

FACULTY OF ARTS AND EDUCATION

MASTER'S THESIS

Study programme/ specialisation: The (spring) semester, (2023)
Master in English & Literacy
Confidential

Studies

Author:

Anyanwu Chidinma Francisca

Supervisor at UiS: Marte Handal

Co-supervisor:

External supervisor(s):

Thesis title:

Parental attitudes to bilingualism and parental strategies for developing first and second language skills in bilingual children

Credits (ECTS):

Keywords: Pages: 108
Bilingualism + appendix: 3

Language attitude Parental strategies Language skills

Stavanger, 10th May, 2023

Abstract

Much research has been carried out concerning parental attitudes and strategies towards bilingualism. However, fewer studies have concentrated on kindergarten and elementary-level children and involved parents from different language backgrounds, focusing on all four speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. The current study is focused on the involvement of parents in the home in order to develop the English language as the second and focus language, in addition to the mother tongue, within the Norwegian language environment. In other words, this study explores if parents encourage the application of bilingualism in speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities in the home environment. Importantly, this project is bed rocked on the mindset of parents, either positive or negative, toward bilingualism. In this study, the participants were bilingual families who live and work in the Stavanger and Sandnes areas of Norway, with children between three to six and six to nine in Norwegian kindergarten and elementary schools. To achieve the objective of this study, a qualitative research method was chosen for data collection. Amidst the qualitative data collection approach, the researcher adopted a semistructured interview, where eight families volunteered to participate in the study. This study would guide parents raising bilingual children living in a country other than their own on the strategies they could use for different language skills at home.

The study's main findings were that all the interviewees, especially mothers, were much involved in reading comprehension and writing with their children and motivated them by buying or borrowing books. As for the speaking skill, all families had dinner-time discussions, in which parents and their children unofficially talked and listened to one another about personal and family matters. Among other speaking activities, dinner-time discussion had been favoured. In addition, the participants submitted that their children liked watching TV, listening to songs and stories from YouTube/audio-visual appliances, and their parents, respectively. The interviewees had strong positive attitudes toward bilingualism and wanted to raise bilingual children, at least with a focus on their mother tongue and English. They believed bilingualism would add substantial cognitive, educational, social, emotional, behavioural, and cultural benefits to their children; thus, they applied different domestic strategies to support the language skill development of their children in speaking, reading, listening, and writing. The participants also employed similar correction strategies in all the involved language skills, though with slight

disparity according to family background and parental job schedules. Furthermore, all the participants wished their children could maintain English and their mother tongue simultaneously, including the language of the environment, but not all the participants put in the effort to keep or maintain the two languages regarding the four language skills, especially the ones with children between three to six. Additionally, the following chapters will present detailed information and discussions about the findings through the semi-structured interviews with the participants.

Acknowledgements

A sincere thanks and appreciation to my husband, Ferdinand:

His constant care, love, understanding, and support spur my efforts.

Thank you to Marte Handal, my supervisor:

Her hard work and constructive supervision made this research a reality.

Thank you to Signe Ekenberg, my coordinator:

Her constant advice and encouragement brought my dream thus far.

A big thanks and hug to my beloved children, Simdi and Jidenna:

They continue to inspire me to work harder.

Thank you to my mother, my siblings, and my in-laws:

Their prayers and advice inspired and strengthened me.

Lastly, my gratitude goes to my saviour Jesus Christ, the author and finisher of my faith:

He has never and will never give up on me.

Table of Contents

1.	INT	(RO	DUCTION	8
1	.1.	Ain	ns of the study	9
1	1.2.	Bili	ngualism:	10
1	.3.	The	e Norwegian education system	11
	1.3.	1.	Pre-school /day-care (kindergarten) and teaching language:	11
	1.3.	2.	Primary education:	13
	1.3.	3.	The Norwegian language curriculum:	14
	1.3.	4.	The English language curriculum:	14
1	.4.	Res	earch contribution	15
1	l .5.	The	esis outline	15
2.	TH	EOR	Y AND LITERATURE REVIEW	16
2	2.1.	Laı	nguage acquisition and language learning	16
	2.1.	1.	Language and language skills	16
	2.1.	2.	Features of language	17
	2.1.	3.	Language Skills	18
2	2.2.	Laı	nguage acquisition and learning	19
	2.2.	1.	First language acquisition	19
	2.2.	2. Se	cond language acquisition	20
	2.2.	3. Se	cond language learning	20
2	2.3. C	ogni	tive factors of second language acquisition	21
	2.3.	1. In	telligence	21
	2.3.	2. La	inguage aptitude	21
	2.3.	3. Le	earning strategies in second language acquisition	21
	2.3.	4. De	efinition of language strategies	22
2	2.4. A	ffect	ive/emotional domain of second language acquisition	23
	Anx	kiety:		23
	Emj	pathy	<i>r</i> :	23
	Mot	tivati	on:	24
2	2.5. D	efini	tion of bilingualism	24
2	2.6. T	he re	mit of the bilingualism	29
2	2.7. D	imen	sions, types, and cognitive advantages of bilingualism	30
	2.7.	1. Di	mensions and types of bilinguals and bilingualism	30

2	2.7.2.	Cognitive advantages of bilingualism	32
2.8	. Pre	vious research on bilingualism	37
2.9	. Def	initions of aptitude	40
2	2.9.1	Characteristics of attitude	42
2	2.9.2	Components of attitude	43
2	2.9.3	Factors affecting attitudes.	44
2	2.9.4	Previous research on parental attitudes	46
2.1	0. Pa	arental involvements	48
2	2.10.	1. Importance of parental involvement	50
2	2.10.	2. Previous studies on parental involvements	51
2.1	1. Pa	arental strategies	52
2	2.11.	1. Parenting styles and effects on children	53
2	2.11.	2. Previous research on parental strategies	55
3.ME	THO	DDOLOGY	57
3.1	.]	Introduction	57
3.2	• ′	Γypes of research	58
3	3.2.1	Qualitative research	58
3	3.2.2.	The Assumptions of qualitative research paradigm	58
3	3.2.3	The strength/integrity of qualitative research	59
3	3.2.4	Limitations of qualitative research	60
3	3.2.5	Qualitative data collection	61
3.3	.]	Data collection, Data processing and analysis	62
3	3.3.1	The Participants	62
3	3.3.2	Instrument for Data Collection	63
3	3.3.3	Interview Piloting and Conduction	64
3	3.3.4	Interview Analysis	65
3.4	.]	Methodological Concerns.	66
3	3.4.1	Reliability and validity	66
3.5	.]	Ethical Aspect	67
3.6	. :	Summary	67
4. 1	FINI	DINGS	68
4.1	.]	Introduction	68
4.2	.]	Participant A	68

4.	.3.	Partic	cipant B	71
4.	.4.	Partic	cipant C	75
4.	.5.	Partic	cipant D	78
4.	.6.	Partic	cipant E	81
4.	.7.	Partic	cipant F	84
4.	.8.	Partic	cipant G	87
4.	.9.	Partic	cipant H	91
4.10).	Sumn	mary	94
5.	DIS	CUSS	ION	95
5.	.1.	Paren	ntal attitudes toward bilingualism	96
5.	.2.	Paren	ntal strategies for language skills	101
	5.2.	1. S	Speaking	101
	5.2.2	2. F	Reading	104
	5.2.3	3. I	Listening	107
	5.2.4	4. V	Writing	109
5.	.3.	Sugge	estions for future study	112
5.	.4.	Sumn	mary	112
5.	.5.	Limit	tations of the study	112
6.	CO	NCLU	JSION	113
Refe	erenc	es		117
APF	PEND	DIX 1		130

1. INTRODUCTION

This master's thesis is a qualitative study of parental roles and strategies for first, second or third language learning (L1, L2, L3) within the home environment. The main purpose of this project was to explore the roles parents play to encourage the development of language skills. The study involved parents of children in kindergarten between the ages of 3-6 years old and children in primary school between the ages of 6-9 years old. The study involved parents who came from the same country with same mother tongue, parents from the same country with different mother tongues and parents from different countries with entirely different languages. In Norway, raising children bilingually is often perceived as a huge challenge by many parents, not minding the social reputation accorded to English as an international language, (Lanza,1998). One of the characteristic features of the early bilingualism of these young children is language mixing which is a ubiquitous phenomenon characterizing young bilingual speakers, and this has imposed a major concern for parents of these bilingual children.

In 2013, Statistics Norway stated that immigration to Norway has been very high in the past few years, where most of the individuals or foreigners immigrated as a result of work opportunities, education or families reuniting with their loved ones already working or studying in Norway. As a result, the children of these immigrated families either are born in Norway or go to schools at various levels. Due to human migration for several reasons, acquiring second language is becoming widespread around the world and that increases the number of bilinguals. As I mentioned earlier, several researchers have proposed several definitions for bilinguals, but for the purpose of this study bilinguals would be defined among other definitions as individuals or group of people who acquire communicative skills with different degrees of competence both in oral and written forms to guarantee proper interaction with speakers of one or more language within a given society (Yuko G. Butler & Hakuta, 2008). The attitude of parents is inevitable for the language skill acquisition of their children, for that reason, many researchers have been carried out on the involvement and attitudes of parents to bilingualism and bringing up bilingual children in different countries. According to Conteh & Kawashima, (2008), research conducted in England to establish the involvement of parents in education of their children portrayed parents support and encouragement to their children in the home specifically in reading comprehension.

1.1. Aims of the study

Much research has been carried out concerning parental attitudes and strategies towards bilingualism. For instance, Michael Lee et al (2015) focused on parental beliefs, attitudes, behaviour and preferences in raising English/Spanish bilingual children, with Spanish Primary language parents of 3-7 years old children as focus groups. Oladejo (2006) studied about parental attitudes and participation to ensure that Taiwanese children learn English as a foreign language in school, and Christy Lao (2010) studied the attitudes and participation of 86 parents in San Francisco who enrolled their children in Chinese/English bilingual preschool. Less studies have concentrated on kindergarten and elementary level children and involved parents from different language backgrounds, focussing on all the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. The current study is focused on the involvement of parents in the home in order to develop English language as the focus language in addition to the mother tongue, within the Norwegian language environment. In other words, this study explores if parents encourage the application of bilingualism in speaking, listening, reading and writing activities in the home environment. Importantly, this project is bed rocked on the mindset of parents either positive or negative to bilingualism.

The central purpose of this study was to explore the roles and the strategies employed by parents to enhance the early language skill development of their children. To investigate how, for instance; Nigerian/Nigerian parents (Igbo/Igbo), Croatian/Nigerian parents (Croatian/Igbo), Norwegian/Scotland parents (Norwegian/English), Cameroonian/Nigerian parents (French/Hausa), Ugandan parent (Acholi), Polish/Ghanian (Polish/Twi), Polish/Norwegian (Polish/Norwegian), and Serbian/Serbian (Serbian/Serbian) residing in Norway assist their children to develop English language skills as a second and language of international communication, and their mother tongue. To achieve the above objectives, the following research questions will be addressed in this study.

- 1. What strategies do bilingual families in Norway use to support first, second and third language development of their children?
- 2. What attitudes do parents employ to foster bilingualism?

1.2. Bilingualism:

Bilingualism simply means the ability to use two languages. However, according to Harding-Esch (2010), defining bilingualism could be problematic as speakers with varying bilingual skills may be classified as bilinguals. Definitions of bilingualism according to Harding-Esch ranges from a minimal proficiency level to an advanced proficiency level in both languages which permits the speaker to appear and function as a native-like speaker of dual languages. Factors that influence the complexity of defining bilingualism include the age of acquisition age of the second language L2, continued exposure to the first language L1, the circumstances under which each of the languages were learned and the attached skills to each of the languages (Chiappe, Chiappe, & Gottardo, 2004). Bilingualism in its simplest form can be defined as 'knowing' two languages but one could be curious about the meaning of to 'know' a language. Some bilinguals are super proficient in both languages they speak whereas others portray dominance or preferred language. Therefore, it is important to consider the degree of bilingualism when classifying bilinguals. One factor to consider before defining types of bilingualism is when the languages were acquired in relation to each other. Thus, simultaneous bilingualism occurs when both languages are acquired from birth to the age of three, but when one language is acquired before the other, sequential bilingualism occurs (De Houwer, 2009). The age of second language (L2) acquisition is also very important because brain organisation differs for (L2) acquisition after the age of five in contrast to before the age of five, when native-like acquisition of language is possible (Gottardo (2014) sited (Bohn & Flege, 1992)).

According to (Gottardo (2004) sited (Malone, 1997)), the reason for acquiring second language (L2) could be a tool to categorize bilinguals. For instance, elective bilinguals acquire second language in a formal setting maybe as an additional language but mostly continue to use their first language. On the other hand, Circumstantial bilinguals, acquire second language because they are required to do so for school or to be able to communicate with the environment. One example of this would be immigrants learning the societal language in their new country of residence. The above mentioned are also grouped as subtractive bilinguals because they usually decrease their first language skills or loose it in favour of the societal or majority language and this is mostly found in immigrant children. Sequential bilinguals learn their L1 in the home and their L2 in the

community/or in the school. To maintain classification of bilingualism, communicative competence in second language must be learnt and first language proficiency must be maintained (Pearson, 2007). The attitudes of parents, siblings and peers towards the second or minority language can either add value or subtract value from the language. Therefore, anything that improves the attractiveness of the second language, for example through books or social media, will likely help maintain that language.

1.3. The Norwegian education system

The Norwegian education system is important in this context because it ensured that children and young people regardless of their gender, where they live, social or cultural background must have an equal right to education. Considering the topic of this research work and the ages of the involved children, it is apposite to have a true knowledge of the educational system of the involved country (Norway), which is divided as follows: Pre-school /Day care (Kindergarten, ages 1-6), Elementary School (Primary school, ages 6-13), lower secondary school (Junior secondary, ages 13-16), and upper secondary school (High school, ages 16-19). For the purpose of this thesis work and the ages of the involved children (1 – 3 and 6 – 9 years old), the focus will be on pre-school/day care (kindergarten) and elementary school.

1.3.1. Pre-school /day-care (kindergarten) and teaching language:

A kindergarten is an institution for children under compulsory school age, but the system is quite dissimilar from what is applicable to kindergartens internationally, as it commences at a much younger age in the Norwegian context (Nikel (2018).

In accordance with the Ministry of Education. (2011), the kindergarten owners whether public (kindergartens owned by the municipal council) or private (kindergartens owned by commercial enterprises, a non-profit organisation, or a company) are responsible for ensuring that the kindergarten operates according to prevailing laws and regulations stated in the kindergarten Act. According to these regulations, the manager of the kindergarten is responsible for the pedagogical practices, staff and administration and must ensure that the pedagogical practices conform with the Kindergarten Act.

The Norwegian Framework Plan for Kindergarten includes a section named Promotion of communication and language and here it is stipulated that kindergartens must be mindful of the way communication and language affect every aspect of a child's development. Through interaction and dialogue, the children shall be assisted to communicate, listen, understand, participate and create meaning. They shall value and acknowledge the children's distinct forms of communication and language together with sign language. All children in the kindergarten shall experience appropriate language stimulation and shall be able to take part in every activity that encourage communication and extensive language development (Norwegian Ministry for Education and Research, 2011)

The kindergarten staff shall stimulate the verbal and non-verbal communication of the children and engage all the children in interaction and conversation. Respond and acknowledge to every child's different verbal and non-verbal ways of expressing themselves. Make sure that every child gains positive and varied experience of using language as a means of communication, a way of expressing their feelings & thoughts and as a tool for thinking. Observe the children's communication and language and encourage children who demonstrate varied types of communication problems, who portray signs of language delay development or who are not linguistically active. Always conscious of their duties as linguistic role models and be observant in their communication with all children. Assist to ensure that linguistic diversity becomes an improvement for the whole group of children and support multilingual children to apply their mother tongue while also promoting their Norwegian skills (Ministry of Education 2011).

In areas of communication, language and text, the kindergarten shall; enable the children to develop and explore their linguistic competence, their language comprehension and host of varied forms of communication. The children shall be introduced to various languages, dialects and vernaculars via songs, rhythms, texts and literature from past and present. Encourage children to play with language, texts & symbols and stimulate their linguistic awareness, curiosity and development. The Framework Plan for Kindergarten went further to inform that children in kindergarten shall be introduced to various ways of conveying stories and texts as a source of experience, knowledge and encounter with language and culture (Ministry of Education 2011). According to the above source, to ensure proper engagement with communication, language and text, the Norwegian kindergarten shall assist the children do the followings:

- Demonstrate their opinion, thoughts and experiences in different ways.
- Build relationships, partake in play and in conflict resolutions using language.
- Develop their notional understanding and use of diverse vocabularies.
- Play, experiment and extemporize with rhythm, words and sounds.
- Discover different stories, fairy tales, legends and forms of expression.
- Find enthusiasm and delight in storytelling, conversation, singing and reading aloud.
- Survey and experience various types of written language such as drawing, letters and pretend writing via reading and writing activities.

To ensure the above framework plan for children is established, the kindergarten staff shall do the following:

- Design a diverse linguistic environment where the children can have the advantage of using language and communication with others.
- Invite children to various kinds of conversations where they can wonder, reflect, explain and ask questions.
- Spotlight cultural and linguistic diversity, encourage the children's distinct identities and cultural expressions and foster diversity in language, communication and additional forms of expression.
- Support the children to play and fantasise with language, rhythm and sounds.
- Encourage the children as the explore and play with written language.
- Utilize assorted media of communication and offer different books, pictures, songs and other forms of expression.
- Incorporate all the children in language stimulation activities.

1.3.2. Primary education:

The compulsory Norwegian primary and lower secondary school lasts between the ages of 6-16years or grades 1 to grade 10. This primary and lower secondary education was established on the concept of equality and modernized education for every child within the school- system based on same national curriculum where all children and young people share general or common foundation of knowledge, values and culture, Ministry of education (2011).

1.3.3. The Norwegian language curriculum:

According to Norwegian Ministry for Education and Research. (2011), one of the main reasons for Norwegian language learning and exposure within the period of thirteen years at Norwegian schools is to enable student to acquire linguistic confidence, establish an identity, learn to respect their cultures and that of other countries, have active social engagement and experience life-long learning. Norwegian government has established language training centres in accordance with the law and regulations for immigrations and refugees including children. One of the above governments establish training centres is Johannes's learning centre. The main objective of this learning centre is to help students learn Norwegian, assist those with little or no Norwegian vocabulary to acquire various skills. This implies that the training centres have instructors with bilingual background who provide help and guidance to the students in their native language where they need help; though the bilingual instructors do not teach students daily subjects, but they assist the learner to gain the new subject matter. This basic curriculum for Norwegian language minorities may be useful in elementary and lower secondary schools and in upper secondary education and training. The teaching of this curriculum stands to promote modified education in line with the current regulations in the Education act, also to safeguard the needs of linguistic minorities for special instructions in Norwegian language.

1.3.4. The English language curriculum:

According to the Norwegian Ministry for Education and Research (2020), English language is a subject that builds the pupils foundation for communicating with other individual regardless of linguistic or cultural background both locally and globally. The language assists the pupils to grow an intercultural comprehension of several ways of living, communication patterns and ways of thinking. The English language would also make the pupils ready for an education, societal and working life that needs English language competence in reading, writing and oral communication. The ability to communicate in English opens new ways to interpret the world, foster curiosity and engagement and help to stop prejudice. The pupils shall experience that their potential to communicate with several languages is an asset at school and the society at large.

Communication according to the above source, means creating meaning via language and the potential to use the language in both formal and informal backgrounds, and language learning refers to developing language cognizance or consciousness and the knowledge of English as a

system and the potential to apply language learning plans. English language course shields all speaking, listening, reading and writing skills. English learning commences when children begin schooling that is when they are six, starting from the first grade. The main purpose for grades one and grade two is to learn language and be able to get familiar with a new language and to explore or survey the relationship between Norwegian and English. English as a widely used language all over the world, Norway as a country is not an exception largely for educational and professional purposes. According to the above sources, English language provides the chance for individuals to participate in different personal and social events.

1.4. Research contribution

Executing this research on parental support and strategies in homes within the Norwegian environment is particularly interesting because few studies have focused on raising bilingual children in language minority families. In the last few decades, the Rogaland areas of Norway have been attracting people from different continents either for occupational, educational, or other migration purposes. This study aims to explore bilingualism and the attitudes parents employ to that effect. Hence, the researcher was anxious to ascertain the kind of strategies that parents employed in order to encourage the language growth of their children. Much research has been carried out around the globe on children's language development, but few have focused on the attitudes and strategies of parents towards supporting the language growth of their children especially in Norway.

