

**Perceptions Among the
Young Adults of Chinese
Second Generation on
Home Language
Maintenance: Multiple Case
Studies from South
Australia**

By

Wei Wei

Bachelor of Arts;

Master of Chinese International Education;

Master of Teaching



*Thesis
Submitted to Flinders University
for the degree of*

Master of TESOL

College of Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences
25th June 2022

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS	I
ABSTRACT	IV
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	VI
LIST OF FIGURES	VII
LIST OF TABLES	VIII
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Overview	1
1.2.1 The global context.....	2
1.2.2 The national context.....	2
1.2.3 The status quo of Chinese HLM in Australia	3
1.2.4 The research problem statement.....	4
1.3 The rationale of the study	5
1.4 Research aims and research questions.....	5
1.4.1 Research aims	5
1.4.2 Research questions	5
1.5 The scope of the study	5
1.6 Summary of Chapter 1	6
CHAPTER 2. A LITERATURE REVIEW	7
2.1 Overview	7
2.2 The perceptions of home language maintenance (HLM)	8
2.2.1 The first generation's positive perceptions of HLM	8
2.2.2 The second generation's mixed perceptions of HLM	9
2.2.3 Mismatches between the first- and second-generation's perceptions of HLM.....	10
2.3 Contributing factors to home language maintenance (HLM)	10
2.3.1 Family factors and their contribution to HLM	11
2.3.2 Social factors and their contribution to HLM	12
2.3.3 Individual factors and their contribution to HLM.....	13
2.5 The research gap	14
2.6 Summary of Chapter 2	14
CHAPTER 3. A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	16
3.1 Overview	16
3.2 A consideration of relevant theories for this HLM research	16
3.3 Spolsky's language policy framework	17
3.4 The study's conceptual framework.....	19
3.5 Summary of Chapter 3	19
CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY	21
4.1 Overview	21
4.2 Methodological consideration	21

4.2.1 The research methods	21
4.2.2 The use of qualitative research in the current study	22
4.3 Qualitative research design	22
4.3.1 The justification of multiple case studies as the chosen research design	22
4.3.2 Special consideration: the ethics and pandemic.....	23
4.3.3 Interview data collection protocol	24
4.4 Interview Data collection.....	25
4.4.1 The process of interview data collection.....	25
4.4.2 Recordings and transcriptions of data	25
4.4.3 Research participants	25
4.5 Analysis of interview data	26
4.5.1 Initial analysis of interview data.....	26
4.5.2 More comprehensive subsequent analysis of interview data.....	26
4.5.3 Interpretation of analytical interview data	26
4.6 Methodological limitations of the study	26
4.7 Summary of Chapter 4	27
CHAPTER 5. CASE-STUDY DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS	28
5.1 Overview	28
5.2 A description of two participants	28
5.3 Analyses of case study 1	29
5.3.1 Feelings about HLM.....	29
5.3.2 Attitudes towards HLM.....	29
5.3.3 Expectations of HLM.....	30
5.3.4 Family factors.....	30
5.3.5 Social factors	31
5.3.6 Individual factors	32
5.4 Analysis of case study 2	32
5.4.1 Feelings about HLM.....	33
5.4.2 Attitudes towards HLM.....	33
5.4.3 Expectations of HLM.....	34
5.4.4 Family factors.....	34
5.4.5 Social factors	35
5.4.6 Individual factors	36
5.5 Cross-case analysis	37
5.6 Summary of Chapter 5	40
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION OF THE KEY FINDINGS	41
6.1 Overview	41
6.2 Research questions revisited.....	41
6.3 Discussion of key findings	41
6.4 Summary of Chapter 6	42
CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS.....	44

7.1 Overview	44
7.2 A brief summary of major findings	44
7.3 Significance of the study.....	44
7.4 Limitations of the study.....	45
7.5 Implications of the study	46
7.5.1 Implications for further practice	46
7.5.2 Implications for further research.....	46
7.6 Concluding remarks.....	47
REFERENCES	48
APPENDICES	54
Appendix 1: Letter of Ethical Approval.....	54
Appendix 2: Interview questions	56

ABSTRACT

Home language maintenance (HLM) supports bilingualism, well-being development and family harmony. However, research indicates that the Chinese second generation (CSG) has the lowest HLM rate among all the language communities in Australia. Although the CSG is the key to a successful HLM, their voices are often ignored due to a traditionally hierarchical family structure. Therefore, the research aims to investigate the perceptions among young adults of CSG on the importance of HLM in South Australia (SA). Towards achieving this aim, the research seeks answers to the questions about how young adults of the CSG perceive the importance of HLM in SA and what key factors have influenced their perceptions. Two case studies were conducted to collect data from two young adults of the CSG in SA. Each participant was asked to complete a structured questionnaire and then had a semi-structured interview, followed by an informal interview. A two-stage analysis and a constant comparative method were utilised to analyse the two case studies' data. The findings indicate that the two participating young adults perceived the importance of HLM in SA differently. Furthermore, the family factors contribute significantly to their perceptions of the importance of HLM, while social and individual factors' contributions were perceived to be less influential. Despite its limited scope, this research makes contributions to both practices and research on HLM. Further research using a larger number of case studies and more rigorous mixed research methods could be conducted to provide a richer picture of HLM in SA and beyond.

Word count: 250

DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis:

1. does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university
2. and the research within will not be submitted for any other future degree or diploma without the permission of Flinders University; and
3. to the best of my knowledge and belief, does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

Signed..........

Date.....9-6-2022.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As this thesis is completed, I would like to thank several people who have helped me with research and thesis writing. First of all, I would like to thank Dr Mai Ngo. She is very knowledgeable, quick-thinking supervisor with a rigorous attitude. While guiding me step-by-step through research design and thesis conception, she also encouraged me to overcome difficulties and challenged me to sharpen my mind. Without her guidance and help, I could not have completed this thesis.

I would also like to thank the librarian, Ms Catherine Brady, for her explicit explanation of systematic literature review and patience in the hands-on teaching. She is warm-hearted, selfless and supportive.

In addition, I would like to thank Mr Hendryk Flaegel, who gave me clear, feasible solutions and practical advice on ethical-related questions.

I also sincerely thank Dr Jeffrey Gil, Ms Kristin Natalier and Dr Samantha Schulz for their warm encouragement and kind understanding when I felt stressed and depressed in writing the thesis. They helped me to calm down and move on.

At last, please allow me to express my greatest thanks to my husband. In the past few years of overseas study, he has always given me the strongest support, the warmest comfort and the most sincere advice. He is also one of the motivations for me to study hard. I love him.

Graduating from this programme prepares me for further research study, and I know the road will be full of challenges and difficulties. So let me express my heart with an ancient Chinese poem: 路漫漫其修远兮，吾将上下而求索(No matter how challenging it is, I will always keep moving and never give up).

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Language policy framework	16
Figure 3.2 The study's conceptual framework	18

LIST OF TABLES

Table 5.1 Two research participants' information	26
Table 5.2 Cross-case analysis of participants	35

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

The thesis is about the Chinese second generation's perceptions of home language maintenance (HLM) and the factors that have influenced their perceptions. Home language (HL) is the first language the first generation has fully developed in their home country (Eisenclas & Schalley, 2020); HLM refers to the transmitting of the first language to the next generations for continuous use (Purkarthofer, 2020).

The thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the contextual background for the current study and states the research problem, questions and purpose. Chapter 2 thematically reviews the literature on perceptions of HLM among the first and second generations and the factors that could contribute to their perceptions. Chapter 3 considers several theories about HLM, including (i) L2 Motivational Self system, (ii) a combination of Comprehensible Input theory, Club/Group Membership theory and ethnic identity development model, and (iii) theory of Reversing Language Shift) that have been utilised in the literature. Chapter 3 also discusses the relevance of Spolsky's (2009) language policy theory to the current research and develops a conceptual framework based on the discussions on different theories about HLM. Chapter 4 justifies the chosen research method, the research design, the instruments for data collection, and data analysis. Chapter 5 presents the key findings by analysing the data collected from key research participants. Chapter 6 revisits the research questions and discusses the key findings. Finally, Chapter 7 highlights the significance of the research, acknowledges its limitations, and provides implications for researchers, parents and educational practitioners; this chapter also draws a conclusion to the whole study.

This chapter begins with the global and national context of the Chinese language community, followed by a problem statement and a rationale for the research. The research questions, research aims, and the study's scope are also presented in the chapter, justifying the need for conducting the research.

1.2 The context background

Chinese people have a long history of travelling and migrating overseas, which results in Chinese communities worldwide (Wei, 2016). A language community (e.g. Chinese community) is formed by people who recognise the same identity, speak an ethnic language and have similar language beliefs (Clyne & Kipp, 1997). Along with settling down in new places, Chinese people form a complex system of Chinese language, which includes various Chinese dialects, Chinese minority languages, traditional Chinese and modern Chinese (Wei, 2016). This section will review global and national contexts concerning migration history and HLM status.

1.2.1 The global context

1.2.1.1 Chinese migrants worldwide

Chinese have a long history of migration outside China. The first sizable migration from China to close countries was in the 12th century because of religion (Buddhist monks) and trade (merchants) (Wei, 2016). Afterwards, the Chinese moved worldwide and established different Chinese communities (Wei, 2016). Like other migrants, they experienced the time of being treated as labour and workers to compensate for the "decline of the slavery system" and the process of resistance, marginalisation and assimilation (Wei, 2016, p. 2). Now there are Chinese on every continent (Wei, 2016). Canada has the most prominent Chinese group, where 610,835 report the use of Mandarin Chinese (Liang, 2018). In the USA, the Chinese group is the second-largest population among migrants, with more than 2.5 million children speaking Chinese as their HL (Smith & Li, 2020). In Australia, 497,265 people self-reported as Chinese-language speakers in 2016's census (Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), 2016).

1.2.1.2 The development of Chinese language maintenance worldwide

The first generation of Chinese migrants is willing to maintain their HL and pass it on to the next generation (Clyne & Kipp, 1997). Chinese children learn their parents' Chinese language at home in Singapore (Li et al., 2016), Canada (Li, 2016), Australia (Shen & Jiang, 2021), and the USA (Smith & Li, 2020). Parents also support HLM by sending their children to weekend language schools, attending traditional Chinese events, and travelling back to China (Shen & Jiang, 2021; Zhang, 2004; 2010).

However, the Chinese HLM rate was reported to be the lowest among all the language communities worldwide (Law, 2015; Mu & Dooley, 2015); it is also the only ethnic language that shows an increasing trend of shifting to the dominant language after several decades of HLM studies and efforts (Law, 2015). For example, although Singapore announces Chinese as its official language, half of the Chinese-background children regard English as their HL (Li et al., 2016). In Canada, less than 20% of the Chinese second generation maintain their learning and use of the Chinese language (Xiang & Makarova, 2021). In the USA, few second-generation Chinese migrants speak Chinese at the end of Year 1 (Zhang, 2004; 2010). In Australia, the Chinese HLM rate is the lowest among language communities (Clyne & Kipp, 2006). It has drawn scholars to studies on the Chinese HLM in different countries, such as those by Shen and Jiang (2021) in Australia and Zhang (2004; 2010) in the USA, and this research is about the Chinese second generation's perceptions of HLM in South Australia.

1.2.2 The national context

1.2.2.1 Chinese migrants in Australia

According to National Museum Australia (NMA) (2021) records, Chinese people first moved to Australia in the early 1900s. The first migration in the 1840s was their free choice, but in the

subsequent decades, Chinese people were hired to work in Australia as indentured labourers (NMA, 2021). Many Chinese migrants experienced racism during and after the Gold Rush period, and then the Anti-Chinese Sentiment was announced to stop the Chinese from migrating to Australia (NMA, 2021). When the Immigration Restriction Act was published in 1901, Chinese migrants had already settled in the five states of Australia (NMA, 2021).

The long migration history of Chinese worldwide has resulted in a complex Chinese community in Australia (Wei, 2016). Currently, 1.2 million Chinese reside in Australia; 42% are first generation (ABS, 2016), and the rest are of mixed-up descent of early Chinese migrations from different areas of China and migrations from Chinese communities outside China of Chinese origin (Wei, 2016). The HL spoken varies from Mandarin to a wide range of minority languages, such as Hakka, and dialects like Cantonese and Shanghainese (ABS, 2016; Wei, 2016). For the Chinese migrants in Australia, HLM is guided by Australia's language policies and education (Spolsky, 2012; Verdon et al., 2014).

1.2.2.2 The history of language policies and education in Australia (the 1960s-2017)

To keep the dominant values, histories and languages quo, language policies in schools emphasise monolingual education (García & Tupas, 2018), and English is the dominant language in Australian education settings (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Tran et al., 2021). Before the mid-1960s, the language policies remained "firmly assimilationist", which addressed monolingualism and an English-only society (Clyne & Kipp, 2006; p. 9). However, by the late 1960s, ethnic languages started to be taught in community language schools for economic benefits, prioritising English as the dominant language in Australia (Clyne & Kipp, 2006). By 2006, there were little community and social support for HLM, with school teaching and media using English only (Clyne & Kipp, 2006).

A review of language education policies in 2017 claims that there is currently "no specific language education policy at the federal level" (Multicultural Education and Languages Committee (MELC), 2017, p. 1). Language policy implementation varies among Australian states, ranging from statewide specific language policy (e.g., Australian Capital Territory and Victoria) to no statewide specific language policy (MELC, 2017). Language education in schools is generally guided by the Australian Curriculum and specific language policies in some states, such as New South Wales, Queensland, and the Northern Territory (MELC, 2017).

1.2.3 The status quo of Chinese HLM in Australia

The history of language policies and education in Australia shows that the education system in Australia does not provide sufficient support for HLM among students from different language communities (Clyne & Kipp, 1997; 2006; Tran et al., 2021; Wei, 2021). For example, not all Australian schools have classes to teach the HL of migrant families (Clyne & Kipp, 1997; 2006; Tran et al., 2021; Verdon et al., 2014). Also, students can only sit English exams (e.g. NAPLAN),

which demotivate schools and families from maintaining a language other than English (Gacia & Tupas, 2018). Furthermore, teachers may lack awareness of HLM and the importance of continuously developing children's HL while learning the dominant language (Lee & Oxelson, 2006). For instance, they believe in the benefits of being monolingual and require parents to speak English with their children (Hu et al., 2014; Molyneux, 2006).

Community language schools have been established to compensate for the insufficient support for HLM from schools. In Victoria State alone, there were more than twelve million new enrolments in 2017, and the year 2019 saw 28 accredited Chinese weekend schools (Liao & Huang, 2020). However, Tran et al. (2021) point out that community language schools may not effectively support HLM. It may be caused by traditional teaching styles, such as teachers controlling the whole class and lots of drilling work, which makes students who are used to the student-centred classroom find it boring and want to avoid attending Chinese weekend schools (Liao & Huang, 2020). Thus, the HLM learning outcomes of community language schools to HLM are not as good as expected.

With the insufficient support from the education system and the unreliability of community language schools, migrant families in Australia have become the primary source of HLM (Tran et al., 2021; Wei, 2021). However, families may not support HLM due to the influential factors of age, competence in HL and cultural identity (Tran et al., 2021). For example, some parents are more willing to practice English with their children for educational benefits (Liao & Huang, 2020). On the other hand, those who have positive beliefs about the importance of HLM may not arrange HLM practice, such as speaking their HL with children (Shen & Jiang, 2021). Furthermore, for families with a strict family policy of HLM, for example, an HL-only policy, children may resist speaking HL with their parents (Liao & Huang, 2020; Shen & Jiang, 2021). Therefore, HLM in Australia is challenged by insufficient support from the education system, the unreliability of community language schools, and the impacts of various factors on parents.

