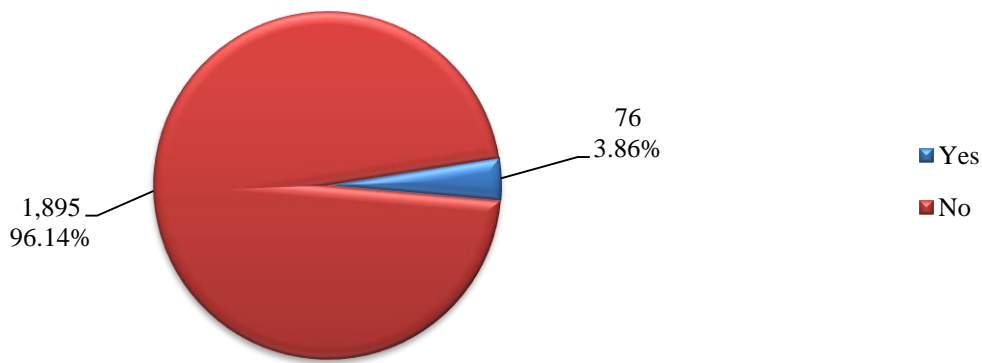
Figure 122. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning whether parents think that viewing television in English will contribute to the loss of their own culture. Questions 28/57 (1,971 responses).

Likewise, when questioned if they thought that learning other languages could endanger their own language, again 99.05% of parents answered that they believed it could not (Fig. 123).
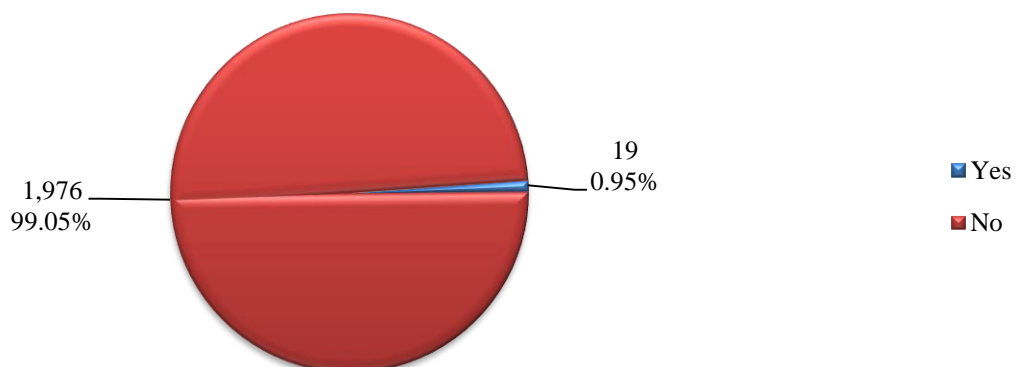
Figure 123. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies regarding whether parents think that learning other languages could endanger their own language. Questions 29/58 (1,995 responses).

Before looking at how these two variables that measured the perceived vitality of Spanish language and culture are affected by other factors that make up family language policy, which will be analysed further below, we might draw the conclusion that Spanish language and culture seem to enjoy strong levels of vitality, always according to parents' responses.

The chi-square test reveals very weak dependence relationships between the variables studied. For the correlation between variables 66b and 28/57, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies shows that, except for band "(Almost) every day", the rest of

the bands behave in similar ways to what we had seen before. Thus, the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English is higher when parents think that viewing television in English will contribute to the loss of their children's own culture. On the other hand, the relative number of children that watch television in English quite often or from time to time is higher when parents think that viewing television in English will not contribute to the loss of their children's own culture. However, on this occasion, the distribution of relative frequencies concerning those children that more frequently watch television in English is less clear because the pattern within band "(Almost) every day" is the opposite to band "Quite often" (Fig. 124).

Qs 28/57. Whether parents think that viewing television in English will contribute to the loss of their own culture.
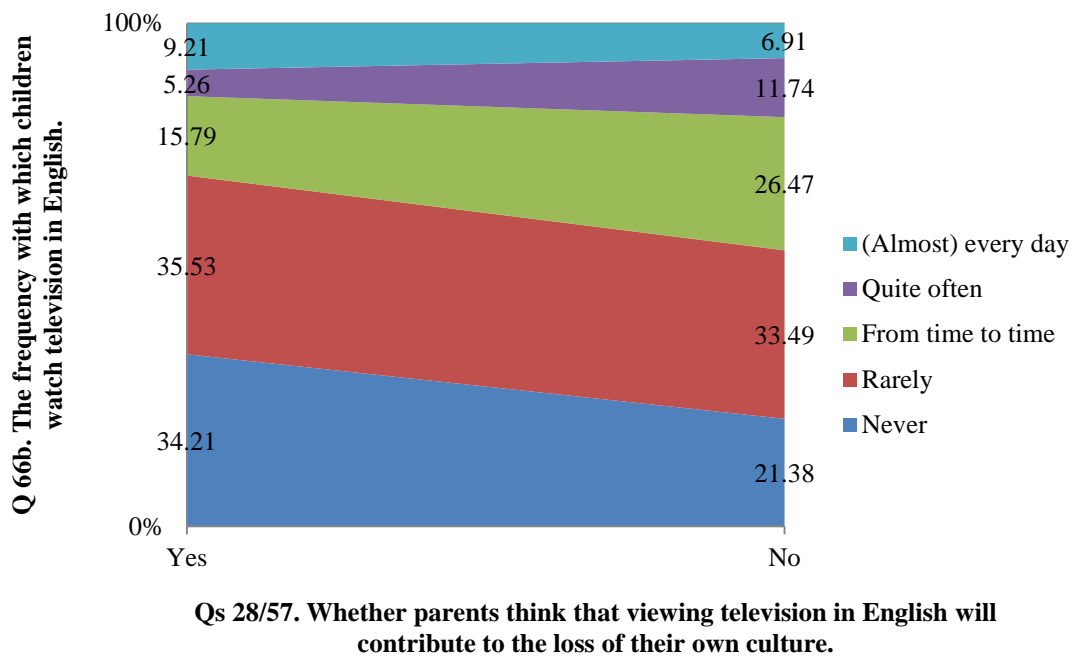
Figure 124. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and whether parents think that viewing television in English will contribute to the loss of their own culture. Questions 66b and 28/57 (1,942 responses).

Regarding variables 66b and 29/58, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies shows again very conclusive tendencies. In this way, we can observe how the relative number of children that (almost) every day, quite often or from time to time view television in English is significantly higher when parents do not think that this will contribute to the loss of their children's own language. By contrast, the relative number of children that rarely or never watch television in English is clearly higher when parents believe that this will contribute to the loss of their children's own culture. These

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findings, however, can be put in question because the result is not totally reliable given that 30.00% of the cells have distribution figures below 5 and the value of the chi-square test obtained only affects 39.03% of the respondents (Fig. 125).
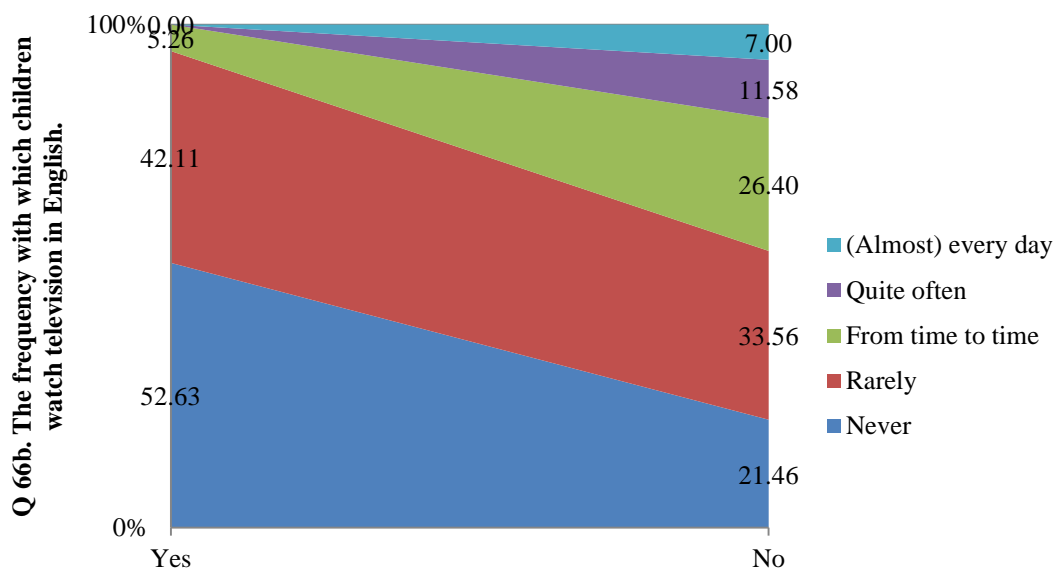
Figure 125. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view television in English and whether parents think that viewing television in English could endanger their own language. Questions 66b and 29/58 (1,962 responses).

Table 26. Chi-square test ($\chi 2$): relative variation for Contingency Tables *Qs 66b - 28/57* and *Qs 66b - 29/58* (see APPENDIX D).

Qs 66b - 29/58	Do you think that learning other languages could endanger our own language? (1,992 responses)	39.03%
Qs 66b - 28/57	Do you think that viewing television in English will contribute to the loss of our own culture? (1,996 responses)	20.90%
Average		29.97%

We end here the analysis and discussion of the data obtained from the questionnaires, in which we have attempted to give answers to the first two research questions formulated above. A summary of the findings is given in the next section.

4.6 Preliminary conclusions

The study has revealed that, for the sample under analysis, very few parents (less than 20%) use television on a regular basis to help their children improve their level of English. In this way our initial prediction, which was posed in Chapter 1, can be said to be correct.
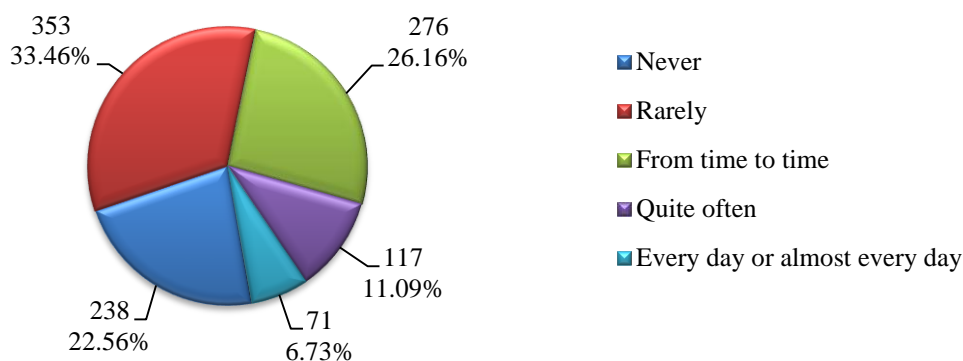
Figure 10. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning how often children have contact with English through television programmes. Question 66b (1,055 responses).

4.6.1 The typical respondent

We had outlined further above that the typical respondents, represented as the mode in each of the measurements done, are the parents of a 4-member family with an average net income of around €11,000 per person/year (around €44,000 per family), who have been born in Spain and live in Santander, the capital city of the Autonomous Community of Cantabria. The participants are aged between 36 and 45, only have one first language (Spanish), have completed a higher education programme and are also typically full-time employees whose jobs are within the two lowest categories of the scales provided (see Table 12 above). We can now complete the description affirming that when they were at school, they never watched television or DVDs in another language at home but have had some positive experiences regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs sometime in their lives. At the time of the research, parents typically never viewed television in English although, those who did, shared the viewing with their children from time to time. Finally, they never used English with their spouse, with their parents or at work, and they rarely spoke English to their children.

Concerning their proficiency in the target language, the typical respondents have a low-intermediate level of English and understand between nothing and 25% of television or DVDs in English without subtitles.

As regards their beliefs about foreign language acquisition, the typical participants think that very early acquisition is essential to help their children reach an excellent command of English. In fact, they believe that the best age to start learning a foreign language is before three and that very early acquisition of a second language does not affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue. They also consider that watching television and DVDs in English is very useful to learn the language and that both the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt simultaneously.

Concerning the participants' beliefs about their role in their children's foreign language acquisition process, the typical respondents are convinced that both the parents and the education system should take the initiative on how children learn a foreign language and that the best way to influence their children so that they watch television in English is motivating them.

If we talk about their beliefs regarding the usefulness of English for different situations of everyday life, we can conclude that the typical participants think that English is more useful for the instrumental than for the integrative purposes analysed.

With respect to their attitudes and ideologies, the characteristic participants are a bit interested in learning foreign languages and in Anglo-Saxon culture, and quite interested in English. They agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast their foreign content in the original version with subtitles.

In relation to language managing, the participants typically never ask their children about the language in which they want to watch television or DVDs, and sometimes or always accept to change the language back to Spanish when their children ask for it.

Finally, in the case of those parents whose children watch television in English, such language policy has not been influenced by any of the channels proposed, such as the school or specialised publications. They do not normally share their experiences with other families who apply the same language policy and, when they do, they do not feel that this helps them with their everyday management. Neither do they believe that learning other languages can endanger their culture or their own language.

Their children rarely watch television or DVDs in English. As a matter of fact, they watch television or DVDs in Spanish 90% of the time. Neither do they speak English with their parents, siblings or friends on a regular basis, and they first started to have regular contact with English at the age of three. They never read in English or play video games in English, exchange e-mails or videoconference with friends abroad. However, they often have private lessons or go to a language academy, and they often listen to music in English.

4.6.2 Television-mediated foreign language acquisition

As regards how television-mediated foreign language acquisition is affected by the different factors under analysis, the following conclusions are offered by way of summary.

First of all, concerning shared linguistic practices within the family, we found that the receptive and the productive use of English among parents and children is very limited, both for television consumption or as a means of oral communication among members of the family. This should not surprise us as we are dealing with a sample in which the overwhelming majority of the respondents have Spanish as their only first language (95.12%) and as few as 0.34% have English as their only first language or as one of their first languages. What should draw our attention, however, is an idea that has already emerged in this thesis, namely, the fact that only 32.08% of the parents interviewed admitted never speaking English to their children, whereas the remaining 67.92% rarely (32.37%), from time to time (26.27%), quite often (6.90%) or (almost) every day (2.38%) speak English to their children. What we seem to have here is, on the one hand, an attempt by monolingual parents to raise their children bilingually by means of trying to engage them in oral interactions and, on the other, a negative response from children, as we learnt from cross-tabulating the answers to questions 17b/46b with the answers to questions 65a/65b. This fully coincides with what we have observed within our professional network, networks of friends and acquaintances, and with the writer's own experience of unsuccessfully trying to obtain positive reactions from his first child when inconsistently interacting with him in English. If we should, therefore, summarise the findings in one sentence, we could conclude affirming that, although incipient, there seems to exist a growing number of parents who have taken it into their hands to raise their children bilingually but who lack the necessary linguistic

and scientific knowledge on the one hand, and the determination to pursue their goal on the other. Generally speaking, children view television in English with more frequency in those families in which the usage of English among parents and children in the rest of the variables increases. In other words, children watch television in English with more frequency in those families in which parents watch television in English too, share television-viewing in English with their children, use English with their children, speak English to each other and to their friends, and use English at work. Likewise, children who use English with their parents, with their siblings and with their friends also tend to view television in English with more frequency.

Regarding children's individual linguistic practices, what the data analysed has taught us is that the families of our sample seem to prefer traditional means such as private lessons, language academies or listening to music so as to facilitate children's contact with English. In this respect, we found that children view more television in English when they also view DVDs in English, when they have private lessons or go to a language school, when they read, listen to music and play video games in English, and finally when they exchange e-mails or videoconference with friends abroad in English.

Concerning the different categories of parental beliefs, attitudes and ideologies about which the respondents were questioned, the following findings were obtained.

First, regarding parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition, we found that television-mediated foreign language acquisition among children is more frequent when parents have more positive beliefs about the usefulness of early acquisition and television-mediated foreign language acquisition to help children reach higher levels of English, when parents believe that the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt simultaneously, that very early acquisition of a second language does not affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue and when parents have high expectations regarding their children's future level of attainment in English.

Next, when we asked parents about the best way to influence their children to view television in English, we found that children watch television in English in those homes in which the parents believe that their own example and negotiation with their children were the best options.

As for the usefulness of English in a number of situations of everyday life, we learnt that children view television in English more frequently when their parents have more positive beliefs about the usefulness of English for travelling, for their personal life, to get a job or change it, for their personal satisfaction, to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies.

In relation to parental attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture, we found that television-mediated foreign language acquisition is more common among children when parents have more positive attitudes towards these three items.

And finally, we also discovered that television-mediated foreign language acquisition is more frequent in those families in which parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles.

When we analysed how families plan and manage language policy in relation to foreign language acquisition, we learnt that children view television in English more frequently when they first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis at an earlier age, for example because English was spoken at home, watching television in English, attending school classes, etc. Similarly, children tend to watch television in English with more frequency when parents ask their children about the language in which they want to view television, when children do not ask their parents to change the language back to Spanish if they are watching television in English and, finally, if children ask to have the language changed to Spanish but parents tend to stick to their initial decision in one way or another.

Next we found that, as far as intra-family factors are concerned, children view television in English more frequently in those families in which parents have higher levels of schooling completed, higher levels of English and when English was very easy for them during their school years. Television-mediated foreign language acquisition is also more common in those families in which parents have better jobs and when parents have enjoyed the opportunity to learn a foreign language through television, either during their school years or later in their lives. Finally, the frequency with which children view television in English rises among younger parents.

We will also refer to the role played by external factors in shaping television-mediated foreign language acquisition. In this respect, we can affirm that, in general terms, children tend to watch television in English with more frequency in those families in which the parents share their experience with their children's television-mediated foreign language acquisition with other families, when parents claim that sharing such experience helps them manage their own linguistic policy and when parents believe that television-mediated foreign-language acquisition cannot endanger Spanish language and culture.

What has been said so far regarding the factors that have an influence over family language practice can be complemented with what parents themselves answered when asked about the reasons why their children do not watch television in English. As we can see in Table 27 and Figure 126 below, the two main reasons why children do not watch television or DVDs in English are, first of all, that parents give up when children complain, arguing that they do not understand, and secondly that parents do not understand English very well and prefer to watch television with their children in Spanish. These findings are in line with the patterns of distribution of relative frequencies that emerged after cross-tabulating variables 66b and 72a/72b on the one hand, and 66b and 15/44 on the other. Thus, the pattern of distribution corresponding to the cross-tabulation between variables 66b and 72a/72b reveals that the relative number of children that never or rarely view television in English clearly increases when parents always change the language back to Spanish when requested by their children (see Figure 87 above). Likewise, the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies corresponding to variables 66b and 15/44 shows that there is a clear tendency for the relative number of children that never or rarely watch television in English to grow as parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled television in English becomes lower (see Figure 94 above).

Finally, when parents were given the opportunity to say in an open question why children do not watch television in English, the most frequent answers related to the fact that the children hardly ever watch television at all, or that they complain and parents are reluctant to resist their wishes.

Table 27. Reasons why children do not watch television or DVDs in English. Question 67 (882 responses).

	Total	%
Because our children complain that they don't understand and ask to change back to Spanish.	409	46.37%
We don't understand English very well and we prefer to watch television with our children in Spanish.	155	17.57%
We don't like the contents shown on television.	67	7.60%
Because our children are too young and we prefer to wait until they are a bit older.	54	6.12%
We don't have digital television.	43	4.88%
We don't have a DVD player.	41	4.65%
We select English from the menu but later we change back to Spanish because we think that the children don't understand.	41	4.65%
We didn't know that watching television in English was useful for learning this language.	26	2.95%
We didn't know that you could select different languages.	25	2.83%
We believe that it does not help to learn English.	7	0.79%
We are worried that early acquisition of English can interfere with the proper acquisition of their mother tongue.	7	0.79%
We were recommended not to do it.	7	0.79%
Total	882	100.00%
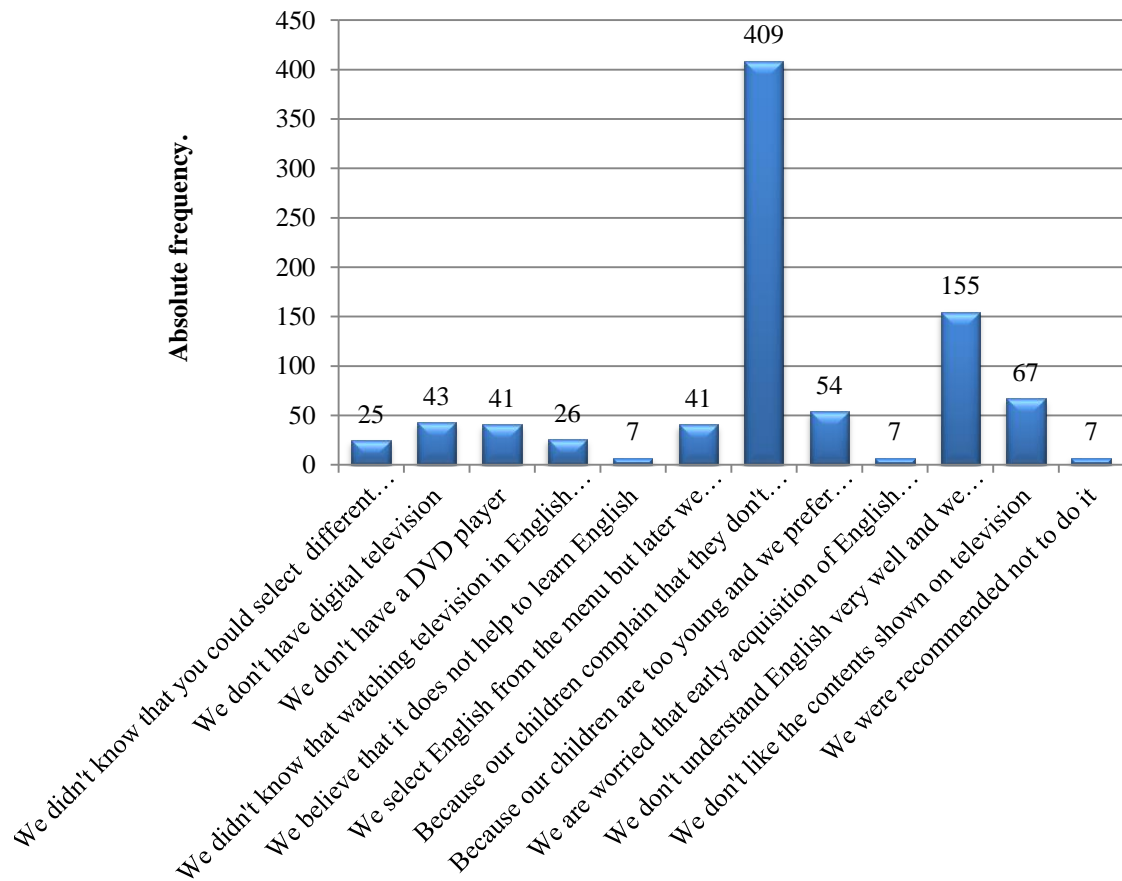
Figure 126. Absolute frequency regarding why, according to parents, their children do not watch televisión or DVDs in English. Question 67 (882 responses).

The information gathered so far has enabled us to construct a rank of dependence relationships between language practice (Q 66b) and the different variables under analysis (see Table 28 below).

In this way, a look at Table 28 reveals that 36 out of the 60 factors analysed show correlation degrees that affect more than 70% of the participants, which can be considered to be very strong dependence relationships.

Table 28. Dependence relationships strength rank.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree
66b – 66c	How often children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc).	98.84%
66b – 18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English without subtitles too.	95.70%
66b – 24c/53c	Parents' opinion about the importance of watching TV in English.	93.17%
66b – 65a/65b	How often children used English to talk to their parents.	93.03%
66b – 17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children.	92.69%
66b – 71a/71b	How often children ask their parents to change back to Spanish?	92.50%
66b – 64	The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis.	92.36%
66b – 80	Whether or not parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.	91.06%
66b – 30/59	The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.	90.65%
66b – 72a/72b	What parents do when their children ask them to change back to Spanish.	89.31%
66b – 15/44	Parents' level of listening skills.	89.19%
66b – 17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other.	89.15%
66b – 14/43	Parents' level of English.	88.74%
66b – 17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends.	86.45%
66b – 66e	How often children read in English.	84.67%
66b – 78g	Parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has not been influenced by anybody. It has always been very clear to them.	83.91%
66b – 31/60	Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels are made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.	83.40%
66b – 22/51	Parents' interest in Anglo-Saxon culture.	82.33%
66b – 17e/46e	How often parents use English at work.	81.99%
66b – 20/49	Parents' interest in learning foreign languages.	81.62%

66b – 21/50	Parents' interest in English.	81.39%
66b – 66f	How often children listen to music in English.	81.27%
66b – 65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends.	81.19%
66b – 77	How often parents watch television in English with their children.	80.84%
66b – 9/38	Parents' job.	80.76%
66b – 23h/52h	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for entertainment.	80.63%
66b – 23b/52b	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal life.	80.56%
66b – 23g/52g	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies.	80.11%
66b – 70a/70b	Whether or not parents ask their children in which language they want to watch TV or a DVD.	80.02%
66b – 24a/53a	Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.	79.79%
66b – 65c	How often children used English to talk to their siblings.	79.22%
66b – 23e/52e	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal satisfaction.	77.82%
66b – 13/42	Parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs.	76.09%
66b – 69	When children first began to view television in English.	73.88%
66b – 10/39	Parents' level of schooling.	73.84%
66b – 66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad.	73.30%
66b – 66h	How often children exchange e-mails with friends abroad.	69.11%
66b – 12/41	Parents' television-mediated language learning experience at home during their school days.	66.06%
66b – 81	Whether or not it helps parents when they talk about this issue with other families in the same situation.	65.14%
66b – 66g	How often children play video games in English.	63.03%
66b – 23f/52f	Parents' perception of the importance of English to use computers and other technological gadgets.	60.66%
66b – 26/55	Parents' opinion about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt.	60.00%
66b – 23a/52a	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for travelling.	55.75%

66b – 66d	How often children have private lessons or go to a language academy.	51.26%
66b – 23c/52c	Parents' perception of the importance of English to get a job.	49.83%
66b – 8/37	Parents' employment status.	49.81%
66b – 23d/52d	Parents' perception of the importance of English to change their job.	48.57%
66b – 29/58	Parents' belief about whether viewing television in English could endanger their own language.	39.03%
66b – 78a	Parents' perception of the role of their own experience from the time they were children in influencing their decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English.	34.91%
66b – 4	Net income per person.	29.12%
66b – 28/57	Parents' belief about whether viewing television in English will contribute to the loss of our own culture.	20.90%
66b – 32/61	Parents' opinion about whether it is parents or the education system who should take the initiative on how children learn a foreign language.	20.09%
66b – 82	Parents' belief about how they can influence their children so that they watch television in English.	17.80%
66b – 27/56	Parents' belief about whether very early acquisition of a second language can affect negatively the acquisition of the mother tongue.	17.53%
66b – 78d	The role of relatives in influencing parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English.	13.86%
66b – 25/54	Parents' belief about the best age to start learning a foreign language.	12.41%
66b – 78c	The role of parents' friends or some of their children's classmates' parents in influencing their decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English.	-8.52%
66b – 78e	The role of the media in influencing parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English.	-29.45%
66b – 78b	The role of the school in influencing parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English.	-32.88%
66b – 78f	The role of specialised publications in influencing parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English.	-70.13%

Table 29. Dependence relationships strength rank average by variable categories.

	Variable Categories	Dependence Degree (average)
	Management and planning	87.86%
	Ideology	83.40%
	Attitudes	81.78%
	Shared and individual linguistic practices	80.92%
	Beliefs about the integrative usefulness of English	73.69%
	Intra-family factors	65.39%
	Beliefs about the instrumental usefulness of English	59.79%
	Beliefs about foreign language acquisition	58.93%
	External factors	17.99%
	Beliefs about parents' role in the acquisition process	18.95%

We conclude here the first level of analysis and discussion, in which we have attempted to answer Research Question 2 clarifying the relationship between the different variables that make up Family Language Policy, previously identified in the Literature Review above, and language practice concerning children viewing television in English in additive contexts (variable 66b).

However, the hypothetical development and implementation of a Lifestyle Diglossia, which is the aim of the present thesis, will require a deeper understanding of the sociolinguistic context within which FLP takes place. Therefore, in what comes next, we will proceed to answer Research Question 3 by looking at how these variables interact with each other.

4.7 Family language policy: linguistic practices, beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, managerial strategies and environmental factors. A comprehensive approach

The analysis and discussion section that we have just completed has served as a filter that has helped us identify those variables which have a strong relationship with or which strongly affect children's television viewing in English (variable 66b). As we pointed out before, 36 of such variables have been singled out for further analysis out of a total of 60. The variables selected are those with correlation values affecting 70% of the respondents or above. The remaining 24 variables have shown little or no statistical relevance and will therefore be left aside. So as to answer Research Question 3, in which we will look at how the different elements that make up family language policy interact with each other, we divided the analysis and discussion into two blocks. The first of such blocks looks into how variables within the same group of factors that make up family language policy behave with each other (intra-group study). In the second block, we analyse and discuss how variables from a particular group influence variables from different groups (inter-group study).

4.7.1 Intra-group study

So as to complete the intra-group study of family language policy of our sample, the next steps were taken. In the first place, we grouped the relevant variables into the categories that represent the different elements that define FLP and its environment, following the same order as we had followed when analysing research questions 1 and 2, namely linguistic practices within the families, parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, management and planning strategies, and intra-family and external factors. Once the variables were sorted out by group and arranged by degree of dependence within each group, we looked at how variables within the same group behaved with each other.

4.7.1.1 Shared and individual linguistic practices

Table 30 below shows the thirteen variables that had a significant relationship with variable 66b (how often children view television in English), and the individual and average dependence degrees.

Table 30. Relevant dependence relationships strength rank for shared and individual linguistic practices, and variable 66b.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree
66b – 66c	How often children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc) (1,044 responses).	98.84%
66b – 18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English without subtitles too (1,966 responses).	95.71%
66b – 65a/65b	How often children use English to talk to their parents (2,103 responses).	93.03%
66b – 17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children (1,980 responses).	92.69%
66b – 17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other (1,960 responses).	89.15%
66b – 17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends (1,958 responses).	86.45%
66b – 66e	How often children read in English (1,041 responses).	84.67%
66b – 17e/46e	How often parents use English at work (1,962 responses).	81.99%
66b – 66f	How often children listen to music in English (1,043 responses).	81.27%
66b – 65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends (1,048 responses).	81.19%
66b – 77	How often parents watch television in English with their children (729 responses).	80.84%
66b – 65c	How often children use English to talk to their siblings (1,024 responses).	79.22%
66b – 66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad (1,042 responses).	73.30%
Average		86.03%

The study of the nature of the linguistic practices within the families was done at two levels. First, we worked out the degree of dependence relationships among all the variables that make up this group and, secondly, we obtained the patterns of distribution of relative frequencies, which allowed us to interpret the nature of the relationships among the variables.

To obtain the degree of dependence, we applied the chi-square test, for which we cross-tabulated each variable with the rest of variables within the group (see APPENDIX D). As Table 31 below reveals, of the ninety-one possible cross-tabulations, seventy-five proved to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above.

Table 31. Dependence relationships strengths for shared and individual linguistic practices.

	Qs 17a/46a	Qs 17b/46b	Qs 17d/46d	Qs 17e/46e	Qs 18d/47d	Qs 65a/65b	Q 65c	Q 65d	Q 66b	Q 66c	Q 66e	Q 66f	Q 66i	Q 77
Qs 17a/46a														
Qs 17b/46b	96.24													
Qs 17d/46d	97.35	95.48												
Qs 17e/46e	92.67	94.02	95.01											
Qs 18d/47d	94.53	95.22	94.04	92.78										
Qs 65a/65b	97.17	98.48	94.60	91.67	95.45									
Q 65c	92.04	95.43	91.21	76.80	90.42	97.65								
Q 65d	90.48	90.48	91.50	65.24	68.97	95.35	95.95							
Q 66b	89.15	92.69	86.45	81.99	95.71	93.03	79.22	81.19						
Q 66c	86.16	91.10	81.59	78.28	94.24	92.19	72.30	74.29	98.83					
Q 66e	71.13	88.12	77.13	67.00	84.05	87.78	85.90	89.38	84.67	89.99				
Q 66f	25.67	82.14	61.79	65.55	73.12	82.84	61.74	76.54	81.27	84.66	91.96			
Q 66i	86.80	68.83	90.52	67.03	85.26	77.67	77.96	84.50	73.30	74.59	87.44	59.21		
Q 77	79.22	80.35	72.89	64.41	88.43	78.76	0.32	17.82	80.84	78.56	42.15	43.00	22.25	

As a matter of fact, 80.48% of the participants on average can be said to be affected by the dependence relationships among all the variables. Table 32 below shows the strength of the dependence relationship between each variable and the rest of variables within the same group.

Table 32. Average dependence strengths rank for shared and individual linguistic practices.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree
65a/65b	How often children use English to talk to their parents.	90.97%
17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children.	89.89%
18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English without subtitles too.	88.63%
17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends.	86.89%
66b	How often children watch television in English.	86.03%
66c	How often children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc).	84.37%
17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other.	84.10%
66e	How often children read in English.	80.51%
17e/46e	How often parents use English at work.	79.42%
65c	How often children use English to talk to their siblings.	78.23%
65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends.	78.18%
66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad.	73.49%
66f	How often children listen to music in English.	68.42%
77	How often parents watch television in English with their children.	57.62%
Average		80.48%

To be able to interpret the meaning of the dependence relationships among the variables, we first obtained the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of each of the seventy-five relevant cross-tabulations (see APPENDIX D). The result of such analysis revealed that the same pattern was repeated again and again. In order to

visualise this common pattern, the seventy-five cross-tabulations were merged and a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies was obtained (see Figure 127 below).
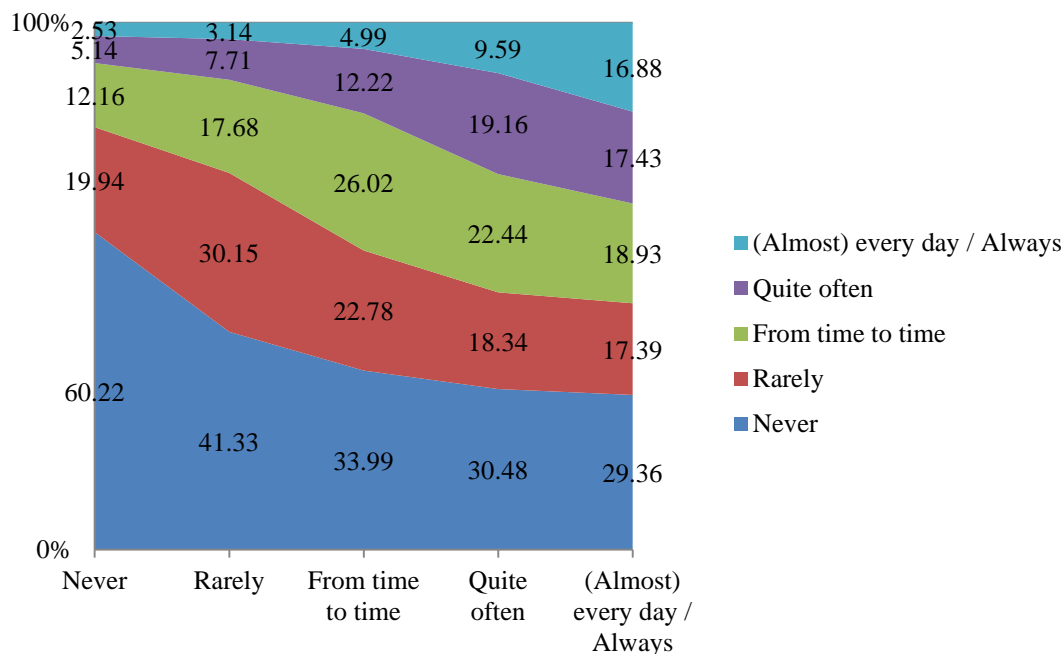
Figure 127. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations among all the variables concerning shared and individual linguistic practices within the family. Questions 66b – 66c – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 17b/46b – 17a/46a – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 77 – 66e – 66f – 65d – 65c and 66i (1,628 responses on average).

As we can observe in Figure 127 above, for bands "(Almost) every day/Always", "Quite often" and "From time to time", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for bands "Rarely" and "Never", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. In other words, the relative (%) number of parents and children that have contact with English (almost) every day or always, quite often or from time to time in the way indicated in each of the fourteen variables under discussion rises as the frequency with which they have contact with English as described in the other thirteen variables increases too (see figures 128, 129 and 130 below).

(Almost) every day / Always
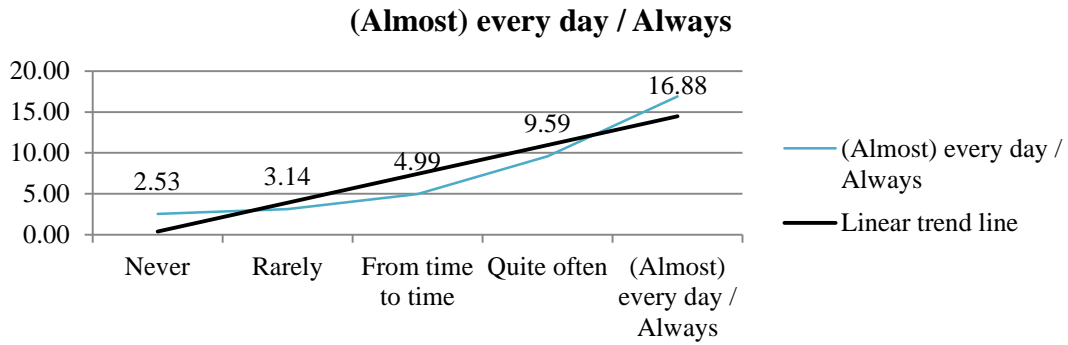
Figure 128. Linear trend line for band "(Almost) every day / Always".
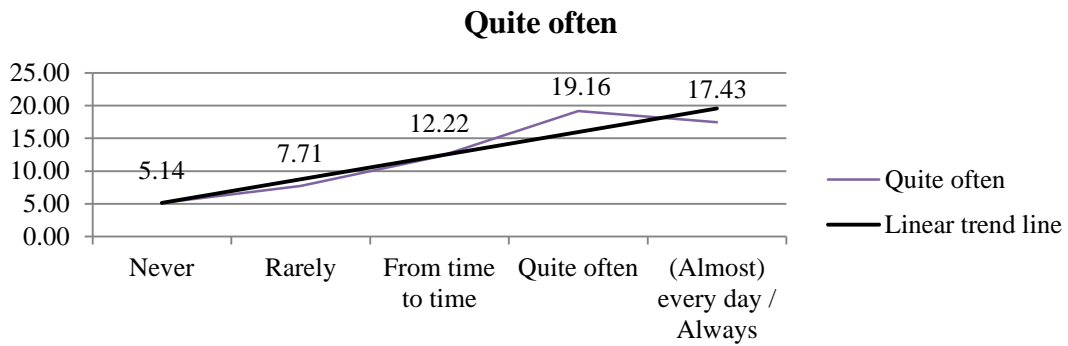
Quite often

Figure 129. Linear trend line for band "Quite often".
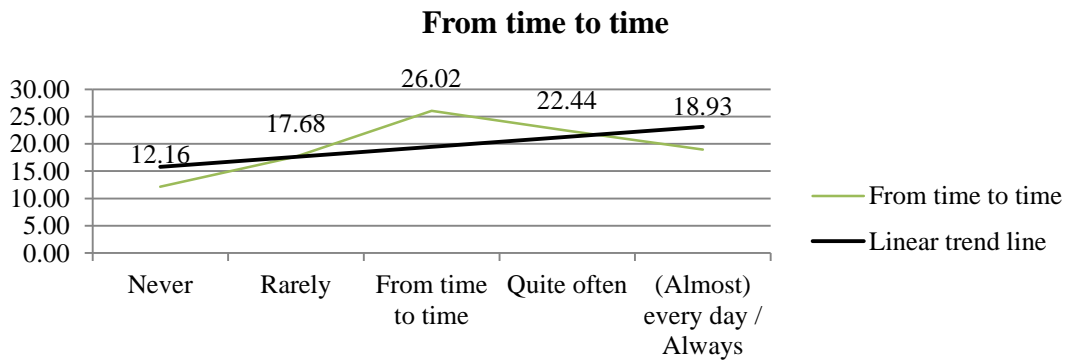
From time to time

Figure 130. Linear trend line for band "From time to time".

By contrast, the relative (%) number of parents and children that rarely or never have contact with English, as indicated in each of the variables under study, increases as the frequency with which they have contact with English through the other variables decreases (see figures 131 and 132 below).
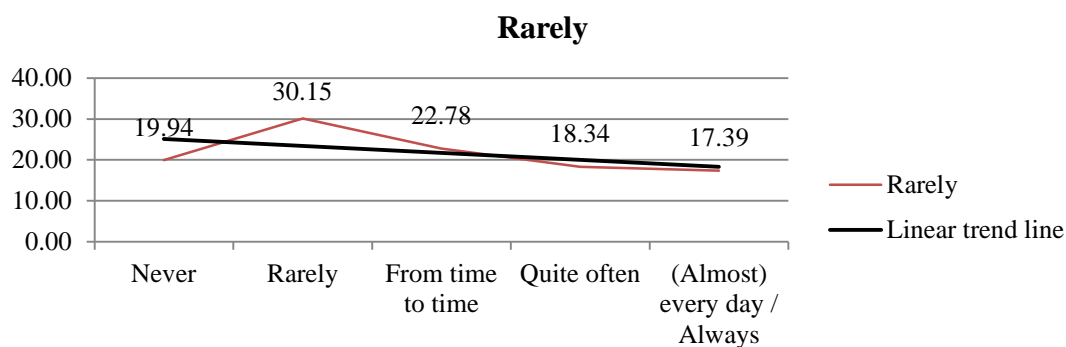
Figure 131. Linear trend line for band "Rarely".
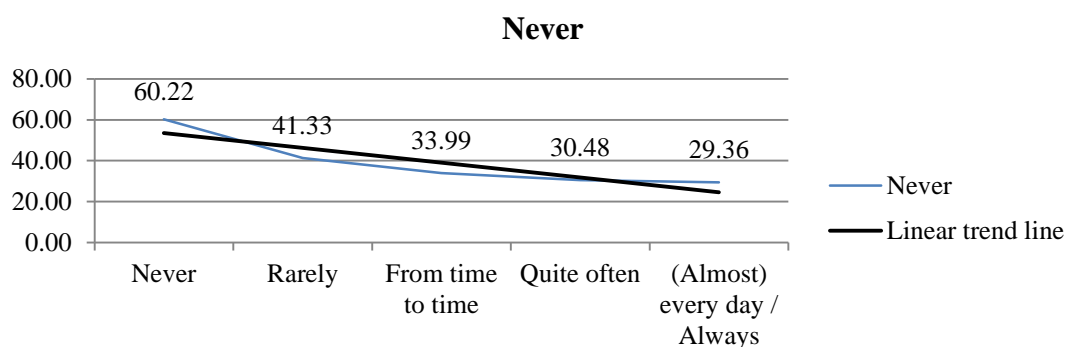
Figure 132. Linear trend line for band "Never".

The slope in each of the five linear trend lines obtained indicates the regularity of the tendencies and the strength of the correlation between variables x and y in each of the cross-tabulations. Accordingly, we can conclude that the strongest correlations correspond to bands "(Almost) every day/Always", "Quite often" and "Never", which have the steepest slopes and also the highest number of regular tendencies (see APPENDIX D). On the other hand, the linear trend lines corresponding to bands "From time to time" and "Rarely" have the most gentle slopes, which means that variables x and y have the weakest correlations and the highest number of irregular tendencies.

Otherwise stated, the slope of the different linear trend lines will let us conclude that we are dealing with a sample with, at least, two clear patterns of linguistic behaviour as regards parents and children's contact with English. On the one hand, we can see a sample in which those parents and children who have contact with English as indicated through one of the variables (almost) every day or quite often have similar contact with English through the other variables. On the other hand, those parents and children who never have contact with English as indicated through one of the variables tend not to have contact with English through the other variables either.

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Next, we will focus on discussing other findings that affect sets of two or three variables that have drawn our attention. The first of these sets of variables refers to questions 17b/46b (how often parents use English with their children) and 65a/65b (how often children use English to talk to their parents). The chi-square value obtained from cross-tabulating variables 17b/46b and 65a/65b (98.48%) reveals a very strong dependence relationship between them and the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies (see Figure 133 below) shows a tendency in which the relative number of children that use English with their parents with more frequency increases as parents speak English to them more frequently too. By contrast, the relative number of children that use English with their parents with more frequency decreases when the frequency with which parents speak English to their children also decreases.
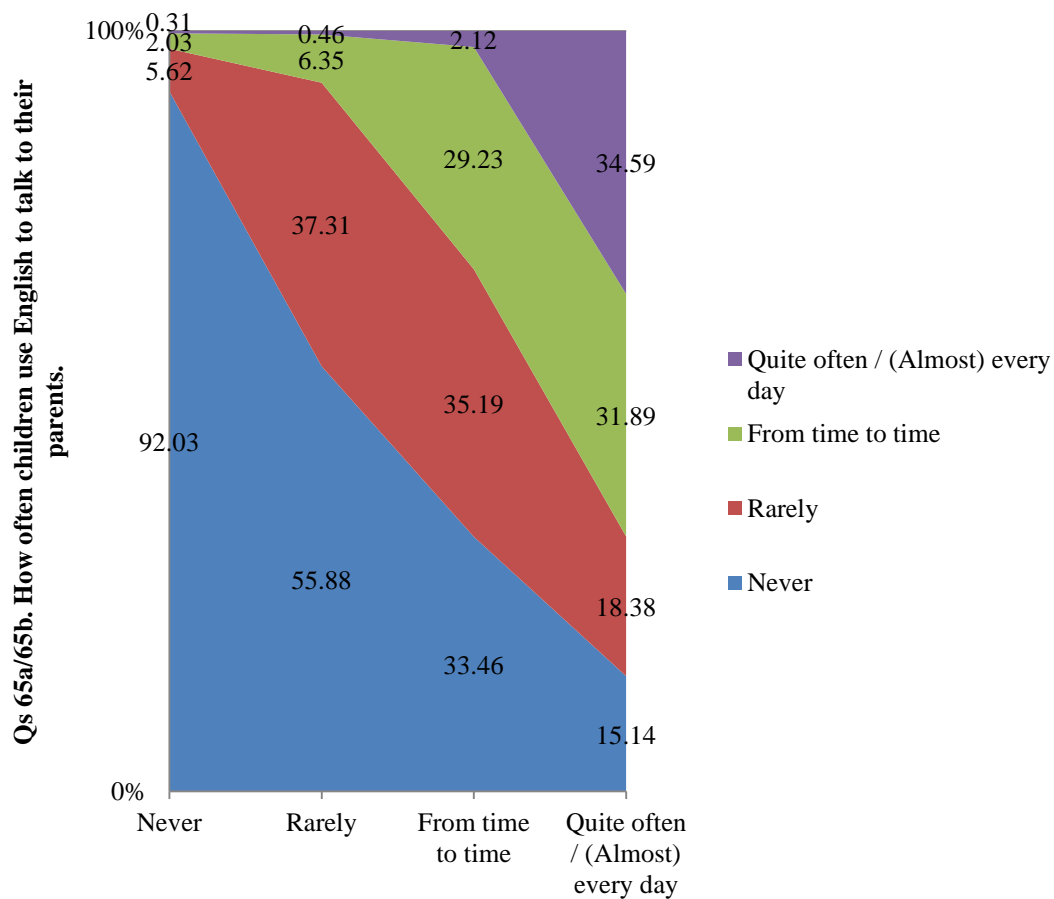
Qs 17b/46b. How often parents use English with their children.

Figure 133. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children use English to talk to their parents and the frequency with which parents use English with their children. Questions 65a/65b and 17b/46b (1,991 responses).

However, what drew our attention was the difference between the relative number of parents who used English to talk to their children and the relative number of children who used English to talk to their parents, which is significantly lower (see Table 33 below).

Table 33. How often parents and children used English to talk to each other. Questions 17b/46b (2,014 respondents) and 65a/65b (2,119 respondents).

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often	Every day or almost every day	Total
How often parents used English to talk to their children (Qs 17b/46b)	646	652	529	139	48	2,014
%	32.08%	32.37%	26.27%	6.90%	2.38%	100.00%
How often children used English to talk to their parents (Qs 65a/65b)	1,232	513	284	67	23	2,119
%	58.14%	24.21%	13.40%	3.16%	1.09%	100.00%

A closer look at each of the variables in question (see Table 34 and Figure 134 below) will help us discuss the statement above in more detail. For example, of the 47 respondents who claimed that they used English to talk to their children (almost) every day, only 31.91% admitted that their children used English to talk to them with the same frequency; the remaining 68.09% spoke English to their parents less frequently. Likewise, of the 138 respondents who claimed that they used English with their children quite often, only 26.09% of them reported that their children did it with the same frequency (quite often) and 2.17% with more frequency than their parents. However, according to the respondents, the remaining 71.74% did it less often. Once more, of the 520 respondents who claimed that they spoke English to their children from time to time, 29.23% assured that their children did it from time to time as well, only on 2.12% of the occasions did children use English with more frequency than their parents, and the remaining 68.65% with less frequency. The smallest gap appears when we look at the data concerning those parents who never spoke English to their children; in this particular case, 7.97% of the children spoke English to their parents more often than parents themselves.

Table 34. How often parents and children used English to talk to each other. Questions 17b/46b (rows) and 65a/65b (columns) (1,991 responses).

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often	Every day or almost every day	Total
Never	589	36	13	1	1	640
%	92.03%	5.63%	2.03%	0.16%	0.16%	100.00%
Rarely	361	241	41	3	0	646
%	55.88%	37.31%	6.35%	0.46%	0.00%	100.00%
From time to time	174	183	152	8	3	520
%	33.46%	35.19%	29.23%	1.54%	0.58%	100.00%
Quite often	20	28	51	36	3	138
%	14.49%	20.29%	36.96%	26.09%	2.17%	100.00%
Every day or almost every day	8	6	8	10	15	47
%	17.02%	12.77%	17.02%	21.28%	31.91%	100.00%
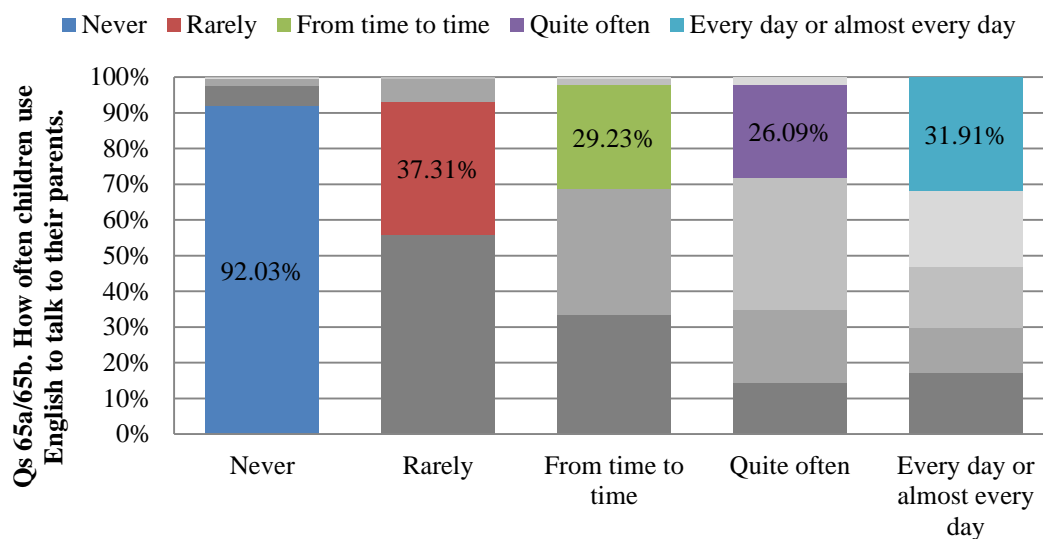
Figure 134. How often parents and children use English to talk to each other. Questions 17b/46b and 65a/65b (1,991 responses).

We may conclude affirming that children tend to respond in English less frequently in each of the categories for variable 17b/46b. In other words, no matter how often parents speak English to their children, the latter will respond in English with less frequency. And, given the relatively high number of Spanish parents who speak English to their offspring to raise them bilingually when such parents only have Spanish as their first language, as our research reveals, one possible interpretation of the data in Table 34 above would lead us to conclude that when parents take the initiative to engage their children in conversation in English, the latter will normally refuse to accept the challenge.

According to the literature, the reasons why children will not use a second/foreign language to communicate with their parents when they are encouraged to do so are varied. For example, Baker (2014) argues that children may resist their parents' attempt to use another language when they are not fluent or interested in that language, when they do not see consistency in the usage or when pragmatism is more relevant than their parents' principles (p. 35). We believe that these reasons fit our sample like a glove. Thus, we would be dealing with highly unnatural patterns of parent-child interactions which could lead children to think that the immediate satisfaction of their needs comes before any other consideration, in this case, the improvement of the command of a

language that is not part of their daily life. After all, why should children make the effort when they know that they can make themselves understood by their parents in their first language? Isn't economy one of the principles that governs language usage? For example, Vicentini (2003) argues that the concept of economy is a biological concept, also applicable to linguistic behaviour, which consists of using the minimum effort necessary to achieve the maximum result (p. 38).

Furthermore, children want their parents to be their "parents", not their teachers (Edwards and Alldred, 2000). Therefore, out-of-context parent-child interactions in a foreign language may raise an emotional barrier between the parent and the child, particularly when there is an instructional motivation (for the emotional effects of language barriers in Chinese immigrant families in the USA, see Baolian Qin, 2006; for the consequences that parent-child fluency in a common language have on several dimensions of the parent-child relationship, see Schofield *et at.*, 2012).

Inconsistency in the usage of English by parents is also a predictable factor. The researcher himself came soon to realise how hard it was to be consistent in the use of a "learnt" foreign language with his own children when it is not the dominant language, and the linguistic translation of feelings and emotions first springs in your first language (for the consequences of the lack of consistency in following the OPOL principle, see Döpke, 1992: 22).

Finally, the European Commission's (2012) First European Survey on Language Competences gives a very detailed account of Spanish students' poor achievements as regards proficiency in English, which leads us to assume that such outcomes may well produce a lack of self-confidence and anxiety and, consequently, a lack of interest in the language and children resisting the use of a foreign language (for an understanding of anxiety related to target language learning and more literature on this issue, see Huang, 2014). Furthermore, Bialystok and Fröhlich (1980) prove that there exists a relationship between the level of proficiency of the learner and communicative strategies. Thus, they claim that more proficient learners are more effective in their communication because they rely more on L2-based strategies (p. 27).

The third variable under consideration is the frequency with which children use English to talk to their siblings (variable 65c). In this case, the degree of dependence between variables 65a/65b and 65c reached 97.65% of the respondents. The pattern of distribution, which is shown in Figure 135 below, indicates that the frequency with which children use English to talk to their siblings tends to increase in those families in which they also use English to talk to their parents, whereas it tends to decrease when the frequency with which they talk to their parents in English decreases too.
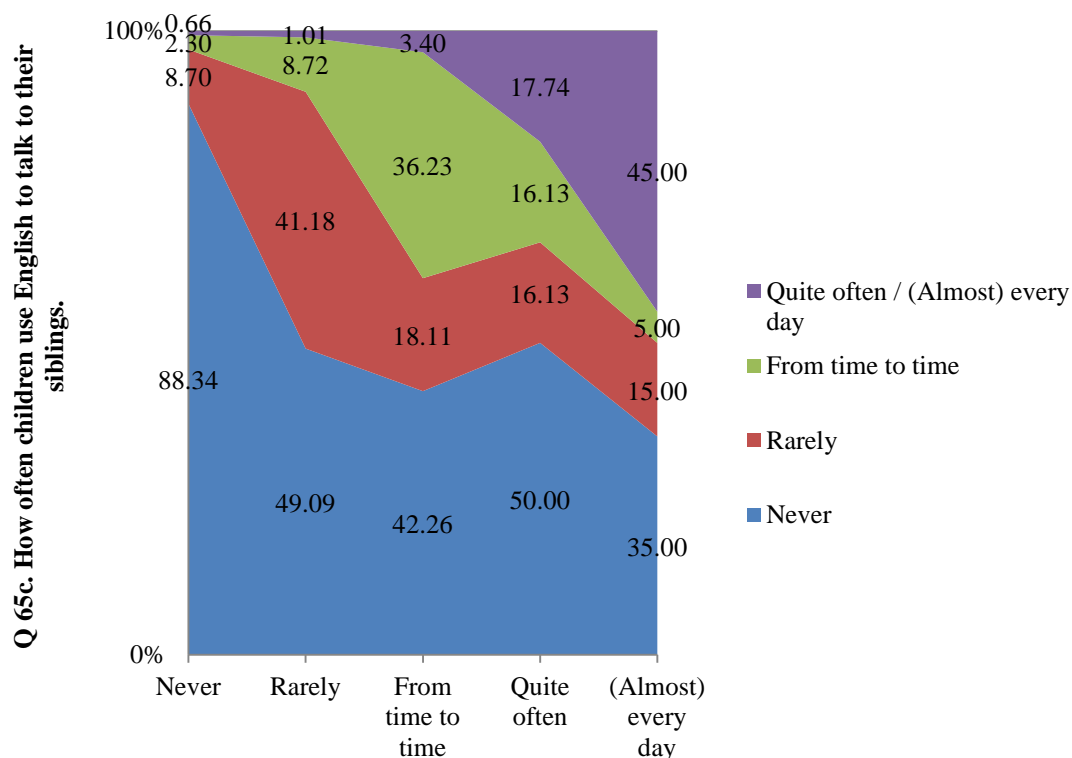
Qs 65a/65b. How often children use English to talk to their parents.

Figure 135. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children use English to talk to their siblings and to their parents. Questions 65c and 65a/65b (2,058 responses).

However, a different look at the data obtained in relation to these two variables will help us observe other interesting patterns of linguistic behaviour among children. For example, if we consider the relative distributions shown in Table 35 below, we will perceive that children use English with their siblings with less frequency than with their parents and that children use English with their parents with less frequency than their parents with them, a finding on which we had reflected before. The conclusion that we might extract from this finding is yet another reinforcement of what we had claimed before, namely, that children in the monolingual context in which the research was

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carried out only engage in interactions in English when encouraged by their parents, and not always. As we can observe, when children were given the freedom to choose, for example, when they interact with their brothers and/or sisters, they overwhelmingly chose their first language. This finding might seem expected and, therefore, obvious but for the fact that, although still beginning, there is a tendency for more and more parents to engage in English interactions with their children, and it is not clear yet how this pattern may be altered in the future if the frequency with which these interactions take place continues to increase.

Table 35. How often parents use English to talk to their children, and how often children use English to talk to their parents and to their siblings. Questions 17b/46b (2,014 responses), 65a/65b (2,119 responses) and 65c (1,031 responses).

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often	Every day or almost every day	Total
How often parents use English to talk to their children (Qs 17b/46b)	646	652	529	139	48	2,014
%	32.08%	32.37%	26.27%	6.90%	2.38%	100.00%
How often children use English to talk to their parents (Qs 65a/65b)	1,232	513	284	67	23	2,119
%	58.14%	24.21%	13.40%	3.16%	1.09%	100.00%
How often children use English to talk to their siblings (Q 65c)	735	185	90	17	4	1,031
%	71.29%	17.94%	8.73%	1.65%	0.39%	100.00%

The next analysis refers to variables 17a/46a (how often parents use English with their spouse) and 17b/46b (how often parents use English with their children). As Figures 136 and 137 below show, the relative number of parents who never use English with their spouse is significantly higher than the relative number of parents that never use English with their children. Put differently, the relative number of parents that (almost) every day, quite often, from time to time or rarely use English with their children is significantly higher than the relative number of parents that use English with their spouse with the same frequencies. A second look at Figures 136 and 137 also reveals that variable 17b/46b is the dominant variable in this pair; that is to say, parents' use of

English with their spouse is more dependent on parents' use of English with their children.

This finding leads us to conclude that parents' more frequent use of English with their children may respond to a planned action aimed at bringing them up bilingually. However, parents' less frequent use of English with their spouse would correspond to the natural type of interaction that we could expect to find in a monolingual couple.
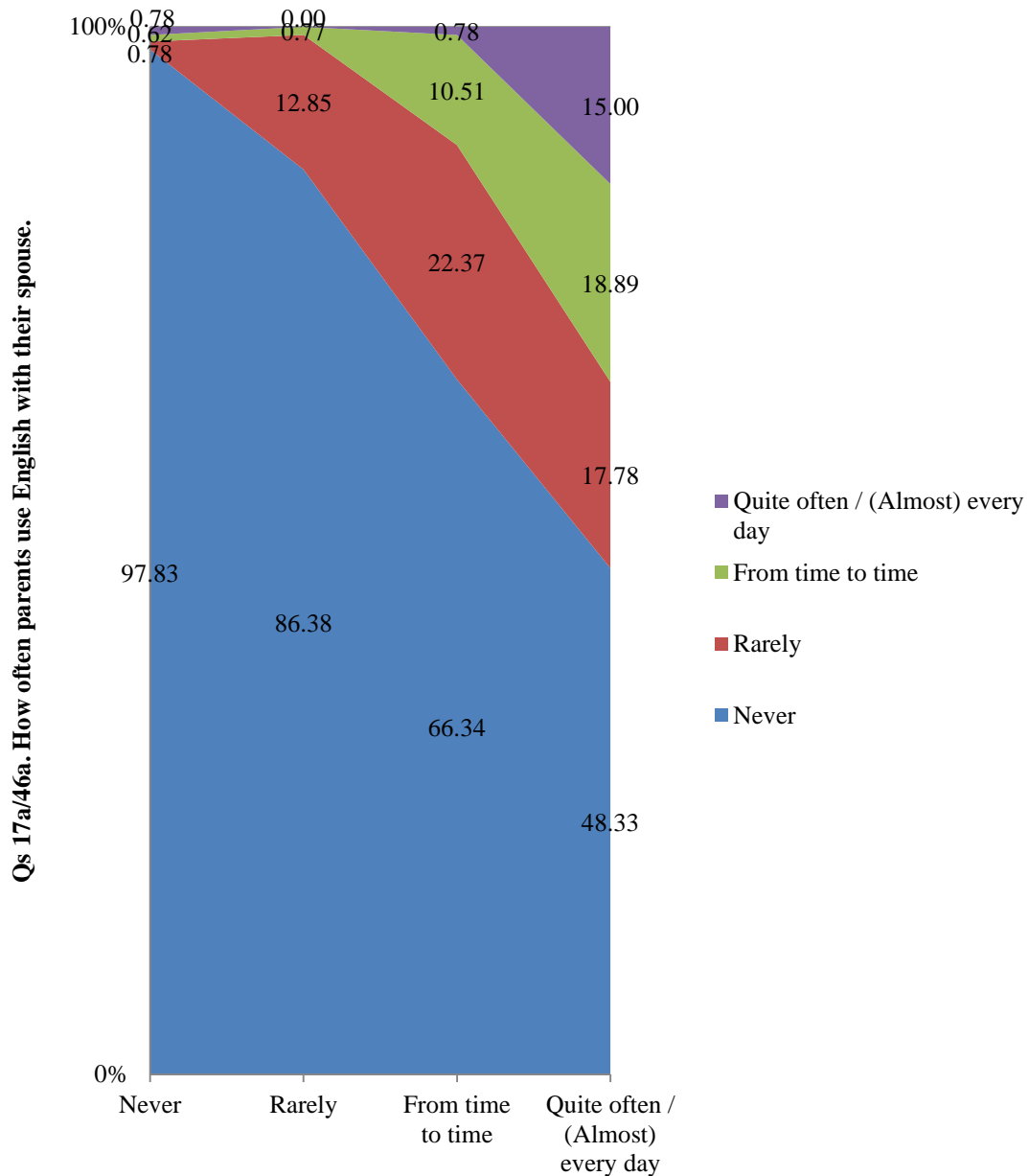
Qs 17b/46b. How often parents use English with their children.

Figure 136. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents use English with their spouse and the frequency with which parents use English with their children. Questions 17a/46a and 17b/46b (1,984 responses).
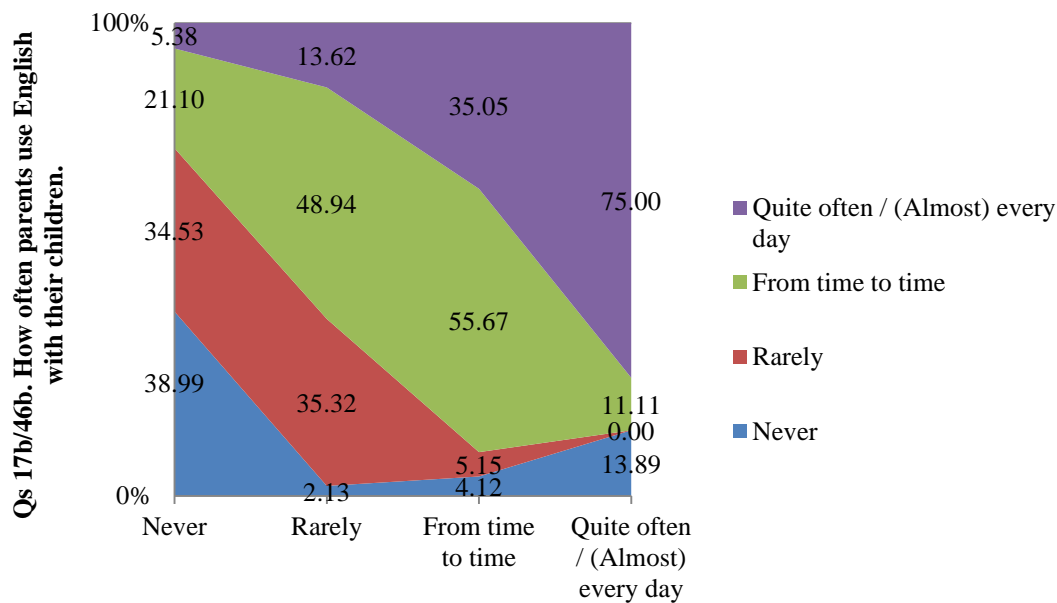
Qs 17a/46a. How often parents use English with their spouse.

Figure 137. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents use English with their children and the frequency with which parents use English with their spouse. Questions 17b/46b and 17a/46a (1,984 responses).

The next analysis refers to variables 18d/47d (how often parents watch television in English without subtitles) and 77 (how often parents share this activity with their children). The chi-square value obtained from this cross-tabulation indicates that its findings affect 88.43% of the participants. As Figure 138 below reveals, the relative number of parents who view television in English (almost) every day, quite often, from time to time or rarely increases as they spend more and more time doing it with their children and, once again, very few parents view television in English if their children are not present. Put differently, parents may simply view television in English to support their children, as a way to motivate them, and only a few do it for the sake of it. This would fall in line with De Houwer's (1999) claim that parents with a very strong impact belief would also have the idea that they have an important exemplary function to carry out, or Adriani *et al.*'s (2018) claim that, in order to transmit beliefs to their children, parents adopt behaviours aimed at setting examples to them (see Literature Review above). That is to say, parents watch television in English so that their children do it too. Further below, we will look at the coherence between parents' belief that they can influence their children so that they watch television in English by their example (variable 82) and the example that parents actually set.
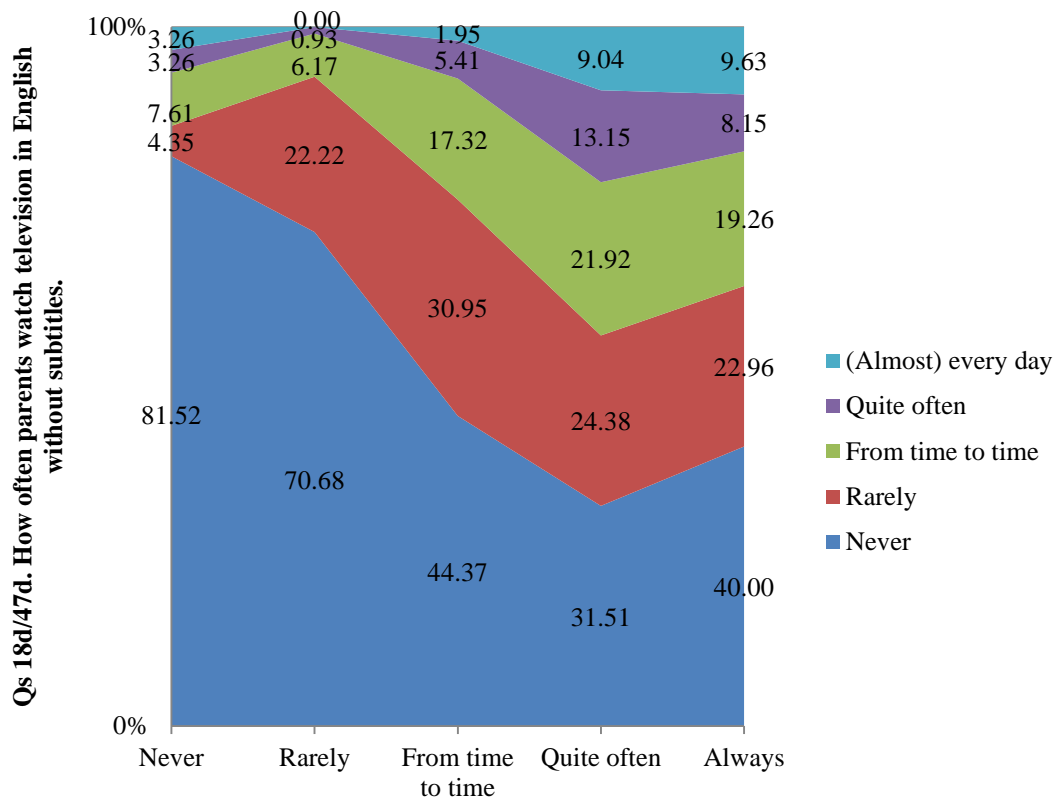
Q 77. How often parents share television-viewing in English with their children.

Figure 138. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles and the frequency with which parents share this activity with their children. Questions 18d/47d and 77 (1,378 responses).

The previous conclusion is supported by the data appearing in Figure 139 below, in which we can observe that, when parents view television in English, the relative number of parents who do not share this activity with their children is very small. In other words, the vast majority of the parents that view television in English do it with their children.
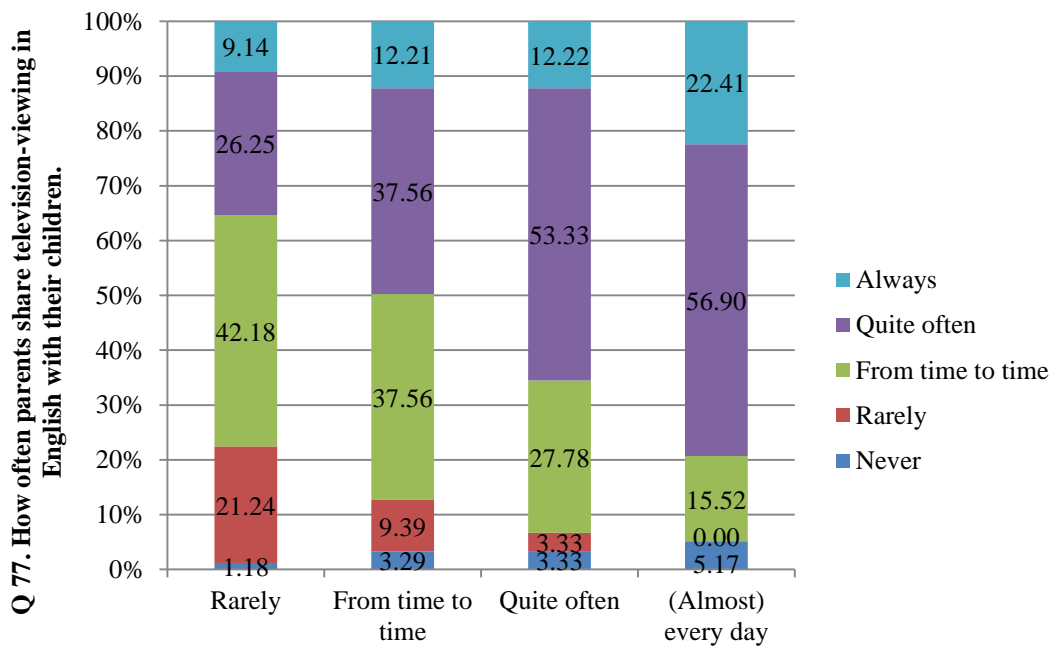
Figure 139. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles and the frequency with which parents do this activity with their children. Questions 18d/47d and 77 (700 responses).

The same conclusion can be reached by looking at Figure 140 below. As we can observe, the frequency with which parents view television in English (almost) every day, quite often, from time to time or rarely increases as the frequency with which children view television in English increases also. By contrast, the frequency with which parents never watch television in English decreases when the frequency with which children do it increases.
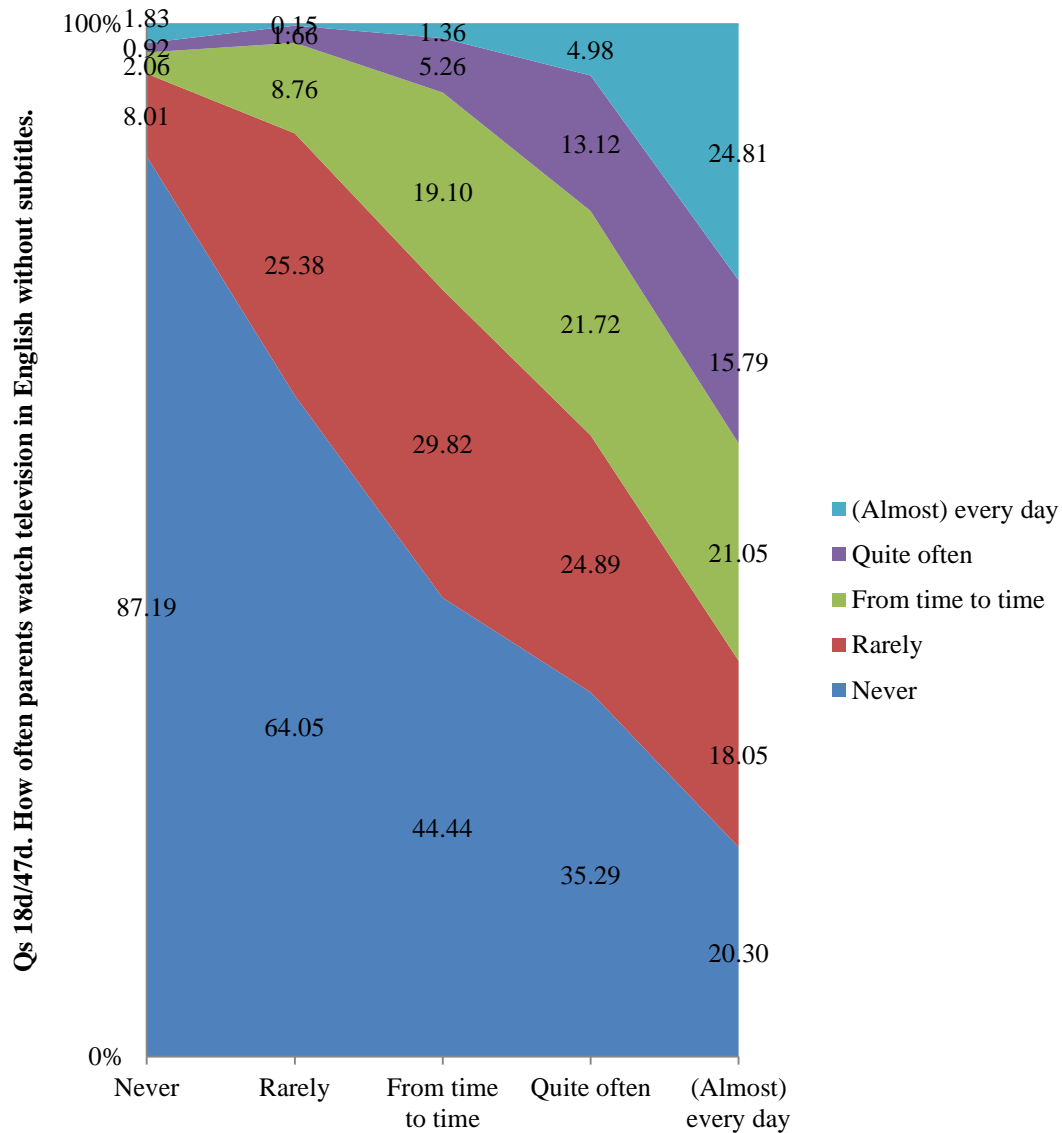
Q 66b. How often children view television in English.

Figure 140. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles and the frequency with which children view television in English. Questions 18d/47d and 66b (1,966 responses).

What this cross-tabulation seems to be telling us is that very few parents watch television in English when their children are not present.

To sum up, we can conclude this section stating that, beyond the frequency with which children view television in English, other interesting findings have emerged. First, as we can observe in Figure 141 below, over fifty per cent of the families interviewed claim that their children have some kind of contact with English outside the school context, either interacting with other members of their families or on their own.
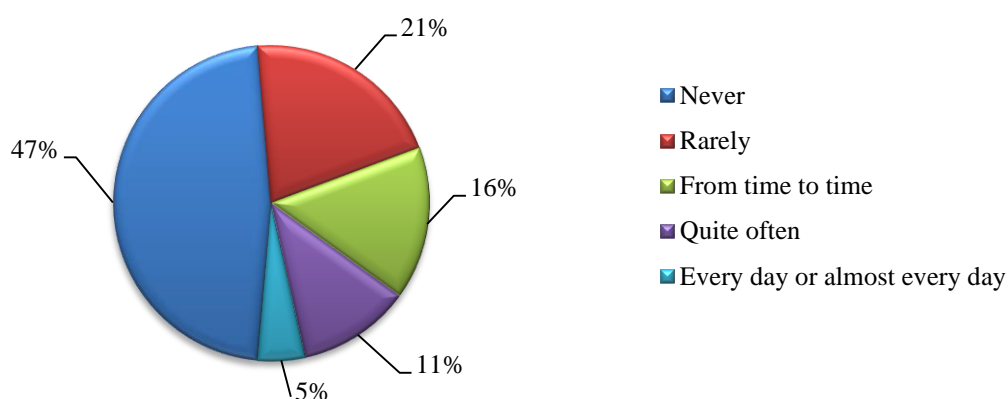
Figure 141. Average relative (%) frequencies concerning how often children have contact with English outside the school context. Questions 65a/65b – 65c – 65d – 66b – 66c – 66d – 66e – 66f – 66g – 66h and 66i.

As regards parents' contact with English, we found that this takes place with different frequencies for fifty percent of the participants in the survey. The striking fact that these figures reveal is that, except for variable 24d/47d, which refers to the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles, they do not pertain to individual practices, but to shared practices in which interaction with others is necessary. When such interactions are with other members of the family, considering the monolingual nature of the majority of the families interviewed, what we seem to be facing is a planned attempt by parents to manage their children's acquisition of a second language by creating an "English-friendly" environment. This finding could be attributed to De Houwer's (1999) "impact belief" which, as we discussed in the Literature Review above, explains the "parental belief that parents can exercise some sort of control over their children's linguistic functioning". In this case, we would be facing a very strong impact belief which, according to Nakamura (2019) and Baker (1992), "enables" FLP through parents' readiness for determination and action (Fig. 142).
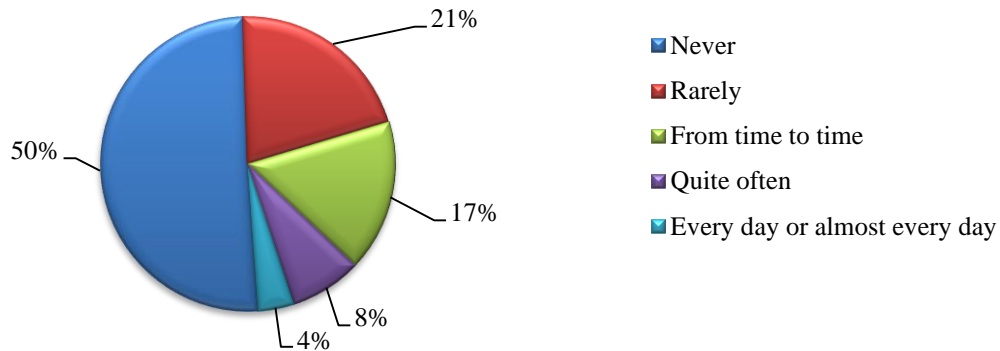
Figure 142. Average relative (%) frequencies concerning how often parents have contact with English. Questions 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d and 77.