1.5. Thesis outline

Chapter 1 of this project introduces the background of the thesis, pointing out the objectives and research questions of the project. Chapter 2 presents the definition of terms, types and dimensions of bilingualism, definitions of attitudes and attitudes to bilingualism, parental involvement and strategies, definitions of other relevant words to the study and presentation of relevant case studies on parental attitudes and strategies on bilingualism. Chapter 3 presents an account of the methodological approach, including data collection methods, and a description of how the collected data was processed and analysed. Ethical consideration, validity and its reliability are also discussed in chapter 3. In Chapter 4 the results from the analysis are presented. Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the findings in relation to the main aim of the study. The chapter ends with conclusions, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

2. THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

concepts related to the current study will be presented in this chapter. Definitions of bilingualism and its types will be introduced. Also, parental strategies within the home environment with respect to having bilingual children and their attitudes towards bilingualism will be addressed. Thirdly, the role parents play in their children's language development will be investigated and finally, relevant case studies on children's bilingualism and parental strategies and roles in relation to bilingualism in children will be highlighted.

2.1. Language acquisition and language learning

Language learners acquire language via a subliminal process where they lack grammatical rules. These grammatical rules mainly occur when they develop their first language by repeating what they hear and getting a feel of what is correct and what is not. Thus, the learners need a source of natural communication, mainly the mother, father, or caregiver, (Hoque 2017).

Contrastingly, Hoque (2017) insighted that language learning results from direct instruction according to language rules. He further explained that language learning is never an age-appropriate of family activity for noticeable young children because language learning presupposes that learners have a conscious knowledge of the new language and can speak about that knowledge, usually basic grammatical knowledge. The involved families in this project have children in kindergarten and elementary schools, so they learn their second and third languages at later stages. Hence, the involved families could be considered as learning a second language or third language, not acquiring one.

2.1.1. Language and language skills

Husain (2015) expressed language as a collection of words tied together in sentences, each having a disparate identity and meaning; those words are brought together in a peculiar way to yield a systematic order to obtain meaning. It is a gift from God that differentiates man from animals. According to the above source, language is systematic where defined orderings are accepted as having prescribed meanings, never random behaviour. Therefore, it is a medium of expression for the thoughts and feelings of a social group.

However, Erlinda (2010) made the following general points about language:

Human language is never a vocal system of communication only but can be demonstrated in writing with the outcome that it is not limited in space or time, that every language is arbitrary and systematic, this signifies that no two languages behave the same way; still, each language has its jurisdiction. There are no inferior or ancient languages.

Though individuals may live in the most ancient conditions, all languages seem uniformly complex and sufficient to the demands of their users. Erlinda (2010) further defined language as a communication tool used by both humans and animals to be in touch with each other; language is like a coin to which its sides are expression and content; content circumscribes what we are striving to say, while expression circumscribes the method, we articulate this content; the mental code that links this content and presentation is language.

2.1.2. Features of language

- 1. Mode of Communication: The communication mode might be vocal-auditory as in most animal systems and human, or visual as in sign language.
- 2. Pragmatic Function: All communication systems serve an essential function such as influencing others and assisting the species to live.
- 3. Semanticity: The indication in any communication system is meaningful, and without this character, the system would merely consist of noise.
- 4. Interchangeability: By reciprocality, a human can both receive and send messages which mean human can both speak and listen, but not all animals can send and receive notifications.
- 5. Traditionally Transmission: Humans naturally have an innate ability to language, which permits them to learn any language they are exposed to.
- 6. Productivity: With language, humans have the capacity to comprehend and produce any number of messages that have never been said by any human before and that might also express ideas that have never been described before.
- 7. Displacement: With language, humans have the capability to communicate about something distant in time and or space. For instance, individuals can talk about a friend who lives elsewhere without seeing the person; they can also talk about a class they had last year or a lesson they will have next year.

2.1.3. Language Skills

Because language is not a content-based subject like social studies, mathematics, commerce, or science, which aims to convey information and fill the human mind with knowledge, it is essentially a skill and originally comes under the psychomotor domain (Husain (2015).

Language as a complex skill involves four fundamental sub-skills: Listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The four essential language skills might further be classified into two parts.

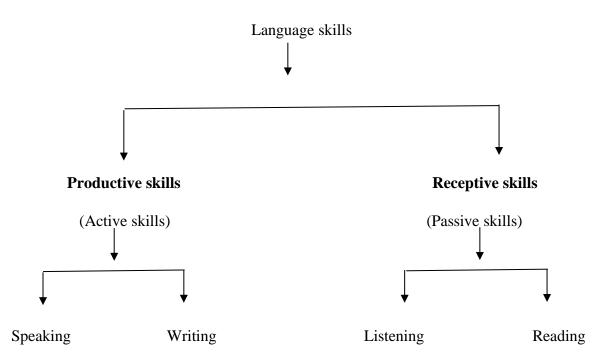


Fig1 Classification of language skills (Husain 2015).

The four language skills, also known as the four skills of language learning, are group of four capabilities that permits a person to understand and produce spoken language for effective and genuine interpersonal communication. When an individual learns a language, four skills are needed for complete communication. The four language skills are connected to each other in two separate ways: The direction of communication (Spoken or written). According to Husain (2015),

reception is called input, while production is called output, and they function in pairs. When someone is reading or listening, the person is receiving or consuming a language. But when a person is writing or speaking, the person is producing a language.

2.2. Language acquisition and learning

Language is the method by which ideas and emotions are expressed through signs and symbols used to encode and decode information. There are numerous spoken languages around the world. The first language acquired by a child is referred to as the child's mother tongue. This first language is the language that the baby listens to from his/her birth, after which every other language acquired or learned by the child is known as a second language.

According to Hogue (2017), second language acquisition (SLA) has two meanings: the term used to describe learning a second language, and it represents the name of the theory of the process by which one acquires or picks up a second language. It is primarily a subconscious process that occurs while one focuses on communication. Second language acquisition can be compared to second language learning, which expresses how formal language education assists individuals in learning language through a more conscious process.

However, second language acquisition and learning means learning and acquiring a second language once the first language or mother tongue is established, as stated by Hoque (2017). It represents the systematic study of why individuals learn a language other than their mother tongue. SLA stands for learning other languages besides the native language; for instance, a child whose mother tongue is the Igbo language commences learning English or Norwegian when the child starts schooling; therefore, English or Norwegian in this context is learned through the process of a second language acquisition. Mostly, a young child might learn a second language quicker than an adult can learn the same language (Hoque, 2017).

2.2.1. First language acquisition

Hogue (2017) argues that children worldwide pass through similar stages of language learning behaviours, ply similar constructions to express similar meanings, and also make same kinds of errors. These similar stages of language learning behaviours can be summarised thus.

SL	Language stage	Beginning stage
1	Crying	Birth

2	Crawling	6 weeks
3	Babbling	6 months
4	One-word utterances	1 year
5	Two words utterances	18 months
6	Questions, negatives	2 years 3 months
7	Rare or complex constructions	5 years
8	Mature speech	10 years

Table 1: Stages of language learning behaviours, (Hoque 2017:pg 2)

2.2.2. Second language acquisition

As stated above By Hoque (2017), this is the systematic study of the way individuals learn language that is different from their mother tongue. It is the process by which other languages are learnt in addition to the already-established native language. When a child whose mother tongue is Igbo language, starts learning Norwegian or English when he/she starts going to school, the Norwegian or English in question is learned by the process of second language acquisition, young children mostly learn a second language faster than adults learn the same language. According to the above source, acquisition involves unconscious process, does not involve presuppose teaching, and the child controls the pace.

2.2.3. Second language learning

Language learning means the formal learning process of a language in the classroom whereas language acquisition means acquiring the other language with little or no formal learning or training (Hogue, 2017). The process is intentional, involves presuppose teaching, and the teacher controls the pace. For instance, if someone visits a foreign land where the spoken language is dissimilar from his/her native language, the person needs to acquire that foreign language. This can be achieved through little formal learning of the language via the persons everyday interaction with the native or fluent speakers of the foreign language in the market, workplace, or anywhere else. However, second language learning means everything that learners see and hear within the second language environment as Bhela (1999) stated.

Hall & Cook (2012), stated that language learners will develop an inter-language when learning a second language. This inter-language is dependent on what they already know from their first

language. However, this inter-language has its own features though not a short form of the second language. Second language learners use the language differently, have a recognition of the language itself and process different knowledge and a more significant awareness of their first language.

2.3. Cognitive factors of second language acquisition

2.3.1. Intelligence

Formally, there is clear confirmation that second language students who are above average tend to perform well in second language learning. In addition to traditional established sense of intelligence measured and defined in terms of linguistic and mathematical abilities (IQ), Gardner (1983) narrated five more different forms of knowing as spatial intelligence (to locate your way around the environment), musical intelligence (to create and perceive pitch and rhythmic patterns), bodily-kinetic intelligence (athletic skills), interpersonal intelligence (someone's ability to develop a sense of self-identity and nationalistic. Focusing on Gardner's broad definition of intelligence, one can easily ascertain the relationship between second language learning and intelligence; for example, musical intelligence could spell out the relative ease some learners have in producing the language information pattern, while interpersonal intelligence is of evident importance in the communication process (Hogue, 2017)

2.3.2. Language aptitude

Hoque (2019) questioned, is there a gift for language learning that is different from general intelligence? A few subskills, such as grammatical sensitivity, phonetic coding, memory and inductive language abilities are believed to be predicators of second language learning success.

2.3.3. Learning strategies in second language acquisition

These strategies are a set of tactics individuals employ in order to gain control over their own learning process. These days, enhancing strategies in foreign or second language classroom is one of the roles of teachers because their mission is to facilitate their students learning and make the student thinking process visible (Jenny X. Montaño-González, 2017). Nowadays, according to Oxford (2003), it is widely accepted that learning strategies have become one of the main factors that assist students to gain a foreign language successfully.

Learning strategies belong to the five psycholinguistic processes that shape inter language system as indicated by Selinker, (1972), and these five psycholinguistic processes are native language transfer, overgeneralization of target language rules, transfer of training, strategies of communication and strategies of learning. Second language (L2) learners employ these strategies as tactics to make the new cognitively demanding linguistic system easier, according to the source above.

2.3.4. Definition of language strategies

Learning strategies in conformity with Ortega, (2014) could be defined as a conscious behavioural and mental procedures that people engage in for the purpose of gaining control over their learning process. Brown (2007) defined strategies as, attacks, employed by individuals in a particular situation but the application differs between individuals. Moreso, Chamot (2004) broadly defined strategies as procedures that ease a learning task most often, they are conscious, and goal driven (page 112).

Reacting to the above definition of learning strategies, Szyszka, (2017) argued that it is still not clear whether the learning strategies in second language acquisition are consciously or unconsciously applied although the definitions are interconnected to actions, attacks, behaviours, tactics, and procedures, that there is no information whether second language learners deliberately employ these strategies.

However Oxford (2013) professed that self-regulated second language learning strategies are deliberate goal-directed attempts to control and manage efforts to learn the second language. These strategies are teachable and broad actions that learners choose from and employed among other alternatives for the purpose of learning second language. Corresponding, Griffiths, (2009) perceived learning strategies as activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of modulating their own language learning (page 87). Some individuals learn their second language successfully notwithstanding the applied methodology by the teachers. This means that some language learners develop or initiate their own learning strategies and apply them for learning second language effectively, but other learners need more assistance. Thus, educators are recommended to select appropriate learning models and approaches that better restorate the application of language learning strategies among their students (Brown, 2007).

2.4. Affective/emotional domain of second language acquisition

Affect here refers to feelings or emotion. The emotional attribute of human behaviour in the process of learning second language are the affection factors. The development of emotion or feelings requires a diversity of personality factors, and that relates to the way we feel about ourselves and about others with whom we have contact with (Hogue, 2017). Understanding the way human beings feel, behave, respond and value is an important feature of second language acquisition theory. The affective features of second language acquisition would be discussed as follows:

Anxiety: This affective factor is associated with feelings of frustration, uneasiness, apprehension, self-doubt or worry and that feelings can be experienced at various levels. At the global level or deepest level, trait anxiety is a more permanent season to be anxious. Many people are generally and predictably anxious about many things. At situational or a more momentary level, the experience of state anxiety is related to some act or event. Unfamiliar language anxiety focuses more particularly on the situational nature of the state anxiety. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), three components of unfamiliar or foreign language anxiety have been identified:

- 1. Communication comprehension emanating from learners' inability to thoroughly express mature, thought and ideas.
- 2. Fear of negative social evaluation, emanating from learner's desire to positively impress others socially.
- 3. Test anxiety, or comprehension over academic evaluation.

However, another very important perception to be applied to the understanding of anxiety lies in the difference between facilitative and debilitative anxiety (Scovel, 1978). Though, one may view anxiety as a negative factor that needs to be avoided at all costs (for instance test anxiety). But the idea of facilitative anxiety that is having concern over a task to be accomplished could be a positive factor. But experiencing too much or too little anxiety might hinder the process of learning second language successfully (Hogue, 2017).

Empathy: The projection of one's own personality into the personality of others in other to have a better understanding of them could usually be described as empathy and one of the primary means of empathizing is language. One needs to understand the affective and cognitive state of others in

other to communicate effectively., for instance, in a situation of learning second language, learner-speaker must not only identify correctly cognitive and affective sets in the hearer, but they must do so in a language they are not secured with (Hogue, 2017).

Motivation: The inner motion, drive, impulse, or desire that moves a person to a particular action could commonly be thought of as motivation. Therefore, there is need for a proper motivation for a learner to be successful in second language learning. Instrumental motivation comes in when a person learns a second language for some functional reasons such as to pass on examination, to read technical materials, to get a target job or to do translation. In integrative motivation, learners portray more interest in the people and culture of the target language group. In fact, learners desire to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group and thus, become a part of that society. However, some individual's learners might be influenced by a Machiavellian motivation, which is the desire to the second language in other to oppress, manipulate, or overcome the people of the target language.

Resultative motivation comes as a result of learning, that means that learners that experience a huge success in learning might be more motivating to learn or less motivated in some context as the case maybe. Motivation may be intrinsic when it involves the arousal and maintenance of curiosity and can move and flow because of such factors as learners' main interests and the extent of their personal feeling involved in learning activities. Intrinsic motivations or behaviours are aimed at bringing about internally rewarding results such as feelings of competence and self-determination. Whereas extrinsic motivations or behaviours are practised in expectation of a reward beyond the self and from outside. A typical example of extrinsic rewards are grades, money, prizes and certain types of positive feedback. These five types of motivation should not be seen as oppositional or district but rather be seen as complementary because most situations require the combination of each type of motivation. (A. L. Brown, 1990).

2.5. Definition of bilingualism

According to Hoffmann (2014), bilingualism emanates as a result of contact; whether it spreads or escalates all over the community and is maintained depends on whether the reasons or conditions for its evolution are correct. These conditions are determined by individual and group attitudes towards the involved two languages and bilingualism. It is quite clear that several definitions of bilingualism have been proposed as the topic of bilingualism has widely been covered in several

research literature, which has expanded bilingualism into various sub-topics such as cognitive development in bilingualism, culture and identity in bilingualism. In accordance with Webster's dictionary (1961), the prefix 'bi' from Latin word, means 'having two' and the Latin word 'lingua signifies' tongue or language. Literally, bilingual means having two tongues or what is called 'language tongues because individuals cannot have two physical tongues. Therefore, bilingual describes a person or society that speaks two languages. It is established that bilingualism is about knowing two languages but, the concept of bilingualism is more complicated as most literature refers to it as including multilingualism (Ling, 2018).

According to Baecher, (1994), and (Butler, 2012; Hamers & Blanc, 2000; Riley, 2003; Hoffmann, 1991), it is important to distinguish between individual bilingualism and societal bilingualism as they can be fundamentally different, because a country might refer itself as bilingual or multilingual but, the citizens do not see themselves as one.

Baker (2001) calls the individual possession of bilingualism as ''individual bilingualism'' and calls the group possession of bilingualism as societal bilingualism, this societal bilingualism could refer to community, social group, country, or region. Hamers and Blank (2000) suggested that societal bilingualism means bilingualism in general which is directed to the linguistic community that speak or use two languages for interaction.

The second observation established in literature on bilingualism definition according to Riley (2003) is that bilingualism consist of a range or scale or even spectrum (which reflects the multidimensional qualities of bilingualism) or need to be defined in terms of degrees.

In literature, a bilingual has been defined thus: Someone who possesses native-like control of two languages (Bloomfield 1933 page 56), A person with complete mastery of two various languages without interference between the two linguistic process (Oestricher, 1974 page 9), Someone who knows two languages with roughly the same degree of perfection as unilingual speakers of the languages (Christopherson 1948 page 4), Those people who need or use two or more languages in their daily lives (Grosjean, 2010), A person who possesses more than language competence (Valdes and Figueroa, 1994 page 8), An individual who is involved in the practice of alternatively applying two languages (Weinreich 1968), A person who implements the alternate use of two or more languages (Mackey, 1970), Someone who can speak a second language while following the

structures and concepts of that language instead of paraphrasing his or her mother tongue (Hamers and Blanc, 2000 page 6-7), An individual who might have all degree of accomplishment but as a speaker of one language, can generate complete meaningful statements in the other language. (Hangen, 1953), Someone with the ability to listen, speak, read or write in more than one language with different degrees of proficiency (Brice and Brice, 2009), Anyone who has a minimal competence in only one out of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing in a language beside his mother tongue (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). A person who can communicate either oral or written, communicate and interact with others in the society using two or more linguistic codes (Butler and Hakuta 2004: 115). In a general sense, bilingualism refers to knowing more than one language, and maintaining the balance in bilingualism is a difficult task to achieve

According to Ling (2018), one criticism for the above definitions as that there is no finite measurement of what native-like or have language competence stands for or what constitutes minimal competence. Ling argued that the ranging of the above definitions is that they are geared towards a single dimension of bilingualism viz, the level of proficiency in both languages thereby ignoring non-linguistic dimensions (Hamers and Blanc, 2000). Hamers and Blanc further argue that bilingualism is multidimensional, yet most definitions are one-dimensional even the definitions that focus on the social-communicative dimension of bilingualism. Skutnabb-Kangas & Mohanty, (1995) addresses bilingual persons or communities as those with the power to meet the communicative dimensions of self and the society in their normal functioning either in two or more languages of their interaction with other speakers of any or all those languages.

Someone who is capable to function in two (or more) languages either in bilingual or monolingual community or environment according to the societal demands of the individuals communicative and cognitive competence by the involved communities or by the individual himself, at the same level as native speakers, and who can positively identify with both or all the language groups or parts of them is a bilingual speaker (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1994).

However, from the above definition, Skutnabb-Kangas (1994) believes that to define the concept of bilingualism, one should think about factors like: the origins of the two which stipulates the places an individual has learnt and used the two languages ab initio, competence, level of

proficiency, function (being capable of using the two languages as the community demands), attitudes of self and others to bilingualism.

Various families have various reasons for encouraging or choosing to raise their children with two or more languages. Notwithstanding, bilingualism has different meaning for several families; for some, the ability to listen in two languages but only speak in one might constitute bilingualism whereas other parents expect their children to be literate in both languages and never only to be bilingual. Whatever may be the family aim for developing bilingualism, there is absolute need to work out a language plan and families who make out time to consider how their children will develop more than one language and make adequate commitment to bilingual language development of their kids, tend to be more successful in raising bilingual kids (Rosenberg, 1996).

Bilingualism can be referred to as immersion where a child is required to a school or class where the language of instruction is totally different from the child's first language or the language they use at home. This situation takes place when children from different or some cultural and linguistic background who had no knowledge of the second language are required to be together in a school or classroom setting where the second language is the only language used as medium of instruction whereas submersion bilingualism on the other hand can be seen as the sink or swim method of learning second language where children who acquired the language naturally are put together with children who are learning the same language in the same learning environment. In this situation, the children are required to make a home-school language switch whereas other children can function in the school language. Therefore, Reyes & Azuara, (2008) viewed bilingualism as a continuum in which the language ability could be influenced by social, educational and several other factors.

According to Bialystok (2001), it is not possible to be and completely remain monolingual because there would always be intrusions from other languages. Children sometimes become bilingual because each of their parents choose to communicate in one's own language within the home environment and some situation the language of the community varies from a child's home language, which forces the child to speak two languages in other to associate and communicate both in the community and at home.