1.2.3.1 Current policies and programmes about Chinese HLM in South Australia

There is no specific language education policy in South Australia, and the Australian Curriculum guides language education in SA schools (MELC, 2017). It should also be pointed out that the language subject is compulsory from Reception to Year 8 (80 minutes/week) and optional after Year 8 (125 minutes/week). Since 2017, an R-12 Chinese program has been offered as a part of new bilingual programs (MELC, 2017). Schools may also provide distance learning of Chinese for Year 7/8 students by partnering with Open Access College (MELC, 2017; Open Access College, 2022). Currently, Chinese is taught in 32 educational settings, including 29 schools, two language colleges and a bilingual school (Department for Education South Australia, 2022).

1.2.4 The research problem statement

The problem this research aims to address here is in relation to the low HLM rate of Chinese among the Chinese second generation in Australia. Parents of the second generation (also known

as the first generation) normally regard HL as a part of their cultural heritage and are willing to maintain it for family relationships and cultural identity (Eisenclas & Schalley, 2020). However, the Chinese language is not well-maintained among the second generation in Australia (Clyne & Kipp, 1997; 2006). The failure of HLM could damage family relationships and the well-being of both parents and children (Houwer, 2020; Wei, 2021). The different languages spoken between parents and children can lead to less communication, increasing misunderstandings and isolation (Sevinc, 2020). Consequently, it could have life-long negative impacts on children's "physical and mental health, temperament, and personality" (Houwer, 2020, p. 64). It also damages the development of bilingualism and linguistic diversity, which the Australian government and UNESCO highly recognise as a precious contribution to nations (ACARA, 2021; UNESCO, 2021). The negative impacts of failed HLM on family relationships and well-being indicate the necessity of studying HLM among the Chinese second generation (Wei, 2021).

1.3 The rationale of the study

With the highest language shift rate, few studies (see Section 2.5) have directly addressed HLM among the Chinese second generation, particularly their perceptions of the importance of HLM (Hu et al., 2014; Melo-Pfeifer, 2015). It has been predicted that the Chinese language is the only HL that will be completely lost within three generations (Mu & Dooley, 2015). According to Spolsky (2009), individuals' perceptions of HLM will influence their actions relating to HLM, such as the use and learning of HL. Because the second generation is considered the critical generation to a successful HLM (Tannenbaum & Howie, 2002), it is essential to understand the Chinese second generation's perceptions of HLM (Liao & Huang, 2020; Shen & Jiang, 2021; Spolsky, 2019).

1.4 Research aims and research questions

1.4.1 Research aims

The aim of the study is to investigate the Chinese second generation's perceptions of the importance of HLM and the key factors that have influenced their perceptions.

1.4.2 Research questions

Towards achieving this research aim, this research is conducted to seek answers to two following questions:

- a. How do the young adults of the Chinese second generation perceive the importance of HLM?
- b. What are the family, social and individual factors that have influenced their perceptions?

1.5 The scope of the study

This small-scale study was conducted by the researcher in South Australia for a short period of nine months. Only two young adults of the Chinese second generation (see Section 5.2 for the research participants' details) were invited to participate in this study. The study focuses on those two participating young adults' perceptions of the importance of HLM and the key factors that have influenced their perceptions (see Section 4. 4. 3 for participant recruitment).

1.6 Summary of Chapter 1

Chapter 1 lays the foundation for the proposed study, which provides a context for the study, conducts a preliminary review of the relevant literature, explains the rationale, defines the scope of the study, and presents crucial information about the research, including the research problem, research aim and research questions. This chapter will be followed by a comprehensive and systematic literature review, presented in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 2. A LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter reviews the literature on HLM to better understand the chosen research focus (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The research applies a systematic literature review (SLR) strategy that involves "a comprehensive search to identify all the relevant literature, inclusion and exclusion criteria, assessing literature, analysis of data, presentation and synthesis of literature" (Aromataris & Pearson, 2014, p. 54). The literature is peer-reviewed papers that provide empirical evidence and statistical findings.

In this study, the literature review involves a search for the literature in databases and two rounds of screenings. When searching for the literature, the researcher uses the keywords of [heritage/home language and maintain/maintenance and second-generation/parent/family/child and perception/perceive] to search for the relevant publications without year limitation in the database Scopus, Proquest, SAGE Journal and Google Scholar. As a result of the search, a total of 138 results were found.

In the first round of screening, the researcher skimmed through the 138 articles by reading the abstracts, and 53 were selected for the second round of screening if they are related to any of the four main aspects of (a) family, children, or second-generation; (b). outside China; (c). home/heritage language maintenance; and (d). migrant groups (Wei, 2021).

In the second round of screening, the researcher read the full text of the 53 chosen literature to check whether they contain the relevant key aspects of home language or heritage language, language shift or language maintenance, bilingualism, and factors that could influence HLM. As a result of the second round of screening based on the pre-determined selection criteria, 37 relevant scholarly articles published from 2000 to 2021 were finally selected for review, and those papers published before 2000 were excluded.

In this chapter, the reviewed literature is thematically categorised into two themes (i) the perceptions of the importance of HLM; and (ii) the contributing factors that could impact HLM, which are closely related to the research questions (see Section 1.4). The former theme reviews scholarly sources on parents' (or the first generation's) and children's (or the second generation's) perceptions of HLM among various language communities worldwide. The latter theme reviews studies on the factors that could impact Chinese HLM. The purpose of this chapter is to justify the need for conducting this current research and reveal a research gap for the current study to address.

2.2 The perceptions of home language maintenance (HLM)

2.2.1 The first generation's positive perceptions of HLM

Perceptions of HLM refer to the attitudes towards HLM and its values (Liang & Shin, 2021). It involves people's ideology about what should be done for HLM and why (Spolsky, 2009; 2012; 2019). Most of the 37 studies chosen for review in this chapter collected data from the first generation, also known as parents in the literature (Clyne & Kipp, 1997; 2006); therefore, the terms "parents" and "first-generation" will be used interchangeably in the thesis. The literature review finds studies covering 17 different language communities, including the Chinese language community, and nine geographic locations, including Chinese and Polish in Australia, Korean, Chinese and Spanish in the USA, Russian in Israel and Turkish in the Netherlands.

The review shows that parents generally have positive attitudes towards HLM across nations and language communities. For instance, an in-depth interview of 18 Chinese parents in the USA indicated a strong desire for HLM and felt more concerned about their children's HLM than learning the dominant language in the migration country (Zhang, 2004). This finding is supported by qualitative research on other non-Chinese language communities, such as Korean parents in Canada and the USA (e.g., Kang, 2015; Part & Sarkar, 2007), European and Latino parents in the USA (e.g., DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009; Nesteruk, 2010), Polish families in Australia (e.g., Romanowski, 2021) and Iranian parents in the New Zealand (e.g., Gharibi & Seals, 2020).

Furthermore, recent surveys on HLM with larger samples produced similar results. For example, a study by Little (2020) surveyed 212 parents across ethnicities in the UK and found that they were generally aware of the importance of HLM. Another survey among 151 Vietnamese parents revealed that they thought HLM were meaningful (Tran et al., 2021). Also, a Schwartz (2008) survey indicated that 70 Russian parents believed learning the HL was important. The results align with Fishman's (1991) claim in his three-generation theory that the first generation has the strongest desire for HLM.

The literature review indicates that most parents value HLM for maintaining their culture and identity, its academic benefits and advantages, and extended family communication. For example, 212 parents from various ethnicities were surveyed in the UK, and results showed that 86% of them emphasised the importance of communicating with family members in their home countries, 81% connected HLM with their identity and culture, and 55% associated HLM with their increased job opportunities (Little, 2020). Further analysis shows that Asian parents tend to emphasise academic advancement and career opportunities (e.g., Part & Sarkar, 2007; Tran et al., 2021; Zhang, 2004; 2010), while parents from other language backgrounds relate HLM more to cultural identity, culture and family communication (e.g., Gharibi & Seals, 2020; Nesteruk, 2010; Schwartz, 2008).

The reviewed studies about parents' perceptions of HLM illustrate their strong desire for HLM. Since the parents understand the importance of HLM and are willing to maintain it, the rate of HLM should be high among the families. However, the investigation of the HLM rate worldwide shows a decreasing trend of HLM from the first generation to the second generation (Law, 2015). To understand the decreased HLM rate, some researchers have turned their eyes to the second generation, usually the children of the first generation (e.g., Clyne & Kipp, 2006), and the current study focuses on the Chinese second generation in SA. Therefore, the terms "children" and "second generation" are used interchangeably in this thesis.

2.2.2 The second generation's mixed perceptions of HLM

Unlike the first generation, who generally believe in the importance and value of HLM, the second generation's perceptions of HLM vary in the 37 reviewed studies. They have positive or negative attitudes towards HLM. For example, in a recent study by Shen and Jiang (2021), interviews of 30 school-aged Chinese Australians showed that half of them perceived HLM to be overly complicated and a waste of time, but the remaining valued the learning and maintenance of HL for career and educational benefits. An earlier study of 70 Russian-Hebrew second generations in Israel produced a similar result with mixed perceptions of HLM (Schwartz, 2008). In some reviewed studies, the second generation also had extremely negative perceptions of HLM. For example, the Chinese American children in Zhang's (2004) study resisted HLM and felt forced to learn and use it. Half of the Russian mothers reported that their children rejected HLM, but the reasons for rejection were not acknowledged due to a lack of data collected from the second generation (Otwinowska et al., 2021).

In contrast, in other reviewed studies, the second generations positively perceive HLM. For example, Cho (2015) surveyed 260 high school Korean American students, and 84.2% perceived HLM as important. Three Georgia Latina adolescents in Stevenson et al.'s (2017) study expressed pride in their HL and their strong willingness to maintain HL because of the meaningful philosophies contained in the HL, such as resilience and courage they learnt from HL idioms. Spanish-American college students learned HL for a sense of responsibility and more job opportunities (Torres & Turner, 2017). About half of the Chinese-Australian school students in Shen and Jiang's (2021) research wanted to challenge themselves with learning Chinese and were interested in maintaining it (Shen & Jiang, 2021). German-American and Chinese-American children maintained their HL for family cohesion and educational benefits (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009; Yu, 2014). 90% of 260 Korean American high school students believed that HL skills were important; their reasons included family relationships, communication within the language community, culture and career opportunities (Cho, 2015).

2.2.3 Mismatches between the first- and second-generation's perceptions of HLM

The above review shows some mismatches between the first- and second-generation perceptions of HLM. While the first generations in different language communities generally have a positive perception of HLM, the second generations have mixed perceptions; some perceive HLM negatively and even resist it. Unlike the first generations, who consider HLM their responsibility, some second generations can hardly see the importance of HLM as a minority language (Nesteruk, 2010). Instead, they develop bi-cultural identities and often self-identify as dominant language users (Brown, 2009; Liang & Shin, 2021). The second generations in the reviewed literature value the dominant language and believe it helps them be accepted by the dominant group (Romanowski, 2021). Self-identified as dominant language users, they are more interested in learning an official language because it is widely accepted and used outside their homes (Enstice, 2017; Schwartz, 2008); they prefer to use the official language (Cho, 2015; Qin, 2006; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009) or are more comfortable to speak it (Smith & Li, 2020).

The mismatches of perceptions of the importance of HLM and the second generation's preference for using the dominant language may be caused by a different living environment where the first- and second generations grow up and develop HL, which parents often ignore (Spolsky, 2012). Spolsky (2012) points out that parents often apply the same cultural patterns to their children in a new migration country. For example, the first generation who grew up in China lived in a Chinese-dominant environment before they moved to Australia; the schools taught courses in Chinese, and everyone in public spoke Chinese, with the media in Chinese. As a result, by the time they migrated to a new country in adulthood, they had developed mutual linguistic and cognitive abilities (Clyne & Kipp, 1997; 2006). However, in Australia, the second generation has lived there since they were born or at a very young age (Clyne & Kipp, 1997; 2006); Australia is an English-dominant country where everything they learn and the people they speak to require English language skills (Law, 2015; Verdon et al., 2014). Therefore, it is necessary to understand the living environment in the migration country as it can impact their perceptions of the importance of HLM.

2.3 Contributing factors to home language maintenance (HLM)

A review of 37 chosen studies shows various contributing factors to HLM. Verdon et al. (2014) conducted a large-scale study in Australia using a mixed-research method. They identified three main factors that could contribute to the perceptions of HLM: family factors, social factors (including school and community), and individual factors. With a similar research location, focusing on the state of South Australia, the current study borrows the factors from a study by Verdon et al. (2014) and thematically structures this section into these three main contributing factors to HLM, starting with family factors.

2.3.1 Family factors and their contribution to HLM

The literature review shows that family factors are one of the key factors contributing to HLM, and the most common family factors include family HL communication, sending children to weekend language school, and visiting HL countries (e.g., Cho, 2000; 2015; Shen & Jiang, 2021; Tran et al., 2021; Zhang, 2010). Family HL communication involves parents and other family members (e.g., grandparents) who communicate with children in HL to enhance HLM through implicit learning of naturally picking up the HL in everyday use (Spolsky, 2007; Verdon et al., 2014). For instance, a German mother applied a strict one-language-one-parent policy to ensure her children converse with her only in German (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009). There are also cases where children had to use HL only at home because their parents were monolingual HL speakers (e.g., Melo-Pfeifer, 2015; Otwinowska et al., 2021; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009). The above two examples show a fixed and strict HL rule that children are only allowed to use HL at home.

In contrast, most families have a loose HL rule. Unlike fixed-HL-rule families, children in loose-HL-rule families are allowed to switch between HL and the dominant language with their parents' support. For example, their parents consistently used HL with their children and corrected linguistic errors (Gharibi & Seals, 2020; Nesteruk, 2010; Schwartz, 2008; Shen & Jiang, 2021). Also, the parents arranged online communication activities with extended family in the HL country (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009; Szecsi & Szilagyi, 2012).

Though HL communication with family members could support children's early HL learning, its influence will be weakened after children enrol in schools (Verdon et al., 2014). After enrolling in schools, children spend more time on dominant language learning and playing with monolingual friends, which leads to less time learning and using their HL (Nesteruk, 2010; Park & Sarkar, 2007). Also, the informal learning experiences at home could not satisfy the learning needs for higher language proficiency levels and provide sufficient exposure to improve reading and writing skills (Smith & Li, 2020; Torres & Turner, 2017; Yu, 2014). Consequently, children shift to the dominant language after school with a decreasing proficiency in their HL (Nesteruk, 2010; Verdon et al., 2014; Zhang, 2004).