Combining children's and parents' data, we found that contact with English takes place for fifty-two percent of the parents and children of our study (Fig. 143).
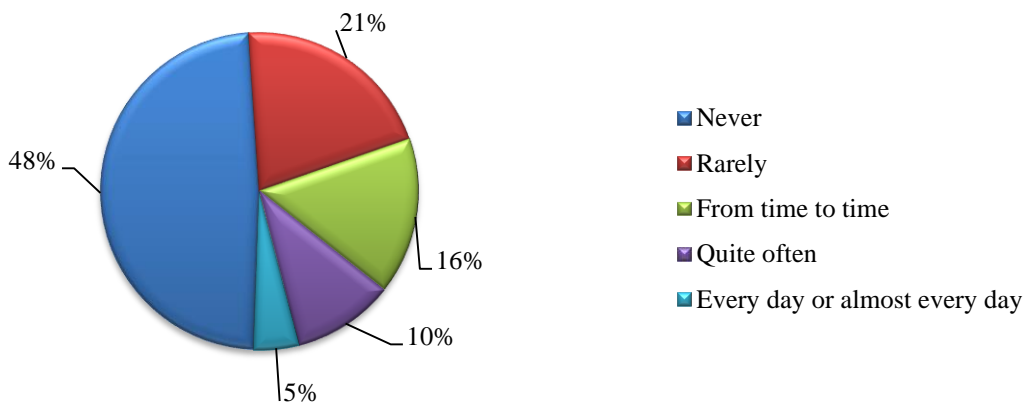
Figure 143. Average relative (%) frequencies concerning how often parents and children have contact with English. Questions 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 65d – 66b – 66c – 66d – 66e – 66f – 66g – 66h – 66i and – 77.

Another finding is that the different English-related linguistic practices within the families of our sample seem to be closely interdependent, affecting 80.48% of the participants on average, as the numerous chi-square tests that were carried out have revealed.

Finally, these tight relationships, which could be visualised in the patterns of distribution of relative frequencies that were shown above, follow clearly marked tendencies that give us a general picture of the milieu in which our research was

conducted. In this respect, such tendencies can be seen clearly displayed in Table 36 and Figure 144 below, where we can observe how, in each of the five bands, the highest level of relative frequencies representing correlations among all the variables analysed appears where the series is cross-tabulated by the same category.

Table 36. Highest level of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations among all the variables concerning shared and individual linguistic practices within the family. Questions 66b – 66c – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 17b/46b – 17a/46a – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 77 – 66e – 66f – 65d – 65c and 66i (1,628 responses on average).

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often	(Almost) every day / Always
Never	60.22	41.33	33.99	30.48	29.36
Rarely	19.94	30.15	22.78	18.34	17.39
From time to time	12.16	17.68	26.02	22.44	18.93
Quite often	5.14	7.71	12.22	19.16	17.43
(Almost) every day / Always	2.53	3.14	4.99	9.59	16.88
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
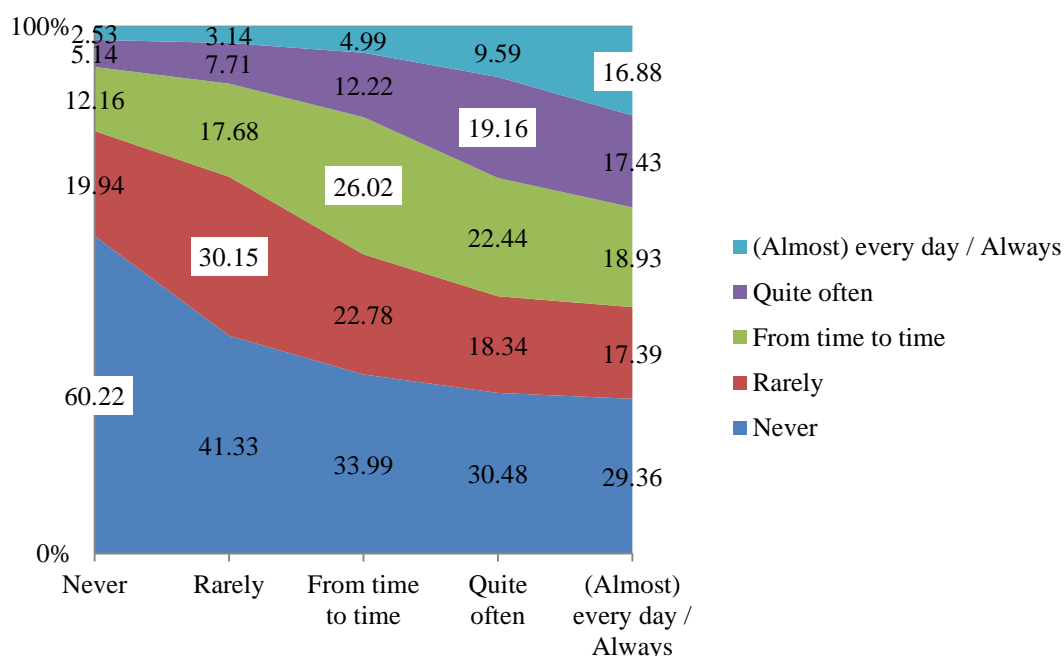
Figure 144. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations among all the variables concerning shared and individual linguistic practices within the family. Questions 66b – 66c – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 17b/46b – 17a/46a – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 77 – 66e – 66f – 65d – 65c and 66i (1,628 responses on average).
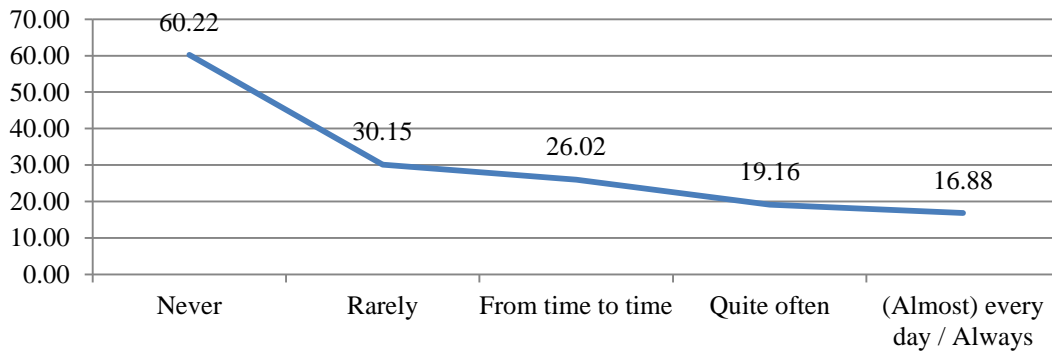
Figure 145. Highest level of relative (%) frequencies for each band. Questions 66b – 66c – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 17b/46b – 17a/46a – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 77 – 66e – 66f – 65d – 65c and 66i (1,628 responses on average).

What this pattern of distribution of relative frequencies seems to be telling us is that all the linguistic practices within each family tend to be given with the same or similar frequency. When the frequency with which linguistic practices occur is higher, as depicted in Figure 146 below, we can claim that we are dealing with a number of families that have taken it into their hands to bring up their children bilingually by means of developing an English-friendly environment that involves increasing the amount of exposure to English beyond the school context, thus adopting an active role in the process of ELL in the home, two of the recommendations of the European Commission that had been cited further above. Such a friendly environment is made up of a series of elements, watching television in English being just one of them.
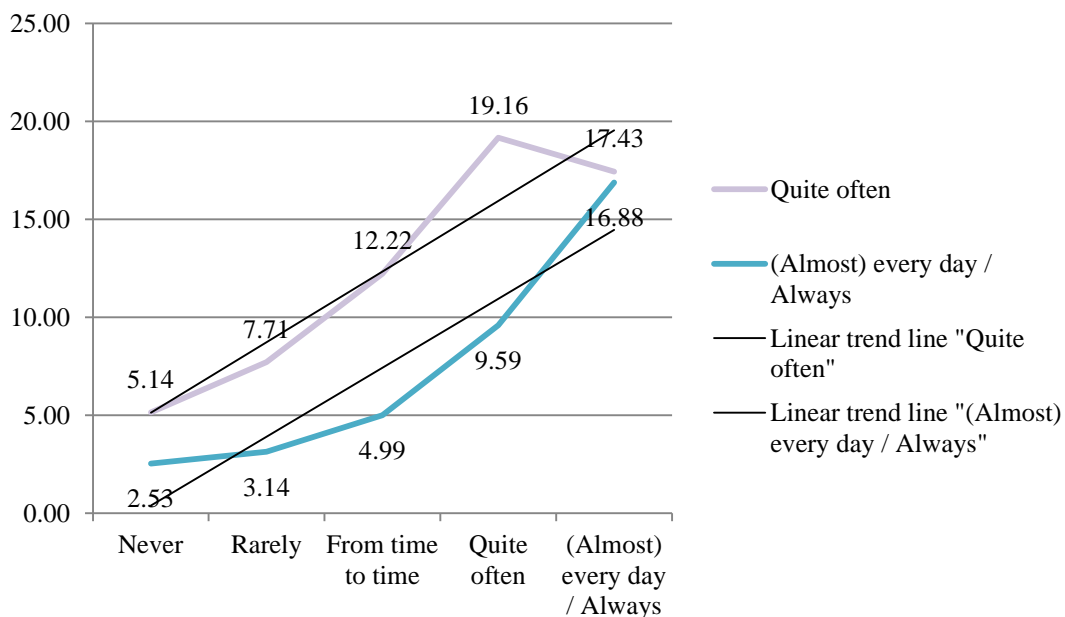
Figure 146. Linear trend lines for bands "Quite often" and "(Almost) every day.

4.7.1.2 Parental beliefs

The next block of analysis will focus on the relationships among variables that measure parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition, the integrative usefulness of English, the instrumental usefulness of English and parents' expectations in relation to their children's future level of English.

Table 37 below shows the seven variables that had a significant relationship with variable 66b (how often children view television in English), and the individual and average dependence degrees.

Table 37. Relevant dependence relationships strength rank for beliefs about foreign language acquisition, about the integrative usefulness of English, about the instrumental use of English, about parents' expectations in relation to their children's future level of English, and variable 66b.

Variables Number	Variables Description	Dependence degree
66b – 24c/53c	Parents' opinion about the importance of watching TV in English.	91.95%
66b – 30/59	The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.	90.65%
66b – 23h/52h	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for entertainment.	80.63%
66b – 23b/52b	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal life.	80.56%
66b – 23g/52g	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies.	80.11%
66b – 23e/52e	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal satisfaction.	77.82%
66b – 24a/53a	Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.	73.53%
Average		83.62%

The study of the nature of parents' beliefs was done following the same methodology used for the analysis of linguistic practices within the family.

As Table 38 below reveals, each of the twenty-one possible cross-tabulations proved to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above.

Table 38. Dependence relationships strengths for parents' beliefs.

	Qs 23b/52b	Qs 23e/52e	Qs 23g/52g	Qs 23h/52h	Qs 24a/53a	Qs 24c/53c	Qs 30/59
Qs 23b/52b							
Qs 23e/52e	97.24						
Qs 23g/52g	97.50	97.20					
Qs 23h/52h	97.23	97.58	98.56				
Qs 24a/53a	84.42	90.97	79.04	85.88			
Qs 24c/53c	86.52	94.66	91.17	92.14	88.21		
Qs 30/59	79.19	82.30	80.49	81.61	86.58	85.25	

As a matter of fact, 89.40% of the participants on average can be said to be affected by the dependence relationships among all the variables. Table 39 below shows the strength of the dependence relationship between each variable and the rest of variables within the same group.

Table 39. Average dependence strength rank for parents' beliefs.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence degree
23e/52e	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal satisfaction.	93.33%
23h/52h	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for entertainment.	92.17%
23g/52g	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies.	90.66%
23b/52b	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal life.	90.35%
24c/53c	Parents' opinion about the importance of watching TV in English.	89.66%
24a/53a	Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.	86.46%
30/59	The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.	83.17%
Average		89.40%

First of all, we analysed the six variables that measure parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English and about foreign language acquisition. To be able to interpret the meaning of the dependence relationships among the variables, we first obtained the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of each of the fifteen cross-tabulations (see APPENDIX D). The result of such analysis revealed that the same pattern was repeated for them all. In order to visualise this common pattern, the fifteen tabulations were merged and a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies was obtained (see Figure 147 below).
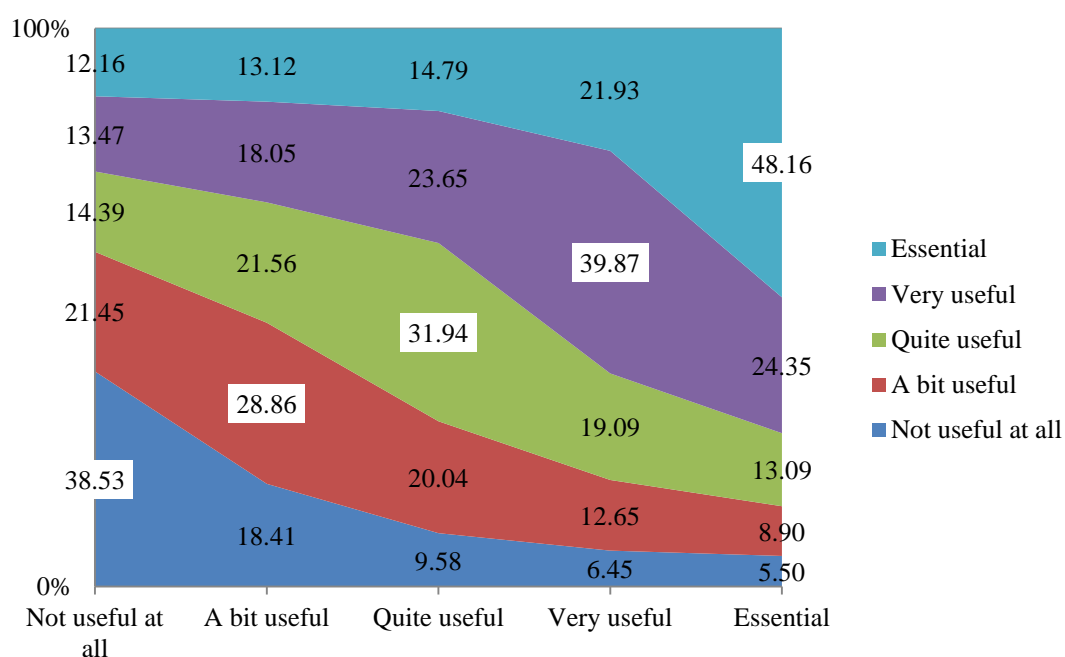
Figure 147. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations among all the variables related to parents' beliefs. Questions 24c/53c – 24a/53a – 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e and 23b/52b (2,002 responses on average).

As we can observe in Figure 147 above, for bands "Essential" and "Very useful", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for bands "Quite useful", "A bit useful" and "Not useful at all", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. In other words, the relative (%) number of parents who, on the one hand, believe that early acquisition and viewing television in English are essential or very useful for foreign language acquisition and, on the other, believe that English is essential or very useful for the purposes indicated in each of the four variables that measure this issue increases when parents' beliefs, as described in the other five variables, become more and more positive (see Figures 148 and 149 below).

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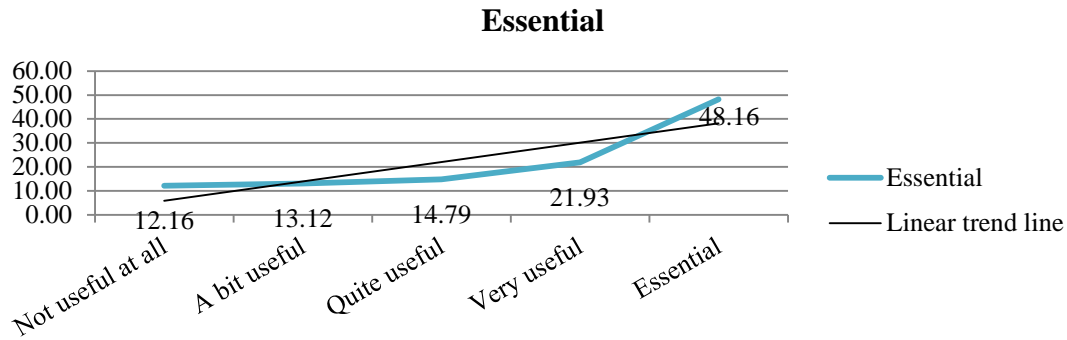
Essential

Figure 148. Linear trend line for band "Essential".
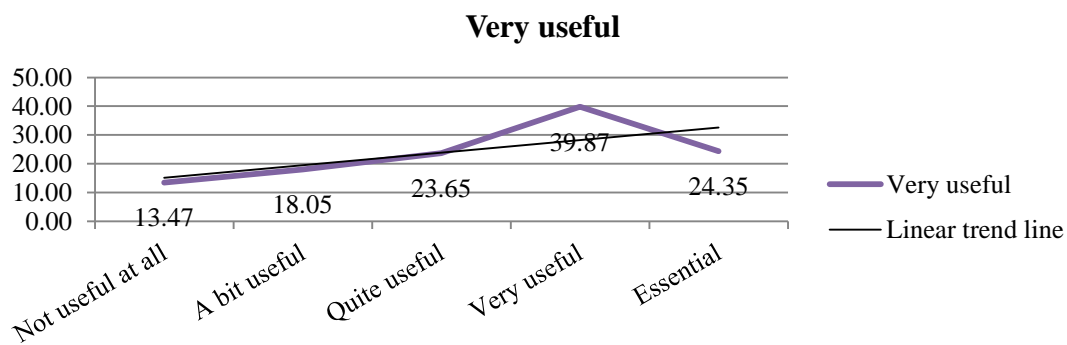
Very useful

Figure 149. Linear trend line for band "Very useful".

By contrast, the relative (%) number of parents who, on the one hand, believe that early acquisition and viewing television in English are quite useful, a bit useful or not useful at all for foreign language acquisition and, on the other, believe that English is quite useful, a bit useful or not useful at all for the purposes indicated in each of the four variables that measure this issue increases when parents' beliefs, as described in the other five variables, become more and more negative (see Figures 150, 151 and 152 below).
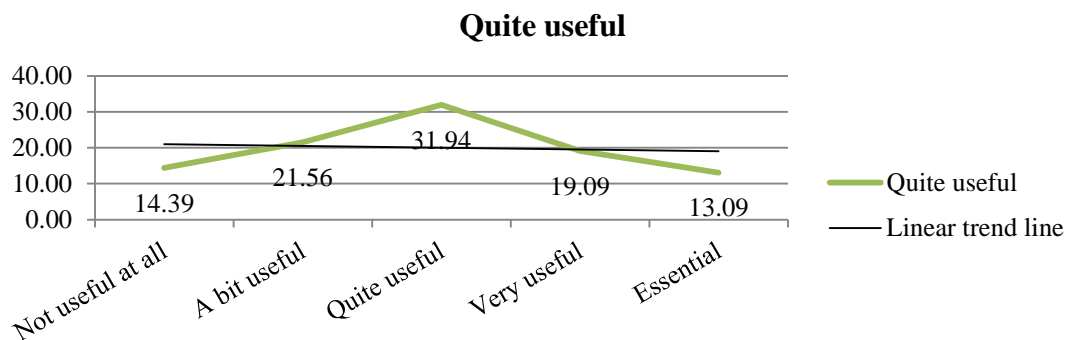
Quite useful

Figure 150. Linear trend line for band "Quite useful".
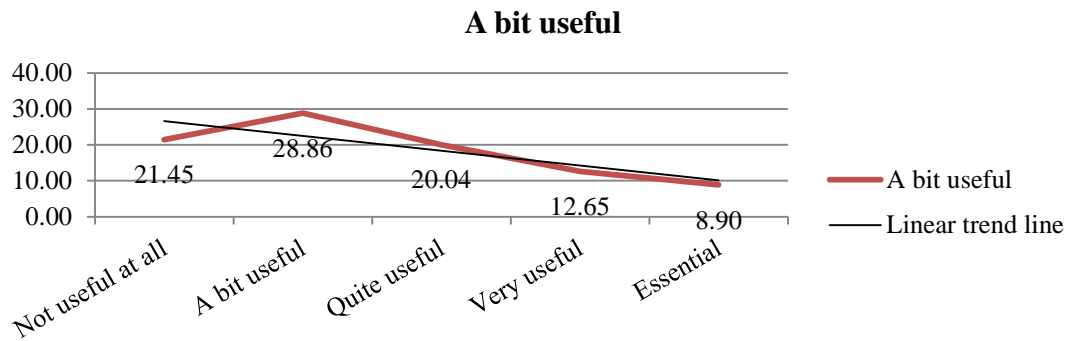
Figure 151. Linear trend line for band "A bit useful".
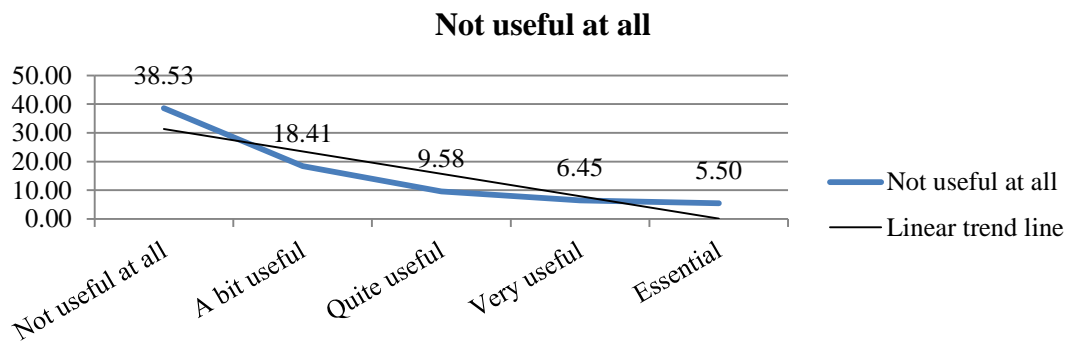
Figure 152. Linear trend line for band "Not useful at all".

The slope in each of the five linear trend lines obtained indicates the regularity of the tendencies and the strength of the correlation between variables x and y in each of the cross-tabulations. Consequently, we can conclude that the strongest correlations correspond to bands "Essential", "Very useful" and "Not useful at all", which have the steepest slopes and also the highest number of regular tendencies (see APPENDIX D). On the contrary, the linear trend lines corresponding to bands "Quite useful" and "A bit useful" have the most gentle slopes, which means that variables x and y have the weakest correlations and the highest number of irregular tendencies.

Otherwise stated, the slope of the different linear trend lines will let us conclude that we are dealing with a sample with, at least, two clear patterns of beliefs. On the one hand, we can see a sample in which those parents who believe that any of the six variables now being analysed is essential or very useful consider each of the other five variables similarly useful. On the other hand, those parents who believe that any of the six

variables now being analysed is not useful at all also consider each of the other five variables to be not useful at all.

To sum up, this section on parental beliefs can be concluded by stating that, as we had seen when discussing linguistic practices above, the different variables pertaining to parental beliefs also seem to be closely interdependent, revealing similar tendencies to the ones produced for linguistic practices. This can be seen clearly expressed in Table 40 below where we can observe how, in each of the five bands, the highest level of relative frequencies representing correlations among all the variables analysed appears where the series is cross-tabulated by the same category.

Table 40. Highest level of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations among all the variables concerning parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition and about the usefulness of English. Questions 24c/53c – 24a/53a – 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e and 23b/52b (2,002 responses on average).

	Not useful at all	A bit useful	Quite useful	Very useful	Essential
Not useful at all	38.53	18.41	9.58	6.45	5.50
A bit useful	21.45	28.86	20.04	12.65	8.90
Quite useful	14.39	21.56	31.94	19.09	13.09
Very useful	13.47	18.05	23.65	39.87	24.35
Essential	12.16	13.12	14.79	21.93	48.16
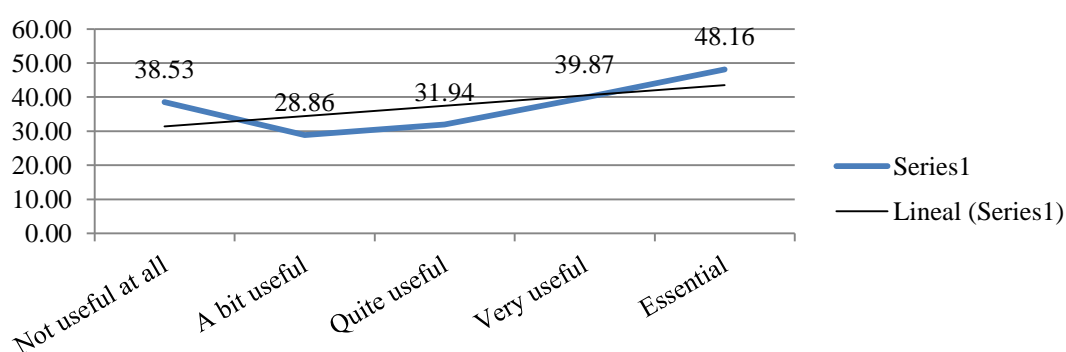
Figure 153. Highest level of relative (%) frequencies for each band. Questions 24c/53c – 24a/53a – 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e and 23b/52b (2,002 responses on average).

The second analysis within this group corresponds to the correlations between variable 30/59, which relates to the level of English that parents think their children will be able

to reach, and the other six variables, which refer to parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English and about foreign language acquisition.

To be able to interpret the meaning of the dependence relationships among the variables, we first obtained the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of each of the six cross-tabulations (see APPENDIX D). The result of such analysis revealed that the same pattern was repeated for them all. In order to visualise this common pattern, the six tabulations were merged and a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies was obtained (see Figure 154 below).

Qs 24c/53c – 24a/53a – 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e and 23b/52b. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English and about foreign language acquisition.
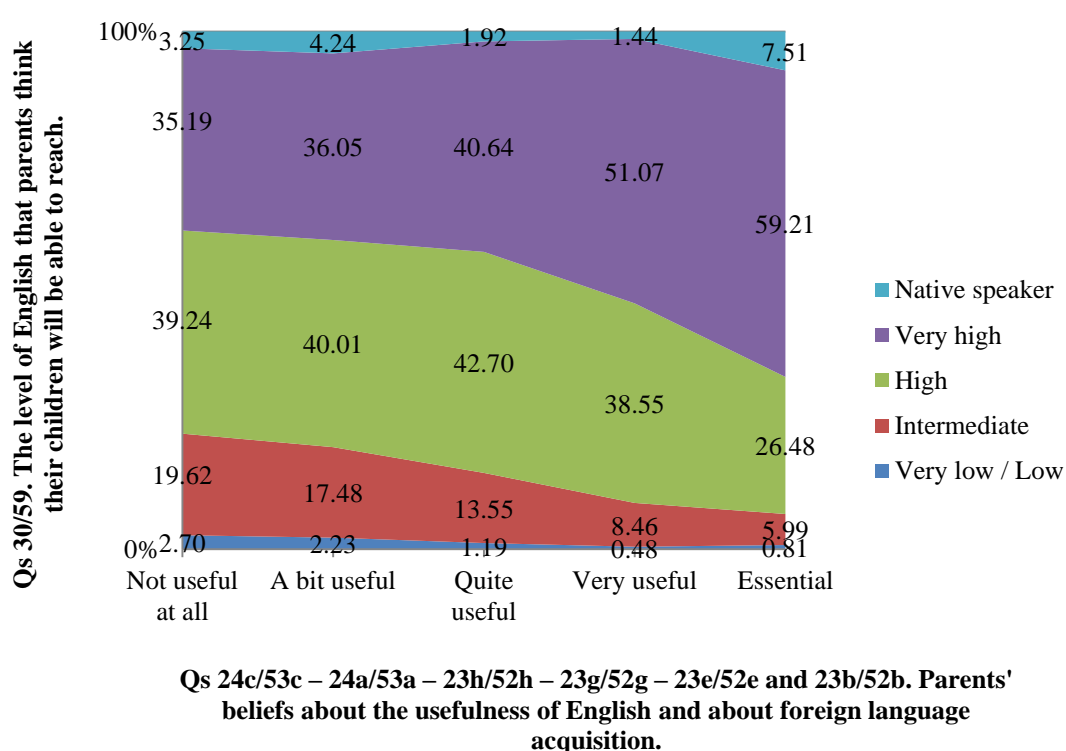
Figure 154. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach and all the variables concerning parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English and about foreign language acquisition. Questions 30/59 and 24c/53c – 24a/53a – 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b (2,006 responses on average).

As we can observe in Figure 154 above, for bands "Native speaker" and "Very high", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of the *x*-axis. By contrast, for bands "High", "Intermediate" and "Very low / Low", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of the *x*-axis. In other words, the relative (%) number of parents who believe that their children will reach a native-like or a very high level of English increases as parents' beliefs about the

usefulness of English and about foreign language acquisition become more and more positive (see Figures 155 and 156 below).
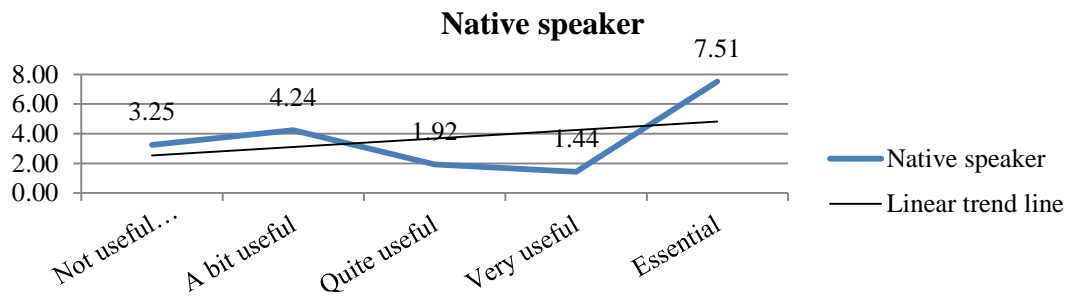
Figure 155. Linear trend line for band "Native speaker".
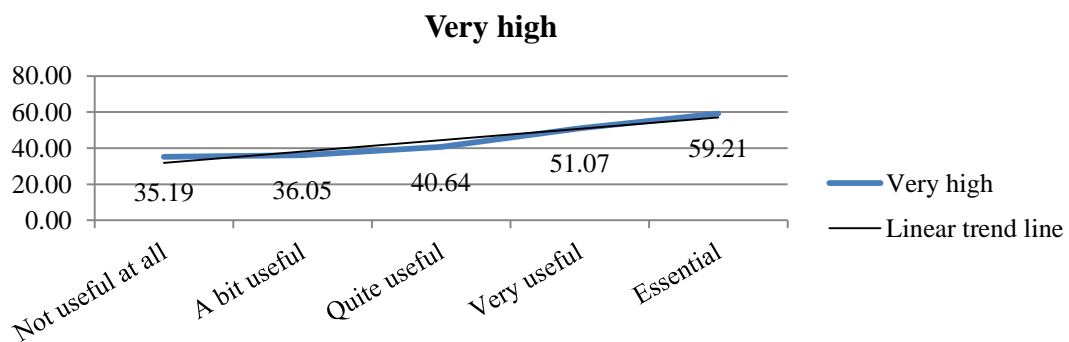
Figure 156. Linear trend line for band "Very high".

By contrast, the relative (%) number of parents who believe that their children will reach a high, intermediate or low/very low level of English rises as parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English and about foreign language acquisition become increasingly negative (see Figures 157, 158 and 159 below).
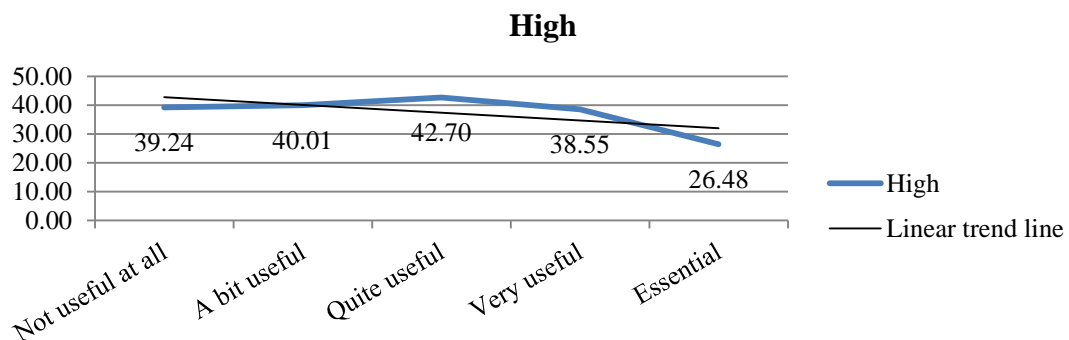
Figure 157. Linear trend line for band "High".
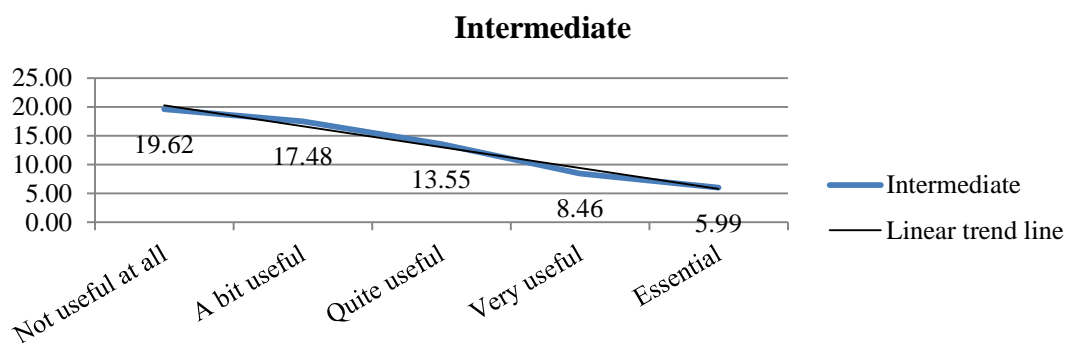
Figure 158. Linear trend line for band "Intermediate".
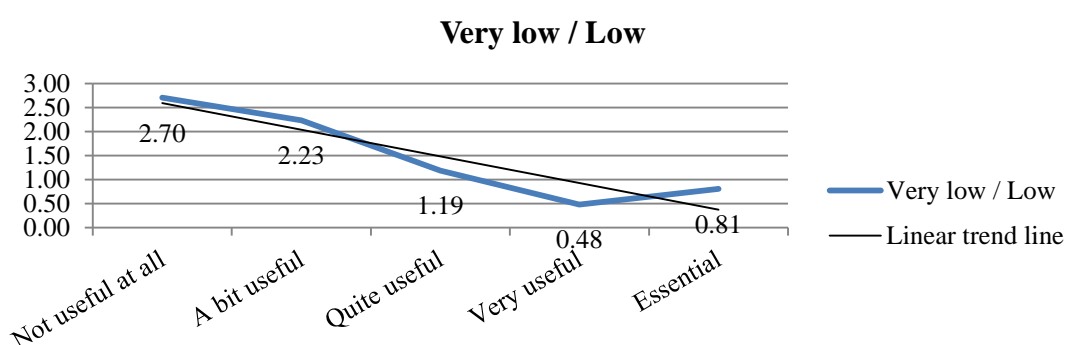
Figure 159. Linear trend line for band "Very low / Low".

As regards the slope of the five linear trends, we can conclude that the strongest correlations correspond to bands "Very high", "Intermediate" and "Very low / Low", which have the steepest slopes and also the highest number of regular tendencies (see APPENDIX D). On the contrary, the linear trend lines corresponding to bands "Native speaker" and "High" have the most gentle slopes, which means that variables *x* and *y* have the weakest correlations and the highest number of irregular tendencies.

Finally, we could claim that parents' beliefs about the level of English that their children will be able to reach are affected in similar ways by parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English for the purposes above indicated and by parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition.

4.7.1.3 Parental attitudes and ideology

The next block will focus on the relationships among variables that measure parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English, towards Anglo-Saxon culture and towards subtitling instead of dubbing.

Table 41 below shows the four variables that had a significant relationship with variable 66b (how often children view television in English), and the individual and average dependence degrees.

Table 41. Relevant dependence relationships strength rank for parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English, towards Anglo-Saxon culture, towards subtitling instead of dubbing and variable 66b.

Variables Number	Variables Description	Dependence degree
66b – 31/60	Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.	82.59%
66b – 22/51	Parents' interest in Anglo-Saxon culture.	82.33%
66b – 20/49	Parents' interest in learning foreign languages.	81.62%
66b – 21/50	Parents' interest in English.	81.39%
Average		81.94%

The study of the nature of parents' attitudes and ideology was done following the same methodology used for the analysis of linguistic practices within the family and parents' beliefs.

As Table 42 below reveals, each of the six possible cross-tabulations proved to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above.

Table 42. Dependence relationships strengths for parents' attitudes and ideology.

	Qs 20/49	Qs 21/50	Qs 22/51	Qs 31/60
Qs 20/49				
Qs 21/50	98.72			
Qs 22/51	97.58	97.93		
Qs 31/60	91.60	90.78	85.16	

As a matter of fact, 93.63% of the participants on average can be said to be affected by the dependence relationships among all the variables. Table 43 below shows the strength of the dependence relationship between each variable and the rest of variables within the same group.

Table 43. Average dependence strength rank for parents' attitudes and ideology.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree
20/49	Parents' interest in learning foreign languages.	95.97%
21/50	Parents' interest in English.	95.81%
22/51	Parents' interest in Anglo-Saxon culture.	93.56%
31/60	Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels are made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.	89.18%
Average		93.63%

First of all, we analysed the three variables that measure parents' attitudes (variables 20/49, 21/50 and 22/51). To be able to interpret the meaning of the dependence relationships among the variables, we first obtained the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of each of the three cross-tabulations (see APPENDIX D). The result of such analysis revealed that the same pattern was repeated for them all. In order to visualise this common pattern, the three tabulations were merged and a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies was obtained (see Figure 160 below).
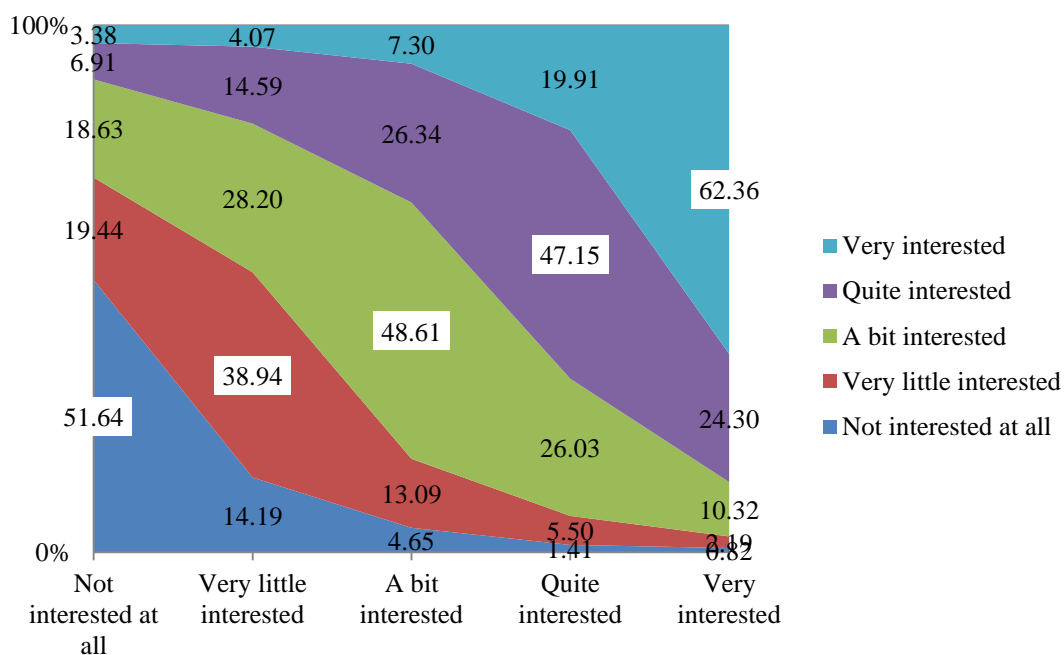
Figure 160. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations among all the variables concerning parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51 (2,022 responses on average).

As we can observe in Figure 160 above, for bands "Very interested" and "Quite interested", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for bands "A bit interested", "Very little interested" and "Not interested at all", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. In other words, the relative (%) number of parents who are very interested and quite interested in each of the three items described above increases as parents' interest in the items described in the other two variables increases too (see Figures 161 and 162 below).
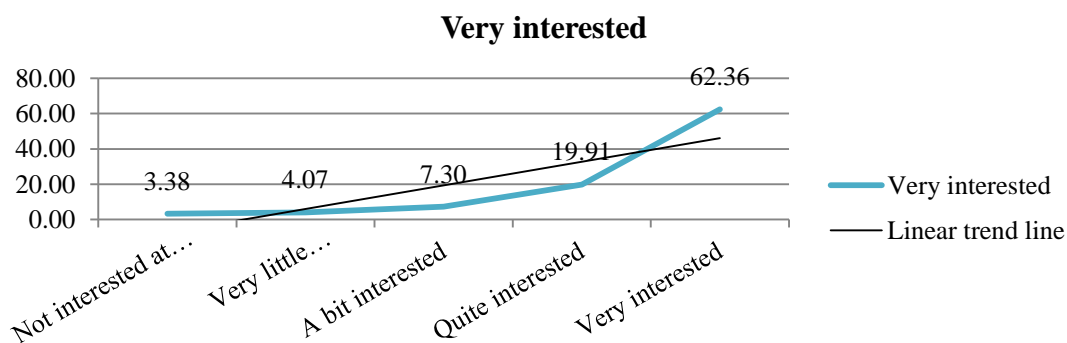
Figure 161. Linear trend line for band "Very interested".
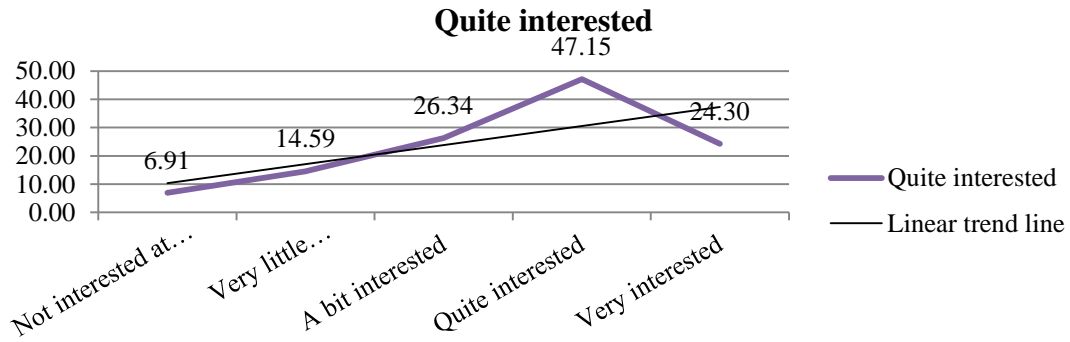
Figure 162. Linear trend line for band "Quite interested".

Contrariwise, the relative (%) number of parents who are a bit interested, very little interested and not interested at all in each of the three items described above increases as parents' interest in the items describe in the other two variables decreases (see Figures 163, 164 and 165 below).
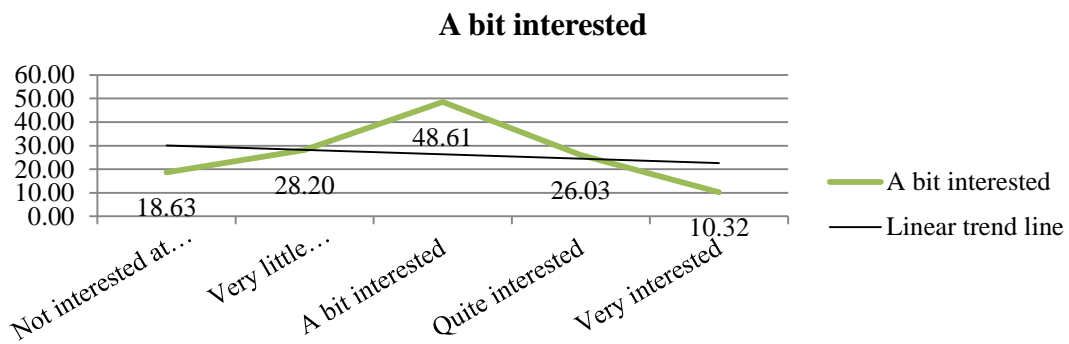
Figure 163. Linear trend line for band "A bit interested".
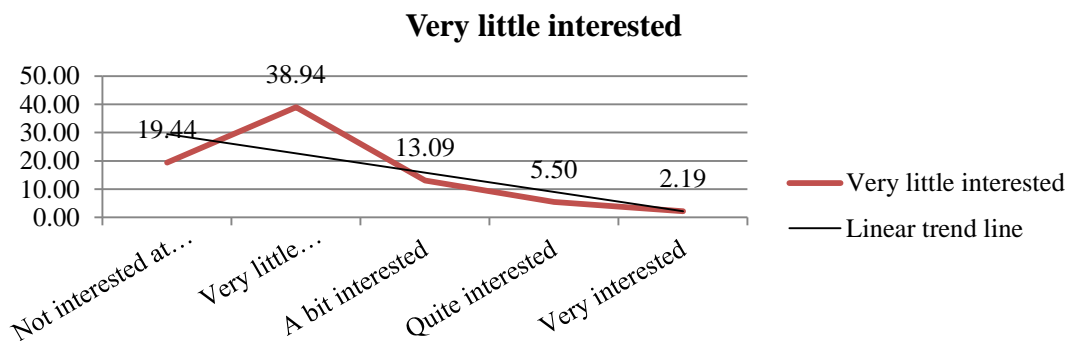
Figure 164. Linear trend line for band "Very little interested".
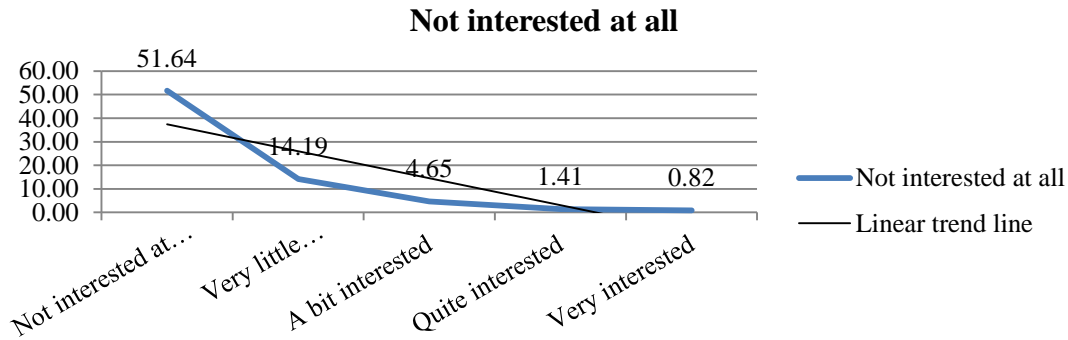
Figure 165. Linear trend line for band "Not interested at all".

As regards the slope of the five linear trends, we can observe that band "Quite interested" has the gentlest slope, which corresponds to weaker correlations between the two axes. The other four bands have stronger correlations, as indicated by the slope of their linear trend lines (see APPENDIX D).

We could conclude by stating that, once again, we are dealing with a very regular sample regarding parents' interests as expressed in the variables above. In brief, we are dealing with a sample in which those parents who are very interested or quite interested in one of the items above mentioned are similarly interested in the other two items. On the other hand, those parents who claimed to have very little interest or no interest at all in one of the items are similarly disinterested in the other two items. In this way, we can perceive how the different variables pertaining to parental attitudes are as closely interdependent as variables concerning linguistic practices and parental beliefs, thus producing similar tendencies (see Table 44 below).

Table 44. Highest level of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations among all the variables concerning parental attitudes. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51 (2,022 responses on average).

	Not interested at all	Very little interested	A bit interested	Quite interested	Very interested
Not interested at all	51.64	14.19	4.65	1.41	0.82
Very little interested	19.44	38.94	13.09	5.50	2.19
A bit interested	18.63	28.20	48.61	26.03	10.32
Quite interested	6.91	14.59	26.34	47.15	24.30
Very interested	3.38	4.07	7.30	19.91	62.36

The second analysis within this group corresponds to the correlations between variable 31/60, which indicates whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles, and the parents' attitudes just seen.

As in the previous analysis, we first obtained the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of each of the three tabulations (see APPENDIX D). The result of such analysis revealed that the same pattern was repeated for them all. In order to visualise this common pattern, the three tabulations were merged and a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies was obtained (see Figure 166 below).
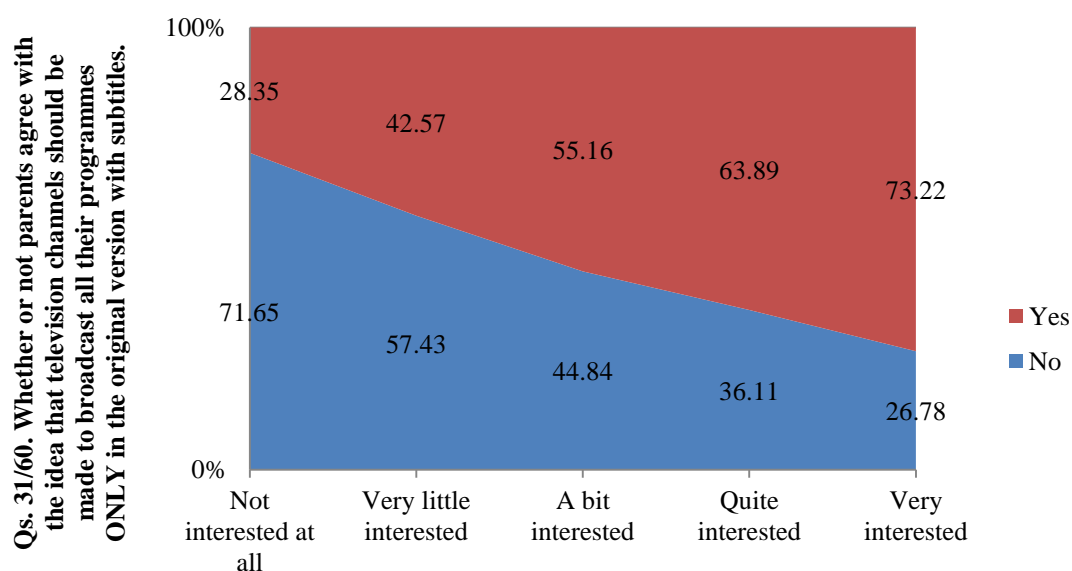
Qs 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 166. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 31/60 and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (1,612 responses on average).

As we can observe in Figure 166 above, for band "Yes" the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for band "No", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. Otherwise stated, the relative (%) number of parents who agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles increases as parents become more and more interested in the items just described (see Figure 167 below).

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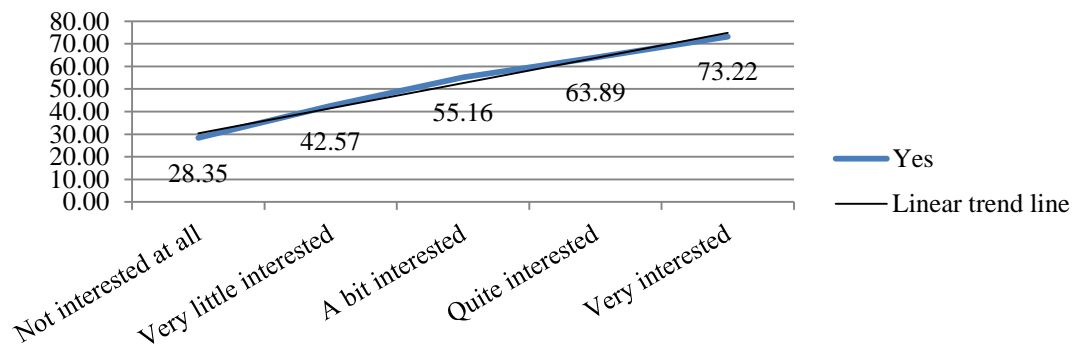
Figure 167. Linear trend line for band "Yes". Questions 31/60 and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (967 responses on average).

By contrast, the relative (%) number of parents who do not agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles increases as parents become less and less interested in the items described above (see Figure 168 below).
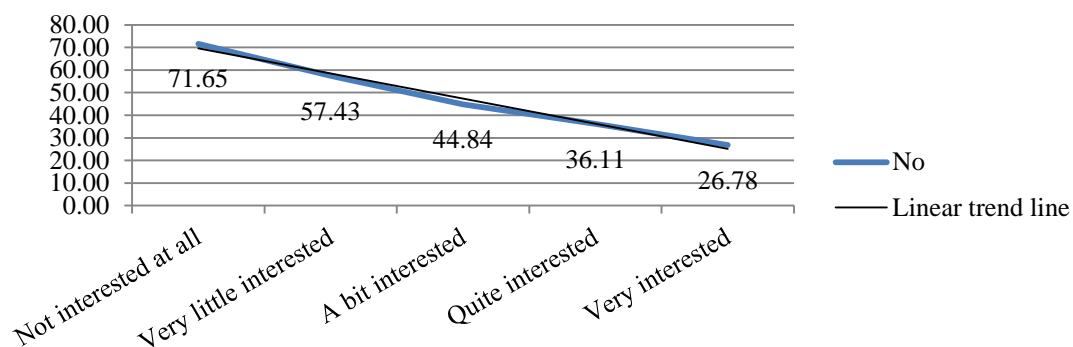
Figure 168. Linear trend line for band "No". Questions 31/60 and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (645 responses on average).

By way of conclusion, we could claim that parents' attitude towards making television channels broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles is affected in similar ways by parents' interests in the three items previously mentioned.

We end here the analysis and discussion of the present group of variables, which refer to three parental attitudes and one element that describes ideology. In the next section, we will deal with different linguistic managerial and planning strategies, and how they interact with each other.

4.7.1.4 Linguistic management and planning

Table 45 below shows the five variables that had a significant relationship with variable 66b (how often children view television in English), and the individual and average dependence degrees.

Table 45. Relevant dependence relationships strength rank for linguistic management and planning strategies, and variable 66b.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence degree
66b – 64	The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis.	92.36%
66b – 72a/72b	What parents do when their children ask them to change back to Spanish.	91.27%
66b – 71a/71b	How often children ask their parents to change back to Spanish.	85.08%
66b – 70a/70b	Whether or not parents ask their children in which language they want to watch TV or a DVD.	80.02%
66b – 69	When children first began to view television in English.	70.18%
Average		83.78%

The study of the nature of parents' linguistic management and planning strategies was done following the same methodology used for the analysis of the other groups before.

As Table 46 below reveals, six of the ten possible cross-tabulations proved to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above.

Table 46. Dependence relationships strengths for parents' linguistic management and planning strategies.

|	Q 64	Q 69	Qs 70a/70b	Qs 71a/71b	Qs 72a/72b
Q 64					
Q 69	94.12				
Qs 70a/70b	-35.69	16.08			
Qs 71a/71b	74.41	54.52	87.85		
Qs 72a/72b	76.67	37.10	72.59	97.34	

In this case, only 58.45% of the participants on average can be said to be affected by the dependence relationships among all the variables. Table 47 below shows the strength of the dependence relationship between each variable and the rest of variables within the same group.

Table 47. Average dependence strength rank for parents' linguistic management and planning strategies.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree
71a/71b	How often children ask their parents to change back to Spanish.	78.53%
72a/72b	What parents do when their children ask them to change back to Spanish.	70.93%
64	The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis.	52.38%
69	When children first began to view television in English.	50.46%
70a/70b	Whether or not parents ask their children in which language they want to watch TV or a DVD.	35.21%
Average		57.50%

We will start off by looking at some interesting findings about variable 71a/71b, which pertains to how often children ask their parents to change the language of the contents shown on television back to Spanish. In this respect, we will first discuss how this variable is affected by variable 64, which refers to the age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, and by variable 69, which relates to the age at which children first began to view television in English. For both variables, we will restrict the analysis to bands "Always" and "Never", which have the steepest linear trend lines and thus show the most regular tendencies.

Regarding variable 64, the relative number of children who always ask parents to switch from English to Spanish when they are watching television in English increases as children's first contact with English took place at a later age. Contrariwise, the relative number of children that never ask to have the language changed increases as children's first contact with English took place at an earlier age (see figures 169 and 170 below).

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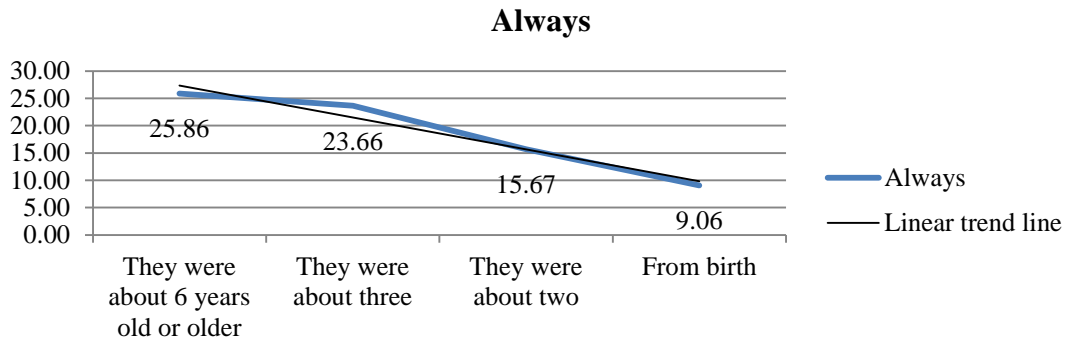
Figure 169. Linear trend line for band "Always". Questions 71a/71b and 64 (270 responses).
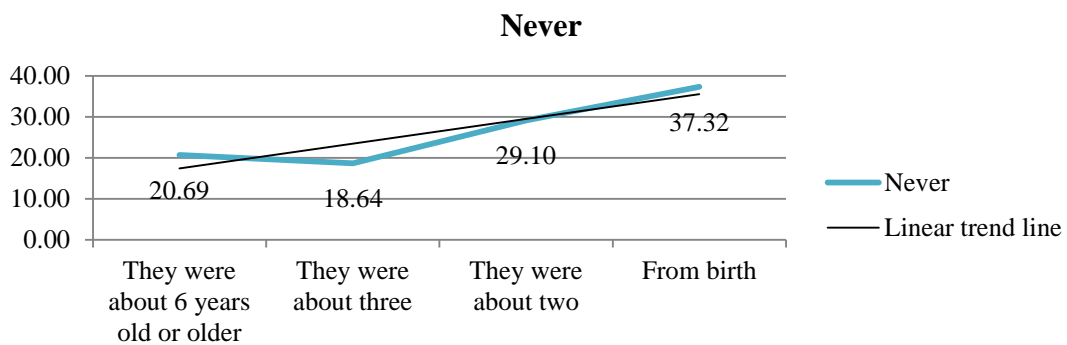
Figure 170. Linear trend line for band "Never". Questions 71a/71b and 64 (386 responses).

If we consider variable 69, the same tendencies can be observed as for variable 64 (see Figures 171 and 172 below).
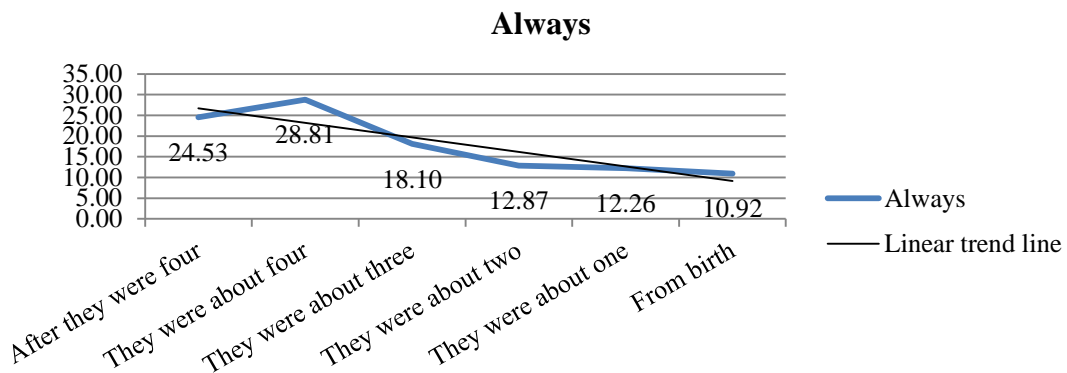
Figure 171. Linear trend line for band "Always". Questions 71a/71b and 69 (181 responses).
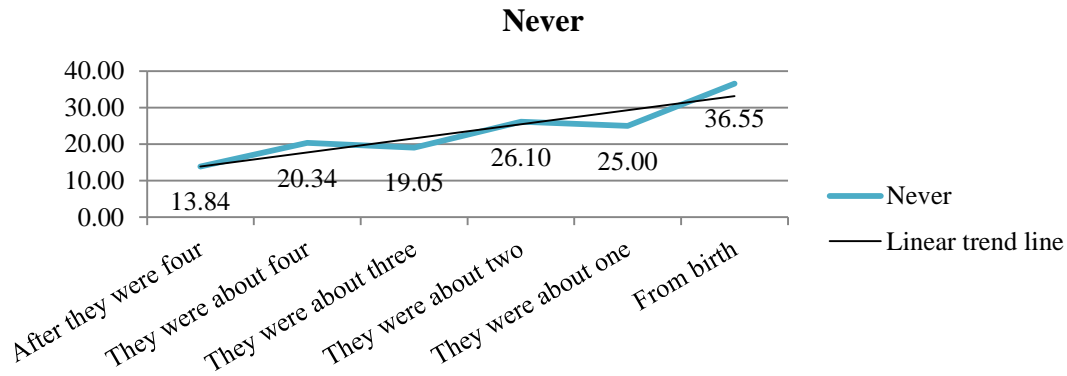
Figure 172. Linear trend line for band "Never". Questions 71a/71b and 69 (285 responses).

This finding coincides with the researcher's observation within his own family. Thus, the researcher's children, to whom we referred in Chapter 1 and for whom more than 95% of the time spent in contact with television ever since they were born has always taken place in English, never ask to have the language changed to Spanish.

The conclusion that could be drawn after observing these two variables is that an early or a late contact with English, especially through television (variable 69) but also through other means (variable 64), seems to affect children in different ways. This is very relevant when it comes to designing language planning actions, as children's linguistic practices and, therefore, linguistic achievement in a second language could dramatically change depending on how parents plan and manage linguistic practices within their families. Thus, accepting children's request means reducing the time of exposure to the target language and, therefore, hampering with the acquisition process. What is more, once parents have yielded to children's request the first time, they will have set a precedent for future situations in which linguistic practices have to be managed.

An example of how the planning of linguistic practices can affect language management can be seen in Figure 173 below. As we can observe, the relative number of parents who always or sometimes change the language when requested by their children increases with the frequency with which children ask for it. By contrast, the relative number of parents who tend to ignore children's requests, or convince their children to leave it as it is, increases as children's requests decrease.
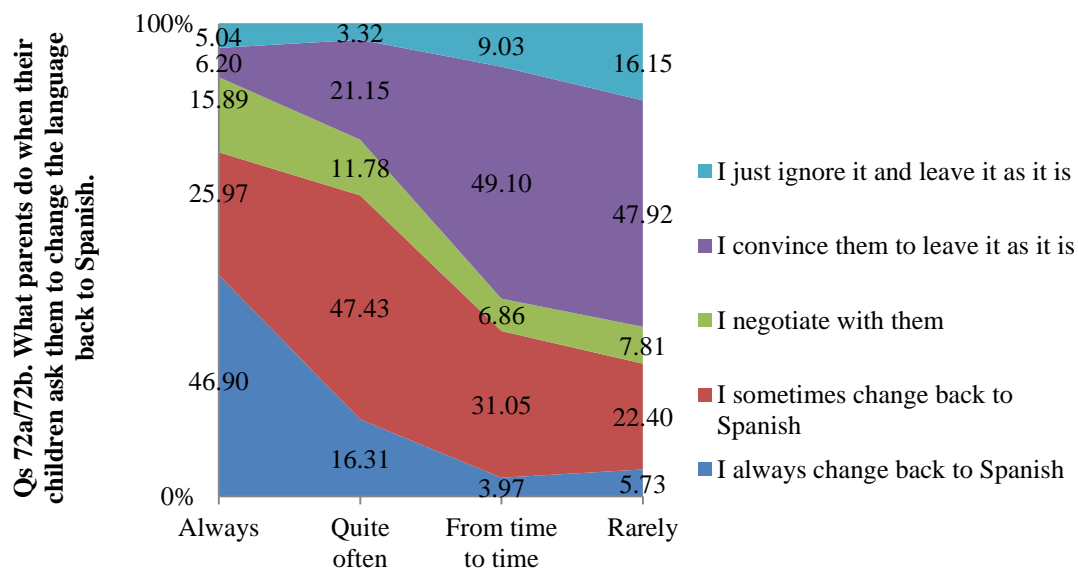
Figure 173. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children ask to change the language back to Spanish when they are watching television in English and parents' response. Questions 72a/72b and 71a/71b (1,058 responses).

Consequently, the line of argument seems straightforward. An early exposure to a second language through television reduces the chances of children's complaints which, in turn, facilitates parents' management of the situation.

However, this last cross-tabulation could be done swapping axes *x* and *y*. In this case, the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies would open the door to a different interpretation of the data, inverting the cause-effect relationship between variables 71a/71b and 72a/72g. In this sense, it could be argued that the way in which parents model their response to their children's demands could be contributing to shaping children's future demands. As we can observe in Figure 174 below, we could conclude that children's tendency to demand a change of language may have been regulated by parents' previous responses so that the relative number of children who never, rarely or from time to time request a change of language increases when parents' responses become less hesitant, whereas the relative number of children that quite often and always demand a change of language increases when parents' responses to their demands become weaker and weaker.
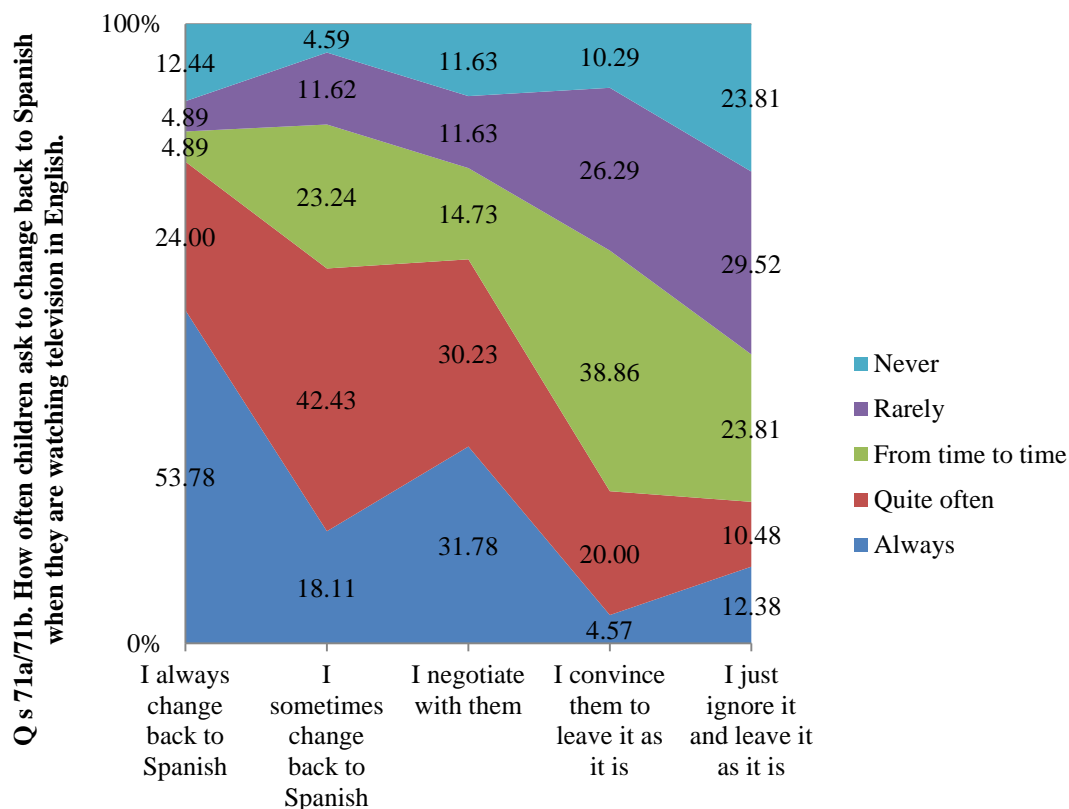
250

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Figure 174. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and the frequency with which children ask to change the language back to Spanish when they are watching television in English. Questions 72a/72b and 71a/71b (1,419 responses).

We may conclude this discussion about the relationship between variables 64, 69, 71a/71b and 72a/72b highlighting the idea that an early exposure to television in English at an age at which children can make no choice seems to facilitate the management of this linguistic practice when children grow up and can opt for one language or the other. A habit instilled at an early age is more likely to endure over time because it is also more likely to be initially accepted by children and this, in turn, will facilitate parents' management. At the same time, parents' success in managing this linguistic practice will lead to a reinforcement of children's attitudes and thus reduce children's future request for a change of language.

A different way of looking at the interactions between variables pertaining to language planning and management is through the analysis of variable 70a/70b, which refers to the frequency with which parents ask children about the language in which they want to

watch television, and variable 71a/71b, which relates to the frequency with which children ask their parents to change back to Spanish. As we can observe in figures 175 and 176 below, the relative number of children that always or quite often ask parents to switch the language to Spanish when they are watching television in English increases when the frequency with which parents ask their children's opinion increases too and the former decreases when the latter decreases as well.
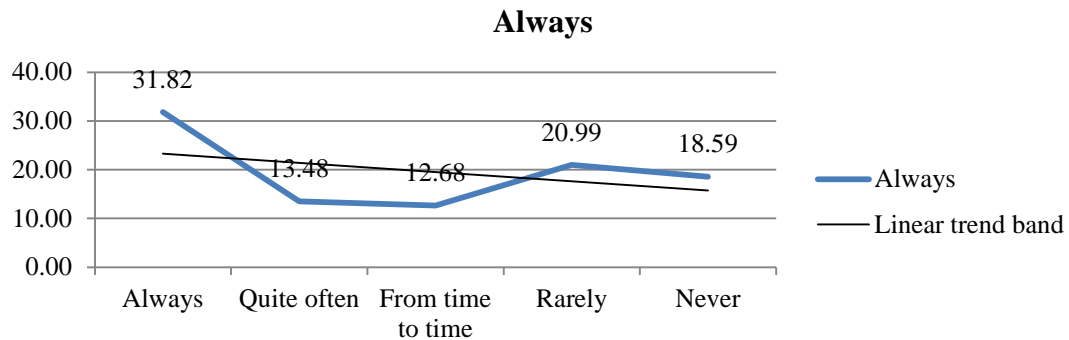
Always

Figure 175. Linear trend line for band "Always". Questions 71a/71b and 70a/70b (263 responses).
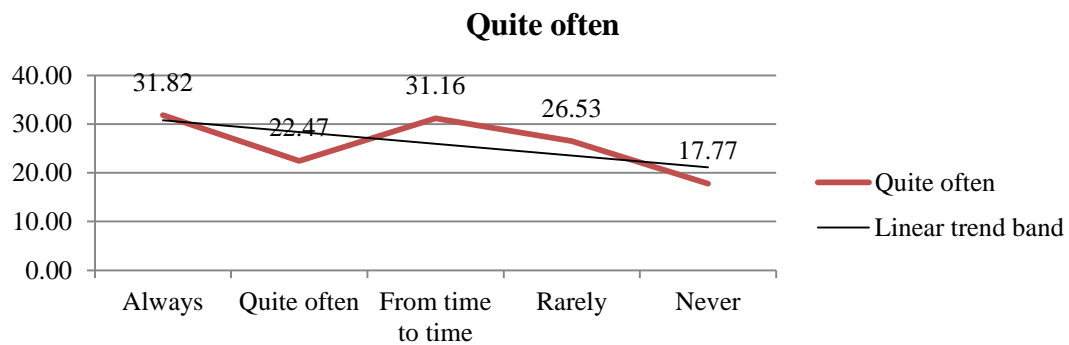
Quite often

Figure 176. Linear trend line for band "Quite often". Questions 71a/71b and 70a/70b (335 responses).

Likewise, the relative number of children who never or rarely ask their parents for a change of language back to Spanish rises as the frequency with which parents ask their children's preference decreases (see figures 177 and 178 below).
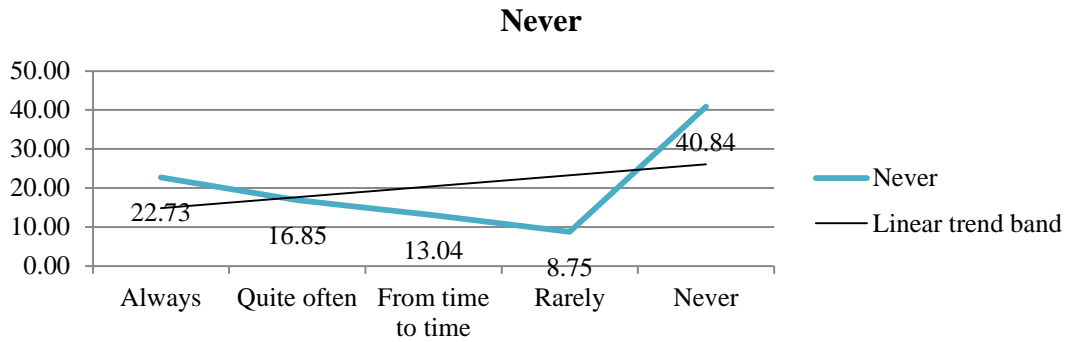
Figure 177. Linear trend line for band "Never". Questions 71a/71b and 70a/70b (387 responses).
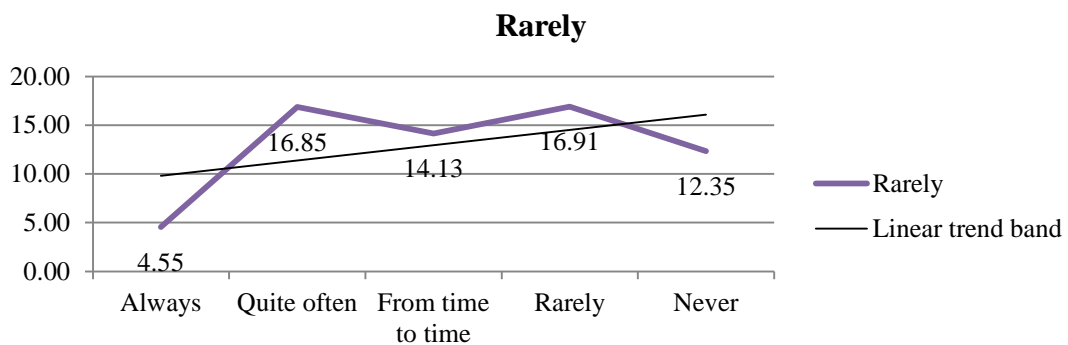
Figure 178. Linear trend line for band "Rarely". Questions 71a/71b and 70a/70b (204 responses).

This finding will let us reach the conclusion that the more often parents ask their children about their preferences as to language choice, the more often children will request their parents to switch the language back to Spanish when they are already watching television in English and, as we had seen before, the more often children make this request to their parents, the more often parents will end up yielding to their children's demands.

We could end this section claiming that, as far as viewing television in English is concerned, an early start seems to be the key factor towards stable and perdurable linguistic practices when children grow up. Put differently, what these findings seem to be telling us is what common sense and life experience would anticipate. Namely, that social norms, practices or patterns of behaviour are more easily inculcated in children at an early age.

4.7.1.5 Intra-family factors

Next, we will move on to analyse and discuss how the different intra-family factors that had evidenced to have a relevant relationship with variable 66b (how often children view television in English), affect each other (see Table 48 below).

Table 48. Relevant dependence relationships strength rank for intra-family factors and variable 66b.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence degree
66b – 15/44	Parents' level of listening skills.	89.19%
66b – 14/43	Parents' level of English.	88.74%
66b – 9/38	Parents' job.	80.76%
66b – 13/42	Parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs.	76.09%
66b – 10/39	Parents' level of schooling.	70.07%
Average		80.97%

The study of the nature of the intra-family factors was done following the same methodology used for the analysis of the other groups before.

As Table 49 below reveals, eight of the ten possible cross-tabulations produced dependant relationships, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above.

Table 49. Dependence relationships strengths for intra-family factors.

|	Qs 9/38	Qs 10/39	Qs 13/42	Qs 14/43	Qs 15/44
Qs 9/38					
Qs 10/39	96.69				
Qs 13/42	52.00	67.48			
Qs 14/43	94.74	96.15	86.39		
Qs 15/44	92.89	92.41	87.70	98.83	

In this case, 86.61% of the participants on average can be said to be affected by the dependence relationships among all the variables, which anticipates more regular patterns of distribution of relative frequencies than in the previous group. Table 50 below shows the strength of the dependence relationship between each variable and the rest of variables within the same group.

Table 50. Average dependence strength rank for intra-family factors.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree
14/43	Parents' level of English.	94.33%
15/44	Parents' level of listening skills.	92.96%
10/39	Parents' level of schooling.	88.09%
9/38	Parents' job.	83.99%
13/42	Parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs.	73.69%
Average		86.61%

We will start by looking at variable 9/38, which pertains to parents' job, and how the relationships set up with the other variables work. In this respect, the relationships can be explained in the following terms. As regards parents' level of English (variable 14/43) and parents' level of listening skills (variable 15/44), after obtaining the general pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies of these two variables, we found a pattern of distribution of relative frequencies that we had seen before (see Figure 179 below). Thus, we can observe a tendency by which the relative number of parents with less qualified jobs (bands "Junior staff, cleaner and helper…" and "Administrative assistant in both public and private companies…") tends to increase as their level of English gets lower and lower, whereas the relative number of parents with more qualified jobs ("Intermediate-level technician…" and "Manager of public or private companies…") tends to increase as their level of English gets higher and higher (for an understanding of the relationship between foreign language proficiency and employability, see for example Beadle *et al.*, 2015).
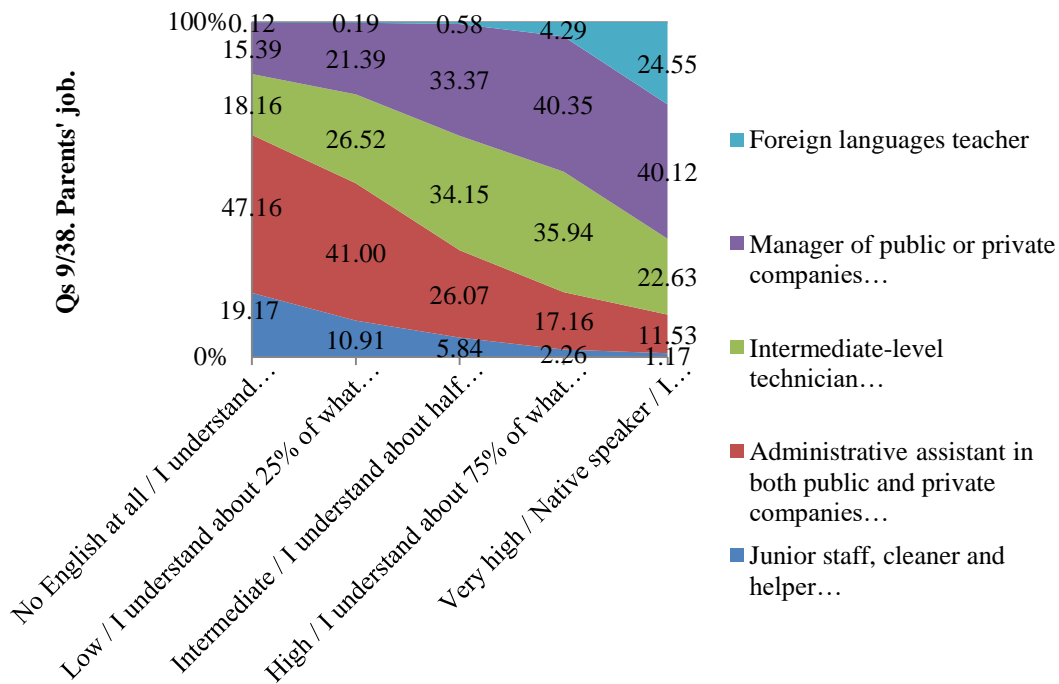
Qs 14/43 - 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 179. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' job and parents' level of English. Questions 9/38 and 14/43 – 15/44 (1,688 responses on average).

Otherwise stated, the relative number of parents with lower levels of English (bands "No English at all …" and "Low …") grows as parents' jobs become less and less qualified. On the contrary, the relative number of parents with higher levels of English (bands "Intermediate …", "High …" and "Very high / Native speaker …") increases as parents' jobs become more and more qualified (see Figure 180 below).
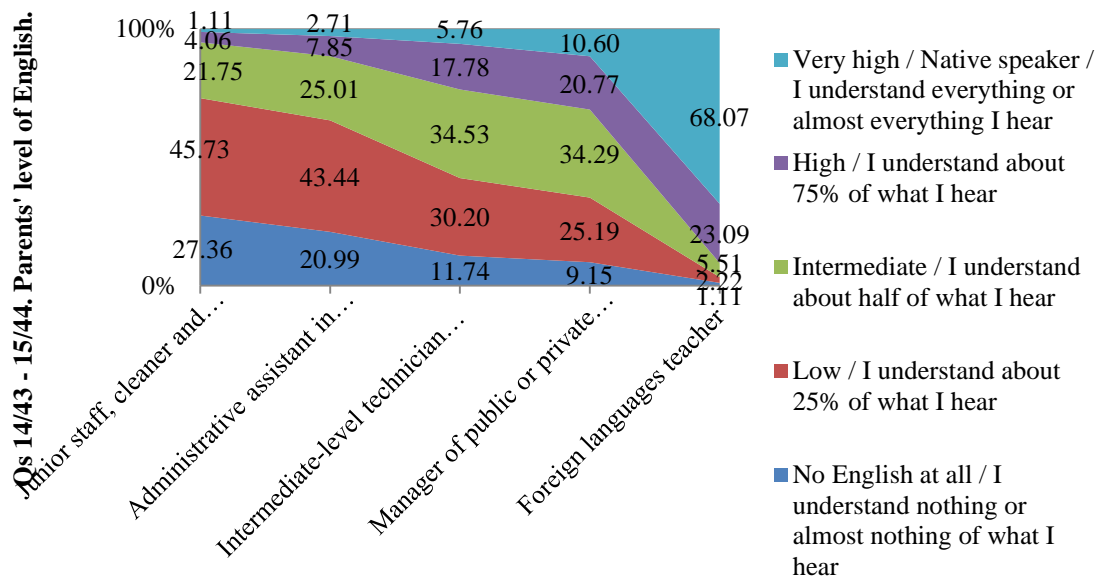
Figure 180. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of English and parents' job. Questions 14/43 – 15/44 and 9/38 (1,688 responses on average).