From the above information and definition of bilingualism, it is apparent that there is an extensive scope of what bilingualism represents and how it is defined. It has always been laborious to reach one concrete definition of a bilingual individual because researchers view bilingualism as multifaceted. However, for the sake of this thesis, the definition presented by Butler & Hakuta (2004), a person who is able to communicate either orally or written, communicate and interact with others in the society using two or more linguistic codes, is more apposite to the idea behind this project because the participant families in this study came from a different social and cultural background and have moved to Norway where their children do not have the same language fluency both oral and written but are still able to associate and communicate both in their mother tongue and Norwegian.

The psychological state of a person with access to or the ability to use more than one linguistic code as a means of social Communication could be referred to as bilingualism. This degree of access varies along different dimensions such as psychological, psycholinguistic, cognitive, sociological, socio-psychological, sociolinguistic, linguistic, and sociocultural (Ellis, 2008). According to the writer, the above definition avoids most of the pitfalls associated with the general definition of bilingualism, which is entangled with questions of proficiency, productive and receptive bilingualism, ownership, and various levels of literacy and oracy said Ellis (2008). To have access could mean any or all of speaking, understanding, reading, writing, and signing. Linguistic code might comprise a language, social dialect, regional, variety, and divergent styles, whereas social Communication accentuates use within a social context. According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, a monolingual is a person or community with active knowledge of only one language, perhaps a passive knowledge of other languages (Schmidt, 2002).

Considering the above definition of bilingualism, monolingual or monoglot stands for an individual community that does not have access to more than one linguistic code as means of social Communication. Using the above as a working definition implies that one must see monoglot's language proficiency also as located or established on a spectrum ranging from the skills of a person who can say 'gud morgen' or 'Buongiorno' or 'good morning' in their second language, to those of person who has studied other language but unable to communicate effectively (Ellis, 2008). It is also important to note that monolingual's limited range of Communication could vary like those of bilinguals according to a few dimensions such as the age

of acquisition, frequency of use, manner of acquisition, emotional attachment/affiliation, domains of use and patterns of medium selection (Torras & Gafaranga, 2002)

2.6. The remit of the bilingualism

The examination of bilingualism involves considering several factors that subscribe to its development, maintenance, and loss, and at different ways through which individuals or communities respond or react to the linguistic challenges they encounter (Hoffmann 2014). Hoffmann further explained that multilingualism and bilingualism are not static conditions.

However, in several immigrant groups, the transition or shift from the old home language to the language of the host country occurs over three generations; but sometimes, the process is more rapid, leaving only the immigrant generations as bilingual. At other times, the shift does not occur at all or takes much longer which leads to well-established bilingualism over numerous years. Learning to live in a new environment and accommodate to its new language and culture is a dynamic process and individuals go through phases in their daily communicative repertoire (Hoffmann, 2014).

A wide scope of social sciences contributes towards the understanding of bilingualism: ethnology, sociology, education, anthropology, psychology and major branches of linguistics and pragmatics. Each of the above-mentioned disciplines comes with its own methods and terminologies, thus studies in bilingualism reflects the academic background of the researcher. Education plays a very crucial role in the personal and social development of a bilingual individual and for the favourable outcome of societal multilingualism.

Hoffmann (2014) attested that without the educational system taking charge of minority children's special language needs in both languages, the children will not become fully functional in both the minority and the majority codes. Universally, this stipulates that a minority language that gets into the school curriculum will benefit enhanced prestige, and this could positively affect the attitude of the public towards the concerned language and its speakers. The question of how best to educate minority children has become an urgent issue in several countries with large scale immigration and research in bilingual education has come as a respond to such pressing situation.

2.7. Dimensions, types, and cognitive advantages of bilingualism

Various linguists created a list of dimensions of bilingualism in order to address the criticism associated with the definitions of bilingualism due to its broad and wide spectrum, thus, there would rightly be several types of bilinguals under different dimensions of bilingualism, the corresponding terms and types of bilingualism or bilinguals under the respective dimensions (Ling, 2018).

2.7.1. Dimensions and types of bilinguals and bilingualism

DIMENSION	TYPES OF
	BILINGUALISM/BILINGUALS
a. Age of acquisition (Butler, 2013)	Early bilinguals, infant bilingual, late
	bilingual, child bilingual, adult bilingual,
	adolescent's bilingual, sequential
	bilingualism, simultaneous bilingualism,
	consecutive child had bilinguality
	(Butler,2013).
b. Order and consequence of	Incipient bilingualism, Ascendant
acquisition	bilingualism, Recessive bilingualism,
	additive bilingual, substrative bilingual
	(Baker 2001)
c. Context of acquisition	Natural bilingual, ascribed bilingualism:
	primary bilingual, secondary bilingual,
	achieved bilingualism, school bilingualism,
	cultural bilingualism.
d. Cognitive organisation	Coordinative bilingualism, subordinative
	bilingualism, compound bilingualism
	(Harding. Esch and Riley 2003).
e. Functional ability (Butler, 2013)	Receptive bilingualism functional bilingual,
	Passive bilingual, productive bilingual
	(Butler, 2013).

f.	(Relative) and competence	Perfect bilingualism, balanced bilingual,
		true bilingual, dominant bilingual (Butler,
		2013).
g.	Cultural identity (Harmers and	Bicultural bilingual, acculturated bilingual,
	Blanc, 2000)	monocultural bilingual, deculturated
		bilingual (Harmers and Blanc 2000).
h.	Exogeneity (Harmers and Blanc,	Endogenous bilingualism, exogeneous
	2000)	bilinguality (Harmers and Blanc, 2000).
i.	Social cultural status of the	Elite bilingual circumstantial bilingual, folk
	language (Harmers and Blanc 2000)	bilingual, elective bilingual (Baker 2001,
		Butler 2013).

Table 2: Dimensions and types of bilinguals and bilingualism. Ling (2018: pg 17)

To exercise a better understanding of bilingualism, one should consider the dimensions of bilingualism. According to Harmers and Blank (2000, 6-7), non-linguistic dimensions and proficiency in the two languages should also be considered when talking about dimensions of bilingualism. Baker (2011) also believed that bilingualism could be analyzed into various dimensions, such as productive and respective bilingual ability, the domain of the acquired languages, the balance between the two languages, and the child's age when learning the languages. He also believes that dimensions such as being multicultural or bicultural and the context in which bilinguals live are also critical. Thus, it is uneasy to distinguish who is and who is not bilingual. It is necessary to consider the dimensions such as pressure to become bilingual, preconditions for bilingualism, ways in which a person become bilingual, and repercussion for not becoming bilingual when classifying bilingualism.

Another dimension of bilingualism according Cummins (2001) is that it has a positive influence on children's linguistic and educational development with more understanding and control over the duo languages when they learn them in primary school

From the dimensions of bilingualism mentioned above, it is very clear that one should consider several factors when talking about bilingualism, such as linguistic and non-linguistic factors, receptive and productive language skills, social and cultural settings, age of acquisition.

Additionally, factors such as linguistic background and family are worth nothing among other

various factors that affect bilingualism. This present project/study has focus on family background, attitudes of family to bilingualism and the effort families put into language learning of their children.

2.7.2. Cognitive advantages of bilingualism

There have been several controversies about whether multiple languages have a positive or negative effect on the mind; however, today's researchers have proven that bilingualism has shown more advantages than monolingualism. The ability to speak more than one language is like any other skill, but researchers have found several valuable benefits to being able to speak multiple languages. Multiple language learning nourishes the brain and assists in cognitive and social-emotional development and the opportunities of learning successfully. It is believed that the constant demand to switch between languages leads to various cognitive advantages (Abbas 2016).

According to Abbas (2016), research has established that children who experience dual languages at an early childhood stage usually become native of both. Similarly, both bilingual children and adults possess the ability to employ a renewed executive functioning of the brain which helps them to switch between tasks, shift attention and discover solutions for problems. They have also been identified to possess increased metalinguistic skills which divulge their abilities to think about how languages work (Abbas, 2016) and portray a better performance on tasks that require a high level of control but never perform well on tasks which demand a high level of analysis of representational structure (Bialystok 2001). She also believed that bilinguals could shift skills between the first and second language. According to Hoff, (2003), bilingualism perform better in literacy and narrative abstract element and possess more linguistic memory in their minds. Considering the factors mentioned, it would be necessary to understand that the contest in which the two languages were learnt will posse effect on the degree of learning and acquisition in both the first and second language (Hoff, 2003). From the experiment conducted by Oller and Cobo-Lewis (2002) on bilingual and monolingual children regarding phonological translation, the results showed that bilingual children possess the ability and awareness to discover the relationship between syllabic and phonemic form in both in first and second language. Based on the views concerning the cognition of bilinguals, it can be deduced that bilingual children possess

cognitive advantages over their monolingual counterpart which would help them in discharging different tasks better.

Parents play a crucial role in assisting their children to learn two languages and develop their abilities to master both. Developing two languages requires reinforcement, effort, and family members (Tabors, 2008). The above statement contradicts the myths which affirm that growing up with multiple languages can confuse children and cause speech delays (Soto, 2016). According to Lowry (2016), children can gain a second language via two types of acquisition.

Simultaneous acquisition occurs when the child learns to be bilingual before or at three. As such, children who learn two languages simultaneously follow similar developmental stages in the same way they learn one language. The second type of acquisition is the sequential acquisition, which occurs when a second language is learned after establishing the first language, usually after the age of three. Whether the second language acquisition was simultaneous or sequential, there is a relationship of connection between bilingualism, intelligence, and cognition, despite that it was thought that bilingualism is not related to proficiency in all the relative languages.

According to Kamenetz (2016), individuals who speak two languages always have the ability to outperform monolinguals in general measures of public functions. They can be distracted and yet show the ability to shift from one task to another.

Centeno (2016) outlined four types of benefits for bilingualism, they are as follows:

Emotional benefits: Emotional benefits that could be acquired from being bilingual include Communication with an extended family; this implies that a bilingual child can easily communicate with other children from different nationalities. Children who can interact across cultural boundaries usually enjoy being close to families from other cultures. It is healthier for parents to express their emotions and feelings to their children in their first language, which could bring unique Communication that is full of comfort and intimacy.

Practical benefits: The second other benefits of bilingualism, according to Centeno, is the **practical benefit.** This type of benefit is considered the first reason parents aspire to raise bilingual children. These benefits are reflected in different aspects. Traveling is one of the attractive, practical benefits of bilingualism. It is interesting to note that traveling plays an instrumental role in providing different means to add and change open minds towards new views

and ways. Bilingualism helps to provide job opportunities. All over the world, the demand for multilingual professionals is increasing steadily. For instance, in the Middle East, there is an increasing demand for English and French teachers to teach their children at an early stage. Having the ability to speak two or more languages opens the way to obtain any information involved. Bilinguals have the chance to obtain information from various sources.

Educational benefits: The third benefit is the educational benefit. The educational benefit of bilingualism is mainly cognitive benefits, which have been addressed earlier. It is also pertinent to know that bilingual children develop more vital skills in their primary and secondary languages.

Cultural benefits: The fourth other benefits of speaking more than one language is cultural benefits. It has been identified that deep knowledge of other cultures helps in knowing the language of that culture. Bilingual children are better tutored to engage in other cultures than monolingual children. Since bilingual children have two or more languages, they are more likely to show immense interest in the culture that speaks their second language.

In addition, Guo and Shushi (2022: 655) investigated the fundamental mechanisms behind the associated cognitive benefits of being bilingual, and the evidence of brain's constitutional changes in bilingual individuals. To carry out this literature review study, Guo and Shushi reviewed the study carried out by several researchers, including J. Santillan, & A. Khurana, (2018), M.D. Hilchey, & R.M. Klein, (2011), Filippi et al, (2015), Garcia et al, (2018), E.N. Deubert, & G.B.Ramani, (2019), Melby-Lervag et al, (2016), Carmit et al, (2018), M. H. Keshavarz, & H. Astaneh, (2004). Regarding the executive functions, M. H. Keshavarz, & H. Astaneh, investigated a study that suggested that bilinguals were linked with faster inhibitory control through their comparison of three groups with distinct language experiences. In addition, Hilchey and Klein found out that bilinguals possess better inhibitory control both on compatible and incompatible tests. Filippi et al, examined that bilinguals are more possibly to disregard distractors to comprehend complex sentences than monolinguals; Garcia et al, explored that bilingual possessed increased working memory which positively affected the children's mathematical development. Deubert & Ramani further maintained that being bilingual made children with disruptive behaviour disorder to display lesser working memory problems. Additionally, Mehrani & Zabihi concluded that young bilingual children portrayed higher scores on shifting tasks than their monolingual counterparts.

According to the Guo & Shushi, executive functions include working memory, task shifting and inhibitory control. With the assistance of bilingualism, children portray improvement in their working memory. Deubert & Ramani suggested that increased working memory of young bilinguals could be a motivator for mathematical development. Through their research, they compared 74 bi and monolinguals to complete both non-verbal working memory and mathematical tests involving addition, non-symbolic magnitude comparison tasks, and numerical identification; the outcome portrayed that bilingual performed better than monolinguals in both tests on working memory by controlling other factors like age and socioeconomic status. Bilingual children also showed higher scores on addition and numerical identification tests. Therefore, bilingual children might portray their distinctive benefits on mathematical learning and achievement. On spatial working memory tasks, bilingual children with disruptive behaviour disorders outperform their monolingual competitors. According to the research, they individually tested the children working memory through verbal and mathematical aspects using the Automated Working Memory Assessment and they discovered that bilingual children with disruptive behaviour disorders showed fewer working memory problems than monolingual children.

Regarding shifting tasks, Mehrani & Zabihi did a comparison between 36 Persian-Turkey young bilinguals and 31 Persian monolinguals using dimensional change card sort (DCCS), a test for calculating shifting ability, where children were asked to sort cards with two colour dimensions and shape. The results indicated that bilingual children made higher scores than monolinguals on shifting tasks. Bilingual children also indicated fewer switching costs than monolingual children by doing task-switching model. They also discussed that long-lasting bilingualism might importantly impact individual's shifting abilities.

For inhibitory control, Santillan & Khurana claimed that immersing in bilingual territory and being bilingual are remarkably aligned with faster inhibitory control development. The compared three groups of individuals from different language backgrounds, Spanish-bilingual children, monolingual English children, and transitioned children from Spanish monolingual to Spanish-English bilingual; using a pencil-tap task as a measure from Preschool Self-Regulation Assessment of inhibitory control, where the tester and the children had a pencil. Here, children were meant to tap their pencil once when the tester taps twice, or the tester taps once when the

children tap twice. The task allows children to recall the task's rules in mind, and the results from this task showed that Spanish-English bilingual children performed better than the two other groups. Hilchey and Klein suggested that young bilingual children possess better inhibitory control; by involving in both compatible and incompatible trials such as Spatial troop and Simon tasks, bilingual kids are more possibly to subdue unrelated information than monolinguals. However, Filippi et al, tested if young bilingual and monolingual kids in the classroom can comprehend passive and active sentences in English, to ascertain the target sentence with verbal interference, they were instructed to pay attention to the target sentence and neglect distractor sentences. On this task, bilingual children outperform monolingual children because bilinguals are more specific in capturing complex sentences in the presence of linguistic interference.

The second aspect of cognitive benefits associated with bilingual children is about language skills, Guo and Shushi reviewed how language abilities are changed as a result of second language acquisition. Cognitive benefits of bilingualism can also be reflected in children's increased language abilities, apart from its improvement in their executive function skills. According to the above source, a huge number of studies have revealed that bilingual children are more easily able to acquire a third language than their monolingual counterparts due to their enhanced metalinguistic awareness; they have the capacity to reflect on language as an object and closely tied to other features of language development, such as children's sentence comprehension and their knowledge of words and concepts. After reviewing the works of Cummins (1978), Bialystok (2001), Altman et al, (2018) and Cenoz (2013), Cummins measured the metalinguistic awareness between grade 3 and 6 bilingual children, and the monolingual control group plying language objectivity test, and the results indicated that in both grade groups, bilingual children portrayed a higher knowledge of the arbitrary connection between a word's meaning and form. Bialystok also concluded that bilingualism was linked with a higher potential to reflect on the language and better performance on tasks involving world awareness, after examining the metalinguistic development among bilingual and monolingual children. However, Cenoz suggested an additive effect of bilingualism on third language acquisition after investigating the bilingualism impact on English vocabulary achievement between Iranian EPL learners, where the bilingual group outperform the monolinguals, controlled for gender, age, and level of instruction, on a regulated productive ability vocabulary test.

Finally, on the fundamental mechanism behind the associated cognitive benefits of bilingualism, many studies identified numerous neuroplasticity and structural differences between bilingual and monolingual individuals. Active usage of two languages extraordinarily changed the daily experiences of bilingual kids, whose intellect develop more rapidly than other time of their life. According to the review studies, being bilingual overtime might rewire and change the brain neurologically and functionally. To ascertain the mechanism behind the associated cognitive benefits of bilingualism, Klein et al, compared the cortical thickness of sequential bilingual, simultaneous bilingual and monolingual participants. The MRI results indicated that sequential learning of two languages affected brain development; categorically, there was a positive connection between the age of acquiring the second language and the thickness of the left inferior frontal cortex which is crucial for generating and processing speech. Thus, the enlarged thickness of this area might explain bilingual's higher-level language learning ability compared to monolinguals.

2.8. Previous research on bilingualism

This part involves literature reviews of case studies of bilingual children. Shank (2008) researched the cognitive flexibility of bilingual children in preschool in the area of cognitive development of bilingual children. Simply put, Shank aims to discover whether bilingualism influences executive functions. The study featured preschool children regularly exposed to more than one language and children exposed to only one language on tasks that demand vocabulary, response inhibition, reasoning, flexible rule use, and visual working memory span.

The above study was targeted at finding out how the knowledge of two or more languages was related to cognitive development. It was presumed that bilingual children would show an advantage in cognitive flexibility over monolingual children. Children between the ages of three and a half to six years old were chosen to carry out the research. The outcome of the analysis showed that monolinguals and bilingual children show similar performance regarding age, vocabulary, and intelligence, with different performances between boys and girls. The results showed that bilingual children have no advantage over monolingual children regarding flexibility. Besides, there were no differences between the language groups concerning visual working memory plan or response inhibition. Parents also encouraged and supported bilingualism and

raising bilingual children in Turkey by sending their children to English school at kindergarten, which eventually improved the children's success in language learning (Tavil, 2009).

A two-year longitudinal case study was carried out with Norwegian English bilingual families with a focus on children's language development (Charbonneau (2008)., According to Charbonneau (2008), the study indicated that parental language in relation to other factors like language motivation, context, and exposure to the language's strategy were the key factors in developing children's language skills, according to Charbonneau (2008) who carried out a longitudinal simultaneous case study on the language development of Norwegian-English bilingual children. The study focused on four bilingual Norwegian-English families to discover the attitude of the families toward bilingualism and biliteracy and the factors that affect their actions and the strategies they employ. The researcher also aimed to describe some features like emergent writing and code-switching in children. Therefore, a qualitative approach was chosen for data collection to carry out the research.

Furthermore, a questionnaire was created to find the appropriate families for the study. Aside from the qualitative techniques, an interview and an observation were also selected to corroborate the continuation of the language strategy, family interaction, language exposure, parents' information, and motivation about their children's language and literacy development. The result of the study indicated that all the involved families applied different approaches to bilingualism development because they had different goals to achieve. Moreover, each of the families makes use of different language strategies in their homes. However, their choice of strategy did not influence language exposure, motivation, and language context for using the language. Regarding motivation and willingness to speak the language, which was considered essential for families, every family espoused a specific strategy that best suited their goals to achieve bilingualism development.

Lauchlan et al. (2013) studied bilingualism in Scotland and Sardinia, and they intended to explore the cognitive importance of speaking a minority language. The research included one hundred and twenty-one monolingual and bilingual children who undertook a series of standardized cognitive ability tests. The involved bilingual children were younger than the monolingual ones.

Nevertheless, there was a significant difference between the ages of the participants. The test appeared in four areas: problem-solving ability, cognitive control, working memory, and

metalinguistic awareness. The results indicated that bilingual children performed better than monolingual children in the four cognitive ability tests. The results also highlighted the cognitive advantages of bilingualism and confirmed previous research that has profiled the potential cognitive benefits of speaking more than one language.