In response to their children's low HL proficiency levels, parents have used a popular HLM strategy by sending children to weekend language schools. This strategy helps replace home exposure to HL with more formal learning in classrooms for HLM (Gonzalez et al., 2021; Liang & Shin, 2021; Nesteruk, 2010; Zhang, 2004). However, the effectiveness of weekend language schools depends on the quality of language teaching and children's willingness to HLM learning (Tran et al., 2021). Because most of the HL learning takes place on weekends, children felt forced to spend their leisure time learning HL, which resulted in their resistance to HLM (Lee, 2002; Liao & Huang, 2020; Little, 2020). Moreover, the traditional teaching style, which focused on drilling and memorising, and the lack of authentic materials made the children think that learning HL is tedious and

laborious (Gonzalez et al., 2021; Lee, 2002; Shen & Jiang, 2021). Consequently, they were demotivated by HLM and lost confidence in using HL (Gonzalez et al., 2021; Lee, 2002; Shen & Jiang, 2021).

Another common HLM strategy is arranging children's visits to HL countries, which is considered an effective strategy by both the first and second generations (Gharibi & Seals, 2020; Little, 2020; Shen & Jiang, 2021; Yu, 2014). Such HL country visits helped the second-generation better understand their heritage cultures, which increased their interest in HLM (Shen & Jiang, 2021). In addition, it may be because of their favourable experiences of acting as interpreters for monolingual visitors from the host country (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009). Visiting HL countries could also provide more opportunities to practise HL with local speakers (Cho, 2000). However, during the pandemic, people's mobility was vastly reduced, and trips back to HL countries had to be cancelled; this strategy has thus not been used as fully as expected previously to the pandemic.

In conclusion, although parents in review studies generally have positive attitudes toward HLM and put effort into maintaining the HL, not all family factors can contribute positively to HLM. Children's early exposure to HL at home will not stop their shifting to the dominant languages. Furthermore, weekend language schools could result in children's resistance to HL learning and use.

2.3.2 Social factors and their contribution to HLM

According to Spolsky (2007) and Juvonen et al. (2018), when children enrol in schools, they face non-family factors outside their homes. These are mainly related to their participation in the community and schools. The two domains frequently involve children's daily life outside their homes. The literature review shows that factors in school and community domains can have both negative and positive influences on HLM (Wei, 2021).

Schools and communities can better support HLM among the second generation. For example, an informal HLM programme in the language community increased the Portuguese-German children's positive feelings about HLM and motivated them to maintain their HL (Waetzold & Melo-Pfeifer, 2022; Wei, 2021). In the Netherlands, schools and healthcare centres encouraged Turkish families to develop positive perceptions of HLM, which motivated both the parents and children to put effort into maintaining their HL (Bezcioglu-Goktolga & Yagmur, 2018).

Similarly, Iranian families in New Zealand appreciated support from schools and local friends so they could successfully maintain HL among their children (Gharibi & Seals, 2020). The effectiveness of HLM support from schools and communities is supported by the research of Lee (2002) and Smith and Li (2020). Their findings indicate that the second generation believed that offering HLM programmes in schools showed respect to their HL and culture, which motivated them in HLM (Lee, 2002; Smith & Li, 2020).

However, English-speaking countries tend to support monolingual development and focus on the dominant language (Jaspal & Coyle, 2010; Tran et al., 2021; Verdon et al., 2014). For example, in Zhang and Slaughter-Defoe's (2009) study, the teachers regarded the second generation's HL skills as a handicap that could interfere with learning English, so they required parents to speak English only at home. Subsequently, this school practice has been found to reduce exposure to HL and can lead to a low HLM rate (Spolsky, 2007).

Moreover, second-generation students were isolated and bullied by peers due to the belief that bilingual children tended to have lower language proficiency levels than monolingual students (Zhang, 2004; 2010; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009). As a result, these students developed negative feelings about their culture and language, which led to their resistance to HLM (Zhang, 2004; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe). For example, in the UK, Asian-British young adults felt embarrassed about using HL in public places due to their schools' imposition of English and discrimination against using the HL; consequently, HLM had become a home-only practice (Jaspal & Coyle, 2010).

Furthermore, if the dominant language speakers presented negative attitudes toward HL speaking in public places, it could reduce the parents' use of HL with their children because they felt the community did not accept it (Bezcioglu-Goktolga & Yagmur, 2018; Torres & Turner, 2017; Tran et al., 2021; Verdon et al., 2014). Similarly, if HL speakers overly criticised the second generation's HL proficiency level, they could quit HLM due to losing confidence in HL learning and use (Cho, 2015).

To sum up, these findings in reviewed studies partially illustrate how schools and communities can enhance or hinder HLM differently. For example, encouragement and respect for HL from public settings and schools could lead to the second generation's positive perceptions of HLM, but negative experiences in schools and communities may result in their resistance to HLM. Therefore, the second generation's experiences in the social domains might impact their perceptions of HLM. Whether or not social factors have contributed to Chinese HLM in SA requires investigation.

2.3.3 Individual factors and their contribution to HLM

Apart from family and social factors, a review of the literature also highlights individual factors and their contribution to HLM. Individual factors include individuals' emotions and motivation for HLM (Brown, 2014). Individuals refer to the second generation as individual learners and users of HL (Spolsky, 2012). The literature review finds that negative emotions related to the second generation's identity and culture could damage their perceptions of HLM. For example, individuals of some second generations often feel marginalised and isolated from their monolingual peers due to individual differences in language and identity; as a result, the individuals' negative emotions cause them to blame these differences and resist HLM (Cho, 2015; Shin, 2010). In addition, some second generations develop a limited HL proficiency which causes anxiety and frustration when

they cannot find the equivalent expressions in their HL (Jaspal & Coyle, 2010; Little, 2020; Nesteruk, 2010). To avoid these individuals' negative emotions, they tend to stop communicating with HL speakers. Consequently, the negative emotions distance them from HLM (Torres & Turner, 2017).

The second generation's motivation as another individual factor can significantly impact their actions of HLM, especially on HL learning and use. Cho (2015) states that the second generation's lack of motivation for HLM is one of the most significant inhibiting factors. She points out that when the second generation perceives HLM as meaningless in an English-speaking society, they will feel unmotivated for HLM. This claim is supported by Lee's (2002) earlier study that Korean-Americans want to be motivated by the benefits and usefulness of HLM instead of being forced to learn their HL. The positive perceptions of HLM have motivated the Spanish-speaking second generation to work hard for high HL proficiency (Torres & Turner, 2017). Smith and Li (2020) suggest that when the second generation is motivated, they become active learners of HL and are more willing to maintain it.

In conclusion, as discussed in this literature review, individual factors, including individuals' emotions and motivation for HLM, can affect the second generation's perceptions of the importance of HLM and their actions for HLM. DeCapua and Wintergerst (2009) pointed out that the second generation must feel the need for HLM in their daily life, which is the decisive contributor to HLM. However, as the reviewed studies relating to individual factors are conducted outside SA, whether or not individual factors have contributed to Chinese HLM in South Australia requires further research (See Section 2.5 for further details).

2.5 The research gap

The review of 37 studies reveals a research gap that lacks answers to the current study's research questions as to how the Chinese second generation in SA has perceived the importance of HLM and what factors have contributed to their perceptions, which is thus open for interpretation and investigation. Particularly, the existing literature lacks directly collected data from young adults of the Chinese second generation in SA about their perceptions of the importance of HLM and contributing factors to their perceptions. Commenting on this research gap, Melo-Pfeifer (2015) and Law (2015) asserted that little had been done regarding the perceptions of children and youngsters of Chinese HLM in Australia. Therefore, the current study was conducted with the hope of partly narrowing this gap in the literature.

2.6 Summary of Chapter 2

Chapter 2 applies an SLR strategy to search, screen and review the literature to understand perceptions and contributing factors of HLM, which is the focus of the current research. The

literature review indicates a lack of studies on the perceptions of HLM among the young adults of Chinese second-generation's perceptions in Australia. Also, the low HLM rate of Chinese in Australia prompts an emergent need for the current research. Furthermore, it provides a basic understanding of the topic and identifies three main factor-related concepts, which are, namely, family factors, social factors and individual factors, for methodological consideration, as presented in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3. A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Overview

This chapter presents a conceptual framework that guides the conduct of the study from data collection to data analysis, data interpretation and discussion of findings.

Guided by the research questions (see Section 1.4) and the literature review (see Chapter 2), a conceptual framework was developed for research design, data collection, data analysis, and the discussion of findings in the current research. This conceptual framework could help seek answers to the research questions.

This chapter is structured into three main parts to provide the rationale for the conceptual framework based on Spolsky's (2009) language policy.

3.2 A consideration of relevant theories for this HLM research

Several theoretical options relating to language learning are relevant to HLM research. This study considers four theoretical options, namely, (i) L2 Motivational Self System, (ii) a combination of Comprehensible Input theory, Club/Group Membership theory and ethnic identity development model; (iii) theory of Reversing Language Shift; and (iv) Spolsky's Language Policy theory.

The first theoretical option is L2 Motivational Self System, which Smith and Li (2020) use to study the correlations between the Chinese second generation's HLM motivation and their reading attitudes. However, although this theory studies motivation which is a critical element in second language acquisition (Brown, 2014), it cannot fully explain the complexity of language learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2020), including the study of HLM.

The second theoretical option is the combination of the Comprehensible Input theory, Club/Group Membership theory and ethnic identity development model that Yu (2014) used to study correlations among motivation, identity and HLM. They could address how the input of an HL can influence HL proficiency, which may contribute to HLM (Spolsky, 2007). However, they cannot help with investigating individuals' perceptions of HLM, which is the chosen focus for this study (see Section 2.2), because various individual factors influence HLM in different domains (Trans et al., 2021).

The third theoretical option is Fishman's (1991) theory of Reversing Language Shift, which can be utilised to discuss language maintenance and language shift. This theory illustrates a language shift trend among three generations (the first, second and third generations), but it cannot support the investigation of the Chinese second generation's perceptions of HLM because this option mainly focuses on language shift (Fishman, 1991).

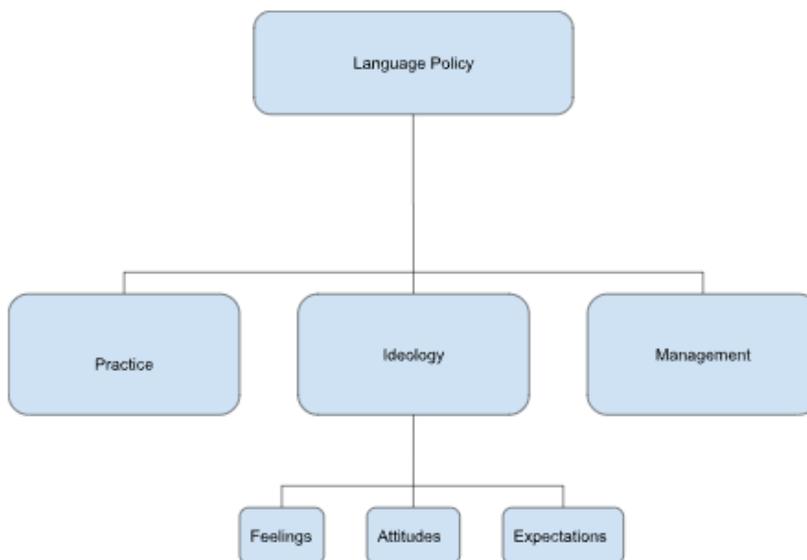
The fourth and final theoretical option considered for HLM research is Spolsky's (2007; 2009) theory of Language Policy, which has been borrowed for studies of influential factors to HLM (Tran et al., 2021), perceptions and actions of HLM (Gharibi & Seals, 2020; Liang & Shin, 2021; Schwartz, 2008), which are all highly related to the research questions of the current study (see Section 1.4). Also, the Language Policy theory directly defines language ideology, provides variations to support the design of interview questions for the current study (see Appendix 2), and explains how family, social and individual factors can influence language ideology (Spolsky, 2012; 2019; Tran et al., 2021). Details about Spolsky's (2009) language policy will be discussed in Section 3.3.

To conclude, after considering the four theoretical options of language learning for this HLM research, Spolsky's Theory of Language Policy is the most relevant for the current study's research questions. Thus, it is selected to guide this study's research design and data analysis.

3.3 Spolsky's language policy framework

Spolsky's (2009) Language Policy Framework consists of three key components: language practice, language ideology and language management, as presented in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Three Key Components of Spolsky's Language Policy Framework



Adapted from Spolsky (2009; 2012; 2019)

As can be seen from Figure 3.1, the first component of the language policy framework is language practice, which, according to Spolsky (2009; 2012; 2019), refers to the actual language chosen to be learned and used in a specific place or system, and the actions of using and learning it. In HLM, language practice decides how much the children will be exposed to an HL, which will directly influence their HL proficiency (Spolsky, 2009). The current research is about Chinese HLM, and

exposure to HL in different places is relevant to this research, which will be discussed in Chapter 6 (see Section 6.2.2).

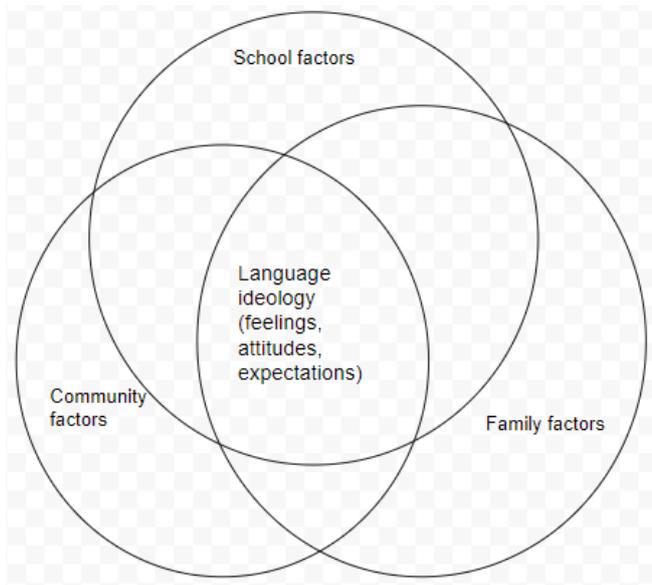
The second component of the language policy framework, according to Figure 3.1, is language ideology, which is how people perceive and value a language (Spolsky, 2009; 2019). It assigns "values to named and unnamed varieties and identifiable variations in language choice" (Spolsky, 2019; p. 326). In HLM, language ideology refers to individuals' attitudes towards an HL, their feelings of social acceptance of their HL, and the expectations of HLM (Liang & Shin, 2021; Spolsky, 2009). At the micro-level, feelings, attitudes and expectations are the three variations of language ideology, reflecting individuals' perceptions and deciding their actions of HLM (Spolsky, 2009). For example, Korean parents have positive attitudes towards HLM (i.e., attitudes); they expect their children to have academic and career benefits from HLM (i.e., expectations) (Park & Sarkar, 2007). Korean-American college students feel their HL and culture are not accepted and respected in schools and public places (i.e., feelings) (Lee, 2002). This research focuses on the Chinese second generation's perceptions of HLM, which is directly related to their language ideology. For the design of research on perceptions (language ideology), the current study uses the variations of the second generation's feelings about, attitudes towards and expectations of HLM (see Section 4.3.3 and Appendix 2 for the use of the variations for interview questions).

The third component of Spolsky's language policy framework, as shown in Figure 3.1, is Language management, which is what people, groups, and institutes "set out to modify the practices and beliefs of members of the community" (Spolsky, 2019; p. 326). For example, sending children to weekend language schools is one example of language management in the family domain (Tran et al., 2021). Likewise, English classes and homework are language management in the school domain (Spolsky, 2007). In the current study, language management is relevant to the family, school and community factors discussed in Chapter 5 (see Sections 2.3, 5.4.4 and 5.4.5).