Another interesting finding corresponds to the correlation between parents' job (variable 9/38) and parents' highest level of schooling completed (variable 10/39). Once again, we can observe tendencies repeating. Thus, we can see how the relative number of parents with less qualified jobs (bands "Junior staff, cleaner and helper…" and "Administrative assistant in both public and private companies…") rises as their level of schooling completed gets lower. By contrast, in Figure 181 below, we can also see how the relative number of parents with more qualified jobs ("Intermediate-level technician…" and "Manager of public or private companies…") tends to increase as their level of schooling gets higher (for the relationship between level of education and employment, see for example Abrassart, 2013; OECD, 2012a; OECD, 2012b; Verhofstadt *et al.*, 2007).
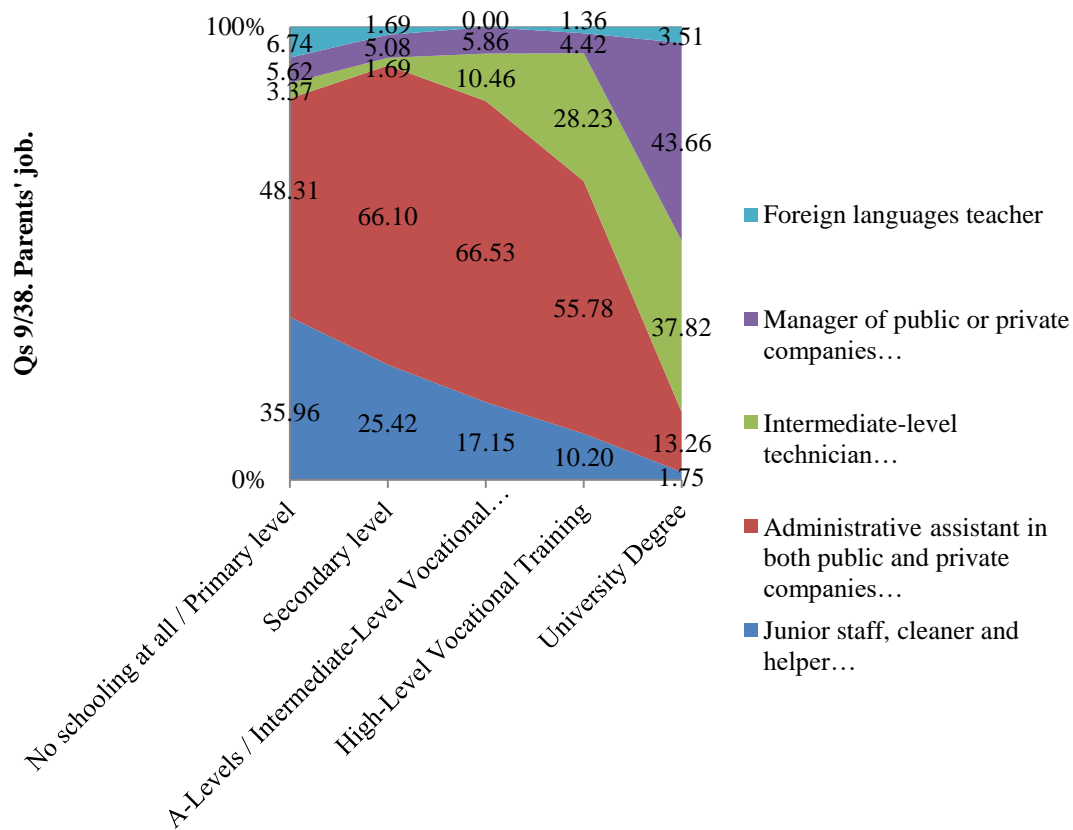
Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling completed.

Figure 181. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' jobs and parents' highest level of schooling completed. Questions 9/38 and 10/39 (1,707 responses).

We can conclude the analysis of variable 9/38 stating that, within our sample, parents with 'better' jobs have a higher level of English and a higher level of schooling, whereas parents with 'worse' jobs have a lower level of English and a lower level of schooling.

Though expected, another relevant finding has to do with the pattern of correlation between variable 10/39, which reflects parents' level of schooling, and variables 14/43 and 15/44, which indicates parents' level of English. As we can observe in Figure 182 below, the relative number of parents with higher levels of English (bands "Very high / Native speaker ...", "High ..." and "Intermediate ...") increases when the level of parents' schooling increases too. By contrast, the relative number of parents with a lower level of English (bands "Low ..." and "No English at all ...") rises when the level of parents' schooling decreases.
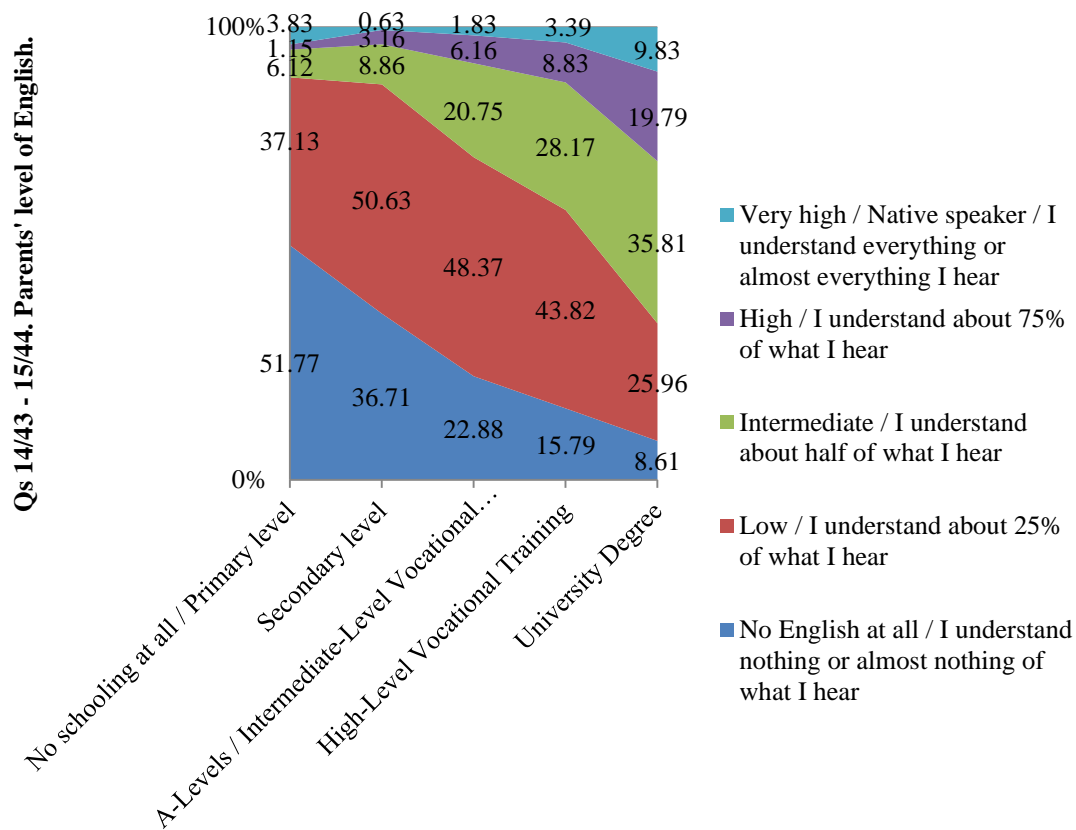
Figure 182. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' highest level of schooling completed and parents' level of English. Questions 10/39 and 14/43 – 15/44 (2,048 responses on average).

A look at Figure 183 below will let us observe that the relationship between parents' level of English and their highest level of schooling completed is also meaningful if we swap axis *x* for axis *y*. In this respect, it can be seen that the relative number of parents with a university degree grows when they claim to have higher levels of English. By contrast, the relative number of parents within the other bands rises when they claim to have lower levels of English. The behaviour of band "University Degree" could be explained by the fact that, according to Altbach and Knight (2007), "The international activities of universities dramatically expanded in volume, scope, and complexity during the past two decades (as a consequence of globalization)" (parenthesis added), which has brought about "the use of English as the lingua franca for scientific communication" (pp. 290-291).
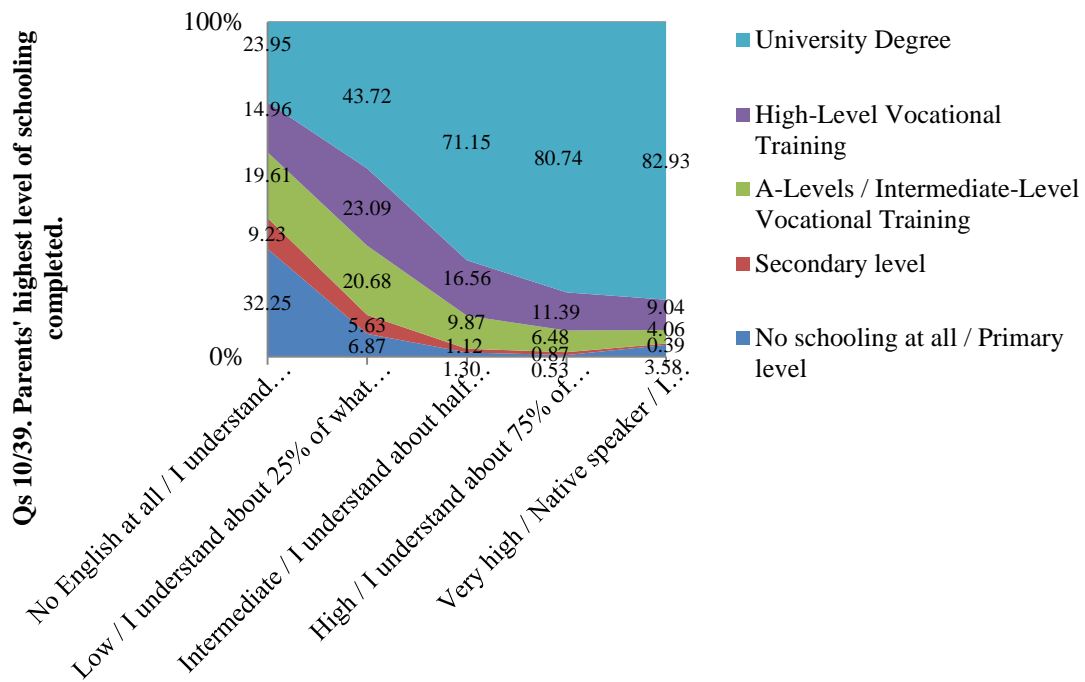
Qs 14/43 - 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 183. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of English and parents' highest level of schooling completed. Questions 14/43 – 15/44 and 10/39 (2,048 responses on average).

Three more correlations will be looked at before this section comes to an end. The first refers to the relationship established between variables 14/43 and 15/44, which pertain to parents' level of English, and variable 13/42, which relates to parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs. As we can observe in Figure 184 below, the relative number of parents with higher levels of English (bands "Very high / Native speaker ...", "High ..." and "Intermediate ...") increases when parents' experiences regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs are positive and decreases when those experiences are negative. By contrast, the relative number of parents with the lower levels (bands "Low ..." and "No English at all ...") increases when parents' experiences have been negative.
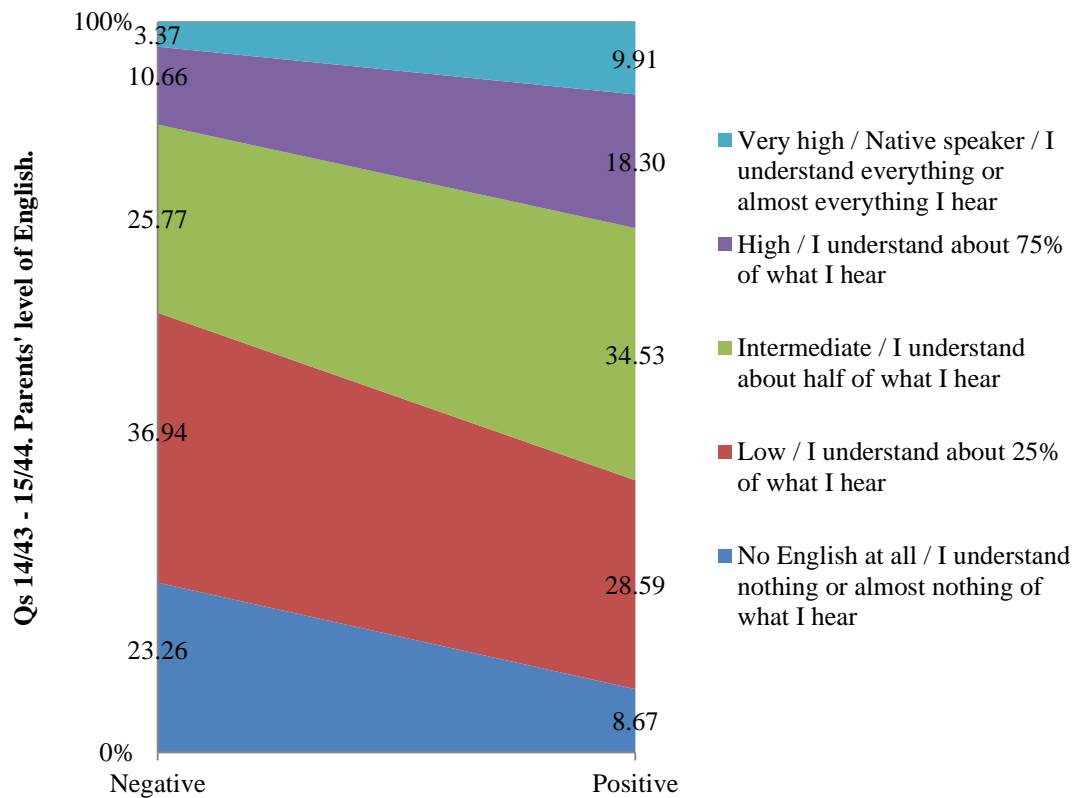
Qs 13/42 - Parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs.

Figure 184. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of English and parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs. Questions 14/43 – 15/44 and 13/42 (1,013 responses on average).

However, the data obtained from this cross-tabulation can be interpreted differently. In this respect, we could argue that the relative number of parents that have had positive experiences regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs grows as parents' level of English increases as well. Contrariwise, the relative number of parents with negative experiences increases as parents' level of English gets lower (see Figure 185 below).
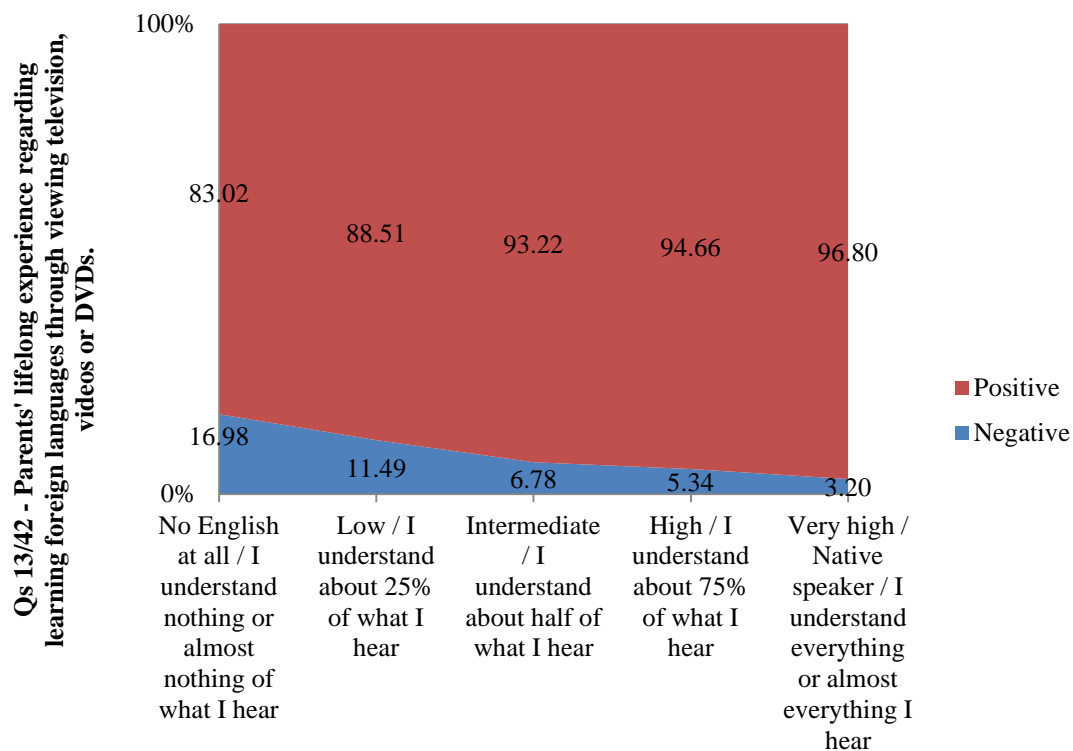
Qs 14/43 - 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 185. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs, and parents' level of English. Questions 13/42 and 14/43 – 15/44 (1,013 responses on average).

To sum up, we could argue here in favour of a bidirectional cause-effect relationship between parents' positive experiences of learning foreign language through viewing television, videos or DVDs on the one hand, and parents' level of English on the other. In this respect, we could affirm that parents' higher level of English is partly a consequence of having viewed television in English or that parents' positive experiences may be associated with perceiving their level of English rise as a result of having viewed television in English. Furthermore, it could also be claimed that parents' higher levels of English have made their experience with television, videos and DVDs more productive and more enjoyable.

We also wanted to look at the relationship between parents' level of English and variable 12/41, which measured the frequency with which parents had watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language during their school years. As we can observe in Figure 186 below, the relative number of parents with the higher level of English grows as the frequency with which they watched television, videos or

DVDs in English during their school years rises. On the other hand, the relative number of parents with the lower levels of English increases as contact with the media just mentioned decreases.
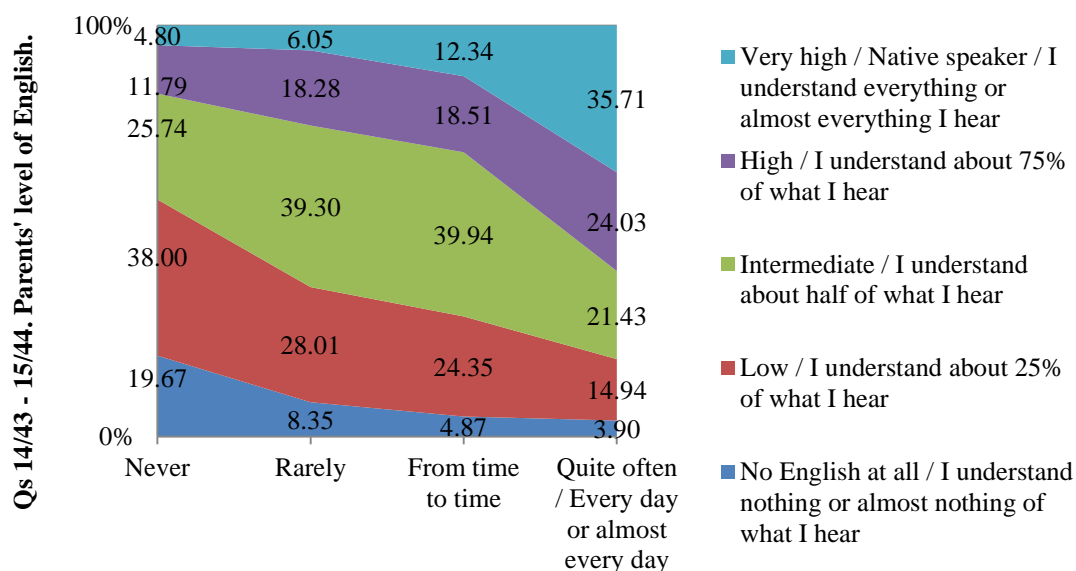
Qs 12/41. How often parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language during their school years.

Figure 186. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of English and the frequency with which parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language during their school years. Questions 14/43 – 15/44 and 12/41 (2,044 responses on average).

Finally, we looked at how variable 78a, which asked parents how much their own experience from the time when they were children had influenced their decision to make their own children watch television or DVDs in English, was influenced by variables 12/41 and 13/42. As regards variable 12/41, as we can observe in Figure 187 below, bands "A lot" and "Nothing" show very clear tendencies. In this way, what we found is that the relative number of parents who claim to have been very influenced by their experiences from their school years rises as the frequency with which they viewed television in English at this time of their lives also rises.
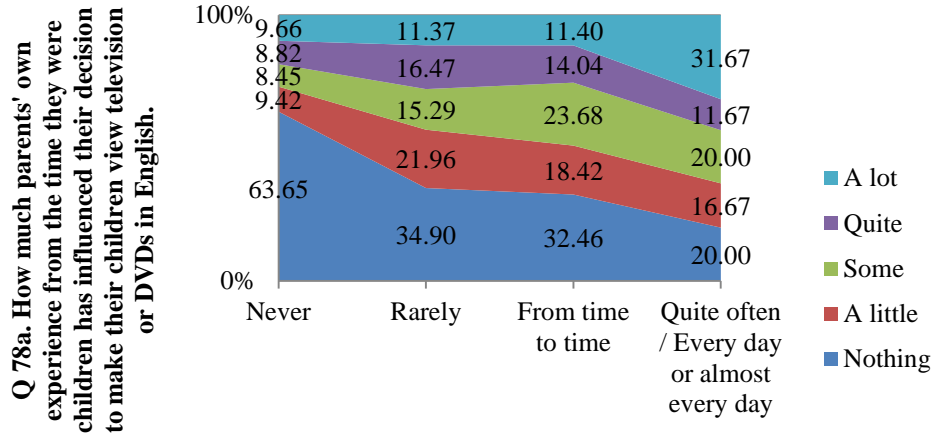
263

Q 78a. How much parents' own experience from the time they were children has influenced their decision to make their children view television or DVDs in English.

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often / Every day or almost every day
A lot	9.66	11.37	11.40	31.67
Quite	8.82	16.47	14.04	11.67
Some	8.45	15.29	23.68	20.00
A little	9.42	21.96	18.42	16.67
Nothing	63.65	34.90	32.46	20.00

Qs 12/41. Whether parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language to learn that language during their school years.

Figure 187. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much parents' own experience from the time they were children has influenced their decision to make their children view television or DVDs in English and the frequency with which parents watched television, videos or DVDs at home in another language during their school years. Questions 78a and 12/41 (1,257 responses).

Regarding variable 13/42, it can be observed in Figure 188 below how the relative number of parents within bands "A lot", "Quite" and "Some" rises when their experiences were positive. On the contrary, the relative number of parents within bands "A little" and "Nothing" rises when parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television had been negative.
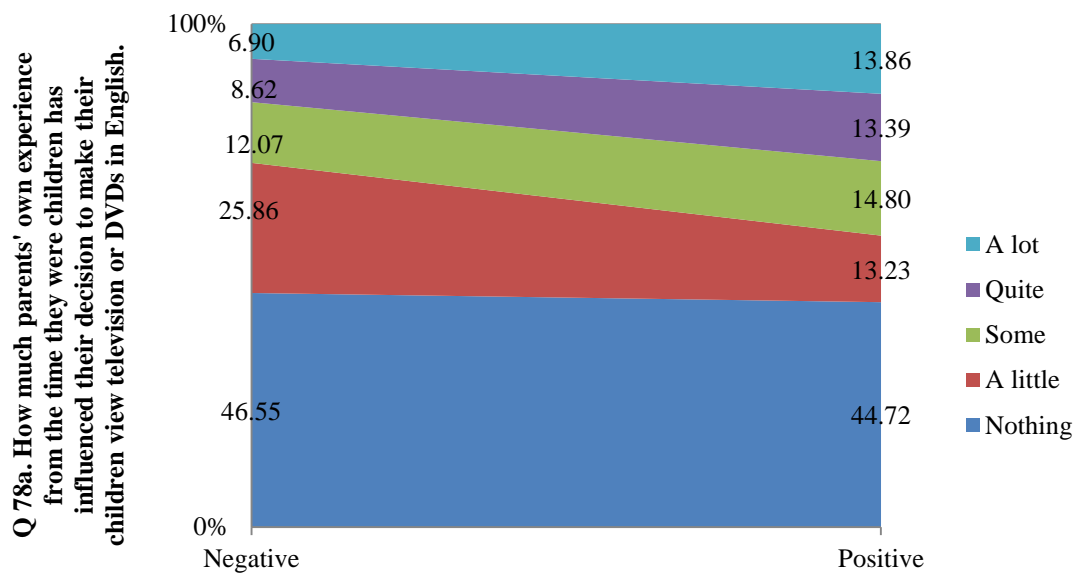
264

Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 188. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much parents' own experience from the time they were children has influenced their decision to make their children view television or DVDs in English, and parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, video or DVDs at any time in their lives. Questions 78a and 13/42 (693 responses).

These two last findings will help us better understand the interactions underpinning the patterns appearing in figures 106 and 108 above, which represented dependence relationships between the frequency with which children view television in English (variable 66b) and variables 12/41 and 13/42. In that case, we had learnt that, following King and Fogle's (2006) predictions, many parents rely on their personal experience with language learning when managing language policy within their own families. However, what the present findings seem to demonstrate is that parents explicitly (variable 78a) base language learning decisions for their children on their own learning experiences when these experiences have been positive.

By way of summary, we can conclude this section claiming that, within our sample, parents' jobs, parents' highest level of schooling completed, parents' level of English and parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs have similar patterns of distribution, as already seen many times before in this chapter. Such patterns reflect two very clear tendencies. The first one indicates that there is a co-occurrence of positive experiences of learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs, and an increase in the levels of

the other factors analysed. By contrast, there is also a co-occurrence of negative experiences of learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs, and a decrease in the levels of the other factors analysed.

4.7.1.6 External factors

With the analysis and discussion of the external factors that affect the language policy of the families within our sample we conclude the first part of Research Question 3, in which we have looked at how variables within the same group affect each other. As regards interaction between external factors, two variables were found to have a relevant relationship with variable 66b (how often children view television in English) (see Table 51 below).

Table 51. Relevant dependence relationships strength rank for external factors and variable 66b.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree
66b – 80	Whether or not parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.	91.06%
66b – 78g	Parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has not been influenced by anybody. It has always been very clear to them.	83.91%
Average		87.49%

As Table 52 below reveals, the cross-tabulation obtained proved to be less relevant than previous analysis, as its value affected fewer than 70% of the participants in the questionnaire.

Table 52. Dependence relationship strength for external family factors.

	Q 78g	Q 80
Q 78g		
Q 80	65.97	

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In this case, 65.97% of the participants can be said to be affected by the dependence relationships between the two variables. However, even though the pattern of distribution does not affect the minimum number of participants required for this relationship to be considered relevant, some interesting findings should be brought to light. Thus, as we can observe in Figure 189 below, the relative number of parents that agree a lot or quite a lot with the idea that the decision to make their children view television in English has not been influenced by anybody (as it had always been very clear to them) increases when they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other parents. On the other hand, the relative number of parents who agree to a lesser degree (bands "Some", "A little" and "Nothing") with the question posed to them increases when they do not share their experiences in this respect with other families. One may argue that there is a contradiction in the fact that the relative number of those parents who claim to agree a lot or quite a lot with the idea that the decision to make their children view television in English has not been influenced by anybody rises when they share their experiences with other families. However, with the data available, we can only establish that there exists some kind of meaningful dependence between the two variables, but we cannot determine that such dependence implies a cause-effect relationship. Furthermore, even if there is causation effect in the relationship, we could still support its validity. In this respect, for example, Gabillon (2005) claims that sociocultural approaches to beliefs construction have stressed the importance of external factors.
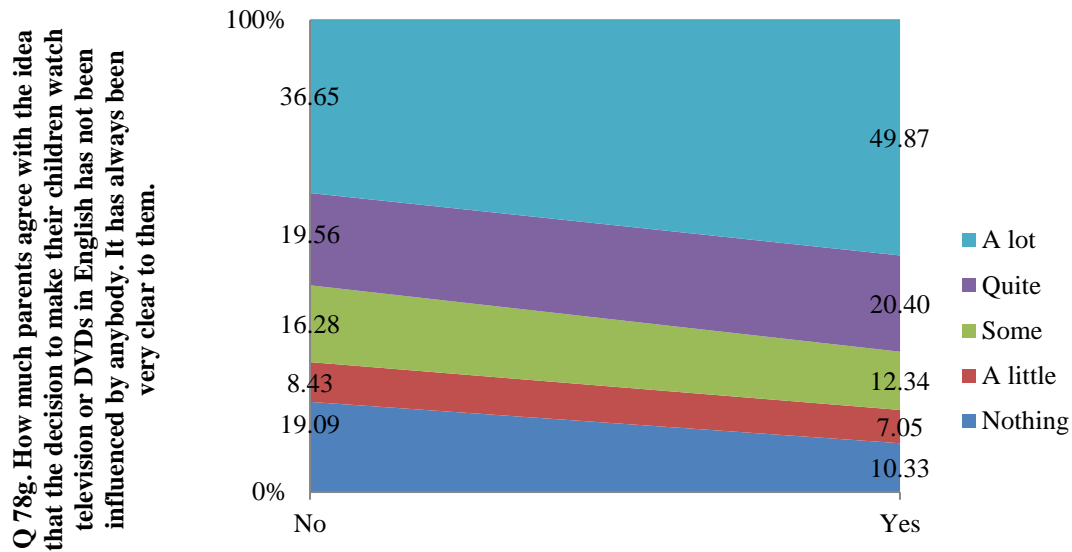
Q 78g. How much parents agree with the idea that the decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has not been influenced by anybody. It has always been very clear to them.

Chart values:

No column: 36.65, 19.56, 16.28, 8.43, 19.09

Yes column: 49.87, 20.40, 12.34, 7.05, 10.33

Legend: A lot, Quite, Some, A little, Nothing

Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 189. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much parents agree with the idea that the decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has not been influenced by anybody and whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English. Questions 78g and 80a/80b (1,251 responses).

Or once again, we can look at the data from the opposite angle and conclude that the relative number of parents who share their experiences with other families in the same situation tends to increase the more convinced they are that it had always been very clear to them that their children should be brought up watching television or DVDs in English. However, the relative number of parents who do not share their experiences with other families in the same situation tends to increase the less convinced they seem to be that it had always been very clear to them that their children should grow up viewing television in English (see Figure 190 below). More simply stated, the relative number of parents that share their experiences with other parents in the same situation tends to increase the stronger their convictions about this issue seem to be.
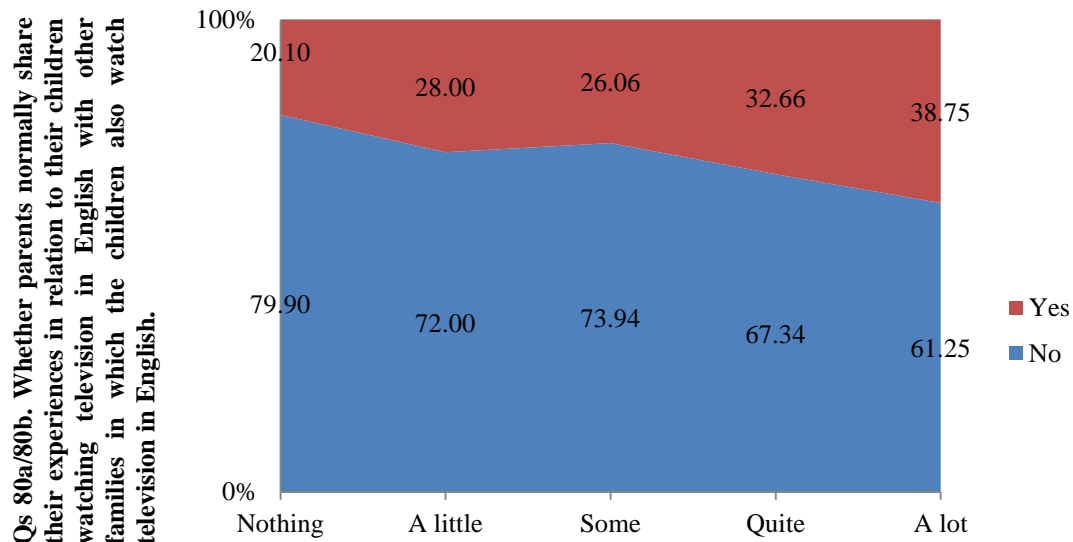
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Q 78g. How much parents agree with the idea that the decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has not been influenced by anybody. It has always been very clear to them.

Figure 190. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English and how much parents agree with the idea that the decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has not been influenced by anybody. Questions 80a/80b and 78g (1,251 responses).

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the analysis of the dependence relationships between variables that make up the same group. Perhaps, the first conclusion to catch our attention is the fact that two general tendencies keep recurring throughout our analysis. Thus, considering that all the Likert scales used for the study of family language policy had a progressive nature so that each successive value was analysed as indicating a 'better' response than the preceding one, our attention was caught by the fact that the distribution of relative frequencies followed the same pattern again and again across the different groups. In this way, in most of the cross-tabulations, for the bands that stand for the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *y*, the relative number of respondents tends to increase as we move towards the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *x*. Similarly, the relative number of respondents tends to decrease as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *x*.

Likewise, the opposite tendency is observed in the bands that stand for the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *y*. In this respect, the relative number of respondents tends to increase as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales

represented on axis *x*, whereas it tends to decrease as we move towards the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *x*.

What these findings seem to suggest is that all variables work similarly within their own groups. That is to say, they have similar distributions to the rest of variables in their group. Put differently, the 'best' linguistic practices, the 'most positive' beliefs, attitudes and ideologies, the 'best' management and planning strategies, and the 'best' intra-family and external factors tend to co-occur simultaneously across all the variables within the same group. Similarly, the 'worst' linguistic practices, the 'most negative' beliefs, attitudes and ideologies, the 'worst' management and planning strategies, and the 'worst' intra-family and external factors tend to co-occur simultaneously across all the variables within the same group.

We conclude here the first block of the analysis and discussion section corresponding to Research Question 3. As we pointed out above, in answering Research Question 2, we had initially analysed and discussed the relationship between variable 66b (how often children view television in English) and the rest of variables, which had been previously identified in the Literature Review and that make up family language policy. This preliminary analysis had let us single out those variables that have strong dependence relationships with variable 66b which, in turn, led us to the first part of Research Question 3, where we have looked at how variables within a particular group behave with the rest of variables within the same group (intra-group study). In what comes next, we intend to take the analysis and discussion of our data a step further by looking at how variables from a particular group affect variables from other groups and provide, in this way, a deeper understanding of family language policy within our sample.

4.7.2 Inter-group study: Relationships between linguistic practices, beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, managerial strategies and environmental factors

For the analysis of the relationships between variables across different groups, we took the following steps. First, we studied how the variables within the linguistic practices group and the variables within the other groups influence each other, in the order established at the beginning of this section. Thus, we commenced looking at the role played by parental beliefs, attitudes and ideologies, continued with management and planning strategies, and finished with intra-family and external factors. Secondly, we

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analysed how management and planning strategies influence and are influenced by beliefs, attitudes and ideologies, by intra-family and by external factors. Next, we analysed how beliefs, attitudes and ideologies affect and are affected by intra-family and by external factors. Finally, we looked at how intra-family and external factors relate to each other. Given the large amount of cross-tabulations obtained, we focused on those that proved to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the study or above.

4.7.2.1 Shared and individual linguistic practices

As we said before, we shall begin looking at how shared and individual linguistic practices and the rest of groups influence each other.

4.7.2.1.1 Shared and individual linguistic practices / Parental beliefs

We shall begin the analysis with variables that measured parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition. The first of such variables is variable 24c/53c, through which we asked parents to share with us their belief about the usefulness of watching television and DVDs in English in order to help their children reach an excellent level of English. In the first place, we took the thirteen shared and individual linguistic practices that had proved to have a relevant dependence relationship with variable 66b (how often children view television in English). As we can observe in Table 53 below, the cross-tabulation of this variable with variable 66b in section 4.3.1 above had given us a very strong dependence relationship, which affected 91.95% of the participants. We can also observe that six of the variables that measure shared and individual linguistic practices do not have relevant dependence relationships with variable 24c/53c.

Table 53. Dependence relationships strength rank for shared and individual linguistic practices, and variable 24c/53c.

24c/53c	66b	How often children watch television in English (1,988 responses).	91.95%
24c/53c	66c	How often children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc) (1,978 responses).	90.18%
24c/53c	18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English without subtitles too (1,988 responses).	89.30%
24c/53c	17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends (1,970 responses).	86.04%
24c/53c	66f	How often children listen to music in English (1,977 responses).	80.11%
24c/53c	17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children (1,995 responses).	78.05%
24c/53c	77	How often parents watch television in English with their children (1,399 responses).	78.58%
24c/53c	66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad (1,976 responses).	72.72%
24c/53c	65a/65b	How often children use English to talk to their parents (1,995 responses).	63.71%
24c/53c	66e	How often children read in English (1,975 responses).	63.36%
24c/53c	17e/46e	How often parents use English at work (1,974 responses).	62.29%
24c/53c	17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other (1,972 responses).	59.97%
24c/53c	65c	How often children use English to talk to their siblings (1,944 responses).	54.77%
24c/53c	65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends (1,990 responses).	0.23%
Average			69.24%

As in previous analysis, to be able to interpret the meaning of the dependence relationships among the variables, we first obtained the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of each of the seven relevant cross-tabulations (see APPENDIX D). The result of such analysis reveals that the same pattern was repeated for them all. In order to visualise this common pattern, the seven cross-tabulations were merged and a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies was obtained (see Figure 191 below).
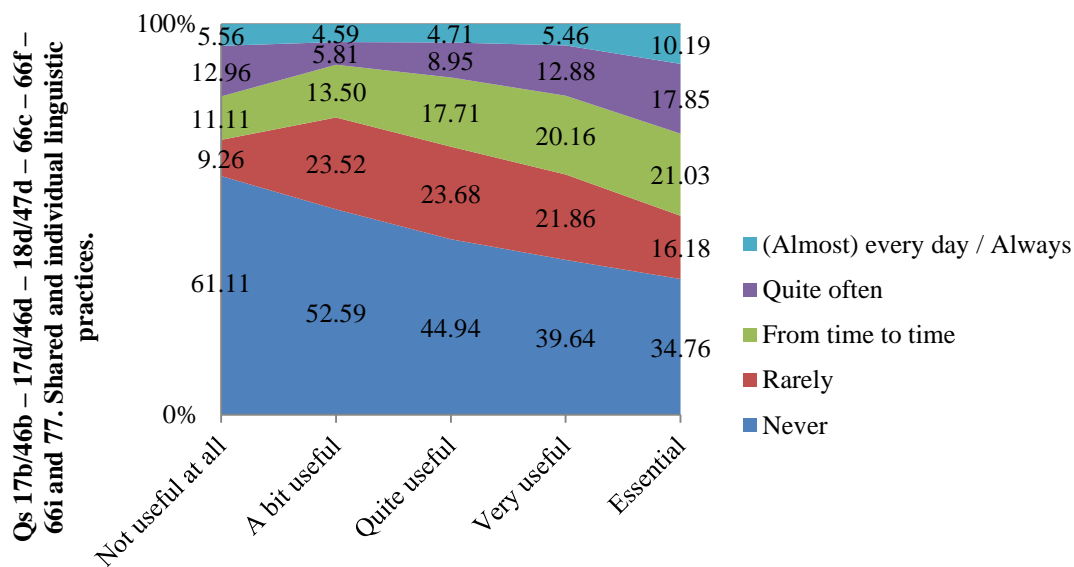
Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 191. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 24c/53c and variables 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 18d/47d – 66c – 66f – 66i – 77 (1,897 responses on average).

Figure 191 above shows that, for bands "(Almost) every day / Always", "Quite often", "From time to time" and "Rarely", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for band "Never", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. In other words, the relative (%) number of parents and children who (almost) every day or always, quite often, from time to time or rarely have contact with English through the means expressed in the variables outlined above increases as watching television and DVDs in English to improve children's command of English becomes more and more important for parents. On the other hand, the relative number of parents and children who never have contact with English through the means expressed in the variables under observation increases as watching television and DVDs in English to improve children's command of English becomes less and less relevant.

A number of relationships that have emerged during the analysis of our data deserve closer attention. In this respect, we would like to highlight the strong dependence relationship between variable 24c/53c, and variables 18d/47d, which measured how often parents watch television in English without subtitles, and 77, which looked at how often parents share this activity with their children. In this respect, from the analysis of

the last two above, we had concluded that parents tend to view television in English with their children rather than on their own. What we have now discovered is that this bears a direct relationship with parents' beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English to reach a high level of proficiency. In other words, parents tend to spend more time viewing television in English with their children when they have more positive beliefs about the role that television can play (see Figure 192 below). This is yet another example of coherence between parental beliefs and parental practice.
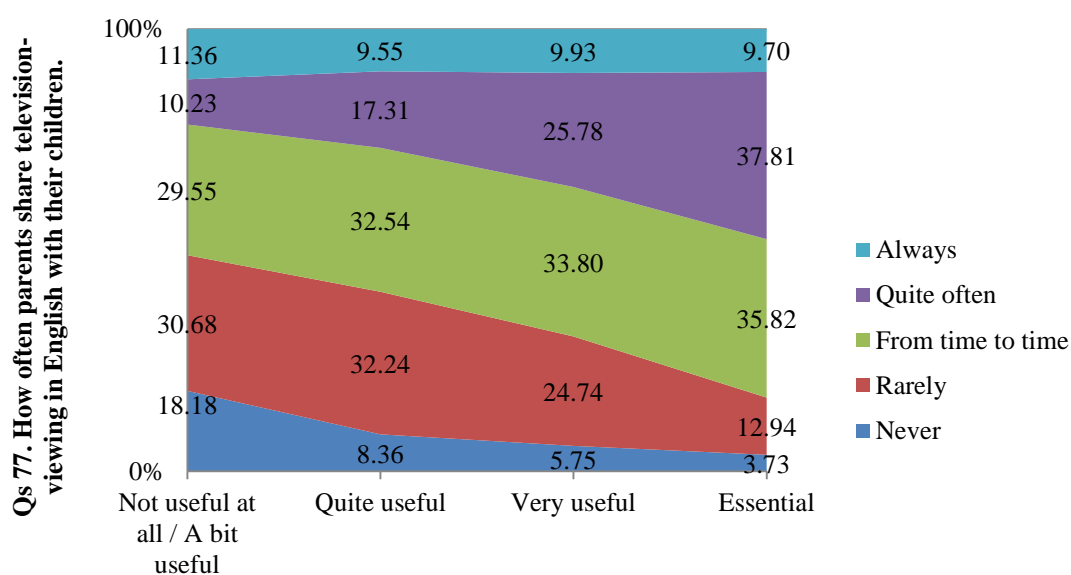
Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 192. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English and how often parents share this activity with their children. Questions 24c/53c and 77 (1,399 responses).

Next, we studied variable 24a/53a, with which we had asked parents how useful they believed that very early acquisition was to help their children reach a high level of English. In this case, if we look at Table 54 below, we will see that, apart from variable 66b, only three variables have relevant correlation values affecting 70% of the respondents or above.

Table 54. Dependence relationships strength rank for shared and individual linguistic practices, and variable 24a/53a.

24a/53a	66b	How often children watch television in English (1,995 responses).	79.79%
24a/53a	66f	How often children listen to music in English (1,985 responses).	87.40%
24a/53a	66c	How often children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc) (1,984 responses).	81.68%
24a/53a	17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children (2,002 responses).	73.70%
24a/53a	17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends (1,976 responses).	64.01%
24a/53a	18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English without subtitles (1,990 responses).	63.35%
24a/53a	66e	How often children read in English (1,980 responses).	61.47%
24a/53a	65a/65b	How often children use English to talk to their parents (2,002 responses).	60.32%
24a/53a	17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other (1,978 responses).	59.20%
24a/53a	65c	How often children use English to talk to their siblings (1,951 responses).	56.07%
24a/53a	77	How often parents watch television in English with their children (1,405 responses).	54.62%
24a/53a	17e/46e	How often parents use English at work (1,981 responses).	51.71%
24a/53a	65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends (1,997 responses).	27.80%
24a/53a	66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad (1,981 responses).	-12.62%
Average			57.75%

By merging the patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of the three relevant cross-tabulations, we obtained a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies (see Figure 193 below) that reflects similar distributions in the three cross-tabulations (see APPENDIX D).
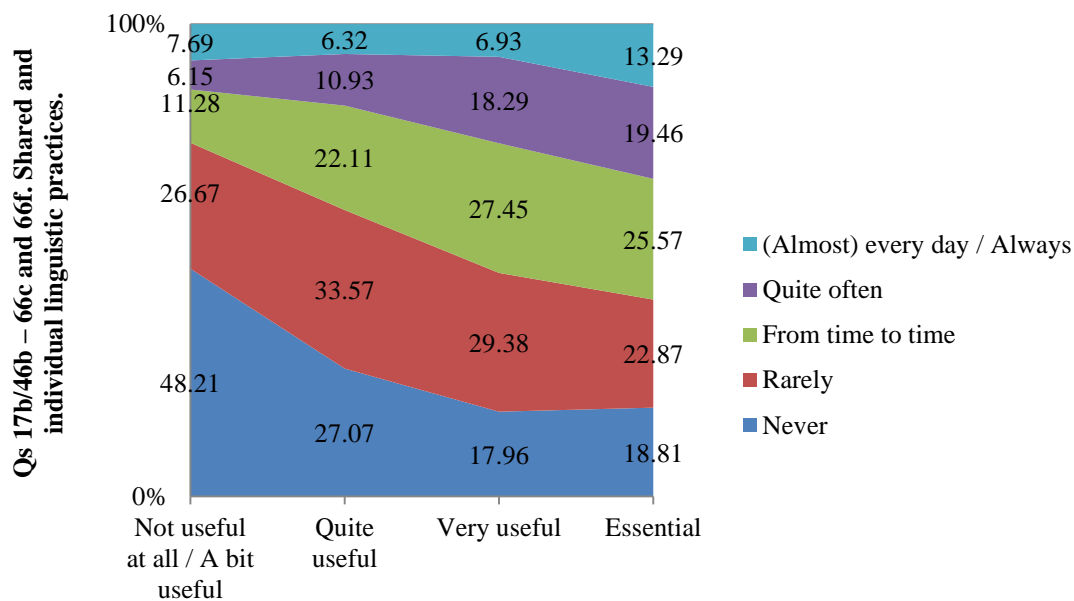
Qs 24a/53a. Parents' belief about the importance of early acquisition.

Figure 193. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 24a/53a and variables 17b/46b – 66c – 66f (1,990 responses on average).

Figure 193 above shows that, for bands "(Almost) every day / Always", "Quite often" and "From time to time", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for bands "Rarely" and "Never", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. Put more simply, the relative (%) number of parents and children who (almost) every day or always, quite often and from time to time have contact with English through the means expressed in the three variables above increases as early acquisition to help children reach a high level of proficiency of English becomes more and more important for parents. Contrarily, the relative number of parents and children who rarely or never have contact with English through the means expressed in the three variables under observation increases as early acquisition becomes less and less important for parents.

In this particular case, the four variables that have produced relevant dependence relationships with parents' beliefs about the importance of early acquisition coincide with the kind of exposure to English that very young children are more likely to have in additive contexts, namely through music, through television, through DVDs and when parents speak English to them (for an understanding of the frequency of primary-school

children's out-of-school contact with English in an additive context in Spain, see for example Ivars Olmedo, 2015).

We move on now to discuss variable 30/59, the third and last variable used to measure parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition. Variable 30/59 was aimed at finding about parents' expectations in relation to their children's future attainment in English. As Table 55 below reveals, the thirteen cross-tabulations obtained proved to have correlation values affecting 70% of the participants in the research or above.

Table 55. Dependence relationships strength rank for shared and individual linguistic practices, and variable 30/59.

30/59	66b	How often children watch television in English (1,990 responses).	90.65%
30/59	18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English without subtitles too children (1,981 responses).	93.03%
30/59	17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other (1,971 responses).	92.04%
30/59	65c	How often children use English to talk to their siblings (1,946 responses).	91.56%
30/59	66e	How often children read in English (1,974 responses).	88.82%
30/59	66c	How often children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc) (1,978 responses).	88.37%
30/59	65a/65b	How often children use English to talk to their parents (1,998 responses).	87.57%
30/59	17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends (1,968 responses).	86.53%
30/59	17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children (1,994 responses).	84.95%
30/59	66f	How often children listen to music in English (1,979 responses).	84.11%
30/59	17e/46e	How often parents use English at work (1,973 responses).	83.49%
30/59	66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad (1,975 responses).	74.19%
30/59	65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends (1,993 responses).	72.08%
30/59	77	How often parents watch television in English with their children (1,404 responses).	71.53%
Average			84.92%

By merging the patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of the thirteen relevant cross-tabulations, we obtained a general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies (see Figure 194 below) that reflects similar distributions in the thirteen cross-tabulations (see APPENDIX D).

Figure 194 below shows that, for bands "(Almost) every day / Always" and "Quite often" the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for bands "From time to time", "Rarely" and "Never", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. In this way, the relative (%) number of parents and children who have contact with English through the means expressed in the thirteen variables above increases as children's expected level of English gets higher and higher. By contrast, the relative number of parents and children who never, rarely or from time to time have contact with English through the means expressed in the thirteen variables under observation increases as children's expected level of English gets lower and lower.
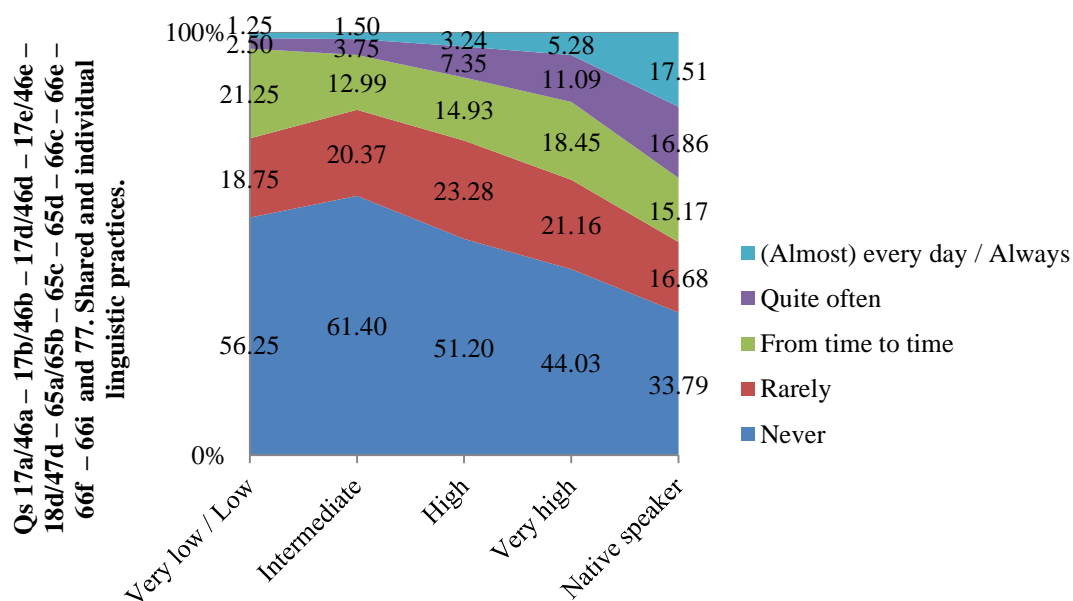
Qs 30/59. What level of English parents think that their children will reach.

Figure 194. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variables 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 65d – 66c – 66e – 66f – 66i – 77 and variable 30/59 (1,993 responses on average).

Following Purkarthofer (2019), we may conclude this point arguing that the analysis in the previous paragraph reflects how the different linguistic practices within the family are shaped by parents' expectations concerning the level of English that they think their

children will be able to reach. However, because it is also true that humans often interchange the terms "expectations" and "aspirations" (Yamamoto and Holloway, 2010), thus mixing beliefs and desires, the findings could also be interpreted as the different ways in which linguistic practices are shaped by parents' aspirations. In this way, we could claim that contact with English is more frequent because parents want their children to have a higher level of proficiency in English.

However, if the axes were swapped, the argumentative line would change completely. In this case, we would be discussing how parents' beliefs about the level of English that their children were going to reach would be shaped by parents' and children's linguistic practices. Thus, as we can observe in Figure 195 below, the relative number of parents who believe that their children will become native speakers or will reach a very high level of English rises as parents' and children's contact with English becomes more and more frequent. On the other hand, the relative number of parents who believe that their children will reach a high, intermediate, low or very low level of English grows as parents' and children's contact with English becomes less frequent (in this case, we would not go as far as to say that parents desire that their children reach a low level of English). Interpreted in this way, we could conclude that parental beliefs are influenced by linguistic practices.
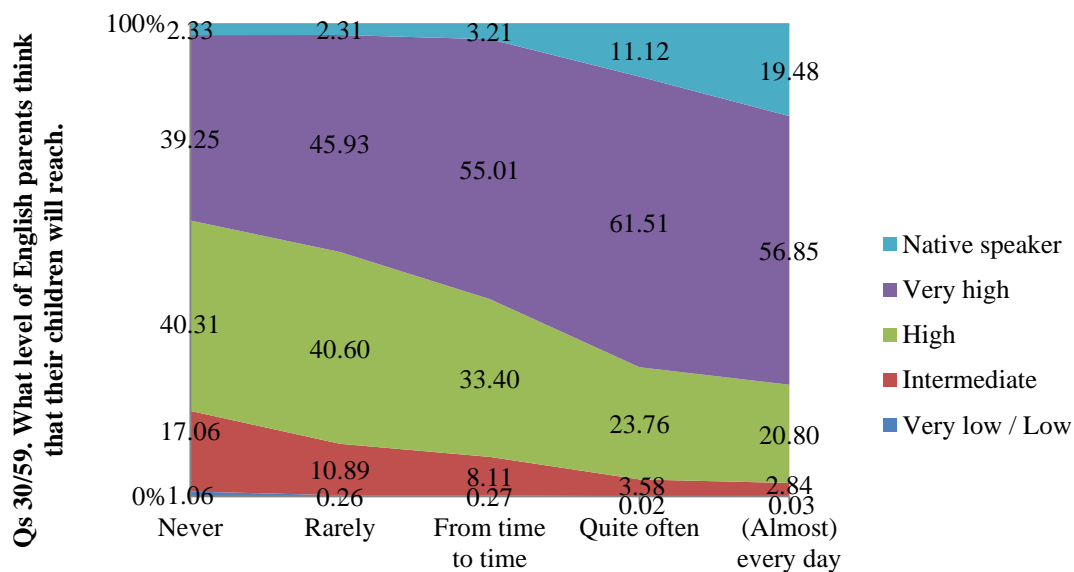
**Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 65d –
66c – 66e – 66f – 66i and 77. Shared and individual linguistic practices.**

Figure 195. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 30/59 and variables 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 65d – 66c – 66e – 66f – 66i – 77 (1,993 responses on average).

The next block corresponds to the analysis of the relationships between shared and individual linguistic practices on the one hand, and parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English on the other, which are represented by variables 23b/52b, 23e/52e, 23g/52g and 23h/52h.

A look at Table 56 below will let us notice that thirty-seven out of a total of fifty-two possible cross-tabulations among the seventeen variables analysed turned out to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above.

Table 56. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English, and shared and individual linguistic practices.

Qs 23g/52g		Qs 23h/52h		Qs 23b/52b		Qs 23e/52e	
Qs 17e/46e	95.53	Qs 18d/47d	93.50	Qs 17e/46e	93.41	Qs 18d/47d	92.69
Qs 18d/47d	92.77	Qs 17a/46a	91.21	Qs 17d/46d	92.57	Qs 17d/46d	90.51
Qs 17d/46d	90.28	Qs 17d/46d	89.84	Qs 17a/46a	92.03	Qs 17b/46b	89.47
Qs 17a/46a	89.35	Qs 17e/46e	89.16	Qs 18d/47d	91.77	Qs 17a/46a	88.70
Qs 17b/46b	87.89	Qs 17b/46b	88.50	Qs 17b/46b	91.05	Qs 17e/46e	88.39
Qs 65a/65b	86.37	Qs 65a/65b	85.31	Qs 65a/65b	90.98	Qs 65a/65b	86.31
Q 66c	81.23	Q 66c	83.16	Q 66c	81.92	Q 66f	83.25
Q 77	73.41	Q 77	72.95	Q 65c	81.39	Q 66c	78.20
Q 66e	71.14	Q 66i	71.82	Q 65d	80.76	Q 66i	69.89
Q 65c	69.88	Q 65c	70.07	Q 66i	74.57	Q 77	67.81
Q 65d	67.98	Q 66e	65.44	Q 66e	67.35	Q 66e	54.01
Q 66i	66.62	Q 66f	64.83	Q 77	64.94	Q 65c	47.15
Q 66f	59.99	Q 65d	55.11	Q 66f	50.27	Q 65d	-24.69

The analysis of the relevant cross-tabulations in Table 56 above reveals very similar patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies (see APPENDIX D). After merging the thirty-seven patterns corresponding to each of the relevant cross-tabulations, we obtained the general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies corresponding to Table 56 above (see Figure 196 below).
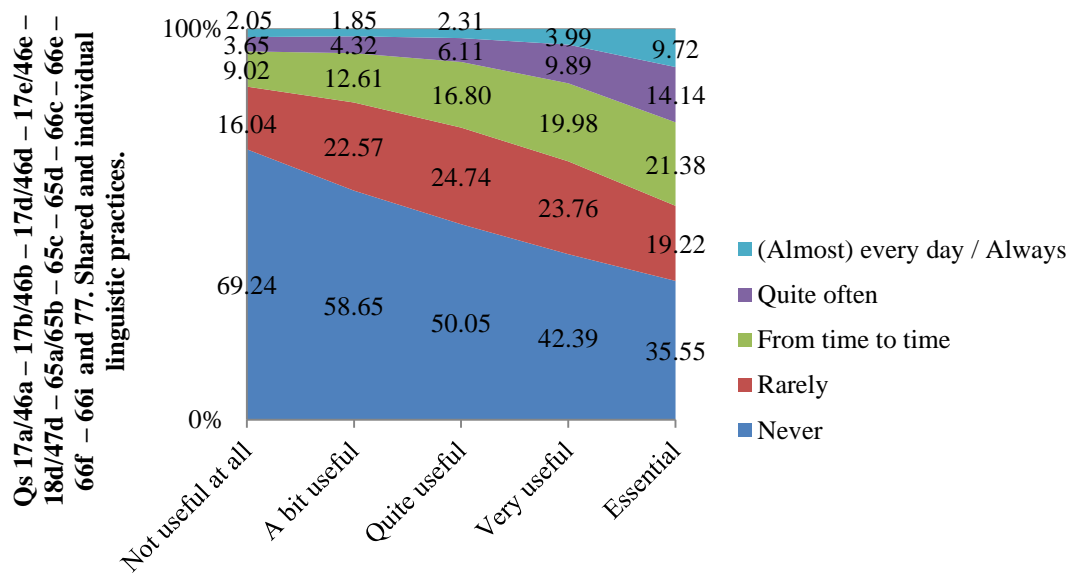
Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 65d – 66c – 66e – 66f – 66i and 77. Shared and individual linguistic practices.

Qs 23b/52b – 23e/52e – 23g/52g and 23h/52h. Instrumental and integrative usefulness of English.

Figure 196. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variables 23b/52b – 23e/52e – 23g/52g – 23h/52h and variables 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 65d – 66c – 66e – 66f – 66i – 77 (1,950 responses on average).

As we can observe, Figure 196 above shows that, for bands "(Almost) every day / Always", "Quite often", "From time to time" and "Rarely" the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for band "Never", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. In this way, the relative (%) number of parents and children who have contact with English through the means expressed in the thirteen variables above increases as English becomes, according to the participants, more and more useful for the instrumental and integrative uses described in the variables under study. By contrast, the relative number of parents and children who never have contact with English through the means expressed in the thirteen variables under observation increases as English becomes, again according to the participants, less and less useful for the instrumental and integrative uses described in the variables under study.

We also wanted to find the influence that the frequency with which parents use English at work (variable 17e/46e) has on parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job (variable 23c/52) or to change one's job (23d/52d). The chi-square values obtained for the two cross-tabulations (87.40 for variable 23c/52c and 88.32 for variable 23d/52d) reveal very strong dependence relationships. As we can observe in Figure 197

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below, the relative number of parents who believe that English is essential clearly grows when the use of English at work is more frequent. On the contrary, the relative number of parents who believe that English is less important increases when the frequency with which English is used at work decreases.

Qs 17e/46e. How often parents use English at work.
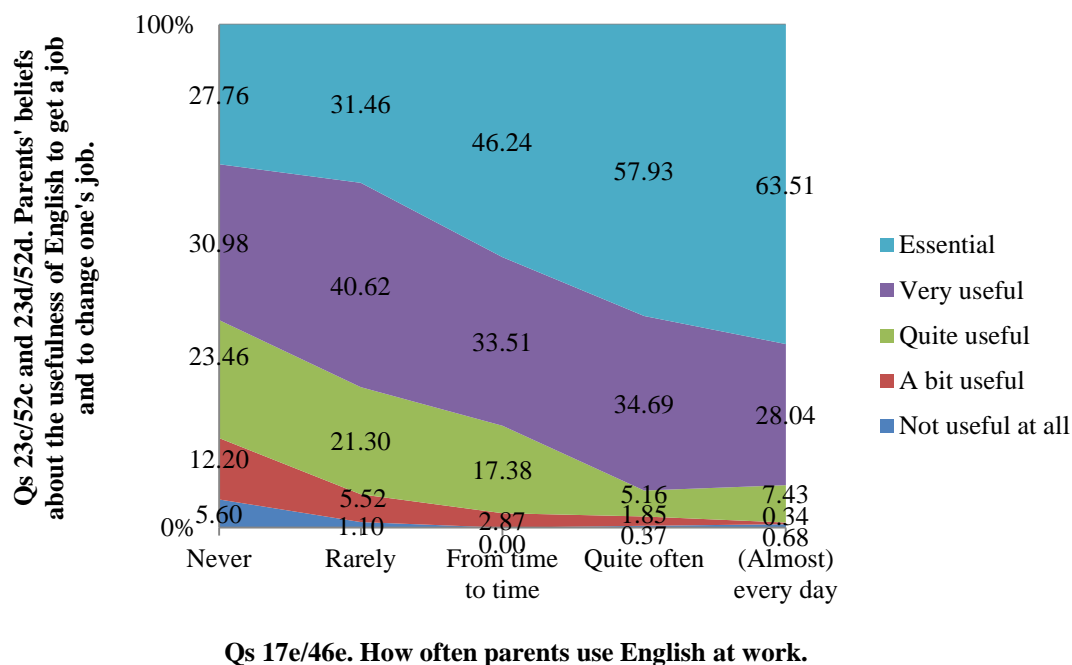
Figure 197. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job or to change one's job, and the frequency with which parents use English at work. Questions 23c/52c – 23d52d and 17e/46e (1,975 responses on average).

The analysis of the role played by variables related to parents' beliefs about second language acquisition and parents' belief about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English has shown us that, when the cross-tabulations obtained have turned out to be relevant, similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies emerge again and again. In this way, in most of the cross-tabulations, for those bands that stand for the 'best' values of the Likert scales represented on axis *y*, which correspond to the shared and individual linguistic practices under study, the relative number of respondents tends to increase as we move towards the 'best' values on the Likert scales represented on axis *x*, which correspond to parents' beliefs. Similarly, the relative number of respondents tends to decrease as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *x*.

By contrast, the opposite tendency is observed in the bands that stand for the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *y*. In this respect, the relative number of respondents tends to increase as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *x*, whereas it tends to decrease as we move towards the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *x*.

What these findings seem to suggest is that parents' and children's contact with English as expressed in the thirteen variables under discussion tends to increase when parents give more relevance to early acquisition and to viewing television in English in order to help their children attain high levels of proficiency in English, when parents' expectations as to their children's attainment get higher, and when parents' opinion about the usefulness of English becomes more positive.

We bring this section to a conclusion. We have looked at ninety-three cross-tabulations between parents' beliefs and linguistic practices within the family. Sixty-two of such cross-tabulations were revealed to have correlation values affecting 70% per cent of the participants or above. Table 57 below shows the average strength of the dependence relationship between each parental belief and the thirteen linguistic practices under consideration. In this way, particular reference should be made to the fact that all the correlations between parental belief-variable 30/59 and the thirteen linguistic practices analysed turned out to have correlation values affecting 70% of the participants or above.

Table 57. Average dependence strength rank for parental beliefs and linguistic practices.

30/59	The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.	84.92%
23b/52b	Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English for their personal life.	81.00%
23g/52g	Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies.	79.42%
23h/52h	Parents' belief about the usefulness of English for entertainment.	78.53%
23e/52e	Parents' belief about the usefulness of English for their personal satisfaction.	70.13%
24c/53c	Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.	69.24%
24a/53a	Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.	57.75%
Average		73.87%

It could be argued that a number of such cross-tabulations bears no direct relationship with whether or not children view television in English and, therefore, do not contribute to our study. However, we must keep in mind that an effective language planning action aimed at encouraging families to voluntarily introduce new linguistic practices into their daily lives must necessarily be based on a thorough understanding of family language policy and, in this way, indirect relationships also make their contribution and, consequently, must not be rejected.

4.7.2.1.2 Shared and individual linguistic practices / Parental attitudes and ideology

The next block of analysis corresponds to the dependence relationships between shared and individual linguistic practices, on the one hand and, on the other, parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages (variable 20/49), English language (variable 21/50), Anglo-Saxon culture (variable 22/51), and ideology concerning whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles (variable 31/60).

Beginning with parental attitudes, a look at Table 58 below will let us notice that twenty-nine out of a total of thirty-nine possible cross-tabulations among the sixteen variables analysed turned out to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above.

Table 58. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture, and shared and individual linguistic practices.

Qs 22/51		Qs 20/49		Qs 21/50	
Qs 18d/47d	92.90	Qs 17b/46b	92.60	Qs 17b/46b	93.77
Qs 17d/46d	90.56	Qs 17e/46e	91.80	Qs 17e/46e	93.64
Qs 17e/46e	90.21	Qs 17d/46d	91.28	Qs 17d/46d	88.82
Qs 17b/46b	89.35	Qs 17a/46a	90.13	Qs 17a/46a	87.72
Qs 65a/65b	84.80	Qs 65a/65b	89.02	Qs 65a/65b	84.19
Q 66c	82.70	Qs 18d/47d	83.80	Qs 18d/47d	80.63
Q 77	81.77	Q 77	80.86	Q 77	78.90
Qs 17a/46a	78.37	Q 66c	80.22	Q 66c	78.78
Q 66f	77.33	Q 66i	75.44	Q 66f	73.87
Q 66e	75.35	Q 66f	73.96	Q 66i	67.29
Q 66i	64.92	Q 66e	64.33	Q 66e	52.90
Q 65c	59.38	Q 65c	45.76	Q 65c	47.96
Q 65d	20.71	Q 65d	-141.10	Q 65d	-71.46

Since a very clear trend regarding patterns of distribution of relative frequencies had previously started to emerge on a recurring basis, we were justified to expect similar patterns in relation to parents' attitudes. And indeed, the same results were obtained. Thus, one after another, the twenty-nine relevant cross-tabulations produced similar patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies to the ones observed before. Such regularity can be best seen represented in the general distribution of average relative (%) frequencies obtained from merging each of the relevant cross-tabulations (see Figure 198 below).
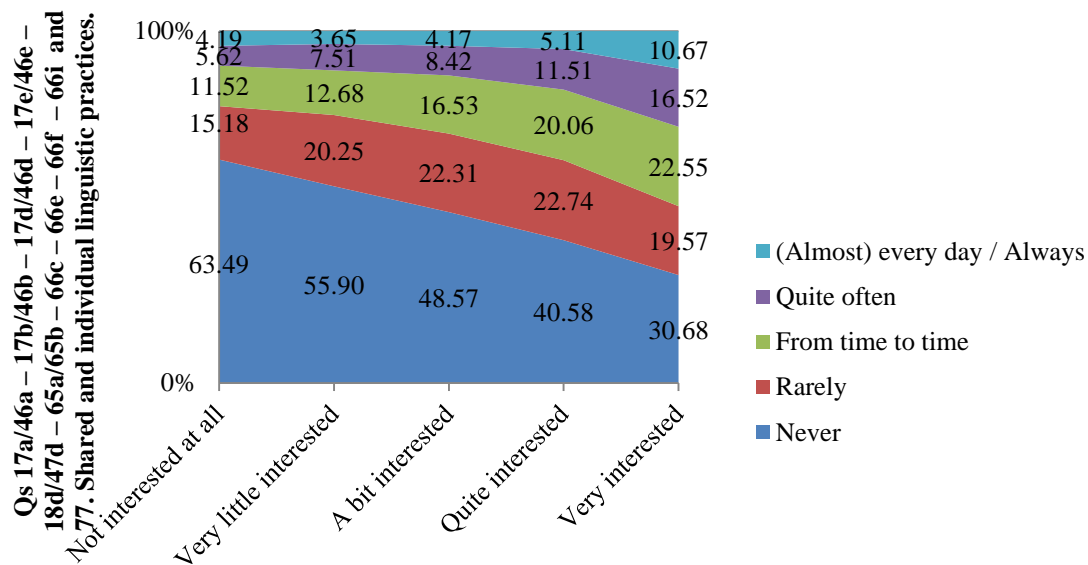
Qs 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 198. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variables 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and variables 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 66c – 66e – 66f – 66i – 77 (1,922 responses on average).

As we can observe, Figure 198 above shows that, for bands "(Almost) every day / Always", "Quite often", "From time to time" and "Rarely" the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for band "Never", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the left of axis *x*. This means that the relative (%) number of parents and children who have contact with English through the means expressed in the thirteen variables above increases as parents' attitudes under analysis become more and more positive. By contrast, the relative number of parents and children who never have contact with English through the means expressed in the thirteen variables under observation increases as parents' attitudes become more and more negative.

The analysis of the role played by variables related to parents' attitudes shows that, when the cross-tabulations obtained are relevant, for those bands that stand for the 'best' values of the Likert scales represented on axis *y*, which correspond to the shared and individual linguistic practices under study, the relative number of respondents tends to increase as we move towards the 'best' values on the Likert scales represented on axis *x*, which correspond to parents' attitudes. Similarly, the relative number of respondents

tends to decrease as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *x*.

By contrast, the opposite tendency is observed in the bands that stand for the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *y*. In this respect, the relative number of respondents tends to increase as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *x*, whereas it tends to decrease as we move towards the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *x*.

To sum up, what these findings seem to suggest is that parents' and children's contact with English as expressed in the thirteen variables in question tends to increase when parents show more interest for learning foreign languages, English language and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Table 59 below shows the average strength of the dependence relationship between each parental attitude and the thirteen linguistic practices under consideration.

Table 59. Average dependence strength rank for parental attitudes and linguistic practices.

22/51	Parents' attitudes towards Anglo-Saxon culture.	75.71%
21/50	Parents' attitudes towards English language.	65.92%
20/49	Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages.	62.93%
Average		68.19%

Finally, we will close this section dealing with parents' ideology concerning whether they would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles (variable 31/60). In this regard, Table 60 below shows that five cross-tabulations are relevant for our study, with values affecting 70% of the respondents or above.

Table 60. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' ideology about dubbing/subtitling, and shared and individual linguistic practices.

Qs 31/60	
Qs 18d/47d	85.38
Qs 17e/46e	84.21
Q 66c	78.99
Qs 17a/46a	77.28
Q 77	70.89
Qs 17d/46d	68.33
Qs 17b/46b	64.25
Qs 65a/65b	61.71
Q 66i	61.47
Q 66f	53.87
Q 65d	13.45
Q 66e	7.79
Q 65c	6.26

When the patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies of the five relevant cross-tabulations were obtained, the general pattern of distribution of average (%) relative frequencies that emerged resembled the ones observed before (see Figure 199 below).
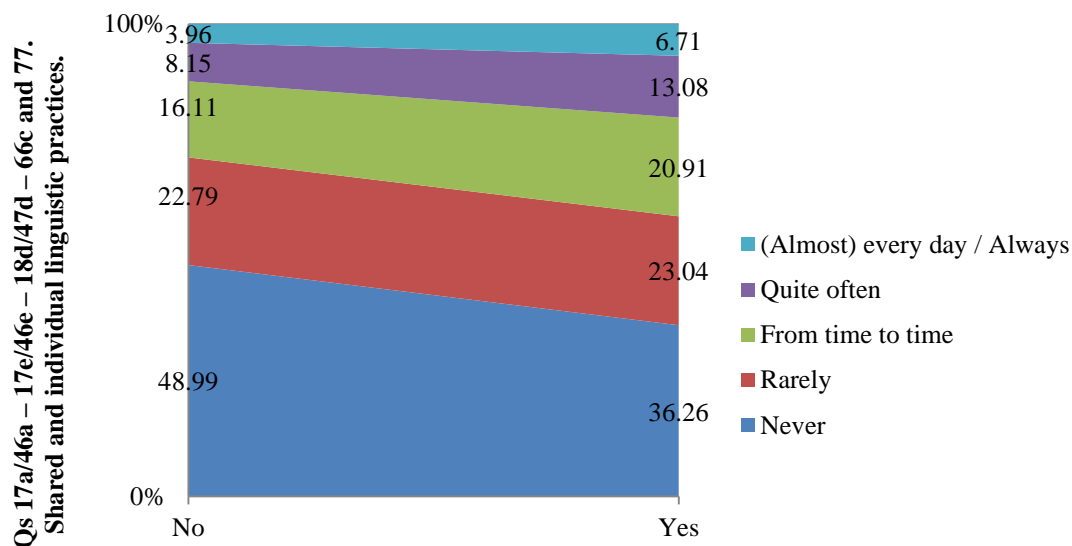
Qs. 31/60. Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.

Figure 199. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 31/60 and variables 17a/46a – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 66c – 77 (1,498 responses on average).

As we can see, Figure 199 above shows that, for bands "(Almost) every day / Always", "Quite often", "From time to time" and "Rarely" the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. By contrast, for band "Never", the tendency for the relative frequencies is to increase as we move to the right of axis *x*. Put another way, the relative (%) number of parents and children who have contact with English through the means expressed in the five variables above increases when parents agree with subtitling rather than dubbing. Contrariwise, the relative number of parents and children who never have contact with English through the means expressed in the five variables under observation increases when parents prefer dubbing to subtitling.

Particularly relevant is how parents' attitude towards dubbing is reflected on variables 18d/47d, which pertains to the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles, and 77, which refers to the frequency with which parents view television in English with their children. As we can observe in Figure 200 below, more than 50% of those parents that watch television in English with some frequency, no matter how low this is, agree with subtitling instead of dubbing.
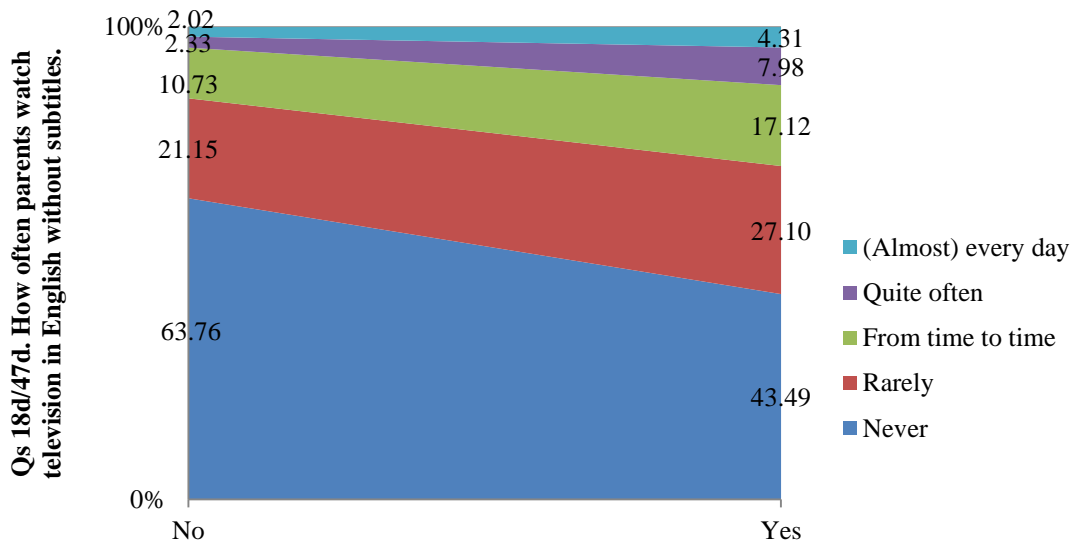
Qs 31/60. Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels are made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.

Figure 200. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles and whether parents agree with the idea that television channels are made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Qs 18d/47d and 31/60 (1,595 responses on average).

As regards the frequency with which parents view television in English with their children, the tendency is minimally broken for band "Always" but maintained for the rest of the bands (Fig. 201).
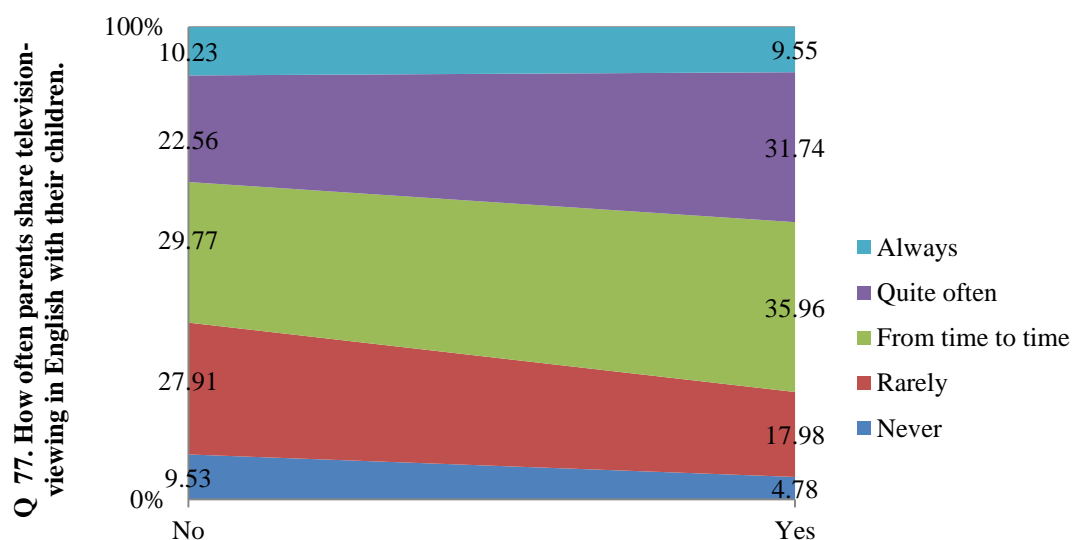
Q 77. How often parents share television-viewing in English with their children.

Legend:
- Always
- Quite often
- From time to time
- Rarely
- Never

Qs 31/60. Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.

Figure 201. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents watch television in English with their children and whether parents agree with the idea that television channels are made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Qs 77 and 31/60 (1,142 responses on average).

Once we know that parents who view television in English and make their children watch television in English tend to agree with subtitling instead of dubbing, it remains to be seen what factors affect this parental attitude. However, this issue will be dealt with further below.

4.7.2.1.3 Shared and individual linguistic practices / Management and planning strategies

In the next block of analysis, we will be looking at the dependence relationship between shared and linguistic practices, and the way in which children's linguistic practices are planned and managed by parents. Because, on this occasion, the values being measured in each of the variables differed from one another, we will be looking at them one at a time.

As we can see in Table 61 below, only twenty-one out of the sixty-five possible cross-tabulations had values above 70% or above.

Table 61. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' management and planning strategies, and shared and individual linguistic practices.

Q 64		Qs 70a/70b		Qs 71a/71b		Qs 72a/72b		Q 69	
Qs 18d/47d	92.74	Qs 65a/65b	88.38	Q 66c	91.68	Q 66c	89.42	Qs 65a/65b	71.25
Q 66c	91.04	Q 66c	76.61	Qs 65a/65b	78.11	Qs 18d/47d	72.19	Qs 18d/47d	70.48
Qs 17b/46b	89.63	Q 66e	70.14	Qs 18d/47d	76.46	Q 77	70.39	Q 66c	65.41
Qs 17a/46a	89.42	Q 65c	65.24	Q 77	75.28	Qs 17a/46a	65.59	Qs 17b/46b	59.11
Qs 65a/65b	88.76	Qs 17d/46d	60.40	Q 66e	74.23	Qs 65a/65b	62.72	Qs 17a/46a	53.40
Qs 17e/46e	79.31	Q 77	59.46	Qs 17a/46a	69.87	Qs 17b/46b	57.43	Q 77	34.78
Qs 17d/46d	76.26	Q 65d	59.17	Q 66i	69.86	Q 65c	57.28	Q 66e	29.62
Q 77	65.44	Qs 18d/47d	53.35	Q 65c	65.97	Q 66e	55.11	Qs 17e/46e	26.86
Q 66e	55.54	Qs 17a/46a	38.54	Q 65d	63.46	Q 66i	54.89	Qs 17d/46d	23.60
Q 65c	32.61	Qs 17e/46e	37.81	Qs 17b/46b	63.44	Q 65d	52.40	Q 66i	-41.43
Q 66f	31.23	Q 66f	37.29	Qs 17d/46d	40.29	Qs 17d/46d	48.06	Q 66f	-50.94
Q 65d	-24.31	Q 66i	31.61	Q 66f	34.93	Qs 17e/46e	35.38	Q 65d	-55.29
Q 66i	-30.70	Qs 17b/46b	1.68	Qs 17e/46e	34.37	Q 66f	18.97	Q 65c	-76.99

The first variable in this series, variable 64, has the highest number of relevant cross-tabulations with the different linguistic practices being analysed. It deals with the age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example, because English was spoken at home, through television or at school, etc. The general pattern of average relative (%) frequencies (see Figure 202 below) reveals a similar pattern to the ones seen before. In this way, for the bands that stand for the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *y*, which represents linguistic practices, the relative number of respondents tends to increase as we move towards the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *x*, which represents the age at which children started to have contact with English. Similarly, the relative number of respondents tends to decrease as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *x*.

Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b and 66c. Shared and individual linguistic practices.
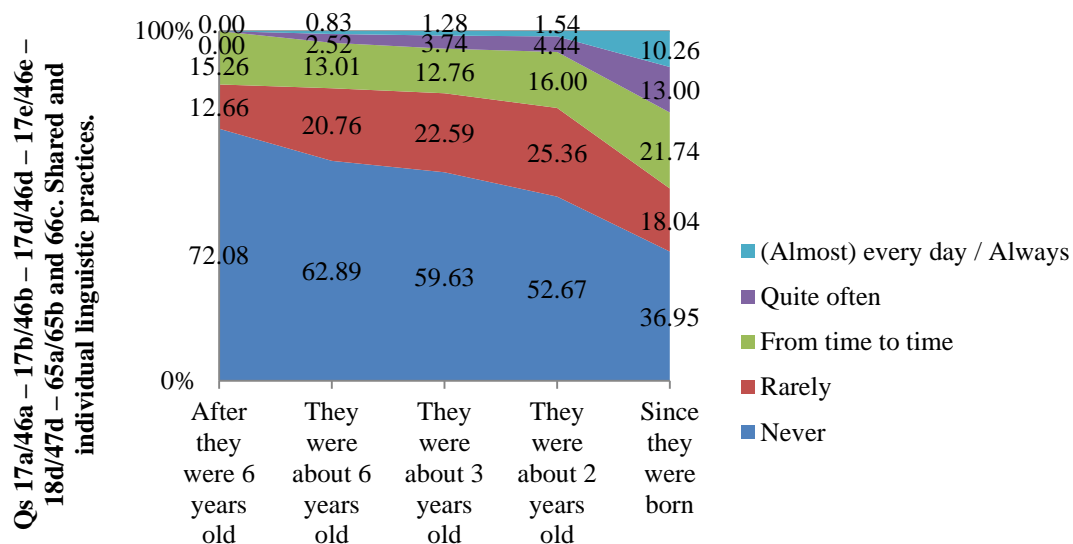
Q 64. The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc.

Figure 202. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 64 and variables 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b and 66c (1,864 responses on average).

The conclusion that can be drawn from looking at Figure 202 above is that an early start seems to facilitate that contact with English takes place more frequently when children grow up, and this is something that any language planning action should take into consideration.

The second variable under discussion, variable 70a/70b, measures how parents plan and manage linguistic practices by asking their children in which language they want to watch TV or DVDs. In the present case, only three cross-tabulations produced relevant values of dependence, more particularly, those related to the frequency with which children use English to talk to their parents (variable 65a/65b), the frequency with which children view DVDs in English (variable 66c) and the frequency with which children read in English (variable 66e). As Figure 203 below shows, the pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies clearly differs from other ones seen before. To be more precise, parents' and children's contact with English tends to increase as we move towards the 'worst' values on the scales represented on axis *x*. In this case, the 'best' values would correspond to that managerial strategy consisting of never asking children about the language in which they want to view television. Contrariwise, contact with English tends to decrease as we move towards the 'best'

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managerial strategies, expressed on axis *x*. This pattern resembles the one observed for the cross-tabulations between variables 66b and 70a/70b.
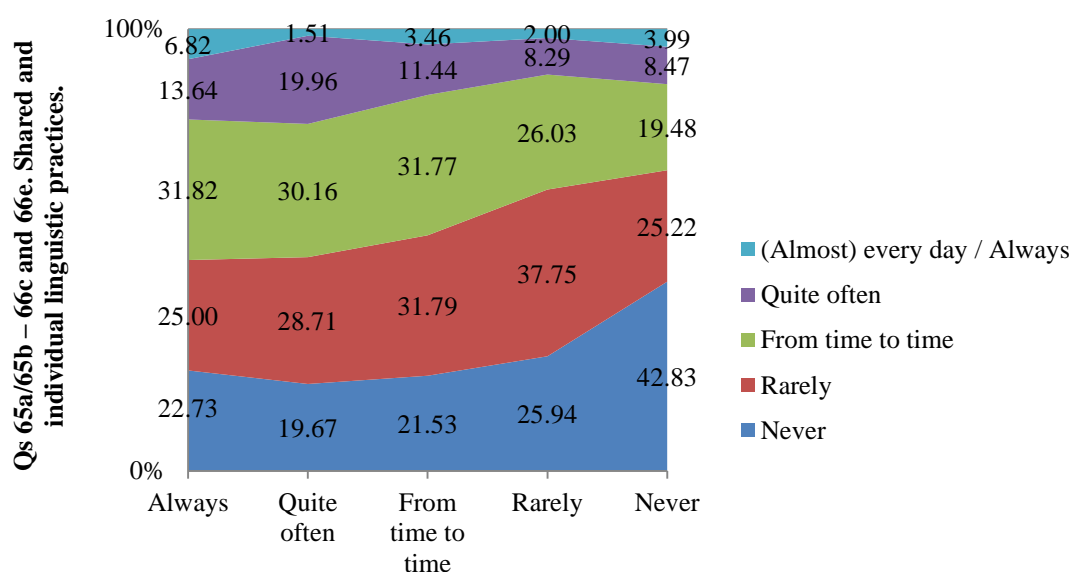
Qs 70a/70b. Whether or not parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV or DVDs.

Figure 203. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 70a/70b and variables 65a/65b – 66c – 66e (1,549 responses on average).

Next, we will discuss variable 71a/71b. Through this variable, we meant to find how often children asked to have the language changed back to Spanish when they were viewing television in English. Five cross-tabulations returned relevant dependence values, more particularly, those related to the frequency with which children viewed DVDs in English (variable 66c), the frequency with which children used English to talk to their parents (variable 65a/65b), how often parents watched television in English (variable 18d/47d), how often parents shared the previous activity with their children (variable 77) and the frequency with which children read in English (variable 66e). As Figure 204 below shows, the general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies resembles other ones seen before. Namely, parents' and children's contact with English tends to increase as we move towards the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *x* which, in the present case, correspond to the fact that children never ask to have the language changed back to Spanish.
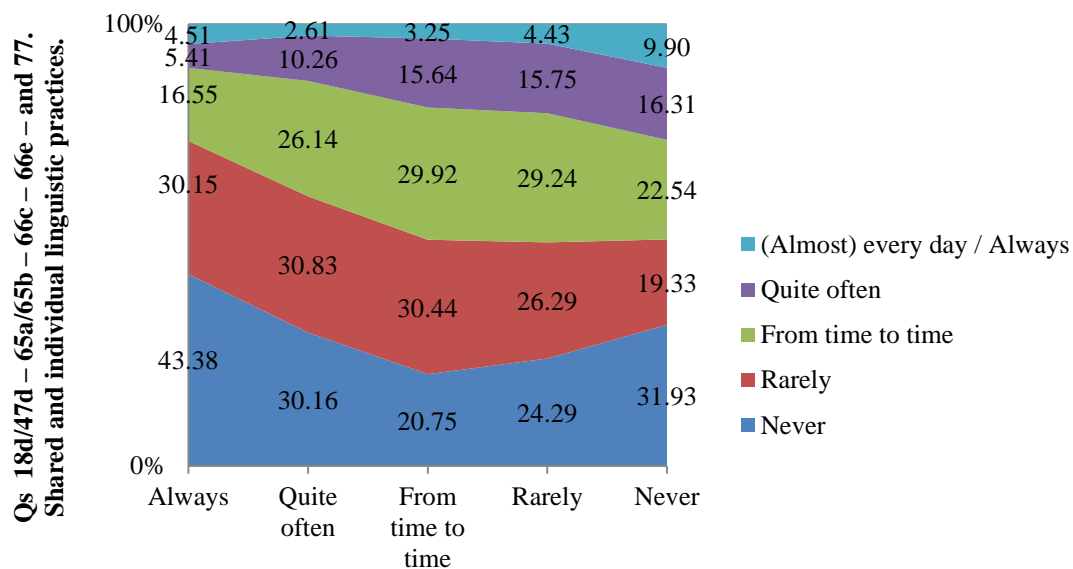
Qs 71a/71b. How often children ask to change back to Spanish when they are watching television in English.

Figure 204. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 71a/71b and variables 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 66c – 66e – 77 (1,447 responses on average).

In this case, we thought it would be particularly relevant to analyse how variable 71a/71b interacts with variable 77. In this respect, we wanted to know how parents behave as regards viewing television in English with their children based on how often the latter ask for a change of language. As we can observe in Figure 205 below, the general tendency that has emerged again and again in this chapter is broken with band "Always". However, the rest of the bands look like many other patterns of distribution seen before. In this way, we can see how the relative number of parents that share television viewing with their children quite often or from time to time tends to be more numerous as children's demand for a change of language becomes less often. Conversely, the relative number of parents that rarely or never share this activity with their children rises as children's request becomes more frequent.
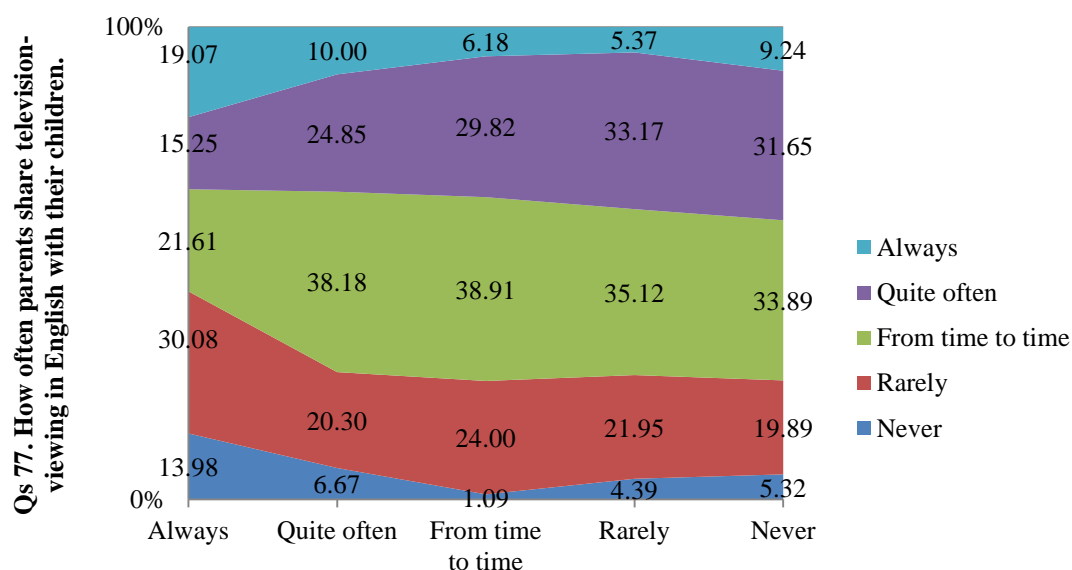
Qs 71a/71b. How often children ask to change back to Spanish when they are watching television in English.

Figure 205. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how often parents share television-viewing in English with their children and how often children ask to have the language changed back to Spanish. Qs 77 and 71a/71b (1,403 responses).

The fourth and last variable under discussion, variable 72a/72b, measures how parents manage the situation when their children are watching television in English and ask their parents to change the language back to Spanish. On this occasion, only three cross-tabulations produced relevant values of dependence, more precisely, those related to the frequency with which children viewed DVDs in English (variable 66c), how often parents watched television in English (variable 18d/47d) and how often parents shared the previous activity with their children (variable 77). As Figure 206 below shows, the general pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies resembles other ones seen before. That is, parents' and children's contact with English tends to increase as we move towards the 'best' values on the scales represented on axis *x* which, in this case, correspond to those managerial strategies consisting of ignoring children's requests to have the language changed back to Spanish.
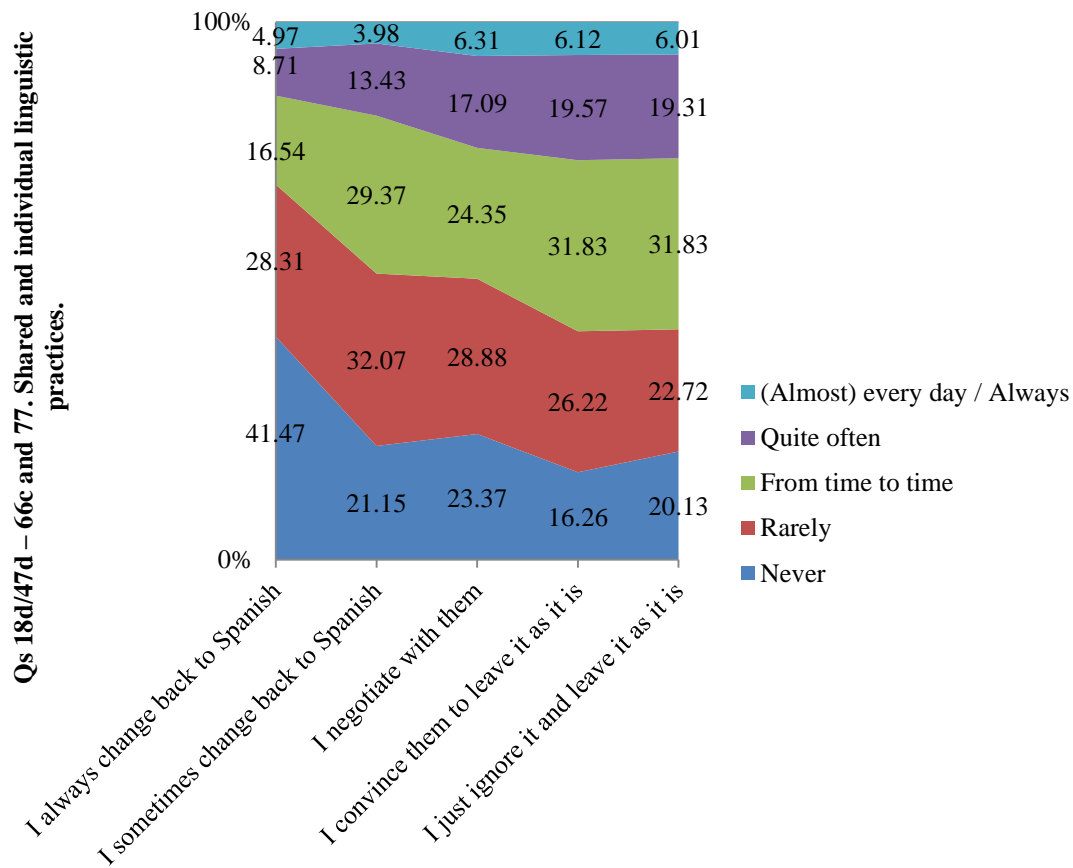
Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Figure 206. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between variable 72a/72b and variables 18d/47d – 66c – 77 (1,316 responses on average).

More particularly, we wanted to find how the frequency with which parents watch television in English with their children is affected by how they react to their children's demands. As we can see in Figure 207 below, when we focus on variable 77, band "Always" does not behave as in the previous figure analysed. However, the other four variables behave in similar ways so that we can conclude that parents spend more time with their children watching television in English when parents adopt a firmer approach to their children's demands and resist changing the language.
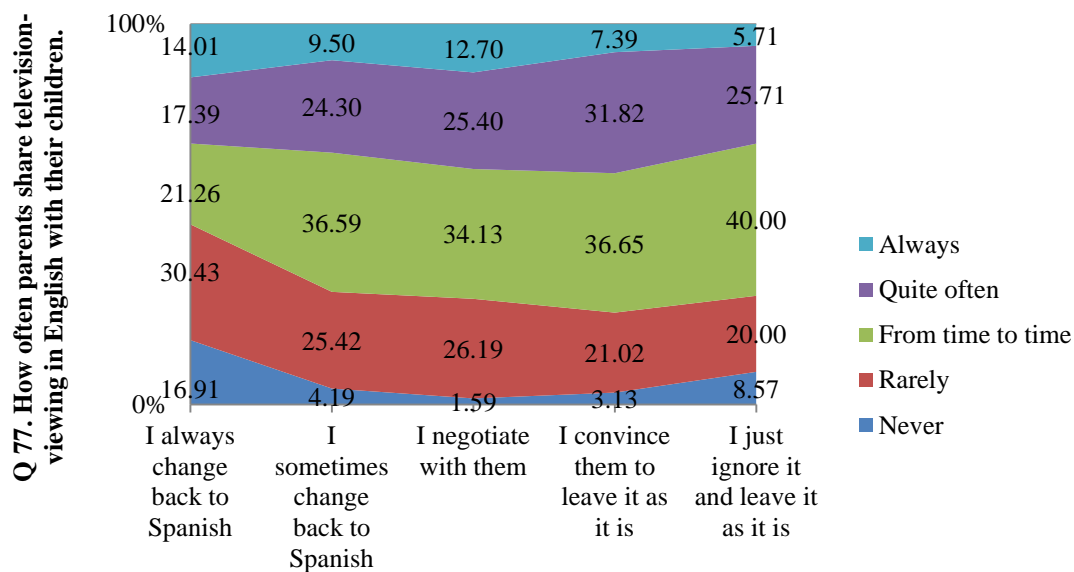
Q 77. How often parents share television-viewing in English with their children.

	I always change back to Spanish	I sometimes change back to Spanish	I negotiate with them	I convince them to leave it as it is	I just ignore it and leave it as it is
Always	14.01	9.50	12.70	7.39	5.71
Quite often	17.39	24.30	25.40	31.82	25.71
From time to time	21.26	36.59	34.13	36.65	40.00
Rarely	30.43	25.42	26.19	21.02	20.00
Never	16.91	4.19	1.59	3.13	8.57

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Figure 207. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how often parents share television-viewing in English with their children and what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish. Qs 77 and 72a/72b (1,148 responses).

We would like to end the analysis of the relationships between linguistic practices within the family on the one hand, and parental planning and managerial strategies on the other by looking at the cross-tabulations from the opposite angle. More specifically, we would like to discuss how variables 70a/70b, 71a/71b and 72a/72b are affected by variable 77.

Beginning with variable 70a/70b, we can observe in Figure 208 below very irregular distributions. However, the tendencies that had been revealed in the previous analysis of these two variables are reproduced here again. Thus, we can see how the theoretically 'worst' planning and managerial strategies occur more frequently when parents spend more time watching television in English with their children, whereas the 'best' ones are more frequent when parents spend less time with their children.

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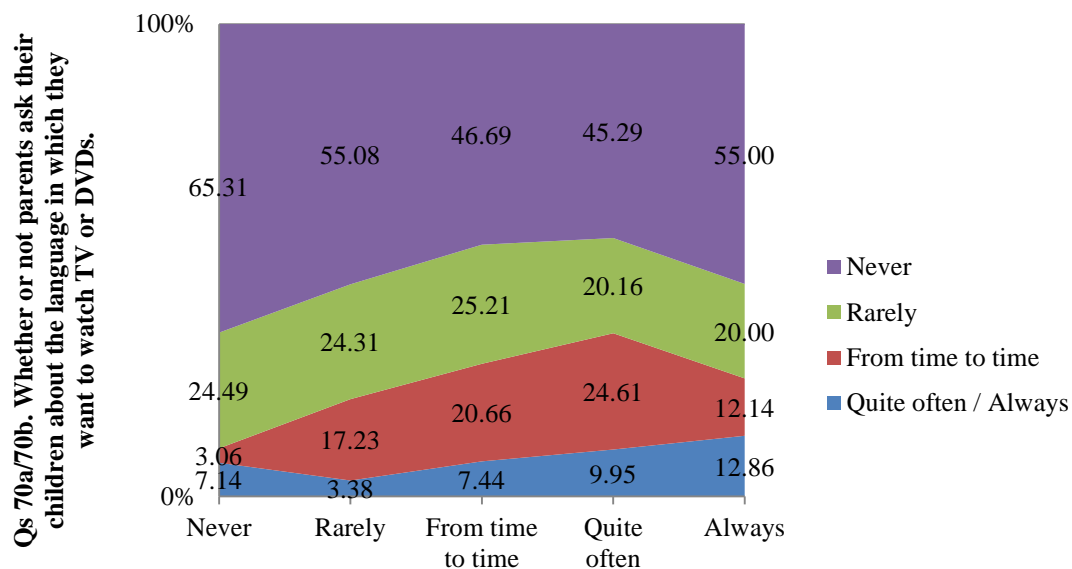
Q 77. How often parents share television-viewing in English with their children.

Figure 208. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV or DVDs and the frequency with which parents share television-viewing in English with their children. Qs 70a/70b and 77 (1,429 responses).

In the light of these findings, the main conclusion that could be drawn is that we should, perhaps, reconsider whether asking children in what language they want to view television is in fact a bad managerial style, as we had anticipated in section 4.4 above.

Secondly, we were also interested in finding how often children ask for a change of language when their parents are viewing television with them in English. In this case, although the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies looks slightly irregular, some consistent patterns seem to emerge. In this respect, we can note how children tend to demand a change of language more often when parents do not share the activity with them, whereas the former's demands become less frequent when parents tend to spend more time with them. These tendencies can be seen in bands "Never", "From time to time", "Quite often" and "Always". As we can observe in Figure 209 below, the relative number of children that never make this request or do it from time to time increases when parents view television with them more often. By contrast, the relative number of children that quite often or always ask for a change of language tends to decrease when parents are present more often.
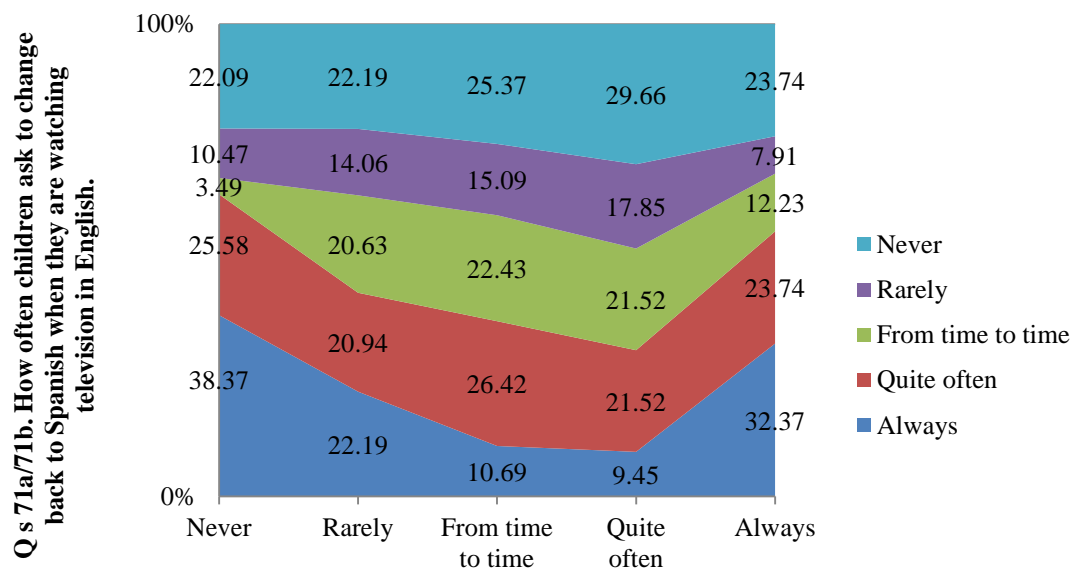
Qs 77. How often parents share television-viewing in English with their children.

Figure 209. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children ask to have the language changed back to Spanish and the frequency with which parents share television-viewing in English with their children. Qs 71a/71b and 77 (1,403 responses).

Finally, we looked at how the way in which parents manage children's demands concerning a change of language is affected by whether or not they are sharing the activity with their children. Thus, as Figure 210 below seems to suggest, parents tend to convince their children not to change, to negotiate or sometimes to change back to Spanish as they spend more time sharing the activity with their children. By contrast, parents tend to always change back to Spanish when they never share the activity with their children. Band "I just ignore it and leave it as it is" seems an exception to the tendency; however, the absolute frequencies obtained were slightly low, for which we maintain that the result is not conclusive. Therefore, spending time watching television in English with children tends to improve the way in which parents manage the linguistic practice and, in this way, increase children's amount of time of exposure to the language.

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Q 77. How often parents share television-viewing in English with their children.

Legend:
- I just ignore it and leave it as it is
- I convince them to leave it as it is
- I negotiate with them
- I sometimes change back to Spanish
- I always change back to Spanish

Data values by category (Never, Rarely, From time to time, Quite often, Always):

	Never	Rarely	From time to time	Quite often	Always
I just ignore it and leave it as it is	12.50	7.45	10.80	9.18	5.41
I convince them to leave it as it is	15.28	26.24	33.16	38.10	23.42
I negotiate with them	2.78	11.70	11.05	10.88	14.41
I sometimes change back to Spanish	20.83	32.27	33.68	29.59	30.63
I always change back to Spanish	48.61	22.34	11.31	12.24	26.13

Figure 210. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and the frequency with which parents share television-viewing in English with their children. Qs 72a/72b and 77 (1,148 responses).

To sum up this section, we have found that, in the additive context under study, some of the interactions between linguistic practices, and planning and management strategies have produced some relevant results that will widen our knowledge of family language policy and, in this way, will be useful in our attempt to develop a lifestyle diglossia language planning action. Thus, we have learnt that the age at which children first start to have contact with English conditions how this contact is maintained when they grow up. Secondly, we have been able to confirm that asking children about the language in which they want to watch television has come up as a positive parental strategy. Finally, we have also found that the dependence relationships between certain linguistic practices and parental management strategies work in both directions and condition each other.

4.7.2.1.4 Shared and individual linguistic practices / Intra-family factors

This block of analysis, in which we are looking at how linguistic practices correlate with the rest of factors that make up family language policy, comes to an end with the discussion of the role played by intra-family and external factors.

As regards intra-family factors, the variables analysed were those pertaining to parents' level of English (variable 14/43), parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVDs in English (variable 15/44), parents' job (variable 9/38), parents' experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs (variable 13/42), and parents' highest level of schooling completed (variable 10/39).

A look at Table 62 below will let us notice that thirty-nine out of a total of sixty-five possible cross-tabulations among the eighteen variables studied proved to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above. In the analysis and discussion below, we will see that each of these five intra-family variables correlates with linguistic practices in similar ways.

Table 62. Dependence relationships strengths between intra-family factors, and shared and individual linguistic practices.

Qs 14/43		Qs 15/44		Qs 9/38		Qs 13/42		Qs 10/39	
Qs 17e/46e	97.24	Qs 17e/46e	96.94	Qs 17e/46e	93.57	Qs 18d/47d	88.14	Qs 17e/46e	87.30
Qs 17a/46a	96.31	Qs 17a/46a	95.40	Qs 17a/46a	92.43	Qs 17d/46d	83.48	Qs 18d/47d	83.00
Qs 18d/47d	95.73	Qs 17b/46b	95.01	Qs 18d/47d	89.65	Qs 17a/46a	81.83	Qs 17a/46a	75.84
Qs 17b/46b	95.25	Qs 17d/46d	94.68	Qs 65a/65b	84.36	Qs 17b/46b	81.48	Qs 17b/46b	70.98
Qs 17d/46d	94.84	Qs 65a/65b	93.38	Qs 17d/46d	83.44	Q 66c	79.99	Q 77	68.42
Qs 65a/65b	94.60	Qs 18d/47d	91.57	Qs 17b/46b	78.19	Qs 17e/46e	78.54	Q 66c	59.95
Q 77	88.54	Q 77	86.85	Q 66c	74.08	Q 66i	78.18	Q 66i	50.02
Q 66c	83.68	Q 66c	84.52	Q 65c	60.37	Qs 65a/65b	70.45	Qs 65a/65b	39.55
Q 65c	77.09	Q 66i	77.94	Q 66e	55.01	Q 65c	61.31	Qs 17d/46d	38.68
Q 66i	74.12	Q 65c	77.83	Q 66f	41.98	Q 77	60.26	Q 65d	27.35
Q 66e	65.38	Q 66e	66.95	Q 65d	36.34	Q 66e	47.38	Q 66f	14.97
Q 66f	52.83	Q 66f	64.67	Q 77	36.15	Q 65d	30.31	Q 66e	3.65
Q 65d	34.44	Q 65d	1.09	Q 66i	19.07	Q 66f	25.23	Q 65c	-46.21

We will commence with variables 14/43 and 15/44, which measured parents' level of English in two different ways. The twenty relevant cross-tabulations analysed produced similar patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies. As Figure 211 below shows, the general pattern of average relative (%) frequencies obtained from merging the twenty cross-tabulations mentioned before suggests that parents' level of English is a clear predictor of linguistic practices within the family. In this way, it can be observed how the relative number of parents and children who (almost) always, quite often, from time to time and rarely have contact with English as indicated in the variables under analysis increases as we move to the right positions on axis *x*, which correspond to the highest levels of English. Conversely, the relative number of parents and children who never have contact with English increases as parents' level of English gets lower and lower.
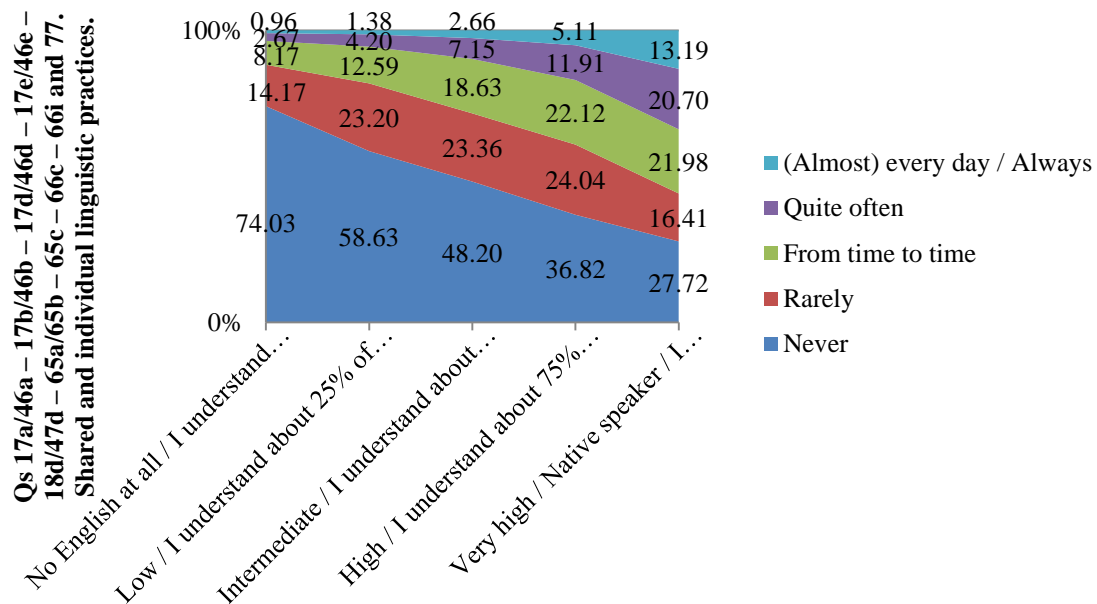
Qs 14/43 - 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 211. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between shared and individual linguistic practices, and parents' level of English. Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 66c – 66i – 77 and 14/43 – 15/44 (1,933 responses on average).

This pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies is particularly relevant for those cross-tabulations that show direct relationships between parents' level of English and the different ways in which they have contact with English (variables 17/46, 18d/47d, 65a/65b and 77). More particularly, we would like to highlight the strong relationship between parents' level of English and variable 17b/46b, which reflects the frequency

with which parents use English with their children. Such strong correlation might well reflect Caminal *et al.*'s (2018) conclusion that parents' improved command of a second language in a bilingual context is related to their predisposition to transmit this second language to their children. We should also highlight the fact that, when it comes to interpreting the data obtained, variable 17e/46e, which measures parents' use of English at work, cannot be analysed alongside of the rest of variables pertaining to parents' contact with English, the reason being that parents' use of English in the labour context is likely to be compulsory, whereas in the rest of contexts the use of English will probably tend to be voluntary.

However, if we inverted axes *x* and *y*, we would obtain a pattern of distribution like the one in Figure 212 below. In this case, we could claim that parents' level of English could be affected by the frequency with which parents watch television in English. As we can observe, the relative number of parents who claim to have the two top levels of English grows as the frequency with which they watch television in English increases. By contrast, the relative number of parents with the two lowest levels of English rises as the frequency with which they watch television in English decreases.

Qs 18d/47d. How often parents watch television in English without subtitles.

Figure 212. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of English and the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles. Qs 14/43 – 15/44 and 18d/47d (1,949 responses on average).

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This second cause-effect relationship, however, cannot be verified with the information available because other factors may have influenced parents' level of English. Thus, a cross-tabulation between variable 19/48, which asked about the amount of time spent by parents learning English abroad, and variables 14/43 and 15/44, shows a very clear dependence between the amount of time spent abroad and parents' level of English. Thus, we can observe in figures 213 and 214 below how parents' level of English increases as the amount of time spent abroad learning English also rises.
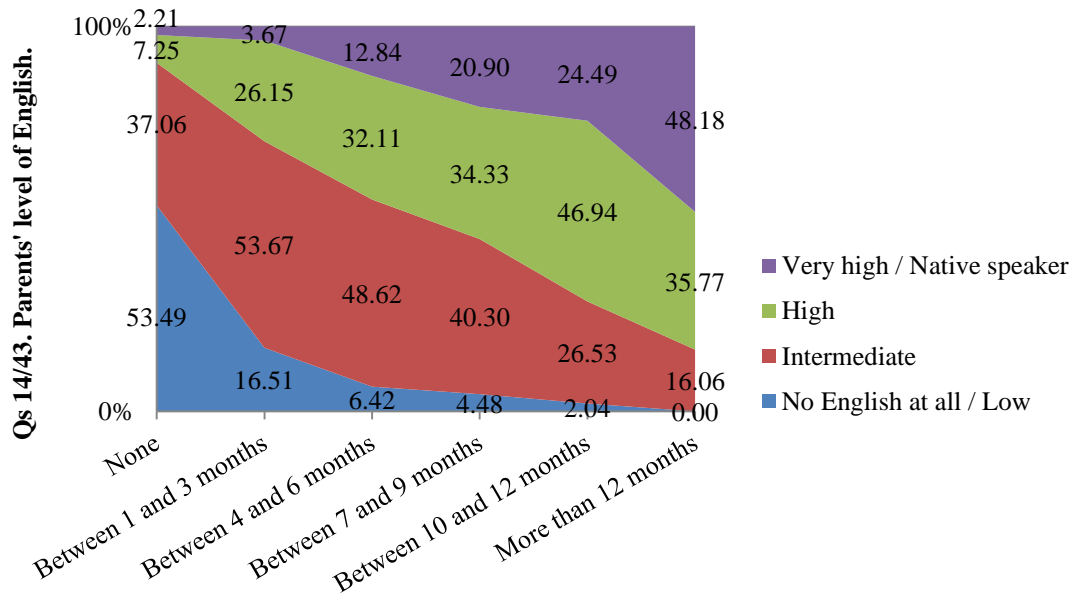
Qs 19/48. Amount of time that parents have spent learning English abroad.

Figure 213. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of English and the amount of time spent learning English abroad. Qs 19/48 and 14/43 (2,029 responses).
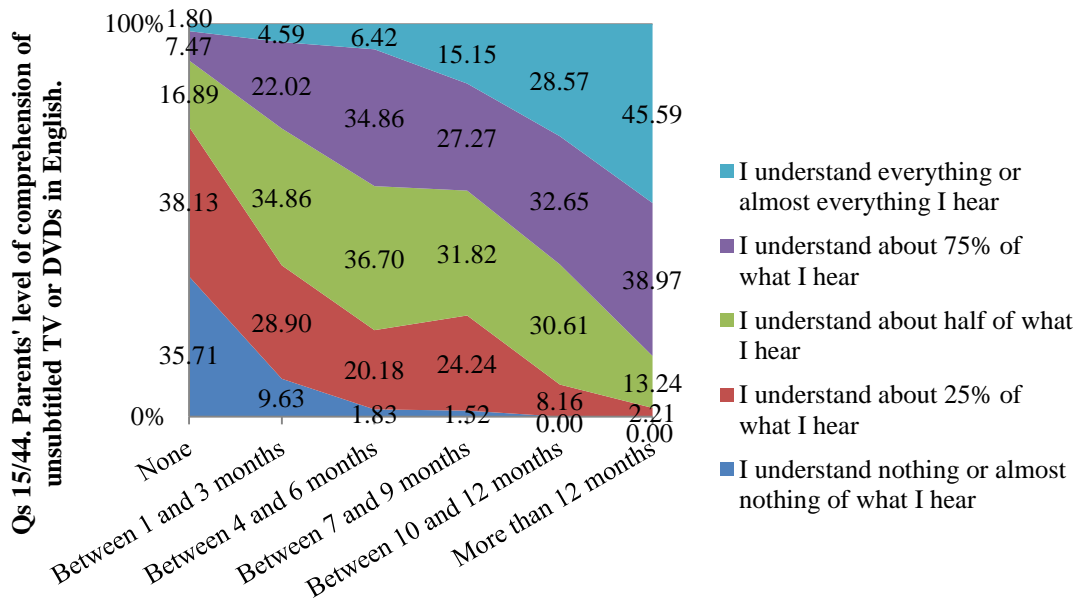
Qs 19/48. Amount of time that parents have spent learning English abroad.

Figure 214. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVDs in English and the amount of time spent learning English abroad. Qs 19/48 and 15/44 (2,023 responses).

The third variable under consideration, variable 9/38, measured the relationship between linguistic practices and parents' job. Seven out of a total of thirteen possible cross-tabulations produced relevant levels of dependence for variable 9/38. When the seven patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained were merged, the general pattern of average relative (%) frequencies obtained (see Figure 215 below) reveals once more the same tendency observed before. Thus, we can see how, for bands "(Almost) every day / Always", "Quite often" and "From time to time", the relative number of parents and children who have contact with English as indicated in Figure 215 below increases as the quality of parents' job "increases" too. By contrast, the relative number of parents and children who never or rarely have contact with English tends to increase as parents' jobs "worsen".
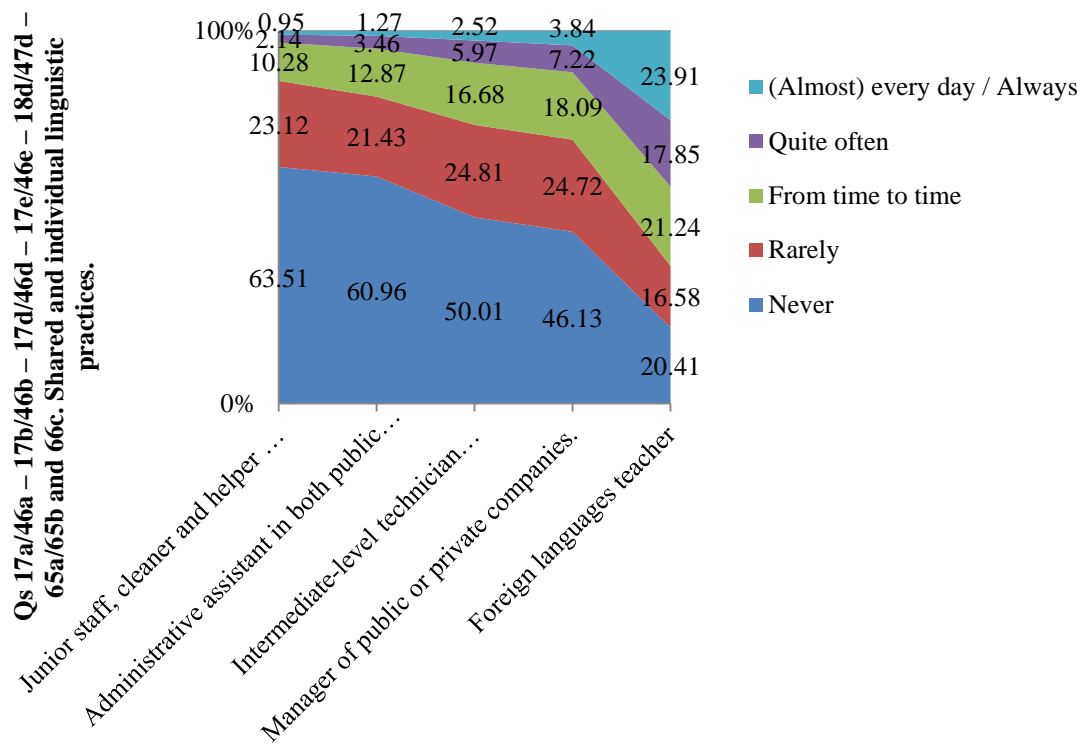
Qs 9/38. Parents' job.

Figure 215. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between shared and individual linguistic practices, and parents' job. Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 66c and 9/38 (1,659 responses on average).

As for parents' experience regarding learning foreign language through viewing television, videos or DVDs (variable 13/42), eight cross-tabulations produced relevant levels of co-occurrence. The general framework of average relative (%) frequencies obtained (see Figure 216 below) shows that the relative number of parents and children who never have contact with English as indicated in the variables that had produced relevant levels of co-occurrence increases when parents claimed to have had negative experiences regarding learning foreign languages through television. On the contrary, the relative number of parents and children that (almost) every day or always, quite often, from time to time and rarely have contact with English increases when parents affirmed that their experience of learning foreign languages through television was positive.
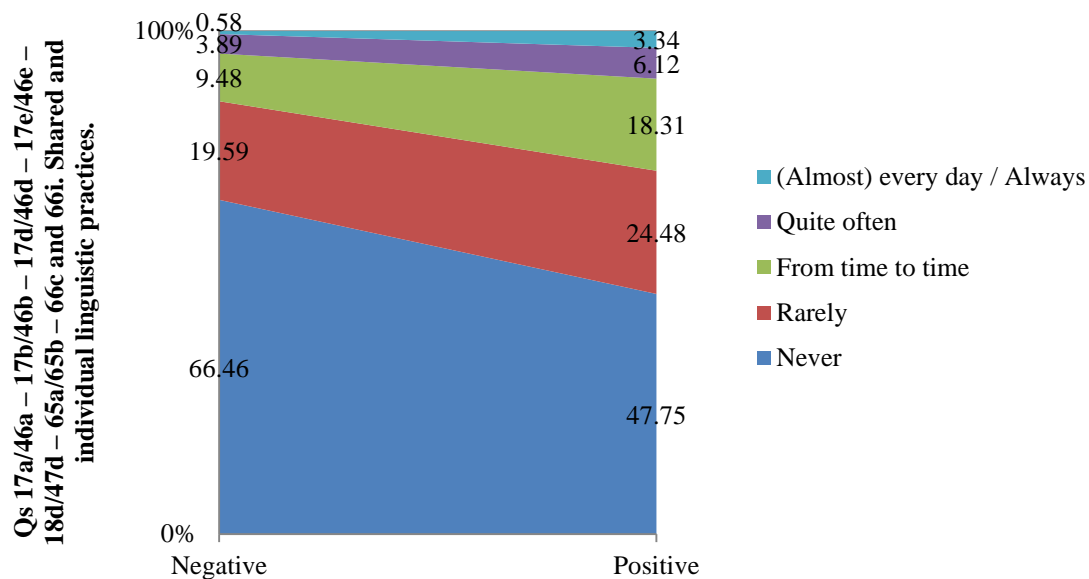
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Qs 13/42. Parents' experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs.
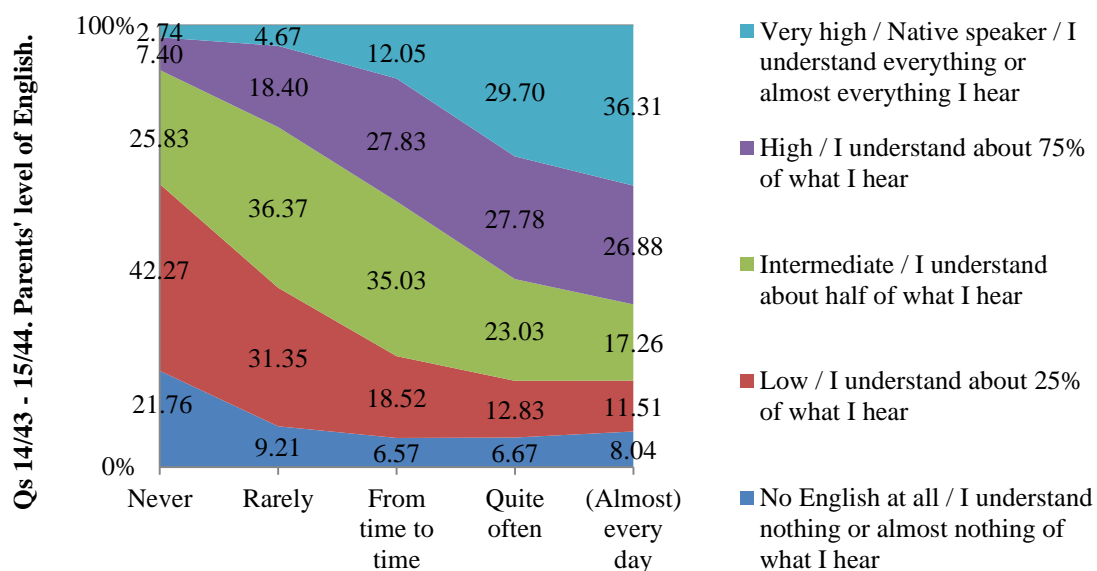
Figure 216. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between shared and individual linguistic practices, and parents' experience regarding learning foreign languages through television. Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 17e/46e – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 66c – 66i and 13/42 (982 responses on average).

Before we conclude the analysis of the role played by variable 13/42 on family linguistic practices, we would like to consider variables 18d/47d and 66c individually, as they bear a more direct relationship with variable 13/42 than the rest of parents' and children's linguistic practices. As for variable 18d/47d, we can observe in Figure 217 below that parents tend to watch television in English with more frequency when their experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through television, video or DVDs at any time in their lives have been positive.
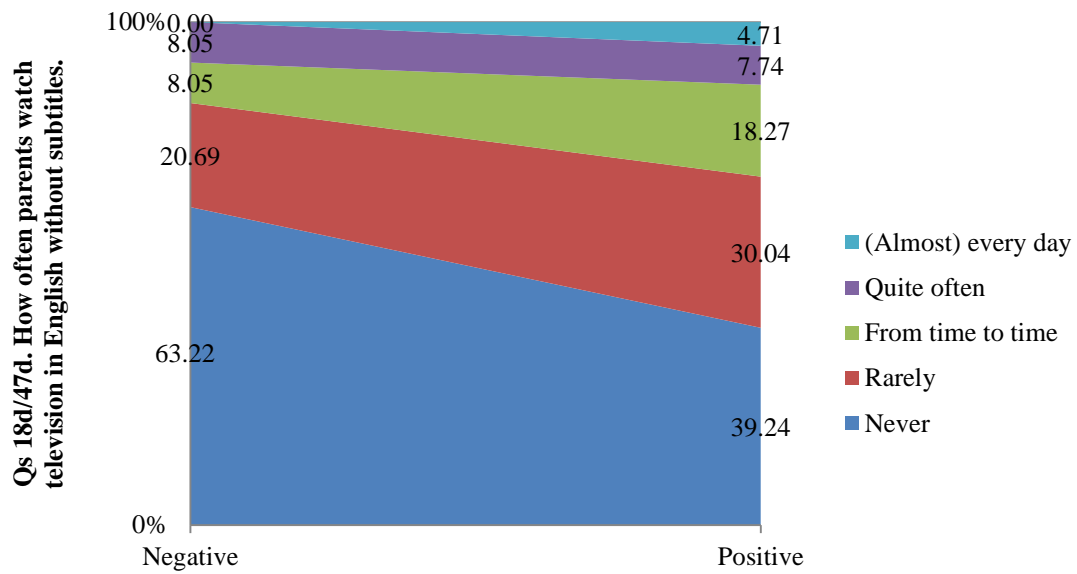
Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 217. Pattern of distribution average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents watch television in English without subtitles and parents' experience regarding learning foreign languages through television. Qs 18d/47d and 13/42 (979 responses).

Likewise, parents tend to share more time viewing television in English with their children when their own experiences of learning English through this means have been positive rather than when they have been negative (see Figure 218 below).
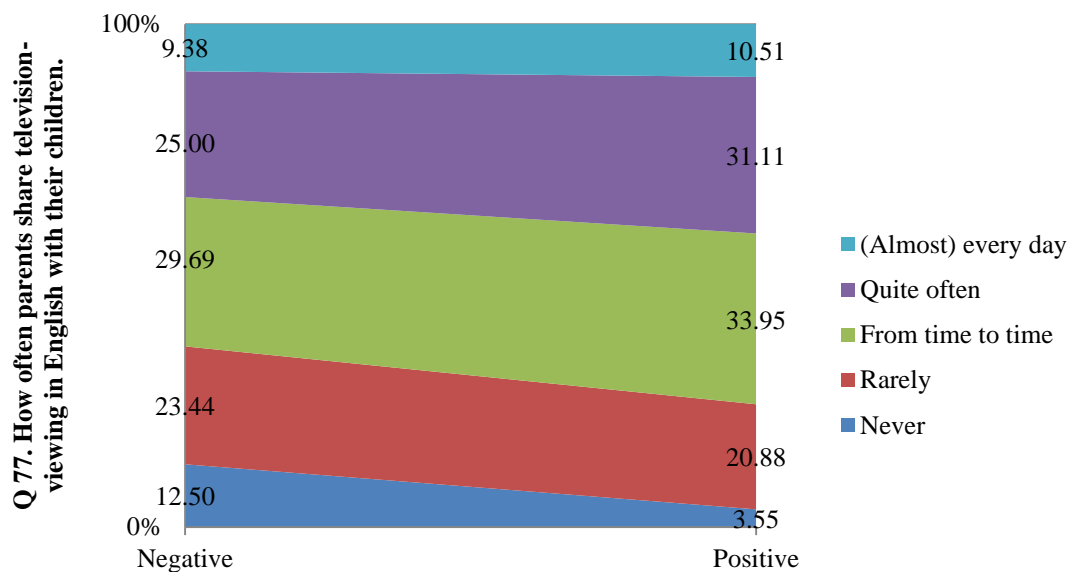
Q 77. How often parents share television-viewing in English with their children.

Legend:
- (Almost) every day
- Quite often
- From time to time
- Rarely
- Never

Values (Negative column): 9.38, 25.00, 29.69, 23.44, 12.50

Values (Positive column): 10.51, 31.11, 33.95, 20.88, 3.55

Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 218. Pattern of distribution average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which parents share television-viewing in English with their children and parents' experience regarding learning foreign languages through television. Qs 77 and 13/42 (768 responses).

These findings seem to fall in line with King and Fogle's (2006) conclusions that parents base language learning decisions for their children on their own learning experiences.

And concerning variable 66c, the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies is very clear too. Thus, we can see in Figure 219 below how the relative number of children that watch DVDs in English rises when their parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through television, video or DVDs at any time in their lives have been positive.
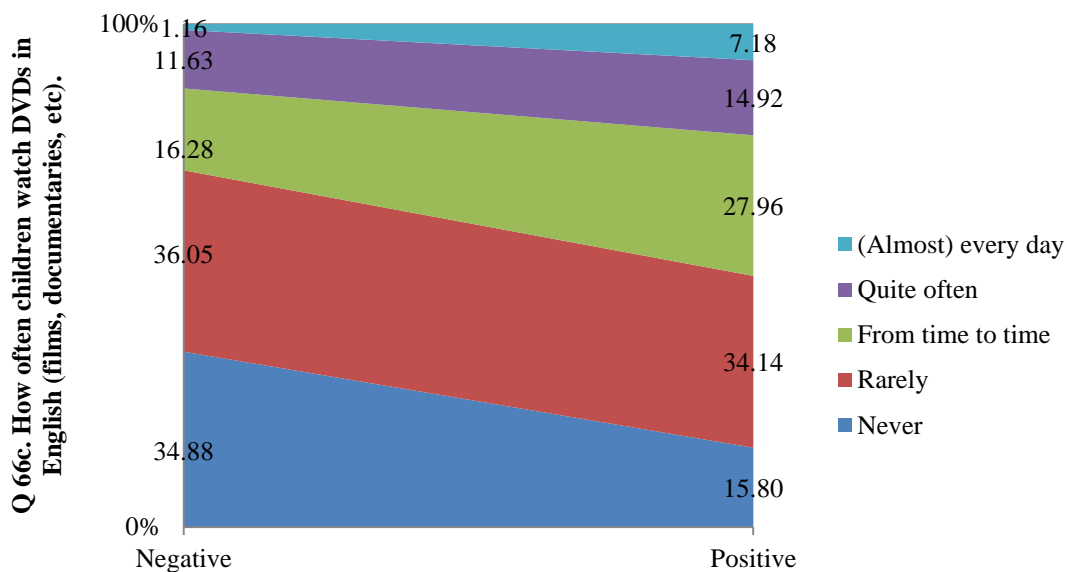
Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 219. Pattern of distribution average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children view DVDs in English and parents' experience regarding learning foreign languages through television. Qs 66c and 13/42 (991 responses).

As we had observed when discussing the dependence relationship between variables 66b and 13/42 above, we can now conclude that parental experiences of learning foreign languages through television, video or DVDs tend to be transmitted to the next generation more often when these experiences have been positive.

The fifth and last variable within the category of intra-family factors, variable 10/39, relates to the highest level of schooling that parents had completed. Only four cross-tabulations produced relevant degrees of dependence between this variable and linguistic practices within the family. As we can observe in Figure 220 below, for those cross-tabulations that produced relevant values of dependence the general pattern of average relative (%) frequencies shows the same tendency as the one seen many times before. Thus, when parents and children have no contact at all with English in the ways indicated above, their relative number increases as we move towards the left of axis *x* which, in this case, represents the lowest levels of schooling completed by parents. Contrariwise, the relative number of parents and children that have some kind of contact with English, no matter how often this happens, increases as parents' level of schooling completed increases as well.
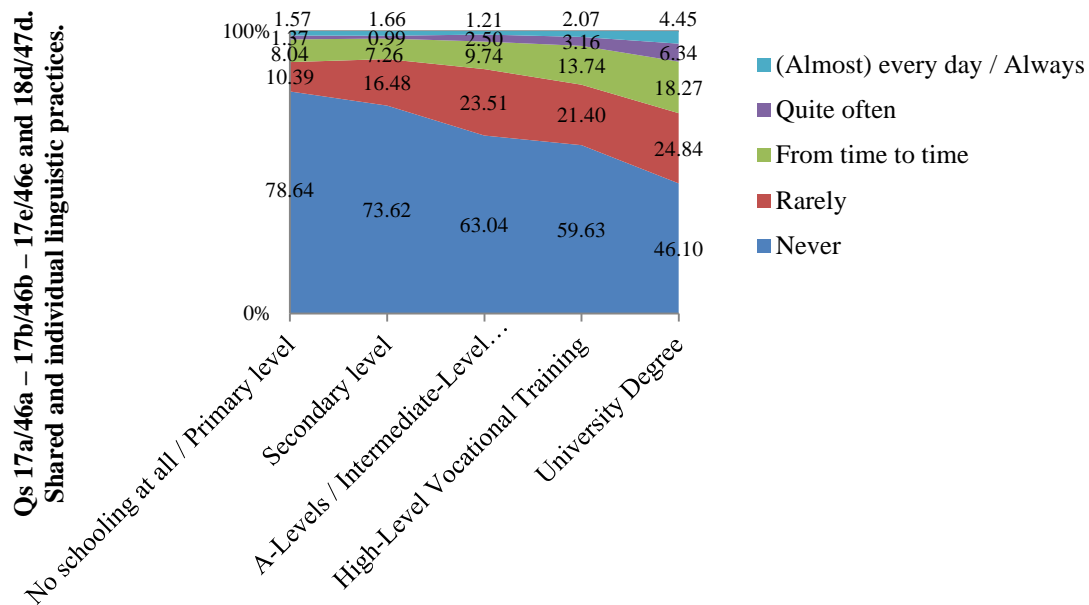
Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling completed.

Figure 220. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between shared and individual linguistic practices, and parents' experience regarding learning foreign languages through television. Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17e/46e – 18d/47d and 13/42 (1,996 responses on average).

By way of conclusion, we can now claim that, in general terms, the intra-family factors analysed seem to play a relevant role in shaping family language policy, not only in relation to children's viewing of television in English, but also concerning other forms of contact with English for both children and parents. Of the five variables that we have analysed, parents' level of English is the factor that affects more linguistic practices within the family and the highest number of parents and children. Further down we will look again at the influence that parents' level of English exerts on the rest of factors that make family language policy.

4.7.2.1.5 Shared and individual linguistic practices / External factors

Finally, as regards external factors that affect linguistic practices within the families, we looked at variables 80a/80b, which measured whether or not parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English; and variable 78g, which measured how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement and not by other people's opinion.

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Sixteen out of a total of twenty-six possible cross-tabulations among the eighteen variables studied proved to be relevant, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the questionnaire or above (see Table 63 below).

Table 63. Dependence relationships strengths between external factors, and shared and individual linguistic practices.

Q 80		Q 78g	
Q 66c	91.78	Q 77	79.38
Qs 65a/65b	89.79	Qs 18d/47d	77.54
Qs 18d/47d	84.78	Q 66c	76.32
Q 77	81.78	Qs 17a/46a	74.27
Qs 17b/46b	80.00	Qs 65a/65b	74.09
Q 65d	80.00	Qs 17b/46b	68.31
Q 66i	78.95	Qs 17d/46d	59.65
Qs 17d/46d	78.84	Q 66f	44.12
Q 65c	75.78	Qs 17e/46e	39.25
Q 66e	73.95	Q 66i	8.15
Qs 17a/46a	73.53	Q 65d	1.17
Qs 17e/46e	66.53	Q 66e	-17.79
Q 66f	36.68	Q 65c	-42.72

As regards variable 80a/80b, the general pattern of average relative (%) frequencies obtained from merging the eleven variables with relevant dependence values reveals that, once again, the relative number of parents and children that have some type of contact with English as expressed in the variables under discussion increases when parents share their experiences concerning their children's viewing of television in English. By contrast, its relative number decreases when these experiences are not shared with other families (Fig. 221).
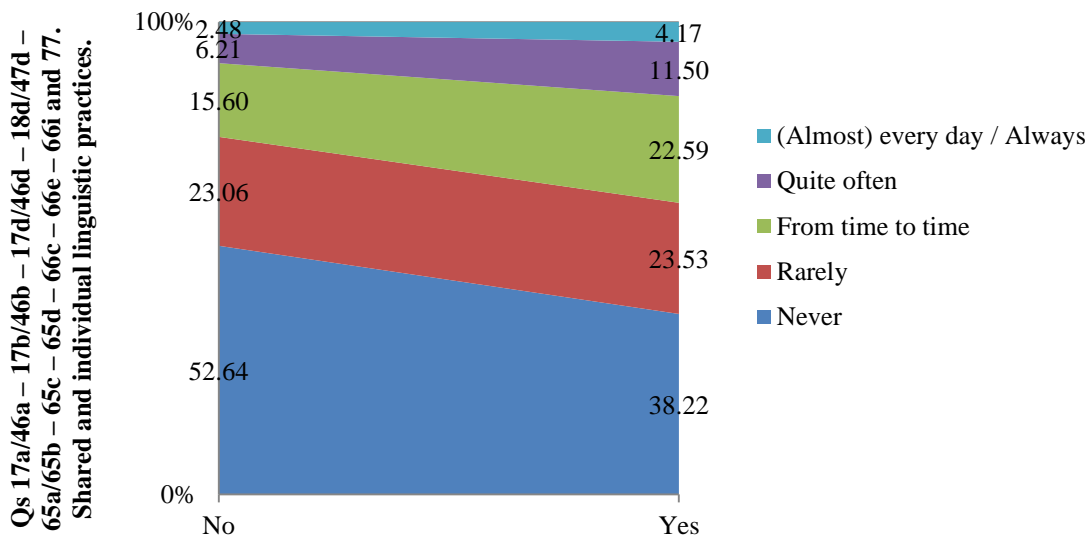
Qs 80a/80b. Whether or not parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 221. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between shared and individual linguistic practices, and whether or not parents share their experience regarding learning foreign languages through television. Qs 17a/46a – 17b/46b – 17d/46d – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 65c – 65d – 66c – 66e – 66i – 77 and 80a/80b (1,405 responses on average).

On the other hand, in relation to variable 78g, the general pattern of average relative (%) frequencies obtained reveals how the relative number of parents and children who (almost) every day or always, quite often and from time to time have contact with English gradually increases as parents' decision to make their children view television in English has been more and more influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion. On the contrary, the relative number of parents and children who rarely or never have contact with English increases when this managerial style has been less and less clear to them. In this case, Figure 222 below seems to be telling us that firm convictions about this particular policy lead to more frequent contact with English.
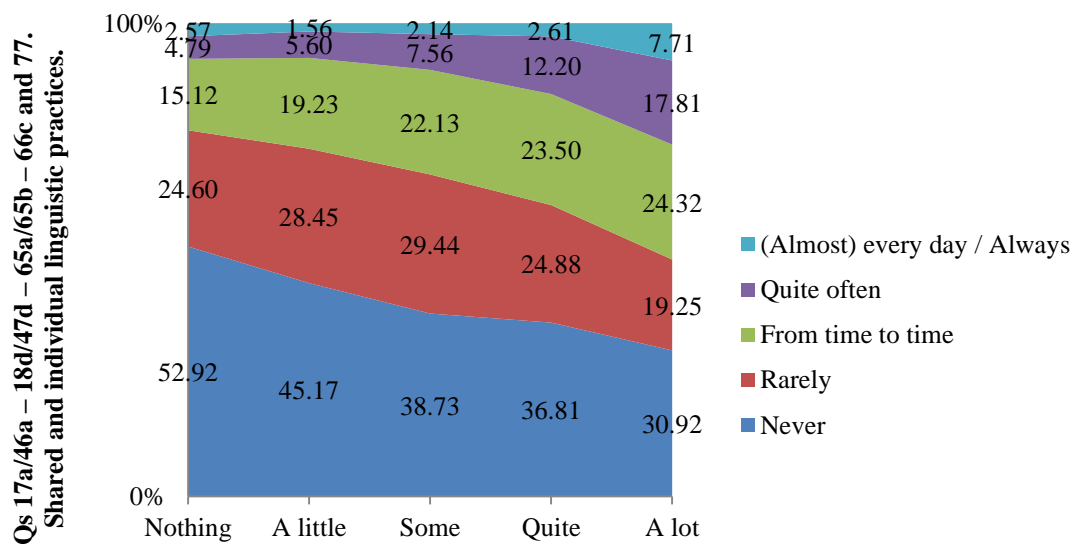
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Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

Figure 222. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between shared and individual linguistic practices, and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has been influenced by their own judgement and not by other people's opinion. Qs 17a/46a – 18d/47d – 65a/65b – 66c – 77 and 78g (995 responses on average).

To conclude this section, we can affirm that those linguistic practices that are affected by external factors follow the general tendencies found in this thesis. That is to say, the best linguistic practices correlate more often with the most positive factors.

4.7.2.2 Planning and management strategies

In our next block of analysis, we will be looking at how language planning and managerial strategies influence and are influenced by parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, intra-family and external factors.

4.7.2.2.1 Planning and management strategies / Parental beliefs

As we did when analysing the relationship between linguistic practices and parental beliefs, we shall begin this section with the study of variables that measured parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition. The first of such variables is variable 24c/53c, through which we asked parents to share with us their belief about the usefulness of watching television and DVDs in English in order to help their children reach an excellent level of English. As we can see in Table 64 below, only one cross-

tabulation produced relevant values affecting seventy per cent of the participants or above.

Table 64. Dependence relationships strength rank for planning and management strategies, and variable 24c/53c.

24c/53c	64	How old children were when they first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis (for example because English was spoken at home, watching television in English, school classes, etc).	79.25%
24c/53c	72	What parents do when their children ask them to change back to Spanish.	59.73%
24c/53c	69	When children first began to view television in English.	57.54%
24c/53c	71	How often children ask their parents to change back to Spanish.	14.17%
24c/53c	70	Whether or not parents ask their children in which language they want to watch TV or a DVD.	12.71%
Average			44.68%

As we can observe in Figure 223 below, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies that has prevailed up to this moment has emerged in this cross-tabulation too. In this case, band "Since they were born" appears as the only one that widens as we move towards the most positive beliefs expressed on axis *x*. Thus, we can see how the relative number of children that started to be in contact with English since birth increases as parents believe that viewing television in English is more and more useful. On the other hand, the relative number of homes in which children began to be in contact with English at the age of two or after grows as parents' beliefs become more and more negative.
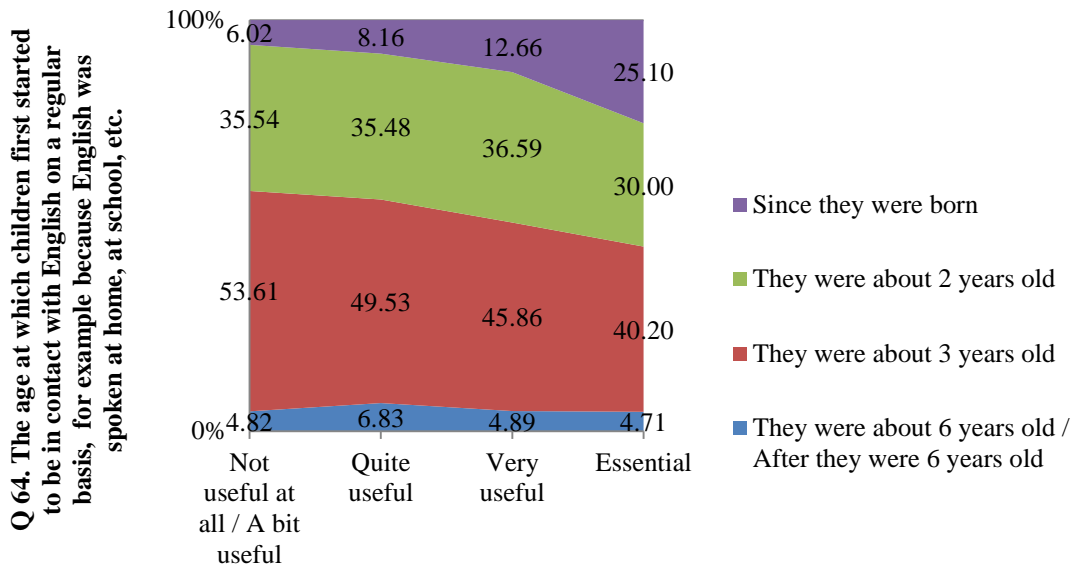
Q 64. The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc.

Legend:
- Since they were born
- They were about 2 years old
- They were about 3 years old
- They were about 6 years old / After they were 6 years old

	Not useful at all / A bit useful	Quite useful	Very useful	Essential
Since they were born	6.02	8.16	12.66	25.10
They were about 2 years old	35.54	35.48	36.59	30.00
They were about 3 years old	53.61	49.53	45.86	40.20
They were about 6 years old	4.82	6.83	4.89	4.71

Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 223. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English. Qs 64 and 24c/53c (1,137 responses).

The analysis of the cross-tabulation between variables 69 and 24c/53c shows similar results. In this respect, we can observe how the relative number of children that began to watch television in English at about one or before increases when parents' beliefs become more positive (see Figure 224 below).
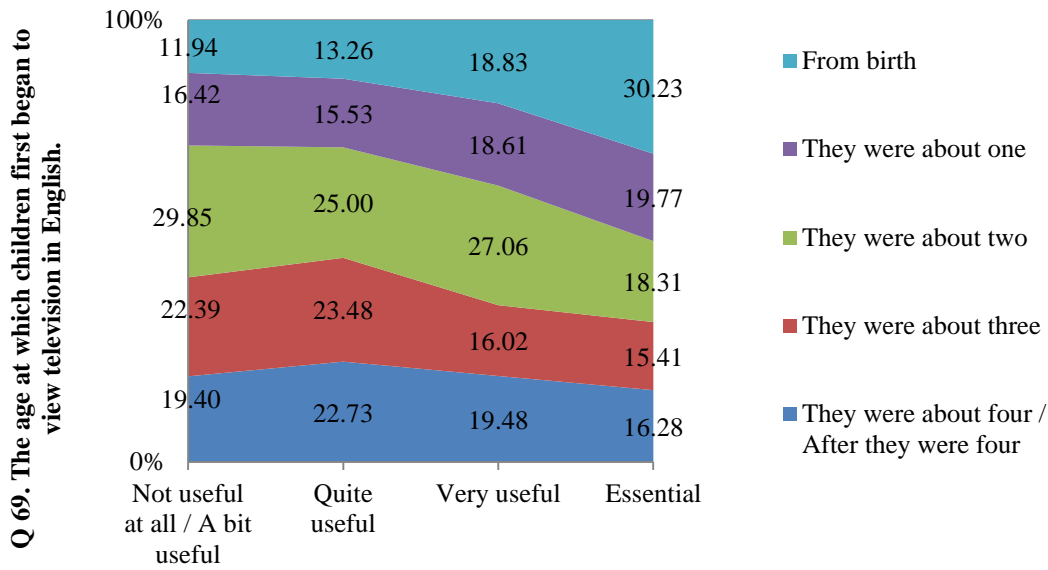
Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 224. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first began to view television in English and parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English. Qs 69 and 24c/53c (2,001 responses).

Figures 223 and 224 above seem to suggest that children begin to view television in English or to have contact with English through other means at an earlier age when parents' beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English are more positive.

However, if the cause-effect relationship was swapped, the data collected would tell us that parents' beliefs become more positive as a consequence of children's earlier contact with English (Figure 225) or as a consequence of children's earlier start of television-viewing (Figure 226). In this case, parents' responses could be projecting their satisfaction with the outcomes.
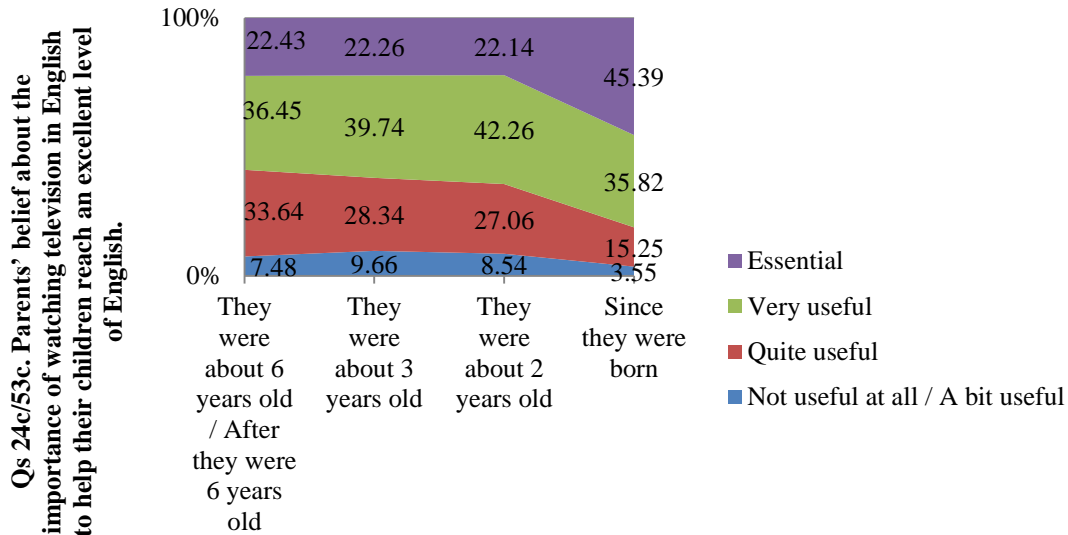
Q 64. The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc.

Figure 225. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English and the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis. Qs 24c/53c and 64 (1,137 responses).
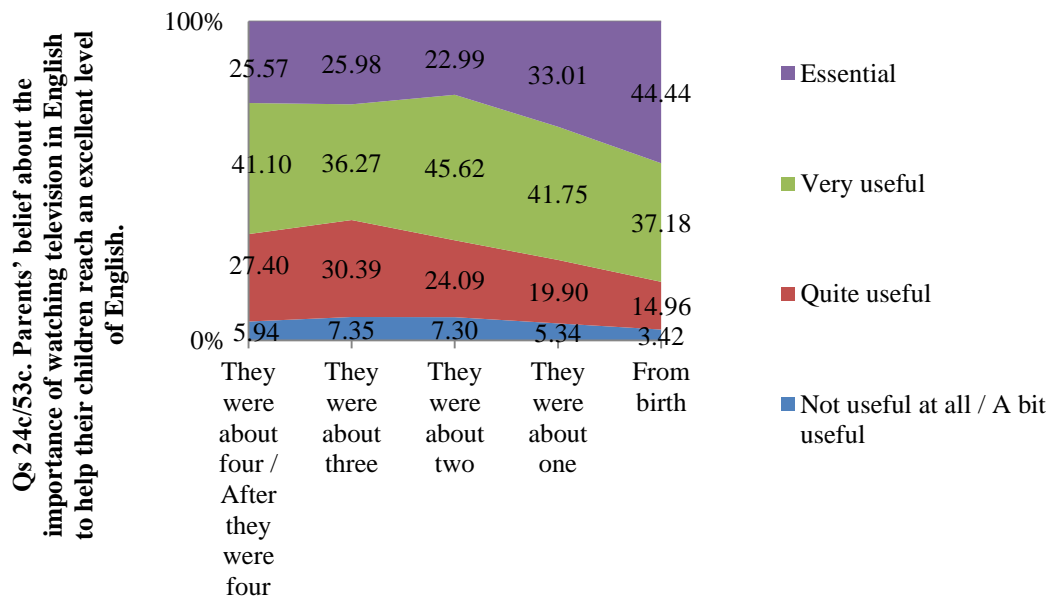
Q 69. The age at which children first began to view television in English.

Figure 226. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English and the age at which children first began to view television in English. Qs 24c/53c and 69 (2,001 responses).

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Finally, we also looked at how variable 24c/53c influences what parents do when children are viewing television in English and the former are requested to change the language back to Spanish (variable 72a/72b). As we can observe in Figure 227 below, we have found that the relative number of parents that never accept their children's request, either because they ignore such requests or because they convince the children to leave it as it is, rises when they hold more positive beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English. On the contrary, the relative number of those parents who always accept their children's requests rises when they hold less positive beliefs about the use of viewing television in English.
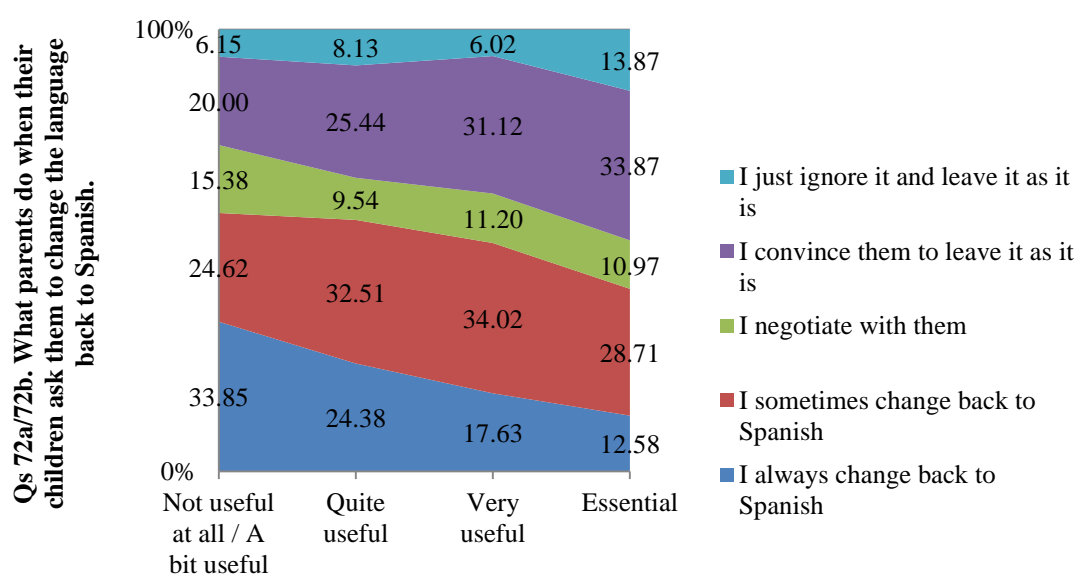
Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 227. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English. Qs 72a/72b and 24c/53c (1,149 responses).

To conclude the analysis of the role of variable 24c/53c, we have been able to see how the most positive beliefs about the benefits of viewing television in English to reach higher levels of proficiency inspires the best managerial strategies and how the least positive beliefs inspire the worst strategies.

Next, we moved on to examine the role played by variable 24a/53a, which referred to parents' perception about the usefulness of very early acquisition. As Table 65 below reveals, only the cross-tabulation with variable 64 produced a relevant dependence relationship.

Table 65. Dependence relationships strength rank for planning and management strategies, and variable 24a/53a.

24a/53a	64	How old children were when they first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis (for example because English was spoken at home, watching television in English, school classes, etc).	72.96%
24a/53a	69	When children first began to view television in English.	38.34%
24a/53a	70	Whether or not parents ask their children in which language they want to watch TV or a DVD.	21.22%
24a/53a	72	What parents do when their children ask them to change back to Spanish.	7.44%
24a/53a	71	How often children ask their parents to change back to Spanish.	-22.34%
Average			23.52%

A look at Figure 228 below will help us see the coherence between parents' beliefs in relation to the importance of very early acquisition and the age at which their children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis. In this respect, we can highlight the fact that the relative number of children that first started to be in contact with English at the age of six or later, which is considered a 'worse' planning style, clearly grows as parents believe that very early acquisition is less and less useful. Contrarily, the relative number of children that began to be in contact with English at birth or when they were about two years old, which are considered 'better' planning options, rises when parents think that very early acquisition is more and more beneficial for children.
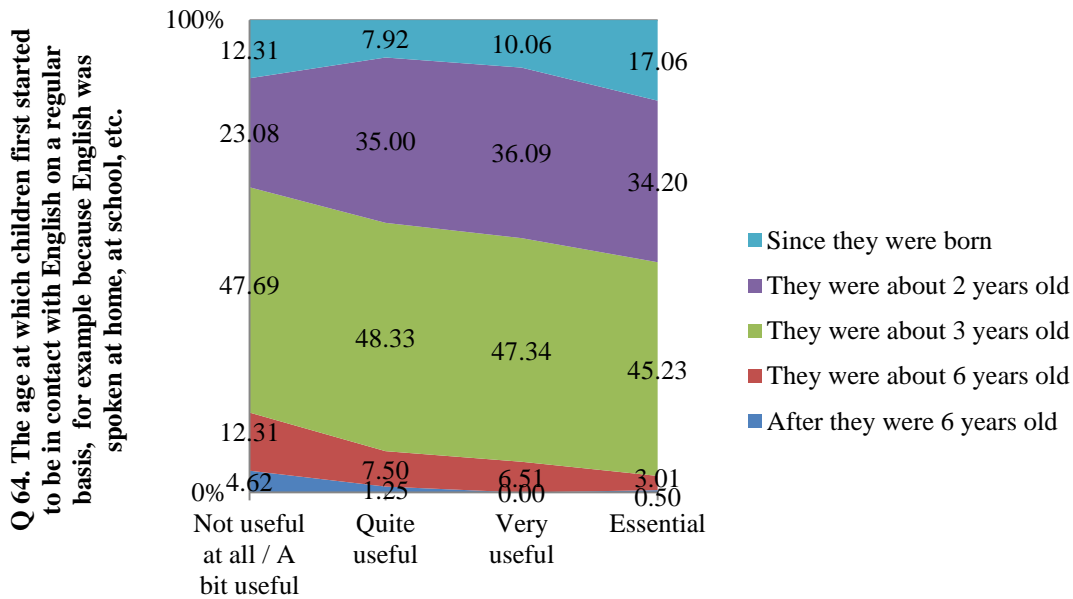
Qs 24a/53a. Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.

Figure 228. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the importance of very early acquisition and the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis. Qs 24a/53a and 64 (2,008 responses).