In 2013, Janssen et al. (2013) carried out a study to explore whether raised children who bilingually receive literacy instruction only in their second language in Nederland portray an advantage in Dutch phoneme-awareness exercises compared with monolingual Dutch-speaking children. This Dutch study centered on phoneme awareness, vocabulary, and word decoding in bilingual and monolingual children. All the participants in the study were selected from low-income and language-minority families. Forty-seven immigrant children from different cultural backgrounds in the first grade were selected. The participants were tested in three areas of vocabulary, Dutch phoneme awareness and decoding. The study's outcome showed that bilingual children did not perform better than monolingual children in phoneme awareness. Besides, Turkish-Dutch children got a higher Dutch score than Turkish in the vocabulary task. In general, the researchers deduced that the participants did not gain or suffer from knowing two languages in relation to phoneme awareness. However, for the vocabulary, they argued that the Dutch vocabulary of the Turkish-Dutch children was below par compared to the native Dutch speakers, and they displayed better proficiency in their adopted language than in their Dutch native language (Jansen et al., 2013).

In similar research on bilingual children's language development, Arnberg (1981) researched the language development of four two-year-old Swedish-English bilingual children who had lived in Sweden for one year. The involved mothers in the study were native English speakers, while the fathers were Swedish native speakers. A qualitative approach was employed, including audio recordings of the children's language use. The study aimed to discover the degree of interference in structure, phonetics, semantics, and lexicon, the languages used at home, and the learning environment. The research results indicated that the children under investigation exhibited lower language development in English and standard language development in Swedish, with some level of interference from English, mainly in pronunciation and vocabulary.

Following the study of MacLeod et al. (2013) on simultaneous bilingual language acquisition, their study focused on the role or parental input on receptive vocabulary development. The main

target of the study was to realize the influence of exposure on the receptive vocabulary development of simultaneous bilingual children. Eleven simultaneous children who learned English and German simultaneously were selected to execute the research. A questionnaire, parent interview, and a vocabulary test were employed to measure the study. The results of the research showed that there was homogeneity across the children regarding exposure to the majority and minority languages. Besides, there was more substantial receptive vocabulary skill for the children in French than the German. The significant finding was that every child performed within normal limits in German and French regarding receptive vocabulary. Hence there was no proof that bilingual children had a slower development step. Nonetheless, the results showed a slower German language development even though the children were exposed to German in their early stage of language development.

Feng et al. (2014) studied family learning environments and literacy. A comparison was made between bilingual and monolingual children to achieve that. The study investigated the variations among family learning environments, such as the availability of books and family learning activities, including reading books, telling stories, and singing songs of monolingual and bilingual children from nine months to kindergarten. The research tool employed was birth cohorts, devised for early childhood longitudinal studies and early reading assessment. The participants involved both bilingual and monolingual families. The data analysis indicated that bilingual children had a limited number of books available to them compared to monolingual children from the ages of two to kindergarten. Also, bilingual children did not read as many books as monolingual children. Besides, the differences between groups never changed over time, although their level of literacy both increased over time. Therefore, they suggested book reading activities be taken seriously because it would establish the amount of emergent literacy and language despite having control over the parental income, education, and socioeconomic status.

2.9. Definitions of aptitude

The most basic structural question about attitudes has to do with the nature of the concept itself. Despite the huge records of research on attitude, there is yet no universally agreed definition for attitude, but various influential theories primarily define attitude in terms of evaluation.

Generally, a set of views or beliefs about someone or something and is explained in consumer psychology as an enduring tendency or inclination to give response in a specific way to a brand or

a product. It could be a positive, negative or muted evaluation of an object demonstrated at some level of intensity. Expression of a favorable or unfavorable assessment of a person, event, place or thing. These made up the fundamental determining factors every aspect of our social environment. Attitudes require a complex organization of evaluative beliefs, tendencies and feelings towards certain actions. Our actions and behaviours towards something are determined by how much we like or dislike the object. According to American Psychologist, Gordon Allport, "Attitude is a neural and mental state of readiness assembled through experience, exerting a dynamic or direct influence upon the way the individual respond to every object and situation with which is related.

Frank Freeman defined attitude as a dispositional readiness to acknowledge or respond to certain persons, institutions or objects in a consistent manner than has been learned and has become a person's typical mode of response. N.L. Munn views attitude as learned predisposition regarding aspects of our environment which may be positively or negatively directed towards people, institutions or service.

The three features that seemed crystal clear among the analysed definitions portrayed that attitude are:

- i. A mental state, either conscious or unconscious
- ii. A value, feeling or belief.
- iii. A predisposition to actions or behaviour (Tanya, 2008)

According to Bohner & Dickel, (2011), they viewed attitude as evaluation of an object of though. For that reason, attitude means anything which someone can have in his/her own mind like ideas and thoughts. They believed that attitudes could be identified in a continuum of memory-based summary evaluations which are easily retrieved to evaluative judgment that are established from currently accessible information. Moreover, Vaughan and Hogg (2005) described attitude as a relatively enduring organization of feelings, behavioural tendencies and beliefs towards socially outstanding objects, events, groups or symbols or a general feeling od evaluation (positive or negative) concerning some objects, persons or issues. Nevertheless, Schwarz & Bohner, (2007) believed that attitudes are established by researchers in order to give explanation of phenomena under study. In addition, attitudes are not observable directly but are rather inferred by behaviours

or self-report. Besides, it is also important to note that measurement of attitude is context dependent, and this is not as easy as it appears.

Talking about language attitudes, there are two available approaches to the definition of language attitude as highlighted by Cooper and Fishman (1974). The first approach comprises of defining the idea in terms of its referent, hence stressing the independency of the idea as a phenomenon in its right. Language attitude in this approach are attitudes towards language, language behaviour, language varieties and language variants.

The second approach defines language attitudes in terms of their consequences or effects. In other words, those attitudes which influence behaviour towards language. Another language attitude definition by Chambers (1999) focused on the context of language learning and factors such as educational, social and cultural cited in (Bartram, 2010). Generally, language attitudes are those related to language but research view language attitudes differently. According to Richards et al (1992), language attitude is that attitude which the speakers of different language have towards one another's language or towards their own language. Individual expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language might reflect impressions of linguistic simplicity or difficulty, ease or difficulty of learning, elegance, degree of importance and social status.

From the definition presented in this section, the one presented by Vaughan and Hogg (2005) is more suited to the main purpose of this research particularly, the feelings, behaviour and beliefs that parents nurture towards objects, events or groups will influence their attitude in either positive or negative way. Therefore, difficulty in learning or social status are factors that can influence the attitude a person can hold towards language.

2.9.1. Characteristics of attitude

- Attitude exists in every individual's mind. It assists to define individual's identity, guide person's actions and influence how the person judge others.
- Attitudes are the complex amalgamation of things we refer as beliefs, personality, behaviour, motivation and values.
- Attitude are held by all persons irrespective of their status or intelligence.
- Attitude can manifest anywhere along a continuum from very favourable to very unfavourable.

- Through individuals resulting behaviour, one can observe the person's attitude despite that its feeling and belief components are internal to the person.
- Attitude supplies us with internal beliefs or cognition and thoughts about objects and people.
- It helps us to observe how we define how we observe situations and defines the way we behave towards the object or situation.
- Attitude can be implicit or explicit. Explicit attitude is those we are consciously aware of,
 while implicit means unconscious but they still affect or behaviours.
- Attitude instigate us to behave in a particular way towards a person or an object.
- Attitudes include certain aspect of personality, such as, appreciation, interest and social conduct.
- Attitude is a summary of someone's experience; thus, it is grounded in direct experience to predict future behaviour more accurately.
- Attitudes indicate the total of a man's feeling and inclination.
- Attitude refers to a person's preparedness for doing work.
- It is a point of view, true or false, substantiated or otherwise, which a person holds towards another person, object, or idea.
- Attitude has aspects such as intensity, generality, direction or specificity.
- Attitude might be positive or negative and might be affected by positions, age and education.

2.9.2. Components of attitude

It has been ascertained previously that attitude is a complex phenomenon and thus difficult to define. Therefore, researchers allotted various components to it which even made it more difficult to understand. Ladegaard, (2000) said that attitudes are made up of three parts, namely, knowledge, emotions, and behaviours; and each of these parts has contrasting features to extract expected attitude results. According to Leitner, (2001:183) attitudes are one notable component to acknowledge motives such as the goals and objectives of language groups in planning child's education and types of language behaviour of parents. He suggested that it is made up of three components of knowledge of language, desire to take action and emotion towards language knowledge in these aspects shows the thought of human being and knowledge in language use while emotion comprises of positive or negative feelings towards things.

In general, the three main component of attitude include: cognitive component, affective component and behavioural component. Cognitive component of attitude touches on the thoughts, beliefs and attributes that would be associated with an object. This is the opinion or belief section of attitude which mostly relates to the general knowledge of a person. Typically, these come to light in stereotypes or generalities such as: 'Smoking is dangerous to health', 'all babies are cute'.

Affective component of attitude is the feeling or emotional segment off attitude. It is related to the statement that affects other persons. This segment of attitude deals with emotions or feelings such as fear or hate that are brought to the surface about something. From the above example, a person might have the attitude that he/she hate smoking because it is dangerous to the health.

Behavioural component of attitude is made up of someone's tendency to behave in a certain way towards an object. It refers to the segment of attitude that reflects the intensions of human within a long or short term. From the instances given above, the behavioural attitude might be "I cannot wait to kiss the baby, or we need to keep smokers out of the library".

2.9.3. Factors affecting attitudes.

The factors influencing attitudes are feelings, beliefs and actions tendency of a person or group of persons towards idea, objects, and people. Oftentimes, individuals and objects or ideas become associated in the minds of persons and consequently, attitude become complex and multidimensional. Attitudes are made up of some knowledge of a solution but nevertheless, the essential aspect of attitude is established in the fact that some emotions or characteristics feeling is experienced and some definite tendency of action is associated as would be expected.

The factors influencing attitude include social factors, direct instruction, prejudices, family, personal experiences, religious and educational institutions, media, physical factors, occupations, and economic status.

Social factors: social norms and roles can have strong impact on attitudes. Social roles define the way individuals are expected to behave in a particular context of role while social norms curtail society for what conducts are considered appropriate.

Direct instructions: The general individuals tend of to confirm to people they consider important and that can influence the formation of attitude. For instance, one can develop either a positive or negative attitude about a particular fruit because somebody gave information about the usefulness of the fruit.

Family: This has proven to be the most powerful source of attitude formation. The parents and elder siblings provide information about several things. Positive or negative attitudes developed by a person are the results of family impact which is very powerful and tough to change.

Prejudices: Attitudes might involve a prejudice where individuals prejudge a scenario or an issue without according to unbiased consideration to all the available evidence. Prejudices are preconceived judgments or idea where a person develops some attitudes towards other persons or objects. One can also prejudiced in favour of something.

Personal experience: Attitudes would be formed more easily when personal experience involves emotional factors.

Media as a means of communication portrays major influence in shaping people's attitude because they put down the foundation of moral concepts within the individual. Religious and educational institutions have a strong impact in shaping people's attitude because they put down the foundation of moral concepts within the individuals.

Physical factors: Physical, health and vitality are strong factors that determine adjustment and frequently, it is noticed that disease or malnutrition or accidents have seriously interfered with normal development of a person that affect the attitude of such person. Occupation and economic status contribute greatly to attitude formation. People's socio-economic background influence their present and future attitudes. Attitude reflects more than ordinary positive or negative evaluations, attitudes consist of other features such as certainty, importance, accessibility, and associated knowledge.

In general, it is assumed that people behave in accordance with their attitudes. However, social psychologist has identified that attitudes and individual's actual behaviour do not always align perfectly.

2.9.4. Previous research on parental attitudes

This section is made up of literature reviews of case studies on parental attitudes to bilingualism which mostly centres on parental attitudes and motivation regarding language learning and bilingualism. Few similar studies to the present research include:

Research on parental attitudes towards English language education for kindergarten children in Turkey portrayed that parent shared a positive attitude towards bilingualism (Tavil, 2009). The data collection method used for this research was a questionnaire. The involved participants were forty-six parents who were selected randomly and classified according to their ages and occupation.

The outcome of the research indicated that positive parental attitude toward bilingualism enhanced children's motivation and success in learning a second language. The result showed that all the parents were knowledgeable of the usefulness of knowing another language for future career. It is also believed to enhance self-confidence and communication skills of their children.

Another researcher studied the attitude and behaviour of parents and children towards bilingualism in China. This study focused on Chinese parents and their children who were based in the United States of America. Particularly, the intention of this research was to see how families maintain both their mother's tongue (Chinese) and the English, which is the language of the society (Wu, 2005). For the purpose of this study, the researcher selected fifteen Chinese families on voluntary bases. The age range of the selected parents was between 30 and 40 years and all the parents had higher education. A qualitative approach for data collection was applied including observations and interviews. Two semi-structured interviews were carried out, one was fifteen question interviews for parents, which centred on attitudes towards bilingualism, family immigration, background and Chinese learning experience of the children. The findings of this research suggested that parents exhibited a positive attitude towards maintaining both their mother tongue and the language of the society.

McKenna et al, (2012)studied the attitudes of Korean parents and focused on motivation and home literacy practices in relation to Korean/English bilingualism. This study suggested that success in foreign language learning is actualized or influenced by either positive or negative attitudes, by motivation or the forms of practices at home. The result of the research indicated that the

participants shared favourable attitudes towards bilingualism and positive attitudes towards home literacy practices and motivation.

Shang et al. (2007) described the perceptions of Taiwanese parents toward learning the English language in a bilingual kindergarten. This study's main aim was to investigate Taiwanese parents' opinions and reasons for sending their children to bilingual Taiwanese-English kindergarten. To conduct the research, the researcher selected eleven parents with children in Taiwanese-English kindergarten, and a semi-structured interview was the method to carry out the study. The semi-structured interview that lasted for about 45 minutes only involved the mothers of the families. The study results showed that parents solidly supported bilingual kindergarten because they believed it would provide better job opportunities for their children and encourage their communication skills.

Another researcher Guardado, (2002) studied the parental to the loss and maintained of first language skills. The researcher executed a case study of Hispanic families in Vancouver and the study was focused on whether parents desire the children to maintain either bilingual or monolingual. The research involved four selected families who had children of at least six years of age. The data collected method used for this study indicated that parents had a very positive attitude to maintain their mother tongue not necessarily for communication with target country but also knowing the stories, history and songs. Additionally, parents showed a huge support because they needed their children to keep and maintain the first language identity, family relationships and cultural heritage.

Park & Sarkar, (2007) in their research inspected the attitude of Korean immigrant parents towards heritage language continuance of their children and their endeavor to assist their children sustain Korean as their heritage language in Montreal. Nine Korean immigrant families with children between 6 and 18 years were the participants in the study and the applied methodology for the study were a questionnaire and an interview. The interview questions involved parental attitudes towards maintenance of the mother tongue, churches and Korean community, the parents were also asked their efforts to ensure their children keep their mother tongue. The questionnaire consisted of questions concerning participant's personal background, immigration status and level of education. The outcome of the study indicated that parents exhibited a positive attitude towards maintenance of their mother tongue. However, parents also portrayed high presumptions for the high level of their children mother tongue proficiency because they believe keeping the mother tongue would

assist the children to ensure economic opportunities, keep their identity and communicate with friends and families.

2.10. Parental involvements

According to Harris & Goodall, (2007), parental involvement is never a consistently or clearly defined term in literature. Its description represents numerous different parental behaviours; parental applications such as parental aspirations for their children academic achievement; parental participation in school activities; parental communication with teachers about their children; parental communication with their offspring about school and the rules of parents at home which are considered to be education related.

The scope of definition suggests that parental involvement is multifaceted or versatile in nature because parental involvement incorporates a wide variety of parenting practices and parental behavioural patterns. Goodall & Montgomery, (2014) considered the engagement of parents as active and consequential involvement in children's learning. That kind of learning can occur in different settings including early learning and childcare settings, the community, schools via family and learning at home.

According to Desforges et al (2003), a review of English language literature was carried out to establish research discoveries on the relationship between parental involvement, family education and parental support on children adjustment and achievement in schools. Two different bodies of literature were discovered. One focused on understanding and describing the nature, determinants, impact and extent of spontaneously transpiring involvement of parents on children's educational end results. The second focused on evaluating and describing attempts to step in and enhance spontaneous degrees of involvement.

The outcome of the research consistently indicated that parental involvement occurs in several forms including good parenting at home, provision of a stable and secured environment, parent-child discussion, intellectual stimulation, good model of constructive educational and social values, good citizenship and high ambitions relating to personal fulfilment, contact with schools to give and obtain information, take part in school events, participating in schoolworks and governance.

The form and extent of parental involvement are solidly influenced by family social class, material deprivation, maternal level of education, single-parent status, maternal psycho-social

health, and to a smaller extent, by family ethnicity. The degree of parental involvement decreases as the child grows older and is solidly influenced at all ages by the child taking a functional mediating role. The child's achievement firmly influences parental involvement; the higher the level of achievement, the more the parents get involved. Parenting involvement in the form of athome good parenting has a remarkable productive effect on the adjustment and achievement of the child even after other achievement-shaping factors have been removed from the equation. Within the primary age range, the influence from different areas of parental involvement is superior to the differences associated with variations in school quality.

According to Epstein (2011), the traditional definition of parental involvement takes several forms, such as volunteering at the school, communicating with the teachers, helping with homework, and participating in school events such as parent-teacher conferences and performances (Epstein et al., 2009).

Lopez et al. (2007) defined parental involvement as either participating in school-initiated functions or supporting student academic achievement.

Benard (2004) believes that parental involvement is an effective policy that guarantees children's success, as evidenced by many correlational studies, with the comprehensive benefits of parental engagement being enhanced academic performance. Some positive effects of parental involvement are that increased parental involvement brings about early social competence, eventually leading to academic success (Hill & Craft, 2003). Parental involvement also enhances social capital or networks mapped out to support resources (Lee & Bowen, 2006) (Hill & Taylor, 2004).

According to Jafarov (2015), parental involvement means parents or caregivers investing in their children's education. He also stated that factors influencing the involvement of parents, according to the literature, could be divided into parental-related factors, school-related factors, and child-related factors. Parental-related factors could be socio-political such as parents' negative school experience and socioeconomic condition (LaRocque, Kleiman, & Darling, 2011). Lee and Bowen (2006) argued that one of the factors that contribute to the level of parental involvement is the educational background of the parents. School-related factors that affect parental involvement are when the school language differs from that of the parents. Secondly, the school staff's attitude also affects the level of parents' involvement (Deal & Peterson, 2009: 189). According to Hornby & Lafaele (2011), the age and gender of the children also affect the level of parental involvement.

Conclusively, according to the above-evaluated literature, it is possible to deduce that factors that affect the level of parental involvement are: Parental academic background, lack of knowledge about curriculum, Language, lack of time, school environment and staff attitudes, school demands (certain or uncertain for parents), children desire for independency, parents income level, family structure, parenting style, children age, parents beliefs about their duties, students' achievement level, and culture.

2.10.1. Importance of parental involvement

The importance of parental involvement in conformity with (Jeynes, 2003) (Jeynes, 2007). Parental involvement contributes greatly to children's education and its advantages for children are numerous. For instance, it has a positive influence on the children's academic success (Fan & Chen, 2001).

Following the works of Jafarov (2015), children with high level of parental involvement perform better in reading and mathematics than children with low level of parental involvement. He further stated that parental involvement positively contributes to children's academic achievement by influencing their academic self-concept which plays a considerable important role in academic success. Thus, parental involvement boosts the key to improvement of children's academic accomplishment.

Moreover, the involvement of parents contributes to their children's emotional development and behaviour (Cai et al, 1997), their social skills (Henderson & Mapp, 2002), wellbeing (Pelletier & Brent, 2002), school attendance and might establish connections between parents and teachers which will in turn produce impressive results for children and teachers.

Contrastingly, Jeynes, (2011) stated that not all forms of parental involvement are statistically significant. For instance, Jeynes recognized that school conversations between children and their parents and participation of parents at school events have a statistically considerable effect on children's academic achievement, whereas checking the children housework by parents has no significant effect statistically.

In line with the above study, Fan and Chen (2001) expressed that parental control is weakly related to children's academic success but parental hope and desire for their children academic success is strongly connected to children's academic success.

In conclusion, Deal and Peterson (2009) stated that parental involvement contributes much to general school culture. He further stated that a "school by its indispensable nature, must be an open system with highly penetrable boundaries and sections of the school culture should reach out and connect with parents. It is also important to know that family involvement in line with Harvard family research (2006) can feature several processes that interact to generate an outcome for young children and these processes should be taken into consideration when one proposes to find more about family involvement. Hence, such factors as children-parent relationship and involvement in child-centred activities; home-school connection that is the participation and communication between school and home; authority for learning outcomes (the parent-child conversation and home reading) are all in contact with one another and interacting with each other to create social competence, communication skill, comprehension skill, literacy development and cognitive development for the children.