To conclude, all three components of language practice, language ideology, and language management in Spolsky's language policy framework are related to the factors that could contribute to HLM (Liang & Shin, 2021; Tran et al., 2021). Among these three components, language ideology is borrowed as a central one to conceptualise a framework for the current study because it provides variations for research design, with language practice and language management for data analysis. Specifically, this study chooses to focus on the Chinese second generation's language ideology and how family, social (community and school) and individual factors could influence their ideology of HLM.

3.4 The study's conceptual framework

Figure 3.2 The Study's Conceptual framework



The conceptual framework in Figure 3.2 illustrates that family factors, as well as social factors (school and community), can impact language ideology (Spolsky, 2009; Tran et al., 2021). Also, the young adults of the Chinese second generation are among the conflicts of family, social (school and community) and individual factors (Larsen-Freeman, 2020; Spolsky, 2007).

The family, social (school and community) and individual factors are chosen based on the literature review in Chapter 2 (See Section 2.3). The family factors help understand the impacts of parents and extended family on the second generation's perceptions of HLM (Spolsky, 2009). The social factors (school and community) indicate the impacts of schools and teachers, and the influences of friends and the communities, respectively (Spolsky, 2009). Thus, the framework provides specific elements for the design of interview questions that could help collect in-depth data (see Appendix 2). It also guided the data analysis by using the key elements as themes to categorise interview data (see Chapter 5).

3.5 Summary of Chapter 3

This chapter considers other frameworks of the HLM study and argues that Spolsky's language policy framework is the most suitable one for the current research. Language policy is borrowed for developing the conceptual framework presented in Figure 3.2, guiding the conduct of the current study, namely, the design of interview questions for data collection, data analysis and discussion of the key findings. This framework will be revisited to justify the chosen research method, develop instruments for data collection and analysis, and interpret the research findings. The next chapter will justify the research methodology and design data collection protocol based on the present

study conceptual framework developed in this Chapter and its relevance to research questions presented in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overview

This chapter justifies the chosen research method based on its relevance to the research questions and the conceptual framework for this study. Based on the selected conceptual framework (See Figure 3.2), the research focuses on data collection from second-generation Chinese participants to understand their perceptions of HLM and the various factors that have influenced them.

The chapter is structured into five parts, starting with considering the research methods, followed by explanations of choosing qualitative research design for an in-depth understanding of HLM among Chinese second generation in SA, a step-by-step data collection procedure, data analysis and methodological limitations.

4.2 Methodological consideration

4.2.1 The research method

There are three main research methods: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Quantitative research focuses on trends, relationships and experiments, using numbers and statistics (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Dornyei, 2007). It is "systematic, rigorous, focused, tightly controlled, and involves precise measurement" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 34). However, focusing on statistics requires large sample sizes, which leads to a lack of in-depth analysis of people; thus, quantitative research lacks the sensitivity for investigating the reasons behind a particular phenomenon (Dornyei, 2007), like HLM.

The qualitative research method "explores a problem and develops a detailed understanding of a central phenomenon" (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 41). It collects various data for in-depth or dynamic analysis and analyses deeply to understand the questions of "how" and "why" (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 41). However, a qualitative researcher needs to be aware of its limitation concerning the generalisability of the research findings, the possibly subjective influences of 'self' in the research, rigorous methodology, and the time and effort it requires (Dornyei, 2007, p. 41).

Mixed-method research uses both statistics and empirical data to study a subject or phenomenon, combining the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research methods (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). However, it also requires knowledge and competence in qualitative and quantitative research methods, which is challenging for some researchers who are not confident with either method (Dornyei, 2007). Besides, mixed-method research can be time- and energy-consuming for data collection and analysis, so it has been criticised for its limitations, including its complexity and unsuitability for small-scale research projects (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

Considering the aim of the current study, its chosen scope (Section 1.5), the qualitative nature and the relevance to research questions (Section 1.4), the researcher chose a qualitative research method for a Master's degree research.

4.2.2 The use of qualitative research in the current study

The study aims to investigate individuals' perceptions of the importance of HLM and the factors that have influenced their perceptions. It focuses on human beings' feelings, attitudes and expectations of HLM and the contributing factors of HLM. It is, therefore, more appropriate to collect qualitative data directly from participants by listening to their experiences relating to HLM (Cho, 2000; Spolsky, 2007). Thus, the methodology design aligns better with qualitative research for an in-depth exploration of the phenomena and the researcher's passion for human beings (Dornyei, 2007), in this case, the young adults of the Chinese second generation in SA (Wei, 2021).

4.3 Qualitative research design

4.3.1 The justification of multiple case studies as the chosen research design

Research design is a specific research procedure involving data collection, data analysis and report writing (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Based on the "types of quantitative and qualitative designs and their primary uses" summarised by Creswell and Guetterman (2019, p. 45), the current study does not aim to understand the relationship among variables, describe trends, or explain intervention outcomes; instead, it aims to investigate the perceptions of the second generation of Chinese young adults in SA. In this regard, it fits the ethnographic design, which is defined by Creswell and Guetterman (2019) as a "qualitative research procedure for describing, analyzing and interpreting culture-shared patterns of behaviour, beliefs, and language that develop over time" (2019; p. 474).

The current study focuses on individuals for an in-depth understanding of the root causes behind a phenomenon (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Therefore, it is reasonable to choose a case study method for studying the Chinese second generation's perceptions of the importance of HLM in SA and the factors that have influenced their perceptions. Furthermore, to ensure that rich data is collected to understand the dynamic relationships among HLM, language ideology and factors, multiple forms of data need to be collected (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Spolsky, 2007). It helps investigate the phenomenon from dynamic perspectives and makes the data more reliable by examining participants' answers using multiple forms of data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Therefore, multiple case studies could satisfy the researcher's desire to "understand complex social phenomena" (Yin, 2003, p. 15). Due to time limitations, this study could not encompass multiple case studies; instead, the current study conducts two case studies that involve two young adults of

the Chinese second generation in SA to understand their perceptions of the importance of HLM in SA and the factors that are perceived to have influenced their perceptions.

4.3.2 Special consideration: the ethics and pandemic

4.3.2.1 Ethics approval consideration

Ethics should be seriously regarded to consider participants' voluntary participation and minimise risks (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The research sought ethical approval from the Institutional Review Board at Flinders University before the phase of data collection (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). After getting ethical approval, the researcher contacted an HL speaker in the Chinese community, who knew many Chinese migrants in SA, to look for potential participants. The HL speaker sent the research recruitment form to the potential participants to introduce the current research project. Once the potential participants agreed to participate in the research, the HL speaker helped collect signed consent forms from them. After receiving two consent forms from two voluntary participants, the researcher sent both participants the electronic questionnaire and confirmed the interview arrangements. As a result, two participants participated in the one-to-one interviews voluntarily. They were both informed of the interviews' voluntary nature and their right to withdraw from the interview at any time.

It is important to note that the researcher faced the challenge of recruiting participants because several Chinese second-generation participants changed their ideas during recruitment and refused to attend the interview. The researcher also experienced a lack of potential participants for recruitment. It may be caused by a lack of first-generation migrants from China from 2001 to 2005 (ABS, 2001; Clyne & Kipp, 2006). Another reason may be the unknown situation of HLM among the Chinese diaspora in SA. They indicate an emergent need for the current study.

4.3.2.2 Confidentiality

To ensure that the two participants' privacy and confidentiality were appropriately protected for ethical consideration, only audio of the interview was recorded, so the interviewees' faces were not recognised; also, the names of the participants and any identifiable information were anonymous (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The data was stored in a safe place as assigned by Flinders University, and the storage length was twelve months (Wei, 2021). Only the researcher could access the data (Wei, 2021). The data was collected and analysed for the current study only and was not reused for other research (Wei, 2021). Upon completing the research, and after 12 months from the collection, the data was destroyed based on the requirements and restrictions of Flinders University (Wei, 2021).

4.3.2.3 The influence of the pandemic

According to the University's COVID-19 rules, the research encouraged the participants to attend online interviews through zoom (Flinders University, 2022). One participant insisted on face-to-face interviews, and the researcher and participants strictly followed SA advice, as stated on the SA

Health website (SA Health, 2022). At the time of interview data collection (10th May and 31st May), people could have face-to-face interviews with social distance. Based on the participants' choices, one interview was conducted face to face, and another was online.

4.3.3 Interview data collection protocol

4.3.3.1 The choice of protocol

Researchers have identified six primary sources for case-study research, which are "direct observation, interview, documents, archival records, physical artifacts and participant observation" (Njie & Asimiran, 2014, p. 37), but it should not be limited to the six sources (Baxter & Jack, 2015). Baxter and Jack (2015) point out that quantitative survey data can also be collected to "reach a holistic understanding of the phenomenon studied" (p. 554). The researcher could collect one or all of the six sources based on the case's relevance and nature (Njie & Asimiran, 2014). However, the time and effort consumed in the data collection and data analysis should also be considered to make the research practical and realistic (Thomas, 2017).

Considering the study's time limit and purpose, the researcher collected data using a questionnaire, a 30-minute semi-structured interview and a 30-minute informal interview (Baxter & Jack, 2015; Njie & Asimiran, 2014). As suggested by Thomas (2017), an interview should be controlled within 20 to 30 minutes to ensure that it can collect detailed information without exhausting participants; also, a semi-structured interview can better control the range of information collected than informal interviews as well as collect more detailed data compared to structured interviews. The questionnaire collected participants' background information to support interviews and data analysis (Tran et al., 2021). The semi-structured interview asked both close- and open-ended questions to control participants' answers to the research (Thomas, 2017). An informal interview encouraged participants to speak in a comfortable environment (Thomas, 2017). The data was collected through three sources, a questionnaire, a semi-structured interview, and an informal interview, to form a triangulation to cross-analyse the phenomenon for an in-depth understanding and check participants' answers to each interview question for reliability (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

4.3.2.2 The design of interview questions

The semi-structured interview has two parts. The first part focuses on Research Question 1 (see Section 1.4), and the participants were asked seven questions to help the researcher collect data about their attitudes, feelings and expectations of HLM (see Appendix 2). The second part contains seven interview questions in relation to Research Question 2. In addition, hints and follow-up questions were designed for clarification and rich data collection (Thomas, 2017). The interview questions are designed based on the conceptual framework (see Figure 3.2).

4.4 Interview Data collection

4.4.1 The process of interview data collection

Before the interviews, the researcher did a pilot trial to ensure the interview questions could collect the data needed for the research (Merriam & Tisedell, 2015). As a result, several interview questions were adjusted to avoid ambiguity. For example, for better clarification, Interview Question 9 was changed to "What did your parents do to help you learn Chinese as a home language" from "What did your parents do about Chinese learning?". In addition, objective hints were added to clarify Interview Questions 12 and 14, including "For example, you feel anxious, frustrated, unhappy, etc." and "Do you have anything to add regarding your experience in school, family and community?" respectively. The researcher also read interview suggestions during the interviews (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

Before being invited to interviews, the two participants first completed a questionnaire sent by email. Then, each participated in a 30-minute semi-structured interview, followed by another 30-minute informal interview. Both interviews were audio-recorded. After the interviews, the researcher emailed the participants transcripts and summaries of findings for their proofreading to ensure reliability and credibility (Merriam & Tisedell, 2015).

4.4.2 Recordings and transcriptions of data

Two types of data were collected in the current study's data collection process. The first type of data is participants' background information, collected from Google form. The second type of data is the recorded interview data. The researcher manually transcribed the audio-recorded interviews.

4.4.3 Research participants

Two participants were from the Chinese community. They were purposefully selected to provide the "most in-depth information" for answering the research questions (Njie & Asimiran, 2014, p. 38). The selection criteria for the participants are (i) they should be young adults of the Chinese second generation, with both parents born in Chinese-speaking areas (Clyne & Kipp, 1997; 2006); (ii) They are those who were born in Australia or moved to Australia before school age, so the new environment has cognitively and linguistically influenced them (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Spolsky, 2012); (iii) they consented to participate in this current study on a voluntary basis. As young adults, their linguistic and cognitive development maturity could avoid the subjective contaminants of data such as extreme emotions (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Thomas, 2017). Notably, the gender of participants is not a criterion for participant recruitment as it may not influence HLM (Verdon et al., 2014; Wei, 2021).

4.5 Analysis of interview data

4.5.1 Initial analysis of interview data

The researcher used the two-stage analysis for multiple case studies, containing a within-case analysis and a cross-case analysis (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). A constant comparative method was utilised for a "descriptive or illuminative analysis of the situation", which required the researcher to go through the data repeatedly and compare "each element – phrase, sentence or paragraph- with all of the other elements" (Thomas, 2017, p. 327). Firstly, the questionnaires and transcripts were transferred to electronic copies as working data files for subsequent analysis. After getting participants' feedback on the transcripts (See Section 4.4.1), the researcher read through the working files and highlighted parts based on their relevance to the research questions (see Section 1.4). The researcher listed all the elements regarding perceptions of HLM, family factors, social factors (school and community) and individual factors (Thomas, 2017).

4.5.2 More comprehensive subsequent analysis of interview data

The second coding connected the elements from transcripts with concepts of perceptions and factors based on the conceptual framework (See Figure 3.2), cross-referencing the interview question table (See Appendix 2). The researcher tabulated the coded data using two tables. The first table consisted of three columns with three headings: feelings, attitudes and expectations. The second table listed the factors of family, school and community (See Figure 3.2). In the next step, the researcher used highlighters to mark the feelings, attitudes and expectations and the relevant factors that could have influenced them (Thomas, 2017).

4.5.3 Interpretation of analytical interview data

For the interpretation of analytical interview data, the researcher followed the guidelines suggested by Thomas (2017). Using the themes in Section 3.3, the researcher attempted to "go through working data files and look for relevant quotations that illustrate those themes" (Thomas, 2017, p. 330). The researcher put the quotations into boxes on a page based on the sequences that appeared in the interview to turn the page into a theme map (Thomas, 2017). Then, the boxes were labelled with the names of the themes. The researcher connected the boxes that had related themes using dotted lines. For a theme that could have multiple links, the researcher drew a solid line to connect them and used the arrow to point at the theme being explained (Thomas, 2017).

4.6 Methodological limitations of the study

The researcher is aware of two methodological limitations. First, the study's sample size was limited to two participants, so the findings could not and should not be generalised with data collected from only two participants (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Second, due to the time limit, only three types of data were collected using a questionnaire, a 30-minutes semi-structured interview and a 30-minute informal interview. Other data sources, such as observations and

documents, were not collected. However, the design of multiple case studies, instead of a single case study, could provide more in-depth and detailed information to understand the phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

Although the data collection process did not cover all six sources (see Section 4.3.2.1), the three used sources of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and informal interviews could encourage participants to share more in-depth information and experiences regarding HLM (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Also, data collected using the protocol was rich in detail, and the triangulation of three sources provided in-depth information that could support a deep understanding of the phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Importantly, the conceptual framework (see Chapter 3) systematically guided the researcher for interview design, data analysis and discussion.

4.7 Summary of Chapter 4

This chapter provides detailed information about the research design and considerations of the methodological limitations (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). This chapter justifies the use of two case studies to collect data from questionnaires and subsequent interviews to understand the perceptions of the importance of HLM and their perceived contributing factors to their perceptions of the two young adults of the Chinese second generation in SA. Considering methodological limitations of small sample size, research time and location, the researcher carefully chose two case studies and developed a conceptual framework to support the research design, data analysis and discussion.