We would like to make a brief reference to a possible contradiction between findings about the relationship between variables 64 and 24a/53a on the one hand, and variables 69 and 24a/53a on the other. As we can observe in Figure 229 below, when we asked parents about the age at which their children started to view television in English, the relative number of children that began to watch television in English at the age of 4 or later increases as parents believe that an early start is more and more useful. One likely explanation could refer to the fact that parents were not aware of the usefulness of watching TV.
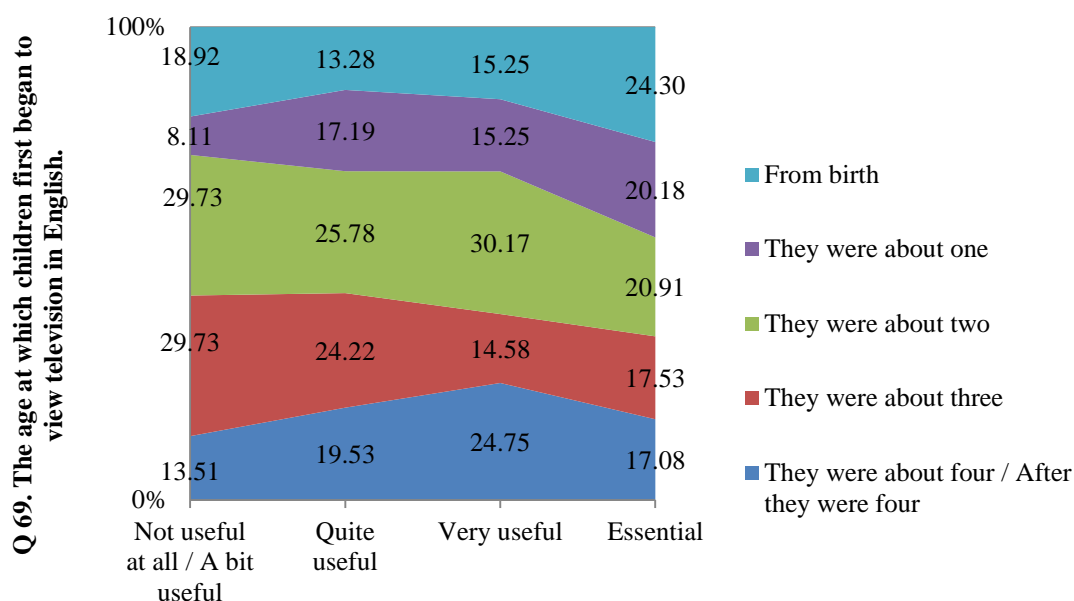
Qs 24a/53a. Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.

Figure 229. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the importance of very early acquisition and the age at which children first began to view television in English. Qs 24a/53a and 69 (1,139 responses).

The third and last variable measuring parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition pertains to parents' expectations in relation to their children's future attainment in English (variable 30/59). On this occasion, three cross-tabulations produced relevant dependence relationships (see Table 66 below).

Table 66. Dependence relationships strength rank for planning and management strategies, and variable 30/59.

30/59	64	How old children were when they first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis (for example because English was spoken at home, watching television in English, school classes, etc).	83.89%
30/59	72	What parents do when their children ask them to change back to Spanish.	75.35%
30/59	71	How often children ask their parents to change back to Spanish.	72.44%
30/59	69	When children first began to view television in English.	37.55%
30/59	70	Whether or not parents ask their children in which language they want to watch TV or a DVD.	24.63%
Average			58.77%

To understand the nature of such relationships, we will next examine the different patterns of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained. Regarding variable 64,

Figure 230 below indicates that the relative number of children who began to be in contact with English from birth or at about two years old, thus revealing 'better' planning and managing practices, grows when parents believe that their children will attain higher levels of English. By contrast, the relative number of children that began to be in contact with English at about three, six or after, thus showing 'worse' planning and managerial practices, rises when parents claim that their children will reach lower levels of English. The pattern of distribution produced by this cross-tabulation resembles the ones already seen on many occasions before in this thesis, which reflects the proclivity for the best values of the Likert scales to co-occur on both axes and, similarly, for the worst values of the Likert scales to distribute similarly on both axes. However, to make sense of Figure 230 below, axis *x* should not be interpreted as the level of proficiency in English that children *will be able to* reach, according to their parents, but as the level of proficiency that parents *would like* their children to achieve (for the use of the concepts "parental aspirations and expectations", see Yamamoto and Holloway, 2010, in Chapter 2 above). In this way, the language planning actions reflected on axis *y* would be a consequence of parental hopes, reflected on axis *x*. As we can observe in Figure 230 below, categories "Very low" and "Low" have been removed from axis *x*, as no parents hope their children to reach those levels of proficiency in English. We would be able to conclude, therefore, that parents are facilitating children's contact with English at an earlier age to help them achieve higher levels of proficiency (see Alexander *et al.*, 1994, and others in the Literature Review chapter above).
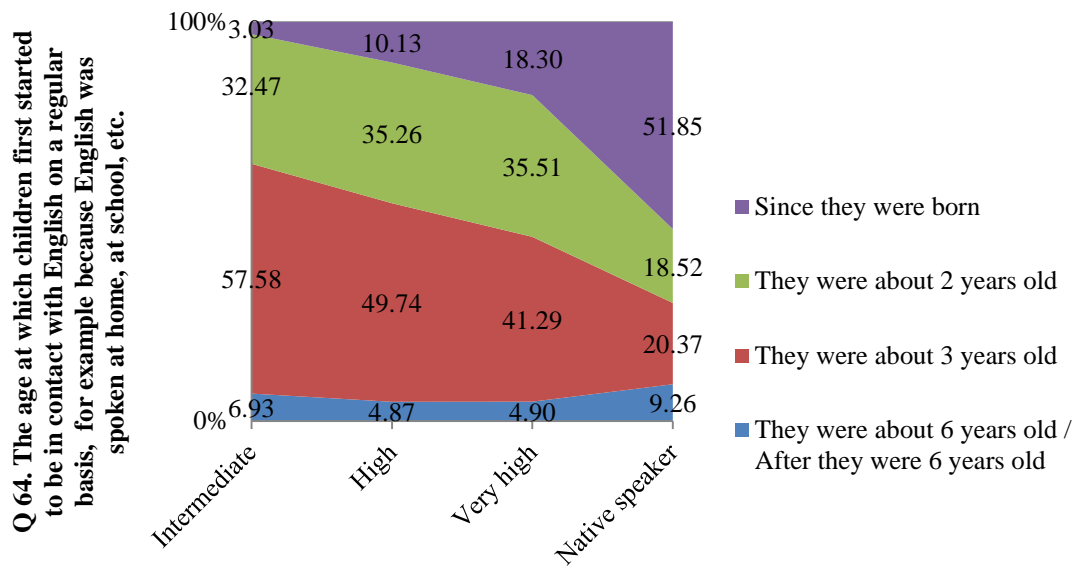
Qs 30/59. The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.

Figure 230. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' hopes about the level of English that their children will be able to reach. Qs 64 and 30/59 64 (1,983 responses).

However, a different interpretation of this cross-tabulation seems to emerge if we swap axes *x* and *y*, and reverse the cause-effect relationship between these two variables. As a result, we would be able to argue that parents may believe that their children will reach increasingly higher levels of English because their regular contact with English began earlier. On the other hand, parents may assume that their children's attainment in English will be increasingly lower because regular contact with English started later (see Figure 231 below for the distribution of relative frequencies).
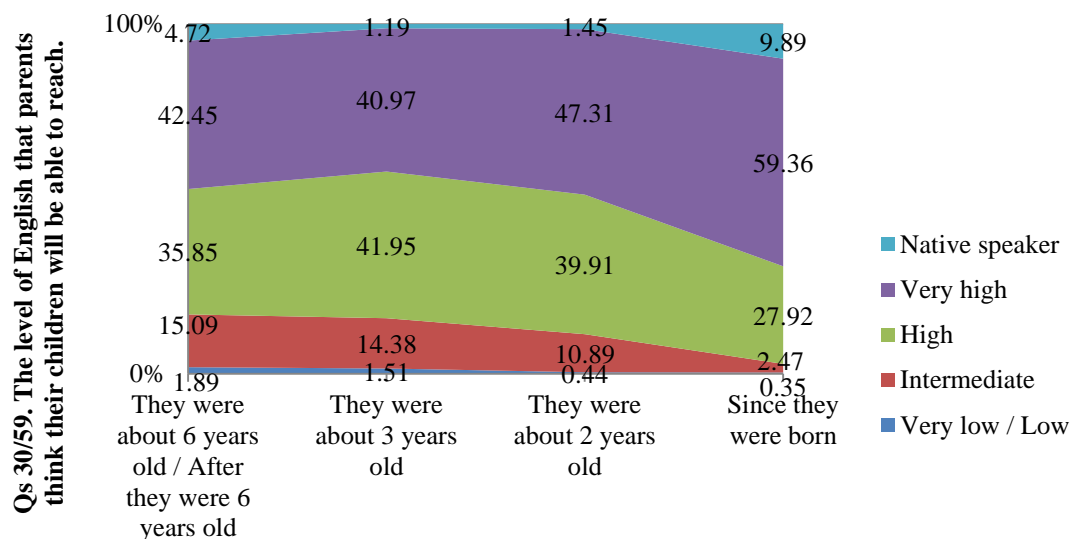
Qs 30/59. The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.

	They were about 6 years old / After they were 6 years old	They were about 3 years old	They were about 2 years old	Since they were born
Native speaker	4.72	1.19	1.45	9.89
Very high	42.45	40.97	47.31	59.36
High	35.85	41.95	39.91	27.92
Intermediate	15.09	14.38	10.89	2.47
Very low / Low	1.89	1.51	0.44	0.35

Q 64. The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc.

Figure 231. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the level of English that their children will be able to reach and the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis. Qs 30/59 and 64 (2,003 responses).

As regards how parents manage their children's demands to change the language back to Spanish when they are watching television in English (variable 72a/72b), we can observe in Figure 232 below how the relative number of parents that adopt the 'better' managerial strategies grows as the level of English that they believe their children will be able to reach, or the level of English that they would like them to reach, rises. By contrast, the relative number of parents that sometimes or always yield to their children's demands, thus adopting 'worse' managerial strategies, increases as their children's expected or hoped level of English decreases.

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.
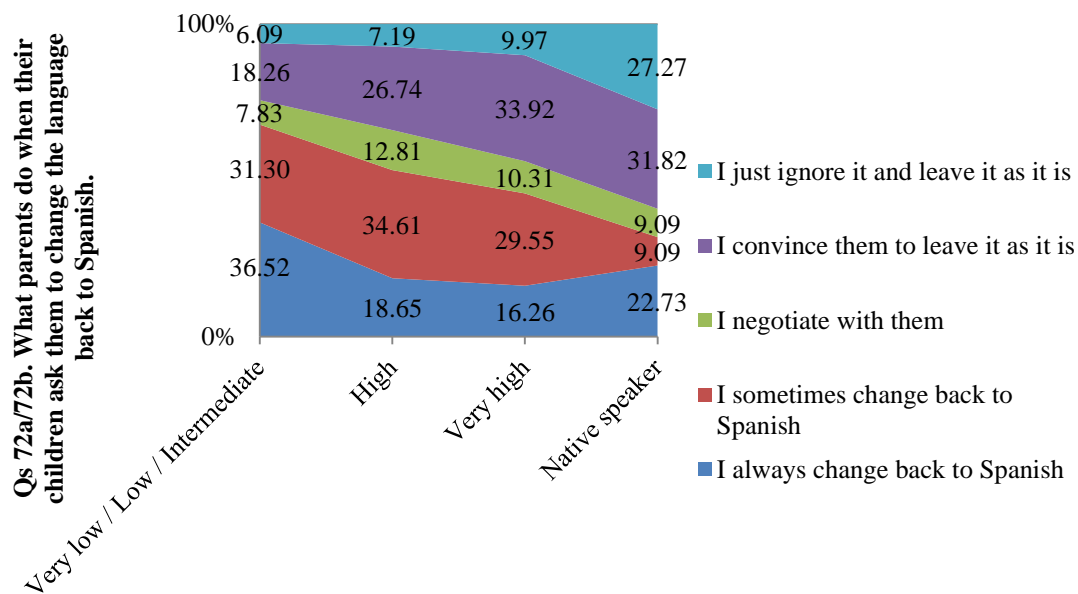
Qs 30/59. What level of English parents think that their children will reach.

Figure 232. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and parents' belief about the level of English that their children will be able to reach. Qs 72a/72b and 30/59 (1,154 responses).

Similarly, by changing the direction of the cause-effect relationship, we can see in Figure 233 below how parental beliefs/expectations are influenced by the way in which they manage their children's request to change the language of the television back to Spanish when they are watching television in English. In this respect, we can see how the relative number of parents within bands "Native speaker" and "Very high", which correspond to the higher expectations as to their children's attainment in English, rises as we move to the right of axis *x*, which means that they adopt increasingly better managerial strategies. Conversely, the relative number of parents who believe that their children will attain lower levels of proficiency in English increases as a consequence of parents adopting increasingly worse management strategies.

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Figure 233. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the level of English that their children will be able to reach and what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish. Qs 30/59 and 72a/72b (1,154 responses).

The next relevant cross-tabulation obtained in this series corresponds to variables 71a/71b, which measured the frequency with which children ask to change the language back to Spanish when they are watching television in English, and variable 30/59. As we can see in Figure 234 below, the relative number of children that demand a change of language less often grows when their parents' hopes/expectations concerning their children's future level of English rise. Contrariwise, the relative number of children that more frequently demand a change of language grows as parents' hopes/expectations become lower. This pattern of distribution of relative frequencies could be explained arguing that children behave in line with their parents' beliefs, hopes or expectations.

Qs 71a/71b. How often children ask to change back to Spanish when they are watching television in English.
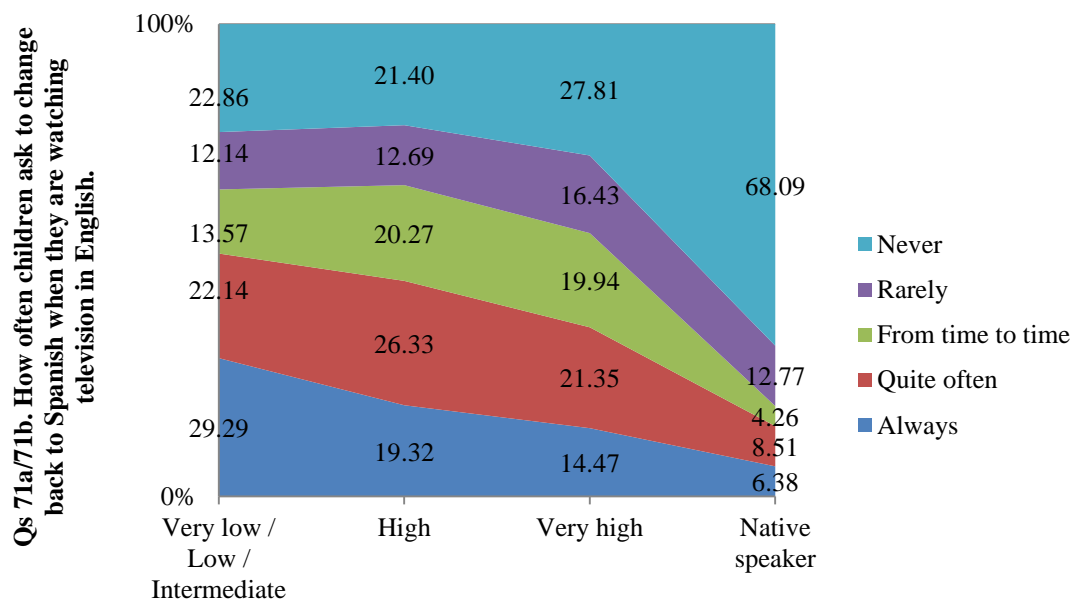
Qs 30/59. What level of English parents think that their children will reach.

Figure 234. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children ask to change the language back to Spanish when they are watching television in English and parents' belief about the level of English that their children will be able to reach. Qs 71a/71b and 30/59 (1,427 responses).

However, by swapping the direction of the relationship between these two variables, we could also claim that parents' expectations could be based on their children's pattern of behaviour in this respect. Thus, Figure 235 below lets us see how the relative number of parents who think that their children will reach a native-like or very high level of English rises when the frequency with which their children ask for a change of language decreases, whereas the relative number of parents who believe that their children will reach just a high or an intermediate, low or very low level of English grows when the frequency with which children ask for a change of language rises.

Considering on the one hand that, as we saw above, the relative number of parents that yield to their children's demands when asked to change the language back to Spanish increases as the frequency with which children make this demand increases too; and considering on the other that, when the language is changed back to Spanish, the time of exposure to English is reduced and the chances of achieving higher levels of command of English limited, it would be logical to conclude that parents' beliefs/expectations as regards their children's attainment in English are affected by the frequency with which a change of language is produced.
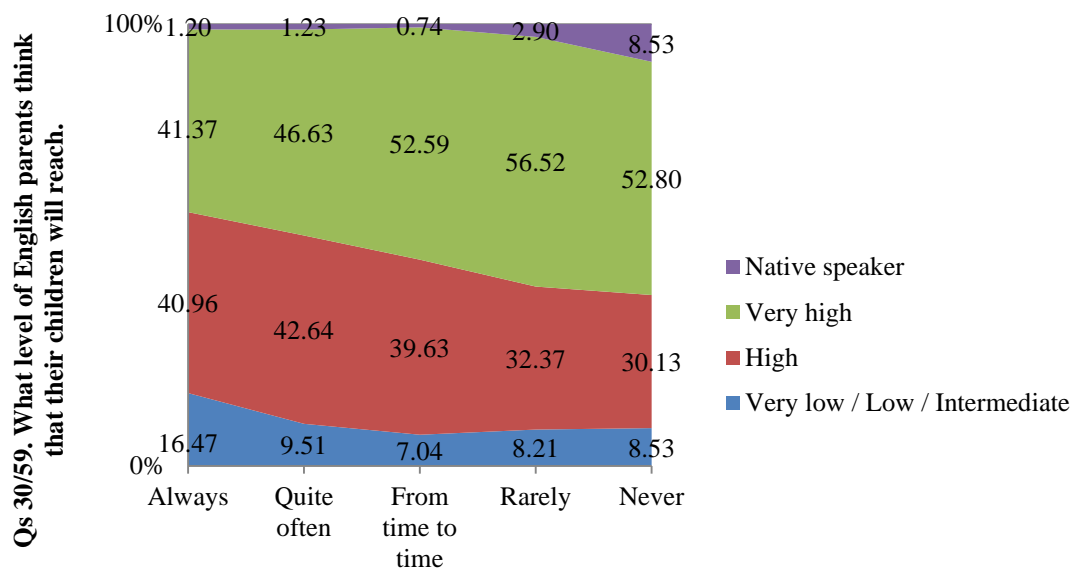
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Qs 71a/71b. How often children ask to change back to Spanish when they are watching television in English.

Figure 235. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the level of English that their children will be able to reach and the frequency with which children ask to change the language back to Spanish when they are watching television in English. Qs 30/59 and 71a/71b (1,427 responses).

Finally, we would like to briefly comment on the cross-tabulation between variables 30/59 and 69. Despite its low level of dependence, representing 37.55% of the participants in the questionnaire, its pattern of distribution of relative frequencies shows some very regular tendencies, particularly concerning bands "From birth" and "They were about four / After they were four". In this respect, we can observe in Figure 236 below how the relative number of parents that plan a very early start for their children's viewing of television in English increases as their hopes regarding their children's attainment in English become more and more ambitious. By contrast, the relative number of parents that plan a later contact with television rises as their hopes get increasingly lower.
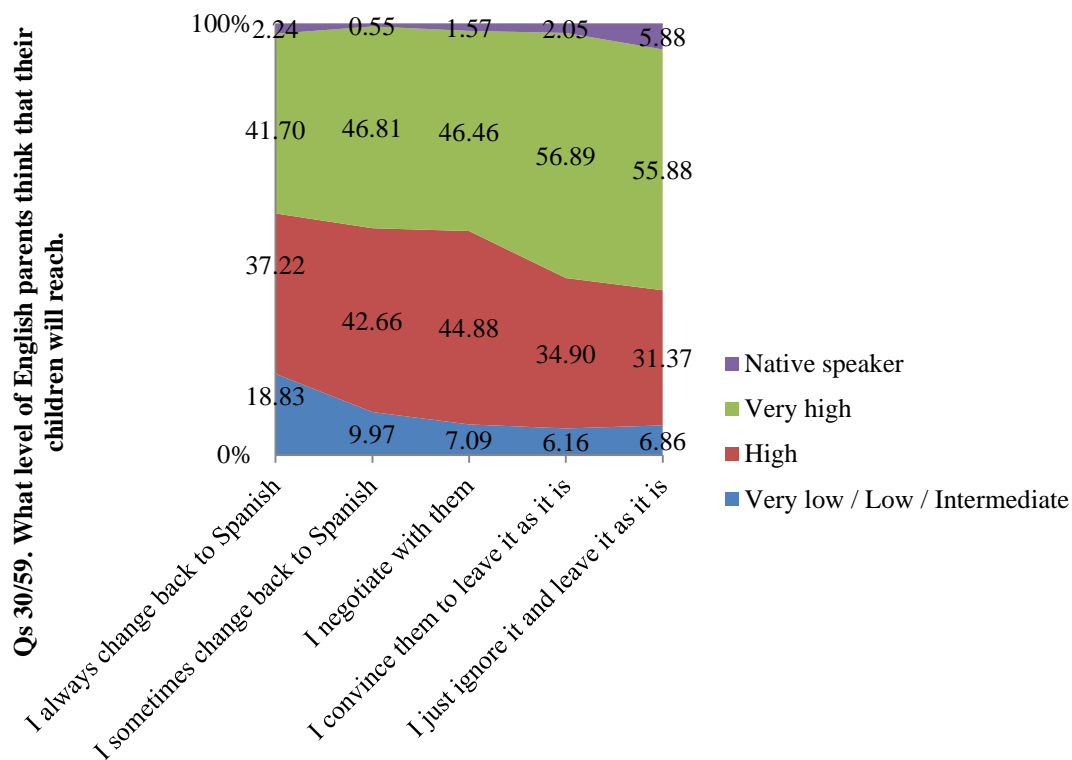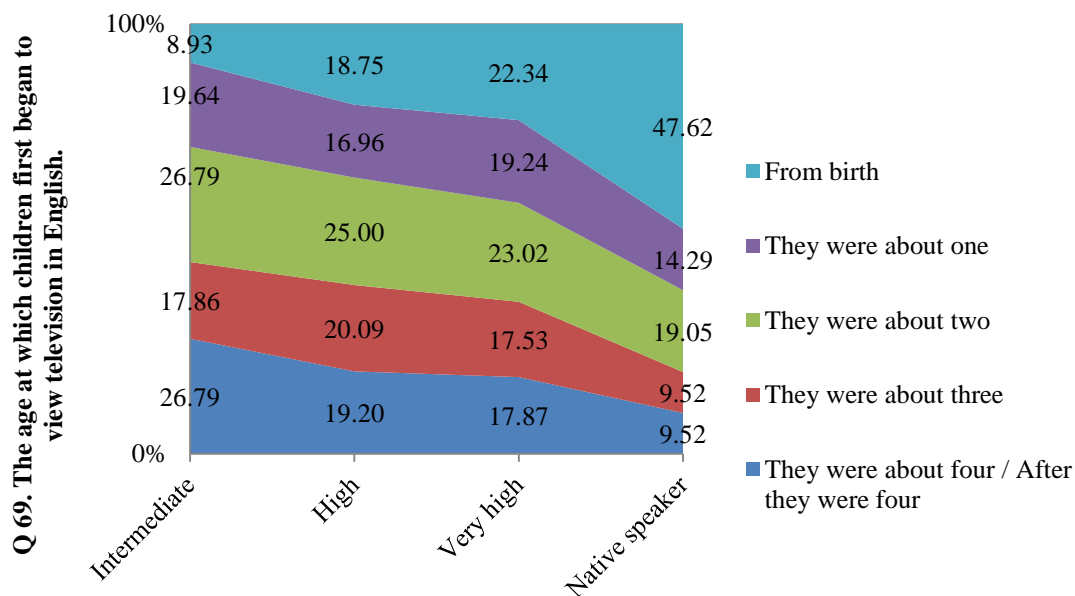
Qs 30/59. What level of English parents think that their children will reach.

Figure 236. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first began to view television in English and parents' hopes about the level of English that their children will be able to reach. Qs 69 and 30/59 (1,184 responses).

By inverting axes *x* and *y*, we obtain a pattern of distribution of relative frequencies in which we can observe how the relative number of parents who expect their children to reach the two highest levels of English slightly widen when children first began to view television in English at an earlier age. By contrast, the relative number of parents that expect their children to reach the two lowest levels of English tend to widen when their children first started to watch television in English at a later age. In other words, parents could be admitting that an earlier contact with English with television leads to higher levels of attainment (Fig. 237).
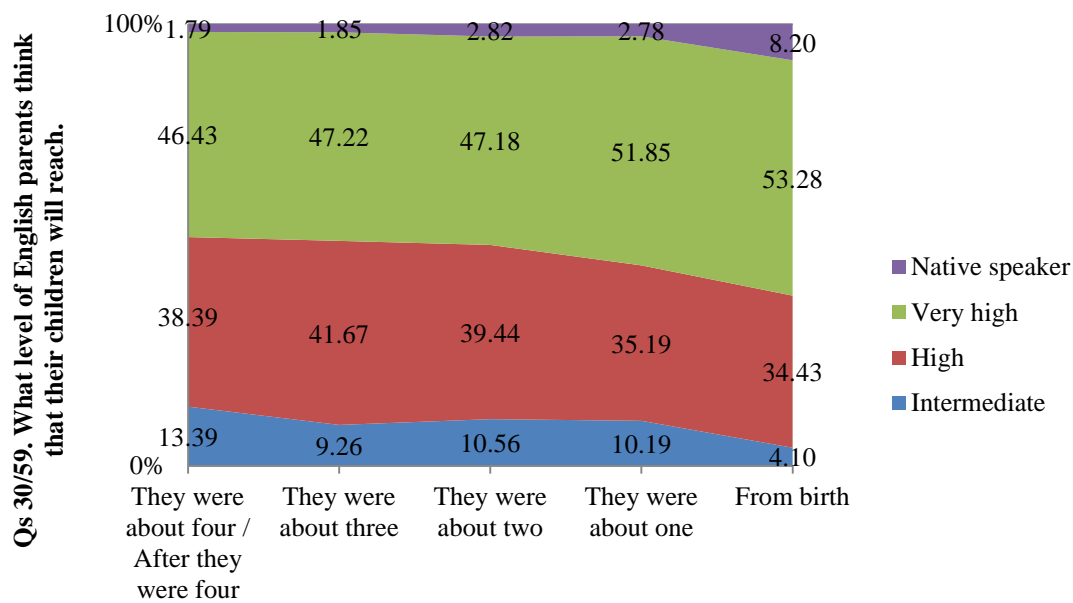
Q 69. The age at which children first began to view television in English.

Figure 237. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' hopes about the level of English that their children will be able to reach and the age at which children first began to view television in English. Qs 30/59 and 69 (1,184 responses).

The next block corresponds to the analysis of the relationships between planning and managing strategies on the one hand, and parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English on the other, which are represented by variables 23b/52b, 23e/52e, 23g/52g and 23h/52h.

A look at Table 67 below will let us see that only two cross-tabulations produced relevant values of dependence.

Table 67. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English, and planning and management strategies.

Qs 23g/52g		Qs 23h/52h		Qs 23b/52b		Qs 23e/52e	
Q 72	64.92	Q 70	67.91	Q 64	70.39	Q 64	70.61
Q 64	58.54	Q 64	58.48	Q 72	49.48	Q 72	53.42
Q 70	50.29	Q 72	46.28	Q 71	41.56	Q 69	41.06
Q 69	33.29	Q 71	11.55	Q 69	39.80	Q 70	33.88
Q 71	26.00	Q 69	-14.26	Q 70	37.10	Q 71	-33.57

The merging of the two relevant cross-tabulations produced a general pattern of distribution of average (%) frequencies that resembles many others seen before. In this respect, we can observe how the relative number of children that started to be in contact

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with English after their birth steadily increases when parents believe that English is more and more useful. However, bands "They were about 2 years old" and "They were about 3 years old" widen as parents' belief about the usefulness of English becomes more and more negative. In other words, the more useful English becomes for parents, the earlier their children start to be in contact with the language (see Figure 238 below). However, it is worth pondering on how the relative number of children within band "They were about 6 years of age" increases as parents' opinion about the usefulness of English improves, when we were expecting a decrease in the relative number.
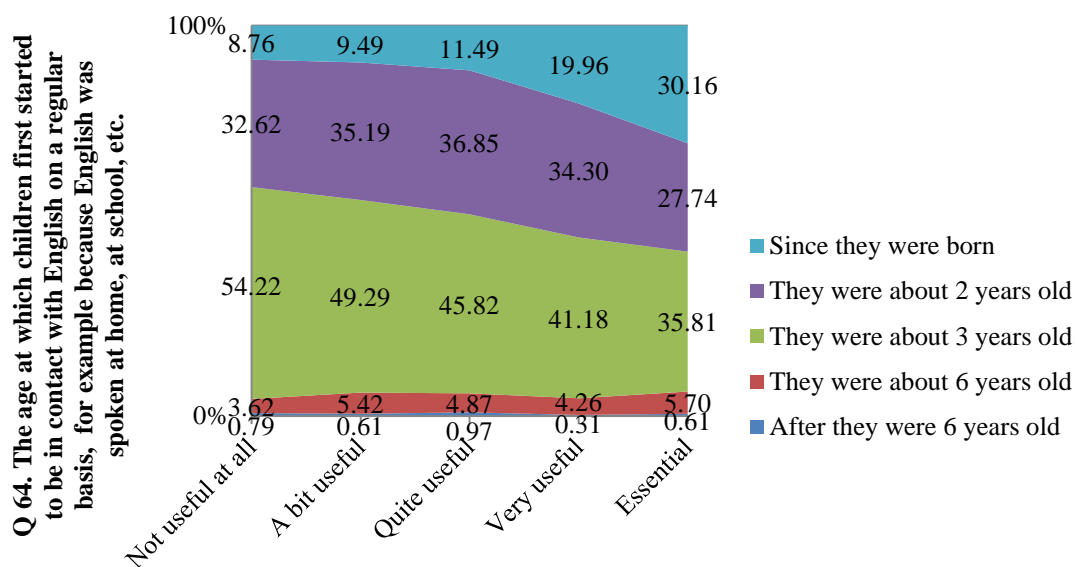
Qs 23b/52b and 23e/52e. Parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English.

Figure 238. General pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, and parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English. Qs 64 and 23b/52b – 23e/52e (2,003 responses on average).

We should also add that the other two cross-tabulations in which variable 64 was involved, despite having given dependence relationships inferior to 70%, produced very similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies.

As concerns variable 69, despite the fact that none of the four cross-tabulations analysed reached relevant dependence values affecting 70% of the participants or more, the general pattern of distribution of average relative frequencies obtained reveals that parental beliefs about the specified usefulness of English influenced the age at which children began to view television in English. Thus, as we can observe in Figure 239

below, the relative number of children that began to view television in English from birth, or when they were about one, increases as parents' beliefs become increasingly positive. By contrast, it can be observed how the relative number of children that began to watch television in English after they were about two rises as parents' beliefs become increasingly negative.
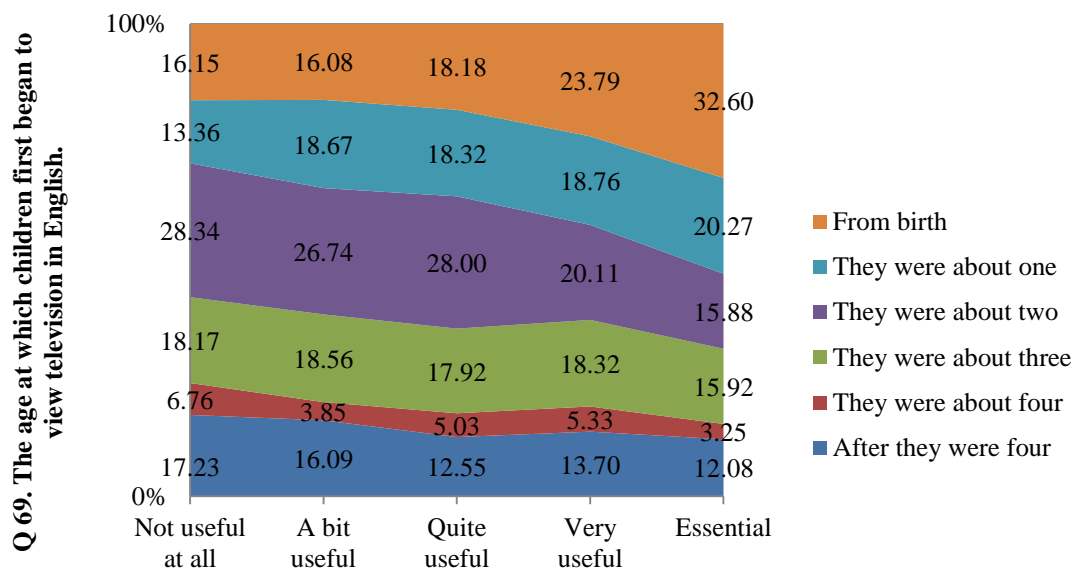
Qs 23b/52b and 23e/52e. Parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English.

Figure 239. General pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first began to view television in English, and parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English. Qs 69 and 23b/52b – 23e/52e – 23g/52g – 23h/52h (1,131 responses on average).

Concerning how variable 72a/72b, which examines what parents do when they are requested by their children to change the language back to Spanish, again despite the low degrees of dependence values obtained in the four cross-tabulations, two very regular tendencies seem to emerge, which can be observed in bands "I convince them to leave it as it is" and "I always change back to Spanish". Thus, it can be seen how band "I convince them to leave it as it is" widens as parents show increasingly positive beliefs about the usefulness of English, whereas band "I always change back to Spanish" widens as parental beliefs become increasingly negative. Put differently, more positive beliefs about the usefulness of English seem to lead to the adoption of more positive managerial strategies by parents (Fig. 240).
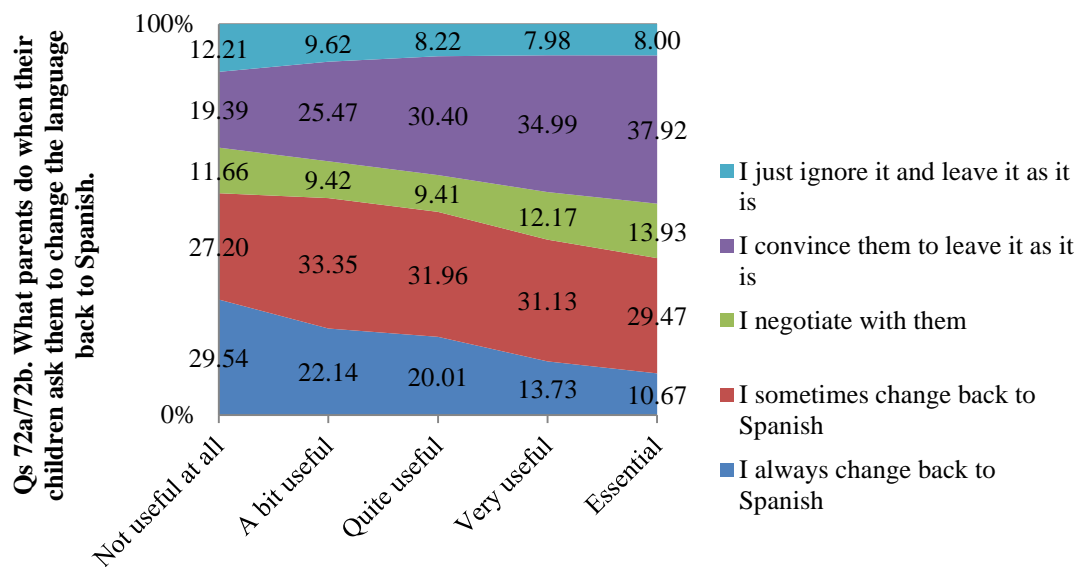
Qs 23b/52b, 23e/52e, 23g/52g and 23h/52h. Parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English

Figure 240. General pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish, and parents' beliefs about the instrumental and integrative usefulness of English. Qs 72a/72b and 23b/52b – 23e/52e – 23g/52g – 23h/52h (1,149 responses on average).

After the analysis of the dependence relationship between parental planning and management strategies on the one hand, and parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition and about the usefulness of English on the other, we come to the conclusion that the patterns of dependence relationships that have emerged do not apply, generally speaking, to the minimum number of participants required to categorise those relationships as relevant. In this respect, only six out of thirty-five possible cross-tabulations produced chi-square values affecting 70% of the participants or above. In other words, the regular tendencies that have emerged, though apparently following tendencies many times seen in our research, cannot be generalised.

Only one exception to this conclusion has been found. It refers to the dependence relationships between variable 64, which measures the age at which parents planned to expose their children to English, and the different beliefs that have been analysed. Thus, most cross-tabulations produced relevant dependence relationships and very regular tendencies (see Table 68 below).

Table 68. Dependence relationships strength rank for parental beliefs and variable 64.

64	30/59	The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.	83.89%
64	24c/53c	Parents' opinion about the importance of watching TV in English.	79.25%
64	24a/53a	Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.	72.96%
64	23e/52e	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal satisfaction.	70.61%
64	23b/52b	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal life.	70.39%
64	23h/52h	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for entertainment.	58.48%
64	23g/52g	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies.	58.54%
Average			70.59%

4.7.2.2.2 Planning and management strategies / Parental attitudes and ideology

The next block of analysis corresponds to parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages (variable 20/49), English language (variable 21/50) and Anglo-Saxon culture (variable 22/51), and ideology concerning whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles (variable 31/60).

Beginning with parental attitudes, a look at Table 69 below will let us observe that only two cross-tabulations produced relevant dependence relationships.

Table 69. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture, and planning and management strategies.

Qs 22/51		Qs 20/49		Qs 21/50	
Q 64	64.65	Q 72	70.18	Q 64	70.75
Q 70	58.44	Q 64	65.74	Q 72	57.96
Q 72	47.54	Q 70	37.55	Q 70	41.45
Q 71	30.99	Q 71	26.27	Q 71	-13.32
Q 69	18.47	Q 69	20.36	Q 69	-32.49

Despite the low strength of the dependence relationships analysed, some regular tendencies emerged. For example, regarding variable 64, which questioned parents about the age at which their children began to be in contact with English on a regular basis, we can observe in Figure 241 below how the relative number of children that began to have regular contact with English since they were born rises as parents show more and more interest towards learning foreign language, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. In a similar way, the relative number of children that started to have contact with English at the age of six or after increases when parents show less interest in the three items in question.
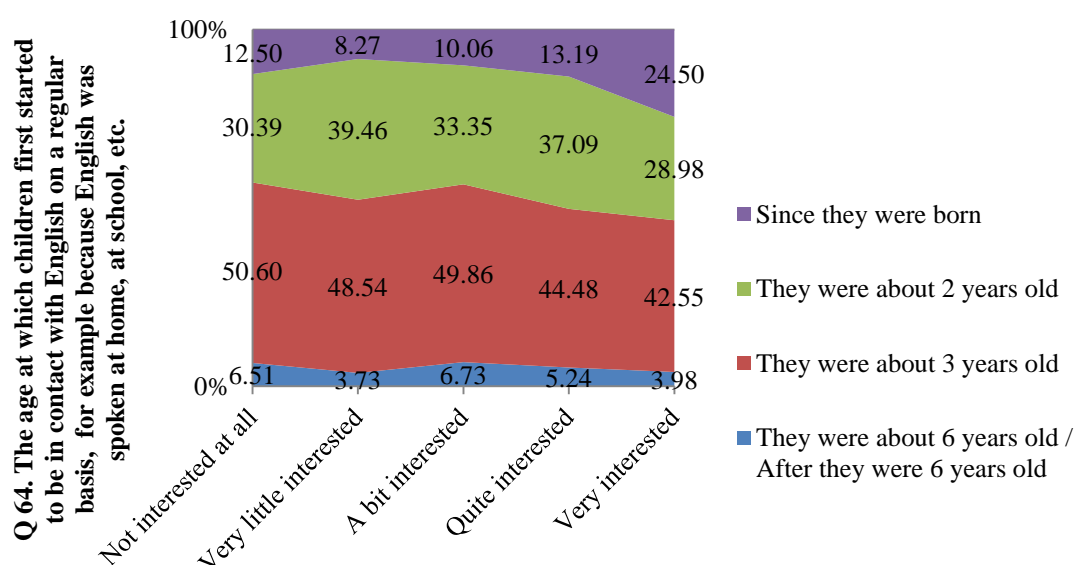
Qs 20/49, 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 241. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, and parents' interest in learning foreign language, English and Anglo-Saxon culture. Qs 64 and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (2,007 responses on average).

As regards what parents do when they are requested by their children to change the language of the television back to Spanish, we can observe two very regular tendencies in bands "I convince them to leave it as it is" and "I always change back to Spanish". In this respect, we can see how the first one gradually widens when parents show more positive attitudes, whereas the second one gradually widens when parents claim to have more negative attitudes. In other words, positive attitudes seem to lead parents to have better managerial strategies. We can observe, however, that band "I sometimes change back to Spanish", supposedly not an ideal managerial style, widens when parents have

more positive attitudes. Such tendency might be attributed to lack of impact belief (Nakamura, 2019) (see Figure 242 below).
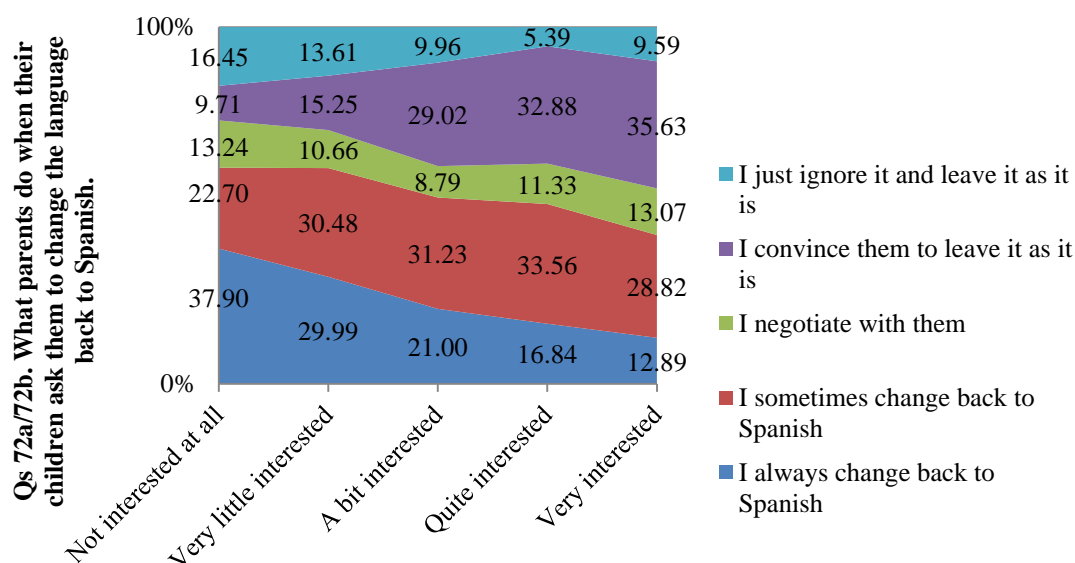
Qs 20/49, 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 242. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish, and parents' interest in learning foreign language, English and Anglo-Saxon culture. Qs 72a/72b and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (1,154 responses on average).

Finally in this series, we can see again some regular tendencies when we consider whether parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch television. Thus, Figure 243 below reveals that the relative number of parents that ask their children's opinion more often rises when they have more positive attitudes. By contrast, the relative number of parents who never ask their children rises when they have more negative attitudes.
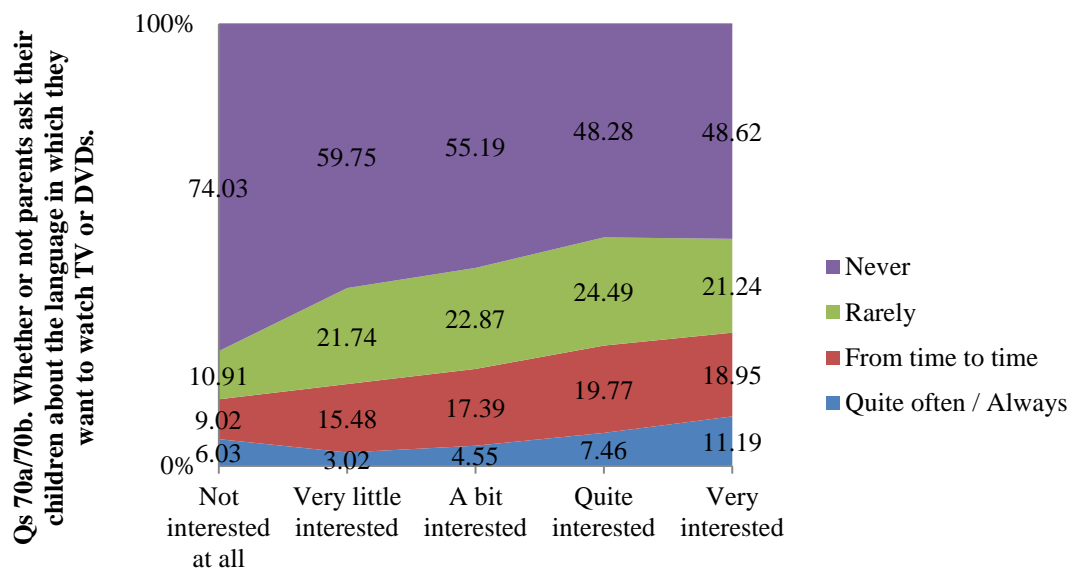
Qs 70a/70b. Whether or not parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV or DVDs.

Qs 20/49, 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 243. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether or not parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV or DVDs, and parents' interest in learning foreign language, English and Anglo-Saxon culture. Qs 72a/72b and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (1,504 responses on average).

Before we conclude this section of analysis, we would like to highlight the fact that, after cross-tabulating the planning and management variables with variable 31/60 (which measured parents' ideology concerning whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles), only one relevant dependence relationship was obtained (see Table 70 below.

Table 70. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' ideology, and planning and management strategies.

Qs 31/60	
Q 72	73.00
Q 70	62.03
Q 64	48.51
Q 69	12.26
Q 71	-35.12

The pattern of distribution of relative frequencies (see Fig. 244 below) reveals that the relative number of parents that adopt the best managerial strategies rises when they agree with subtitling, whereas the worst managerial strategies increase when parents do not. Band "I sometimes change back to Spanish", however, comes as an exception because, being a relatively bad managerial style, it contradicts the general tendency. Once more, such "irregularity" might be attributed to lack of impact belief (Nakamura, 2019).
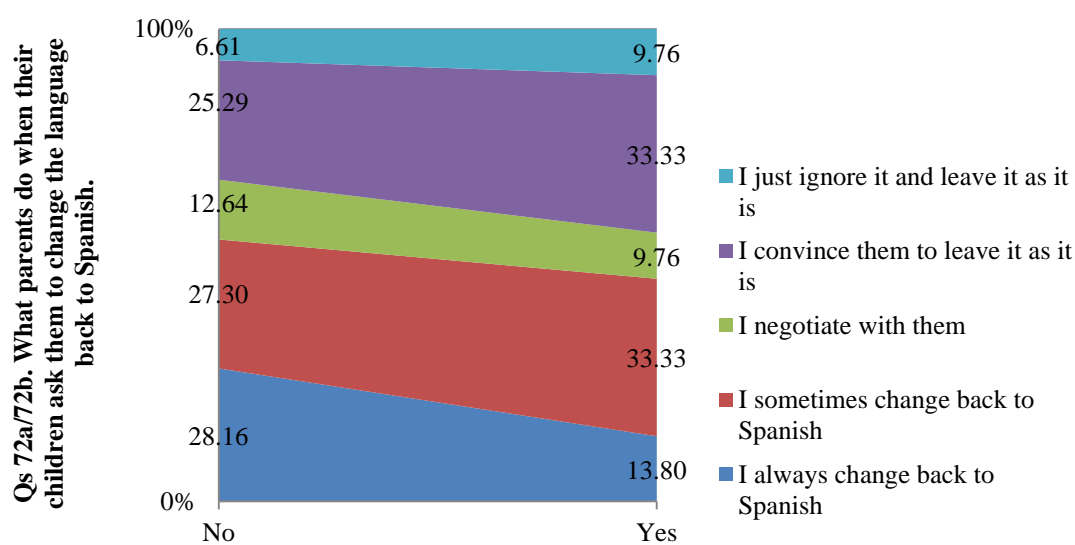
Qs 31/60. Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.

Figure 244. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish, and whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Qs 72a/72b and 31/60 (942 responses).

The next two cross-tabulations did not reach relevant values as regards the strength of their dependence relationships. However, we thought it would be worth briefly looking at them as they produced regular tendencies as well. Both cross-tabulations (see figures 245 and 246 below) show that the relative number of homes in which children began to have contact with English or to watch television in English before the age of two rises when parents agree with subtitling. On the contrary, at the age of two or after, these same relative numbers rise when parents do not agree with subtitling.
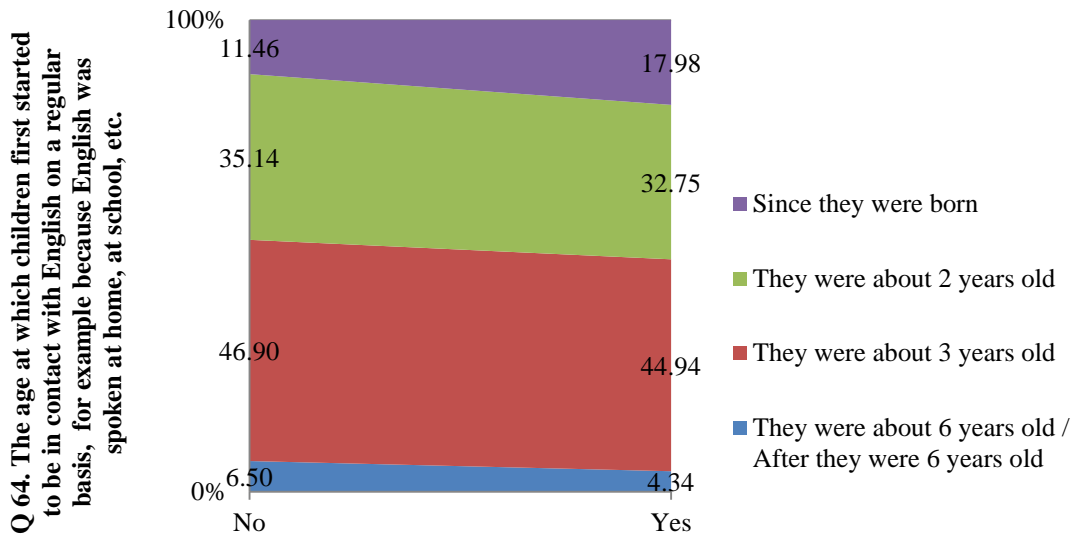
Figure 245. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Qs 64 and 31/60 (1,614 responses).

Figure 246. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Qs 64 and 31/60 (1,614 responses).

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By way of summary, we might conclude arguing that, although the fact that parents' agreement or disagreement with obligatory subtitling does not seem to affect a significant number of parents when it comes to influencing the way in which they plan and manage linguistic practices in their family, certain constant tendencies seem to underlie them all. In this way, we have been able to observe how the relative number of parents that adopt the best managerial strategies tend to increase when they agree with subtitling.

Finally, this same conclusion applies to this section devoted to the analysis of the dependence relationships between planning and managerial strategies on the one hand, and parental beliefs, attitudes and ideologies. In other words, although most of the cross-tabulations analysed revealed weak dependence relationships, the same pattern of distribution of relative frequencies underlies them all.

4.7.2.2.3 Planning and management strategies / Intra-family factors

One more section needs to be looked at before we bring this block of analysis to an end. We are referring to the section in which we will be dealing with planning and management strategies on the one hand, and intra-family and external factors on the other. Let's commence with intra-family factors. If we observe Table 71 below, we will be able to see that only four cross-tabulations produced relevant dependence relationships, three of them relating to the age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis.

Table 71. Dependence relationships strengths between intra-family factors, and planning and management strategies.

Qs 14/43		Qs 15/44		Qs 9/38		Qs 13/42		Qs 10/39	
Q 64	88.58	Q 64	85.45	Q 64	78.71	Q 72	38.36	Q 64	49.33
Q 72	60.62	Q 72	71.46	Q 71	56.80	Q 64	25.10	Q 71	35.49
Q 69	58.26	Q 71	59.81	Q 72	38.52	Q 71	24.27	Q 70	24.39
Q 71	37.08	Q 69	57.96	Q 69	23.31	Q 70	18.65	Q 72	15.54
Q 70	11.57	Q 70	35.33	Q 70	-118.68	Q 69	-27.99	Q 69	-0.86

As we can observe in Figure 247 below, the general pattern of distribution of average relative frequencies obtained from cross-tabulating variables 64 on the one hand, and 14/43 and 15/44 on the other, clearly shows that parents' level of English affects the age

at which children started to have regular contact with English. In this respect, we can see how the relative number of children that started to be in contact with English since they were born rises as parents' level of English rises too. By contrast, the relative number of children that began to be in contact with English later than this age grows when parents' level of English gets lower and lower.
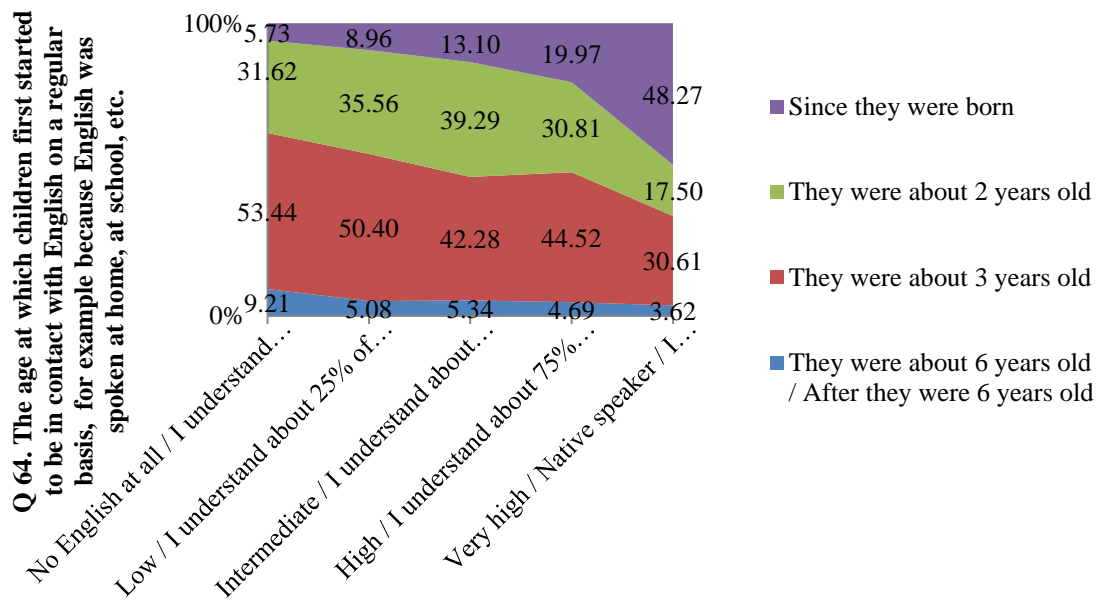
Qs 14/43 and 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 247. General pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' level of English. Qs 64 and 14/45 – 15/44 (2,031 responses on average).

This planning and management practice to which we are referring also seems to be influenced by parents' jobs. As we just saw before, we can observe in Figure 248 below how the relative number of children who started to be in contact with English since they were born grows as parents' jobs get increasingly 'better'. By contrast, the relative number of children that started to be in contact with English at two years of age or later rises as parents' jobs get increasingly 'worse'.

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Q 64. The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc.

Qs 9/38. Parents' job.
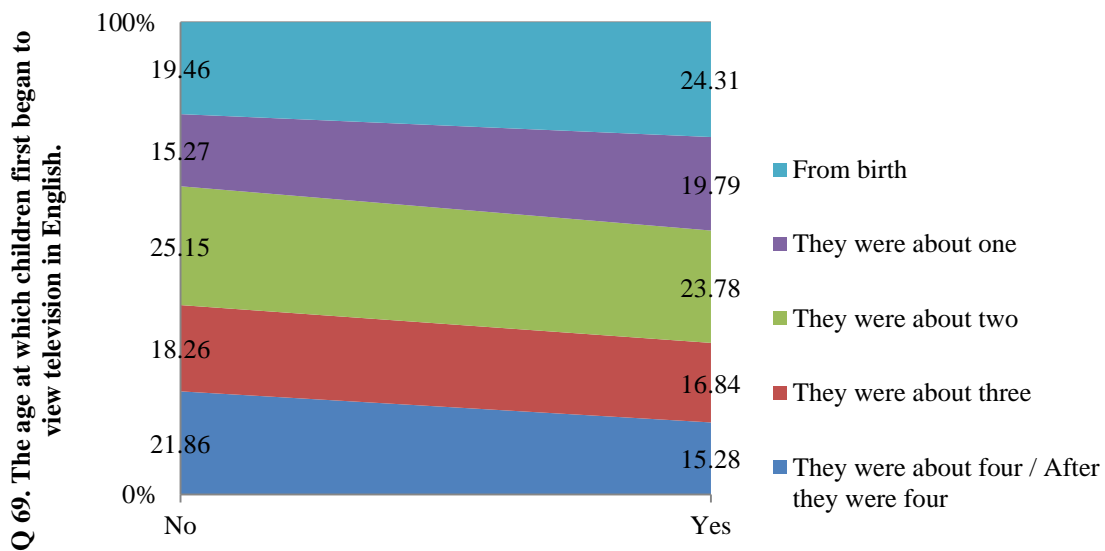
Figure 248. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' job. Qs 64 and 9/38 (1,693 responses).

As regards variable 72a/72b, a look at Figure 249 below will let us observe how the relative number of parents that always accept their children's request to change the language of the television back to Spanish is reduced as parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled television or DVDs in English rises. Likewise, the relative number of parents who adopt the 'better' planning and management strategies, in this case, those who convince their children not to change the language back to Spanish or those who just ignore the request, grows as their level of comprehension rises too.

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Qs 15/44. Parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVDs in English.

Figure 249. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVD in English. Qs 72a/72b and 15/44 (1,160 responses).

Before we finish this section, we would like to draw the attention to four more cross-tabulations which, despite not having reached relevant levels of dependence, have produced regular patterns of distribution of relative frequencies. The first of these four cross-tabulations relates to variables 72a/72b and 14/43, which measured parents' general level of English. A look at Figure 250 below will let us see similar tendencies to the ones observed in Figure 249 above.
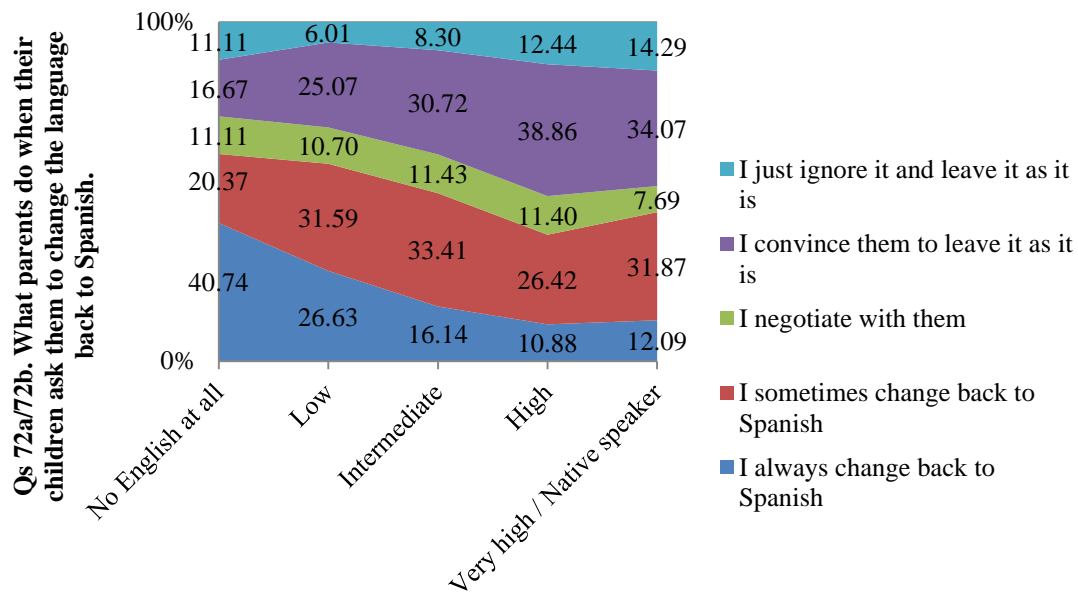
Qs 14/43. Parents' level of English.

Figure 250. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and parents' level of English. Qs 72a/72b and 14/43 (1,167 responses).

Similarly, the patterns of distribution of relative frequencies obtained from cross-tabulating variables 72a/72b and 9/38, which measured parents' job, also shows regular tendencies which, once again, reveal that the best managerial strategies tend to co-occur more frequently with the best jobs, whereas the worst managerial strategies tend to co-occur more often with the worst jobs (see Figure 251 below).
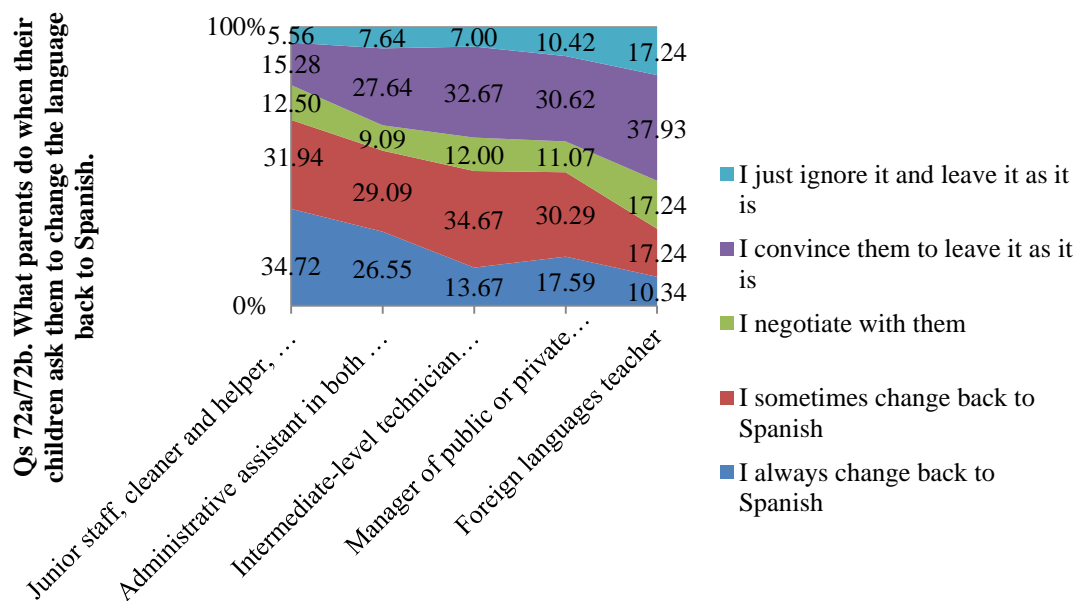
Figure 251. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and parents' job. Qs 72a/72b and 9/38 (983 responses).

Finally, and even though the value of the dependence relationship does not reach 70% of the participants either, we also found regular patterns of distribution of relative frequencies in the way in which the age at which children began to view television in English is influenced by their parents' level of English. In this way, it can be observed in Figure 252 below how the relative frequency of children that started to view television in English when they were about one year of age or before rises as parents report to have higher levels of English. Contrarily, the relative number of children that started to watch television in English after the age of one grows when parents' level of English decreases.
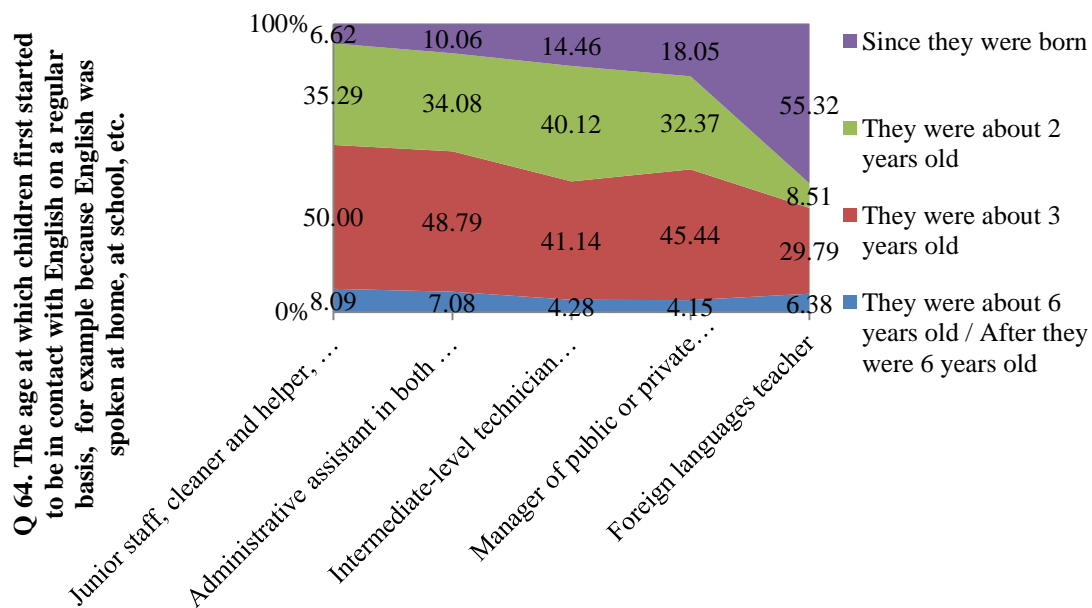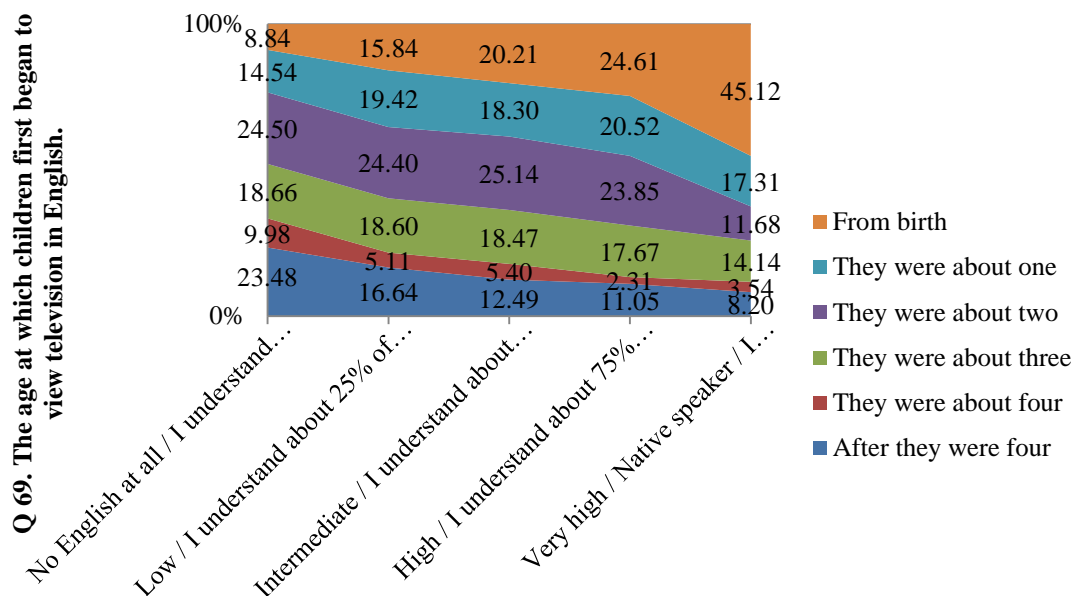
Qs 14/43 and 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 252. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children began to view television in English and parents' level of English. Qs 69 and 14/43 – 15/44 (1,148 responses on average).

The conclusions that could be drawn from the analysis of the dependence relationships between planning and managerial strategies on the one hand, and intra-family factors on the other do not differ to a great extent from the conclusions that we reached when looking at parental beliefs, attitudes and ideologies. In this respect, we could argue that, generally speaking, the intra-family factors under consideration do not seem to exert a very strong influence on the way in which parents manage the linguistic issue in question. However, we must not underestimate the fact that some of the correlations with weaker dependence relationships also produced regular patterns of distribution of relative frequencies which seem to align with other findings in our research, namely, that the best planning and managerial strategies seem to co-occur with best values of the Likert scale represented on axis *x*.

4.7.2.2.4 Planning and management strategies / External factors

This block of analysis of how planning and management strategies are affected by the other elements that make up family language policy comes to an end with the discussion of the role played by external factors. In this respect, we can observe in Table 72 below the number of relevant dependence relationships that have emerged after applying the corresponding chi-square tests.

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Table 72. Dependence relationships strengths between external factors, and planning and management strategies.

Qs 80a/80b		Q 78g	
Q 70	80.61	Q 72	75.05
Q 72	78.38	Q 64	72.87
Q 71	70.91	Q 71	60.29
Q 69	63.42	Q 70	58.84
Q 64	57.75	Q 69	46.21

Concerning variable 80a/80b, through which we measured whether parents normally share their experiences as regards their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English, some interesting correlations have emerged. For example, it is worth highlighting the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies that arose from cross-tabulating variables 71a/71b and 80a/80b on the one hand, and variables 72a/72b and 80a/80b on the other. As regards variable 71a/71b, Figure 253 below tells us that the relative number of children who never, rarely or from time to time ask their parents to swap English for Spanish tends to increase when parents share their linguistic experiences with other families. However, the relative number of children that quite often and always ask for a language change rises when parents do not share the linguistic practice with other families.
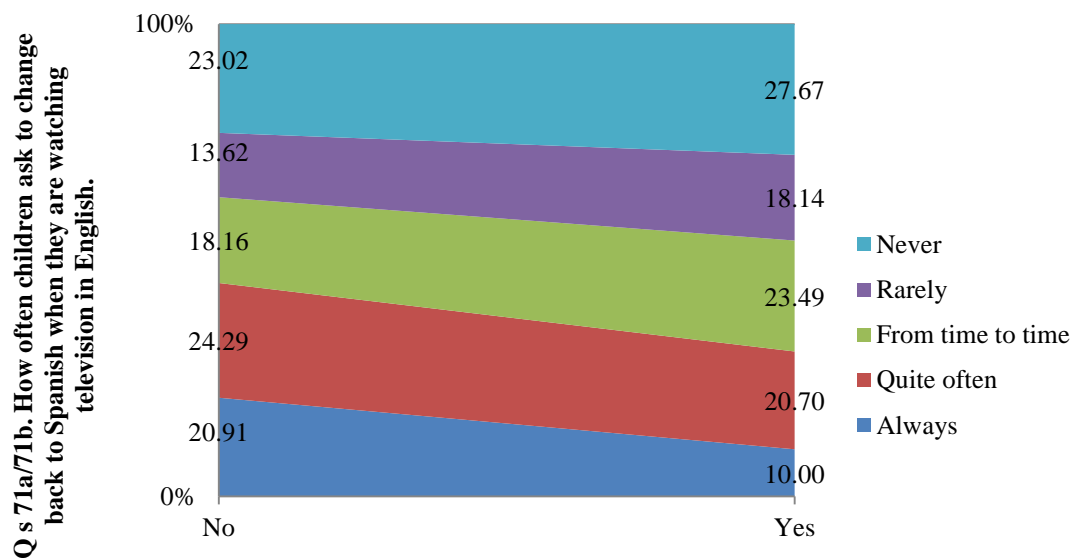
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.
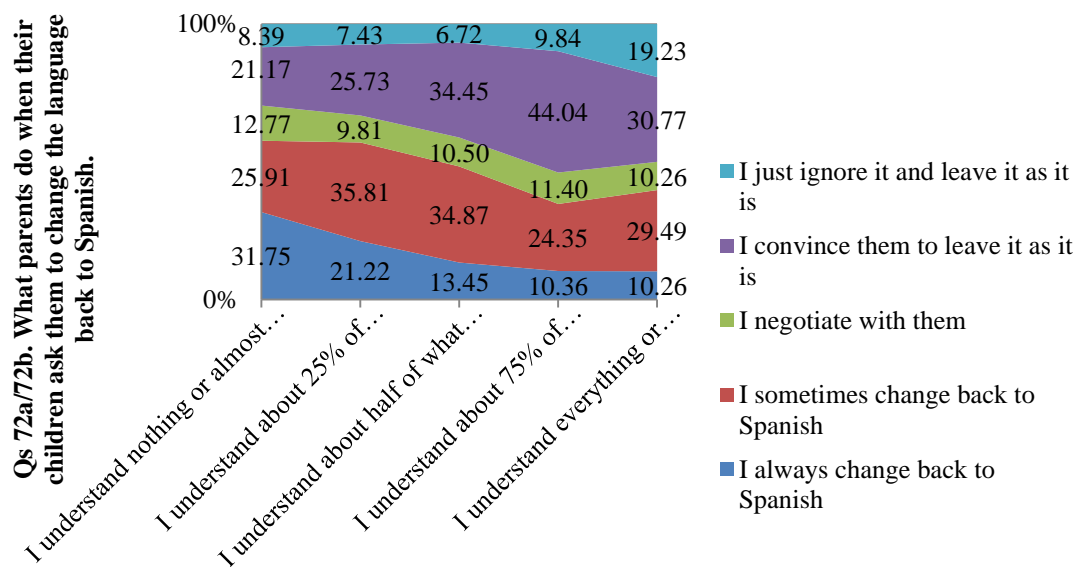
Figure 253. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the frequency with which children ask to swap English for Spanish when they are watching television in English and whether parents share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watch television in English. Qs 71a/71b and 80a/80b (1,377 responses).

On the other hand, a look at Figure 254 below will let us see how the relative number of parents who adopt the 'most positive' responses to children's request to swap English for Spanish when watching television in English grows when they share their experience with other families. By contrast, the relative number of parents that sometimes or always accept children's request to swap English for Spanish, thus adopting the 'most negative' management strategies, rises when they do not share their experiences with other families.
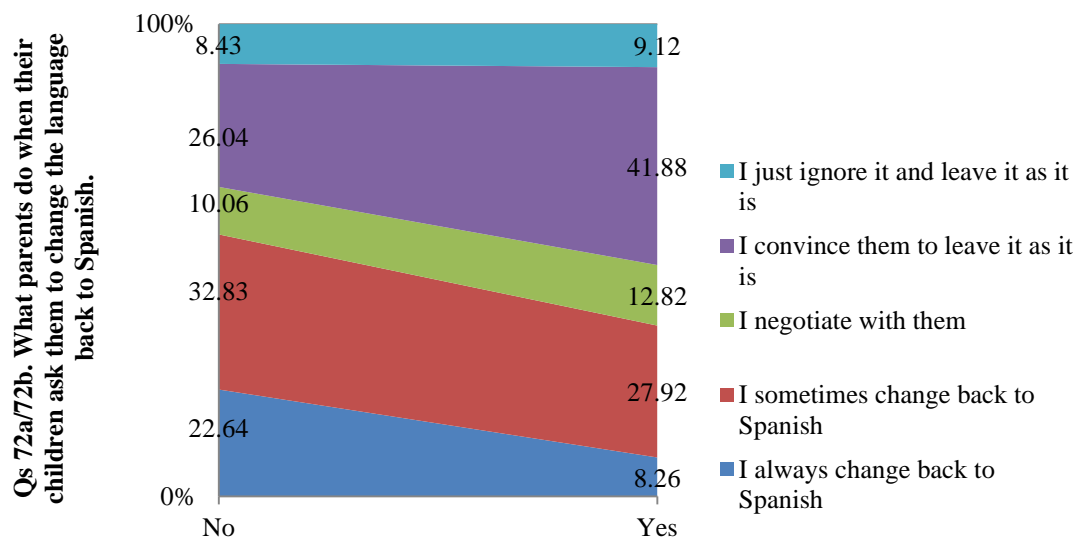
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 254. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish, and whether parents share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watch television in English. Qs 72a/72b and 80a/80b (1,146 responses).

The conclusion that could be drawn is that, as Sheldon (2002) predicted (see Literature Review above), contact with other families with similar linguistic practices might be helping shape parents' managerial strategies. This conclusion is supported by the fact that, as we can observe in Figure 255 below, the relative number of parents who sometimes or always accept their children's request to change the language back to Spanish decreases when sharing their experiences with other families helps them manage FLP in their own family.
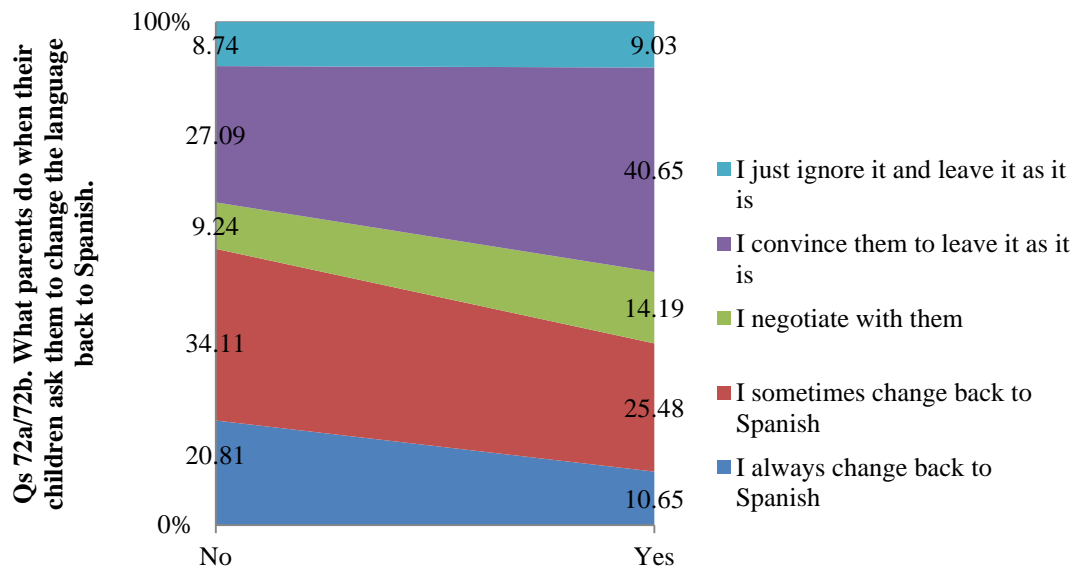
Figure 255. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish, and whether it helps parents when they talk about FLP with other parents in the same situation. Qs 72a/72b and 81a/81b (1,122 responses).

However, if we swapped axes *x* and *y* to invert the cause-effect relationship between these variables, we would obtain different patterns of distribution that would also contribute to the understanding of the forces underlying family language policy. Thus, for the cross-tabulation of variables 71a/71b and 80a/80b, we would obtain the pattern appearing in Figure 256 below, which could be interpreted in the following terms. The relative number of parents that share the experience concerning their children viewing television in English tends to grow the more positive managerial strategies become. However, the relative number of parents who do not share their experiences tends to rise when managerial strategies become more and more negative.
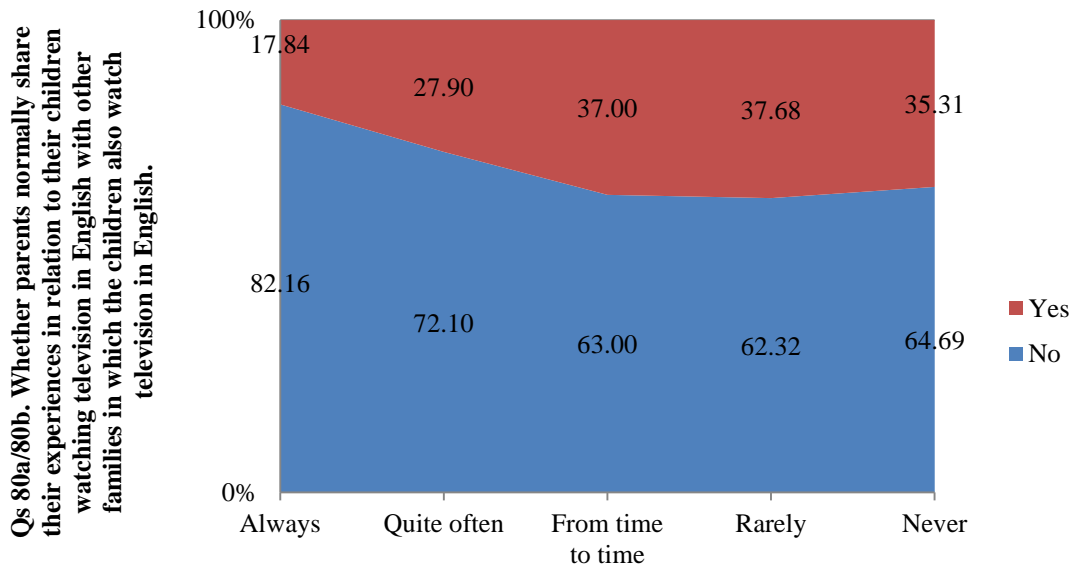
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Q s 71a/71b. How often children ask to change back to Spanish when they are watching television in English.

Figure 256. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watch television in English, and the frequency with which children ask to swap English for Spanish when they are watching television in English. 80a/80b and 71a/71b (1,377 responses).

In the same way, the relative number of parents who share their experiences rises as we move towards the best management practices, which appear on axis *x* and which, in this case, consists of convincing the children not to change the language (see Figure 257 below).

Qs 72a/72b. What parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish.

Figure 257. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watch television in English, and what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish. Qs 80a/80b and 72a/72b (1,146 responses).

The problem that comes up when trying to interpret the pattern in Figure 257 above is understanding why the relative number of parents that do not to share their experiences with other parents rises when the managerial strategies applied in their homes worsen. In other words, is it too much to assume that worse managerial strategies may have an influence on whether or not parents discuss foreign language-related linguistic practices with other parents in a similar situation? Is there, perhaps, a sense of shame or guilt in not being strong enough to withstand children's demands and always yield to their requests that prevents parents from discussing this issue with other parents? (For a study of the emotions that trigger topic avoidance in a conversation, see for example Slepian *et al.*, 2020; Sun and Slepian, 2020).