Regarding the family social and economic class, Quagliata (2008) insighted that there is a positive connection between parents' socioeconomic status and academic achievement of children. Children from higher family status have parents who are more willing to read and get involved with their children, thus, the children get more knowledge about the world around them.

2.10.2. Previous studies on parental involvements

Parental involvement as a topic, has attracted the attention of numerous researchers because of its numerous connections with children. Today, parents get more involved in their children's education and academic growth than before. Mushi, (2002) insighted about research carried out in Chicago on the role of parents in their children language learning and development where the focus was on how immigrant parents assist their children at home to learn their mother tongue as well. The outcome showed that several factors such as parents genera attitude to language, parent-child joint activities, parents regard to English and their mother tongue were involved in parental involvement. Observing parental reports instead of concentrating only on the children achievement is another way of viewing parental involvement. Stacer & Perrucci, (2013) researched on parental involvement with children at home, school, and community. The results of their research portrayed that parent with higher educational background show more commitment in the children's school activities. Also, the results indicated that in earlier grades, parents showed

more involvement with the girls than the boys in the home and in the community. The level of involvement of parents was higher for parents of children with higher grades.

Erlendsdottir (2010) studied the influence of parental involvement in education. The research goal was to discover the extent parental involvement influence the children's academic achievement. Hence a qualitative approach was chosen to collect data via interviews with parents. The results of the research indicated that parents were extremely involved in their children's education through having good relationship with the children and proper control over what the children do inside and outside school. The research also indicated that parental involvement irrespective of age, racial and ethnicity and socioeconomic status.

2.11. Parental strategies

In the home, parents have considerable roles to perform in order to assist and encourage their children's language learning and development. Thus, a child's learning development is influenced by the amount of effort parents put into developing different language skills. Parental strategy plays a critical role in determining the influence of parental effort on the child's development. A parental strategy could mean how an individual or parent chooses; it might be centered on their parenting style. Parenting strategies are a form of disciplinary measures but can also change in response to behaviour and needs. Positive parental strategies do not indicate a lack of parental boundaries but relatively refer to how an individual connects with his/her child emotionally by offering more positive structure and interactions than punishment, criticism, corrections, and allowing the child to run the show. Positive parenting is empathetic parenting with a priority on open Communication, honesty, and consistency with the child but never without authority.

According to Akilah and Moor (2022), children raised through a positive parenting model might possess an easier time respecting rules and limits by parents, regarding their parents as both sources of comfort and authority figures, being less likely to look for negative influence elsewhere. Akilah and Moore (2022) outlined seven positive parenting strategies to think about when a child needs assistance with improving behavioural concerns. The positive strategies include setting and consistently enforcing rules and limits: Rules and limits tend to give children a healthy sense of structure and parental authority instead of making them feel restricted; this strategy can also encourage children to learn better with improved academic performances. Show the child affection regularly: Showing affection and providing comfort always makes the children wish to spend more

time with their parents, which can also improve the quality of parent's relationship with their kids. Work with their children to solve problems: As a parent, you need to be your child's best primary source. Try one-on-one to solve your children's question, whether social, academic, or emotional, when it comes up, and always show compassion and concern for what they are going through. Validate your child's feelings: When parents validate and acknowledge their child's feelings, it allows the children to feel their parents will support everything they feel. This support can help the children develop strong social-emotional skills and relationships.

As a form of strategy, parents can influence their children reading fluency by reading along, making the process of reading pleasurable and fun, allowing their kids to choose the books they wish to read, talking about new words and meanings, and making use of the library said (Darling, 2005). However, according to Mullis et al. (2003), parents can furnish the home environment for reading by regularly engaging in reading activities, allocating more time to the children for reading, talking about books, and daily event help children learn new words according to their interests and hobbies, searching new words in dictionaries and exhibiting positive attitude to reading. Elish-Piper & Witte (2011) pointed out that parents, through daily reading and rereading easy books (poetry and nursery books) to their children, enhance their fluency in reading because fluent reading includes accuracy, speed, expression, and comprehension.

2.11.1. Parenting styles and effects on children

There is a great deal of diversity among families when it comes to parenting. Cultural backgrounds input a huge impact on the existence of family unit and how they rear their children. In line with Sanvictores & Mendez, (2021), cultural, ethnic, and spiritual ideologies, single parenthood and socioeconomic status are some of the determining factors of parenting styles among families. Culture could be defined as a pattern of social norms, language, values, and behaviour shared by group of individuals.

Consequently, in one way or another, parents are affected by their culture. Parenting viewpoints or approaches vary across cultures regarding promoting attention, delayed gratification, executive function, compliance, and effective control regarding self-regulation. Parenting style can be situation dependent, and every parent has various approaches to interact with and guide their offspring through this bond of child's moral conduct and principles are established. According to

Sanvictores & Mendez (2021), several researchers have grouped parenting styles into various psychological constructs, but this thesis will only focus on four categories of parenting styles. **Authoritarian parenting:** Parents of this approach tend to exhibit a one-way mode of Communication where the parent institutes strict rules that the children must obey. Here, the children have little or no room for negotiation, and the rules are not mostly explained. These children are expected to uphold these rules or standards without errors, and any mistake usually leads to punishment.

Authoritarian parents exhibit limited flexibility with high expectations but need to be more nurturing. The children are often the most courteous in the room due to the consequences of their ill behaviour. However, according to Masud et al. (2019), this parenting style can produce children with higher levels of aggression, who may be socially inept, shy, and unable to make decisions. Martínez et al. (2007) highlighted that children from authoritarian parents might have difficulty managing anger because they lack proper guidance, which often influences the child to revolt against authority figures when they grow older.

Authoritative parenting: Here, the parents usually have a nurturing, close relationship with their kids. They have transparent guidelines for their expectations and expound that their associated parents use disciplinary methods instead of punishment. Their children not only have input into their goals and expectations but enjoy frequent and appropriate levels of Communication with their parents. In general, this is a healthy type of parenting, but it requires a lot of effort and patience from both sides. Morris et al. (2007) wrote that authoritative parenting produces responsible, confident children who can self-regulate and effectively manage their negative emotions. The children grow with high levels of academic performance and achievement (Pong, Johnston, & Chen, 2010).

Permissive Parenting: Here, parents tend to be warm and nurturing and have limited or no expectations. They enforce slight rules with open Communication and allow their children to figure out things themselves. This parenting style usually results in a rare use of discipline because parents act more like friends than parents. Generally, this parenting style produces children who have some decent social skills and self-esteem, though they can be demanding, selfish, impulsive, and lack self-regulation (Piotrowski, Lapierre, & Linebarger, 2013).

Uninvolved parenting: Here, parents stay out of the way as children are given much freedom. The parents fulfil the children's basic needs but generally remain detached from their children's

life. Uninvolved parents do not utilize any particular discipline style, have few or no expectations from their children, and offer little nurturing with limited Communication. Their children are usually resilient and might even be more self-significant through skills developed out of necessity. However, Nijhof & Engels (2007) and Kuppens & Ceulemans (2019) believe that these children might have difficulty controlling their emotions, challenges with maintaining social relationships, and less effective coping strategies.

2.11.2. Previous research on parental strategies

Aram, (2010) researched about parental and maternal guidance in order to ascertain the roles of fathers and mothers in helping the writing development of the children. In her research, she compared the parents to write with their young children. To carry out the research, 51 parents (fathers and mothers) of kindergarteners in Israel were selected. The selected fathers and mothers were separately videotaped in their homes while writing words with their young children. The outcome of the research indicated that both the fathers and mothers assisted their children in completing the writing exercises. However, mothers guided and cooperated with their children in completing the task and the children also paid more attention to their mother's idea and suggestions. In conclusion, both parents portrayed similar qualities of writing guidance and families never forsake their own style of guidance.

Another study was carried out by Neumann & Neumann (2010) on parental strategies to scaffold developing writing skills in preschool children within their living environment. This research aimed to observe the parent-child joint writing exercise to support or encourage language/writing skills in young children. Moreover, the mothers' strategies in scaffolding their daughters' alphabet letter shaping, story writing, and word in the years before focusing on formal schooling included tracing letter shapes with a finger using directional language, identifying alphabet letters in environment books and prints, and involving whole arm movement to produce letter shapes in the air. The study's outcome portrayed that using letters, shapes, and names might be an effective strategy for parents in early childhood literacy development.

Skibbe et al. (2013) conducted a longitudinal study on the relationship between parental writing support and preschool children's language and literacy skills. The support of parents in writing was studied for an extended period to investigate their children's language and literacy skills while writing an invitation letter together twice in a period of one year. Parental writing was

coded for data analysis at the level of letter, letter formation, and demand for accuracy. The study's outcome showed that parents mainly depended on writing the letters by themselves and dictating the letters as the children write strategies.

Parents can also engage with their children at home via speaking. Mishina-Mori, (2011) carried out another research on speaking skills which focused on the longitudinal analysis of language choice in bilingual children—the research aimed to identify the role of parental input and interaction at home. The data was collected in a longitudinal observation of two Japanese/English bilinguals aged two. The parent's participation in the study was based on a one-language policy since the child's parents had a positive attitude toward bilingualism. They continuously made efforts to adhere to the policy of one parent, one language while also keeping a balance of the impact of the two languages. The outcome revealed that the language choice pattern could be explained by their parental language choice alone, though it seems to contribute to the use of parents' native language by the children. The analysis also indicated that the children's stability in the language choice not only depended on the stability of the parents' language choice but also on the way language mixing was treated in each experience.

Lacour et al. (2013) aimed to identify whether pre-kindergarten attitudes to reading would improve if parents received instruction on the use of discourse reading techniques during a storybook reading program at home. According to the findings, discourse in dialogue reading was a distinct form of storybook reading which encouraged emergent literacy development via the social interaction between the adult and the child. The result of the research indicated that parents noticed an improvement in the attitude and interest of their children. Additionally, parents expressed their gratification through their self-confidence in helping their children read storybooks, which led to increased storybook reading in the home.

Another study about separate parents and child strategies while reading was carried out by Stoltz & Fischel (2003). They planned to examine parents' natural strategies to assist early readers with difficult pronunciations or text. For this study, forty-two parent-child pairs were chosen to participate in the research. The children were between the ages of six and eight years old. The data was collected by observation of parent-child pairs in a laboratory setting. Parents were asked to bring three books from the home. The study suggested that parents needed to provide specific or adequate instructional feedback while listening to their child's reading. Parents provided their

children more with miss-read words by supporting the child to repeat the reading of the word without giving further feedback or allowing the children to continue uncorrected. However, parents of less skilled readers' children provided more feedback than parents of more skilled readers. Finally, the research grouped parents into two categories of direct and inactive parents, based on their reaction towards their children's errors during reading.

Hamers and Blanc (2000:51) in bilinguality and bilingualism, who described one-parent-one language strategy as a Grammont's principle. Grammont theorized that by strictly segregating the two languages ab initio, the children would subsequently learn the two languages quickly without much missing of languages or confusion. According to the principle, the chances of missing languages are visibly reduced by associating each language with a specific parent, and the parents can also form a natural emotional relationship with the children through their language.

According to their research, each parent should exclusively communicate with their children using his or her mother. However, Hamers and Blanc clarified that the principle was an assumption that lacked psycholinguistic proof but had been adopted as a proven rule instead of a hypothesis.

3.METHODOLOGY

2.3. Introduction

For this study, a qualitative study approach was chosen to conduct the research. Going by the researcher's choice of qualitative pattern, interviews and few number of parents as participants were chosen as a tool for the project. However, among several other data collection methods associated to qualitative study approach, a semi structural interview was chosen and utilized for collection of data. The selection of semi structural interview extracts more detailed responses and explanations from the interviewees. In addition, the interviews were conducted with one parent in each family with bilingual children between the ages of three to six and six to nine years going to Norwegian kindergarten and primary schools respectively.

The participants involved families with parents of same language background or different language background who live in Norway for different reasons.

Upon mutual consensus, the participants were permitted to select or choose their preferred interviews location and time. The focus of the interview was on the entire background of the involved families, the attitudes of the parents to bilingualism and on the strategies the families employ to encourage and support language skills (Speaking, listening, reading, and writing) development and the involved language skill questions were about English and their mother tongue not forgetting the language of the environment Norwegian

During the interview with the participants at their chosen locations, voices were recorded in agreement with the involved participant and notes were taken, which was later transcribed and analysed.

2.4. Types of research

2.4.1. Qualitative research

In order to investigate bilingualism and parental involvement a qualitative approach was selected for this study. The few participants and the interview as a tool were chosen due to the researcher's choice of the qualitative paradigm, since the chosen paradigm or approach was the best to help the researcher to achieve or fulfil the research aims.

Qualitative research mainly centres on such factors as people, event, cultures, settings, experiences, and others. Thus, Zacharias (2012) describes qualitative research as understanding a person or an event which is continuous and dynamic. However, the small number of participants and the results are analysed and explicated according to the words and stories from the interviewees. In accordance with Tewksbury (2009), qualitative approach relies on the way individuals understand and perform in different social settings. Dörnyei (2007) insighted that qualitative research is made up of an open-ended data collection procedure that has non-numerical data, which are analysed using non-statistical methods.

2.4.2. The Assumptions of qualitative research paradigm

Going by the words of Ochieng (2009): Qualitative researchers are primarily concerned with process instead of products or outcomes. Qualitative research is concerned with meaning, how individuals make sense of their experience, lives and their structures around the world.

Qualitative research requires field work, the researchers physically go to people, the site or institution to observe, interview or record behaviours in its natural setting. Qualitative researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. Data are moderated via this human instrument instead of through questionnaires, inventories or machines. Qualitative research process is inductive in that the researcher forms concepts, abstractions, theories and hypothesis from details.

2.4.3. The strength/integrity of qualitative research

Qualitative research is good at managing and simplifying data without destroying context and complexity. For questions where pre-depletion of data will hinder discovery, qualitative research methods are extremely appropriate. If the main purpose is to learn from the participants, the way they experienced it in a setting or process, how they interpret their experiences and meaning they gave it; the research required methods that will give room for discovery and do justice their perception and the difficulty of their interpretations. Qualitative methods likewise have the goal of creating new ways of recognizing existing data. If the main purpose is to establish a theory that reflects truth or reality instead of the researchers' own viewpoint or prior research results, one might require methods that help the discovery of theory in data. If the purpose is to deeply comprehend phenomena in detail, the researcher requires methods for discovery of central themes and analysis of fundamental concerns. Any of these suggestions is made up of a flip side. If one is aware of what is being hypothesized and what they wish to find, if one does not know the difficulty of others comprehension, if one is testing previous theory instead of constructing new frameworks, or if one is merely describing a situation instead of deeply analysing if it is therefore possible, should not be working qualitatively (Ochieng, 2009). Qualitative research is a genuine response to some but not all research needs the above point simply means that one need a genuine reason for working qualitatively due to both practical and ethical considerations, but one needs to have thorough knowledge of the method to start learning it. Genuine qualitative research requires skills, purpose and concentration, unless one recognizes this with a clear and committed purpose, the task will quickly become difficult (Ochieng, 2009). Qualitative data mostly consists of words whereas quantitative data is made up of numbers. However, the two can be synchronized for the following reasons to get a better result. Every quantitative data is based on qualitative judgement. This is so because numbers themselves cannot be interpreted without understanding the premises which underline them. Every qualitative data can be quantitatively coded. This is so because

anything qualitative can be assigned meaningful numerical values which can be manipulated to assist one to realize a greater insight into the meaning of the data and to examine specific hypothesis. However, qualitative and quantitative data at the same level are virtually inseparable.

2.4.4. Limitations of qualitative research

According to Ochieng (2009), the aim of qualitative research analysis is a complete detailed description. Qualitative research analysis gives room for fine distinctions to be drawn because it is never necessary to embed the data with a finite number of classifications.

In Qualitative analysis, ambiguities which are inborn in human language can be recognized. For instance, the word 'red' could be used as a political categorization, example communism or socialism. In a qualitative analysis both feelings of red in the phrase 'the red fly' could be acknowledged. The main disadvantage of qualitative paradigm to corpus analysis is that their discoveries cannot be extended to wider population with the same degree of certainty like qualitative analysis. This is so because the discoveries of the research are not tested to find whether they are due to chance or statistically significant.

Qualitative research is descriptive in that the research is concerned in process, meaning and understanding obtained via pictures or words. Quantitative research design on the other hand is empirical in nature and is also known as the scientific research approach and the approach or design ensures validity by the process of strenuous definition, classification and application of pilot experiments (trying out the instruments beforehand and checking their usefulness with experts and assessing their credibility by use of statistical tests). This study design can be classified further into experimental, inferential and simulation approaches to research (Ochieng 2009).

Sometimes both qualitative and quantitative approaches can be used for data collection in research that involve both interview and questionnaire together. According to Nugrahenny (2012) describes qualitative research as understanding an individual or event which is dynamic and ongoing. However, the number of participants is small, and the data are interpreted and analysed based on participants words and stories. Whereas, on the contrary, Tewksbury (2009) described qualitative approach/methods as more scientific and concentrates on definitions that plan to find out what variables and concepts mean in addition to using statistical method.

In this study, a qualitative approach was chosen due to the researcher's choice to focus on the topic of parental support and strategies for first and second language of their children and their attitude of bilingualism. Therefore, to fulfil this study, a qualitative approach with conducting a semi-structured interview for parents appeared appropriate. The main reason for using qualitative design was due to the researcher's interest to extract more information about the opinions, feelings and experiences of the interviewee in the home which otherwise was never accessible. This semi-structured interview helped the researcher to focus on interviewees individual perception and beliefs.

2.4.5. Qualitative data collection

According to Hancock, (1998), research data collection is categorized into three types: individual interviews, observation and focus groups. The observation method is basically to observe how individuals react in natural situations. Through observation there are other techniques for data collection such as video recording, written description, artifacts, photographs and documentation. Focus groups is another qualitative research of data collection method used by researchers with a few participants whose opinions, perceptions, beliefs and attitudes towards a concept or idea are being requested. Another qualitative research data collection method is interview. Interviews according to Hancock (1998) could be unstructured, semi-structured and highly structured. Unstructured interviews permit in-depth discussions with a smaller number of questions. Semi-structures interview comprises of more open-ended questions that allow the interviewer and interviewee to have more discussion about the question.

The structured interview deals with asking each participant the same question, the same way, thereby obtaining a limited number of responses.

According to Patton, (2002), researchers use interviews to obtain information which cannot be observed directly such as thoughts, feelings and intentions. Through interview, one can access the perception of the interviewee about a subject matter. He categorized interview into three types of general interview guide approach.

Informal conversational interview and standardized open interview categorization. Mackey & Gass, (2005) categorized interview into structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. The first category is like verbal question that allow the comparison between other respondents

uncomplicated. In semi-structured interview, the interviewer makes a list of questions ready before hand. In the third category, the interviewer obtains the questions according to the speed and flow of the conversation because no questions were prepared beforehand.

Semi-structured interview as a chosen method for this study has prompts which helps the interviewer to further consider whenever the interviewee finds it difficult to understand a question. Semi-structured interview also gives the interviewer the freedom to scrutinize the interviewee to give more details on the original response or follow the interviewers own line of inquiring as indicated by Hancock (1998). In accordance with Griffee, (2012:159-160), interviews could be described as a continuum between open and closed.

The open-ended interview guides the interviewee on the way to answer questions and might also encourage interviewer on a particular question that was never intended to be asked from ab initio. The close-ended which could also be referred as standardized interview has fixed number of questions and the interview does not request for further clarification or elaboration from the interviewee. Semi-structured interview falls between the open-ended and close-ended interviews on the continuum, where the interviewer is permitted to request for clarification or include more questions to the interview.

A semi-structured interview or the general interview guide approach was chosen in this present research as a data collection method. This method utilized an interview guide as its main source of obtaining data from participants. Interview guide enables the interviewer to obtain the information needed in a more stepwise way and within the subject areas the interviewer plans to explore. This type of interview appears to be more comprehensive and systematic in detailing and answering the questions.

2.5. Data collection, Data processing and analysis

2.5.1. The Participants

In this study, the participants involved parents of children between the ages of 3-6 and 6-9 years old who attend Norwegian kindergarten and Primary schools. The involved age bracket was chosen because parents tend to be their more involved in activities and lifestyle of their younger children including language skills at home.