CHAPTER 5. CASE-STUDY DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Overview

Chapter 5 presents the analysed data and key findings of the current research. The collected data from two young adults of the Chinese second generation was analysed using the two-stage analysis and a constant comparative method discussed in Chapter 4 (see Section 4.5). The findings are organised and presented thematically based on the conceptual framework adopted for this study (see Section 3.3) for Case studies 1 and 2. The reported themes include feelings, attitudes, expectations, family, social (school and community), and individual factors in relation to HLM. This chapter is organised into four main parts: a description of participants, data analysis of Case study 1, data analysis of Case study 2, and a cross-case analysis of the two cases.

5.2 A description of two participants

The table below shows the two research participants' information collected from the Questionnaire data (See Section 4.4.3 for research participants).

Table 5.1 Two research participants' information

	Participant A	Participant B
Gender	Male	Male
Age	20	22
Place of birth	Adelaide	Singapore
Parent's place of birth	Taiwan	Singapore
Length of time in Australia	20	14
First language	English	English
Home language	Mandarin	English
Education level	Diploma	University student
The language used at home	Mandarin and English	mainly English
Confidence in Chinese	Confident	somewhat confident
HL use frequency/week	Very frequently	not mentioned

As seen in Table 5.1, Participant A is a young adult aged 20; he is Chinese second generation born in Adelaide, SA. Participant A chose to complete the questionnaire in written form. In the completed questionnaire, he ticked English as his first language and Chinese (Mandarin) as his

HL. When asked about his HL in the interview, he stated in his own words, "Yeah, Chinese is the language for my house". In response to the question about his perceived confidence level in Chinese, participant A told the researcher that he is confident in his Chinese HL.

According to Table 5.1, Participant B is another young adult aged 22; he is also Chinese second generation, born in Singapore and moved to Australia with his parents at the age of eight. Because the interview with Participant B was conducted online, he preferred to complete the questionnaire orally. He chose English as his first language and HL in the orally completed questionnaire. In response to the question about his perceived confidence level in Chinese, Participant B told the researcher that he initially wanted to choose between "confident" and "somewhat confident" but finally chose "somewhat confident".

5.3 Analyses of case study 1

Case study 1 uses interview data collected from Participant A. This section presents the analysis of interview data thematically based on the conceptual framework selected (see Figure 3.2), using the themes of feelings about HLM, attitudes towards HLM, expectations of HLM, family factors, social factors (including school and community), and individual factors. The interview data analysis shows that Participant A perceives HLM positively, and family factors contribute significantly to his perceptions of HLM. The following sub-sections provide information about the analytical result of Case Study 1's interview data.

5.3.1 Feelings about HLM

In the interview, Participant A revealed that he felt less comfortable speaking Mandarin than English. When asked to choose the language for the interview, he chose English. He explained to the researcher by saying, "...knowing my capabilities. I can only understand or speak the basic level of Chinese". However, he said that he was confident in his Chinese HL proficiency. He stated, "I feel like here in Australia, my Chinese level is good enough".

Also, he thought HL was accepted in SA because he could freely use HL at home and in public places. His explanations were as follows:

"Mainly because, I think, Adelaide or Australia is such a diverse country, with many people from many countries. So, it's just natural for people speaking different languages" (Participant A).

Thus, participant A felt his HL proficiency could satisfy his language use in Australia, and HLM was generally accepted in SA.

5.3.2 Attitudes towards HLM

Participant A's attitudes towards HLM were positive. He thought it was important to learn HL and pass it on to their children as he stated,

"I'll definitely teach my kids Chinese...I don't feel like...you have to, but I think it would be nice to teach Chinese in Australia".

Moreover, he weighed speaking and listening over writing and reading skills and thought a high proficiency in Chinese HL was unnecessary in Australia. When asked about teaching his future children about HLM, he expressed this in his own words as follows

"I think they at least need to learn how to speak and listen [Mandarin]; writing, it would be nice, but if they don't want to, then I won't really force them".

Participant A had a positive attitude towards the importance of HLM, especially the need for transmitting it to the next generation. However, he focused on learning Chinese HL's speaking and listening skills.

5.3.3 Expectations of HLM

Participant A's expectations of HLM were linked to the benefits of communicative skills. He did not think there were any drawbacks of HLM, and learning Chinese would not interfere with English learning. He said, "My second language did not affect my English coz' English is my main language". He valued HLM because of its benefits in relation to his capacity for communication with family members, people overseas and colleagues. He said

"If I go overseas, I think it [speaking Mandarin] definitely helps me a lot...benefited me quite a lot, mainly with my family because not all of them can speak English, especially my grandparents...in both my jobs...English is not their first language. Teamwork and communication are very important, so speaking Chinese is helpful and important".

However, he did not plan to learn Chinese for a higher proficiency level because, according to him, "Chinese is difficult to learn, especially the writing part". Thus, participant A expected to benefit from HLM mainly for the benefit of oral communication with Chinese speakers, including his Chinese family members.

5.3.4 Family factors

The analysis of case study 1 showed that family factors contribute significantly to participant A's perceptions of HLM. The family factors included communication within the family and parents' HL use at a young age. Participant A believed that the acquisition of HL with parents was the primary source of HLM. His parents had a loose HL policy, but Mandarin was the main language used at home. He recalled,

"...the moment I was born, they started speaking Chinese with me...then I naturally develop the ability to speak Chinese...Normally when we switch to English, it's generally because I want to explain something to them and because my Chinese capacity is not as good as theirs. So, they have to use English to help me understand what they try to communicate with me".

Other family factors included his parents' enrolling him in the school's Chinese program and visiting the HL area. However, these experiences did not significantly impact their perceptions of HLM. The Participant mentioned that when he wanted to learn Japanese in high school,

"My parents did not really, not until high school, they wanted me to learn some Chinese...My parents looked through the curriculum with me...their response was, 'you cannot learn Chinese and Japanese as well. So, I learnt Chinese instead of Japanese'".

Contrarily, it made him think Chinese was too difficult to learn, especially for Chinese writing. Participant A mentioned, "I did go to Chinese class in primary school for, I think, two to three years, but I honestly did not get [Chinese writing]."

Regarding visiting HL areas, the participant did not think it supported his Chinese learning, although he visited Taiwan regularly. He stated that his visit to Chinese-speaking areas was "...once between every two years". When asked, "Did it help or motivate you with Chinese learning?" he answered, "Not really. Just family members, friends". Therefore, speaking Mandarin at home was a significant contributing factor to HLM, but neither enrolling in the school's Chinese program nor visiting the HL area helped with HLM.

5.3.5 Social factors

Social factors considered participant A's HLM experiences outside the home, including school and community. Participant A was not criticised by others in the community when he spoke Chinese HL in public places. He mentioned, "From my memory, I don't think people [in public places] really react when I speak Chinese with other people". He recalled that a tutorial teacher once reminded him to speak English in the classroom.

"Personally, I don't really understand why. I guess because they don't understand Chinese, so they don't know what we are talking about. So, it makes sense that they only want us to speak English".

Because the "English only" requirement only happened once, he considered it for communicative purposes and felt it was understandable.

According to Participant A, the schools he enrolled in provided Chinese language programmes. He mentioned, "I remember because in high school everyone had to choose a second language", and he knew, "The program, I think, is also (part of the Australian) curriculum". However, the main reason he enrolled in the Chinese programmes was not because of HLM but more for his friends in the school. Participant A said, "The main reason I also went [to the Chinese programme] was that my other friends also went".

Moreover, he was unaware of communities' Chinese events, such as celebrating Chinese festivals. For example, when asked about the Chinese New Year Festival, he stated, "I don't think they really celebrated Chinese events in the community". When the researcher mentioned the Chinese event in China Town, he added, "We normally celebrate them at home". Thus, although his school provided a Chinese programme, Participant A enrolled for friendship building. He could freely use Mandarin in communities, but he was not aware of any HLM-related activities or events in the community.

5.3.6 Individual factors

Participant A focused on his emotion of anxiety when relating to HLM. He felt the limited HL proficiency became a language barrier when he wanted to communicate with Chinese friends and interpret from English to Chinese for his grandparents. Highlighting his anxious and annoying feelings, Participant A noted,

"...grandparents, when I cannot find the words to explain to them the doctor's words...I will feel anxious because of the language barrier...Some friends are Chinese speakers...I feel a bit annoying because I want to speak to my friends, but they don't understand".

As to motivation, Participant A admitted that the popularity of the Chinese language outside Australia had motivated him to HLM. He thought Chinese was "Very popular, everywhere I can find people speaking Chinese". However, he did not think children need to be motivated for HLM. He said, "I only think it's natural. If you speak Chinese, then your children will learn it as well". He may reflect on his experiences of HLM at home and the negative images of Chinese learning in school (See Section 5.3.5). Therefore, participant A emphasised anxiety due to limited HL proficiency and believed motivation was not an essential factor of HLM.

To sum up, the analysis of Case study 1 revealed that Participant A felt people in SA were not bothered when others spoke a language other than English. He had a positive attitude towards HLM and attached communicative values to it. Furthermore, the data analysis indicated that exposure to HL at home was a vital factor influencing his perceptions of the importance of HLM. Other factors, including visiting the HL area, the school's Chinese programme and motivation, did not impact his perceptions of the importance of HLM.

5.4 Analysis of case study 2

Case study 2 uses interview data collected from Participant B. Similar to the preceding section, this section presents the analysis of interview data thematically based on the same conceptual framework (see Figure 3.2), using the same themes of feelings about HLM, attitudes towards HLM, expectations of HLM, family factors, social factors (including school and community), and individual factors.

The analysis of the interview data from Case study 2 revealed that Participant B perceived that the importance of Chinese HLM in SA depended on individual needs. He emphasised the need for a supportive combination of various factors, particularly the collaboration of family, school and community to support HLM. Moreover, the challenges of transmitting HL to the next generation (his children) would be a lack of motivation for Chinese HL, access to the Chinese language and parents' limited HL proficiency levels. The following sub-sections provide information for Case Study 2's interview data analytical result.

5.4.1 Feelings about HLM

Participant B felt Chinese was not widely used in SA, which negatively affected his interest in HLM. He pointed out,

"...having a community where you can actually speak Chinese...other than that, in Australia, I probably wouldn't use Chinese at all...I feel like in Australia, it's not as important because it's hard to use Chinese here".

In other words, he did not feel the need for HLM due to its limited use in SA.

He thought cities like Melbourne would provide more opportunities to use Chinese, which might positively impact his perceptions of HLM. Comparing SA with Melbourne, he stated,

"Yeah, Melbourne, a lot of Chinese-speaking communities here. In SA, it's just not as many opportunities or benefits".

When asked about his experience speaking Chinese in public places, he answered, "No, not really, because there were few reasons to do so". Thus, Participant B perceived Chinese as a communicative tool for monolingual speakers of the Chinese language. He said, "...so with people who can't speak English; I also speak Chinese". Therefore, participant B did not feel the need for HLM in SA.

5.4.2 Attitudes towards HLM

Participant B thought HLM depended on personal needs, reflecting on his experience using Chinese HL in Australia. Because participant B did not use Chinese in schools, at home and in public places, he thought Chinese HLM was "fairly important". When asked, "How do you perceive the importance of maintaining Chinese as an HL in SA?" he explained as follows,

"...not so important. Maybe English is the home language. But, if I really think of English as the home language, then I think the other people may not have the same experience as me, then they feel personal reasons of using Chinese."

His words seem to indicate that although he understood the importance of HLM to some other people, he perceived it as unimportant because he thought HLM depended on specific people's needs and interests.

However, Participant B showed a positive attitude when asked whether he would pass Chinese on to the next generation. He stated,

"If I had a child, it is pretty important to teach my child to be able to speak Chinese because it just opens so many ways that you can speak with different people. They can also go to Chinese-speaking countries and communities, like the Chinese community in Australia".

He valued maintaining Chinese HL with his children to communicate with Chinese speakers. This positive attitude might be because of his belief that bilingual people tend to have more

opportunities. When asked, "what do you think about people who are competent in Chinese?" he mentioned,

"I think it's a great skill...It opens up so many options for them and makes it easier for them to do a lot of other things that most people cannot. Bilingual is cool."

Therefore, although participant B understood the benefits of HLM, he did not perceive the importance of HLM due to the limited use of the Chinese language in SA.

5.4.3 Expectations of HLM

Participant B expected that HLM brought about communicative benefits. He understood that HLM was part of the cultural identity of Chinese migrants. He commented on its importance, "If it is the second-generation Chinese person, then the Chinese language will probably become their identity". According to Participant B, his relatives considered him Australian when he could hardly communicate with them in fluent Chinese. He mentioned that when the relatives found out "...my Chinese is not as good as my other family members in Singapore...", they commented, "Oh, no, you've turned into an Australian. You can't speak Chinese anymore".

However, for him, the Chinese language was for communicative purposes with his monolingual grandparents and other relatives. He mentioned, "a lot of my other relatives are also Chinese-only speaking, so I would be speaking Chinese as well, I tried to, at least.". Although he agreed that being bilingual is beneficial (see Section 5.3.2), he did not have any plans for HLM. For the interview question, "Are you still interested in learning Chinese" he answered, "I think right now I am in a comfortable place where I can speak some, and I don't want to put in more effort". Thus, although Participant B understood the correlation between HLM and cultural identity, he did not attach his culture and identity values to HLM; instead, he focused on the communicative purpose.

5.4.4 Family factors

Family factors of Participant B included HL use, attending weekend schools and enrolling in the school's Chinese programme. First, The home's English-speaking made Participant B perceive English as his HL. When asked about HL and first language, he answered, "I would say English" and "I think my first language is also English" because "most of the time, my family speaks English". However, he told the researcher in the interview that he had simultaneous bilingual experiences in his early childhood. When asked, "Did you learn Mandarin after English at home" he answered, "Pretty at the same time, but I stopped learning Mandarin earlier, and I continue with English". Thus, although beginning with a bilingual acquisition, he gradually shifted to English and stopped developing his Chinese skills.

Being sent by his parents to a Chinese weekend school did not influence Participant B's perceptions of HLM; contrarily, it became an extra burden for him. He mentioned,

"It's a separate Saturday school...My parents send me...like primary school Grade 1 unto Grade 4...it just became extra homework for me".

The reasons for him to quit weekend schools were mainly because of the traditional teaching style and lack of motivation to study the Chinese language. Commenting on weekend schools, he stated,

"They used very traditional ways of teaching, like repetitive writing of the letters and reading really old poems and sentences... It's kind of irritating. I don't want to do so much study for something that I don't even use, so I quit, even though my parents wanted me to continue".

Participant B chose to quit the HL learning in the weekend school, despite his parents' positive attitudes towards HLM.

Visiting the HL area (Singapore) could positively impact participant B's perceptions of HLM, but the intervals between visits, according to Participant B, had weakened the impacts. Participant B positively perceived visiting Singapore primarily because of happy memories and experiences. He recalled his memories and said,

"When I came back to Singapore, I often think to myself, 'Oh, yeah, I want to improve [my Chinese], I want to speak more to them. I think it's a positive impact. But since it's a yearly thing, over time, it's sort of continued to be Australian".