Finally in this series, when we cross-tabulated variables 70a/70b and 80a/80b, we obtained a value for the chi-square test (80.61%) that reveals that there exists a strong dependence relationship between the two variables. As we can observe in Figure 258 below, the relative number of parents that never ask their children in what language they want to watch television increases when they do not share their experience with other parents. And similarly, the relative number of parents who quite often and always ask their children about their choice of language grows when they share their experience

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with other parents. Once again, we observe consistency in the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies of variable 70a/70b.
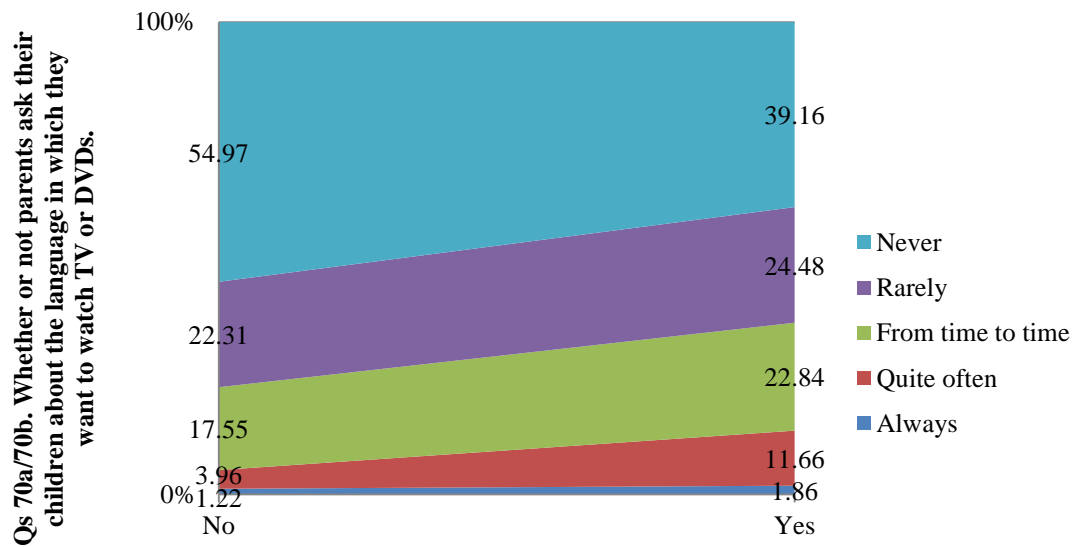

Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 258. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents ask their children about the language in which they want to watch TV or DVDs, and whether parents share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watch television in English. Qs 70a/70b and 80a/80b (1,415 responses).

We would also like to briefly focus on two cross-tabulations which, despite having relatively lower dependence relationships, have produced regular tendencies. In this respect, a look at figures 259 and 260 below will let us observe how the bands that represent the earlier ages at which children first began to have regular contact with English, either through television or because English was spoken at home or at school, widen when parents share their experiences with other parents.
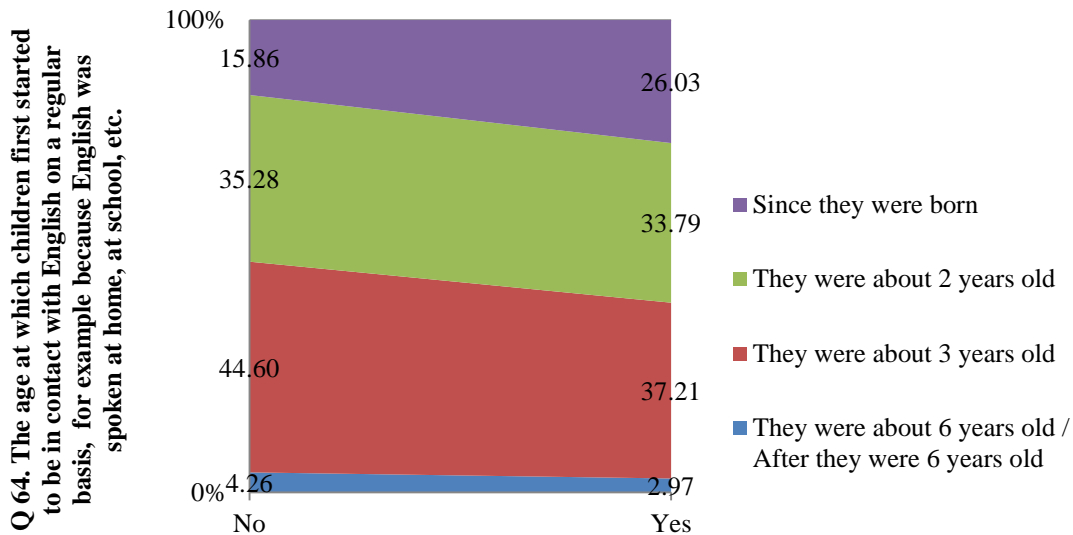
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 259. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc, and whether parents share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watch television in English. Qs 64 and 80a/80b (1,417 responses).

Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 260. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first started to view television in English and whether parents share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watch television in English. Qs 69 and 80a/80b (1,124 responses).

Therefore, we can conclude once more that Sheldon's (2002) predictions (see Literature Review above), also hold true for variables 64 and 69. This conclusion is again supported by the fact that, as we can observe in figures 261 and 262 below, the relative number of children that began to be in contact with English before the age of two, either through television or because English was spoken at home or at school, rises when sharing their experiences with other families helps them manage FLP in their own family.

Figure 261. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc, and whether it helps parents when they talk about FLP with other families in the same situation. Qs 64 and 81a/81b (1,417 responses).
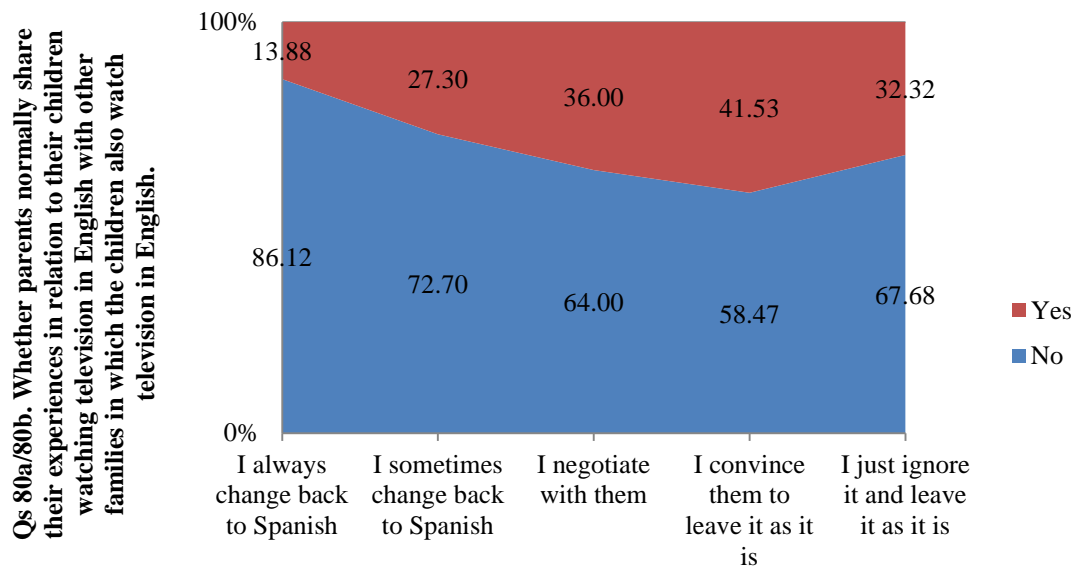

Figure 262. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first started to view television in English and whether it helps parents when they talk about FLP with other families in the same situation. Qs 69 and 81a/81b (1,111 responses).

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Concerning variable 78g, which measured how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of other people's opinion, only two cross-tabulations produced relevant relationships, more particularly those generated with variables 72a/72b and 64.

As regards variable 72a/72b, we can observe in Figure 263 below how the three bands representing the 'best' managerial practices widen as we move to the right of axis *x*, where the 'best' values of the Likert scale are. However, the largest relative number of co-occurrences within the two 'worst' managerial practices emerges on the left of axis *x*, where the 'worst' values of the Likert scale are. In other words, parents tend to yield to children's demands when they lack firm convictions about the linguistic practice in question. On the contrary, strong beliefs on this issue seem to help parents adopt 'better' managerial strategies.
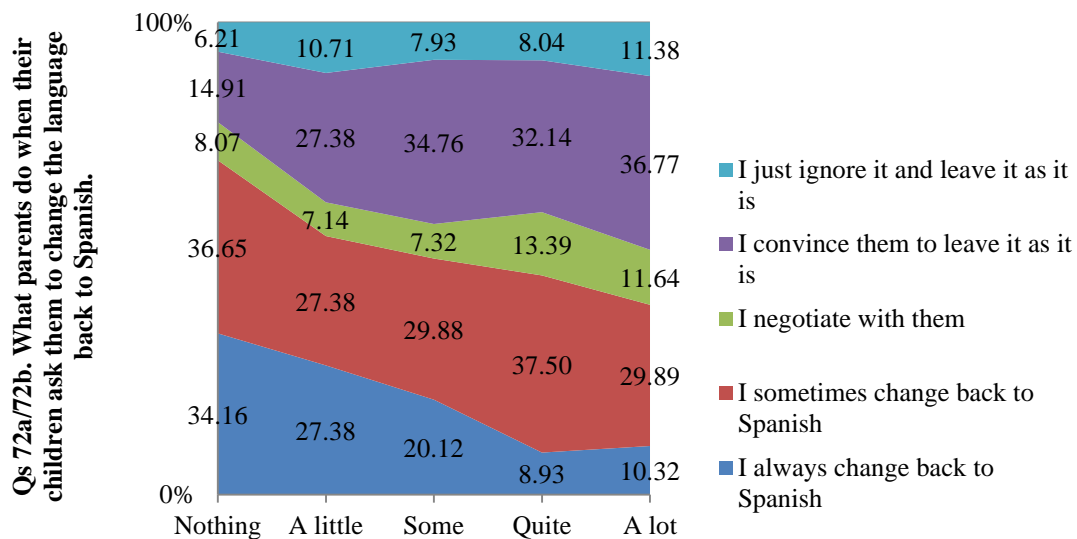
Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

Figure 263. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between what parents do when their children ask them to change the language back to Spanish and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch English or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement. Qs 72a/72b and 78g (1,236 responses).

Something similar occurs when variables 64 and 78g are cross-tabulated. In this way, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained (see Figure 264 below) indicates that the relative number of children whose regular contact with English started at birth increases as parents' claim to have more and more clear convictions about the

linguistic practice under consideration. Contrariwise, the relative number of children that started to be in contact with English at the age of two or later tends to rise as parents' convictions become weaker and weaker.
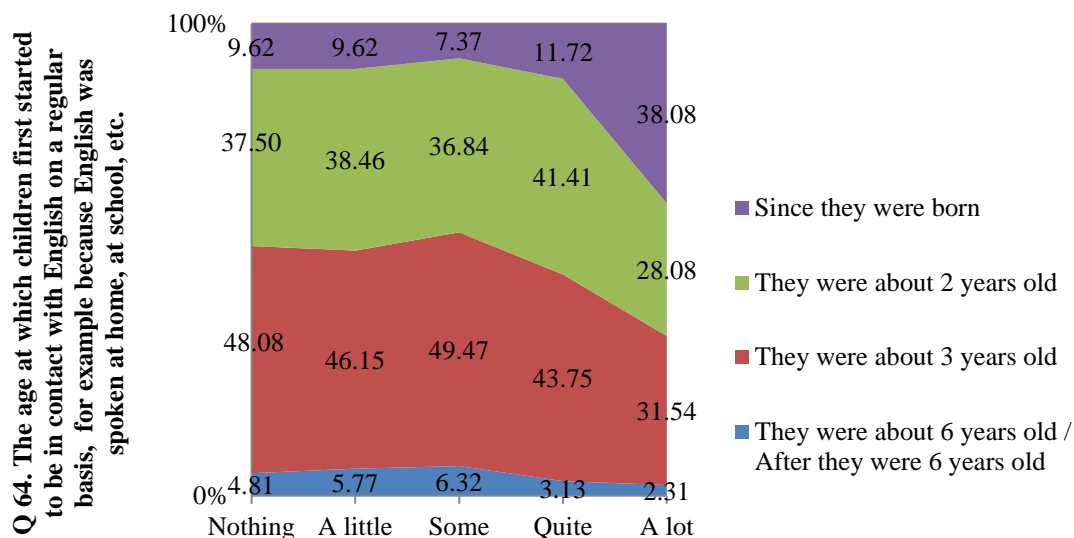
Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.
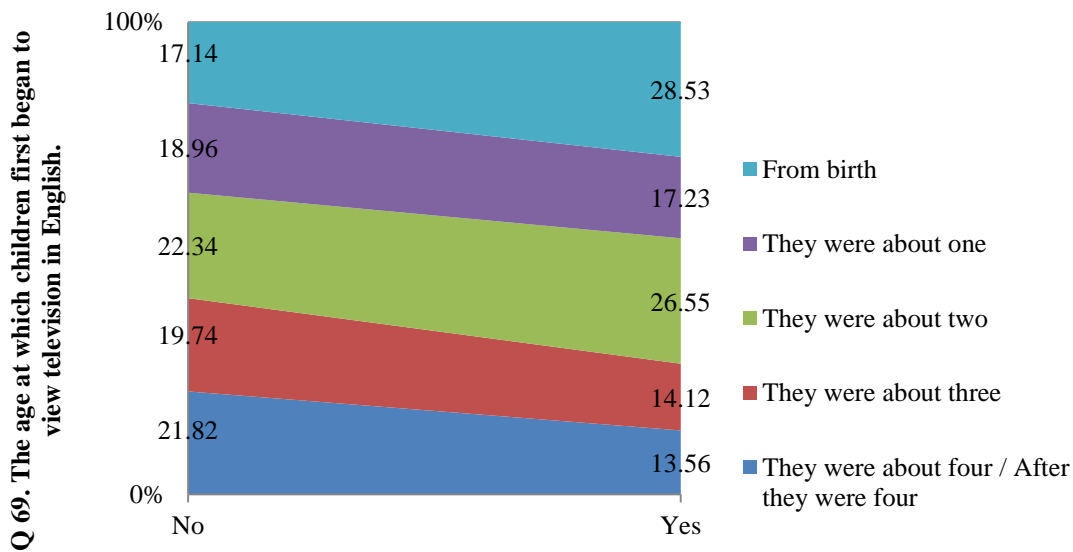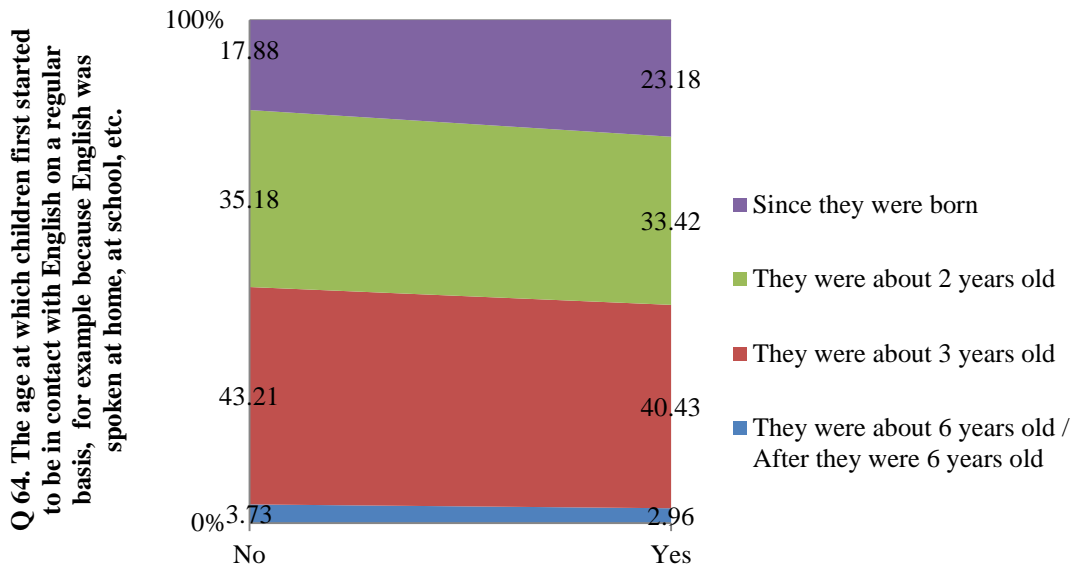
Figure 264. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch English or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement. Qs 64 and 78g (639 responses).

Additionally, we also looked at the role played by some parental beliefs (25/54 and 26/55) that had not produced relevant dependence relationships with variable 66b. In this respect, we found that the age at which children actually started to be in contact with English bears a close relationship to parents' belief about the best age to start learning a foreign language. In this respect, we can observe in Figure 265 below how the relative number of children that started to have contact with English at the age of two or before significantly grew as the age considered by parents to be the best to start learning a foreign language is reduced. In a similar fashion, the relative number of children that began to have contact with English at the age of six or later clearly rose when the age considered by parents to be the best to start learning a foreign language rose. In other words, we can see a high level of coherence between parents' beliefs and the way in which the age at which children began to have contact with English was planned by their parents.

Q 64. The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis, for example because English was spoken at home, at school, etc.

Legend:
- Since they were born
- They were about 2 years old
- They were about 3 years old
- They were about 6 years old / After they were 6 years old

Data values by category:

	After the age of 12	Before 12 years of age	Before 3 years of age
Since they were born	9.09	11.12	16.05
They were about 2 years old	9.09	30.50	38.01
They were about 3 years old	54.55	52.75	42.07
They were about 6 years old / After they were 6 years old	27.27	5.62	3.87

Qs 25/54. Parents' belief about the best age to start learning a foreign language.
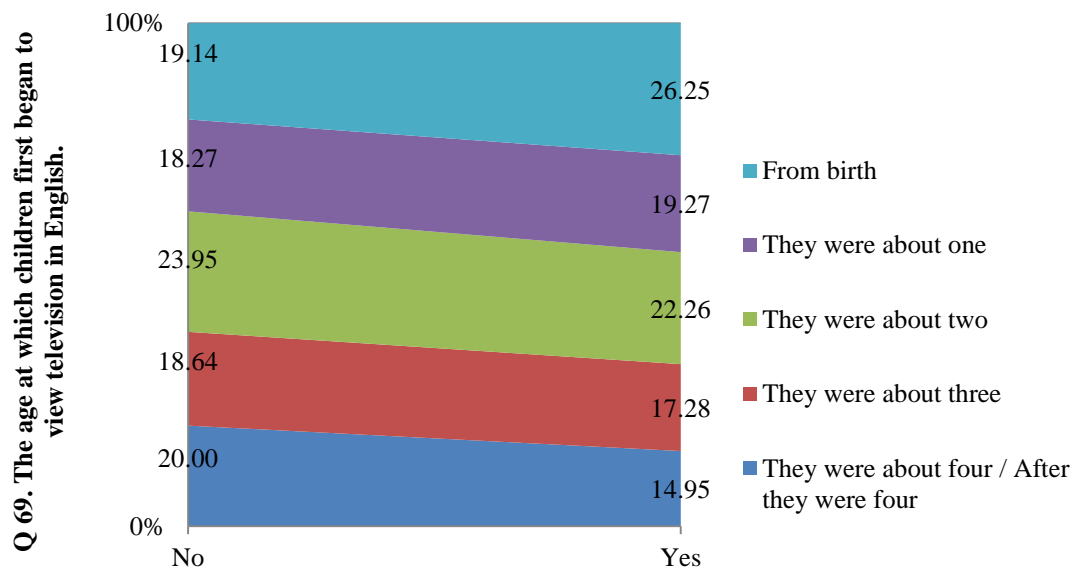
Figure 265. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' belief about the best age to start learning a foreign language. Qs 64 and 25/54 (1,881 responses).

One further interesting dependence relationship emerged when variable 64 was cross-tabulated with variable 26/55, which measured the order in which, according to parents, the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. As Figure 266 below reveals, the relative number of children that began to have contact with English since they were born clearly rose when parents thought that both languages should be learnt simultaneously. By contrast, the relative number of children whose first contact with English began at about the age of two or later grew when their parents believed that the mother tongue and the second language should be learnt consecutively. This is yet another example of coherent behaviour between parents' beliefs and managerial strategies.
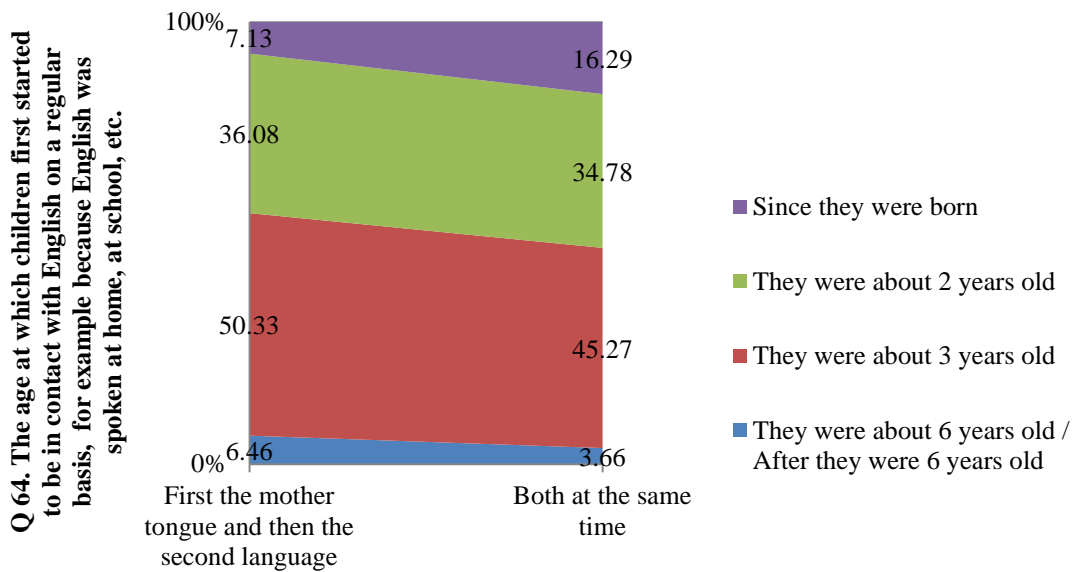
Qs 26/55. The order in which, according to parents, the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt.

Figure 266. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' belief about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt.. Qs 64 and 26/55 (1,898 responses).

The significance of variables 25/54 and 26/55 can also be seen in relation to variable 69. Thus, as we can observe in figures 267 and 268 below, very similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies are repeated so that the relative number of children who began to view television in English before the age of two increased when parents believed that both the mother tongue and a second language can be learnt simultaneously, and when parents believed that an earlier age to start learning a foreign language is better.
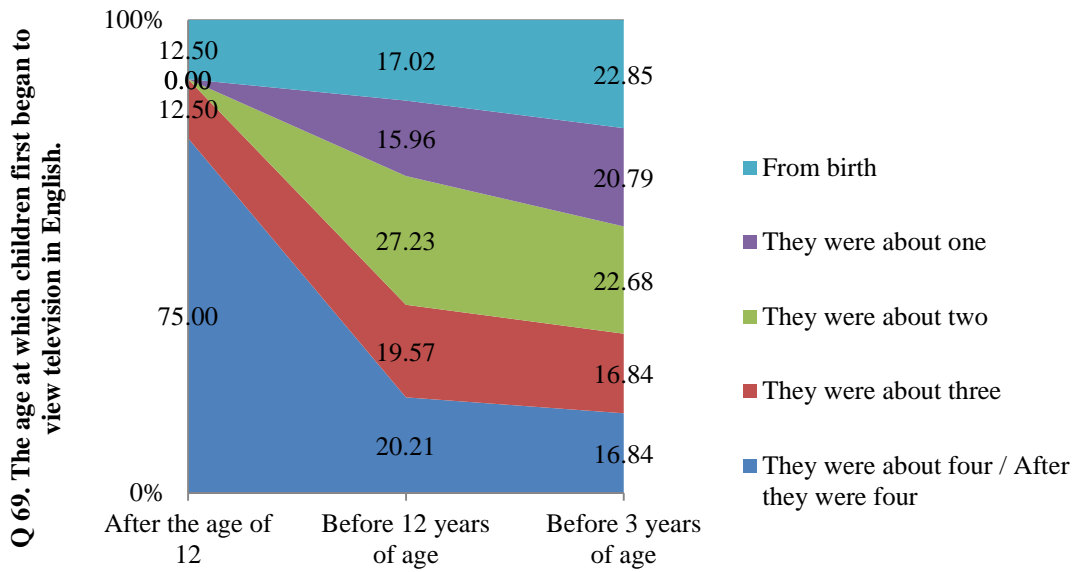
Qs 25/54. Parents' belief about the best age to start learning a foreign language.

Figure 267. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children first began to view television in English and parents' belief about the best age to start learning a foreign language. Qs 64 and 25/54 (1,060 responses).
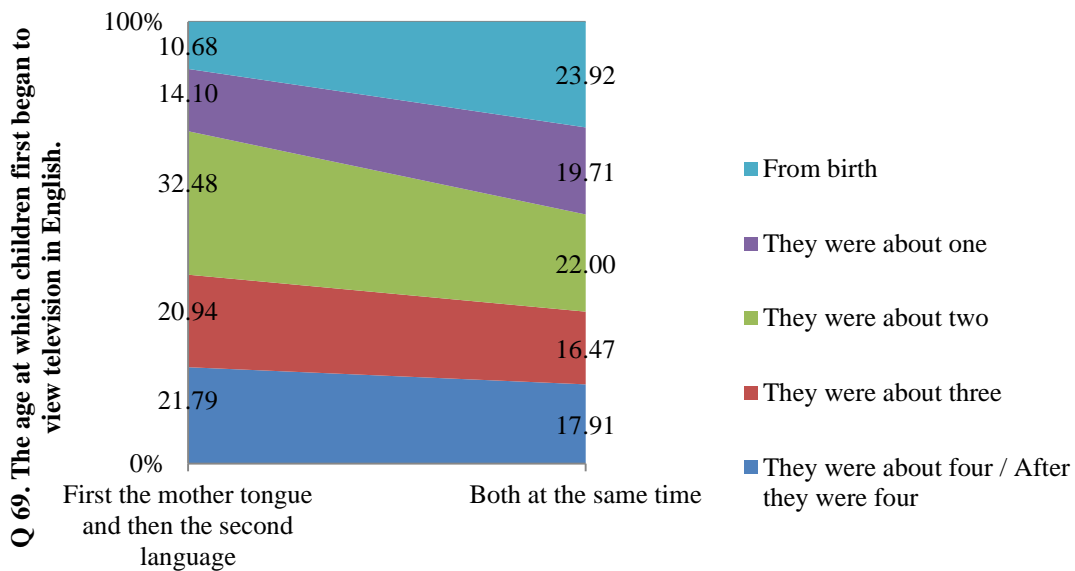
Qs 26/55. The order in which, according to parents, the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt.

Figure 268. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' belief about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. Qs 64 and 26/55 (1,898 responses).

Finally, as regards variable 72a/72b, we found that the managerial strategies adopted by parents when they were requested by their children to change the language of the television back to Spanish are also influenced by the order in which parents thought that the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. In this respect, it can be observed in Figure 269 below how the relative number of parents that adopt the best strategies, particularly convincing their children not to change the language, rises when parents believed that that both languages should be learnt simultaneously, whereas the relative number of parents who adopted the worst strategies, particularly when they always yielded to their children's requests, grew when parents believed that the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt consecutively.
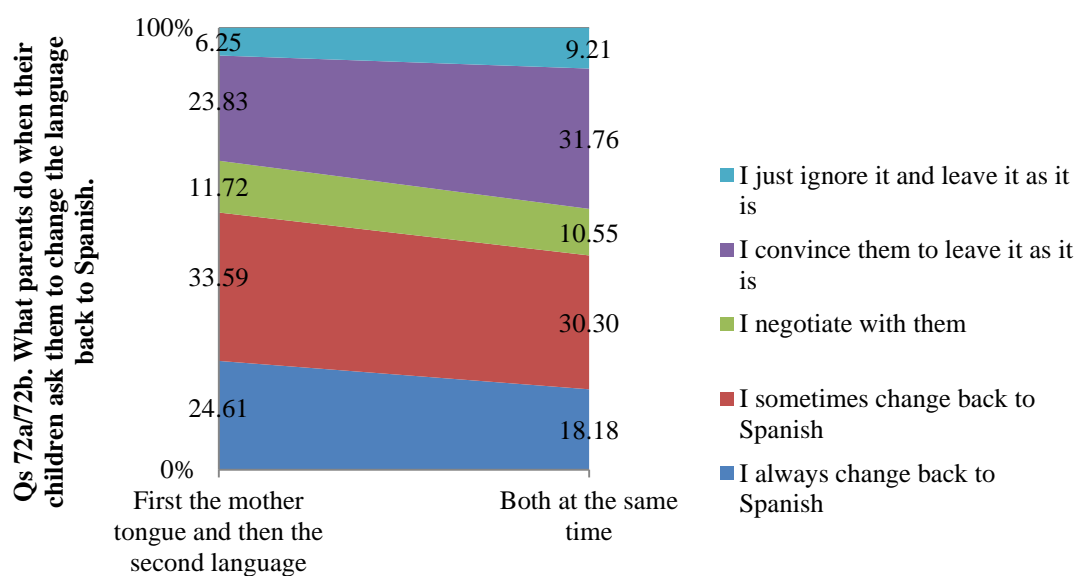
Qs 26/55. The order in which, according to parents, the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt.

Figure 269. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the age at which children started to be in contact with English on a regular basis and parents' belief about the order in which the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt. Qs 64 and 26/55 (1,898 responses).

To conclude the analysis and discussion of the dependence relationships between planning and management strategies on the one hand, and beliefs, attitudes, ideology, intra-family and external factors on the other, it could be argued that variable 64 emerges as the element of parental planning of linguistic practices with the highest number of regular patterns of behaviour when cross-tabulated with the different factors that make up family language policy. Thus, we have found that the relative number of children that began to be regularly in contact with English at an early age, particularly

before they were two years old, clearly increased when parents believed/hoped that their children would also reach very high level of English, or when parents believed that viewing television in English and early acquisition could have a considerable impact on children's level of attainment, when parents believed that the best age to start learning a foreign language is before the age of three, and when they believed that both the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt simultaneously. Children's early contact with English also increased when parents showed more positive attitudes towards English, towards learning foreign languages, towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and towards the usefulness of English for their personal satisfaction and for their personal life, or when parents agreed with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in original the version with subtitles. Finally, children's early contact with English also grew when parents had higher levels of English and better jobs, when parents shared their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watched television in English, when parents claimed that it helped them when they talked about FLP with other families in the same situation and when parents claimed that the decision to make their children view television in English had been caused by their own convictions on this issue rather than by people's opinions.

We must not underestimate, however, the number of regular patterns of behaviour that emerged when we looked at variable 72a/72b. In this respect, we found that the relative number of parents that adopted the best managerial strategies when they were requested by their children to change the language of the television back to Spanish, particularly when they convinced their children to leave it as it was, rose when parents believed that watching television in English to raise their children's level of attainment was particularly relevant and when they believed that both the mother tongue and a second language should be learnt simultaneously. It also rose when parents believed/hoped that their children would get higher levels of English in the future, when they believed that English was more useful for their personal life, for their personal satisfaction, to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies, and for entertainment (for example DVDs, television, music); when parents showed more positive attitudes towards English, towards learning foreign languages, towards Anglo-Saxon culture or when parents agreed with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Finally, parents tended

to convince their children more often not to change the language of the television back to Spanish when they had higher levels of English, when they had better jobs, when they shared their experience in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which children also watched television in English, when parents claimed that it helped when they talked about FLP with other families in the same situation and when they claimed that the decision to make their children view television in English had been caused by their own convictions on this issue rather than by people's opinions.

4.7.2.3 Parental beliefs

The next block of analysis will look at how parental beliefs affect and are affected by parents' attitudes and ideology, and intra-family and external factors.

4.7.2.3.1 Parental beliefs / Attitudes and ideology

We will commence with parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition. As we can observe in Table 73 below, twelve cross-tabulations were carried out, for which nine relevant dependence relationships emerged.

Table 73. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English, towards Anglo-Saxon culture and towards subtitling instead of dubbing.

Qs 24c/53c		Qs 30/59		Qs 24a/53a	
Qs 21/50	92.42	Qs 21/50	88.70	Qs 21/50	74.24
Qs 22/51	85.75	Qs 22/51	83.44	Qs 22/51	65.69
Qs 20/49	82.24	Qs 20/49	82.94	Qs 20/49	35.63
Qs 31/60	92.80	Qs 31/60	73.36	Qs 31/60	37.68

Beginning with variable 24c/53c, which measured parents' belief about the importance of viewing television in English to help children attain very high levels of English, we can observe in Figure 270 below how the relative number of parents who think that viewing television in English is essential and very useful grows as they claim to be more and more interested in the three attitudinal aspects about which they were questioned. By contrast, the relative number of parents that believe that viewing television in English is quite useful, a bit useful and not useful at all rises as the interest they affirm they have decreases. In other words, the most positive beliefs tend to co-

occur with the most positive attitudes, whereas the most negative beliefs tend to coincide with the most negative attitudes.
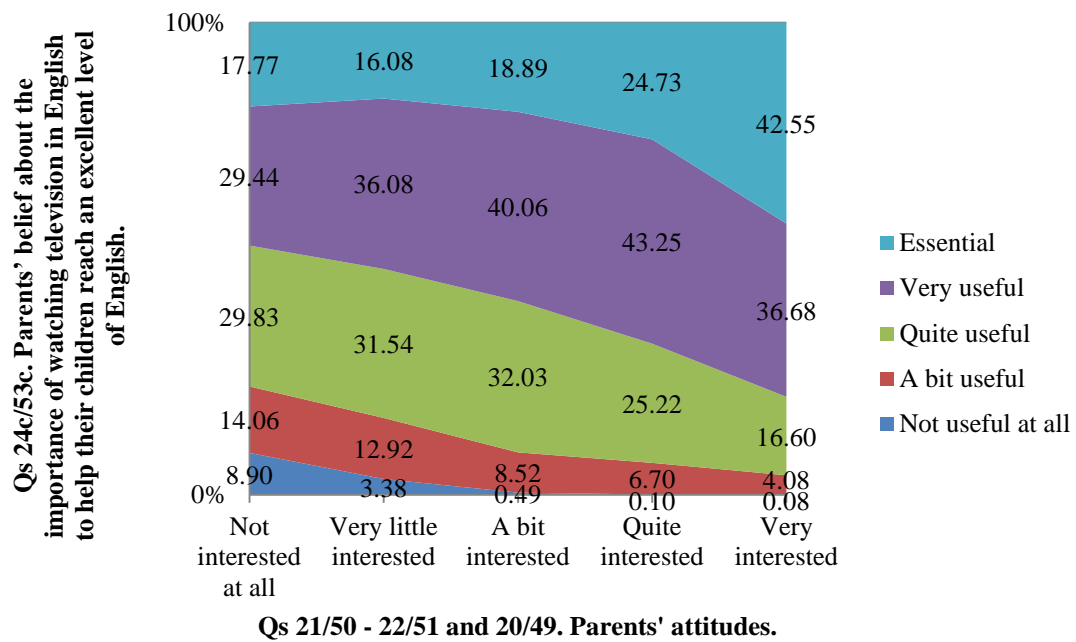
Figure 270. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 24c/53c and 21/50 – 22/51 – 20/49 (2,009 responses on average).

In the case of the relationship between variable 24c/53c and parental attitudes, the cause-effect relationship could be inverted and axis *x* could be swapped for axis *y*. In this way, it could be argued that parents' attitudes will be more or less positive depending on their perception of the role to be played by viewing television in English. In such a circumstance, looking at Figure 271 below, we can observe how similar values tend to co-occur on both Likert scales. Put another way, we could assert that these cross-tabulations are yet another example of the patterns that, again and again, have emerged in our analysis.
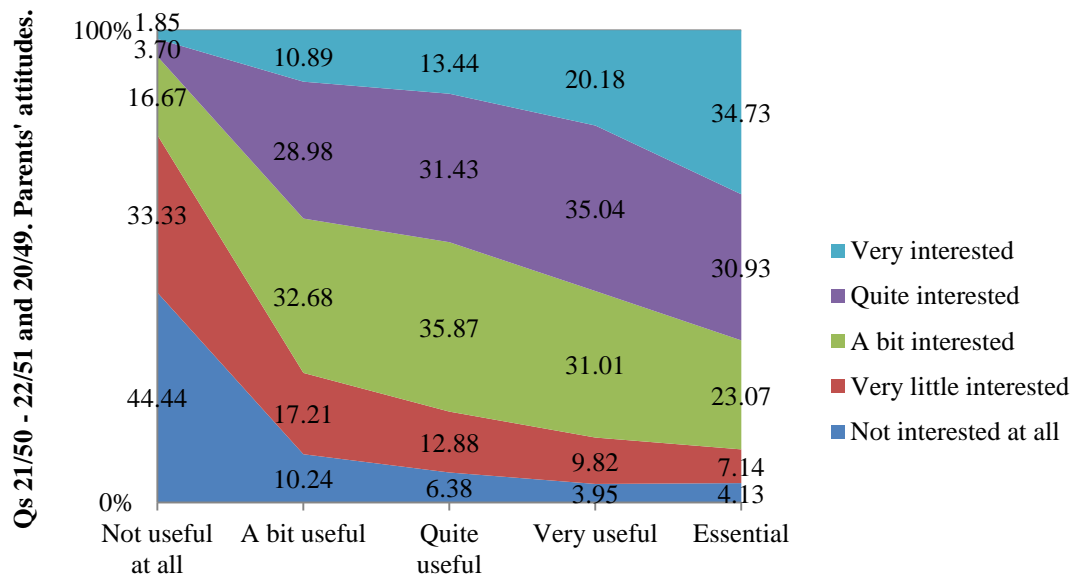
Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 271. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and parents' beliefs about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English. Questions 21/50 – 22/51 – 20/49 and 24c/53c (2,009 responses on average).

Next, we will look at the relationship between variable 24c/53c and variable 31/60, which looked at whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. On this occasion, we will examine how the latter, which is a variable that reflects parental ideology, is influenced by parent's beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English. Otherwise, the relationship would be meaningless. As we can observe in Figure 272 below, parents' preference for subtitling or for dubbing is clearly conditioned by their beliefs about the importance of watching television in English. In this respect, it can be seen how the relative number of parents that prefer subtitling to dubbing rises as the relevance of watching television in English increases, whereas the relative number of parents that prefer dubbing increases when parents play down the importance of viewing television in English.

Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.
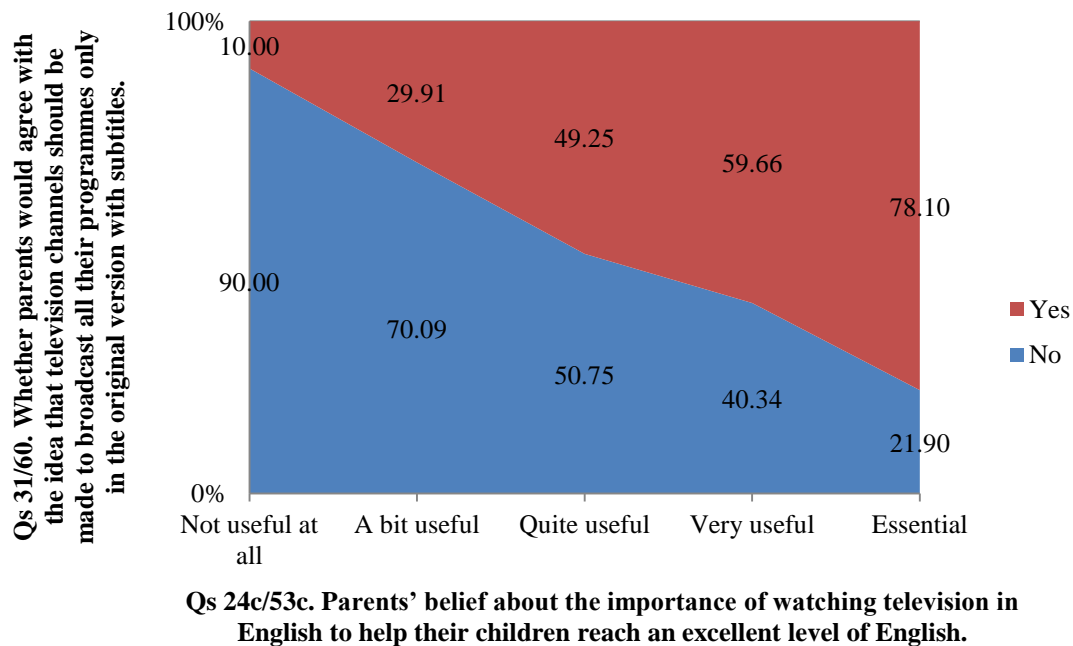
Figure 272. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would agree with idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parental beliefs about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English. Questions 31/36 and 24c/53c (1,611 responses).

Regarding variable 30/59, which measured parents' belief about the level of English that their children would be able to reach, and its dependence relationship with parental attitudes, Figure 273 below reveals a general pattern of distribution of average relative frequencies according to which, the relative number of parents who think that their children will reach a native-like or very high level of English clearly grows as they claim to be more and more interested in the aspects under consideration, whereas the relative number of parents who state that their children will reach a high, intermediate, low or very low level of English rises as their attitudes towards the variables under analysis become more and more negative.

Figure 273. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the level of English that they expect their children to reach, and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 30/59 and 21/50 – 22/51 – 20/49 (2,009 responses on average).

As regards the dependence relationship between variables 30/59 and 31/60, we can see in Figure 274 below how parents' beliefs concerning their children's level of attainment in English bear a direct relationship with what they think about dubbing and subtitling. In this way, we could argue that the relative number of parents who believe that their children will reach higher levels of English rises when they agree with subtitling, whereas the relative number of parents that expect their children to reach lower levels of attainment in English grows when they do not agree with subtitling.
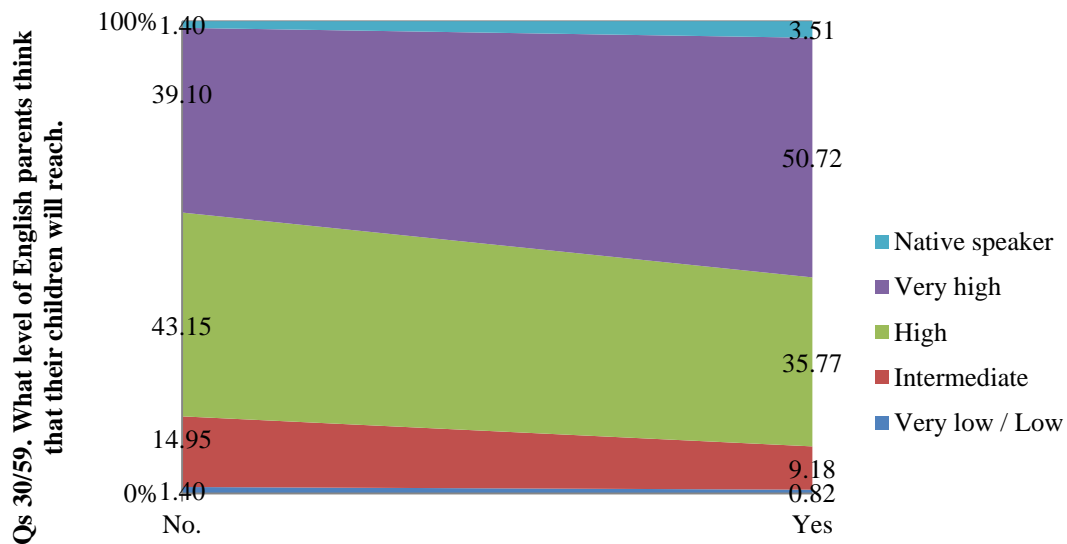
Figure 274. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the level of English that they expect their children to reach and whether parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Questions 30/59 and 31/60 (1,612 responses).

But if we change the direction of the dependence relationship and accept that parents may have considered that they were being questioned about their hopes rather than their expectations concerning their children's level of attainment in English, then the relationship becomes more meaningful. In this case, as Figure 275 below shows, we can observe how the relative number of parents that would agree with subtitling steadily rises as they hope, and one could even say because they "want", their children to attain higher and higher levels of English. However, we cannot go as far as to claim that parents who do not agree with subtitling hope that their children achieve a low level of English.

Qs 30/59. What level of English parents think that their children will reach.
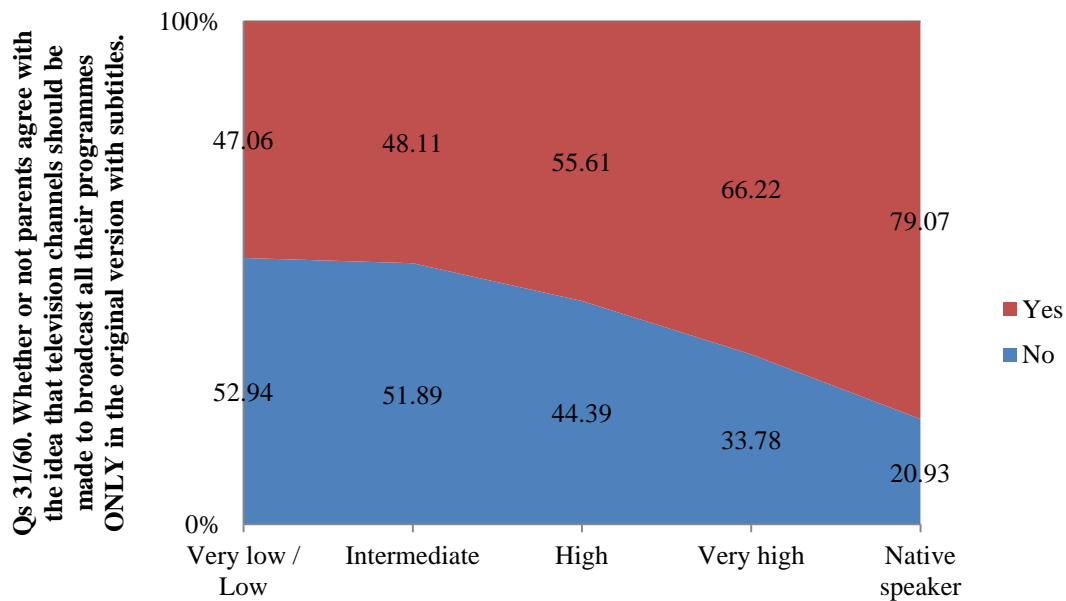
Figure 275. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parents' beliefs about the level of English that they expect their children to reach. Questions 31/60 and 30/59 (1,612 responses).

We will end this series on the relationships between parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition and parents' attitudes with a brief analysis of variables 24a/53a and 21/50 respectively. In this respect, a look at Figure 276 below will let us see a very familiar pattern of distribution of relative frequencies according to which, the relative number of parents who believe that early acquisition is essential rises as they claim to be increasingly interested in English. By contrast, the bands representing the other less positive beliefs widen as parents' attitude towards English becomes increasingly negative.

Figure 276. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the importance of early acquisition and parents' attitude towards English. Questions 24a/53a and 21/50 (1,991 responses).

In the case of the relationship between variable 24a/53a and parental attitudes, the cause-effect relationship could be inverted and axis *x* could also be swapped for axis *y*. In this way, it could be argued that parents' attitudes towards English will be more or less positive depending on their perception of the role to be played by early acquisition. In such a circumstance, looking at Figure 277 below, we can observe how similar values tend to co-occur on both Likert scales. Put another way, we could assert that these cross-tabulations are yet another example of the patterns that, again and again, have emerged in our analysis.
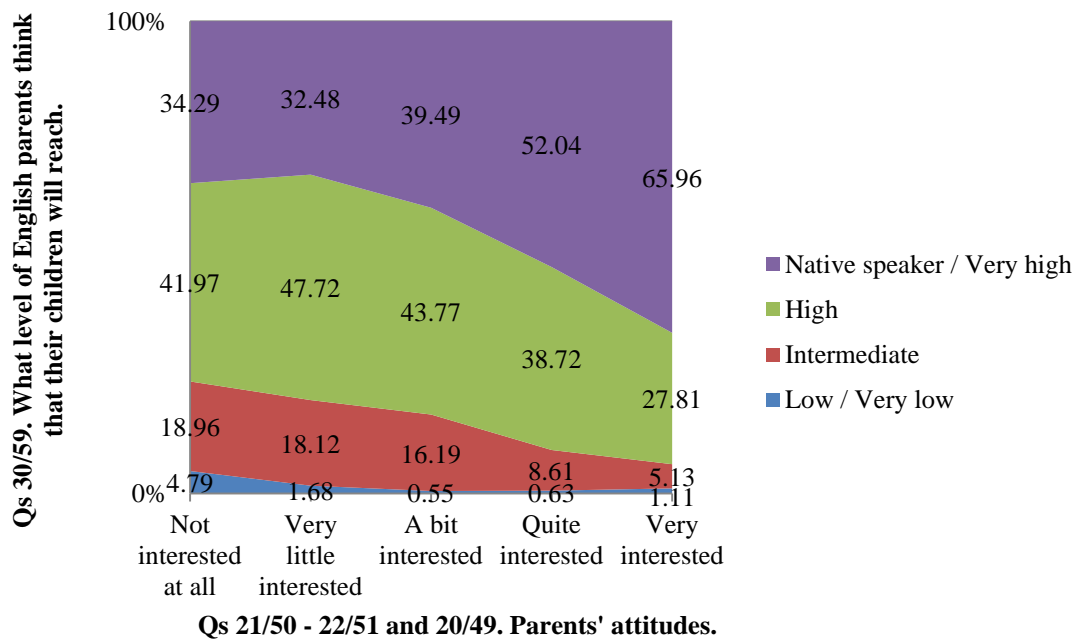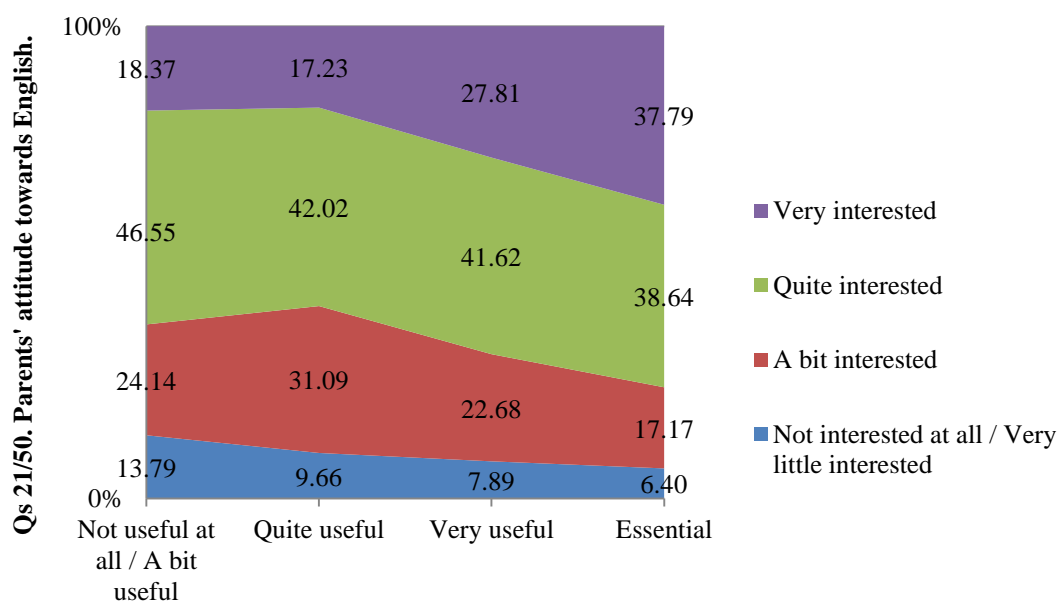
Qs 24a/53a. Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.

Figure 277. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitude towards English and parents' beliefs about the importance of early acquisition. Questions 21/25 and 24a/53a (1,991 responses).

To end this section on the dependence relationships between parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition on the one hand, and their attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, together with their ideology concerning dubbing and subtitling on the other, we can conclude by highlighting the strong dependence between the former and the latter, with particular emphasis on parents' attitude towards English (variable 21/50), which affects them all (see Table 74 below).

Table 74. Relevant dependence relationships strength rank for parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition and variable 21/50.

21/50	24c/53c	Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.	92.42%
21/50	30/59	The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.	88.70%
21/50	24a/53a	Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.	74.24%
Average			85.12%

Next, we will move on to analyse the relationships between parental beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English on the one hand, and parental

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attitudes and ideology on the other. As we can see in Table 75 below, the sixteen possible cross-tabulations produced relevant values of dependence.

Table 75. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English, towards Anglo-Saxon culture and towards subtitling instead of dubbing.

Qs 23g/52g		Qs 23h/52h		Qs 23b/52b		Qs 23e/52e	
Qs 22/51	93.84	Qs 22/51	94.77	Qs 22/51	93.17	Qs 21/50	97.43
Qs 21/50	93.77	Qs 21/50	94.53	Qs 21/50	92.73	Qs 20/49	96.83
Qs 20/49	92.75	Qs 20/49	94.19	Qs 20/49	90.96	Qs 22/51	96.01
Qs 31/60	89.65	Qs 31/60	92.91	Qs 31/60	83.99	Qs 31/60	91.21

We will commence with parental attitudes. Given the numerous occasions on which similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies have emerged throughout our research, at this point of our discussion we were expecting this tendency to be confirmed yet again. And the outcomes did not fall short of our prediction. In this way, we can observe in Figure 278 below how the relative number of parents within the three top bands, which correspond to the most positive beliefs about the usefulness of English, rises as they claim to be more and more interested in the three elements that appear on axis *x*. By contrast, the relative number of parents within the two bottom bands, which correspond to the most negative beliefs about the usefulness of English, grows as parents claim to be less and less interested in the items on axis *x*.
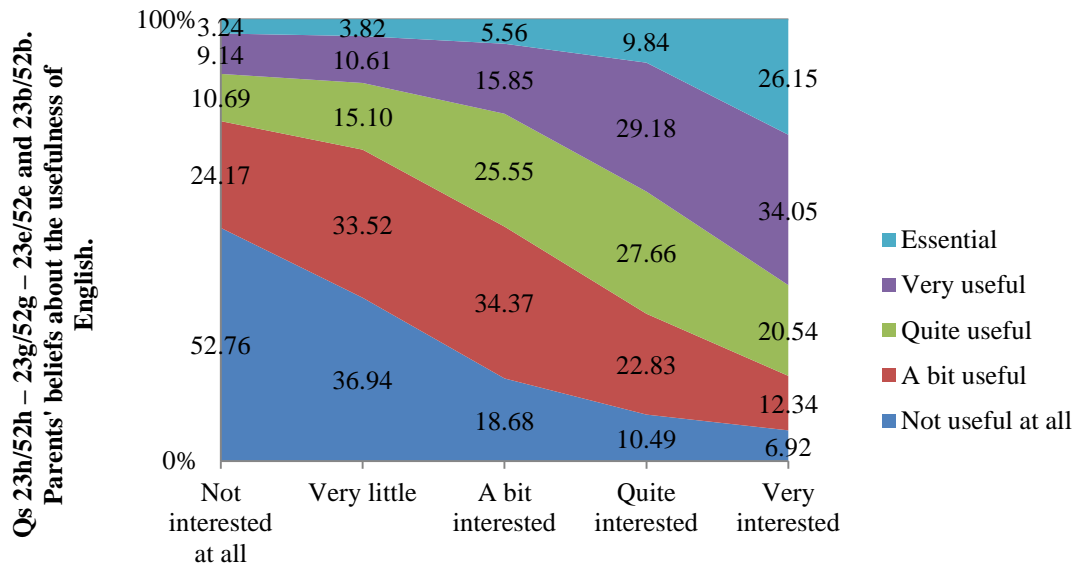
Qs 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture.
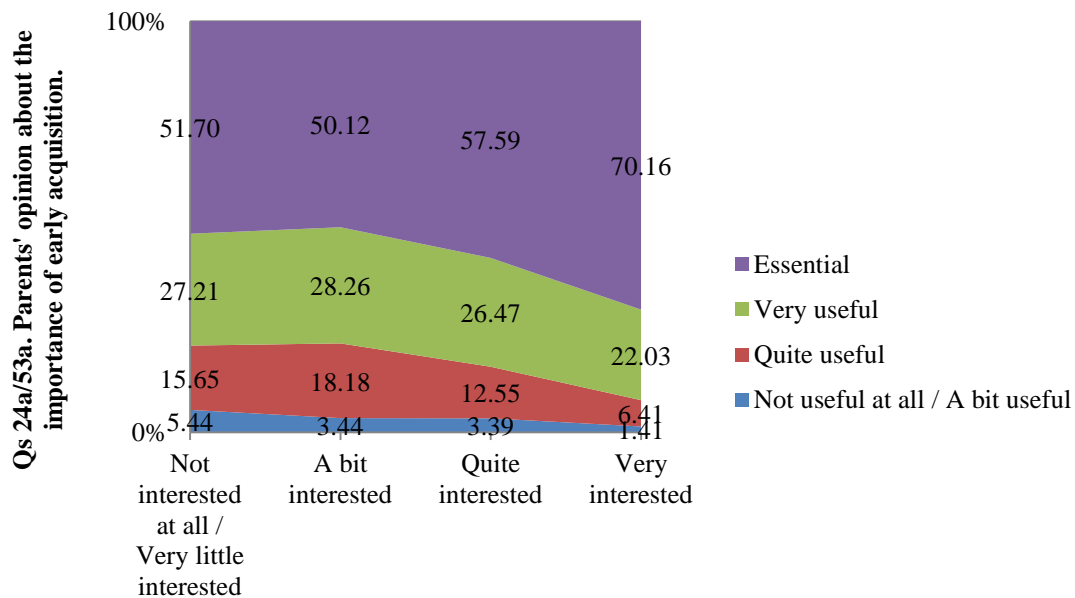
Figure 278. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English, and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (2,013 responses on average).

Likewise, it will be interesting to check whether the same tendencies will appear if we swap axis *x* for axis *y* in our figure, and thus reverse the cause-effect relationship. A look at Figure 279 below clearly reveals similar tendencies to the ones in Figure 278 above. Consequently, we will be able to conclude that parents' interest in learning foreign languages, in English and in Anglo-Saxon culture and parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English influence each other in similar ways.
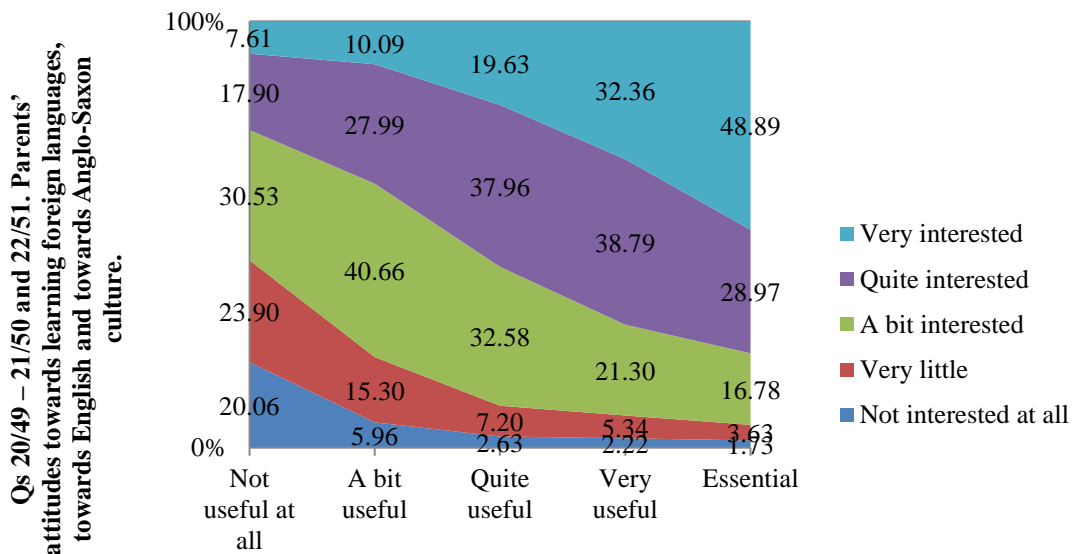
**Qs 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e and 23b/52b. Parents' beliefs about the
usefulness of English.**

Figure 279. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b (2,013 responses on average).

We also wanted to find whether variables 23c/52c and 23d/52d, which pertain to parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job or to change one's job, behaved similarly when interacting with variables 20/49, 21/50 and 22/51. A look at figures 280 and 281 below will let us confirm that the general tendencies are repeated. That is to say, we can observe how the best values on the Likert scales on axes *x* and *y* tend to co-occur in both figures.
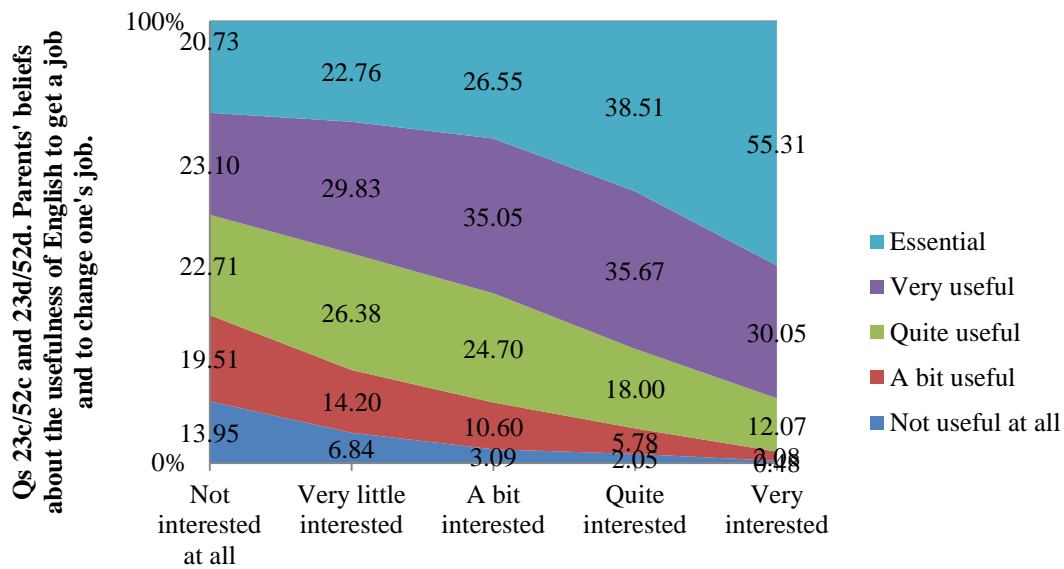
Qs 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 280. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job or to change one's job, and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 23c/52c – 23d/52d and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (2,012 responses on average).
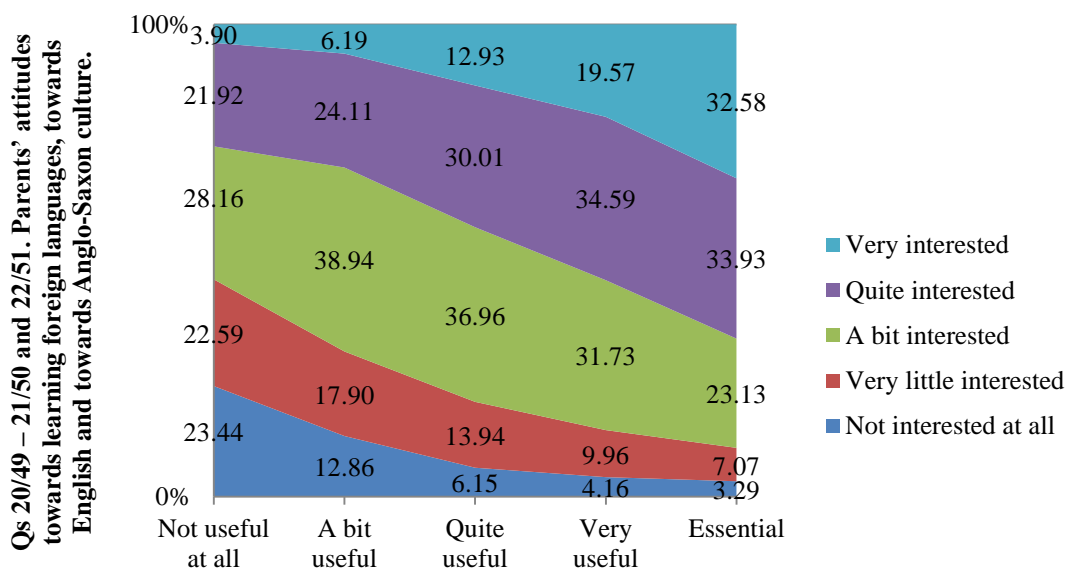
Qs 23c/52c and 23d/52d. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job and to change one's job.

Figure 281. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job or to change one's job. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 23c/52c – 23d/52d (2,012 responses on average).

Finally, we would like to draw the attention to the way in which parents' high interest in English is affected by their beliefs about the usefulness of English in the different situations that have been analysed. Thus, we can observe in Figure 282 below that the relative number of parents who are very interested in English (variable 21/50) is clearly higher when parents think that English is essential to get a job (variable 23c/53c) or to change one's job (variable 23d/52d) than when they think that English is essential for the other four uses analysed before. In other words, parents' highest interest in English is clearly conditioned by the type of situation for which its usefulness is tested, with a clear preference for its instrumental value.
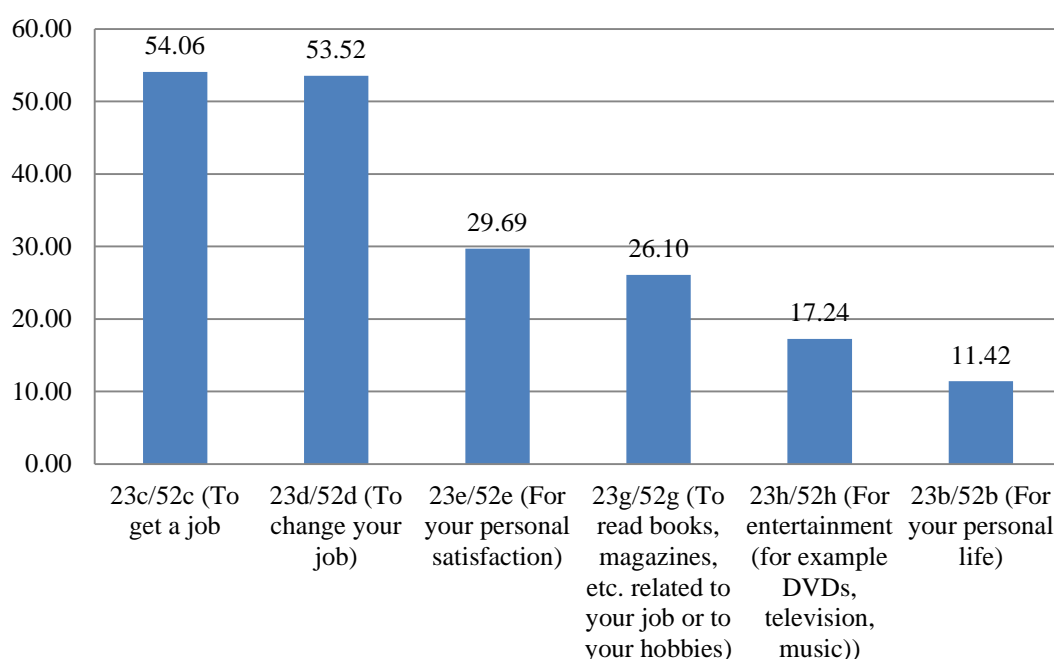
Figure 282. Parents are very interested in English and believe that English is essential for a number of situations. Questions 21/50 and 23b/52b – 23c/52c – 23d/52d – 23e/52e –23g/52g – 23h/52h.

We will end this section discussing how parental beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English are affected by the item of ideology referring to whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles in Spanish. In much the same way as in the previous point, we can observe in Figure 283 below how the largest relative number of positive values in the two Likert scales tend to co-occur on both axis *x* and axis *y*. And quite predictably, the largest relative number of negative values in axis *x*, which emerge in bands "A bit useful" and "Not useful at all", also tend to coincide with value "No" on axis *y*.
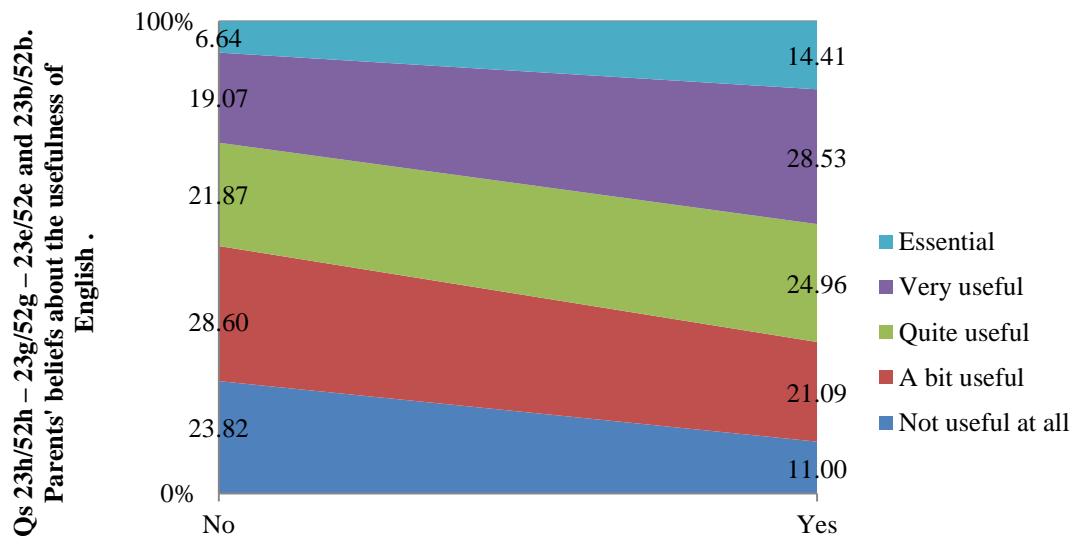
Qs 31/60. Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.

Figure 283. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and whether parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b and 31/60 (1,608 responses on average).

On this occasion, we also swapped the data on axis *x* for the data on axis *y* in order to make the angle from which we approached these cross-tabulations more meaningful. We found that, as expected, parents are more likely to accept replacing dubbing by subtitling when they hold more positive attitudes towards the usefulness of English for the integrative and the instrumental uses under consideration (Fig. 284).
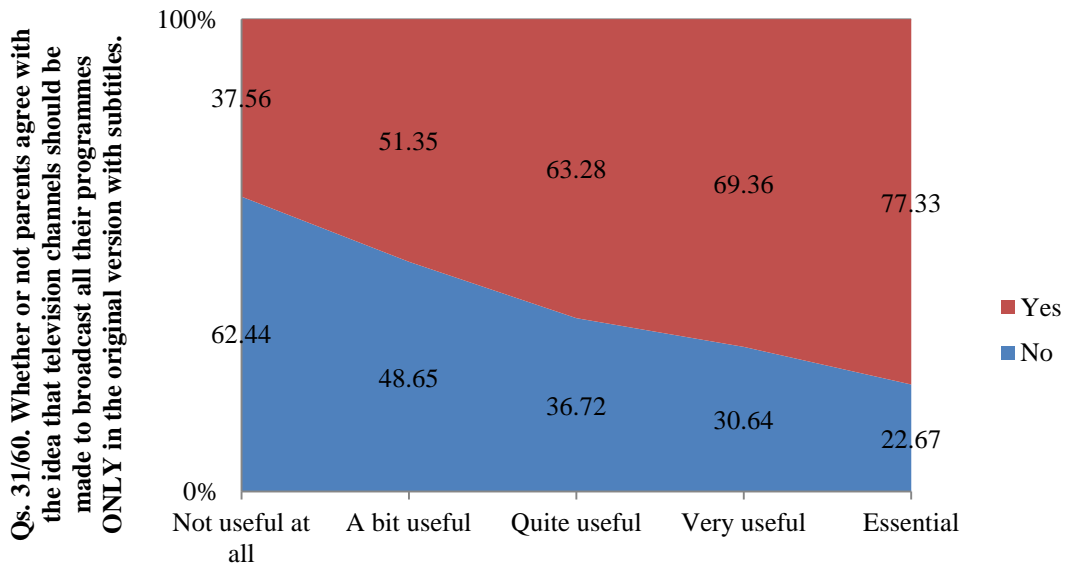
Qs 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e and 23b/52b. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English.

Figure 284. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English. Questions 31/60 and 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b (1,608 responses on average).

When we cross-tabulated variable 31/60 with variables 23c/52c and 23d/52d (see Figure 285 below), we obtained a very similar pattern of distribution of relative frequencies to the one in Figure 284 above.
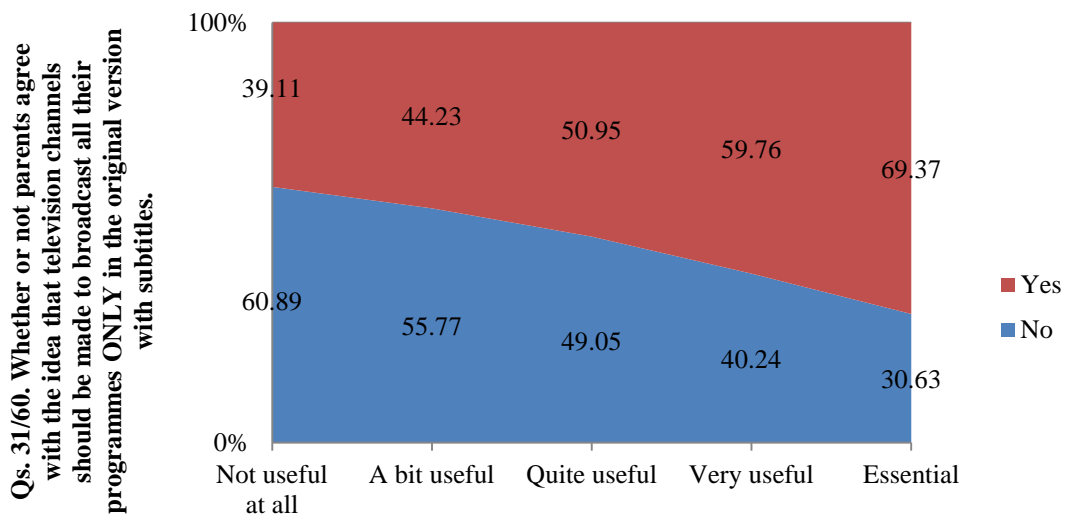
Qs 23c/52c and 23d/52d. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job and to change one's job.

Figure 285. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job and to change one's job. Questions 31/60 and 23c/52c – 23d/52d (1,609 responses on average).

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Once again, if we focus our attention on how parents' positive attitude towards subtitling is influenced by their beliefs about the usefulness of English in the different situations that have been analysed, we will observe in Figure 286 below that the relative number of parents that agree with making television channels broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles (variable 31/60) is clearly higher when parents think that English is essential to get a job (variable 23c/53c) or to change one's job (variable 23d/52d) than when they think that English is essential for the other four uses analysed before. In other words, parents' positive attitude towards subtitling is also clearly conditioned by the type of situation for which its usefulness is tested, once more with a clear preference for its instrumental value.
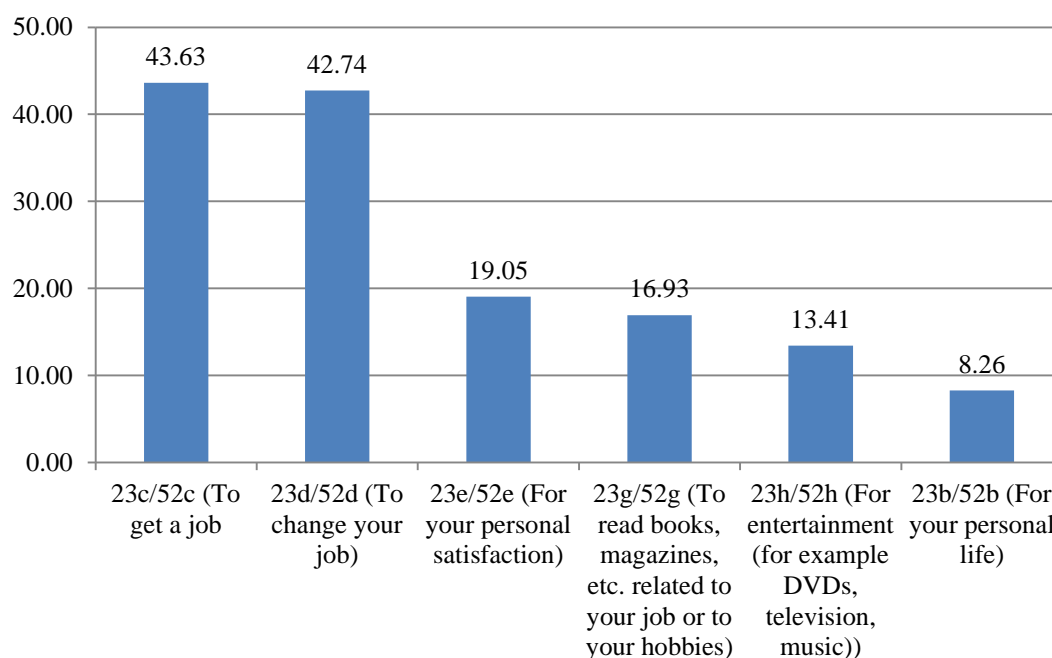
Figure 286. Parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles, and believe that English is essential for a number of situations. Questions 31/60 and 23b/52b – 23c/52c – 23d/52d – 23e/52e –23g/52g – 23h/52h.

By way of conclusion, we can claim that there exists a very close relationship between parents' beliefs and attitudes/ideology, demonstrated by the fact that, of the thirty-six cross-tabulations analysed, thirty-three produced relevant dependence relationships, with values that affect 70% of the participants or above. A second conclusion is that the cause-effect relationship in many of the cross-tabulations is also meaningful if the direction of such relationship is changed. Thirdly, we found that parents consider English more essential to get a job or to change one's job than for any other of the uses analysed. Finally, the same tendencies in the pattern of distribution of relative

frequencies underlie the majority of the cross-tabulations. In this respect, the figures included in this section illustrate how the best values in each pair of Likert scales cross-tabulated tend to occur together. Likewise, the worst values tend to occur together as well.

4.7.2.3.2 Parental beliefs / Intra-family factors

The next block of analysis will focus on the dependence relationships between parents' beliefs and intra-family factors.

As we did before, we will commence with beliefs about foreign language acquisition. As we can see in Table 76 below, of the fifteen possible cross-tabulations, nine produced relevant dependence relationships.

Table 76. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition and intra-family factors.

Qs 24c/53c	Qs 10/39	Qs 9/38	Qs 13/42	Qs 15/44	Qs 14/43
	80.51	78.37	77.17	76.79	32.9
Qs 30/59	Qs 14/43	Qs 15/44	Qs 9/38	Qs 10/39	Qs 13/42
	93.76	88.52	87.15	74.43	46.46
Qs 24a/53a	Qs 10/39	Qs 9/38	Qs 15/44	Qs 14/43	Qs 13/42
	71.81	65.2	28.76	17.19	12.11

As regards how intra-family factors affect parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English (variable 24c/53c), we have found that similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies to the ones already seen before emerge with each cross-tabulation (see APPENDIX D). In this way, we may be able to conclude that the relative number of parents who believe that watching television in English is essential and very useful tends to increase when parents have a higher level of schooling completed (variable 10/39), 'better' jobs (variable 9/38), positive experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television (variable 13/42) and a higher level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs in English (variable 15/44). Contrariwise, the relative number of parents who have less positive beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English tends to increase as the they have a lower level of schooling completed, 'worse' jobs, negative experiences in relation to learning

foreign languages through viewing television and a lower level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs in English.

There is, however, an exception to this tendency, which refers to the interaction with variable 9/38 and which can be observed in Figure 287 below. What attracted our attention is the fact that the relative number of parents who believe that watching television in English is not useful at all suddenly surges at the right end of axis *x*, where the respondents are language teachers, supposedly the 'best' job on the Likert scale, thus changing the direction of the linear trend line.
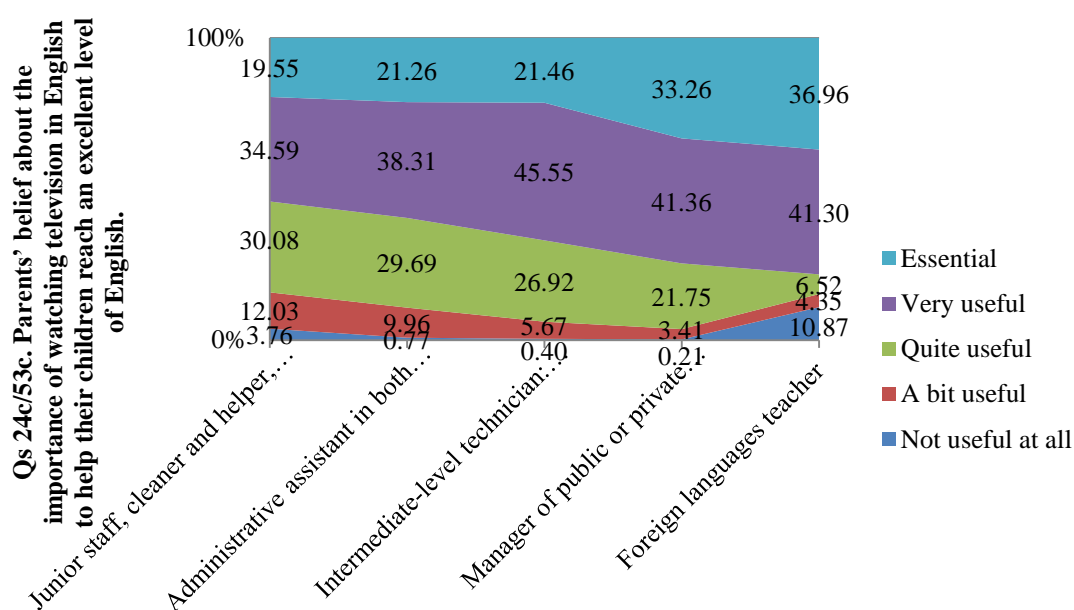
Figure 287. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English and parents' job. Questions 24c/53c and 9/38 (1,664 responses).