Eight families were selected as participants based on their consent to the invitation to participate prepared by the researcher. These eight participants were chosen due to the nature of this research, and the aim which was to discover the attitudes, supports and strategies which families employ for their children first and second language skills development at home.

This study involved participants from various nationalities. Among the involved participants, mothers/fathers either come from the same country speaking the same language or from the same country but speaking different languages. For instance, when both parents come from the same tribe in Nigeria (either Igbo, Yoruba or Hausa tribe), and when any of the parent come from any of the above-mentioned tribes with different languages respectively. Whereas other participants both mothers/fathers come from different countries. For instance, Norway/Scotland, Poland/Norway, Croatia/Nigeria, Poland/Ghana, Uganda (single parent), Serbia/Serbia, Nigeria/Cameroun and Nigeria/Nigeria.

Among the involved families, two mainly the mothers worked at the kindergarten as substitute teachers, three worked in different hotels, two worked in the oil companies, one worked as a veterinary doctor, and two are full time master's degree students as at the time of this study. However, all the involved participants were educated.

2.5.2. Instrument for Data Collection

To carry at this present study, a semi-structured interview was chosen as a data collection instrument. The reason behind choosing this method was to enable the interviewer to obtain more responses from the participants in a framework order without deviating from the questions. Some of the questions were designed for participants to provide thorough explanation of their involvement in their children language skill support at home and their attitude towards bilingualism.

However, questions were designed to elicit answers where parents put emphasis on an activity. The prepared the interview guide for this project was made up of three main parts. The first part concentrated on the participant background such as age, educational background level, number of children, country of origin, language(s) mother/father speaks with each other and with their children, language siblings speak to each other.

The second part focused on parental attitude to bilingualism and how they plan to keep the two languages simultaneously or separately.

The third part was focused on strategies employ to support and encourage the children language skills development which include reading, speaking, writing and listening. The reading part questions concentrated on the place and materials parents used to help their children. The speaking section was focused on the language which parents and their children speak with each other, whether they work on accent or vocabulary etc.

In the writing part, questions were focused on writing skills such as the materials used for writing and spelling exercise. Finally, the listening part included questions such as language and time of the day the children watch television and the kinds of programs they watch, including other social media platforms.

2.5.3. Interview Piloting and Conduction

Qualitative interviews present rich and detailed information in comprehending people's experiences. However, inexperienced researchers might find it difficult to do qualitative enquiry. Piloting for interviews in an essential and useful aspect in the process of conducting qualitative research because of highlights and improvisation of the major study (Majid, Othman, Mohamad, Lim, & Yusof, 2017)

According to the above reference, the useful functions of pilot study are as follows:

- It serves as a criterion for selecting potential participants.
- It improves the interview guide especially the interview questions.
- It can assist to identify faults or limitation within the interview design that permits necessary modifications to the main study.

Moreover, Majid et al, (2017) mentioned that it is clearly helpful to pilot the interview questions and accordingly adjust the interview guide before embarking into the major study.

To carry out this study, the interview questions were piloted before the main interview conduction to ensure that questions were understandable and not ambiguous to the interviewee. Piloting also permitted the interview to try-out the recording device and pre-check the total the interview lasts. Before the main interview, the interview carried out two piloting sections with two volunteer

parents from different countries whose children were between the age range required for this study, though they were not included as participants.

After the piloting section, the researcher amended the questions based on the answers from the volunteer interviewees, deleted some questions that were ambiguous and added some relevant ones to ensure proper comprehension.

Moreso, the piloting section assisted the interviewer to know whether the content of the questionnaire was clear and comprehensive enough to suit every participant despite their cultural or academic background.

All the interviews were carried out at the interviewees' chosen location and the interview lasted between thirty to forty minutes depending on the speed of the interview process and explanation from the participants after the interviewer had started and check the audio recorder to ensure adequate functioning. The interviewer also took notes of valid points as the interview was going on, in addition to the voice recording. The notes assisted the interviewer with new questions that could be relevant during the interview. Taking notes of relevant points during interviews helps the interviewer during data analysis and also serve as a backup if something happens to the recording device. Both the recorded voice and the notes provided a comprehensive picture of what the interviewer wanted.

2.5.4. Interview Analysis

After the interviews, the researcher reviews and transferred the audio recordings to a computer for individual transcription. To ensure adequate analysis and data interpretation, the researcher thoroughly read through the interview guide section by section as a guide to identify similar or different topics and themes in each of the participants answers. The participant answers were discussed in detail to ascertain their similarities and differences. Their common themes and topics were separated for more discussions and comparison with other related previous study. Through the interviews analysis, the researcher could get the participant views towards bilingualism and their individual actions in the home to support their children language learning development.

2.6. Methodological Concerns.

2.6.1. Reliability and validity

Reliability and validity are two majorly used concepts for qualitative and quantitative studies. According to Roberts & Priest, (2006), reliability and validity are ways of demonstrating and communicating the thoroughness of research processes and the trustworthiness of its findings. Helpful research avoids misleading those who use it. Reliability, which is probably simpler to understand and demonstrate, describes how far a particular procedure, test, or tool such as interview or questionnaire will yield similar results in different circumstances, assuming no change was recorded (Roberts & Priest 2006). In other words, at the end of the study, the result should be replicated and repeated.

Golafshani (2015), defined reliability as the extent to which results appear consistent over time and accurate representation of the total population under study, and if the results of the research could be reproduced through similar methodology, then the study instrument is reliable.

Middleton, (2020) referred to reliability and validity as concepts used to evaluate the quality of research. Both concepts indicate how well a technique, method or test measure something. Reliability indicated the consistency of a measure and validity indicates the accuracy of a measure. Ahmed & Ishtiaq, (2021) considered reliability and validity among the most salient and fundamental domains in the evaluation of any measuring methodology for collecting data in good research.

The above reference continued that reliability is about the truthfulness in the collected data and the degree to which any measuring tool controls random error. Whereas validity concerns what an instrument measures and how well it does the measurement. Lobiondo-Wood & Haber, (2018) deeply explained reliability and validity. They defined reliability as the ability of the tool to consistently measure the attribute of a variable or construct. Which validity is the extent to which an instrument accurately measures the attributes of a concept. These authors went further down to explain that reliable people are those individuals whose behaviours can be relied on to be predictable and consistent. Similarly, reliability of a research instrument is the extent to which the tool produces the same results on repeated measures. It is the consistency, precision, stability, equivalence and homogeneity.

A reliable measure is one that can yield the same result if the conduct is measure again by the same scale. Three main characteristics of reliable scale are stability, homogeneity and equivalence. The stability of a tool refers to the tool's ability to produce the same results with repeated testing. The homogeneity of a tool signifies that all the items in a tool measure the same concept, characteristics or variable. A tool is considered to exhibit equivalence if it yields the same results when equivalent or parallel tools or procedures are used.

For this present research, efforts were made to remain as unbiased and truthful as possible. However, focus was attributed on the meaningfulness and truthfulness of the participants responses. To identify whether the interviewee's answers were meaningful and true, the interviewer encourages the interviewee in providing more understandable responses by asking questions clearly and thoroughly.

2.7. Ethical Aspect

Every necessary information concerning the interviews and its conduct was made known to all the participants prior to the interview and on the interview day. The researcher also issued invitation for participation letter to all the participants. The invitation for participation also contained all the interview information. It was stated in the letter that participation would be anonymous and voluntary, no personal information would be published. If there is need for any participant withdrawal, the participant had the right to do so as the study was going on.

Additionally, personal data would not be published in accordance with NSD (meldepliktig) inquiry and after the completion of the research, all the participants data would be deleted.

2.8. Summary

This chapter concentrated on the methodology that was chosen for this present research. It also focused on the collection and processing of data. Moreso, comprehensive information about the participants and piloting, instrument for data collection which was semi-structured interview, methodological concerns about reliability and validity and ethical concepts were thoroughly presented.

The following chapter would concentrate on the presentation of the study findings, which would give room for comparison and contrast among interviewees response in the discussion chapter.

3. FINDINGS

3.1.Introduction

The aim of this study was to investigate the attitudes of parents toward bilingualism and the strategies they employ I the home to support their first language and English language learning. This present chapter is a summary of the interviews, which involved eight families from different parts of the world who live and work in Norway.

As indicated in the interview guide and invitation letter, all the participants were anonymized, words and pronouns such as interviewee, participant, respondent, she, he, and they were used instead of their real names. Each summary introduces the participant's family background, their attitudes toward bilingualism, their efforts and strategies to support their children's language skills. The included language skills are speaking, reading, listening, and writing. Please note that the summaries might not directly follow the structure of the interview guide.

3.2.Participant A

She was 30 years old at the time of the interview. She had a bachelor's degree in English literature from her home country Nigeria and a master's degree in literacy studies from a Norwegian university. The husband had a bachelor's degree in biochemistry from a Nigerian university, and a master's from a Norwegian university. Therefore, both are educated (master's degree holders), according to the interviewee. The husband came to Norway in 2015 for studies, and she joined her husband in 2017 via family reunification. They have two children, a girl and a boy of five and three years old, respectively. Therefore, both children are in kindergarten. The interviewee worked as a substitute kindergarten teacher, and that helped enhance her Norwegian speaking skill and have time for her children. The husband worked with one of the oil and gas companies in Norway. The interviewee and her husband came from the south-eastern part of Nigeria, and thus, both have the same mother tongue (Igbo language). Hence, they speak their mother tongue at home.

When I asked her what language, they speak or with their children at home, she answered that she and her husband had made a language plan or language agreement where she would be communicating in their mother tongue to the children; while her husband would be speaking

English to the children. And the children responded accordingly. Then I asked her the reason for the plan or strategy, and she answered that they wanted their children to be bilingual because they did not know where they would settle in the future. The children, especially their daughter, speak Norwegian in kindergarten and whenever she is with Norwegian-speaking friends.

Moreover, she said she and her husband had tried to maintain the language plan despite the enormous challenges it presented by traveling home every Christmas holiday so the children could mingle and communicate with their relatives in Nigeria. They also made a routine to call their relatives in Nigeria every Saturday evening mainly through video calls, so their children can interact with their grandparents and other relatives. To maintain a balance between both languages, the family mainly watches English movies and other English tv programs, and occasionally (once or twice a month), they watch Igbo movies. Their children watch cartoons in the English language and occasionally in Norwegian. The interviewee responded positively when I asked if she would like her children to speak and understand English and their mother tongue equally, in addition to Norwegian, which is the language of the environment. The interviewee the children to be able to speak and understand their mother tongue to communicate with family and friends from home. With family and friends from outside the Norwegian background, their children will communicate with the English language, especially during vacations. However, she mentioned that her five years old daughter loves reading and swimming, so she and her husband bought many English storybooks for children, mainly from online shops. Books they have purchased for their children include bible storybooks, historical books, and comic and books on ethics to enable them to acquire some moral through the storybooks. According to the interviewee, the children do not have or read any Igbo language books yet. When they next travel to Nigeria, they may acquire some Igbo language story books for children, but presently the children only practice reading and trace writing with their parents at home in the English language.

When I asked what she and her husband did to encourage their children to read, she said that they would spend one hour every Wednesday and Friday evening with their children to read with their children in a playful way to get their full attention and interest. In addition, they employed several other strategies to encourage their children's reading skills such as creating a comfortable reading environment with good lighting, a foamy mat, and a fanciful bookshelf. They tried to make reading enjoyable by selecting books that match the children's interests and reading aloud enthusiastically

and engagingly. They also provided different reading materials so the children could explore. She also said that her husband tried to lead by example by reading often and in front of the children because children usually follow their parents' lead. Additionally, she highlighted that engaging children in reading exercises required a lot of patience, persistence, and creativity.

When I asked how she and her husband assisted their children's accent or pronunciation in enhancing their speaking skills, she answered that they often corrected their children's accent and word pronunciation both in English and Igbo by giving them the correct pronunciation and accent and asked them to repeat after them. Many times, the interviewee said, her children combine English and Igbo to create funny words, but they are always try to help them. She further emphasized that she has never considered language mixing or code-mixing, a ubiquitous phenomenon characterizing young bilingual speakers, as a significant concern, like other parents do because she thinks it is a normal process. As for building vocabulary, the interviewee responded that due to the age of their children, they have practically done little or nothing about their children's vocabulary development. They believe that their children would acquire a lot of vocabulary by watching English movies and cartoons, and Igbo vocabularies from their parents and extended family members through cultural outings and family visits. The parents also support their children speaking skills by singing and praying in both English and Igbo languages.

As for listening comprehension, the interviewee and her husband allow their children to watch television for at least one hour daily. The programs their children watch vary according to their ages and interests. For instance, her daughter prefers to watch 'Peppa Pig' and 'Paw Patrol' while her son showed much interest in watching 'CoCo melon and Looloo Kids. Their children occasionally watch Igbo home movies. However, she said that her family listens to Christian music in both languages every Sunday morning before they go to church and at church. They also downloaded English and Igbo music that their children enjoy listening to whenever the family is together in their car. The parents provided iPad for their children to watch and listen to educational programs such as science, geography, and history, which are often designed to be fun and engaging while also providing educational values. Interestingly, the interviewee's husband often recorded his voice when reading children's storybooks aloud on the children's iPad for the children to listen, which the children loved so much because they recognized their daddy's voice according to the participant. They also listen to and watch cartoons and animated shows, often featuring colourful characters

and entertaining storylines. With their iPad, the children also watched and played different task games, and the type of programs that the children listen to, and watch varies according to their age and interests. However, the interviewee also said that it is essential for parents to monitor what their children watch and listen to, to ensure the content is age-appropriate and aligns with their values and beliefs.

Then I asked if they observe dinner time discussion, if the answer is yes, what do you discuss and in what language or languages? The participant responded that during their dinner time discussion, they talked about all the activities that took place at home, in kindergarten, and at work. They also utilize that opportunity to discuss future events such as summer or Christmas vacations, and other important events aligned for the new week. Sometimes, they would call their parents and other relatives in Nigeria during dinner time, so they could speak to their children in their mother as a means of motivating their mother tongue development. Since the parents of this family shared similar mother tongue, they strictly practice their dinner time discussion in Igbo language. Through this policy, they parents were able to speak, listen, observe, and correct their children's spoken errors accordingly.

I then asked the participant what activities she and her husband employed to support their children's writing skills. She replied that her children have not started writing very well, their kids especially the daughter, could only trace and write alphabets and figures (1 2 3 to 100) in English. According to the interviewee, she and her husband provided every necessary writing and trace writing materials that would support their children's writing skills, they also bought whiteboard and markers which they use to teach their children writing skills.

3.3.Participant B

The interviewee was 36 years old. She had a bachelor's degree in medical laboratory science from one of Cameroon's universities and another in nursing science from a Norwegian University. The interviewee was married to a Nigerian man, and both had three children, two girls and one boy, and their ages are nine years, six years, and two years respectively. She came from the French-speaking South-Eastern part of Cameroon, and her husband came from the Hausa-speaking North-Central part of Nigeria. Then when I asked her what language she and her husband speak at home, she answered that they used to communicate with Pidgin-English when they were alone without children. Still, they changed to English when children started coming in order not to bias their

children's English-speaking ability since she and her husband could fluently speak English, a widely spoken language in their countries. The interviewee moved to Norway 12 years ago in 2011 to further her studies, but her husband came to Norway earlier than her in 2009 also for studies. They both met in 2012 and got married in 2013 here in Norway. The interviewee is a practicing Nurse, and her husband is a lecturer at one of the universities in Norway. Therefore, the participant and her husband are educated.

When I asked her the language she and her husband spoke to their children at home, she replied that her husband speaks English to their kids, but she speaks English and more of her mother tongue French to their kids because she wanted them to be multiple language speakers. She added that she knew it could be challenging at the beginning. Still, she believed that multilingualism has a lot of cognitive, social, and cultural benefits which their children would enjoy in the future. She further gave an example of herself and her husband's present living conditions in Norway due to their ability to speak different languages, including Norwegian. Notwithstanding, their 9-years and 6-years-old daughters, who are presently in elementary school, speak and understand Norwegian, which they communicate in school and with their circle of Norwegian-speaking friends. The husband of the interviewee initially came from the Hausa tribe in Nigeria. Still, he does not speak his mother tongue because he was born and raised in a city called Lagos where the language of communication was English and Pidgin, so he gave his full support for their children to be exposed to their mother tongue French as a second language including the language of the environment Norwegian.

However, When I asked her about her husband's attitude to bilingualism, she stated that her husband had a positive attitude towards bilingualism with the opinion that learning a new language would support a child's cognitive development. She and her husband unanimously believed and agreed to raise at least bilingual children because of its numerous positive effects on children's language development. She added that she has never seen any disadvantage in learning two or more languages simultaneously, but it could only be challenging and requires a commitment.

Moreover, when I asked if she would want her children to speak and understand English and French equally as they grow, she responded that it would be her utmost desire as a human that knows the benefits associated with speaking more than one language to witness her children become master of both languages, she emphasized that she and her husband had tried to provide an adequate environment, required materials like dual language books, dual language dictionary, etc., physical

availability to assist and every other parental support that would propel their kids to know and to speak the two languages equally and fluently as they grow. She was very active in the home with her older child regarding reading. She encouraged her daughters to read by reading together with them. Ada mentioned that since she and her husband were also fluent in Norwegian, whenever their children had homework, especially during the weekends, they would do the homework together in Norwegian, her husband would do and explain the same assignment in English, and she would do the same in French. According to reports from their teachers, that strategy had helped their kids in their school performances.

Moreso, when I asked how the interviewee and her husband support their children reading skills and how often it takes place, she responded that they bought several interesting and easy-to-read English children's books from online shops according to their ages, including some French/English books. My husband reads with our children every evening except when he is out of town; my nine-year-old daughter can read very well, unlike my six years old second daughter, so my husband mostly gave our first daughter some reading tasks and asked her to explain to him what she read after. Still, my husband would read to our second daughter and ask her to repeat accordingly. Due to the nature of my job, I only assisted my kids in reading French story books and some French fairy tales during the weekends, said the interviewee. She gladly confessed that her first daughter could read English and French, and her second child could at least recite English and French alphabets. They have a separate study room for the kids, equipped with a beautiful bookshelf, white /blackboard, desktop computer, and other attractive reading materials; her husband, a lecturer, often reads there so the children can emulate the reading habit of their father.

She further said they do not often practice new vocabulary with their children. Still, whenever the children, especially her first daughter, found some words she could not understand or explain, she would quickly ask her father if the question was from an English book, or she would ask her mother if it was from French readers and the whole strategies have been working very good for the family according to the interviewee.

What effort does your family make to support your kids' listening ability? I questioned. The participant stated that being an active listener when communicating with your children is an essential skill to practice. I and my husband always give thorough attention to our children during any form of conversation; eye contact is important, we minimized distractions like cell phone when interacting with our children, said the participant. Interestingly, observe a form of nature walk on

weekend within their neighbourhood, where the parents spend time talking with their children in details about things they see, touch, and hear such as rain, leaves, and birds. She further responded that her kids are allowed to watch TV for at least one hour every day, mainly English and Norwegian kids' programs, cartoons, and documentaries; she further emphasized that she and her husband made sure they scrutinize whatever their children watch and listen to daily to ensure they watch educative programs and television programs that fall within their age limits. The parents also bought iPad for their kids, including desktop computers where they downloaded parental control apps. The family watches English and Norwegian movies together, mainly on Saturdays, and occasionally they watch French home movies. The husband downloaded much music they play and dance to together at home and in the car, like Christian music, hip-up, R&B, reggae, and country music, which is her husband's favourite. As a Christian family, we pray with the kids before they go to bed, whereas the interviewee said my husband and I pray mainly in English and French, respectively.

When I asked if she worked on the accent or pronunciation of her kids, she replied that her husband attempted that, but she believed that the children would acquire such skills from the programs they watch on tv and also through watching and listening to them as parents. During dinner time discussions, she would talk about her experience at the hospital, her husband would also talk about his own experience, and they would ask their children to talk about their experiences and what they learned in school. During that process, the parents could correct any spoken or grammatical errors they observed, especially from their second daughter, who sometimes combined both English and French words in a sentence. As Christians and a prayerful family, we only involved our children in our daily prayer routine in English and French. Today I could boldly speak French, no matter how small, to my children at the malls or in the presence of visitors, and they would understand; I am proud of that, said the interviewee.