He thought the length of staying in HL areas mattered because "When you live there for more than one month, you pretty much become accustomed to the lifestyle there". Therefore, the English-speaking environment at home made him perceive English as his first language. Learning in a Chinese weekend school negatively impacted his perceptions of HLM. Also, he believed visiting the HL area could contribute positively to HLM by saying, "it's a positive impact".

5.4.5 Social factors

Regarding social factors, Participant B also emphasised the importance of schools and community on HLM, but their impacts differed. He had significantly positive thoughts about the school's Chinese program. He recalled the Chinese programme in his high school and stated, "I think that one helped me a lot, [it is] the Chinese class in high school". In his view, the Chinese programme in high school fulfilled his need to learn Chinese. Although it was an optional school subject available from Year 8 to Year 12, he intentionally enrolled it because his grandparents moved to Australia, and he thus wanted to communicate with them at home. In this regard, Participant B noted,

"When I was in Year 11 and 12 because my grandparents were coming from Singapore...maybe I just picked that as a subject, to try to learn more and speak to them more".

He recalled his happy learning experience in the school's Chinese programme by saying,

"I remember my Chinese teacher brought the whole class for an excursion in the Confucius Institute, and we did calligraphy. That's really cool".

According to Participant B, if the school's Chinese programme was for Chinese learning, the Chinese community was a place to practise his HL speaking skills. Participant B shared with the researcher in the interview that he often visited a church in a Chinese community with his grandparents. For him, the church was an occasion when he could speak Chinese. He asserted that church visits supported his Chinese language practice by saying,

"Yeah, I think it [church visiting] does [support my Chinese language practice]...having a community where you can actually speak Chinese. Other than that, in Australia, I probably wouldn't use Chinese at all".

However, commenting on the impacts of church visiting on his Chinese learning, he said, "the church doesn't help with learning, but [it] helps with [Chinese language] practice". In the interview, he also called for more community support of HLM by saying,

"If there were more communities that speak Chinese, then you could just easily access. It would be a lot easier...you can learn Chinese during that time".

Therefore, participant B thought the school's Chinese programme could support Chinese learning, and the Chinese community provided opportunities to practise Chinese speaking skills.

5.4.6 Individual factors

Regarding Participant B's individual factors, he referred to his limited Chinese proficiency, which made him anxious. Commenting on this, he stated,

"...I also feel a bit anxious because sometimes, for example, my grandma asked me questions, I could not find the words to reply back".

Therefore, he told the researcher in the interview that he preferred English to Chinese. When asked about the language he felt comfortable with, he answered, "I think English would be easier for me... I'm not good enough to, like, answer a lot of questions in Mandarin". Thus, the emotion of anxiety might have influenced Participant B's language choice, which might result in his preference for English other than Chinese.

Another individual factor that Participant B emphasised was the motivation for HLM. He thought the need to use and learn HL was the primary motivation of HLM. In the interview, Participant B perceived the importance of Chinese-speaking communities as a motivating factor for Chinese language learning. He expressed,

"If there were more communities that speak Chinese...a lot more drive, to be, like, you want to speak with these people... You'll have reasons to learn Chinese".

Moreover, his own HLM experiences of learning the Chinese language illustrated the impact of motivation on his actions of HLM. When he did not need to speak Chinese, he quit the weekend language school (see Section 5.4.4); when he felt the need to communicate with his grandparents in Chinese, he enrolled in the school's Chinese programme (see Section 5.4.5). However, when

asked about the challenges of HLM with the next generation, Participant B still considered and questioned the needs of HLM by saying,

"Why would I learn Chinese? As I don't use it in primary school, I don't use it when I speak to my friends...so it's like, why do I need to do this? It's just extra homework and learning. I don't want to go to school, that sort of thing."

To sum up, the analysis of Case Study 2 revealed that Participant B did not feel the need to use the Chinese language in Australia, so he considered HLM unimportant to him. However, he expected to maintain Chinese HL with his children for communicative benefits. He emphasised anxiety and motivation as individual factors.

Using Case Study 2's data analytical results to answer the Research Questions, it is suggested that Participant B in this Case Study perceived HLM as depending on specific personal needs and interests in SA. The key factors influencing his perceptions were the English-speaking environment at home and motivation.

5.5 Cross-case analysis

The interview data analysis of the two case studies indicates that two participating young adults of the Chinese second generation could have divergent perceptions of the importance of Chinese HLM in SA due to differences in their perceived contributing factors of family, school, community and individuals variables (See Table 5.2 Cross-case analysis of participants).

Table 5.2 Cross-case analysis of participants

Areas of focus	Case study 1	Case study 2	Cross-case analysis
Participant description	More comfortable with English. Home language is Chinese. The first language is Chinese.	More comfortable with English. My first language is English.	Both are more comfortable with English. Different choices of HL (A=Chinese, B=English).
Perceptions of HLM	HLM is accepted in SA. HLM is important. Value HLM for communication at home, in daily work and overseas. No plans for Chinese learning because Chinese is difficult.	HLM is accepted in SA. HLM is fairly important. Value HLM for communication with grandparents and relatives in Singapore. No plans for Chinese learning because there is no need.	Same feelings of HLM in SA. Different attitudes towards the importance of HLM. Both perceived the same value of HLM, but no plans of further learning for different reasons.
Family factors	Chinese-speaking at home. Visit Taiwan every two years, but it does not influence HLM.	English-speaking at home. Attended weekend language school but regards it as an extra burden. Visit Singapore every one or two years, and it influences HLM positively.	Different exposure to HLM at home. Visiting HL areas contribute differently to HLM.
Social factors	Enrolled in high school Chinese programme but gave up. Not aware of any Chinese events in the community.	Enrolled in the high school Chinese programme and it helps a lot with HLM. No need to speak Chinese in public places. Need more Chinese communities to increase Chinese use.	Different experiences of school programmes. Both perceive a lack of community support.
Individual factors	Anxiety due to limited Chinese proficiency.	Anxiety due to limited Chinese proficiency. Emphasise motivation, e.g. feel the needs and meaning of HLM in SA.	Limited Chinese proficiency was both perceived to cause anxiety.

According to the cross-case analysis in Table 5.2, both participants who grew up in SA self-perceived to have limited Chinese proficiency. They were more comfortable and competent in English to freely express their thoughts. The lack of proficiency in Chinese was perceived to cause anxiety when they could not find equivalent expressions in Chinese. However, they also felt their

current Chinese level could satisfy their everyday needs for Chinese language use in SA, so they did not have any study needs to improve their Chinese proficiency. Also, they felt Chinese HLM was generally accepted in SA, although Participant B thought metropolitan cities, such as Melbourne, could provide him with more access to Chinese HLM. Furthermore, they both perceived the values of HLM for communication with Chinese-speaking people overseas and their family members. It was also their driving force to transmit the Chinese to the next generation.

Regarding Participants A and B's perceptions of HLM, although they attended different Chinese learning classes, they perceived that the learning there negatively impacted HLM. While Participant A only studied Chinese formally in the high school's Chinese programme, Participant B attended a weekend language school as a primary school student. As revealed from the interview, Participant A thought the classmates, not the teacher, helped him with Chinese learning, but Chinese learning was too challenging to continue. Furthermore, Participant B thought that learning in the weekend school was an extra burden due to its traditional teaching style. In other words, both Participant A and Participant B felt that the formal Chinese learning arranged by their parents might not have contributed positively to their perceptions of HLM in SA.

As far as family factors are concerned, although the parents of both Participant A and Participant B showed positive attitudes towards Chinese HLM and put effort into it, they acted differently. Participant A's parents implemented a continuously Chinese-speaking environment at home and insisted on communicating with Participant A in Chinese. In contrast, Participant B's parents did not establish a Chinese-speaking environment at home, and their daily conversations were in English. Therefore, although both participants needed to speak Chinese when talking to their grandparents and relatives in HL areas, Participant A perceived Chinese HLM in SA as important, and Participant B thought it was "fairly important" because of its meaninglessness in SA.

Moreover, both participants visited their HL areas but perceived their impacts on HLM differently. Participant A thought it did not contribute to his Chinese proficiency and perceptions of HLM, but Participant B believed it did. Participant B's description in Table 5.1 might explain this difference because he felt the length of time staying in the HL area would impact the willingness to communicate with Chinese-speaking relatives.

Apart from family and social factors, Participant A and Participant B also perceived individual factors to have influenced their perceptions of the importance of HLM. For example, they both admitted that their limited HL proficiency level caused anxiety. Also, Participant B emphasised motivation as a critical factor of HLM. Therefore, the importance of HLM could be perceived divergently by the two participants and between them and their parents. When their parents apply the same language acquisition and learning patterns that they have experienced in the two participants, it may damage their perceptions of HLM.

5.6 Summary of Chapter 5

Chapter 5 analyses the data using a two-stage analysis (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) and a constant comparative method (Thomas, 2017) (see Section 4.5) and presents the key results based on the conceptual framework (see Chapter 3). The cross-case analyses of interview data show that the two participants have partly different perceptions of HLM in SA. Participant A reported the importance of HLM, and family factors have significantly influenced his perceptions. Participant B considered HLM somewhat important, and formal learning provided by schools' Chinese programmes is the primary source of HLM. The results show that the two case studies of young adults among the Chinese second generation in the current research had partly different perceptions of the importance of HLM and perceived different factors (namely, family, school, community, and individual factors) contributing to their perceptions. The results will be discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION OF THE KEY FINDINGS

6.1 Overview

This chapter discusses the key findings in Chapter 5 in light of the data analysis results and the reviewed literature. It shows that both discrepancy and alignment exist between the literature and the key findings of the current study for Research Questions 1 and 2. This chapter is structured into two main parts. First, the chapter revisits both the research questions and summarises answers to each research question based on cross-case analyses of interview data. Then, it discusses the key findings by reviewing the former and existing studies.

6.2 Research questions revisited

The current study was conducted using two case studies to seek answers to two questions: (i) How do the young adults of the Chinese second generation perceive the importance of HLM?; and (ii) What are the key factors that have influenced their perceptions? Regarding Research Question 1, the interview data analyses indicate that while Participant A perceived the importance of HLM, Participant B thought HLM depended on specific personal needs and interests (see Sections 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 for further details). As for Research Question 2, analyses of both participants' perceptions in the interviews reveal that family factors, especially their exposure to HLM at home and communication with family members, were perceived by Participant A as contributing significantly to the perceptions of the importance of HLM (see Sections 5.5 for further details). Furthermore, the analysis of perceived social factors and individual indicates that school, community and the emotion of anxiety may not contribute significantly to Participant A's perceptions of the importance of HLM, and motivation for HLM is a critical factor for Participant B (see Sections 5.3.5 and 5.4.5 for more details).

6.3 Discussion of key findings

Some of the key findings support the findings in the previous and existing studies. The present findings, which indicate that the participants attached family relationships and communication purposes to HLM, are well supported by the previous studies (e.g., Cho, 2015; DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009; Torres & Turner, 2017; Yu, 2014). For example, in a study by Cho (2015), the author found that 84.2% of the 260 Korean-American participants believed in the importance of HLM for communicating with HL speakers. Likewise, Torres and Turner's (2017) study showed that Spanish-American students maintain HL for family relationships.

Moreover, the interview data analyses from both case studies indicate a partial difference in the participants' perceptions of HLM. It aligns with Shen and Jiang's (2021) and Schwartz's (2008) findings that participants in the same research could perceive the importance of HLM differently. It

may be because each individual has a unique background, prior knowledge and experiences, which contribute to their perceptions of HLM (Spolsky, 2019; 2022). Therefore, the first generation should not assume that the second generation would have the same perceptions of HLM (Spolsky, 2012).

In addition, the negative impact of Chinese learning in the weekend schools on Participant B's perceptions of HLM align with the findings of Gonzalez et al. (2021), Liang & Shin (2021) and Nesteruk (2010). Also, Participant B's beliefs that motivation is the factor of HLM are supported by the studies of Lee (2002), Cho (2015), Torres and Turner (2017) and Smith and Li (2020).

However, the findings in the current study have two main discrepancies from findings in previous studies. First, Participant A viewed visiting the HL area as ineffective for HLM, which contradicts the previous studies suggesting that visiting the HL area could positively contribute to HLM (e.g., Gharibi & Seals, 2020; Little, 2020; Shen & Jiang, 2021; Yu, 2014). It may be due to participants' differences in the actual length of time staying in the HL area or participants' limited language proficiency, as this factor may prevent them from speaking Chinese with local Chinese speakers (see Sections 5.3.4 and 5.4.4 for further details).

Second, participants A and B did not emphasise community support for its impact on HLM. This outcome contradicts the research findings of studies by Waetzold and Melo-Pfeifer (2022), Bezcioglu-Goktolga and Yagmur (2018) and Gharibi and Seals (2020), which highlight the benefit of supporting HLM using informal HLM activities and encouragement from teachers and friends in communities. However, this contradiction may stem from the fact that the two participants in those two case studies were not fully aware of sufficient community support of HLM, although Participant B reported the community church as a place of practising speaking skills (see Sections 5.3.5 & 5.4.5). The two participants in the current study did not mention any encouragement for HLM from teachers or the community. As claimed by Tran et al. (2021) and Shen and Jiang (2021), HLM in Australia lacks support from the community.

Therefore, four findings of the current study, including the participants' divergent attitudes towards the importance of HLM, their consideration of HLM for communication with family members, the possible negative impacts of the weekend school and the importance of motivation, are supported by previous studies. However, the findings of Participant A's perceived unimportance of visiting HL areas and both participants' unawareness of community support contradict the former studies' findings.

6.4 Summary of Chapter 6

Chapter 6 discussed the key findings of the current research. It revisits the two research questions and then discusses the findings by reviewing the findings in previous studies and using the

supporting data analytical results. First, the discussion of findings reveals that the two participants' divergence in their perceptions of the importance of HLM in this study aligns with the former studies' findings. Second, Participant A's perceptions of the effectiveness of visiting the HL area contradict previous findings, but this contradiction may result from the actual length of time staying in the HL area and participants' limited HL proficiency. Finally, the lack of community support in Australia may result in a discrepancy in community impact between the current study and previous studies, with most previous studies referenced in the current study not examining the phenomenon in Australia. Therefore, the current study's findings could contribute to Spolsky's (2007; 2012) claims about the different and complex HLM factors the second generation could encounter.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1 Overview

Chapter 7 will briefly summarise the current study and discuss its significance, limitations, and implications. It begins with a brief summary of major findings, then highlights the significance of the research, followed by limitations and implications.

7.2 A brief summary of major findings

The study is about the Chinese second generation's perceptions of the importance of HLM in South Australia and the factors that have influenced their perceptions. The study develops a conceptual framework based on Spolsky's language policy framework that addresses the impacts of family, social and individual factors on individuals' language ideology. Guided by a conceptual framework (see Chapter 3), the research conducts two case studies and collects qualitative data using interviews (see Chapter 4 for research method).

The findings have shown that divergence exists in the perceptions of HLM among the two participants who are young adults of the Chinese second generation in SA (see Sections 5.5 and 6.2 for further details). Participant A had a positive attitude towards HLM in SA, while Participant B had a neutral attitude. Furthermore, the family factors contributed to the two participants' perceptions of the importance of HLM, though to varying degrees (see Sections 5.5 and 6.2 for more details).