We believe that two reasons could lie behind this finding. On the one hand, such a figure may have been caused by the fact that the number of observed absolute frequencies in the "Not useful at all" series is seventeen, too few to be considered representative of any particular tendency. What is more, three cells have absolute frequencies below five. However, such "anomaly" may also have been produced by teachers' lack of understanding of some basic principles of second/foreign language acquisition. In this case, without further evidence, we feel inclined to believe that it has been caused by lack of observed absolute frequencies.

Concerning how intra-family factors affect parents' belief about the level of English that their children will be able to reach (variable 30/59), we have found that similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies to those of variable 24c/53c (see APPENDIX D). In this way, we may be able to conclude that the relative number of parents who believe that their children will reach a native-like or a very high level of English tends to rise as they claim to have a higher level of English (variable 14/43), a higher level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs in English (variable 15/44), 'better' jobs (variable 9/38) and a higher level of schooling completed (variable 10/39). On the contrary, the relative number of parents who believe that their children will reach a high, intermediate, low or very low level of English grows when they have a lower level of English and a lower level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs, 'worse' jobs and a lower level of schooling completed.

In section 4.5.1.3 above, we had raised the issue of whether higher parental income leads to higher academic expectations. When we cross-tabulated variables 4 and 30/59, we found a strong dependence relationship between both variables which affected 73.83% of the respondents. The pattern of distribution of relative frequencies that can be observed in Figure 288 below shows how the relative number of parents with the higher expectations rises when they have higher incomes. Contrariwise, the relative number of parents with the lower expectations rises when their incomes become increasingly lower, which confirms Stull's (2013), Davis-Kean's (2005) or Lippman et al.'s (2008) prediction (see Literature Review).
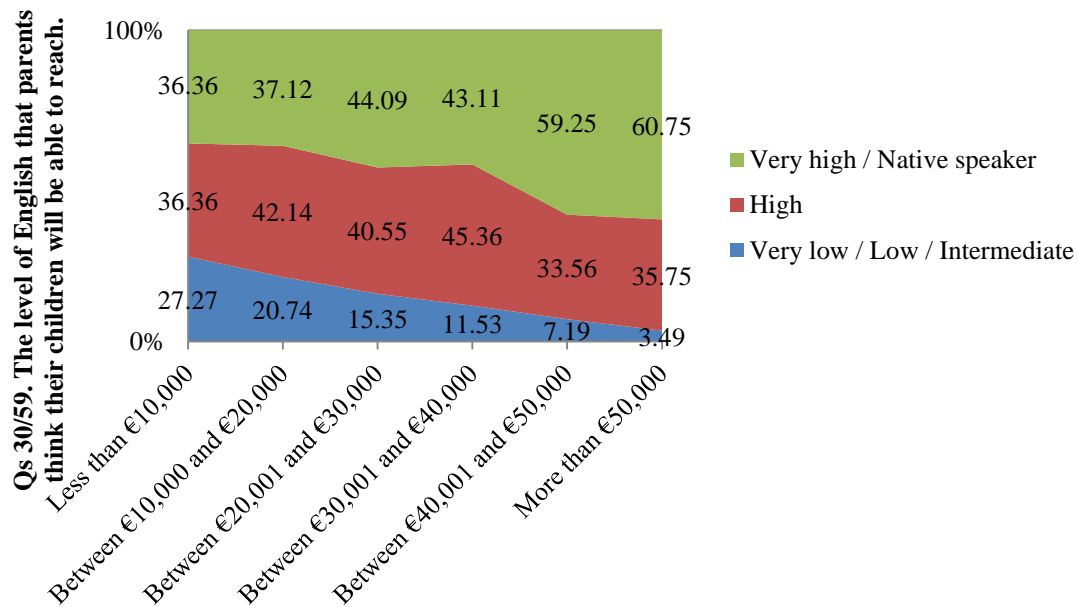
Q 4. Annual net income per household.

Figure 288. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach and the annual net income per household. Questions 30/59 and 4 (1,958 responses).

Finally, regarding parents' belief about the importance of very early foreign language acquisition to help their children reach an excellent level of English (variable 24a/53a), the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies obtained from the only relevant cross-tabulation (variable 10/39) reveals that the relative number of parents who believe that very early acquisition is essential, very useful and quite useful rises as parents' highest level of schooling completed rises too. By contrast, the relative number of parents who think that very early acquisition is a bit useful or not useful at all grows when parents claim to have lower levels of schooling completed (see Figure 289 below).
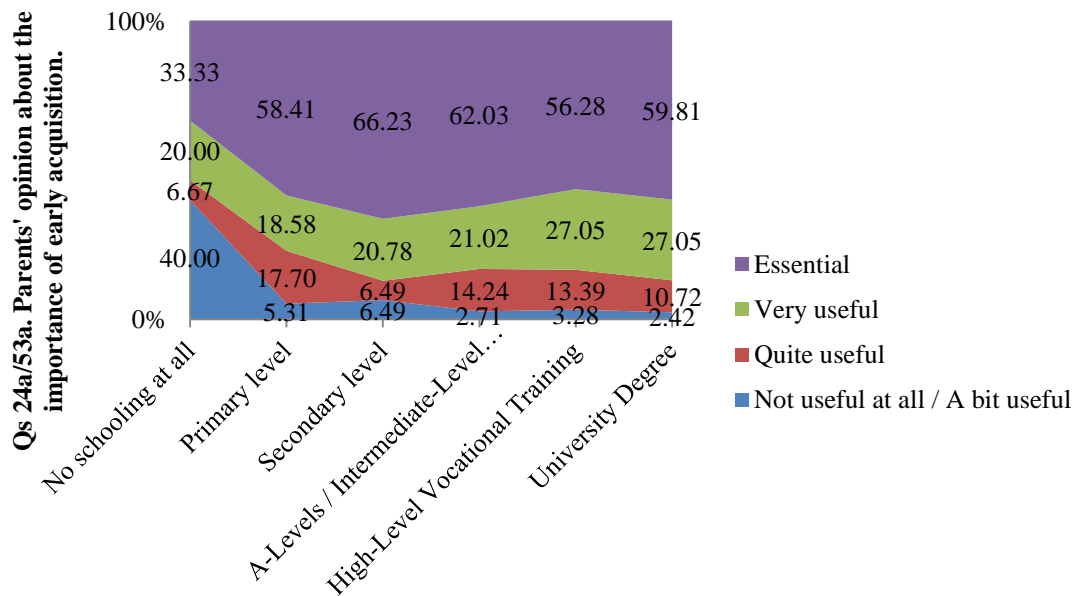
Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling completed.

Figure 289. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition and parents' highest level of schooling completed. Questions 24a/53a and 10/39 (2,023 responses).

Once more, we would like to draw the attention to the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies obtained from cross-tabulating variables 24a/53a and 9/38. Despite having produced a dependence relationship affecting less than 70% of the participants, Figure 290 below would reveal a regular and coherent pattern of distribution but for the irregularity produced by category "Foreign languages teacher". In this respect, we would like to highlight the fact that the relative number of parents who believe that early acquisition is essential suddenly decreases when teachers are questioned about this issue. Likewise, the relative number of parents who believe that early acquisition is a bit useful or not useful at all unexpectedly rises when the question is answered by foreign language teachers.
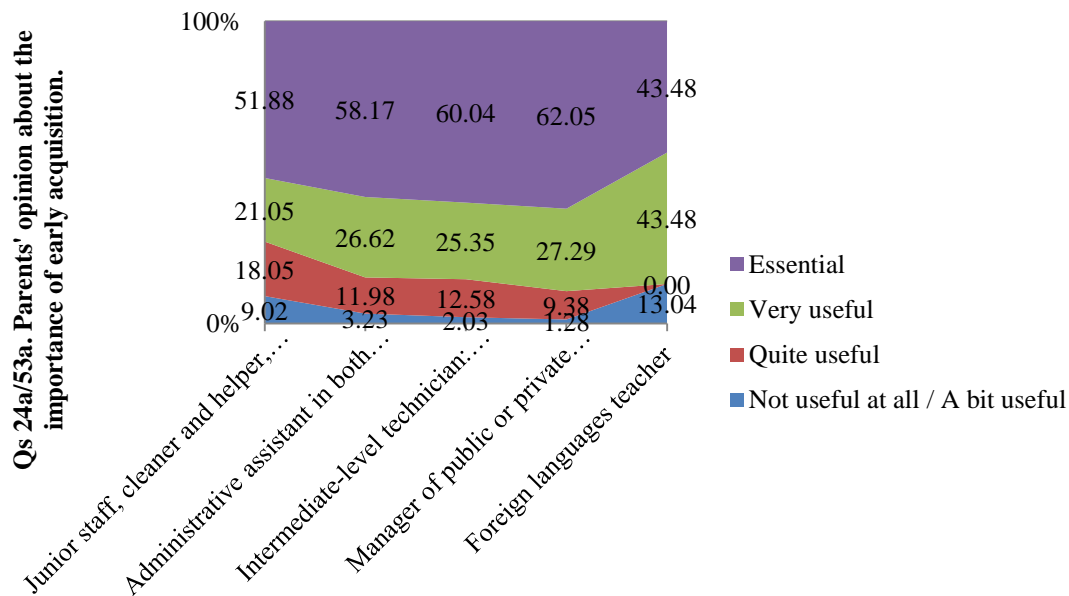
Qs 9/38. Parents' job.

Figure 290. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' belief about the importance of early acquisition to help their children reach an excellent level of English and parents' job. Questions 24a/53a and 9/38 (1,667 responses).

The two possible explanations that were brought forward when we analysed the relationship between variables 24c/53c and 9/38 can also be adduced here. Thus, these findings might reflect either that the number of observed absolute frequencies in the "Foreign language teacher" category is too small (46) or that foreign language teachers lack an understanding of some basic principles of second/foreign language acquisition.

This block about the dependence relationships between beliefs and intra-family factors will conclude with the analysis of beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English. As we can see in Table 77 below, of the twenty cross-tabulations analysed, nineteen produced relevant patterns of distribution.

Table 77. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and intra-family factors.

Qs 14/43		Qs 15/44		Qs 9/38		Qs 13/42		Qs 10/39	
Qs 23g/52g	94.02	Qs 23g/52g	94.86	Qs 23g/52g	87.24	Qs 23h/52h	89.86	Qs 23g/52g	81.56
Qs 23e/52e	93.89	Qs 23h/52h	93.82	Qs 23b/52b	80.03	Qs 23e/52e	84.34	Qs 23e/52e	80.56
Qs 23h/52h	93.01	Qs 23e/52e	93.58	Qs 23e/52e	78.25	Qs 23g/52g	82.17	Qs 23h/52h	70.87
Qs 23b/52b	91.67	Qs 23b/52b	92.09	Qs 23h/52h	71.66	Qs 23b/52b	76.78	Qs 23b/52b	53.31

Furthermore, each of the nineteen cross-tabulations produced a similar pattern of distribution of relative frequencies which, for presentation purposes, have been merged into five categories, one for each of the five intra-family variables (see figures 291, 292, 293, 294 and 295 below).
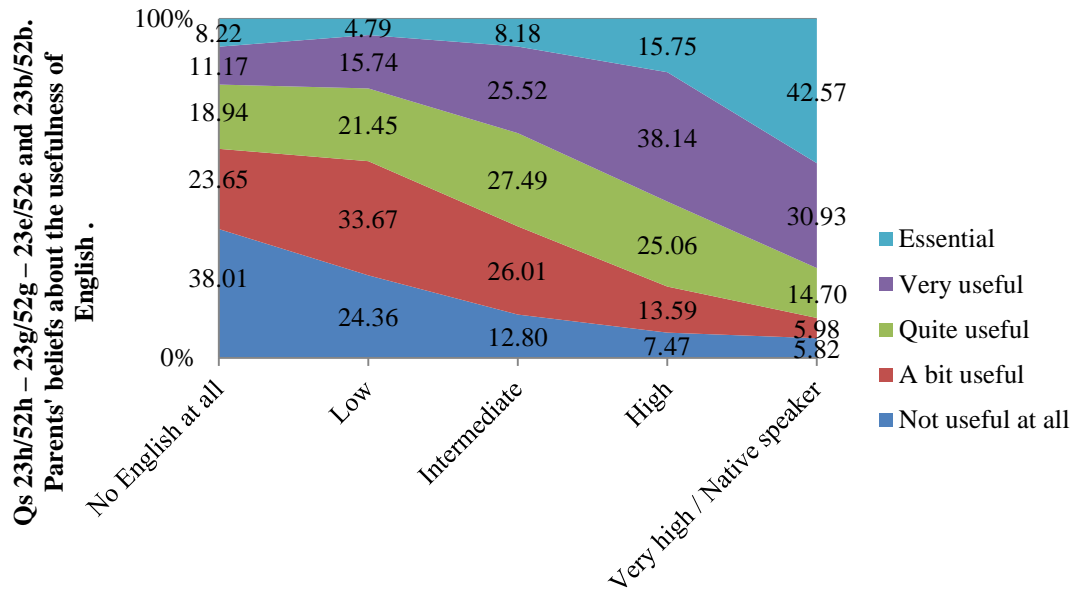
Qs 14/43. Parents' level of English.

Figure 291. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and parents' level of English. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b and 14/43 (2,018 responses on average).

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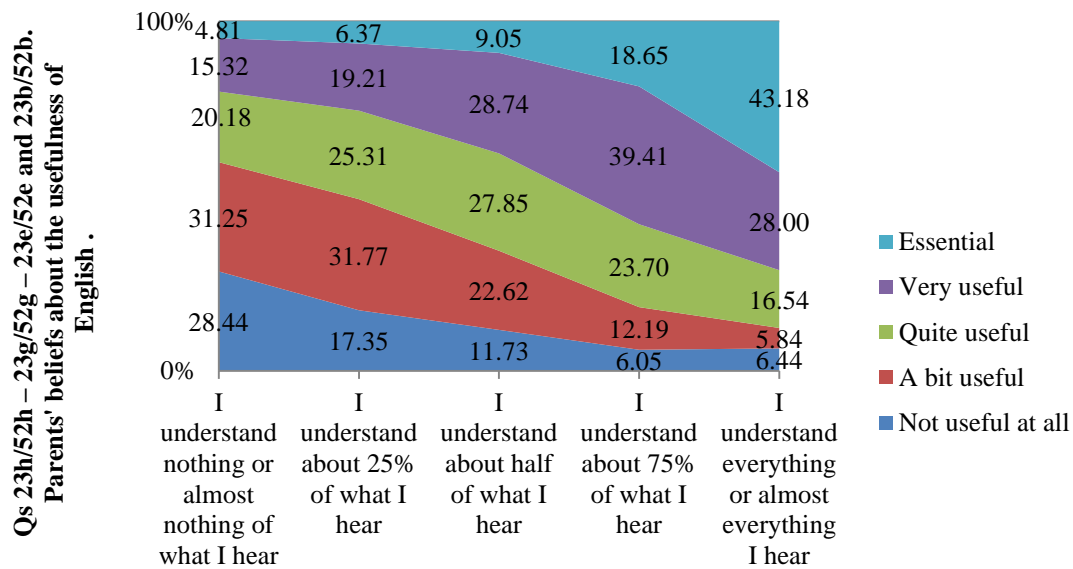
Qs 15/44. Parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVDs in English.

Figure 292. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV or DVDs in English. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b and 15/44 (2,011 responses on average).

Qs 9/38. Parents' job.

Figure 293. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and parents' job. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b and 9/38 (1,664 responses on average).
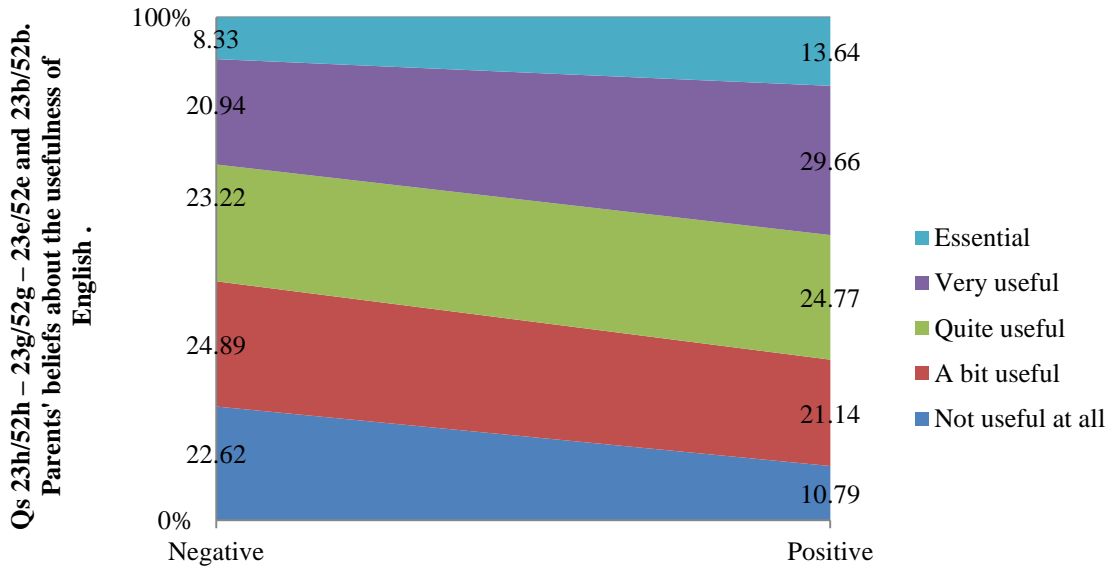
Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 294. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b and 13/42 (991 responses on average).

Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling.

Figure 295. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and parents' highest level of schooling. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e – 23b/52b and 10/39 (2,014 responses on average).

As we can observe in figures 291, 292, 293, 294, and 295 above, the relative number of parents who think that English is essential or very useful for the integrative and instrumental purposes stated before steadily rises as their level of English and level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV rise too, when they have 'better' jobs, when they have had positive experiences as regards learning a foreign language through viewing television in that language, and when their highest level of schooling completed also rises. By contrast, the relative number of parents who believe that English is a bit useful or not useful at all grows as their level of English and level of comprehension of unsubtitled TV get lower, when they have 'worse' jobs, when they have had negative experiences about learning a foreign language through viewing television in that language, and when their highest level of schooling completed gets lower.

Finally, we also looked at the dependence relationships between intra-family factors and variables 23c/52c and 23d/52d, which measured parents' beliefs about the importance of English to get a job and to change job. As regards how these two variables are influenced by parents' level of English, we can observe in Figure 296 below how the relative number of parents who believe that English is essential grows when they have higher levels of English. On the contrary, the relative number of parents who believe that English is quite useful, a bit useful or not useful at all rises when their level of English is lower, much in line with the patterns in figures 291 and 292 above.

The chart shows "Qs 23c/52c and 23d/52d. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job and to change one's job." on the vertical axis.

Data values visible in the stacked area chart:

	No English at all / I understand...	Low / I understand about 25% of...	Intermediate / I understand about...	High / I understand about 75%...	Very high / Native speaker / I...
Essential	26.77	27.78	39.31	50.31	58.85
Very useful	26.86	35.05	34.66	33.47	27.76
Quite useful	23.35	23.62	18.90	12.45	9.78
A bit useful	14.04	10.73	5.30	2.89	2.17
Not useful at all	8.98	2.82	1.83	0.88	1.43

Legend:
- Essential
- Very useful
- Quite useful
- A bit useful
- Not useful at all

Qs 14/43 - 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 296. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job and to change one's job, and parents' level of English. Questions 23c/52c – 23d/52d and 14/43 – 15/44 (2,014 responses on average).

As regards the dependence relationship created between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job or to change it on the one hand, and parents' job on the other (see Figure 297 below), we found that the relative number of parents who believe that English is essential or very useful rise as parents' jobs get 'better'. On the contrary, the relative number of parents who believe that English is quite useful, a bit useful or not useful at all grows when parents' jobs get 'worse'. We may also draw the attention to Figure 180 above, which let us observe how the relative number of parents with the higher levels of English (bands "High" and "Very high / Native speaker") increases when they have 'better' jobs, whereas the relative number of parents with the lower levels of English (bands "Intermediate", "Low" or "No English at all") grow when they have 'worse' jobs. In other words, parents with 'better' jobs tend to have higher levels of English and, we can deduce at the same time, tend to believe that their higher level of English has helped them have that job. Likewise, we can draw the conclusion that parents with 'worse' jobs also tend to have lower levels of English, which is in line with their beliefs that English is less necessary to get a job.

Qs 9/38. Parents' job.
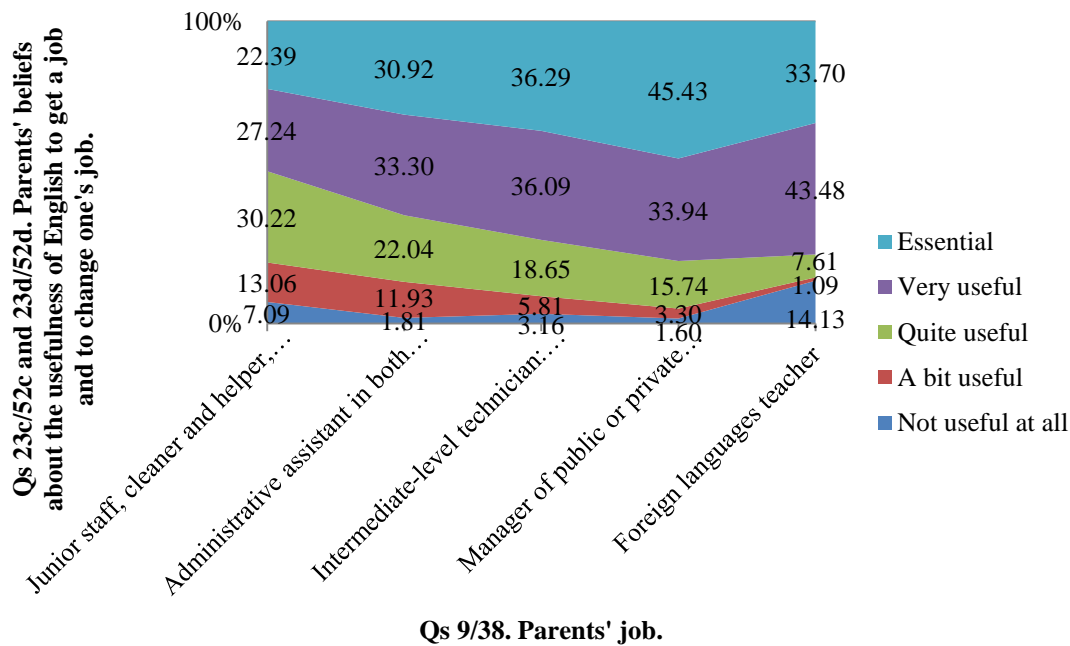
Figure 297. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job and to change one's job, and parents' job. Questions 23c/52c – 23d/52d and 9/38 (1,665 responses on average).

However, this analysis would be incomplete if we did not refer to the fact that, once again, the trends for bands "Essential" and "Not useful at all" observed in Figure 297 above abruptly change their direction when they are crossed by category "Foreign language teachers", thus introducing an anomaly into the general patterns observed. This behaviour had been seen before when variable 9/38 was crossed with variable 24c/53c and, above all, with variable 24a/53a (see figures 287 and 290 above). Because the circumstances underlying variable 9/38 have not changed, we feel inclined to conclude that these irregularities may also have been caused by the low number of absolute frequencies for category "Foreign language teachers".

Finally, we looked at how parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job or to change one's job are affected by their level of schooling. Figure 298 below shows how the relative number of parents who believe that English is essential or very useful increases when parents' level of schooling is higher. On the contrary, we can observe how the relative number of parents who believe that it is quite useful, a bit useful or not useful at all grows when parents' level of schooling is lower.
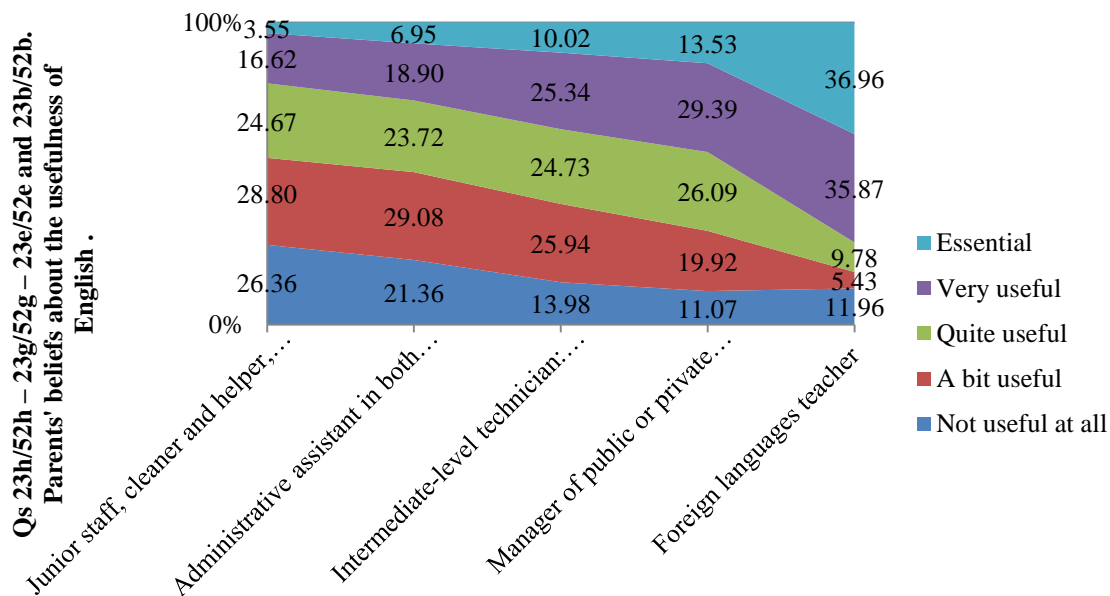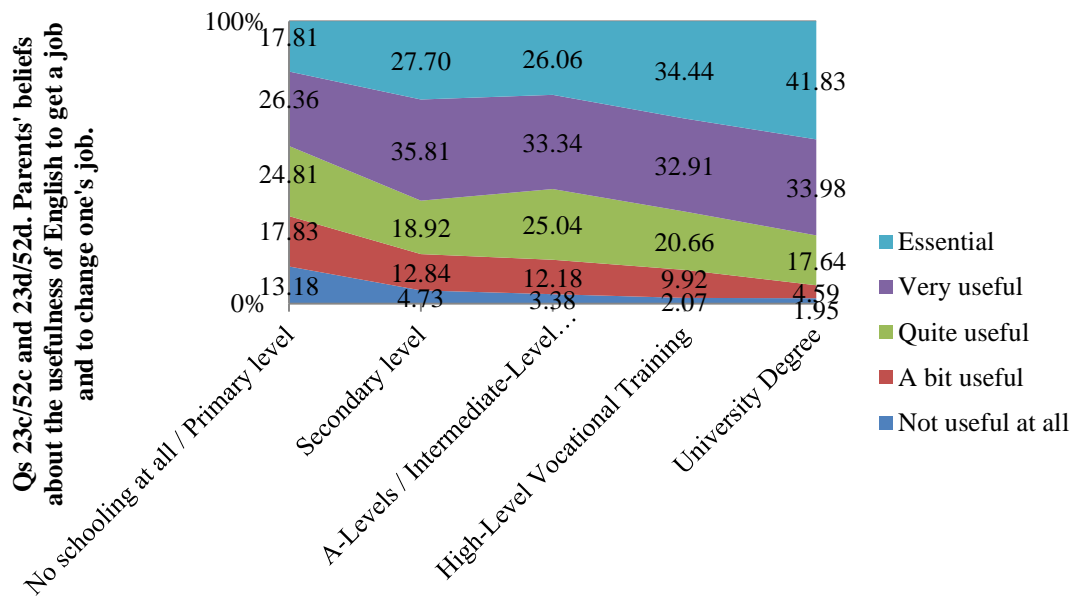
Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling.
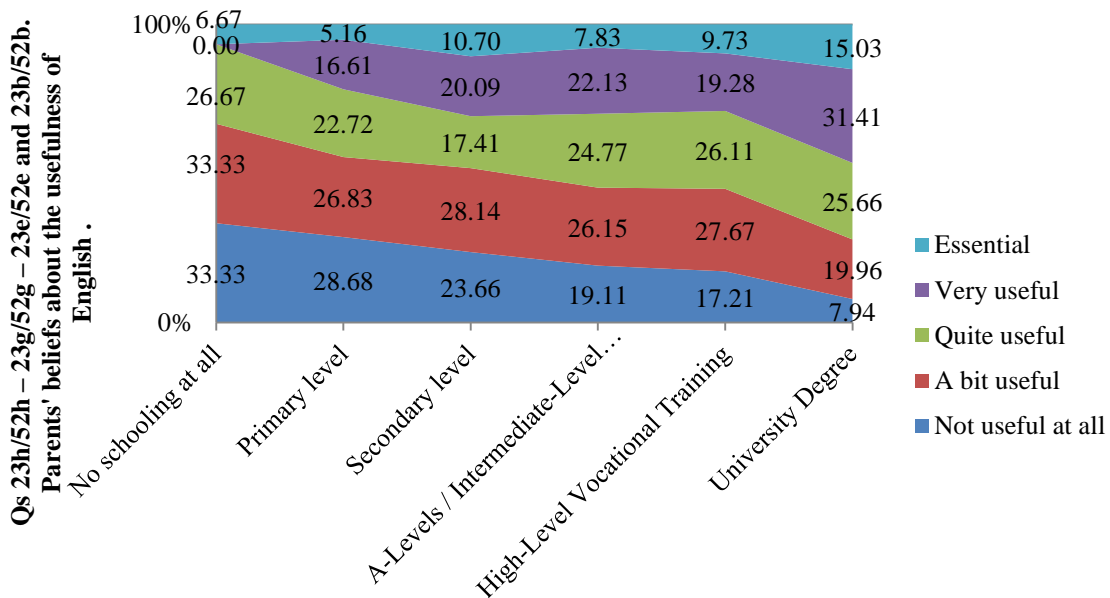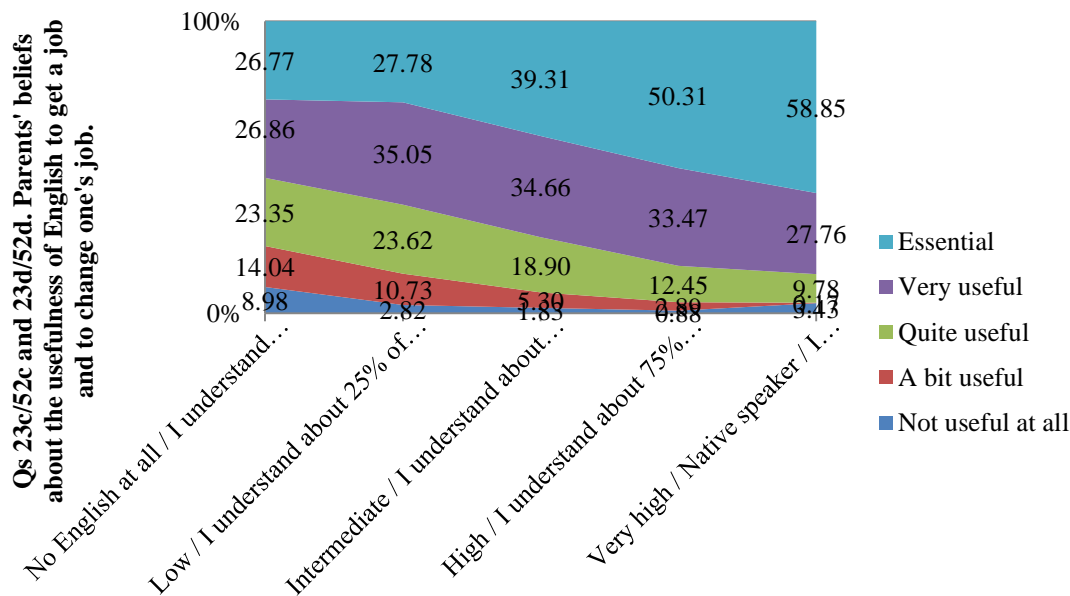
Figure 298. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English to get a job and to change one's job, and parents' highest level of schooling. Questions 23c/52c – 23d/52d and 10/39 (2,015 responses on average).

The analysis of the relationships between parental beliefs and intra-family factors has allowed us to draw a number of conclusions. The first and most important of such conclusions is that, with the exception of parents' belief about the importance of early acquisition (variable 24a/53a), there seems to be a close connection between parental beliefs about foreign language acquisition and about the usefulness of English on the one hand, and intra-family factors on the other. In this respect, we have seen how thirty-six out of the forty-two cross-tabulations analysed produced relevant dependence relationships, with values that affected 70% of the participants in the study or more. Secondly, according to the values of the dependence relationships that have emerged, we can conclude that, in general terms, parents' level of English seems to be the most influential intra-family factor.

However, our attention was attracted by the low degree of dependence between parents' level of English (variable 14/43), and parents' beliefs about the usefulness of early acquisition and about watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English. Furthermore, as we can observe in Figure 299 below, there are not very clear tendencies that can help us visualise how parents' beliefs are influenced by their level of English. Perhaps, the reason may stem from the fact that

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many parents may not have learnt English at a very early age and are thus unaware of its advantages.

Qs 14/43. Parents' level of English.
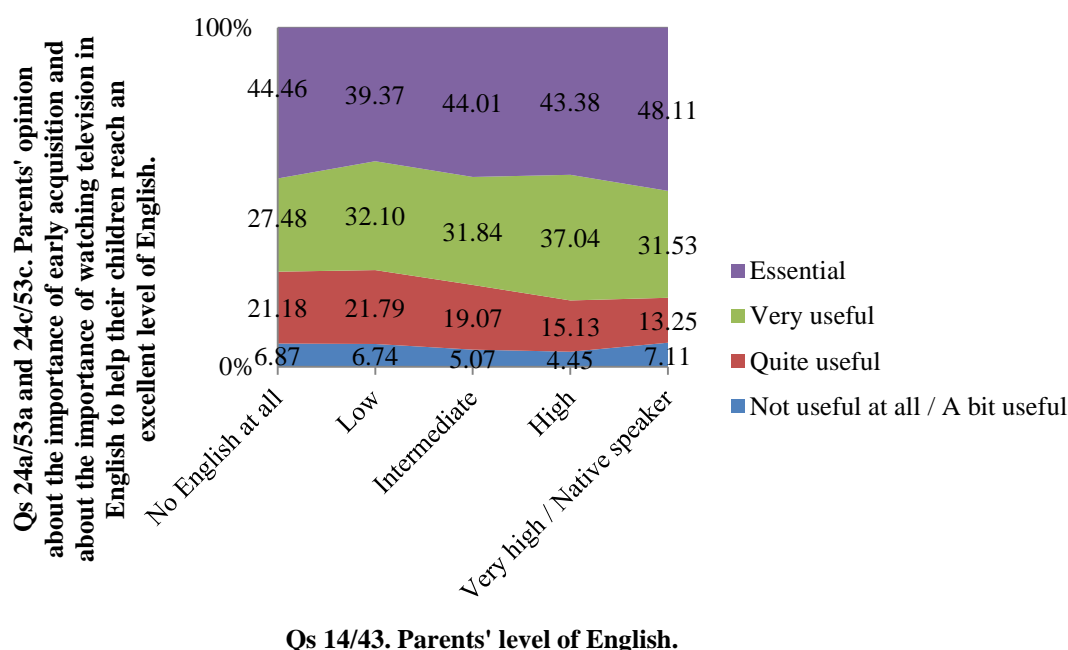
Figure 299. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of early acquisition and about watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English, and parents' level of English. Questions 24a/53a – 24c/53c and 14/43 (1,976 responses on average).

4.7.2.3.3 Parental beliefs / External factors

The analysis of variables affecting parental beliefs ends with the study of the role played by external factors. As in previous sections, we will commence with parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition. As we can see in Table 78 below, four cross-tabulations produced relevant dependence relationships.

Table 78. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition and external factors.

Q 80		Q 78g	
Qs 24c/53c	80.52	Qs 24c/53c	83.14
Qs 24a/53a	50.93	Qs 24a/53a	78.78
Qs 30/59	49.43	Qs 30/59	76.93

As regards the dependence relationship between parents' beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English to achieve high levels of English (variable 24c/53c) and

whether parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English (variable 80), we can observe in Figure 300 below how the relative number of parents who believe that viewing television in English is essential rises when they share their experiences with other families, whereas the relative number of parents who believe that it is very useful, quite useful, a bit useful and not useful at all increases when they do not share their experiences.
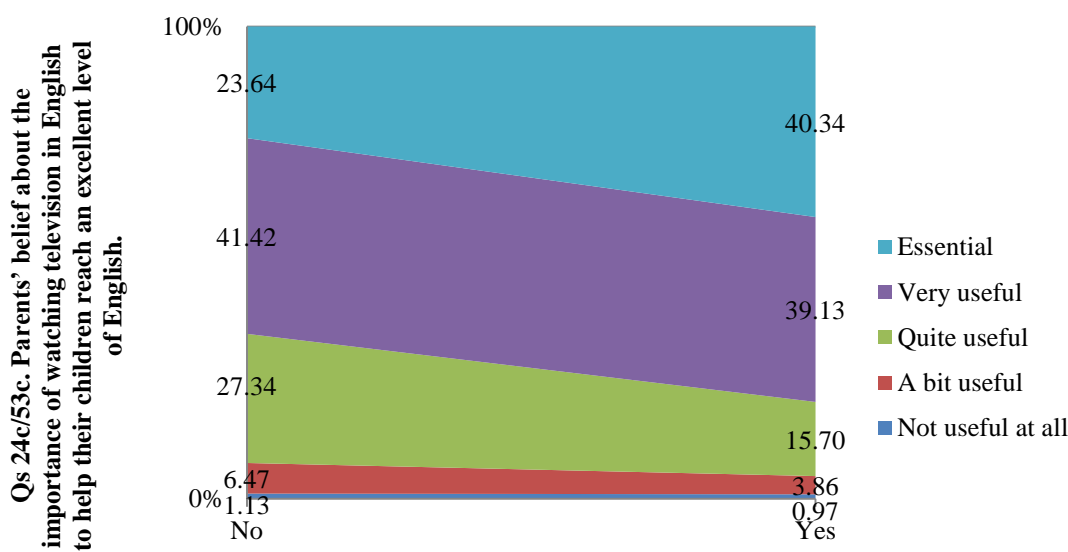
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 300. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English and whether they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families. Questions 24c/53c and 80a/80b (1,387 responses).

However, this cross-tabulation could also be interpreted by inverting the cause-effect relationship between the two variables. In this respect, we can observe in Figure 301 below how the relative number of parents that share their experiences with other families rises when parents believe that viewing television in English is more important. Such interpretation becomes reasonable if we accept that parents may feel the need to encourage other parents to embrace this linguistic practice.
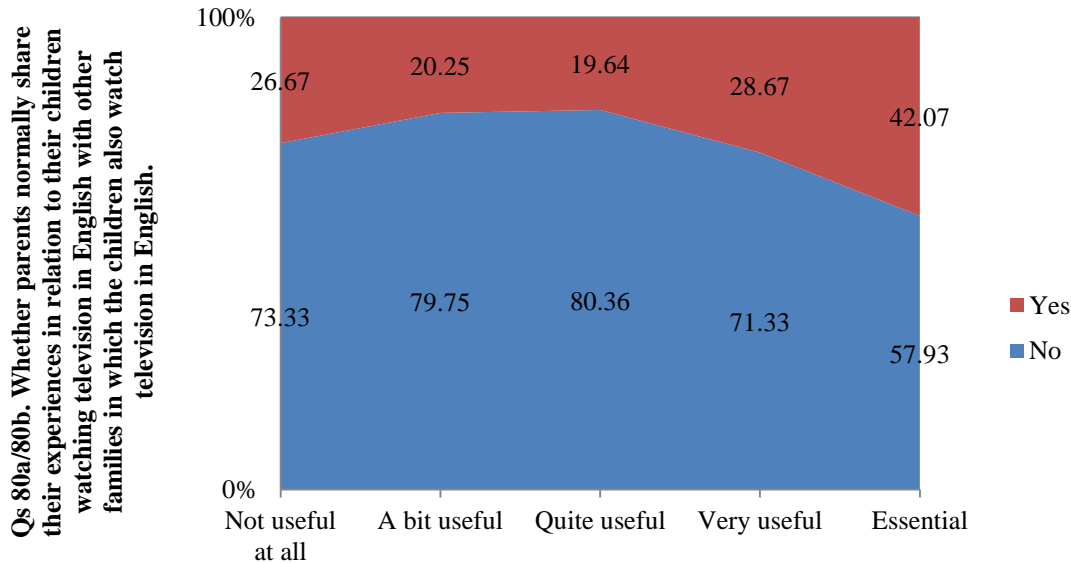
Qs 24c/53c. Parents' belief about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English.

Figure 301. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families and their beliefs about the importance of viewing television in English. Questions 80a/80b and 24c/53c (1,387 responses).

Despite not having produced relevant levels of dependence, two more cross-tabulations have attracted our attention. The first refers to the cross-tabulation between variables 24a/53a and 80a/80b, whose pattern of distribution resembles the one seen in Figure 300 above. Thus, we can observe in Figure 302 below how the relative number of parents who believe that early acquisition is essential rises when parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families, whereas the relative number of parents who believe that it is very useful, quite useful, a bit useful and not useful at all increases when they do not share their experiences.
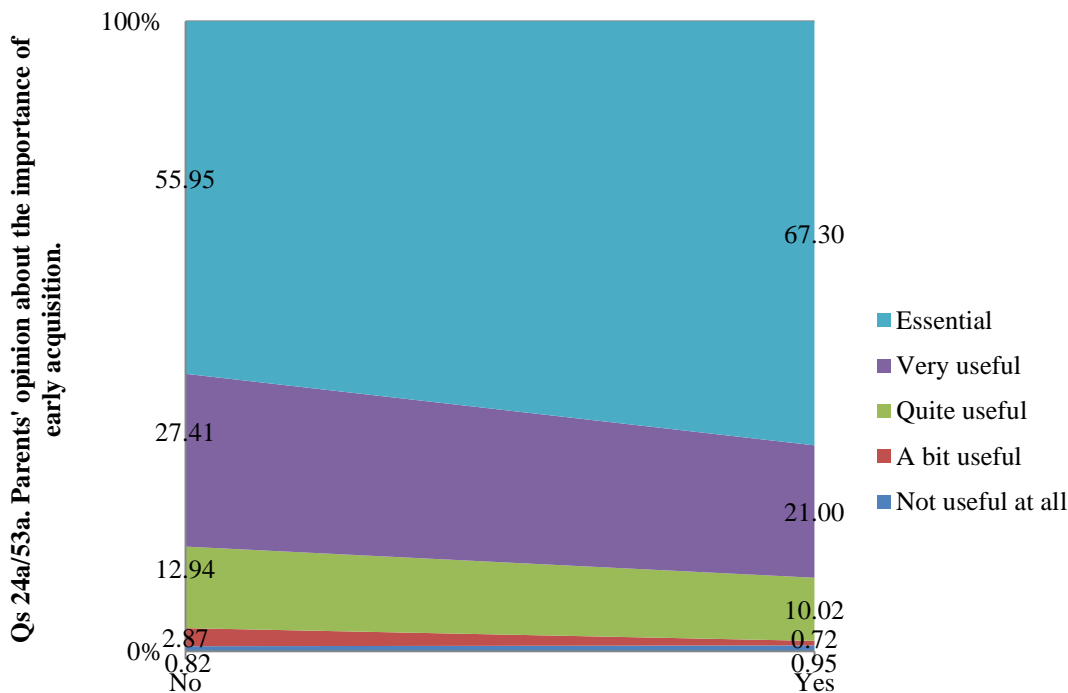
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 302. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the importance of early acquisition and whether they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families. Questions 24a/53a and 80a/80b (1,393 responses).

The pattern of distribution of relative frequencies obtained from the second cross-tabulation mentioned above (see Figure 303 below) reveals that the relative number of parents that hope or expect their children to reach native-like or very high levels of English increases when they share their experiences with other parents. The other three bands, which correspond to the lower levels of English that parents expect their children to reach, grow when parents do not share their experiences. It seems, therefore, that sharing experiences could also be helping parents improve their hopes or expectations.

Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 303. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between the level of English parents think that their children will reach and whether parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families. Questions 30/59 and 80a/80b (1,394 responses).

By changing the cause-effect relationship, we obtained the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies that can be observed in Figure 304 below, in which we can see how the relative number of parents that share their experiences with other parents grows when they have higher hopes or expectations regarding their children's level of attainment, and diminishes when they their hopes or expectations are lower.

Qs 30/59. The level of English parents think that their children will reach.

Figure 304. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families and the level of English parents think that their children will reach. Questions 80a/80b and 30/59 (1,394 responses).

As regards the influence exercised by variable 78g (through which parents claimed that their decision to make their children view television in English had not been influenced by any external factor as it had always been very clear to them), we can observe in Figure 305 below how the relative number of parents who believe that both early acquisition and viewing television in English are essential or very useful rises when they agree more with the statement that their decision to make their children watch television in English had been influenced by their own judgement and not by other people's opinion.
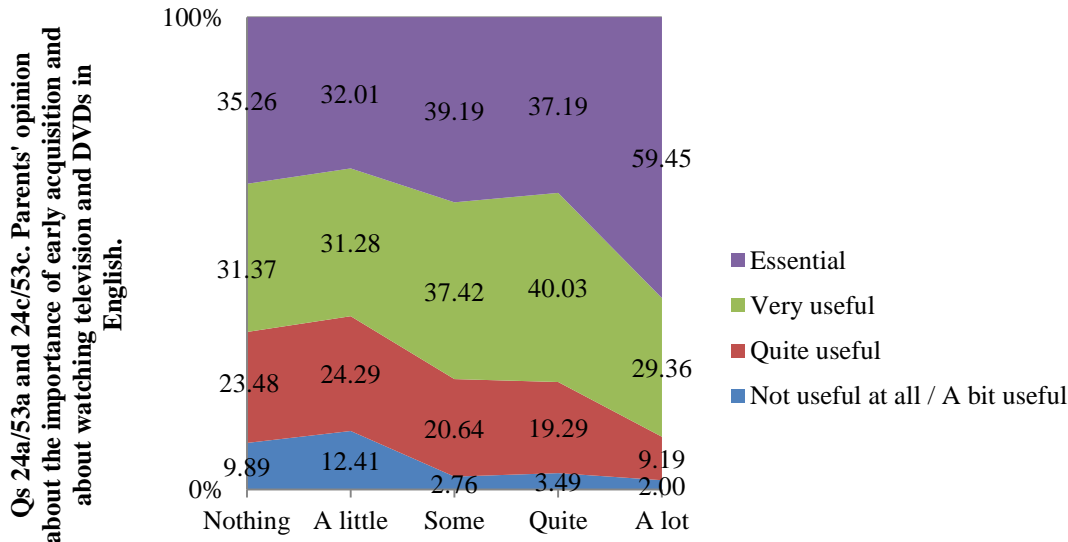
Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

Figure 305. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition and about watching television and DVDs in English, and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion. Questions 24a/53a – 24c/53c and 78g (1,230 responses on average).

If we looked at this cross-tabulation from the opposite angle, changing the cause-effect relationship, we would be able to see that parents agree to have relied more on their own judgement when they believe that early acquisition and watching television are essential, very useful or quite useful to help their children reach higher levels of competence. This consistency could be explained by De Houwer's (1999) impact belief (Fig. 306).
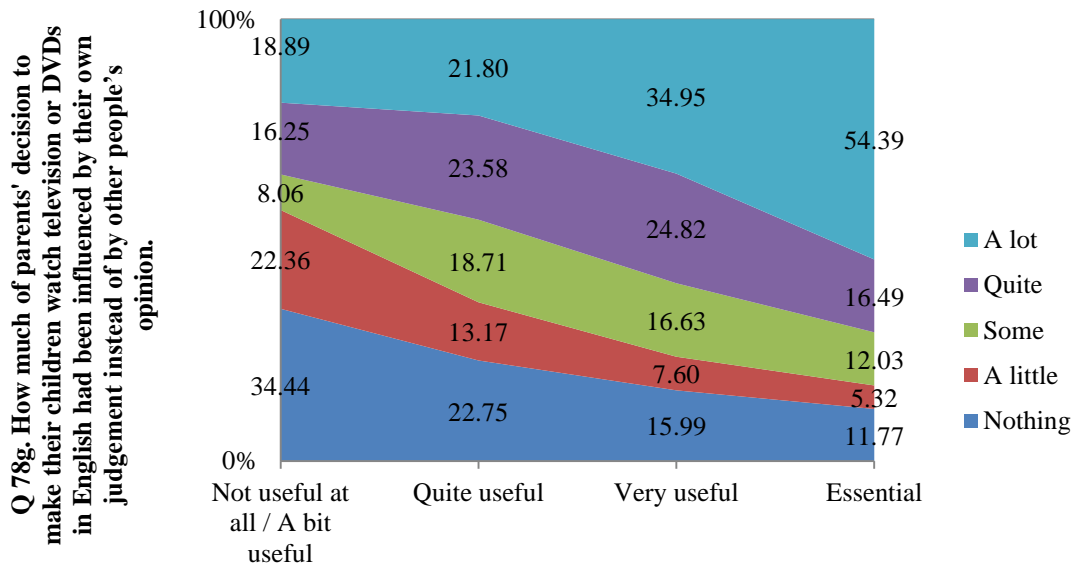
Qs 24a/53a and 24c/53c. Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition and about watching television and DVDs in English.

Figure 306. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion, and parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition and about watching television and DVDs in English. Questions 78g and 24a/53a – 24c/53c (1,230 responses on average).

Concerning the interactions between variable 78g and variable 30/59, which measures the level of English that parents believe that their children will be able to reach, we found that both directions of the causal relationships were meaningful. On the one hand, as we can observe in Figure 307 below, the relative number of parents with the strongest trust in their own judgement (bands "A lot" and "Quite") increases when parents have higher hopes or expectations about their children's future level of attainment in English. Contrariwise, the relative number of parents whose decisions to make their children view television in English have been less motivated by their own judgement (bands "Some", "A little" and "Nothing") rises when their hopes or expectations about their children's future level of English get lower.
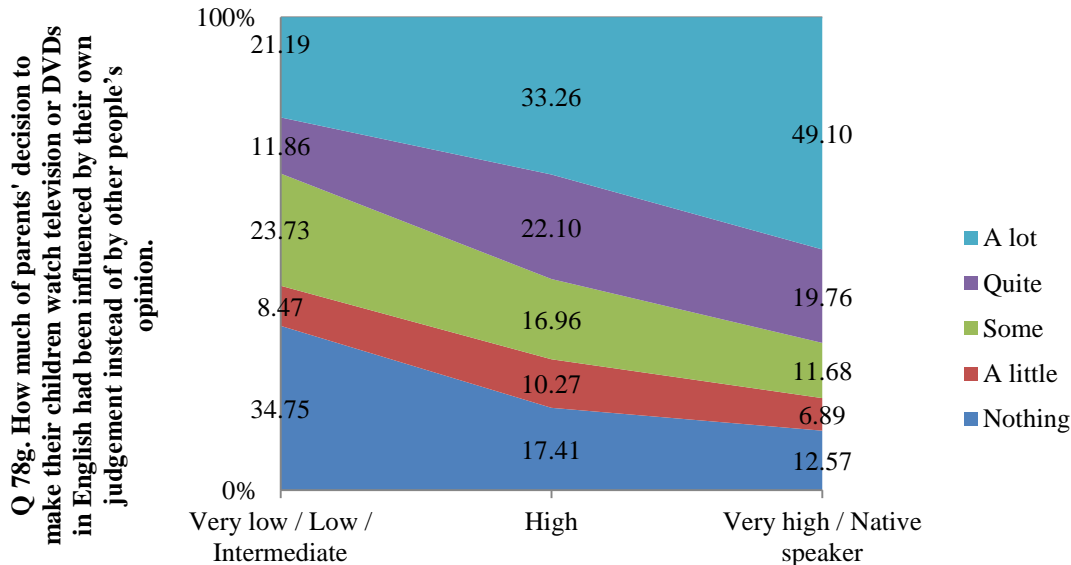
Qs 30/59. The level of English that parents think their children will be able to reach.

Figure 307. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion, and parents' opinion about the level of English that their children will be able to reach. Questions 78g and 30/59 (1,234 responses).

Looking at the relationship between these two variables from the opposite angle, we can observe how the relative number of parents with the highest hopes or expectations (bands "Native speaker / Very high") grows when they show an increasing trust in their own judgement (see Figure 308 below).
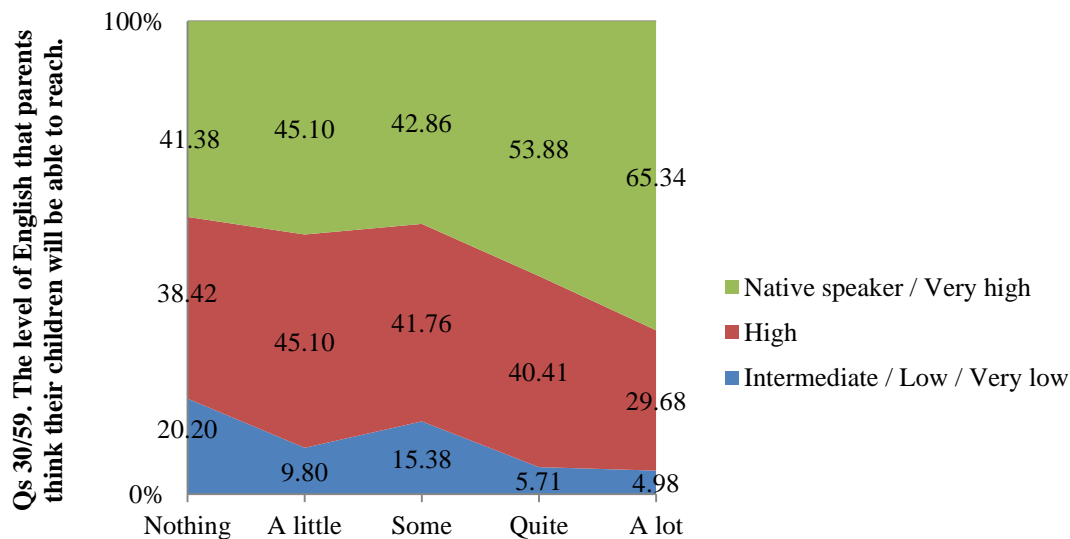
Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

Figure 308. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' opinion about the level of English that their children will be able to reach and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion. Questions 30/59 and 78g (1,234 responses).

Finally, we conclude this block of analysis with a reference to the dependence relationship between parental beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English on the one hand, and variables 78g and 80 on the other. As we can see in Table 79 below, five relevant dependence relationships were obtained.

Table 79. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English and external factors.

Q 80		Q 78g	
Qs 23h/52h	83.43	Qs 23e/52e	81.25
Qs 23g/52g	80.07	Qs 23h/52h	78.05
Qs 23e/52e	76.58	Qs 23b/52b	65.72
Qs 23b/52b	68.44	Qs 23g/52g	64.53

As we can observe in the general pattern of distribution of the average relative frequencies in Figure 309 below, the relative number of parents who believe that English is essential, very useful or quite useful for the purposes described under the variables in question rises when they share their experiences with other families in the same situation and decreases when they do not. By contrast, the relative number of

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parents who think that English is a bit useful or not useful at all grows when they do not share their experiences and decreases when they do. In this case, we could presume that contact with other families is a source of influence on parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English.
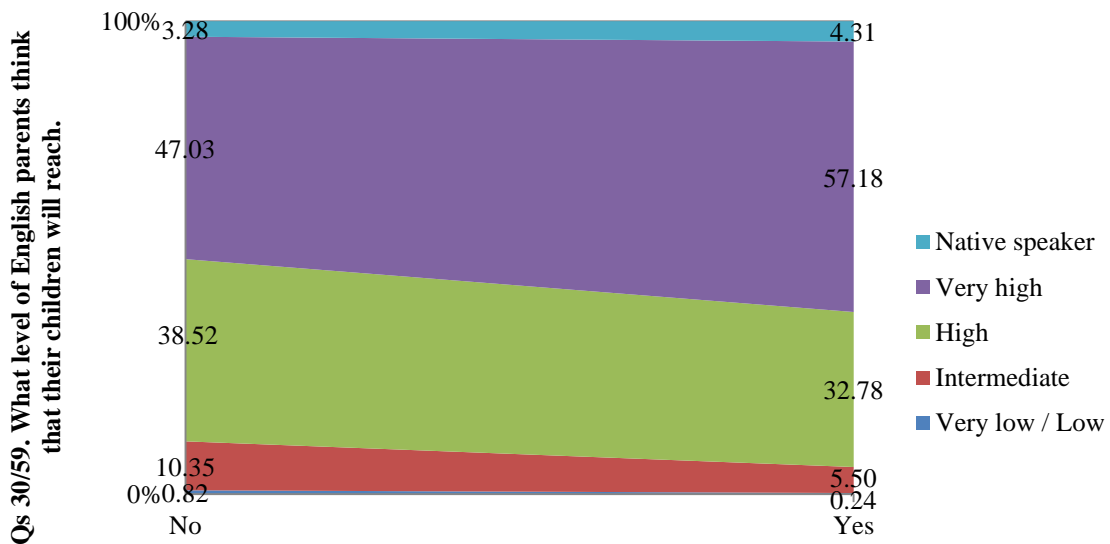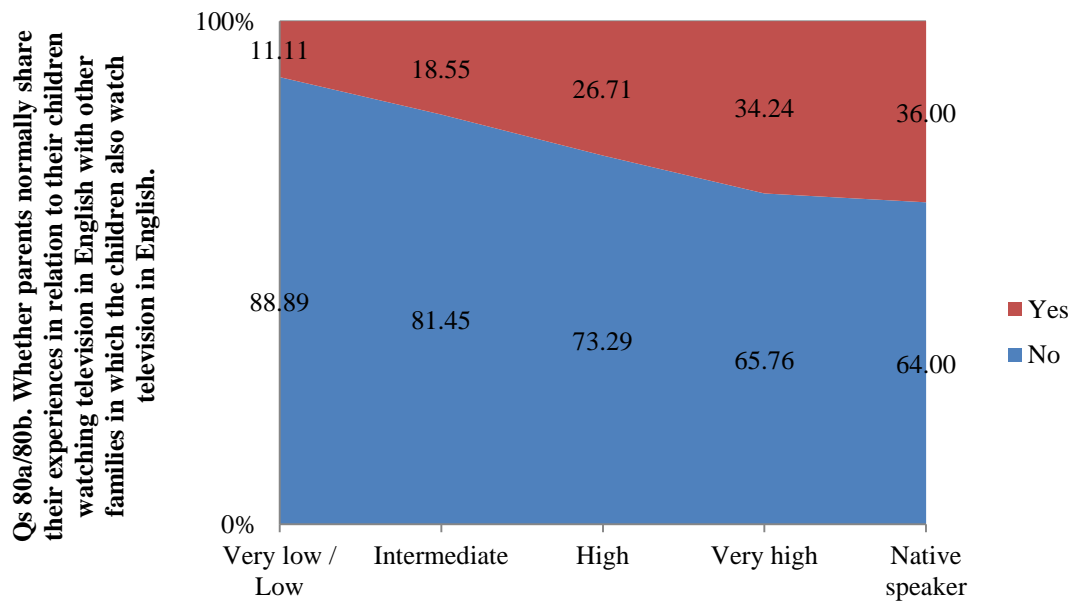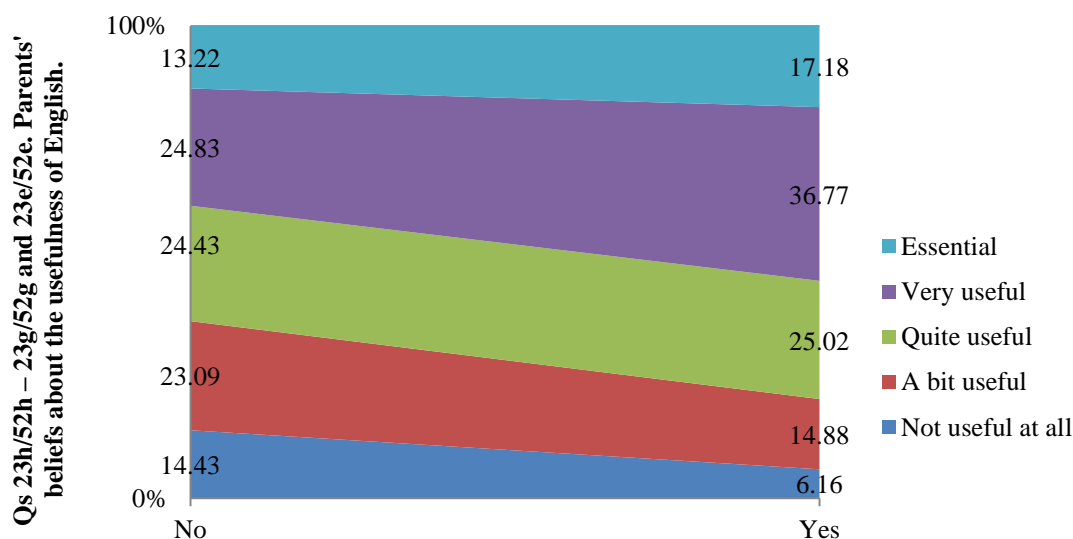

Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 309. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English, and whether they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families. Questions 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e and 80a/80b (1,387 responses on average).

If we approached the interaction between these two sets of variables from a different perspective by swapping axes *x* and *y*, the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies obtained would look like in Figure 310 below, which would lead us to assert that the relative number of parents that share their experiences with other families in the same situation grows as their opinion about the usefulness of English becomes more and more positive. In other words, the more positive attitudes parents have about the usefulness of English, the more they talk about this linguistic practice with other parents. Once again, we could conclude that parents may feel compelled to inform other parents about the usefulness of English.

Qs 23h/52h – 23g/52g and 23e/52e. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English.
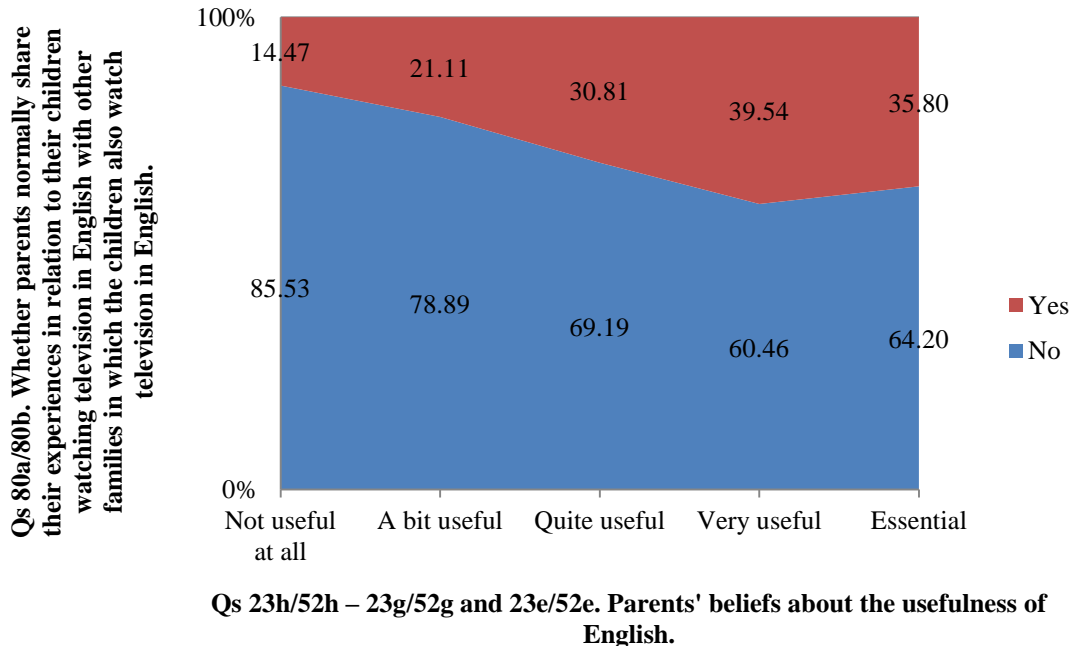
Figure 310. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families, and parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English. Questions 80a/80b and 23h/52h – 23g/52g – 23e/52e (1,387 responses on average).

As regards the relationship between parents' belief about the importance of English for the instrumental and the integrative purposes that have been analysed, and variable 78g, as we can observe in Figure 311 below, the relative number of parents who agree more strongly (bands "A lot" and "Quite") rises when they believe that English is more and more useful. On the contrary, the relative number of parents that show some agreement, agree little or do not agree at all with question 78g steadily increases when they believe that English is less and less useful. In other words, the strength of parents' views, as expressed in variable 78g, seems to have been shaped by parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English in a very consistent and coherent way.

Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

	Not useful at all	A bit useful	Quite useful	Very useful	Essential
A lot	27.50	29.71	36.85	44.90	56.40
Quite	13.21	16.00	22.63	21.32	15.99
Some	12.71	19.77	17.32	14.48	9.10
A little	12.46	15.18	8.04	6.68	5.37
Nothing	34.13	19.34	15.16	12.62	13.14

Qs 23b/52b, 23c/52c, 23d/52d, 23e/52e, 23g/52g and 23h/52h. Parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English.

Figure 311. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion, and parents' beliefs about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English. Questions 78g and 23b/52b – 23c/52c – 23d/52d – 23e/52e –23g/52g – 23h/52h (1,225 responses on average).

The analysis and discussion of the dependence relationships between parental beliefs on the one hand, and attitudes, ideology, intra-family and external factors on the other, has resulted in a number of findings. First of all, 62 out of a total of 77 cross-tabulations that were carried out have revealed strong dependence relationships affecting 70% of the participants or more.

Secondly, the relative frequencies observed tend to follow a clear pattern of distribution. In this respect, we have found that the most positive values on axis *y*, which represent the most positive beliefs, tend to co-occur with the most positive values on axis *x*, which represent each of the factors that have been identified as being relevant components of family language policy. Likewise, the most negative values on axis *y*, which represent parents' most negative beliefs, tend to co-occur with the most negative values on axis *x*.

As regards parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition, the analysis of parents' beliefs about the importance of watching television in English to help their children reach an excellent level of English (variable 24c/53c) produced the highest number of relevant dependence relationships, with similar tendencies in the patterns of distribution of relative frequencies. In this respect, we found that viewing television in English tends

to be considered more important by parents who show more interest in learning foreign languages, in English and in Anglo-Saxon culture, and who hope or expect their children to reach higher levels of competence in English. In a similar way, watching television in English is deemed to be more relevant when parents have a higher level of schooling completed, a higher level of English, better jobs and positive experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television. Finally, we have been able to see that more parents believe that watching television in English is essential when they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families and when it had always been very clear to them that their children should watch television in English.

Concerning parents' hopes or expectations as to their children's level of attainment in English (variable 30/59), we found that parents have higher hopes or expectations when they claim to have more interest in learning foreign languages, in English and in Anglo-Saxon culture. Parents' expectations are also higher when they agree with making subtitling obligatory for television channels, although it could also be claimed that parents tend to agree with subtitling when they have higher hopes. Similarly, parents' hopes and expectations rise when they claim to have a higher level of English, a higher level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs in English, better jobs, a higher level of schooling completed and, to a lesser extent, positive experiences regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs any time in their lives. Finally, parents' expectations rise when their decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of other people's opinion and, again to a lesser extent, when they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families.

Regarding parents' beliefs about the importance of very early acquisition to help children reach higher levels of competence in English (variable 24a/53a), we found that parents tend to believe that very early acquisition is more important when they claim to be more interested in English and in Anglo-Saxon culture. They also believe that early acquisition is more important when they have a higher level of schooling completed and 'better' jobs and, finally, when they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families and when their decision to make their

children watch television or DVDs in English has been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

Next, as regards parents' beliefs about the usefulness of English for their personal life, for their personal satisfaction, to read books, for entertainment, to get a job or to change one's job, we discovered that parents believe that English is more useful when they claim to have more interest in learning foreign languages, in English and in Anglo-Saxon culture; when they hope or expect their children to reach higher levels of competence in English, when they have better jobs, higher levels of schooling completed, higher levels of English, when they have had positive experiences regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television and when they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Finally, we have also been able to observe how many cross-tabulations are also meaningful when the cause-effect relationship is reversed. In other words, we have found that certain ideologies, attitudes and external factors vary depending on parents' beliefs. In this respect, we have seen, for example, that parents tend to agree more often with subtitling when they believe that watching television in English is more important, when they hope that their children will reach higher levels of attainment in English and when they believe that English is more useful for their personal life, for their personal satisfaction, to read books, for entertainment, to get a job or to change one's job. Likewise, we have learnt that parents are more interested in learning a foreign language, in English and in Anglo-Saxon culture when they believe that English is more useful for their personal life, for their personal satisfaction, to read books, for entertainment, to get a job or to change one's job. Next, we learnt that parents tend to share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families when they believe that watching television in English is more and more important, when they hope their children will each higher levels of proficiency in English and when they believe that English is more useful. And to conclude, parents tend to rely more on their own judgement to make their children view television in English when they are more convinced about the importance of very early acquisition and about the importance of watching television in English, when they hope or expect their children to reach higher levels of attainment in English, and when they believe that English is more useful for

their personal life, for their personal satisfaction, to read books, for entertainment, to get a job or to change one's job.

In conclusion, we have been able to observe very regular patterns of behaviour in the way in which parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition and about the usefulness of English are affected by parental attitudes and ideology, by intra-family factors and by external factors, and also in the way in which the latter are affected by parental beliefs.

We end here the analysis and discussion of those factors from family language policy that seem to have some influence on parents beliefs about foreign language acquisition and about the integrative and the instrumental usefulness of English. In what comes next, we will be looking at the dependence relationship between parents' attitudes and ideology on the one hand, and intra-family and external factors.

4.7.2.4 Parents' attitudes and ideology

Two more blocks of analysis remain to be analysed before concluding this chapter, namely those pertaining to how parents' attitudes and ideology affect and are affected by intra-family and external factors on the one hand, and how intra-family factors and external factors affect each other.

4.7.2.4.1 Parents' attitudes and ideology / Intra-family factors

We shall commence looking at the dependence relationships between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages (variable 20/49), towards English (variable 21/50), towards Anglo-Saxon culture (variable 22/51) and towards subtitling instead of dubbing (variable 31/60) on the one hand, and intra-family factors on the other.

As we can see in Table 80 below, the twenty cross-tabulations studied produced relevant dependence relationships.

Table 80. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' attitudes and ideology, and intra-family factors.

Qs 14/43		Qs 15/44		Qs 9/38		Qs 13/42		Qs 10/39	
Qs 20/49	96.91	Qs 21/50	96.99	Qs 21/50	84.55	Qs 20/49	89.41	Qs 21/50	90.85
Qs 21/50	96.77	Qs 20/49	96.51	Qs 20/49	84.38	Qs 21/50	86.26	Qs 20/49	87.18
Qs 22/51	94.39	Qs 22/51	94.56	Qs 22/51	81.17	Qs 22/51	84.01	Qs 22/51	84.55
Qs 31/60	89.24	Qs 31/60	86.27	Qs 31/60	79.60	Qs 31/60	85.29	Qs 31/60	90.42

Let's commence with parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. We first cross-tabulated the three variables with variables 14/43 and 15/44, which correspond to parents' level of English and parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs in English respectively. As we can see in Figure 312 below, the relative number of parents who are very interested or quite interested in the three variables analysed grows as their level of English rises too, whereas the relative number of parents who are a bit interested, very little interested or not interested at all grows as parents' level of English gets lower. In other words, the most positive values on both Likert scales tend to co-occur and the most negative values on axis *x* tend to co-occur with the most negative values on axis *y*. We may conclude, therefore, claiming that our findings as regards the role played by parents' level of English in relation to parents' attitudes are in line with the general tendency that has emerged in our research concerning the role played by parents' level of English in relation to other variables.
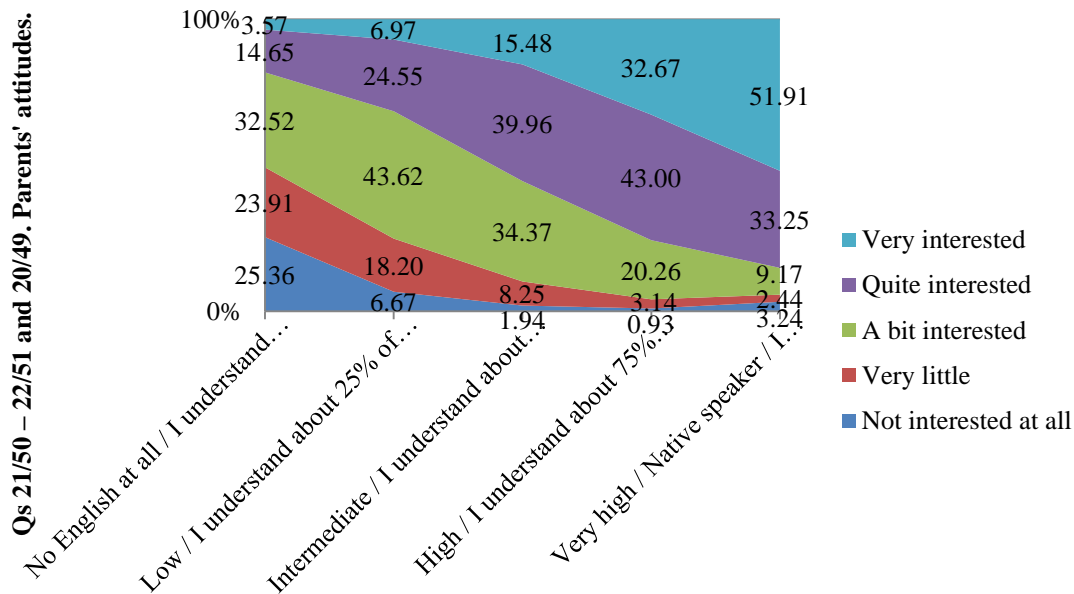
Qs 14/43 and 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 312. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and parents' level of English and parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs in English. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 14/43 – 15/44 (2,022 responses on average).

By changing the direction of the cause-effect relationship, we obtained another meaningful pattern of distribution of relative frequencies. In this case, we can appreciate how parents' level of English has been influenced by their attitudes, that is, by how much they like learning foreign languages, how interested they are in English and how much they like Anglo-Saxon culture. Thus, we can see how the relative number of parents within the three top bands, which represent the highest levels of English, grows when parents claim to be more interested in the three aspect analysed. By contrast, the relative number of parents with the two lowest levels of English rises when parents' interest in the three variables mentioned above decreases (see Figure 313 below).
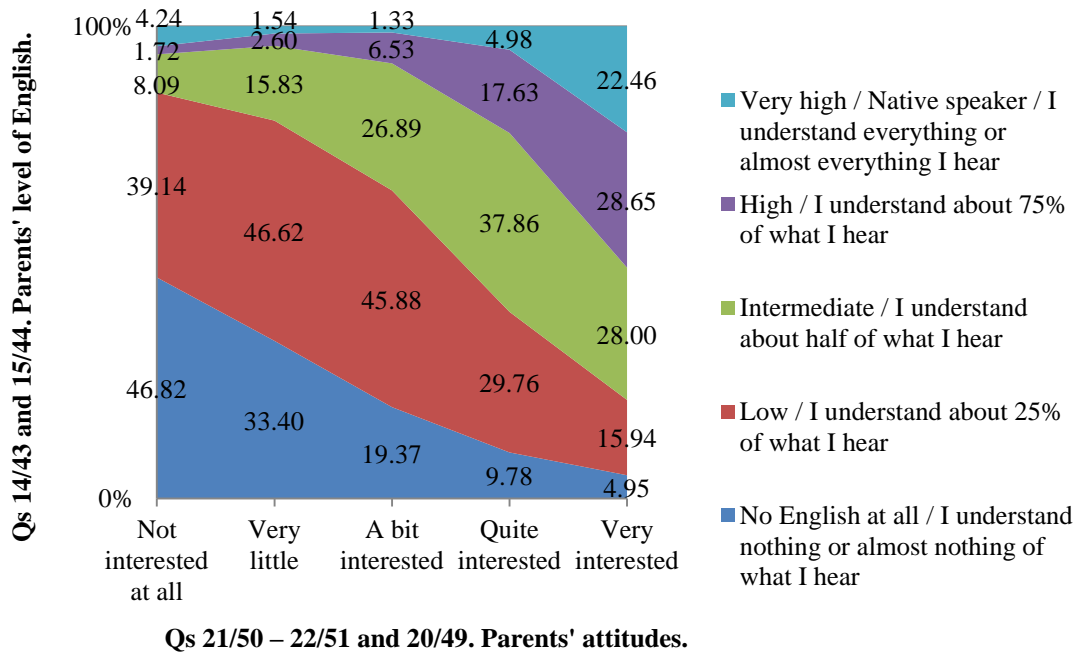
Figure 313. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' level of English and parents' level of comprehension of unsubtitled television and DVDs in English and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 14/43 – 15/44 and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (2,022 responses on average).

The third series of cross-tabulations was carried out using variable 9/38, which pertains to the intra-family factor that measures parents' jobs. Figure 314 below reveals that the dynamics underlying the dependence relationships between parents' attitudes and parents' jobs very much resemble the tendency that has emerged in the previous cross-tabulations. Thus, the relative number of parents who claim to be very interested in the aspects under consideration gradually increases as their jobs get increasingly 'better', not surprisingly with a dramatic rise in the case of teachers. For the rest of the bands, the relative number of parents decreases when their jobs worsen.

Figure 314. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and parents' level of English and parents' job. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 9/38 (1,669 responses on average).

We would like to draw the attention to the high relative number of foreign language teachers who claimed not to be interested in English at all (see Figure 315 below). Two possible explanations could help us understand this finding. On the one hand, those who affirmed not to be interested in English could be teachers of a different foreign language. On the other, the finding may be invalidated due to the small absolute number of frequencies obtained.
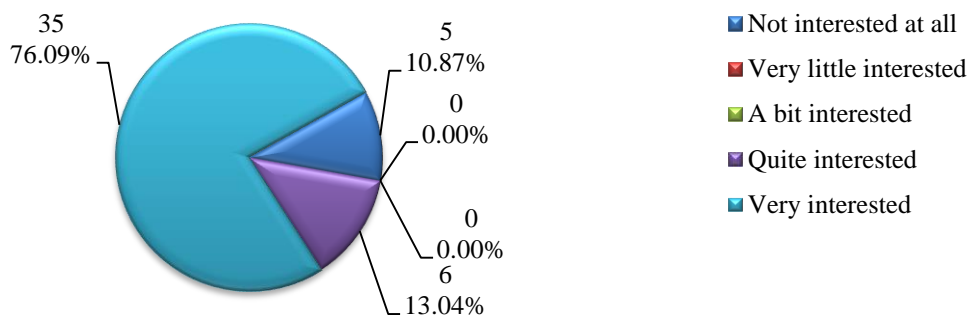
Figure 315. Absolute and relative (%) frequencies concerning foreign language teachers' interest in English. Questions 21/50 and 9/38 (46 responses).

The fourth element of analysis in this series is variable 13/42, which measures parents' experience in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, video or

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DVDs at any time in their lives. As we can observe in Figure 316 below, the relative number of parents who are very, or quite interested in the elements under study rises when they have had positive experiences. By contrast, the relative number of parents who are a bit interested, very little interested or not interested at all grows when they have had negative experiences. Therefore, we may conclude affirming that parents' positive experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, video or DVDs at any time in their lives lead to an increase in parents' interest in the elements under analysis. Contrariwise, bad experiences result in a loss of interest.
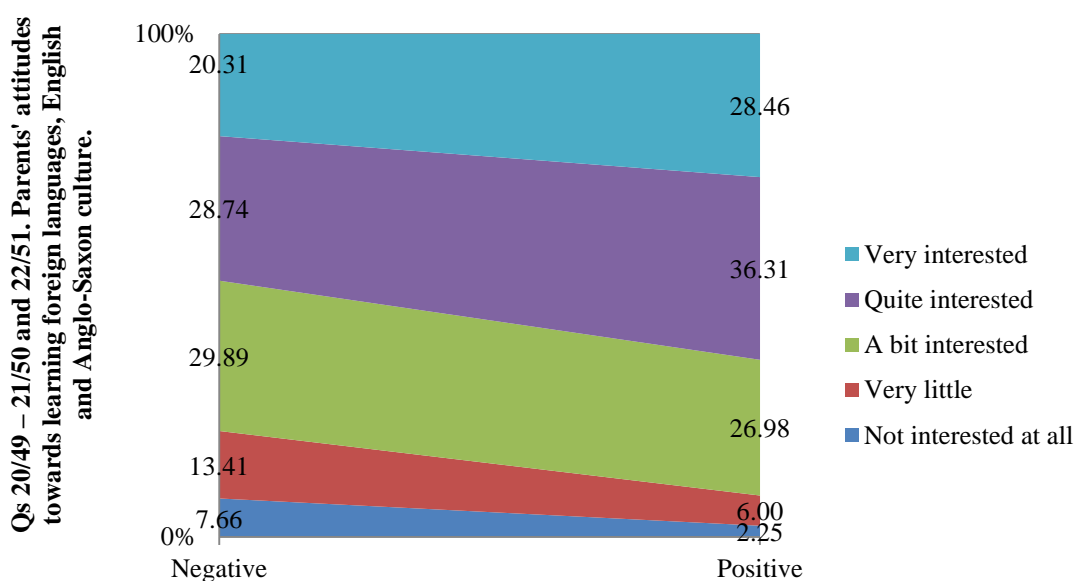
Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 316. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and parents' experience in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, video or DVDs at any time in their lives. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 13/42 (992 responses on average).