In conclusion, she added that due to insecurity in Cameroon, they could not visit her home country so that her children could interact and relate more with her parents and relatives in a French-speaking environment. Still, they also visited Paris during their vacations. The interviewee said that raising children bi or multilingually requires a lot of sacrifices, commitment, patience, and finances. Conclusively, when I asked how she and her husband supported their children's writing ability and what language(s) the children usually write with, she answered that when her first daughter was younger, they bought a lot of English trace books and a trace book on French alphabets including other trace materials, those materials helped improve her daughters' writing skills and some French

English spelling books. My husband playfully assisted our children with writing homework, spelling, and dictation. Sometimes prizes would be attached to the winner to boost the exercise, said the interviewee. She further emphasized that her husband also used the black and white board in their study to teach their children how to write, draw and label some items, such as parts of the body and some domestic things. However, the interviewee concluded that at home, she and her husband had provided the materials their kids require to practice writing at home in Norwegian, English, and their mother tongue.

3.4.Participant C

This interviewee was 41 years old when this interview was conducted. She came from Poland with her husband and two children a boy and a girl. The boy was nine years old, and the girl was eight years old, both in their third and second grade respectively at their school. Her husband originally came from the central region of Ghana where they speak the Twi language as their mother tongue, but their official language is English. Her husband came to Poland in 2010 for studies, they got married in Poland in 2013 and they moved to Norway in September 2020. Therefore, they have lived in Norway for about two years and three months. The interviewee had a Business Management degree from one of the Universities in Poland and was an athlete and a swimmer when she was in high school, and she represented her city and country in several sports competitions all over the world. Thus, she was able to learn how to speak English so she could uphold and advance in her sports career internationally. Due to her involvement in sports, she could not practice her academic profession as a Business Manager. The interviewee and her husband mostly speak the English language to each other and their children, though her husband could speak and understand Polish, they chose to speak English in the home so their children could learn how to speak English faster. According to the interviewee, her two kids started talking very early. Her son started talking at year two and her daughter started talking at one year and eight months, so both children had some Polish language background before coming to Norway. What language(s) do your children respond to you and your husband whenever you talk to them, I asked, and she responded that her children mostly respond to her in Polish because she occasionally speaks Polish to them, but to their father they respond accordingly. When we arrived here in September 2020, luckily for us in October our children were given a place at school and within six months, they were already speaking Norwegian. Therefore, in different contexts, my children were able to speak different languages, for instance, to their school friends and Norwegian-speaking friends, they speak Norwegian, to our Polish friends and families around and in Poland, they communicate in Polish and to my husband's family in Ghana and English-speaking friends and families around, they speak English, I am proud of that said the interviewee.

When I questioned about the attitude she and her have towards bilingualism and why, she answered that they have a strong positive attitude to bilingualism because is associated with a lot of benefits such as:

- Emotional benefits: it encourages communication with the extended families, Parents especially mothers always feel better to express their emotions and feelings to their children in their mother tongue.
- Cognitive benefits: Early bilingual training enhances the ability of a child to concentrate on mental tasks especially when it involves creative thinking or solving mathematical problems, bilingual children develop stronger skills in any language they speak.
- Social benefits: The ability to speak multiple languages provides job opportunities, bilinguals have a better opportunity to obtain information from various sources without stress, and bilingual children could easily make friends and interact freely with children from another language background.
- Cultural benefits: Bilingual children have a better opportunity to understand other cultures
 than monolinguals because a deep understanding of a language helps in knowing the culture
 of that language.

Then I asked her if they as parents would like their children to speak and understand these two or three languages equally, if the answer is yes, what have they done or what would they do to make it possible, she responded that for Polish language skills, their kids were registered to a special Polish school here in Norway which they attend to every first and last Saturdays of each month to enhance and strengthen their Polish-speaking and writing skills, they travelled to Poland from time especially she and her children, her parents, and her sibling's family also visited from time to time. To support their English-speaking skills, her husband invests quality time amidst his tight job schedules to work on their children's word pronunciation, spelling, and how to construct a sentence and answer questions without mixing languages, he tells the children a lot of Ghanian historical stories including their family history and asked them to some questions from the stories. He also

bought some books like bible story books, historical books, morals, and some educational books for the children to support their speaking skills.

During our dinner time discussion, we focused on how our daily activities went, as a swimming instructor, I always have stories from work to spice up our discussion, our children would be asked to discuss their activities in school, their new friends if there was any, what they learned, we would also discuss future events like next summer activities and vacations, my husband would crack us up with myth stories and finally, we discuss their homework which is in Norwegian because I speak Norwegian as well said the interviewee. She emphasized her son's smartness both in school activities as commended by his teachers and at home. As such, he sometimes assisted in correcting some of his younger sister's spoken errors. As a gradual process, she believed that her children would gain vocabulary through TV programs and listening to their parents. However, since her children love to hear stories about their background and family history, they always feel free to share their stories with their children especially stories that serve a positive purpose, not unflattering or inappropriate stories that might be perceived negatively. In addition, the interviewee and her husband tried their best to be good listeners to their children, avoiding any form of distraction like cell phone during discussion. Avoiding such distractions during family interaction might be challenging but it's a sacrifice which has produce positive effect on their children. In addition, the parents used short sentences to make expressions clear when they wanted to give direction to their children, which they increased the length as their children grew older. They also tried to use questions that require more than a 'yes' or 'no' answer, which would assist the children to talk and respond more openly.

However, when I asked what language their children watch television, listen to music, and how often it takes place, she responded that they watch tv programs in English, Polish, and in Norwegian depending on what interests them. For instance, her son loves watching football with his father, science documentaries, and cartoon series while her daughter loves watching Norwegian kid's movies and much of cartoon series. They are permitted to watch tv for at least one hour or two every day but more on weekends. They love listening to traditional music from Ghana and other African countries, Christian music, and other interesting music in both languages mainly during the weekends. The kids both have iPad where we downloaded a series of educational programs, and

interesting brain teaser games and installed parental control app so that their parents could monitor and control what they watch and listen to behind them.

Additionally, when I asked what language their children used for writing, she answered that they used Norwegian in writing their homework and other school activities, and in texting their Norwegian-speaking friends, but at the home, with their father, they tried to write in English. The son can recite and write both Polish and English alphabets off-hand without any help except with spelling but the daughter needed some help with both writing and spelling, so she often assisted her daughter to write in Polish while her husband assisted the daughter to write in English language using a white and blackboard in their children's study room, use games, puzzles, and other activities to make writing and spelling practice fun and engaging. For example, one can create word search puzzles, play spelling bees, or use spelling apps. after which we gave them an assignment, any written error from the assignment would either be corrected orally or back to the writing board depending on the magnitude of the error. It is very important state here that assisting children with writing and spelling requires patience, consistency, and a supportive approach. By using a variety of strategies, one can help their children develop strong spelling skills and build confidence in their academic abilities in school and in the home.

3.5.Participant D

The interviewee was 29 years old when I conducted the interview. She is a single mother who moved to Norway ten years ago to further her education. She is originally from Uganda and studied History and International Relations at a University in Uganda before moving to Norway for her master's degree in 2012. Her daughter was five years and a half and in kindergarten.

What Language do you speak to your daughter, and what Language does your daughter use to respond to your conversation? Secondly, do the Language (s) you talk to your daughter change on different occasions or places? I asked. She answered that she speaks English and her mother tongue to her daughter, and her daughter always responds to her in English now. Yes, I tried to talk to my daughter in my mother tongue whenever the message I wished to pass was for her consumption alone, especially at the shop, inside a bus, on a train, or wherever we were in a gathering place with different individuals around At such occasions, I would not expect a verbal response from her but a reactive reaction because I knew she could not respond in my mother tongue. Still, through her reactive response, I would be convinced that she understood me, also because I have always told

my daughter to always respond to me according to the Language I used for her, said the interviewee. But at home, according to the interviewee, she communicates with her child in English and sparingly in Norwegian. She further explained that she came from a small town in the Northern territory of Uganda. The official Language in Uganda is the English Language. They have two mother tongues within the Northern region, which she speaks and understands fluently, but her mother tongue is the Acholi Language, the mother tongue she talks to her child.

When I asked about her attitude towards bilingualism and if bilingualism can affect a child's academic development negatively from her understanding, she responded that bilingualism is a good thing, especially for growing children. Researchers should recommend it to all parents. According to the interviewee, bilingualism, or the ability to speak two or more languages, can have numerous benefits for children, and some of the benefits include:

- Enhance cognitive development: Learning and using two languages can help children develop strong cognitive skills, including problem-solving, memory, attention, and flexibility.
- Improve communication skills: Bilingual children can communicate with a broader range
 of people and cultures, which can help them develop strong communication skills and
 cultural competence.
- More fantastic academic achievement: Research has linked bilingualism to improve academic achievement, including higher grades and test scores, improved reading comprehension, and increased creativity.
- Increase cultural awareness and empathy: Bilingual children could learn about and appreciate different cultures and perspectives, which can help them develop greater empathy and understanding toward others.
- Improve career opportunities: In an increasingly globalized world, bilingualism is becoming
 an increasingly valuable skill in the workplace. Bilingual individuals have a more
 comprehensive range of career opportunities and may earn higher salaries than monolingual
 individuals.

She explained further that she believed that whatever has numerous advantages could also be associated with some disadvantages, and we should not exempt bilingualism from that idea. According to her, some bilingual parents complain about language delays in their children and

language mixing. However, she witnessed them in her child but did not consider those scenarios harmful because some monolingual children also exhibit language delays. Many individuals are polyglots, which is the ability to speak more than five languages fluently. Research has established that children can learn and accommodate more than two languages simultaneously, said the interviewee. She emphasized that raising bilingual children could be challenging, involve finance, and be time-consuming initially; thus, it requires tolerance, patience, commitment, and sacrifice. I asked if she, as a parent, would like her daughter to speak and understand English and her mother tongue equally, including the Language of the environment. She answered that every patent would like that. Still, in her case, she would love her daughter to have the basic knowledge of Acholi so she can at least communicate with her or her siblings in Uganda when necessary but speak and understand English fluently as a recognized international language. Thus, she puts in her effort accordingly. The Language of the environment is Norwegian; facts convince her that her child will speak and understand it fluently because she is living and studying the Language and would live with it as she grows unless she decides to relocate tomorrow.

Then, when I asked how she supports her daughter's speaking skills, the interviewee responded that she started early to teach her child word pronunciation using pictures and diagrams; even when her daughter was not talking very well, she kept doing it. I read many children's story books to my child before bed, like bible story books, comic books with pictograms, and other recommended children's books, which she always pays attention to and asks questions, when necessary, said the interviewee. She tried her best to avoid lectures whenever she wanted her child to listen and understand what she is telling her. According to the interviewee, she and her daughter pray together every night before sleeping, and some nights, she asks her daughter to pray and then corrects her spoken errors. She further said that during their dinner time discussion, mainly on weekends, she would encourage her daughter to repeat all the things the interviewee taught her during the week, tell her about her friends at school and what they learned in school, to make the discussion lively and engaging, the mother would ask her child to mention the things her daughter wanted and the kind of toys her daughter would like her mother to buy for her, after the discussion, we might either play games together or watch movies. That strategy has worked for us, she said. As for vocabulary, she only does a little for now because of her daughter's age, but she can correct her wrong pronunciation or when she mixes Language and asks her to repeat as many times as possible.

How often does your child watches television and listens to music, in what Language, and what other audio-visual appliances does your child use? The interviewee explained that she regulates her child's screen hours between one and a half hours to two hours daily. She mainly watches in English and Norwegian, depending on which she wants, primarily cartoon series and children's movie series. Sometimes she plays games and music with her iPad installed with the parental control app. We listened to a lot of music in English, Norwegian, and my mother tongue via YouTube. As Christians, we attend church every Sunday, listening to Christian music in different languages, said the interviewee.

Finally, how do you engage your child to read and write, what Language does your child use when reading and writing, and where do you obtain the reading materials? She said her child needs more time to start writing better. Still, she loves shading and painting, but recently she bought some trace writing materials in English alphabets for her, not in Acholi, because both languages have different alphabets. She would not want to confuse her child with such. Calling her daughter to read or write has never been a challenge because they have a timetable for everything; she does not disturb or call her child to read whenever she is playing or utilizing her screen hours. But when it is reading and writing time, she gives in her full attention. They read, trace, and write in her daughter's room before bedtime or at the dining table. For the reading materials, the interviewee said she had subscribed to an online library called Go booking (gobooking.no), where she gets all the books she wanted. In addition, she noted that Go booking is suitable for parents with children because they always recommend the relevant and latest books to the parents according to the ages of their registered children with adequate updates, which could be difficult for some parents to discover by themselves.

3.6.Participant E

The interviewee was 42 years old. She had a bachelor's degree in business administration from one of the universities in Croatia and a master's degree in Hospitality and Tourism Management from a Norwegian University. The participant moved to Norway seven years ago. She had three children, two sons and a daughter, ages eighteen, six, and three. For this study, the interviewer will not consider her eighteen-year-old son; the focus would be on her six-year-old son in first grade and her three-year-old daughter in kindergarten. The interviewee's husband is originally from the South-eastern part of Nigeria but has lived and worked in Croatia for about twenty years. She speaks

Croatia, English, and a little Norwegian. Her husband's mother tongue is Igbo, but their official language is English; therefore, every family member of her husband can speak and understand their official language.

When I asked her the language, she and her husband communicate to each other and their children, the language(s) their children talked to each other and their parents, she responded that they agreed to speak English to their kids because they wanted them to be bilingual at least but to foster communication between her children and her relatives in Croatia, she speaks both English and Croatia to them. In turn, they respond according to the communication language because I told my kids to always respond to me with the same language I used for them, so with that strategy, I could correct their spoken errors said the participant. Still, at school or with other Norwegian-speaking children and friends around, my son speaks Norwegian.

When I asked the participant about her and her husband's attitude toward bilingualism, she replied that bilingualism has a lot of benefits, especially early bilingualism. She explained that having a solid first language or mother tongue is very important; it fosters a relationship between the children and their mother, especially whoever is their primary caregiver; early bilingualism positively affects children's language development. It nourishes the brain, enhances cognitive, social, and emotional development, and creates opportunities for a child's successful learning. In addition, the participant emphasized that her younger sister, who studied French Linguistics in Paris, said the best period to learn a foreign or second language is the childhood stage; usually, children who experience more than one language at an early stage become natives of both. Similarly, bilingual children and adults can engage in distinguished brain functioning, which helps them switch between tasks, shift attention and find solutions to difficulties.

When I asked if the interviewee and her husband would like their kids to speak and understand English and her mother tongue equally, if yes, what are your efforts to make it possible? She answered that every parent would like that. She only tried teaching her kids English and Croatian at home with her husband by consistently communicating and engaging with them in like manner, providing the necessary materials like children's storybooks/audio-visual appliances according to their ages, traveling to their countries regularly, creating a conducive learning environment for their ages and investing adequate time amidst their job schedules to actualize their desire. Her eighteen years older son speaks English, Croatian, and Norwegian; as such, he helps his younger siblings

too. She further explained that her younger sister, a linguist and a teacher at an English international school in Norway, provides adequate materials and information that would make their children's language development faster. However, the respondent said, in addition to the strategies mentioned above, that she and her husband agreed to transfer their kids to one of the English international schools around their location whenever each of them finishes grade three in Norwegian primary school; with that, they could be active in the language of the environment (Norwegian) as well.

How often do you and your husband encourage your children to read, and in which language(s)? The interviewer asked. The participant responded that they encourage and read with their children as often as possible, not very precisely because of their jobs, the ages of the children, and their interests. However, they mainly read with the children in their study room on weekends and before bed during the week. The participant said that her kids, especially the second son, enjoy reading along with her as they point at every word they mention; during the reading process, her son would ask questions at intervals, and she would use different pictures and pictograms to explain to encourage and make him happy. They only read English storybooks now, and the children asked their questions in the same language; they bought some of the books from online shops, and her younger sister supplied them with some reading materials as well; we have some Croatian children's books too, but because English and Croatian have different alphabets, we do not practice reading with it now to avoid confusing our children, said the participant.

To improve your children's speaking skills, do you work on their accents or pronunciation? I asked; she answered yes, mainly her son, who mixes English, Croatian, and Norwegian words in a sentence. Because she understands that language mixing is one of the associated challenges with raising bilingual children, she would always be there to help her children separate the words, correct the children's constant spoken errors and ask them to repeat severally after. During their dinner-time discussion, mainly on weekends, with her younger sister sometimes, they discuss many family-related issues, their children's school activities within the week, and the events for the new week, especially where it concerns their children. They sometimes watch a comedy or play table games and seize the opportunity to make video calls and interact with their extended families abroad. The parents often use the chance to guide and correct their children's linguistic errors like wrong word pronunciation, language mixing, and other spoken errors in Croatian or English. The participant

said they believed their children would gain some vocabulary through watching movies and listening to their parents as they grow; thus, they need not work on that now.

How often do your children watch television and listen to music, and in what language? The respondent answered that her children watched TV in Norwegian, English, or Croatian daily; she tried to regulate the duration between one and two hours, but they usually tended beyond that hour. They watch cartoon series and other exciting children's tv programs; due to their age difference, their watch interests differ, and they do not watch the same kind of program simultaneously; to avoid quarrels between who took over the television remote control first and the other, their parents had to buy a desktop and an iPad so their kids can play their choice games and watch their interested educational programs. For music, my children listen and dance with their daddy, who always plays African hip-up and Christian music in English and Igbo; I also love African music because they are interesting, the participant said and laughed.

When I asked what language(s) her children write in, she said her son writes in English and Norwegian but not very fluently; he writes his homework and every other school writing activity in Norwegian, and to his Norwegian-speaking friends around if he wishes to text any. The three-year-old daughter has not started writing; she can only shade, paint, and trace writing. So, they provided some trace materials for her in English as they did to their son when he was three. Their study room has different writing materials like black and whiteboards and their respective marker, which the parents use to teach them the alphabet and word spelling. Due to the difference in English, Norwegian and Croatian alphabets, they only focus on English and Norwegian now.

3.7.Participant F

This participant was 32 years old. She had her first degree, and master's in veterinary medicine from one of the universities in England, where she lived for over ten years. She originally came from Norway. The interviewee's husband was originally from Scotland. She and her husband studied together in England, after which they married. They had two girls and a boy aged eight, five, and two years old, respectively. The oldest daughter was in grade three, and the second daughter and the last boy were in kindergarten. At home, the interviewee and her husband speak English. When I questioned the language or languages she and her husband communicate to their children within the home and if their language of communication changes with time and location. The participant answered that they tried to continue with English mainly. However, she and her

husband recently decided on a strategy; she would particularly speak Norwegian to their kids. Her husband would speak only English since the husband, who was taking a Norwegian course then, could not speak fluent Norwegian. According to the interviewee, when it became challenging to maintain their agreed strategy, especially with her husband, they decided to be flexible with their agreement to mix English with Norwegian at home. But whenever they are with Norwegian family and friends or within a Norwegian gathering, they would speak Norwegian; and they would speak English with their English-speaking family and friends, especially her husband's family in Scotland or during vacations.

When I asked about her and her husband's attitude to bilingualism, in response, she said that bilingualism is essential, especially in this generation. She fondly said; if she were not speaking English in England, she would not have met her husband. She further emphasized that being bilingual can:

- Enhance brain power; thus, it improves children's multitasking skills, creativity, and problem-solving abilities; it encourages outside-the-box thinking.
- Bilingualism improves children's educational development, social skills, cognitive functions, emotional skills, literacy, and self-confidence.
- Enhance awareness of other cultures; bilingualism exposes people to diverse ideas, customs, and perspectives from different cultures.
- Bilingualism makes travel more accessible and enjoyable.

She further said that parents could better raise their children bilingual to allow them to acknowledge the usefulness of their culture and heritage and develop a stronger personal identity, especially if their language of communication at home differs from the language at school. The participant and her husband generally had a positive attitude toward bilingualism. Thus, they would love their children to speak as many languages as possible.

Would you and your husband desire your kids to speak and understand both languages equally? If yes, what effort have you made to make your desire possible? The interviewer asked, and she responded that it was important to them that their kids be able to speak, understand, read, and write English and Norwegian equally. She said that she and her husband encourage their children to read and read with them, especially their second daughter; their first daughter, in grade three, had started

reading in both languages as she quickly learned the two languages. They ensured that their children read every day. They provided many English books from England and through online shops according to their kids' ages. The books were mainly short picture books, fairy tales, and family stories. Her older daughter loves reading and sometimes assisted her younger siblings with reading, and the participant was very proud of that achievement. During their reading exercise, her younger daughter asks many questions as she listens to her daddy or mummy read and point at the wordings. However, her older daughter also asked them for clarification whenever she encountered difficult words or sentences that she could not understand in both languages. The participant mentioned that bilingualism had made her daughter intelligent and outstanding in school, as commended by her teachers; because her older daughter had gotten a background in these two languages, they majorly supported her with the necessary materials and attention she desired, unlike the younger ones. They used flashcards for vocabulary development.