Therefore, the researcher argues that the Chinese second generation is in a complex environment of HLM, with the impacts of factors from home, school and community, and each individual perceives the importance of HLM differently.

7.3 Significance of the study

The current study contributes to our understanding of HLM among the Chinese diaspora in SA. Prior to this study, there had been a lack of rich data collected directly from the Chinese second generation to reveal their feelings about, attitudes towards, and expectations of HLM in SA. It is thus the first investigation of HLM in the SA area, focusing on the perceptions of the Chinese second generation on the importance of HLM and contributing factors to their perceptions. The research findings could contribute to a better understanding of the HLM study in SA by providing an in-depth analysis of the two case studies (see Chapter 5 for further details).

Furthermore, the study has a pragmatic benefit because its findings could help parents and education practitioners better understand the Chinese second generation's needs, feelings, thoughts, attitudes, expectations and motivation of HLM, which, in turn, may improve language

practice and language management of HLM. For example, parents could increase their children's exposure to HL at home and send them to weekend language schools based on their children's interests. As a result, the Chinese second generation could develop competent HL skills in an HLM-friendly environment with more understanding and support from family, school and community.

7.4 Limitations of the study

Despite efforts to minimise limitations, the researcher acknowledges five limitations. First, due to the time limit, the researcher could not analyse the latest Chinese HLM rate in SA based on the 2021 Australian census. However, statistical studies conducted in Australia by Clyne and Kipp (1997; 2006) and Verdon et al. (2014) have provided solid evidence of the low Chinese maintenance rate, supported by the relevant literature outside Australia (e.g., Law, 2015; Mu & Dooley, 2015).

Second, only two case studies were conducted to understand two participants' perceptions of HLM in SA; therefore, the research results can hardly be generalised because of the small sample size of only two case studies. However, it partly reveals the dynamic and complexity of HLM, which calls for further quantitative studies with a larger number of case studies and with a focus on both the parents and children's perceptions and attitudes to provide statistical evidence.

Third, the research was conducted by a single researcher in SA to fulfil the emergent needs of HLM among the Chinese second generation in this area. Research conducted in other areas of other non-Chinese language communities may have different findings due to the variations among family, school and community factors, such as the interstate language policies (MELC, 2017; Tran et al., 2021).

Fourth, the research only relied on data collected from questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with only two participants. Other data collection sources, such as observation of participants' daily language use and documents of language policies, could also be collected to enrich data collection (Njie & Asimiran, 2014). However, the choice of data collection protocol (see Section 4.3.3.1) carefully considered the time and effort needed in data collection and analysis for practically conducted research (Thomas 2017).

Finally, the conceptual framework, though rigorous, has its own limitations. Apart from the themes and concepts borrowed from Spolsky's language policy framework, the framework would be even more rigorous if it incorporates other relevant theoretical frameworks, such as theories about language acquisition, that could help better understand participants' perceptions of the importance of HLM in SA.

7.5 Implications of the study

7.5.1 Implications for further practice

The current study provides information for parents and education practitioners. Parents need to be aware of the differences in the environment between the HL country and Australia; therefore, the same HL development pattern can hardly be applied to the second generation who grew up in an English-speaking country. Due to the lack of HLM support from the communities and education system, the parents have to build an HL environment at home by consistently using HL and reading HL books with children (Tran et al., 2021). Furthermore, a loose language policy at home may work better than a strict HL-only policy (Schwartz, 2008), but a consistent implementation of high-quality HL communication is necessary for an effective HLM (Spolsky, 2009). In addition, since motivation could be a driving force of HLM among the second generation, the parents could explain explicitly to their children the value of HLM in SA to better motivate them (Yu, 2014). They could also model the use of HLM by using HL confidently in public places to show their children that HL is useful in SA (Tran et al., 2021).

For education practitioners, the current study informs them that each second-generation student might have divergent perceptions of HLM and HL proficiency. It is hard to assume that students with HL backgrounds should have the same HL proficiency and perceive the importance of HLM similarly. Also, Chinese students may have various home languages due to various dialects and minority languages in China (Wei, 2016). The Australian Curriculum requires the dialect taught in the Chinese language subject to be Mandarin, which could be a new learning experience for some Chinese students, especially the students from outside mainland China, because of the different prior knowledge of Standardised Chinese (as taught in mainland China) and other dialects (e.g. Cantonese in HK area) (ACARA, 2021; Wei, 2016). Therefore, parents and education practitioners could consult the research findings to understand better the Chinese second generation's perceptions of HLM before arranging and organising Chinese language learning.

7.5.2 Implications for further research

Although the two case studies in the current research could partly contribute to understanding HLM among the Chinese second generation in SA, several questions await further investigation with more case studies.

Moreover, although the findings of the study reveal that HL exposure at home could significantly impact the Chinese second generation's perceptions of HLM, the questions of how and why HL exposure could impact or support HLM are still open for further investigation. A further quantitative longitudinal study of Chinese families, with dominantly quantitative data collected from parents and children, may help identify the correlation between HL exposure and perceptions of HLM.

7.6 Concluding remarks

In conclusion, it is of importance that effective language learning should not only regard learners as human beings but also emphasise and respect their perceptions, fulfil their needs, and gradually develop their interests in language learning (Brown, 2014). This study put under the spotlight the perceptions of the Chinese second generation, with a focus on two young adult participants' perceptions of the importance of HLM. The findings of the current study highlight that the two participants have divergent perceptions of HLM, and family practice could be the primary source of HLM for them. Therefore, it is hoped that our better understanding of their perceptions could change parents' misconceptions of HLM among their children (Spolsky, 2012) and reveal part of the reasons for the low HLM rate among the second generation (Clyne & Kipp, 2006). Alternatively, for a more sustainable solution, the lens should be transferred from HLM to support HL development (He, 2006).

REFERENCES

- ACARA (2021), Australian Curriculum. *F-10 curriculum-Languages-Chinese-Context* statement. <https://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/f-10-curriculum/languages/chinese/context-statement/>
- Aromataris, E., & Pearson, A. (2014). The Systematic Review: An Overview. *The American Journal of Nursing*, 114(3), 53–58. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.NAJ.0000444496.24228.2c>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2016). *2016 census quickstats*. https://quickstats.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2016/quickstat/4?opendocument
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2001). *2001 census all persons quickstats*. <https://www.abs.gov.au/census/find-census-data/quickstats/2001/405>
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2015). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2008.1573>
- Bezcioglu-Goktolga, I., & Yagmur, K. (2018). Home language policy of second-generation Turkish families in the Netherlands. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 39(1), 44 - 59. <https://doi.org/urn:nbn:nl:ui:12-d281a9b2-fa64-4769-bfc0-a33cc7ee8e91>
- Brown, C. L. (2009). Heritage Language and Ethnic Identity: A Case Study of Korean-American College Students. *International Journal of Multicultural Education*, 11(1). <https://doi.org/10.18251/ijme.v11i1.157>
- Brown, H. D. (2014). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (6th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Cho, G. (2000). The Role of Heritage Language in Social Interactions and Relationships: Reflections from a Language Minority Group. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 24(4), 369–384. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2000.10162773>
- Cho, G. (2015). Perspectives vs. reality of heritage language development: Voices from second-generation Korean-American high school students. *Multicultural Education (San Francisco, Calif.)*, 22(2), 30–30.
- Clyne, M., & Kipp, S. (1997). Trends and Changes in Home Language Use and Shift in Australia, 1986-1996. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 18(6), 451–473. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434639708666334>
- Clyne, M., & Kipp, S. (2006). Australia's community languages. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 180(180), 7-21. <https://doi.org/10.1515/IJSL.2006.037>
- Creswell, J., & Guetterman, T. (2019). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (6th ed.) Pearson.
- DeCapua, A., & Wintergerst, A. C. (2009). Second-generation language maintenance and identity: A case study. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 32(1), 5-24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235880902965672>
- Department for Education South Australia (12 April 2022). *Chinese language – schools offering a program*. <https://www.education.sa.gov.au/chinese-language-schools-offering-program>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics : quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.

- Eisenclas, A., & Schalley, A. (2020). Making sense of “home language” and related concepts. In Schalley, C & Eisenclas, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of home language maintenance and development* (pp. 17-37). Walter de Gruyter GmbH. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501510175>
- Enstice, E. M. (2017). Latino parents perspectives: How to promote and implement additive bilingualism. *Journal for Leadership and Instruction*, Spring, 2017, 33-36.
- Flinders University (2022). *Coronavirus-information*. <https://staff.flinders.edu.au/coronavirus-information/research-updates>.
- Fishman, J. A. (1991). *Reversing language shift: theoretical and empirical foundations of assistance to threatened languages*. Multilingual Matters.
- García, O., & Tupas, R. (2018). Doing and undoing bilingualism in education. In A. D. Houwer & L. Ortega (Eds.). *The Cambridge handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 390-407). <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316831922.021>
- Gharibi, K., & Seals, C. (2020). Heritage language policies of the Iranian diaspora in New Zealand. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 14(4), 287–303. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2019.1653746>
- Gonzalez, Liew, J., Zou, Y., Curtis, G., & Li, D. (2021). “They’re Going to Forget About Their Mother Tongue”: Influence of Chinese Beliefs in Child Home Language and Literacy Development. *Early Childhood Education Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-021-01241-x>
- He, A. W. (2006). Toward an Identity Theory of the Development of Chinese as a Heritage Language. *Heritage Language Journal*, 4(1), 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.46538/hlj.4.1.1>
- Houwer, A. (2020). Harmonious bilingualism: Well-being for families in bilingual settings. In Schalley, C & Eisenclas, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of home language maintenance and development* (pp. 63-83). Walter de Gruyter GmbH. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501510175>
- Hu, J., Torr, J., & Whiteman, P. (2014). ‘Parents don’t want their children to speak their home language’: how do educators negotiate partnerships with Chinese parents regarding their children’s use of home language and English in early childhood settings? *Early Years*, 34(3), 255-270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09575146.2014.927419>
- Jaspal, R., & Coyle, A. (2010). ‘My language, my people’: language and ethnic identity among British-born South Asians. *South Asian Diaspora*, 2(2), 201-218. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19438192.2010.491299>
- Juvonen, P., Eisenclas, S. A. Roberts, T., & Schalley, A. C. (2018). Researching social and affective factors in home language maintenance and development: A methodology overview. In A. D. Houwer & L. Ortega (Eds.). *The Cambridge handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 38-58). <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316831922.021>
- Kang, H. S. (2015). Korean families in America: Their family language policies and home-language maintenance. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 38(3), 275-291. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2015.1092002>
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2020). Chaos/Complexity Theory for Second Language Acquisition/Development. In *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*, C.A. Chapelle (Ed.). <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0125.pub2>
- Law, S. (2015). Children learning Chinese as a home language in an English-dominant society. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(6), 735–748. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.946399>

- Lee, J. S. (2002). The Korean language in America: The role of cultural identity in heritage language learning. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 15(2), 117-133. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310208666638>
- Lee, J. S., & Oxelson, E. (2006). "It's not my job": K-12 teacher attitudes toward students' heritage language maintenance. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 30(2), 453-477. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2006.10162885>
- Li, G. (2016). Biliteracy and trilingual practices in the home context: Case studies of Chinese-Canadian children. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 6(3), 355-381. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468798406069797>
- Li, L., Tan, C. L., Goh, H. H., & Hui, S. (2016). Home language shift and its implications for Chinese language teaching in Singapore. *Cogent Education*, 3(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186x.2016.1161958>
- Liang, F. (2018). Parental perceptions toward and practices of heritage language maintenance: Focusing on the United States and Canada. *International Journal of Language Studies*, 12(2), 65-86.
- Liang, F., & Shin, D. S. (2021). Heritage language maintenance of Chinese immigrant families: Perceptions, practices, and challenges. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 44(1), 23-38. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2021.1922539>
- Liao, W., & Huang, H. (2020). Parents' perceptions and management of children's learning of Chinese as a heritage language: A case study of cross-cultural families in Australia. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 10(10), 1218-1226. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpsls.1010.05>
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned* (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Little, S. (2020). Whose heritage? What inheritance?: conceptualising family language identities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(2), 198-212. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1348463>
- Melo-Pfeifer, S. (2015). The role of the family in heritage language use and learning: impact on heritage language policies. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(1), 26-44. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2013.868400>
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: a guide to design and implementation* (4th ed). Wiley.
- Molyneux, P. (2006). The importance of a theory-informed understanding of additive bilingual education. *Babel (Parkville, Australia)*, 41(2), 18. <https://doi.org/10.3316/aeipt.158199>
- Mu, G. M., & Dooley, K. (2015). Coming into an inheritance: family support and Chinese Heritage Language learning. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(4), 501-515. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.928258>
- Multicultural Education and Language Committee (2017). *Review of languages education policies in Australia*. chrome-extension://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/https://www.education.sa.gov.au/sites/default/files/melc-review-of-languages-education-policies-australia.pdf?acsf_files_redirect
- National Museum Australia. (2021). *Early Chinese migrants*. <https://www.nma.gov.au/explore/features/harvest-of-endurance/scroll/early-chinese-migrants>

- Nesteruk, O. (2010). Heritage language maintenance and loss among the children of Eastern European immigrants in the USA. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 31(3), 271-286. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434630903582722>
- Njie, B., & Asimiran, S. (2014). Case study as a choice in qualitative methodology. *IOSR Journal of Research & Method in Education (IOSR - JRME)*, 4(3), 35-40.
- Open Access College (09 February 2022). *Languages*. <https://www.openaccess.edu.au/curriculum/languages>
- Otwinowska, A., Meir, N., Ringblom, N., Karpava, S., & La Morgia, F. (2021). Language and literacy transmission in heritage language: evidence from Russian-speaking families in Cyprus, Ireland, Israel and Sweden. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 42(4), 357-382. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2019.1695807>
- Park, S. M., & Sarkar, M. (2007). Parents' Attitudes Toward Heritage Language Maintenance for Their Children and Their Efforts to Help Their Children Maintain the Heritage Language: A Case Study of Korean-Canadian Immigrants. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*, 20(3), 223–235. <https://doi.org/10.2167/lcc337.0>
- Purkarthofer, J. (2020). Intergenerational challenges: Of handing down languages, passing on practices, and bringing multilingual speakers into being. In Schalley, C & Eisenclas, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of home language maintenance and development* (pp. 130-145). Walter de Gruyter GmbH. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501510175>
- Qin, J. (2006). College heritage language speakers' perceptions of heritage languages and identity. *Journal of the National Council of Less Commonly Taught Languages*, 3, 35–60.
- Romanowski, P. (2021). A deliberate language policy or a perceived lack of agency: Heritage language maintenance in the Polish community in Melbourne. *International Journal of Bilingualism*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13670069211000850>
- SA Health (2022). *Covid - 19 health information*. <https://www.sahealth.sa.gov.au/wps/wcm/connect/public+content/sa+health+internet/conditions/infectious+diseases/covid-19/covid-19>
- Schwartz, M. (2008). Exploring the relationship between family language policy and heritage language knowledge among second generation Russian-Jewish immigrants in Israel. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 29(5), 400–418. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434630802147916>
- Sevinc, Y. (2020). Anxiety as a negative emotion in home language maintenance and development. In Schalley, C & Eisenclas, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of home language maintenance and development* (pp. 84-104). Walter de Gruyter GmbH. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501510175>
- Shen, Chunxuan, & Jiang, Wenying. (2021). Heritage language maintenance and identity among the second-generation Chinese-Australian children. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2021.1890650>
- Shin, S. J. (2010). “What about me? I'm not like Chinese but I'm not like American”: Heritage-language learning and identity of mixed-heritage adults. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 9(3), 203-219. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2010.486277>
- Smith, S. A., & Li, Z. (2020). Closing the enjoyment gap: heritage language maintenance motivation and reading attitudes among Chinese-American children. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2020.1742653>