This cross-tabulation is also meaningful if we alter the direction of the cause-effect relationship. As Figure 317 below reflects, the relative number of parents with positive experiences concerning learning foreign languages through viewing television, video or DVDs at any time in their lives rises when they show more interest in the items under discussion. On the other hand, this number decreases when parents claim to have less interest in the items to which we have referred.
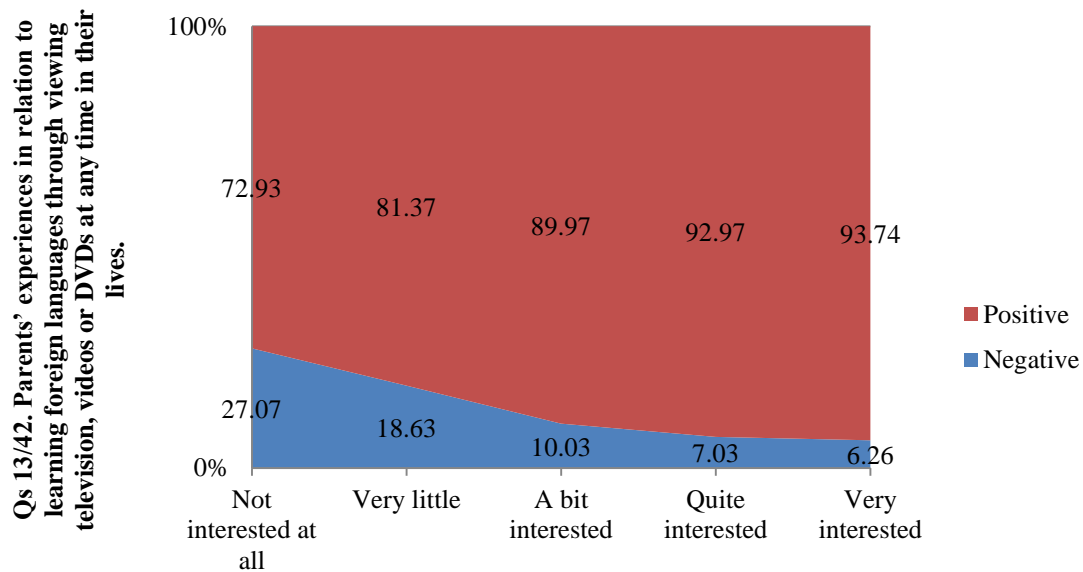
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Qs 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 317. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' experience in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, video or DVDs at any time in their lives and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Questions 13/42 and 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 (992 responses on average).

The fifth and last element in this series corresponds to variable 10/39, which measures parents' highest level of schooling completed. As Figure 318 below indicates, the relative number of parents who are very, quite or a bit interested in the elements under study grows as their highest level of schooling completed rises as well. Conversely, the relative number of parents who are very little interested or not interested at all in those elements grows when they have a lower level of schooling completed. Therefore, as with variable 13/42 before, we may conclude by asserting that parents' higher level of schooling completed leads to an increase in parents' interest in the elements under analysis and that a lower level of schooling results in a lower interest.

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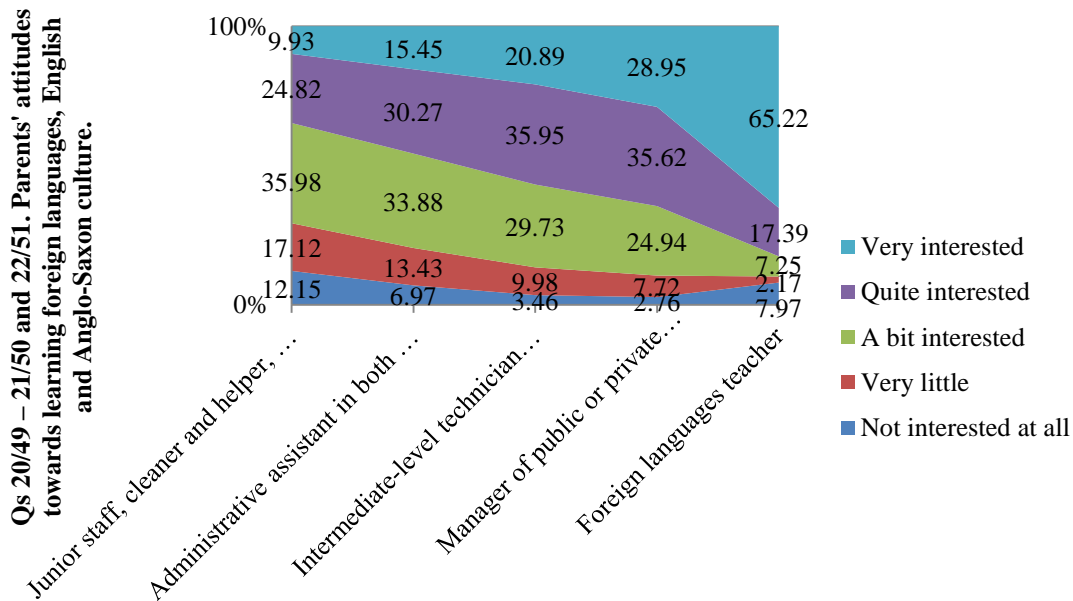**Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling completed.**

Figure 318. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and parents' highest level of schooling completed. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 10/39 (2,023 responses on average).

Next, we will deal with variable 31/60, which measures whether parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles, and how this variable is affected by intra-family factors. In this respect, the first finding refers to the role played by parents' level of English. As Figure 319 below reveals, parents' opinion about subtitling is clearly shaped by parents' level of English so that the relative number of parents that would agree with subtitling steadily grows as their level of English rises, whereas the relative number of parents that would disagree rises as parents' level of English decreases.
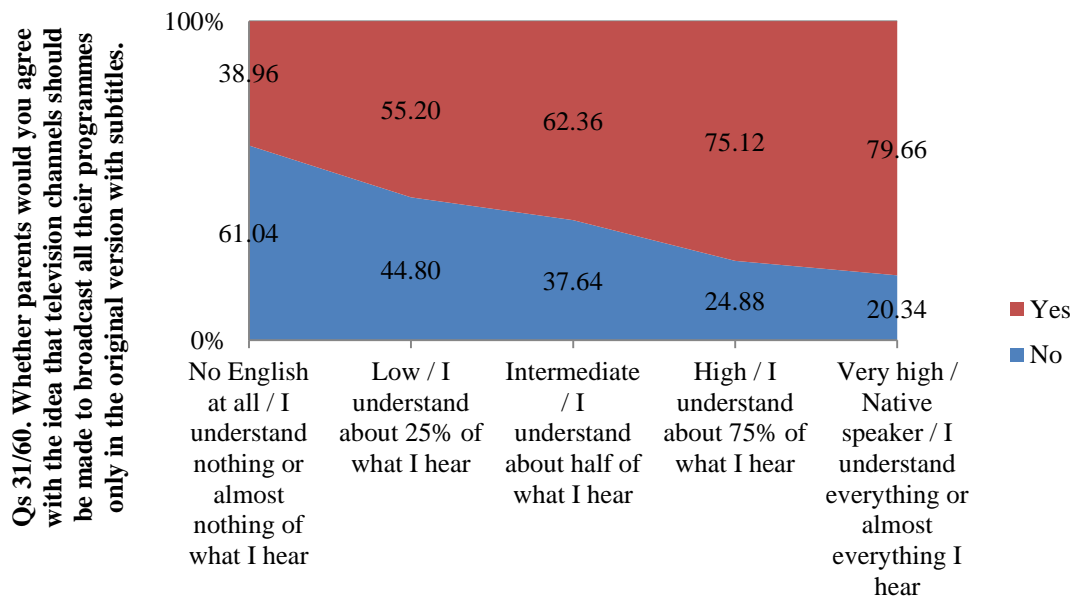
Qs 14/43 and 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 319. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would you agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parents' level of English. Questions 31/60 and 14/43 – 15/44 (1,614 responses on average).

This finding will shed more light on another finding that we had reported further above, at the beginning of Chapter 2. In that case, we had found that the number of parents that would support subtitling instead of dubbing clearly outnumbers those who would not. However, this new finding has helped us understand that parents' positioning in this respect is clearly influenced by their level of English.

Finally, as figures 320, 321 and 322 below show, similar patterns of distribution emerged when we cross-tabulated variable 31/60 with variables 9/38 (parents' job), 13/42 (parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives) and 10/39 (parents' highest level of schooling completed). What these patterns of distribution of relative frequencies are telling us is that the relative number of parents that would agree with subtitling tends to rise when parents have 'better' jobs, when they have higher levels of schooling completed and when they have had positive experiences learning foreign language through television-viewing. By contrast, the relative number of parents that would prefer dubbing to subtitling tends to grow when they have 'worse' jobs, when they have lower levels of schooling completed and when they have had negative experiences learning foreign languages through watching television.
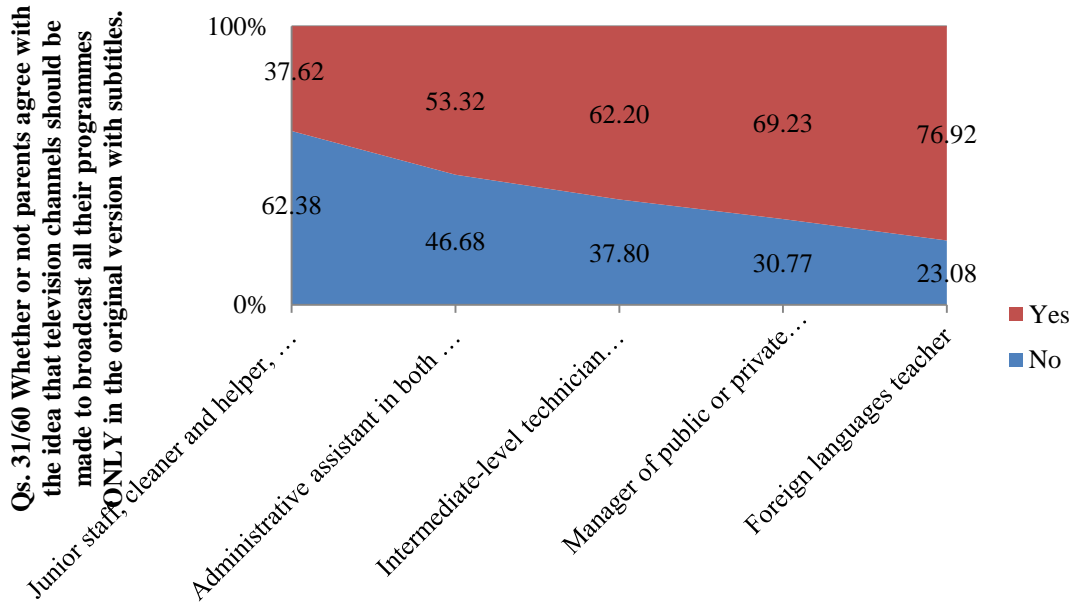
Qs 9/38. Parents' job.

Figure 320. Pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would you agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parents' job. Questions 31/60 and 9/38 (1,353 responses).
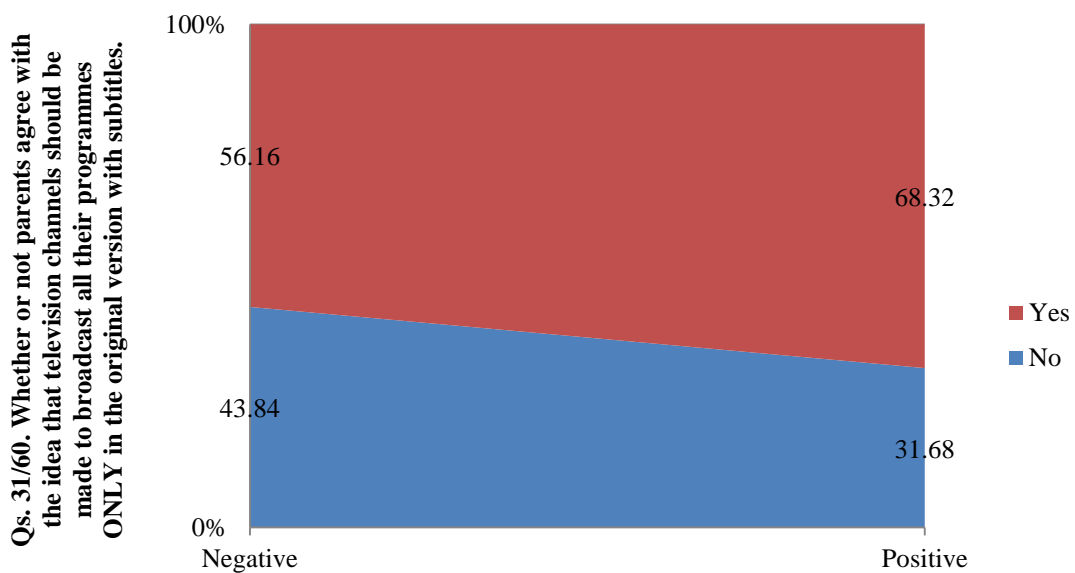
Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 321. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives. Questions 31/60 and 13/42 (840 responses).

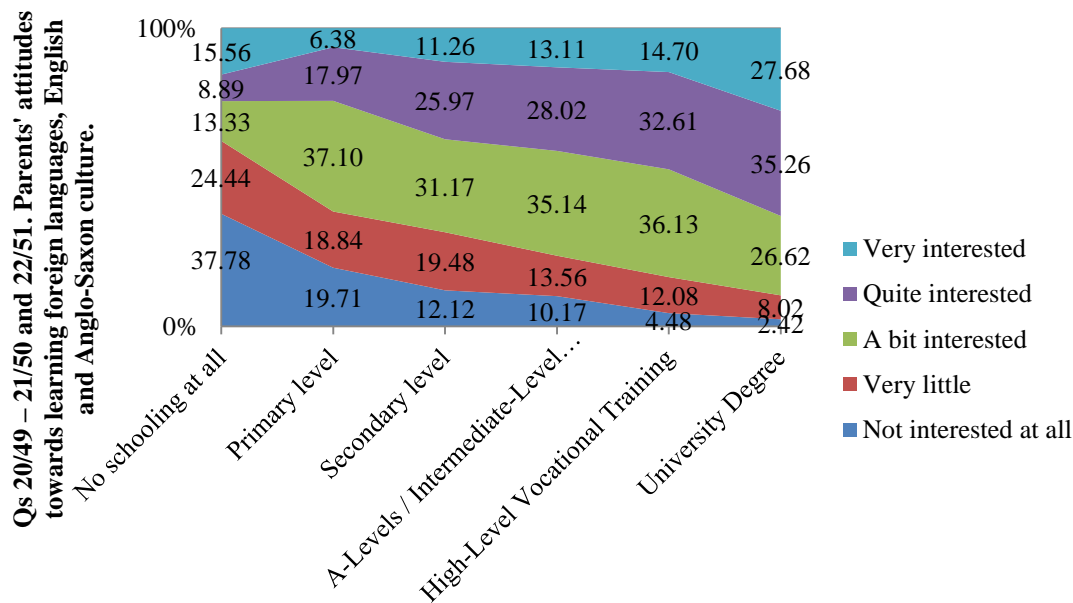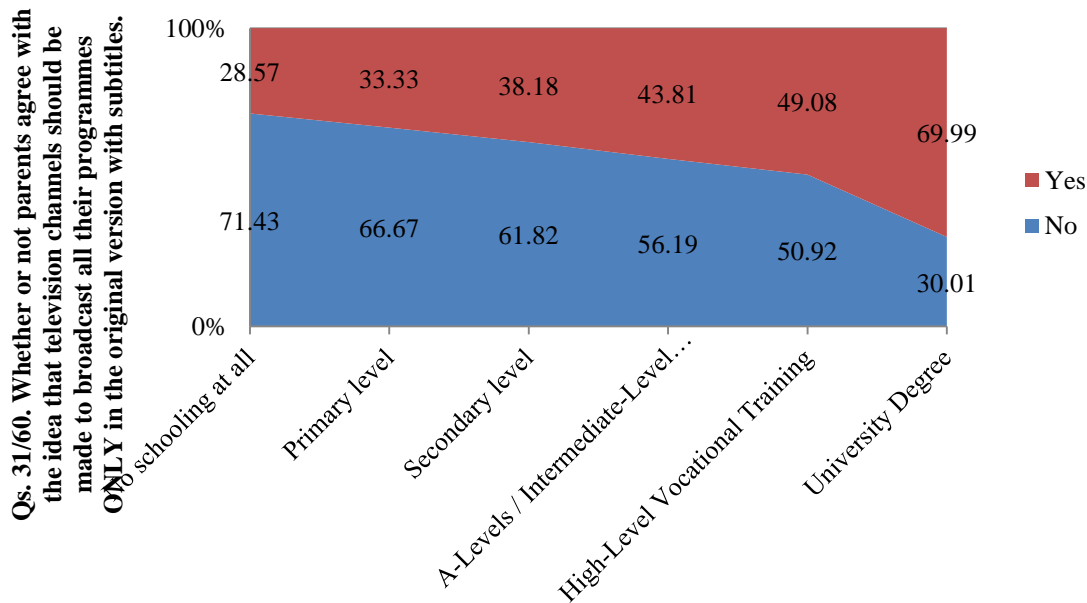**Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling completed.**

Figure 322. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and parents' highest level of schooling completed. Questions 31/60 and 10/39 (1,619 responses).

4.7.2.4.2 Parents' attitudes and ideology / External factors

Before concluding this block, we will look at how parents' attitudes are affected by external factors. As we can see in Table 81 below, six cross-tabulations produced relevant dependence relationships.

Table 81. Dependence relationships strengths between parents' attitudes and ideology, and external factors.

Qs 80a/80b		Q 78g	
Qs 21/50	75.81	Qs 21/50	83.31
Qs 20/49	70.48	Qs 20/49	76.60
Qs 22/51	52.47	Qs 22/51	76.36
Qs 31/60	67.33	Qs 31/60	81.52

As regards the role played by variable 80a/80b, which measured whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families, a quick look at the pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies in Figure 323 below will let us see that the nature of the dependence relationships between variable 80a/80b and parental attitudes resembles the tendencies already observed many times before. Thus, we can state that the relative number of

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parents that are very interested in learning foreign languages and in English is higher when they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families. By contrast, the relative number of those parents that are a bit, very little or not interested at all is clearly higher when they do not share their experiences.
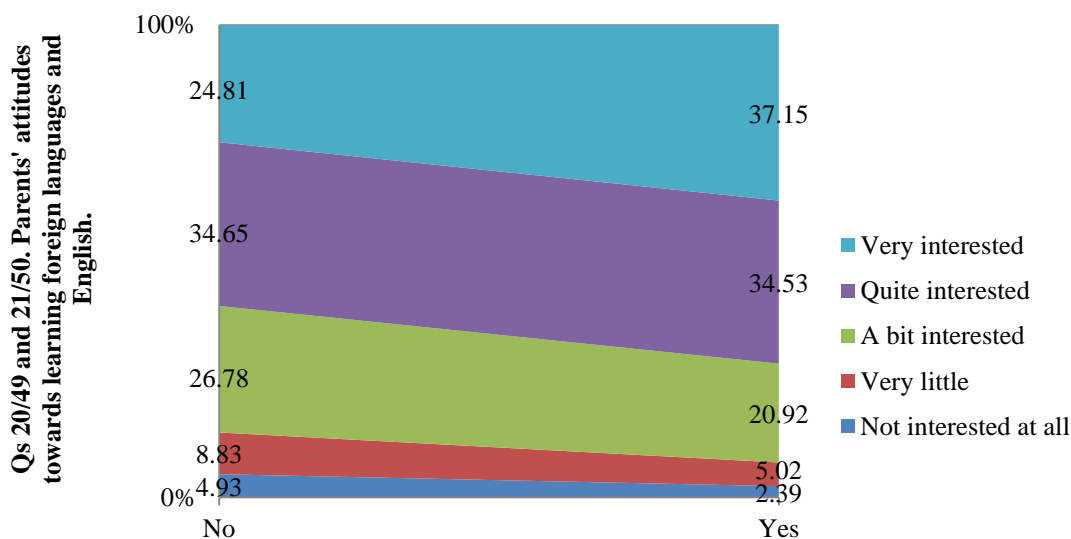
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.

Figure 323. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages and towards English, and whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 and 80a/80b (1,394 responses on average).

A change of the cause-effect relationship also produced meaningful findings. In this respect, we can observe in Figure 324 below how the relative number of parents that share their experiences with other families rises when their interest in learning foreign languages and in English also rises. By contrast, the relative number of parents that do not share their experiences grows when parents have less interest in these two items.
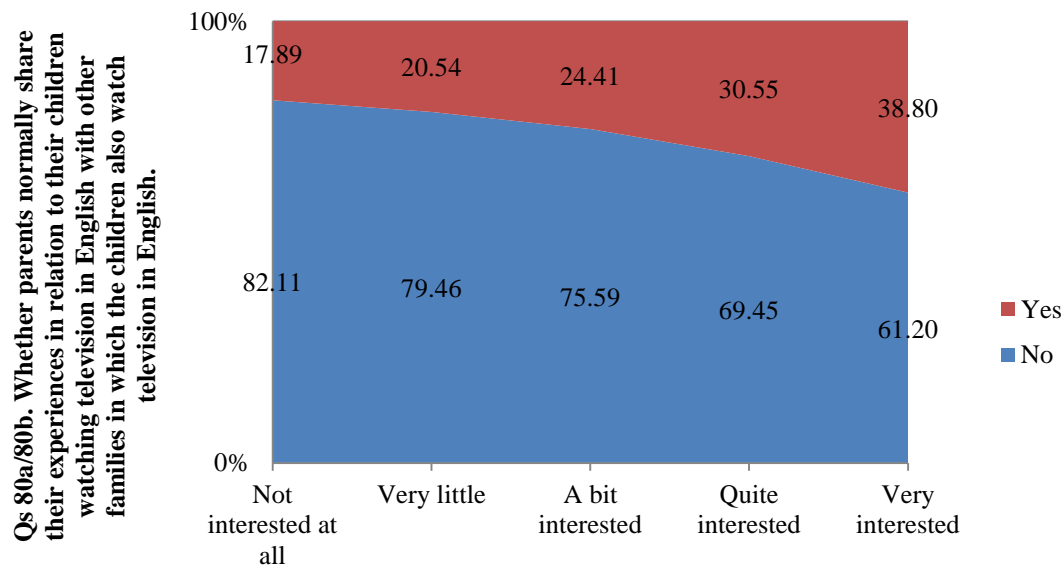
Qs 20/49 and 21/50. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages
and English.

Figure 324. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families, and parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages and towards English. Questions 80a/80b and 20/49 – 21/50 (1,394 responses on average).

Similarly, after cross-tabulating variables 80a/80b and 31/60, we found that, although the degree of correlation only affects 67.33% of the participants, the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies obtained reveals that parents tend to agree more often with subtitling when they share their experiences with other families (see Figure 325 below).
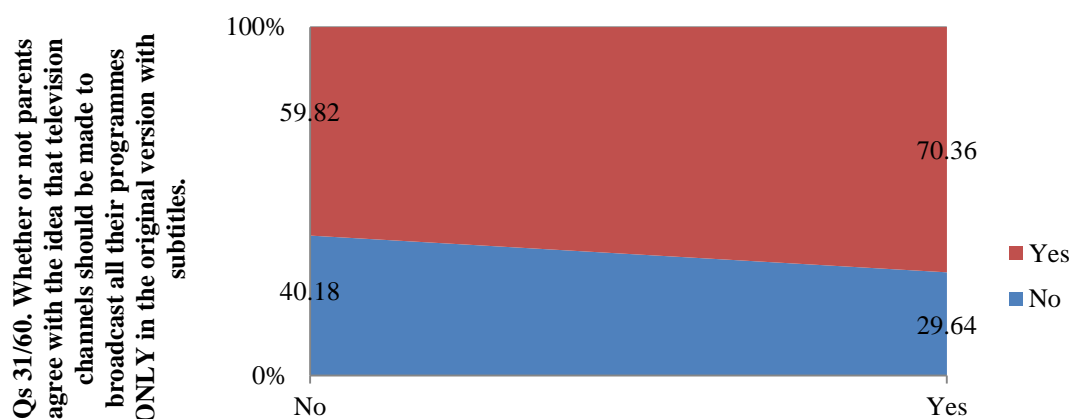
Qs 80a/80b. Whether parents normally share their experiences in relation
to their children watching television in English with other families in which
the children also watch television in English.

Figure 325. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles and whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families. Questions 31/60 and 80a/80b (1,135 responses).

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Once again, by changing the cause-effect relationship, we obtain a pattern of distribution which lets us conclude affirming that parents tend to share their experiences with other families more often when they agree with subtitling (see Figure 326 below).

Qs 31/60. Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.

Figure 326. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families and whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Questions 80a/80b and 31/60 (1,135 responses).

As regards variable 78g, which measured how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion, we can observe in Figure 327 below that the relative number of parents that are very or quite interested in learning foreign languages, in English and in Anglo-Saxon culture tends to rise when parents claim to have stronger beliefs that moved them to make their children view television in English. By contrast, the relative number of parents that are a bit, very little or not interested at all in the three items mentioned above grows when parents claim that the driving force to make their children watch television in English is weaker.
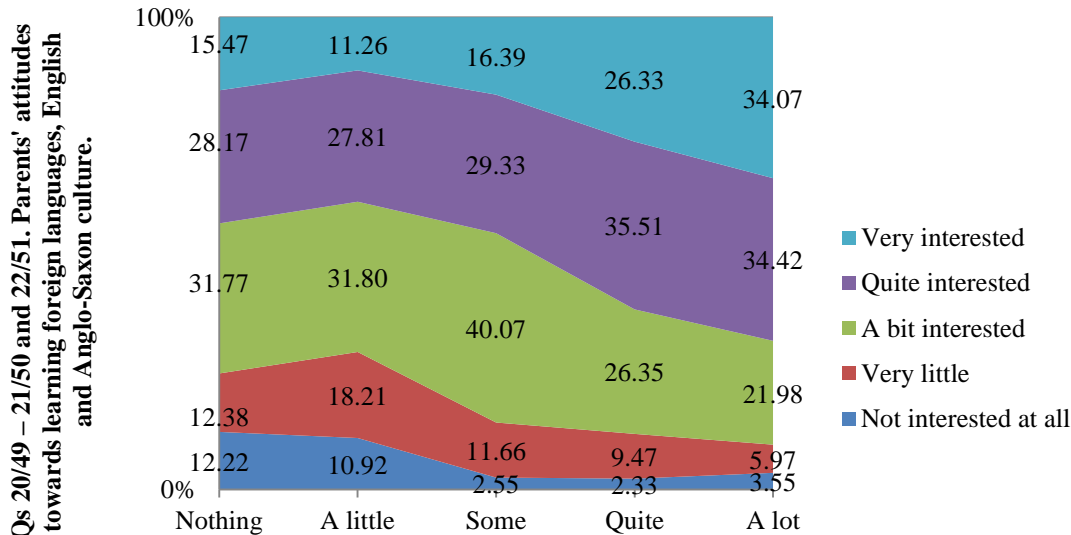
Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

Figure 327. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 78g (1,229 responses on average).

In a similar fashion, we can observe in Figure 328 below how parents' judgement could have been formed by their attitudes towards the three elements in questions. In this respect, we can see how the relative number of parents who claim that they agree (quite) a lot with the fact that they followed their own judgement rather than other people's opinions when making their children view television in English rises when parents' attitudes are more positive. On the contrary, we can also see that the relative number of parents who claim to agree a little or nothing with the previous idea increases when parents' attitudes become more negative.
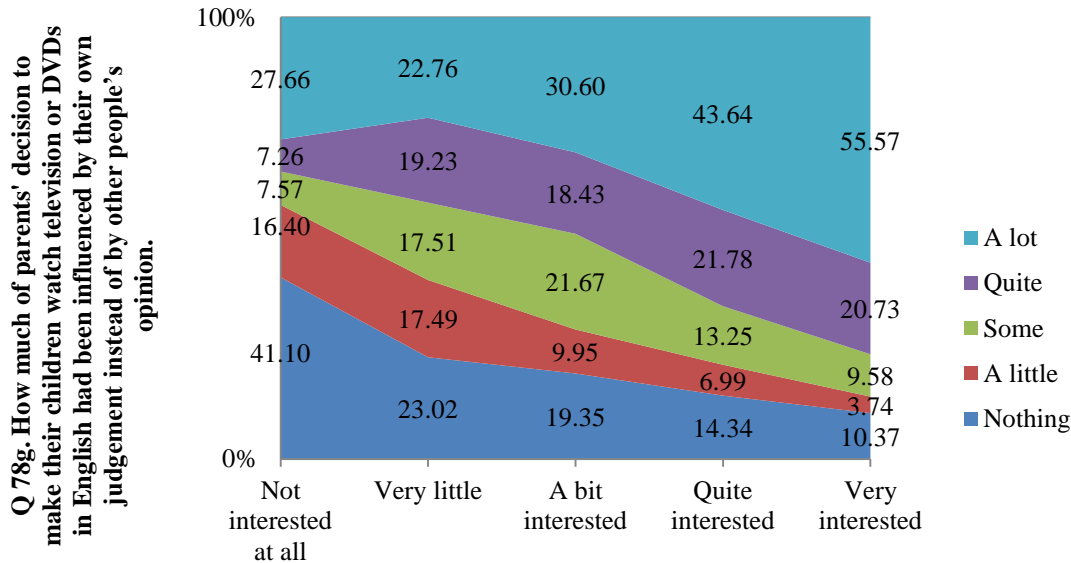
Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

	Not interested at all	Very little	A bit interested	Quite interested	Very interested
A lot	27.66	22.76	30.60	43.64	55.57
Quite	7.26	19.23	18.43	21.78	20.73
Some	7.57	17.51	21.67	13.25	9.58
A little	16.40	17.49	9.95	6.99	3.74
Nothing	41.10	23.02	19.35	14.34	10.37

Qs 20/49 – 21/50 and 22/51. Parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, English and Anglo-Saxon culture.

Figure 328. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between parents' attitudes towards learning foreign languages, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture, and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion. Questions 20/49 – 21/50 – 22/51 and 78g (1,229 responses on average).

Finally, if we look at the interactions between variables 31/60 and 78g, we will be able to observe that the relative number of parents that would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles tends to rise when parents claim to have stronger beliefs that moved them to make their children view television in English. By contrast, the relative number of parents that would not agree with compulsory subtitling increases when parents claim that the driving force to make their children watch television in English is weaker (see Figure 329 below).
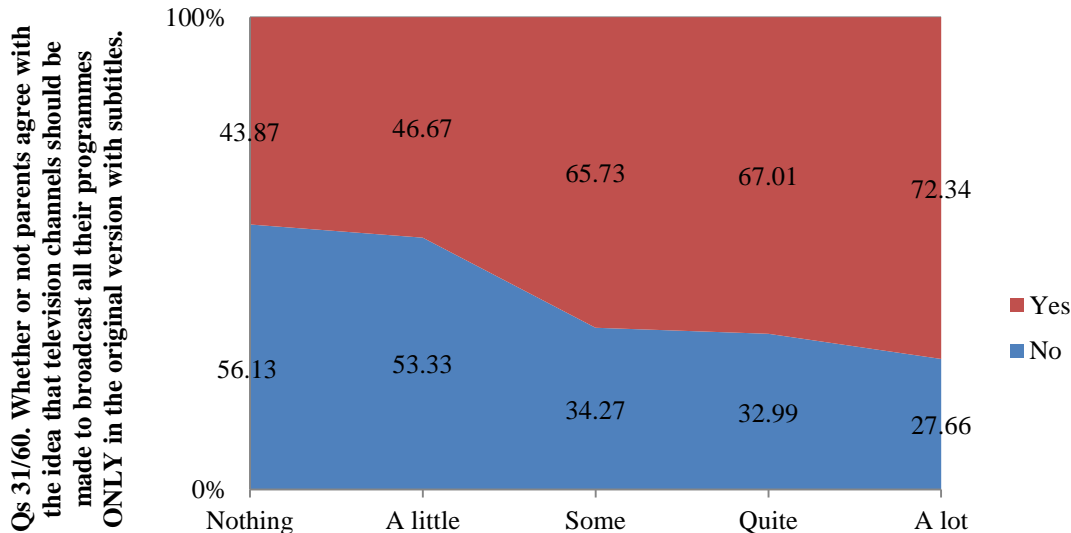
Q 78g. How much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement instead of by other people's opinion.

Figure 329. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles, and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion. Questions 31/60 and 78g (1,008 responses).

Similarly, we can observe in Figure 330 below how parents' judgement could have been formed by their ideology concerning subtitling. In this respect, we can see how the relative number of parents who claim that they agree (quite) a lot or simply express some agreement with the fact that they followed their own judgement rather than other people's opinions when making their children view television in English rises when they express favourable opinions towards subtitling. By contrast, we can also see that the relative number of parents who claim to agree a little or nothing with the idea just expressed increases when parents prefer not to make subtitling compulsory.
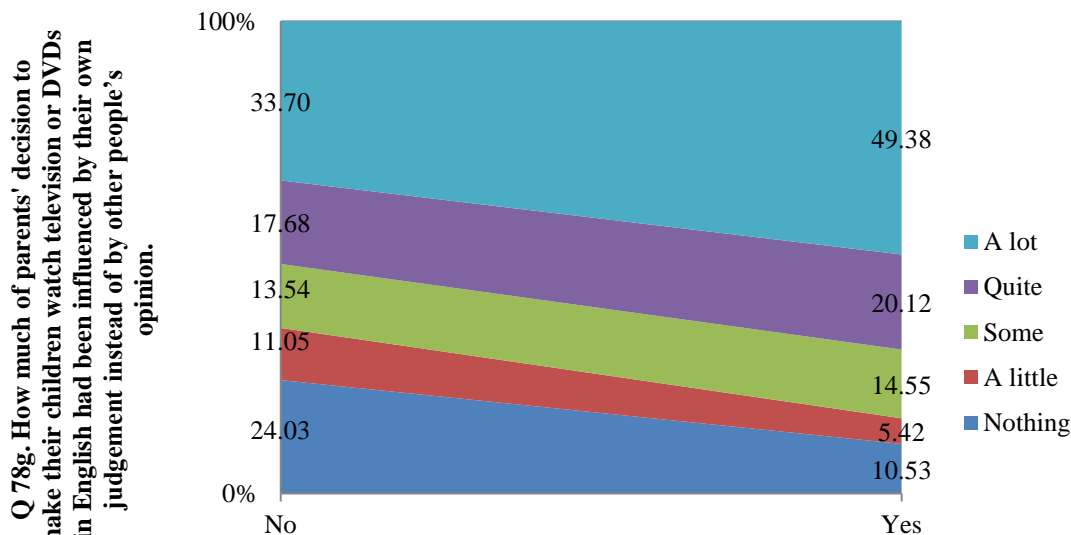
Figure 330. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents would agree with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles, and how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion. Questions 31/60 and 78g (1,008 responses).

The analysis and discussion of the dependence relationships between parental attitudes and ideology on the one hand, and intra-family and external factors on the other, has resulted in a number of findings. First of all, 26 out of a total of 28 cross-tabulations that were carried out have revealed strong dependence relationships affecting 70% of the participants or more.

Secondly, the relative frequencies observed tend to follow a clear pattern of distribution. In this respect, we have found that the most positive values on axis *y*, which represent the most positive attitudes and ideology, tend to co-occur with the most positive values on axis *x*, which represent each of the factors that have been identified as being relevant components of family language policy. Likewise, the most negative values on axis *y*, which represent parents' most negative beliefs and attitudes, tend to co-occur with the most negative values on axis *x*.

As regards parental attitudes and ideology, the analysis of parents' interest in learning foreign languages, in English, in Anglo-Saxon culture and the analysis of parents' attitude towards subtitling rather than dubbing revealed similar tendencies in the pattern of distribution of relative frequencies. In this respect, we found both that parents' interest in the three items under study rises and that parents favour the option of

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subtitling to dubbing when they have a higher level of schooling completed, a higher level of English, better jobs and positive experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television. Likewise, parents' attitudes are also more positiv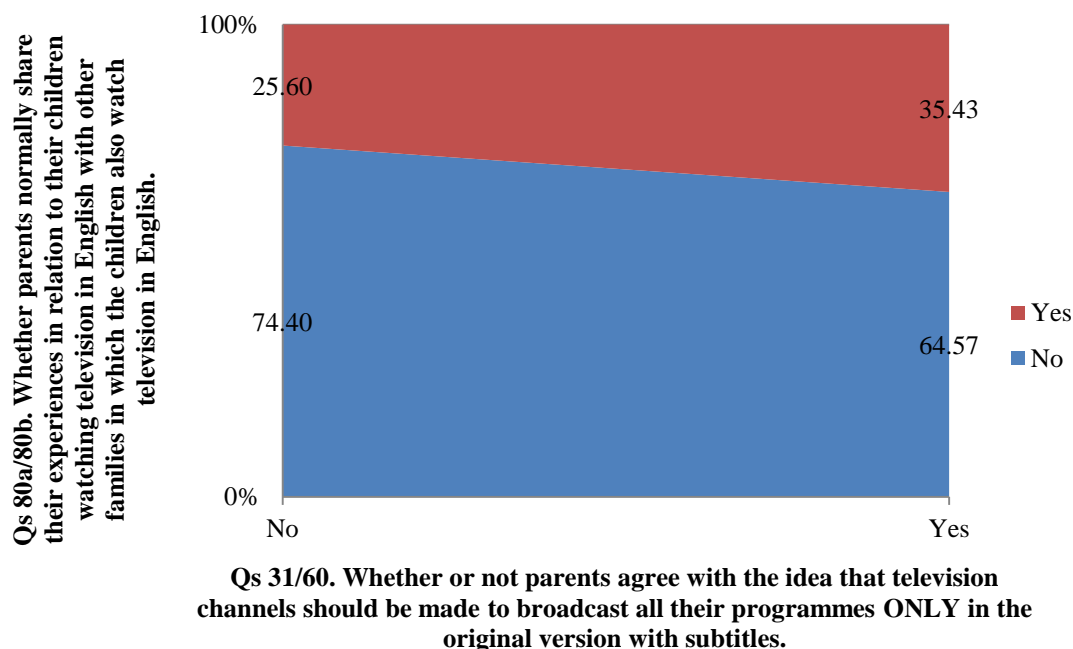e when they share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families and when it has always been very clear to them that their children should watch television in English.

Finally, we have also been able to observe how many cross-tabulations are also meaningful when the cause-effect relationship is reversed. In this case, we have been able to observe how parents' level of English rises when they claim to have more positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language, towards English and towards Anglo-Saxon culture. Likewise, parents claim to have had positive experiences learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs when they have higher levels of English. In a similar fashion, and regarding external factors, parents tend to share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families when they have more interest in learning foreign languages and in English, and whey then claim to have had positive experiences learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs. Finally, parents tend to show more agreement with the idea that their decision to make their children view television in English has not been influenced by external forces because it had always been very clear to them when they have more positive attitudes towards subtitling instead of dubbing and towards the other three variables under discussion.

In conclusion, we have been able to observe very regular patterns of behaviour in the way in which parents' attitudes and ideology affect and are affected by intra-family and external factors.

4.7.2.5 Intra-family factors / External factors

We now bring the analysis of the dependence relationships between the different elements that make up family language policy to a conclusion by looking at how intra-family and external factors interact with each other. A look at Table 82 below will quickly let us see that five cross-tabulations produced relevant dependence values.

Table 82. Dependence relationships strengths between intra-family factors and external factors.

Q 80		Q 78g	
Qs 13/42	78.49	Qs 14/43	73.37
Qs 15/44	78.04	Qs 10/39	71.40
Qs 14/43	73.69	Qs 15/44	68.41
Qs 9/38	65.29	Qs 9/38	59.83
Qs 10/39	36.74	Qs 13/42	39.40

Commencing with variable 13/42 (which measured whether parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives), we can observe in Figure 331 below how the relative number of parents that share their experiences concerning their children rises when they have had positive experiences learning foreign languages through television, videos or DVDs themselves. Contrariwise, parents tend not to share their experiences in relation to their children with other families when their own experience learning foreign languages have been negative.
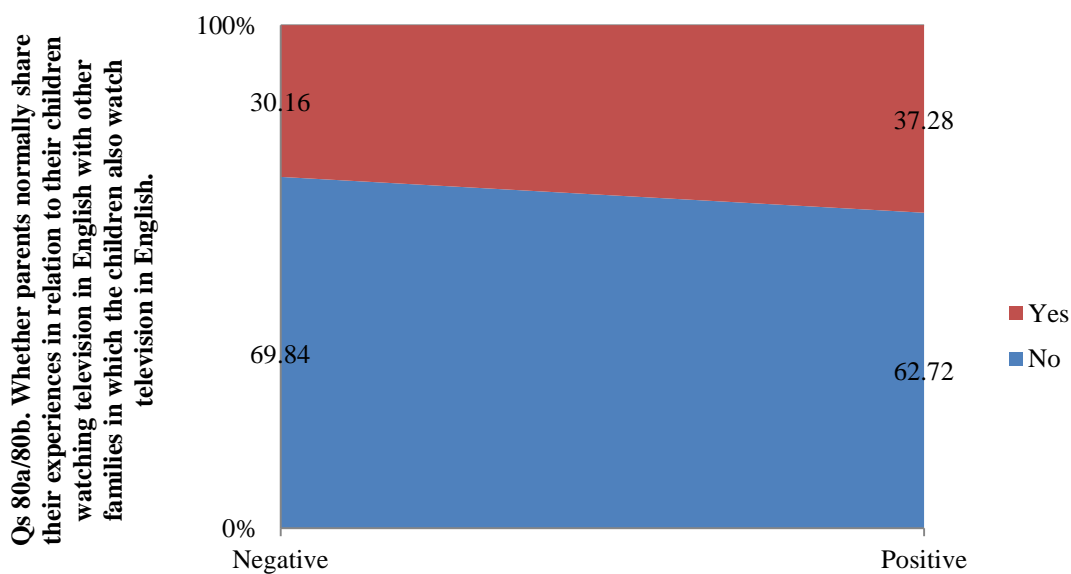
Qs 13/42. Parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives.

Figure 331. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English and parents' experiences in relation to learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs at any time in their lives. Questions 80a/80b and 13/42 (755 responses).

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Regarding parents' level of English, Figure 332 below shows how the relative number of parents that tend to share their experience in relation to their children watching television in English grows when parents' level of English rises and decreases when their level of English gets lower.
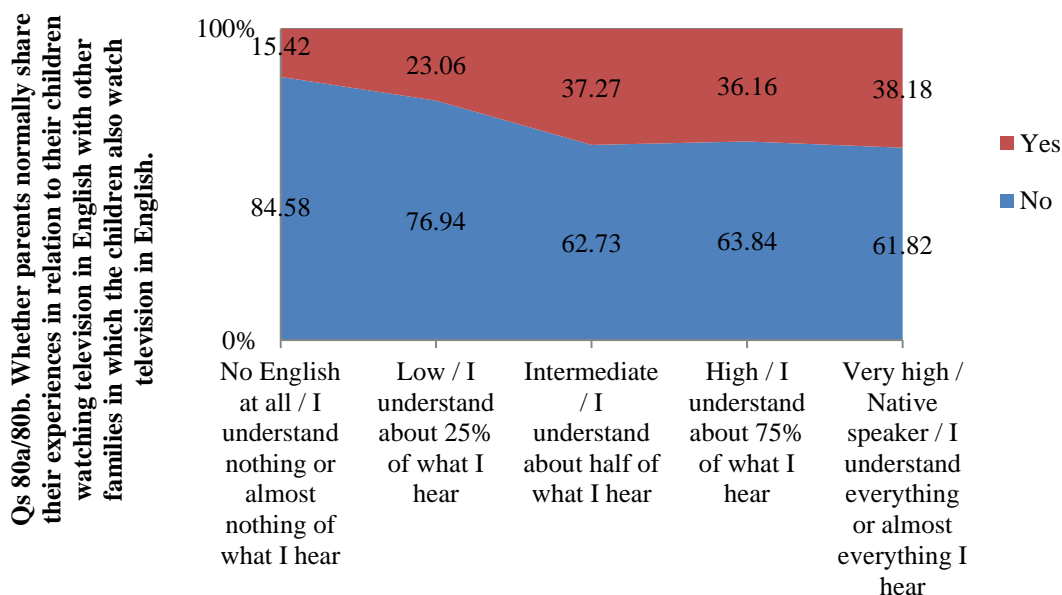
Qs 14/43 - 15/44. Parents' level of English.

Figure 332. General pattern of distribution of the average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between whether parents normally share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English and parents' level of English. Questions 80a/80b and 14/43 – 15/44 (1,407 responses on average).

In this case, changing the direction of the cause-effect relationship would only produce meaningless relationships.

Finally, we also found similar tendencies in relation to variables 9/38, which measures parents' job, and 10/39, which looks at parents' highest level of schooling completed. Although neither of these two cross-tabulations with variable 80a/80b produced dependence relationships affecting 70% of the participants or above, in both cases, the relative number of parents that claimed to share their experiences with other families steadily rises when they have better jobs and when they have higher levels of schooling completed.

As regards variable 78g, we have found that parents' previous convictions about this issue are also significantly influenced by some intra-family factors. In this respect, we

can see in Figure 333 below that the relative number of parents with the strongest convictions (those whose decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has been influenced a lot or quite a lot by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion), rises when parents' level of English rises as well. By contrast, the relative number of parents with weaker convictions decreases when their level of English also decreases.
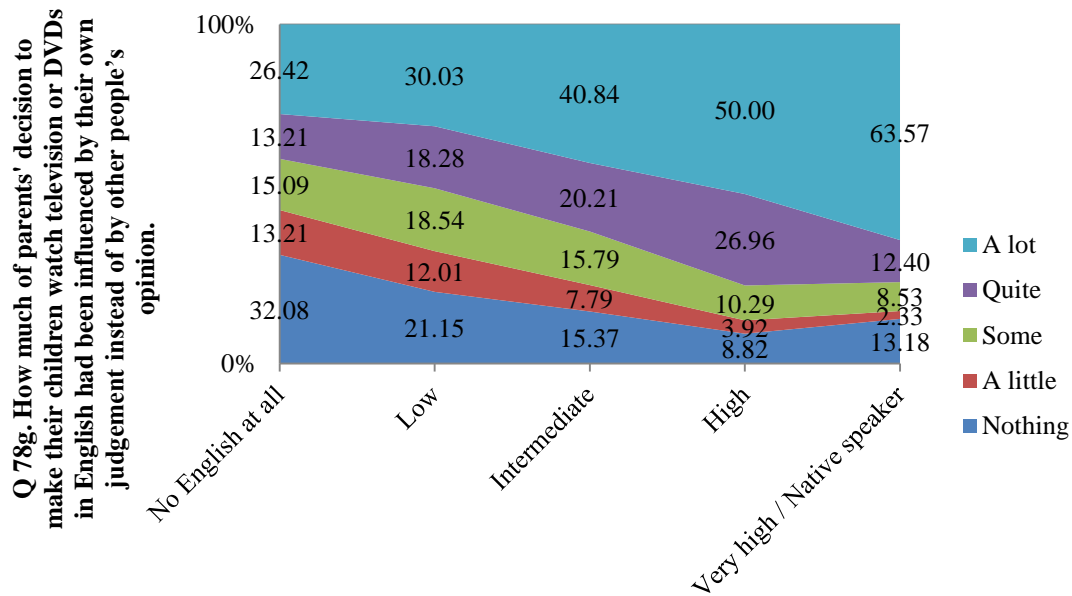
Qs 14/43. Parents' level of English.

Figure 333. Pattern of distribution of relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion, and parents' level of English. Questions 78g and 14/43 (1,244 responses).

And when we cross-tabulated variable 78g and variable 10/39, which measures parents' highest level of schooling (see Figure 334 below), once again, we found that the relative number of parents with the strongest convictions grows when parents' level of schooling rises too. By contrast, the relative number of parents with weaker convictions decreases when their level of schooling decreases as well.
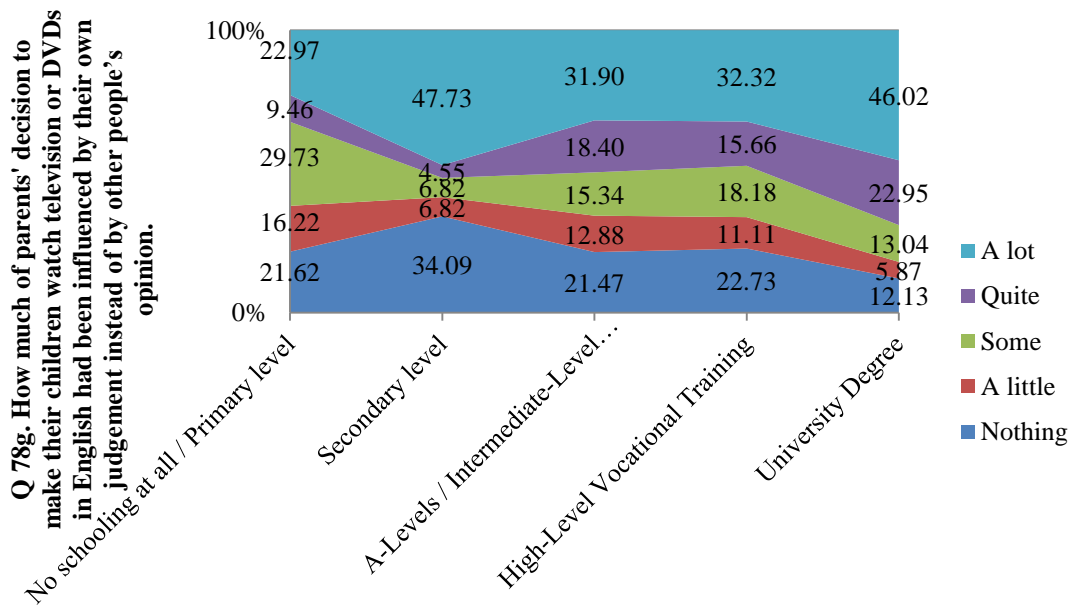
Qs 10/39. Parents' highest level of schooling.

Figure 334. Pattern of distribution of average relative (%) frequencies representing correlations between how much of parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion, and parents' highest level of schooling. Questions 78g and 10/39 (1,246 responses).

Also in this case, changing the direction of the cause-effect relationship would only produce meaningless relationships.

We also found similar tendencies in relation to variables 15/44 (which measures parents' level of comprehension of TV and DVDs in English without subtitles) and 9/38 (which measures parents' jobs). Although neither of these two cross-tabulations with variable 78g produced dependence relationships affecting 70% of the participants or above, in both cases, the relative number of parents who claimed that their decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English had been influenced by their own judgement rather than by other people's opinion grows when they have a higher level of comprehension of TV and DVDs in English without subtitles and when they have better jobs.

In conclusion, we have been able to observe in this last series how parents tend to share their experiences more often when they have a higher level of English, when their experiences of learning languages through television viewing have been positive, when they have better jobs and when they have higher levels of schooling completed. And finally, we have been able to observe stronger convictions and stronger impact beliefs

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through variable 78g when parents have higher levels of English, higher levels of schooling completed and better jobs.

4.8 Final conclusions to Chapter 4

To conclude the study of FLP, we would like to go back to the three basic research questions that have guided the analysis and discussion of the data throughout the present chapter.

Concerning Research Question 1 ("Do parents from the Autonomous Community of Cantabria use television as an instrument to help their children learn English?"), we had initially claimed that technological advancement has not brought about a significant increase in the consumption of television content in foreign languages. However, in the light of the analysis of the data, we feel inclined to reformulate such a conclusion because, even though the absolute frequencies have not changed, further evidence seems to suggest that there is a conscious and active family language policy through which parents have taken it into their hands to develop English-friendly environments in which contact with English through television is becoming more and more popular. In this respect, Figure 10 above could be reinterpreted claiming that only in 22.56% of the families interviewed children never watch television in English.

As regards research questions 2 and 3 ("How is television-mediated foreign language acquisition affected by other linguistic practices within the family, by parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial strategies, and environmental factors?" and "How do linguistic practices, beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, planning and managerial strategies, and environmental factors relate to each other?"), it can be affirmed that the dynamics that make up language policy at family level in the additive setting under analysis are subject to a complex variety of interactions between the different factors that, according to Spolsky (2004), language policy encompasses. In this sense, we have been able to see how linguistic practices within the family, parental beliefs, attitudes and ideologies, planning and managerial strategies, and intra-family and external factors influence each other.

At this point of our research, we have been able to construct Table 83 below in which we can observe the average strength of the relationship of each variable with the rest of variables.

Table 83. Dependence relationships strength rank.

Variable Number	Variable Description	Dependence Degree	(1)
18d/47d	How often parents watch television in English without subtitles too.	85.75%	33
66b	How often children watch television in English.	84.49%	36
65a/65b	How often children use English to talk to their parents.	83.29%	31
66c	How often children watch DVDs in English (films, documentaries, etc).	82.03%	34
17b/46b	How often parents use English with their children.	81.15%	29
17a/46a	How often parents use English with each other.	80.71%	29
17d/46d	How often parents use English with their friends.	79.18%	27
17e/46e	How often parents use English at work.	75.89%	23
77	How often parents watch television in English with their children.	65.33%	21
66e	How often children read in English.	63.83%	17
66i	How often children videoconference with friends abroad.	58.56%	18
65c	How often children use English to talk to their siblings.	57.08%	17
66f	How often children listen to music in English.	56.40%	14
65d	How often children use English to talk to their friends.	39.54%	13
15/44	Parents' level of listening skills.	80.20%	28
14/43	Parents' level of English.	78.14%	27
9/38	Parents' job.	64.87%	22
13/42	Parents' lifelong experience regarding learning foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs.	62.43%	21

10/39	Parents' level of schooling.	58.34%	19
22/51	Parents' interest in Anglo-Saxon culture.	76.27%	26
21/50	Parents' interest in English.	72.15%	28
20/49	Parents' interest in learning foreign languages.	71.69%	27
30/59	The level of English that parents think/hope their children will be able to reach.	78.43%	32
24c/53c	Parents' opinion about the importance of watching TV in English.	71.39%	24
24a/53a	Parents' opinion about the importance of early acquisition.	55.01%	14
23g/52g	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English to read books, magazines, etc. related to their job or to their hobbies.	79.00%	26
23b/52b	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal life.	77.86%	26
23h/52h	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for entertainment.	77.14%	28
23e/52e	Parents' perception of the usefulness of English for their personal satisfaction.	74.58%	27
64	The age at which children first started to be in contact with English on a regular basis.	62.03%	21
72a/72b	What parents do when their children ask them to change back to Spanish.	58.24%	11
71a/71b	How often children ask their parents to change back to Spanish?	47.35%	11
70a/70b	Whether or not parents ask their children in which language they want to watch TV or a DVD.	40.51%	7
69	When children first began to view television in English.	26.60%	4
80	Whether or not parents share their experiences in relation to their children watching television in English with other families in which the children also watch television in English.	71.90%	24
78g	Parents' decision to make their children watch television or DVDs in English has not been influenced by anybody. It has always been very clear to them.	59.32%	18
31/60	Whether or not parents agree with the idea that television channels are made to broadcast all their programmes ONLY in the original version with subtitles.	65.48%	21

[1] Number of variables with which each variable has a relevant dependence relationship affecting 70% of the participants or above.

A look at Table 83 above will let us draw a number of conclusions about the micro sociolinguistic contexts in which a hypothetical diglossia would be implemented. We would like, first of all, to draw the reader's attention to the fact that most of the relevant cross-tabulations obtained, which reflect dependence relationships between two variables affecting 70% of the participants in the study or above, produced similar patterns of distribution of relative frequencies. Such patterns represent the same tendencies concerning the distribution of parents' answers to the questionnaire. Projecting two Likert scales on axes x and y, we have been able to observe again and again how the relative number of positive responses on axis y tends to increase as we move towards the more positive values of axis x. Contrariwise, the relative number of negative responses on axis y tends to rise as we move towards the more negative values on axis x. In other words, when a cross-tabulation produces a relevant dependence relationship between two variables, the more positive values from both variables tend to co-occur. Likewise, the more negative values from both variables tend to co-occur too.

Another interesting finding is that the previous model applies to cross-tabulations between variables within the same group (intra-group) and between variables from different groups, which measure different factors of family language policy (inter-group).

Thirdly, we have seen numerous occasions on which the cause-effect relationship between the different pairs of variables could only operate in one direction, particularly when we tried to explain certain linguistic practices within the families looking at parental beliefs, attitudes, ideologies and environmental factors. However, many examples of bi-directionality affecting the dependence relationships between different variables have emerged, even when linguistic practices were involved.

As regards particular variables or groups of variables, we would like to comment on the fact that the habits of 93.17% of the participants concerning their children viewing television in English are influenced by their own opinion about the importance of television to learn the language, which lets us understand the relevance of planning family language policies that prioritise raising awareness of this issue. On the contrary, the rest of parents' beliefs about foreign language acquisition and about their role in the acquisition process are relegated to the lower positions in the rank.

The way in which parents manage language practice within their families is also worth remarking. The strong correlations that emerge from the analysis of variables 66b-64, 66b-69, 66b-70a/70b, 66b-71a/71b and 66b-72a/72a reveal that particular language managerial strategies seem to facilitate that children watch television in English more often. Such strategies include starting to have regular contact with English at a very early age, starting to view television in English at the age of three or before, giving children the possibility of choosing the language in which they can view television and ignoring children's request to switch back to Spanish when they are watching television in English.

Next, a number of intra-family factors also seem to play an important role in shaping FLP. In this respect, parents' proficiency in English is particularly relevant, perhaps because watching television can be an opportunity to spend time with their children or because it constitutes an opportunity for parents to brush up their listening skills. However, few things are more frustrating than not being able to overcome the communicative gap between the mother tongue and the target language. It is not surprising, therefore, that parents with a low level of competence in English are unwilling to engage their children in an activity with which they are not confident themselves. This statement is supported, in the first place, by the fact that, as the chi-square test reveals (see Contingency Table *Qs 18d/47d - 14/43* and its corresponding chi-square table in APPENDIX D), parents tend to watch television in English less often when their level of English is lower and vice versa, they tend to watch television in English more often as their level of proficiency gets higher. And in the second place, by the fact that children tend to watch television in English less often when their parents do not share this activity with them, although it is also true that the opposite tendency is not so clear when parents share this activity with their children more often (see Contingency Table Qs 66b – 18d/47d and chi-square table in APPENDIX D).

Related to parents' proficiency in English is parents' level of schooling which, although to a lesser degree, also seems to play a relevant part in FLP.

A second group of intra-family factors refers to the socio-economic status of the participants. In this respect, we had stated in the Literature Review above that, following King and Fogle's (2006) findings, we could expect SES to be a less relevant factor for the sample under consideration. However, as we had stated above, our

research has proved this prediction to be only partly true, at least for the sample under study because, although the income variable seems to play a minor part, the strong correlation that emerges when we look at parents' job makes this variable very relevant when it comes to influencing FLP.

Other intra-family factors that seem to play a relevant part in shaping FLP are those that refer to intergenerational transmission of learning habits. Although the study of the correlations suggests that parents tend to apply the same language policy as the one that they had experienced as children themselves, the fact that most parents did not watch television in other languages different from Spanish during their school years seems to imply that this factor, though relevant, will not be useful in planning large-scale language planning actions in the short term, at least not until a critical mass of parents that have experienced this language policy is available. However, we must not underestimate the number of respondents that claimed in the questionnaire to have learnt foreign languages through viewing television, videos or DVDs some time in their lives, not just when they were children, particularly when the experience has been positive. The strong correlation that there exists between these two variables (variables 66b and 13/42, see Table 28 above), leads us to affirm that, until the critical mass that we mentioned above is obtained, these parents could fill the gap for language planning actions in the short term.

Related to the intergenerational transmission of learning habits are parents' attitudes towards English, Anglo-Saxon culture and learning foreign languages. After all it seems reasonable to expect that, like intergenerational transmission of life values, certain language policies are more likely to be transmitted to second generations when parents firmly believe in them. Like other variables above, parental attitudes also seem susceptible to being shaped by influence from adequate language planning action.

Another conclusion that can be reached is that, generally speaking, and with the exception of networking among families who follow the same language policy (variables 80a/80b and 81a/81b), it can be claimed that external factors do not seem to play an important role in shaping FLP within our sample. What is more, through Question 78g, parents themselves claimed that their decision had not been influenced by anybody. Our attention was particularly attracted by the little influence exercised by some of the external factors that have traditionally been credited with exercising a big

influence over families, especially the school (see for example, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1997; Mapp, 2003). The reasons may have to do with the fact that very little research has been done so far regarding television-mediated foreign language acquisition and, consequently, no dissemination of its benefits has been possible yet; or perhaps with the fact that no steps have been taken yet so as to implement the European Commission's recommendations mentioned above. What remains to be discerned is which of the two reasons just mentioned is the cause and which the consequence. Having said this, it should also be pointed out that, exceptionally, networking does play a significant role, particularly when parents share their experiences with other parents, perhaps because, as Sheldon (2002) claims, through networking families receive encouragement and support from other families, which is especially useful when one does not have very strong convictions about this issue (see Literature Review chapter above).

Finally, beliefs about both the instrumental and the integrative usefulness of English seem to play a significant role in shaping FLP too. The concept of usefulness is linked to the attitudes seen above since positive perceptions of the usefulness of English, perhaps produced by the language prestige, are predictors of positive attitudes too.

With the conclusions to Chapter 4 we close the analysis and discussion of Family Language Policy in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition. Next, in Chapter 5: Conclusion, we will look at the contributions of our study to the field of Language Planning.

CHAPTER 5 - CONCLUSION

Having dissected, analysed and discussed the linguistic, social, political and educational factors that could influence the implementation of a television-mediated foreign language acquisition lifestyle diglossia on the one hand, and family language policy concerning television-mediated foreign language acquisition in the 1,076 families that participated in our study on the other, we feel that the following question needs to be addressed: Can a lifestyle diglossia be implemented at all?

We believe that the answer to this question is the first major contribution of our study. In this respect, the discussion in Chapter 2, together with the study of FLP in Chapter 4, have led us to conclude that the requirements for such an implementation are met.

First of all, regarding FLP, we have found that an overwhelming majority of parents share beliefs about foreign language acquisition that could help pave the way for a lifestyle diglossia. In this respect, most parents claimed that watching television and early acquisition are essential or very useful to reach higher levels of English, that both L1 and L2 should be acquired simultaneously, that very early acquisition of a second language cannot negatively affect the acquisition of the mother tongue, that viewing television in English will not contribute to the loss of Spanish culture or that learning other languages cannot endanger Spanish language. Furthermore, only one third of the families interviewed expressed their disagreement with the idea that television channels should be made to broadcast all their programmes only in the original version with subtitles. Finally, most parents claimed that they themselves should take the initiative on how their children learn a foreign language or that such responsibility could be shared with the education system.

Apart from parents' beliefs, we must also consider the social, political and educational factors analysed in Chapter 2. First of all, the analysis of the vitality of the Spanish language and culture from the point of view of their economic, social and symbolic status, of the institutional support that they enjoy, and the demographic and linguistic factors by which they are affected has revealed that the Spanish language and culture enjoy a strong vitality.

The idea that the vitality of Spanish language and culture will not be compromised by the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia is also supported by the analysis of the role of

integrative motivations in Chapter 2. This analysis concludes that globalisation does not lead to English being associated with a particular Anglophone culture. It also concludes that the acculturation or desire to join a particular cultural group that might be produced in the process of learning a second or an additional language is more likely to occur in particular immigrant settings, whereas millions of learners and users of additional languages do not consider the idea of becoming part of the target language group. However, we must also admit that our claim that Spanish language and culture will not be compromised by the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia is based on theoretical grounds, and further research would have to confirm such a claim.

From a technical point of view, it has already been mentioned that the technology that makes language choice possible is already freely available.

From a linguistic point of view, the discussion of the Input Factor has revealed that, given the necessary conditions, television-mediated foreign language acquisition is possible. Furthermore, numerous studies have linked an increase in the amount of television-based input to an improvement of both receptive and productive skills in English.

From a political stance, it can be concluded that the conditions are favourable for the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia. Thus, the linguistic policies proposed by the European Union since its foundation and, more particularly since the 1990s, have been a reflection of pluralist linguistic ideologies aiming at closer political integration, to the extent that the European Commission itself has proposed the promotion of subtitling (2008) and an increase in the amount of time of exposure to a foreign language, especially away from traditional educational contexts (2011). As far as the Spanish context is concerned, the regulatory changes enacted since the promulgation of the 1978 Constitution have prioritised the learning of foreign languages so that many of the European Union recommendations have already been adopted. Finally, within the Autonomous Community of Cantabria, the educational policies are being adapted to European linguistic ideologies and policies.

To conclude, from an educational point of view, it has been seen how the involvement of the school can lead to an effective implementation of language policies resulting in the revitalisation of minority languages in different contexts.

Now that it has been determined that the conditions for the implementation of a television-mediated lifestyle diglossia language planning action are met, we feel that we need to address the following question: Can television-mediated foreign language acquisition become generalised simply by the unplanned drive of parents' initiative or will top-down language policies run by macro-level institutions need to be implemented?

We can now claim that the answer to this question is the second important contribution of our study. The analysis and discussion of the data available concerning FLP in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition has led us to conclude that there are a number of arguments against the idea of leaving the initiative exclusively to the families.

First of all, the present research has helped us verify that, twelve years after the consumption of television contents in the original version became universally accessible, as the European Commission (2011a, p. 28) had proposed, no macro level planning action has been implemented so as to promote parents' involvement in their children's early acquisition of other languages and, consequently, only a very small proportion of children regularly view television in English. Secondly, the fact that children view television in English in 77.44% of the families interviewed does not mean that the amount of exposure that children are having will lead to L2 acquisition. As a matter of fact, those who claim that their children watch television in English (almost) every day (6.73%) or quite often (11.09%) are a minority and, as Krashen (1985) argues, for input to lead to L2 acquisition, this must be sufficient. Thirdly, Spain has a tradition for dubbing rather than subtitling.

Fourthly, the analysis of the sample reveals that, given their nature, many beliefs, attitudes, managerial strategies, and both intra-family and external factors at play cannot be changed without the intervention of macro level institutions. Thus, the fact that the way in which parents manage language practices within their families seems to facilitate an increase in the frequency with which children watch television in English leads us to claim that it should be a priority for language planners to anticipate ways of training parents to acquire the managerial strategies that they will require for a correct implementation of a lifestyle diglossia language policy. This idea is particularly interesting if we consider that, as we saw in Table 27 above, 409 out of the 1,076 (38%)

families that took part in the survey claimed that their children do not watch television in English because the children complain that they do not understand and, therefore, ask to change back to Spanish.

Furthermore if, as we claimed above, parents' proficiency in English is one of the key determinants of television-mediated foreign language acquisition policies at family level, then we will have to accept that a large-scale implementation of a lifestyle diglossia policy is a long-term process that will necessarily require a substantial increase in the number of parents with higher levels of proficiency in English, which is something that falls within the scope of public institutions. Similarly, the dependence of FLP on other variables, such as parents' level of schooling and parents' job, indicates that public intervention is needed if the weight of these variables is to be changed.

Another argument in favour of public intervention comes from the fact that, contradicting the literature in this respect (see Chapter 2), the education system does not seem to be playing a significant role in those cases in which television-mediated foreign language acquisition is being implemented. Therefore, the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia should involve taking full advantage of the potential of the education sector, which is mostly controlled by the state. Likewise networking, which seems to be playing a very positive role in supporting families in which children view television in English, should be institutionalised, which is in line with Fishman's (1991) claim that without the support of social networks for using minority languages, the inter-generational transmission of a minority language is unlikely to succeed.

Precisely, as we argued above, the fact that the inter-generational transmission of learning habits is yet another relevant factor that facilitates television-mediated foreign language acquisition leads us to claim that, given the relatively small number of parents that have learnt a foreign language through television at any other time in their lives, public intervention will be required until this has become customary among parents.

Top-down planning seems, therefore, the desirable means of implementing large scale policies aimed at promoting television-mediated foreign language acquisition and parents' involvement in ELL. The analysis of the data collected reveals, however, a number of difficulties with which macro institutions would have to deal. In this respect we believe that, although some variables (for example managerial strategies, attitudes,

beliefs, or the role of the school and the media in shaping FLP) are more likely to be transformed in the short term through especially targeted language policies, other variables (particularly intra-family factors such as parents' competence in the target language or parents' ability to transmit learning habits to their children) and an institutional tradition for dubbing rather than subtitling would need more time to be transformed.

Limitations and potential criticisms of the study

The main criticism of the study of FLP pertains to the composition of the sample because, as we pointed out above, the various level-of-schooling categories are represented in very different proportions to the wider population (see Table 10 and Figure 7 above). This could be attributed to the research methodology applied because, even though the questionnaires were randomly delivered, only parents with access to the Internet were able to return them. However, according to the Spanish statistics institute (INE), 21.4% of the homes in the Autonomous Community of Cantabria do not have access to the Internet yet, and INE itself has highlighted a strong relationship between access and use of the Internet on the one hand, and level of schooling on the other.

Nevertheless, if we adhered to the following arguments: namely that the number of respondents who have completed a higher education programme is over-represented in comparison to the wider population; secondly that, even so, the frequency with which their children regularly watch television or DVDs in English is very low; and thirdly that this variable seems to play an important role in shaping FLP, we would then be able to predict that, had the proportion of respondents with lower levels of schooling been bigger, the frequency with which children watch television or DVDs in English would have been lower, thus making this limitation irrelevant.

Recommendations

At this point, we need to refer back to Ricento (2000, p. 23), who pinpointed the critical questions to be answered by researchers, namely why individuals decide to use a particular language for a specific function in a particular context and how people's choices influence (or are influenced by) institutional language policy decision-making.

The answer to the first of these two questions has been brought forward by the research at family level conducted in the present thesis, which has given us an insight into the

nature of the interactions of the different variables affecting family language policy in relation to television-mediated foreign language acquisition.

It remains to be seen, therefore, how choices at family level influence and can be influenced by institutional language policy decision-making. The answer to how family language policy can affect language policy at macro level is clear from our claim above that, as our research has shown, there are numerous arguments against the idea of leaving the initiative of implementing television-mediated foreign language acquisition exclusively to the families, leaving thus the ball of the initiative bouncing in the institutional court. Consequently, what needs to be discussed next is how family language policy can be affected by macro-level institutional decision-making or, put in a different way, what macro-level institutions can do to promote television-mediated foreign language acquisition.

It was argued in Chapter 1 that a lifestyle diglossia language policy should be implemented through an acquisition/usage language planning action designed by macro level institutions to promote the acquisition of one or more foreign languages in an additive context through a process of domain language specialisation. In this way a particular social function would be assigned to one or more languages different from the children's first language. It was also argued that this should be done by means of convincing parents that their children should view television in one or more foreign languages.

The fact that acquisition planning has traditionally been related to the acquisition of second or foreign languages through school instruction implies that, as we pointed out in Chapter 1, schools are called to play a major role in the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia. As a matter of fact, it was concluded in Chapter 1 that, following Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), the roles of the education sector included securing parents' support for school-based language learning plans and influencing people's behaviour as to language use.

As Liddicoat and Baldauf (2008, p. 13) put it:

> Schools represent an interface between the macro-level of language planning and the micro-level. Schools are frequently the object of governmental agencies' language planning initiatives, but individual schools influence the ways in which those broader language goals are played out in their own contexts.

In conclusion, schools will necessarily be the pivot around which a lifestyle diglossia language policy should revolve.

As we claimed in Chapter 1, the top-down language planning approach under consideration should have two levels at which the planning is developed and two levels at which it is implemented (see Figure 335 below).

macro level — education institutions — develop language planning actions

- design and implement longitudinal research into the degree of television-mediated acquisition of foreign languages during different stages of children's cognitive development
- disseminate the findings of the research carried out during the initial stage of the planning action

macro policies and guidelines are implemented

- teachers are the target of dissemination of the research carried out in the preliminary phase
- teachers receive formal training related to effective managerial strategies that secure a successful implementation of a lifestyle diglossia within families

meso level — schools — transmit and implement macro policies and guidelines

- teachers secure parents' support for school-based language learning plans
- teachers influence people's behaviour as to language use
- teachers make children view television in English as part of their daily homework

micro level — families — macro and meso level policies are implemented

- parents are informed of the benefits of television-mediated foreign language acquisition
- parents acquire effective managerial strategies that regulate successful language practices within families
- parents adopt new roles and relationships that increase the degree of involvement in the process of Early Language Learning in their home and strengthen their bonds and cooperation with the school
- parents network with other parents

empirical-rational strategies · normative-re-educative strategies · power-coercive strategies

Figure 335. Implementation strategies.

On top of the scale we would find one macro level agency developing both a language and a language-in-education planning actions. Further down the scale, at meso level, we would find the schools acting as transmission belts and playing a double role: as recipients of the macro policies and guidelines as to implementation on the one hand, and as transmitters and implementors of the macro policies and guidelines at micro level on the other. Finally, at the bottom of the scale we would find the micro level contexts in which macro and meso level actors would implement policies.

Because a significant change of human behaviour would be required, we recommend that a combination of empirical-rational, normative-re-educative and power-coercive strategies (Chin and Benne, 1969) should be designed at macro level and implemented at meso and micro levels.

Empirical-rational strategies assume that men and women are rational and that individual changes in behaviour are determined by their rational self-interest. The most popular strategy advocated by such way of thinking implies building knowledge and disseminating the results of research into the minds of the change target. In this way, a proposed change will be adopted if it can be rationally justified and the benefits of the change can be demonstrated.

On the other hand, normative-re-educative strategies assume that, without denying the rationality and self-interest underpinning human motivations, actions are mainly driven by individuals' commitment to sociocultural norms which, in turn, are supported by human beings' adherence to particular structures of attitudes, values, skills, and institutionalised roles and relationships. Because patterns of behaviour are adapted to the social norm, for changes to occur, commitments to the desired norms must be developed, for which the target of change must redefine and adhere to new attitudes and values, develop new skills and adopt new roles and relationships. In the long run, these strategies produce longer-lasting commitments because they stress participation, trust and experience-based learning.

Finally, power-coercive strategies stem from the legitimate use of power of some sort or another to exert change that is supported by people or institutions. In this particular case, the main advantage of such strategies is that it can produce effective, though not necessarily long-lasting, rapid results.

As we will see further below, none of these three strategies-for-change typologies will be able to effectively produce the desired outcomes on their own when applied to the contexts in which a television-mediated lifestyle diglossia language planning action are to be implemented.

Considering the main outcomes of our research, outlined further above in Chapter 5, we recommend that the following strategies are adopted following a step-by-step approach.

A preliminary action to be undertaken by any macro level institution would consist of designing and implementing longitudinal research into the degree of television-mediated acquisition of foreign languages during different stages of children's cognitive development. Such action would fall within the empirical-rational and normative-re-educative strategies outlined above. This strategy would pursue the following aims. To begin with, to spark curiosity among members of the education community and families, raise awareness and rouse expectations. Secondly, to build knowledge and to disseminate the findings among members of the education system and families. Finally, to build a new system of attitudes and beliefs towards foreign language learning and acquisition on the one hand, and about institutionalised roles and relationships on the other. In this way, rational demonstration of the benefits of watching television in one or more foreign languages, together with formal and word-of-mouth dissemination of the findings, could act as catalysts and trigger stakeholders' interest in adopting this new system of attitudes and beliefs which, in turn, could lead to a wider social demand for further institutional planning, thus generating a ripple effect.

Given that, as was revealed in Part 4, the frequency with which children view television in English on a regular basis is higher when this practice is started at a lower age, we recommend that the research action proposed should be aimed at nursery schools or at the lowest levels of pre-primary education.

However, it is not expected that this first action would, on its own, bring about deep social changes. It is a spark that is meant to put the change in motion, but further efforts would be demanded for a deeper transformation. Such a claim is based on the fact that, for this research action to produce the expected outcomes, the sample of the investigation would have to be restricted to families meeting the requirements that were identified in Chapter 4 as those shared by parents whose children always watch television in English. In other words, the sample would have to be made up of families

in which parents had the highest levels of commitment and determination, the most positive beliefs about foreign language acquisition, the highest expectations regarding their children's future level of attainment in English, the most positive attitudes towards English and learning foreign languages, the highest levels of schooling, the highest levels of English and, preferably, previous personal experience of television-mediated foreign language acquisition. It can be concluded, therefore, that the low number of parents that meet these requirements, as our findings in Chapter 4 revealed, would limit the size of the sample and narrow the scope of the research which, in turn, could limit its initial impact. However, narrow as the scope of the research might be, this initial phase of the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia must not be omitted if normative-re-educative strategies are to be introduced.

A second phase of a lifestyle diglossia planning action, also designed at macro level, would involve accounting for and managing the findings of our research into family language policy in Chapter 4, and the development of particular strategies aiming at disseminating the findings of the research carried out during the initial stage of the planning action. Although the development of such strategies would still correspond to institutional macro level agencies, their implementation would unfold at two lower levels, first at school meso level and secondly at family micro level.

At meso level, schools would initially need to play the role of recipients of macro level strategies and guidelines. In other words, if schools are called to be an interface between macro level institutions on the one hand and families at micro level on the other, members of the school community must be made to get involved in the whole process. This could be done through a four-step scheme. To begin with, by being made the first target of dissemination of the research carried out in the preliminary action so that they can be in a position to further transmit the findings down to the families. Secondly, by having formal training related to effective managerial strategies that secure a successful implementation of a lifestyle diglossia within families. Next, by being allowed to participate in the design of further strategies for a lifestyle diglossia implementation at family level. Finally, by being made responsible for the implementation of such strategies at family level.

The first of the measures engaging schools as implementers of macro level policies at family level would be concerned with informing parents of the benefits of television-

mediated foreign language acquisition, supported by the findings of the research carried out in the preliminary phase. Once again, the aim of this strategy would be twofold. On the one hand, to provide rational arguments for parents to adopt a lifestyle diglossia in pursuit of their self-interest, and on the other, to bring about an attachment to new attitudes and values, the development of new skills and the adoption of new roles and relationships.

Some of the new skills that schools are called upon to help parents acquire, already discussed in Chapter 4, are those related to the effective managerial strategies that regulate successful language practices within families, for example asking children about the language in which they want to view television or what parents should do when they are asked by their children to change the language in which they are watching television.

As for the adoption of new roles and relationships, parents would be expected to increase the degree of involvement in the process of Early Language Learning in their home and to strengthen their bonds and cooperation with the school.

A further strategy that should be piloted by schools would have to do with fostering parents networking so that, through social relationships, exchange of information is encouraged, positive beliefs are shaped and favourable norms of behaviour are enforced (Sheldon, 2002).

We also believe that certain power-coercive strategies could have a positive impact during the first stages of the implementation of a lifestyle diglossia: for example, having teachers make children view television in English as part of their daily homework, particularly if this strategy is brought about in conjunction with and in support of parental policies.

Two final recommendations remain to be made. First, it could be claimed that a successful implementation of a television-mediated foreign language acquisition lifestyle diglossia could perhaps question the necessity of bilingual education in certain additive contexts, a domain language specialisation that, although still in its embryonic stages, is becoming more and more popular among the numerous regional education authorities, in this way limiting the number of domain language specialisations to television viewing and also the potential impact on the vitality of Spanish language and

culture. We are not arguing here against the relevance of bilingual education. We are simply proposing a comparative study of the costs and benefits of both approaches to foreign language acquisition to help improve both the effectiveness and efficiency of the allocation of resources.

Finally, the design of the longitudinal study proposed above should contemplate the research into the simultaneous acquisition of two or more foreign languages so that the potential of foreign language acquisition is fully explored. In this way, if research found evidence of the feasibility of such a strategy, the benefits of television-mediated foreign language acquisition would be maximised. Furthermore, if a lifestyle diglossia scheme could contemplate the television-mediated simultaneous acquisition of two or more foreign languages, the influence that any of those languages could exercise over Spanish language and culture would be diluted, thus helping preserve its vitality.

In conclusion, based on the findings of our research, we would like to finish the present thesis by recommending that the education authorities of the Autonomous Community of Cantabria as well as other regional and national education authorities take the necessary steps leading to the development and implementation of a television-mediated foreign language acquisition lifestyle diglossia language policy that takes full advantage of its potential to improve the competence of its younger population in foreign languages. In this way, they will be contributing to the enhancement of employability and the improvement of the competitiveness of the regional economy, to the construction of a European identity, to the democratisation of the European Union institutions and to intercultural dialogue and social cohesion, all of which will lead to deeper integration of the European Union.

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