- Spolsky, B. (2007). Towards a theory of language policy. *Working Papers in Education Linguistics*, 22(1), 1-14.
- Spolsky, B. (2009). *Language policy*. Cambridge University Press.
- Spolsky, B. (2012). Family language policy – The critical domain. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 33(1), 3-11. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2011.638072>
- Spolsky, B. (2019). A modified and enriched theory of language policy (and management). *Language Policy*, 2019 (18), 323-338.
- Stevenson, A. D., Gallard Martínez, A. J., Brkich, K. L., Flores, B. B., Claeys, L., & Pitts, W. (2017). Latinas' heritage language as a source of resiliency: impact on academic achievement in STEM fields. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 14(1), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11422-016-9789-6>
- Szecsí, T., & Szilágyi, J. (2012). Immigrant Hungarian families' perceptions of new media technologies in the transmission of heritage language and culture. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*, 25(3), 265–281. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2012.722105>
- Tannenbaum, M., & Howie, P. (2002). The Association between language maintenance and family relations: Chinese immigrant children in Australia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 23(5), 408–424. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434630208666477>
- Thomas, B. (2017). *How to do your research project: A guide for students* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publication Ltd.
- Tran, V. H., McLeod, S., Verdon, S., & Wang, C. (2021). Vietnamese-Australian parents: factors associated with language use and attitudes towards home language maintenance. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2021.1904963>
- Torres, K. M., & Turner, J. E. (2017). Heritage language learners' perceptions of acquiring and maintaining the Spanish language. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(7), 837-853. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1113927>
- UNESCO (2021), *UNESCO side event “ language matters for development, peace and reconciliation: The case for least developed countries*. <https://events.unesco.org/event?id=1113296902&lang=1033>
- Verdon, S., McLeod, S., & Winsler, A. (2014). Language maintenance and loss in a population study of young Australian children. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 29(2), 168–181. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2013.12.003>
- Waetzold, J. C., & Melo-Pfeifer, S. (2022). How is the bilingual development of Portuguese heritage children perceived by their parents? Results from an ethnographic case study of a non-formal learning setting in Germany. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(3), 942–962. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2020.1731415>
- Wei, L. (2016). Transnational connections and multilingual realities: The Chinese diasporic experience in a global context. In L. Wei (Ed.) *Multilingualism in the Chinese diaspora worldwide: Transnational connections and local social realities* (pp. 14-24). Taylor & Francis Group.
- Wei, W. (2021). *Perceptions among the young adults of Chinese second generation on home language maintenance: Multiple case studies from South Australia* [submission to ESOL9010 A&B, The College of Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences].
- Xiang, Q., & Makarova, V. (2021). Grandparents in minority language maintenance: Mandarin Chinese in Canada. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, 2021 (11), 380-394.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research : design and methods* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.

Yu, P. S (2014). Heritage language learning motivation, self-perceived identity and maintenance among Chinese-American college students. *Journal of Language and Cultural Education*, 2(1), 26-47

Zhang, D. (2004). Home language maintenance among second-generation Chinese-American children. *Working Papers in Education Linguistics*, 19(2), 33-53.

Zhang, D., & Slaughter-Defoe, D. T. (2009). Language attitudes and heritage language maintenance among Chinese immigrant families in the USA. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 22(2), 77-93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310902935940>

Zhang, D. (2010). Language maintenance and language shift among Chinese immigrant parents and their second-generation children in the U.S. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 33(1), 42-60. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235881003733258>

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Letter of Ethical Approval

22 April 2022



HUMAN ETHICS LOW RISK PANEL APPROVAL NOTICE

Dear Dr Mai Ngo,

The below proposed project has been **approved** on the basis of the information contained in the application and its attachments.

Project No: 4894
Project Title: Perceptions among Young Adults of Chinese Second Generation on Home Language Maintenance: Multiple Case Studies from South Australia
Primary Researcher: Dr Mai Ngo
Approval Date: 22/04/2022
Expiry Date: 01/07/2022
Conditions of Approval: None

Please note: Due to the current COVID-19 situation, researchers are strongly advised to develop a research design that aligns with the University's COVID-19 research protocol involving human studies. Where possible, avoid face-to-face testing and consider rescheduling face-to-face testing or undertaking alternative distance/online data or interview collection means. For further information, please go to <https://staff.flinders.edu.au/coronavirus-information/research-updates>.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF RESEARCHERS AND SUPERVISORS

1. Participant Documentation

Please note that it is the responsibility of researchers and supervisors, in the case of student projects, to ensure that:

- all participant documents are checked for spelling, grammatical, numbering and formatting errors. The Committee does not accept any responsibility for the above mentioned errors.
- the Flinders University logo is included on all participant documentation (e.g., letters of Introduction, information Sheets, consent forms, debriefing information and questionnaires – with the exception of purchased research tools) and the current Flinders University letterhead is included in the header of all letters of introduction. The Flinders University international logo/letterhead should be used and documentation should contain international dialing codes for all telephone and fax numbers listed for all research to be conducted overseas.

2. Annual Progress / Final Reports

In order to comply with the monitoring requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007 (updated 2018)* an annual progress report must be submitted each year on the approval anniversary date for the duration of the ethics approval using the HREC Annual/Final Report Form available online via the ResearchNow Ethics & Biosafety system.

Please note that no data collection can be undertaken after the ethics approval expiry date listed at the top of this notice. If data is collected after expiry, it will not be covered in terms of ethics. It is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that annual progress reports are submitted on time; and that no data is collected after ethics has expired.

If the project is completed *before* ethics approval has expired please ensure a final report is submitted immediately. If ethics approval for your project expires please **either** submit (1) a final report; **or** (2) an extension of time request (using the HREC Modification Form).

For **student projects**, the Low Risk Panel recommends that current ethics approval is maintained until a student's thesis has been submitted, assessed and finalised. This is to protect the student in the event that reviewers recommend that additional data be collected from participants.

3. Modifications to Project

Modifications to the project must not proceed until approval has been obtained from the Ethics Committee. Such proposed changes / modifications include:

- change of project title;
- change to research team (e.g., additions, removals, researchers and supervisors)
- changes to research objectives;
- changes to research protocol;
- changes to participant recruitment methods;
- changes / additions to source(s) of participants;
- changes of procedures used to seek informed consent;
- changes to reimbursements provided to participants;
- changes to information / documents to be given to potential participants;
- changes to research tools (e.g., survey, interview questions, focus group questions etc);
- extensions of time (i.e. to extend the period of ethics approval past current expiry date).

To notify the Committee of any proposed modifications to the project please submit a Modification Request Form available online via the ResearchNow Ethics & Biosafety system. Please note that extension of time requests should be submitted prior to the Ethics Approval Expiry Date listed on this notice.

4. Adverse Events and/or Complaints

Researchers should advise the Executive Officer of the Human Research Ethics Committee on at human_researchethics@flinders.edu.au immediately if:

- any complaints regarding the research are received;
- a serious or unexpected adverse event occurs that effects participants;
- an unforeseen event occurs that may affect the ethical acceptability of the project.

Yours sincerely,

Hendryk Flaegel

on behalf of

Human Ethics Low Risk Panel
Research Development and Support
human_researchethics@flinders.edu.au

Flinders University
Sturt Road, Bedford Park, South Australia, 5042
GPO Box 2100, Adelaide, South Australia, 5001

http://www.flinders.edu.au/research/researcher-support/ethics/human-ethics/human-ethics_home.cfm

ResearchNow
Ethics & Biosafety



Proactively supporting our Research

Appendix 2: Interview questions

Semi-structured interview

Interview Protocol for

[Research project 9010: Perceptions among the young adults of Chinese second generation on home language maintenance: Multiple case study from South Australia]

Opening Script (note: consent forms will have been collected prior to starting the opening script): (5min)

- Interviewer: Thank you for meeting with me today! This interview is part of my graduate research project. The purpose of this interview is to understand your thinking of HLM. As a participant in this study, I consider you to be an expert on this topic and want to know about your experiences and thoughts regarding the questions I'm going to ask.

Wait for the interviewee's response.

- Interviewer: I will be recording this interview with this device [show the recorder]. After our interview is over, I will make a transcript of what you said, but I will replace your name, as well as those of anyone you mention and any places you mention so that nothing you say can be traced back to you. I will be the only one that has access to this data and will keep it locked away and safe until it is time to erase the data entirely.

Wait for the interviewee's response.

- Interviewer: If you want to stop participating in this interview or not respond to any specific questions for any reason, you may do so without fearing my judgement or disappointment. Before we begin, do you have any questions?

Wait for the interviewee's response. [Answer any questions until the participant is satisfied and ready to begin.]

- Interviewer: This interview is expected to take [30] minutes. Are you willing to start the interview and be recorded right now?

Wait for responses, and begin recording.

- Interviewer: Okay, I've started the recording. Can you affirm, for the recording, that you understand and assent to having your words recorded in this interview?

Wait for responses.

- Interviewer: Thank you! Let's begin with this first question.

Questions	Follow-up questions/Hints	Rationale (cite literature or conceptual framework, and research question relates to)	Note-taking during interview/Remarks
Research question 1: How do young adults of the Chinese second generation perceive the importance of home language maintenance? (15min)			
1. According to your responses to the questionnaire, you speak ___ at home as a home language. Why do you think Chinese is/isn't your home language?	Hints: The first language is the language you first learnt after you were born. 1a: Do you still use it now?	(Qin, 2006). framework: ideology - feelings about HLM	Questionnaire: question 5
2. According to your responses to the questionnaire, you use your home language ___. When and where do you normally use your home language? Why?	Hints: Please consider speaking, reading, writing and reading. 2a. Can you give me some examples? 2b: How do you feel when you speak your home language? Why? Hints: For example, you feel comfortable, embarrassed, anxious etc.	(Decapus, 2009; Qin, 2006; Schwartz, 2008) framework: ideology - feelings about HLM	Questionnaire: question 12
3. According to your responses to the	3a: Can you give some examples?	(Qin, 2006) framework: ideology - attitudes	Questionnaire: question 14

questionnaire, you think home language maintenance is _____ important. Why do you think so?		towards HLM	
4. How important is passing Chinese on to the next generation as a home language, in your view? Why/Why not?	Hints: For example, will you teach your children Chinese? Will you do it in the same way your parents did?	(DeCapua, 2009; Qin, 2006). framework: ideology - attitudes towards HLM	
5. What do you expect from learning and using your home language?	5a. Do you wish you could have learnt it earlier and better? Why or why not?	(Qin, 2006; Shin, 2010). framework: ideology - expectations	
6. What are the benefits/drawbacks of learning and using Chinese as a home language in South Australia?	Hints: For example, you think learning Chinese can bring more job opportunities.	(Cho, 2005; Shen & Jiang, 2021). framework: ideology - expectations	
7. What else do you want to add to this part of your interview that you think can provide me with more information to the research			remind the participants about the interview questions
question "How do young adults of the Chinese second-generation perceive the importance of home language maintenance"?(15min)			
Research question 2: What are the factors that have influenced their perceptions on home language maintenance? (15 min)			
Family factors			
8. What language do your parents normally speak with you as a home language?	8a: What did they say about the importance of learning your home language? 8b: How do they require you regarding learning and using a language? Hints: For example, do they require you to use Chinese/English only?	(Qin, 2006; Shin, 2010). framework: family factors. Spolsky (1989; 2007): family language policy - practice	
9. What did your parents do about Chinese learning as a home language?	Hints: sending you to schools, reading Chinese books with you, watching Chinese TV, travelling in China 9a. How do you feel about this type	(Qin, 2006; Shin, 2010). framework: family factors. Spolsky (1989; 2007): family language policy - management	

	of learning? 9b: Which one do you think is the most useful/helpful for you?		
Social factors: school and community			
10. What are the home language activities, events or programmes you have observed or participated in outside your home?	10a. How do you feel about it? Hints: For example, do they help with home language maintenance? For example, in your school and the Chinese community	(Qin, 2006; Shen & Jiang, 2021) framework: social factors - school and community	
11. How did people around you react when you speak your home language outside your home?	Hints: For example, in your school, in front of other home language speakers, how do they react?	(Cho, 2005; Tran et al., 2021; Zhang, 2004) framework: social factors - school and community	
Individual factors			
12. How do you feel when you cannot express yourself correctly in your home language?		(Little, 2020; Jaspal & Coyle, 2010) framework: individual factors	
13. What do you think about people who are competent	13a: Do you want to become one of them?	(Smith & Li, 2020) framework: individual factors	
in Chinese as a home language?		Donyei's L2-motivational Self system: the future plan of learners will motivate them with language learning	
14. What else do you want to add to this part of your interview that you think can provide me with more information on the question "what are the factors that have influenced their perceptions on home language maintenance"?			remind the participants about the interview questions

Part 2: informal interview

Question	Follow-up questions/Hints	Rationale (cite literature or conceptual framework, and research question relates to)	Note-taking during interview
1. Do you think the Chinese language should be maintained as a home language among Chinese-Australian? Why?	1a: Is there any of your experiences that make you think in this way? Can you tell me more about it?	(DeCapus, 2009). Research question 1 framework: attitudes	
2. Tell me about your experience of learning Chinese as a home language in Australia.	2a: How did you learn Chinese when you were a kid? 2b: How did you learn Chinese after enrolling in school?	(DeCapua, 2009) Research question 2 framework: family & social factors Spolsky (2007) language policy: practice and management	
3. Thinking about your experiences, do you like learning/using Chinese as	3a: Can you share some experiences that influence your feelings about Chinese?	(Qin, 2006) Research question 1 framework: feelings	

a home language? Why?			
4. Do you plan to learn Chinese in the future as a home language? Why?	Hints: e.g. more job opportunities? travelling in China?	(DeCapua, 2009) Research question 1 framework: expectation	
5. What kind of Chinese language do you and your family speak as a home language?	Hints: Mandarin, Cantonese, other dialects; your parents, relatives, grandparents 5a: How do you feel when you speak Chinese with your parents, grandparents, relatives, and friends?	(Qin, 2006) Research question 2 framework: family factors Spolsky (1989; 2007) language policy: family practice	
6. Do you have any happy/unhappy memories of learning/using Chinese as a home language?	Hints: being punished/rewarded because of using Chinese? 6a. Can you tell me more about the experience? What happened?	(Qin, 2006) Research question 2 framework: social factors Spolsky (2007) language policy: attitudes in social domain	
7. What are the difficulties/challenges of maintaining Chinese as a	7a: Can you share some of your experiences or give some examples?	(Qin, 2006) Research question 2 framework: social factors	

home language in Australia?		Spolsky (2007) language policy: management and practice in the social domain	
8. What can motivate you to learn and use Chinese as a home language?	8a: Are there any experiences that make you want to/not want to learn/use Chinese?	(Smith & Li, 2020) Research question 2 framework: individual factors - motivation Donyei's L2-motivational Self system: the future plan of learners will motivate them with language learning	