Then when I asked if they have a permanent reading place and how they got their reading materials, she replied that she and her husband had a lot of books from their childhood, which they had kept up till now, and they mostly read those books to their kids. In addition to the above, they bought some more updated books from England and through online shops for her older child, they also borrow from the city library. She added that they have a study room with shelves where they keep all the reading and writing materials, but they could read at any quiet and convenient place within their house, and her first child mostly reads in her room.

How do you and your husband support your kid's speaking skills, including their accent and pronunciation? She responded that they do not work on their kids' accents because she and her husband believe their accents will improve as they grow older. They observe family dinnertime, during which they discuss what happened during the day and at school; they also seize that opportunity to correct their children's wrong pronunciation. Most times, they would call and interact with their relatives in the United Kingdom.

How often do your kids watch television, and what language or languages? She responded that their children watch television every day in Norwegian and English. Her younger children watch mostly cartoons but different series according to their ages, but her oldest child watches action movies in addition to cartoons. They manage both educational and entertaining programs. The kids listen to and dance to adult music, mainly during the weekends, with their parents in English and Norwegian.

The parents provided iPad and ex-box for their children to watch and play with. The participant and her husband love singing and know a lot of songs as choir members that they sing to their kids every day, with her husband playing the keyboard. Moreso, she added that her children enjoy listening to the songs and the stories they read to them. She mainly read Norwegian storybooks, and her husband read English storybooks; she concluded that her husband knew many tales and histories from the United Kingdom, and their kids enjoyed listening.

When I questioned the language their kids write in and how they encourage their children's writing skills. she answered that her oldest daughter writes in both languages but frequently in Norwegian, especially her homework. She continued that her two younger children at the kindergarten have yet to start writing very well; they provided some trace writing materials and often assisted them in tracing accurately. Since her second daughter could read Norwegian and English alphabets off-hand through cartoon educational programs, writing will not be an issue.

3.8.Participant G

The participant was 34 years old. She had a bachelor's degree in hospitality and Tourism Management from one of the universities in Poland. She worked as a hotel manager for six years before moving permanently to Norway. The interviewee met her Norwegian husband at her workplace (the hotel) when he came to Poland for a vacation. They have four boys, ages eight, six, and four years old; the last boy was six months old. Her oldest son was in grade three, the second in first grade, and the third son in kindergarten. The participant at the time of this interview was a full-time master's degree student at one of the universities in Norway. When I asked her the language(s) she and her husband speak at home and the language(s) they communicate with their children. She responded that she communicates with her husband in English since her husband cannot speak her tongue; the interviewee did not want to talk Norwegian to her husband at home because she felt she could not speak the language very well though she had concluded her Norwegian language course. To their kids, their language of communication was English, Norwegian, and Polish. According to the participant, she and her husband planned to move to the United States of America with their children after ten years; thus, they agreed to raise their kids bilingually with English as a priority. But that decision was reversed two years back when her husband got his desired job. For the sake of my aged parents and siblings in Poland, who do not speak or understand English or any other language except Polish, to make my children Polish speakers as well. I communicate with my kids in Polish and a little English, and my husband talks to them in English and a little Norwegian; I encouraged my children to always respond to us in the language we use for them so we can listen to them and correct their spoken errors, when necessary, said the participant. So far, the strategy has produced good results. Now, the children can communicate with their parents in their preferred languages, the maternal and Polish friends and relatives around with the Polish language, their paternal, school, and Norwegian family and friends around with Norwegian, said the proud mother.

When the interviewer asked her and her husband's attitude toward bilingualism, she responded that being able to speak more languages than your mother tongue when you live in your homeland or able to speak your mother and other languages when you are outside your land especially the language or languages of the country you lived in, had been of tremendously help even to herself. It has also helped her sons to establish a better friendship with other children within the neighbourhood, at school, and in Poland during our vacations. She further explained that her kid's ability to communicate in Polish had always made her parent's and siblings' visit to Norway happy. However, the interviewee believed that bi or multilingualism had shown a hugely positive effect on their children's language and educational development. When her oldest son was three at kindergarten, his teachers complained that he could not talk or communicate properly regarding his age and mates; The child was referred to several health agencies by the kindergarten authority, and as of today, that same boy who could not communicate like his mates had won the best student in his class, and the best in Mathematics for three consecutive times. She showed trophies. The participant believed that the human brain has a substantial capacity to accommodate or absorb a considerable amount of information; the more a person learns, the more the brain capacity increases. Then I asked if she or her husband would ever put any pressure on their kids to learn anything; she laughed and said her sons, especially the oldest learn whatever he wishes to learn without any form of pressure from the parents; however, they as parents would always be there to ensure he leans what would benefit him. They tried to provide whatever their children needed to acquire new knowledge in their language and academic development. The interviewee will do her best to support her children's language development, especially to keep these three languages simultaneously concerning speaking, listening, reading, and writing. However, their focus needed to be more on reading and writing.

The interviewer asked how and what the participant and her husband do to support their children's reading skills. She responded thus, firstly, she and her husband encouraged the children, especially their oldest son, to read by reading with them books of their interest, mainly in English and Norwegian. Secondly, she made sure they read at least one or two hours every day, including herself as a master's degree student. She would read aloud and point at the wordings for her younger sons, who always pay attention and ask questions about their reading. Her oldest son could read alone, but she prepares the environment, provides the reading materials, and politely ensures he reads at least different things daily. They have yet to start reading Polish books. They read children's storybooks, adventurous books, bible storybooks, historical books, poems, academic colour, alphabetical, and numerical books for little children. Sometimes, to encourage the children, the participant, and her children would put on their costumes and dramatize the characters they read. Through that strategy, she believed that her children would learn better and faster, and the design has also been a motivator whenever they wish to read. While dramatizing the reading characters, the older sons would ask as many questions as possible about the issues they could not understand. Due to her oldest son's fast learning and language development, they have yet to put much effort into correcting his speaking or word pronunciation errors because he would try to fix the mistakes or wrong wordings by himself. For vocabulary development, they used flashcards to practice new vocabulary, particularly in Norwegian. In addition, she also planned to register her children in a Polish school around their locality, where her Polish friend's children attend every second Saturday of the month; with help from the Polish school, her children's Polish skills would be strengthened.

Where and how do you and your husband get the reading materials for your children? The interviewer asked, and the participant responded that due to her status as a student at the university, she borrows a lot of children's books from the library in English and Norwegian, also when she or her husband come across any exciting children's books online, they would try to acquire it. She further emphasized that her mother-in-law, a primary school teacher sends many books to their kids through the post office or whenever she visits. They have a well-furnished study room, but often, they read at the dining table, except for their oldest son, who enjoys reading in his room or any quiet corner of the house.

How often do your kids watch television, in what language or languages, and what programs? I asked, and she replied that they watch children's cartoon series, puzzle games, and other educational

children's programs in the three languages. They watch television for about an hour or two daily, but whenever her mother-in-law comes around, she ensures they stay on the screen within one hour. The oldest son enjoys watching wrestling and football like his father. However, due to their children's age difference and choices of a program at a particular time, the parents provided an iPad so each of the children could choose their watch preferences to avoid problems. The participant and her family observe family dinner-time discussions, discussing family and friends, school activities, games, holidays, and vacation plans. The parents also seize the opportunity to listen and correct any observed errors from their children; they could also call and discuss with their paternal and maternal grandparents. They always discuss in English and Norwegian except when discussing with their Polish relatives. The most frequent speaking errors they observed from their kids were language mixing, mispronunciation of words, and faulty sentence construction. She and her husband use the same style to correct their children's mistakes by telling the kids to repeat the corrected pronunciation severally after them. The family listens and dances to American, Norwegian, and Polish music via YouTube, particularly on weekends.

In conclusion, when the interviewer asked how she and her husband support their children's writing skills, the interviewee replied that her sons, especially her first and second sons write their homework in Norwegian or whenever they wish to write their paternal grandparents to any of their Norwegian-speaking friends. They write in English to other family and friends outside of Polish. According to the participant, she had done little or nothing to support their Polish writing skills since she believed they would learn it when they join the weekend Polish school. With their younger children, the parents tried to teach them how to write the English and Norwegian alphabets using some trace writing materials they bought from online shops. Norwegian and English alphabets are different, though they share a lot in common with different pronunciations. In addition, the family engages in various activities like games, spelling competitions, and a quiz with attached prizes to practice writing. They made every necessary writing material available to foster their children's Norwegian and English writing skills, such as black and whiteboards and marker for writing and drawing in the home.

3.9. Participant H

This 36-year-old interviewee had a bachelor's degree in mechanical engineering from one of the universities in Serbia. The interviewee married her husband in Serbia shortly before moving to Norway; she moved to Norway in 2012 to further her studies. Fortunately for the participant, she got permanent employment with one of the oil industries during her one-year stay in Norway, after which her husband joined her in 2013 through family unification. The participant's husband studied Dentistry at one of the universities in Ukraine and had worked as a dentist. They have three children, one girl and two boys, and their ages are nine, seven, and three years old, respectively. The oldest child was in grade three, the first son was in grade one, and the last was in kindergarten. The participant and her husband were from Serbia; thus, they spoke only Serbian at home when they were alone without children. The interviewee speaks English, Serbian, and Norwegian, courtesy of her employer. Her husband could also speak English, Serbian, and a little Norwegian. When the family started having children, they decided to communicate with their kids in English and Serbian at home. They believed their children would speak and understand Norwegian from school and friends as they grew up. The oldest daughter speaks and understands the two languages; therefore, she can always respond to her parents in the same language they use. The two sons speak and understand English more than Serbian; thus, they communicate with their parents or respond to them in English even when they talk in Serbian.

Would you and your husband want your children to speak and understand English and Serbian Equally? And why? She replied that she did not believe it would be possible for their kids to have equal knowledge of English and Serbian, including the language of their environment. Even if that could be possible with extra effort and commitment, she and her husband would not force such on their children for any reason. They only wanted their kids to have the basic knowledge of their ancestral language so they could exchange pleasantries with family and friends at home when necessary. For that reason, the family made a routine that every member of their family must speak or talk to each other in Serbian on Saturdays, unless when they have visitors that do not speak or understand Serbian. Though the strategy did not well with her two younger sons at the beginning. The participant further confessed that whenever any of her children forgets the routine and talk to her in English or Norwegian on Saturdays, she would funnily be mopping at that child until he/she realizes the mistake and make a correction. She emphasized that the strategy truly drew their children closer to Serbian, and also exposed a lot of spoken errors which she and her husband

happily corrected. They tried to focus more on English because the participant and her husband believed English is a generalized international language. She gave an instance that she got her job with the oil company because she could speak fluent English. Thus, we would wish our children to be more fluent in English.

When I asked the participant if her language of communication with her children changes with place and time, she said yes, when she wanted the discussion to be for her children's consumption alone, especially with her oldest child. She tends to communicate with her in Serbian whenever they are in the midst of other individuals, like inside the bus or train, in the shop, and sometimes when visitors are home. She further emphasized that a good knowledge of one's mother tongue guarantees a strong family bond and fosters cultural development, especially when both parents have the same mother tongue. As she said earlier, they always encouraged their kids to speak Serbian but never to force or overload them. However, whatever their children need to become, at least bilinguals, would be made available.

When I asked about the participant and her husband's attitude to bilingualism and their reason, her response was that it pays to be bilingual; the ability to speak more than one language provides.

- More job opportunities because communication is essential in the workplace, and more
 companies, particularly those with international offices, consider bilingualism a high
 priority. Bilingualism boosts a child's language development skills; learning a second
 language creates a proper understanding of how language works and gives motivation and
 room to learn more and more languages.
- Bilingualism improves social life; speaking more than one language creates social opportunities and enhances self-confidence.
- Bilingualism makes someone stay mentally longer and stronger; the interviewee said, according to her husband, a dentist, the brains of bilingual individuals age more slowly, and they live more satisfying and longer lives.
- Being bilingual gives academic advantages to children; it improves their educational development, emotional fitness, social and cognitive skills, which would better their living for many years.

In conclusion, she said that having the knowledge of the associated benefits of bilingualism, they have a positive attitude towards bilingualism. The respondent further stated that she and her husband might not boast of keeping the two languages simultaneously because their kids only learn from them and, occasionally, via Serbian television programs, they experience little or no contact with other Serbian families around their environment that could boost their Serbian skills. Their children's daily communication and interactions are mainly in Norwegian and English. Besides, Serbian has a challenging and entirely different alphabet from English and Norwegian. Thus, it could be uneasy to maintain English and their mother tongue simultaneously today, but their children can decide otherwise in the future.

How do you and your spouse support your children's reading skills? In what language or languages do they read, and how often? She responded that she and her spouse encourage their children to read every day, mainly in the evenings. As of today, their kids read English books at home, including their Norwegian school reading items. Her oldest daughter reads a little in Serbian. She always read with her children, especially the last child; I tried to point and mention every word as I read with him, and sometimes he enjoyed it loud and repeated after me, said the participant. Her older children can read independently; she only assisted and guided them on the necessary books to read and assisted them with difficult words and explanations. Since their kids read English books, they also ask their parents related questions in the same language. However, she mostly answered their questions using both languages; for instance, after answering them in English, she would also explain the same answer in Serbian. On weekends, their father would read and play Xbox with them. The parents shared similar ways of attending to their kids' questions and correcting their wrong wordings.

Do your kids have a particular reading place, what type of book, and how do you obtain their reading materials? She replied that they had a beautiful study room, but her children reluctantly read there except on weekends with their father. They often utilized the seating room and the dining table for daily reading. They majorly read historical books for children, educational, fairy tales, and pictograph storybooks for the last child. They also read poems and other interesting books for their age. The family obtains their reading items through online shops, the library, and bookshops within their locality.

In addition, the respondent and her husband worked on their children's accents and pronunciation as well to better their speaking prowess. She emphasized that most of their kid's oral mistakes come from pronunciation and intonation, including language mixing, so they made it a routine always to interrupt and give them accurate pronunciation when necessary and asked them to repeat the correct pronunciation and intonation continuously. During their family dinner time discussion, they would talk about the day's activities, what happened at school, and information from school, if there were any. The children would also utilize the opportunity to tell their parents what they desire for the week. The family could also discuss summer programs and vacations; their daddy sometimes seizes the chance to say about the history of Serbia and their family history. Dinnertime discussions have always allowed this parent to listen and correct their children's spoken errors in both languages. Regarding vocabulary development, they use flashcards to practice new vocabulary and sentence construction, though the participant often assisted her first and second child with oral vocabulary building. The parent also taught their older children how to use a dictionary whenever they encountered any problematic word.

How often do your children watch television and listen to music, and in what language? She said her kids watch cartoons and other exciting TV programs in English and Norwegian daily. They also have iPad and iPhones with parental control regulations for playing arithmetic and other educational games. The family listens to and watches Serbian music on YouTube on weekends.

In conclusion, how have you and your spouse supported your children's writing skills, and in what language? She responded that her older children write in English and Norwegian, depending on what and to whom they write. They wrote their homework in Norwegian and to `their Norwegian-speaking friends. The first daughter always tried to correct herself whenever she wrote wrongly, but sometimes, she would involve her parents for correction. For now, their three-year-old son only shades and paint, and they made all necessary writing materials available to support their kids' writing skills.

3.10. Summary

This chapter summarized the participants family backgrounds and their attitudes toward bilingualism. The strategies they used in encouraging the language skill development of their children in English and their mother tongue, including the language of the environment. These summaries were based on the transcription of the individual responses to the interview questions.

It is worthy to note that efforts have been made to remain as unbiased as possible in presenting these interviewee's responses. These findings will be discussed and compared with other previous research that appeared relevant to this study in detail in the next chapter.

4. **DISCUSSION**

This study aimed to determine the attitudes of parents from various languages, academic, and cultural backgrounds who live and work in Norway toward bilingualism. This interview would review whether the involved parents exhibit either positive or negative attitudes towards bilingualism. The study also investigated the strategies and plans parents employed to foster the language skill development of their children within the home and encourage their children's language learning skills as bilinguals. To achieve the above aims, the researcher chose to focus on language skills, which are the abilities or skills that enable individuals to express their thoughts and coherently communicate with others. It also provides relevance and structure to the information the person wishes to convey to the recipient. Speaking, reading, listening, and writing were the four essential language skills to focus on. Therefore, in order to deliver a thorough response to the two research questions attached to this study, the researcher conducted a semi-structured interview with about eight families with children between the ages of 3 - 6 and 6 - 9 years old who attend Norwegian kindergarten and elementary school, respectively. It would be interesting to note that eight interviewees out of the eight involved families were all mothers, seven of them in agreement with their husbands consented to participate in this study.

The Involved interviewees who voluntarily consented to participate in this study came to Norway from different countries with different mother tongues around the world. Through the responses from the involved parents, a piece of practical information about the actual parental practices within the home to support their children in English and their mother tongue would be exposed for families with a positive attitude to bilingualism. The participant's responses would also expose parents or families who do not support bilingualism or families with negative attitudes to bilingualism; parents' actions and practices in the home towards their children's language development would be influenced by their attitudes towards bilingualism.

This fifth chapter discusses the results or findings from the participant's interviews; the discussion will be established on the content of the interviews. In addition, the discussion is arranged in line with the arrangement of the interview guide. This present section will be in two parts: the general attitude of parents towards bilingualism and parental strategies to support their children's speaking, reading, listening, and writing skills.

4.1.Parental attitudes toward bilingualism

This section will discuss the detailed attitudes of the interviewees toward bilingualism. It is important to repeat the definitions of attitude, according to Vaughan and Hogg (2005:150), as a relatively enduring organization of feelings, behavioural tendencies, and beliefs towards socially outstanding objects, events, groups, symbols, or a general feeling of evaluation (positive or negative) concerning some objects, persons, or issues. Cooper and Fishman (1974), divided attitude in two approaches. Firstly, in terms of its referent, as the attitude towards language, language behaviour, language variety, and language variants; secondly, in terms of their consequences or effects, as those attitudes which influence behaviour towards language. The definitions above suited the primary purpose of this study because they concentrated on feelings, beliefs, and behaviours that parents hold or portray towards groups, objects, or events, which would, in one way or another, influence their attitudes positively or negatively, and difficulties in learning and social status, as learning factors can vary these attitudes. The involvement of feelings, beliefs, and behaviours with the above definitions can be mentalistic, which attributes to the internal attitudes or attitudes in mind. It can also be behavioural, which attributes to the individuals' practical or physical reactions.

The outcome of the interviews indicated that all the participants for example participant C (Polish/Ghana family) had a positive attitude toward bilingualism, with their individual opinions and belief that bilingualism or the ability to speak more than one language would benefit their children in different ways as supporting child's cognitive and mental development, encourage creative thinking or solving mathematical problems, develop more vital skills in any other language or languages, increase cultural awareness and empathy, improve career opportunities, makes travel more accessible and more enjoyable, it establishes friendship, and makes someone stay mentally longer and stronger. In short, the participants regarded bilingualism as having mental/cognitive, social, emotional, and cultural effects on their children's development.

The beliefs of all the participants involved in this study about bilingualism and children's cognitive benefits are in line with Guo and Shushi's (2022:655) literature review study about cognitive benefits of being bilingual for young children. The above source stated that, with respect to cognitive abilities, many researchers have extensively studied the difference between bilingual children and their monolingual counterparts, majority of the researchers focused on the better performances of bilinguals on tasks. They further discussed the prospective cognitive benefits associated with young bilingual children from three different aspects. Firstly, they reviewed the bilingual effects on executive functions, which included working memory, task shifting, and inhibitory control. Secondly, they also reviewed how language abilities are changed as a result of second language acquisition. Finally, they investigated the fundamental mechanism behind the associated cognitive benefits of being bilingual, and the evidence of brain's constitutional changes in bilingual individuals.

All the participants associated with this study indicated a positive attitude toward bilingualism. For example, participant D (single parent from Uganda), in her response, she believed that knowledge of her mother tongue would foster communication and relationship between her child and her country people, and the knowledge of English, which the majority of the participants believed to be a more generalized international language or the leading foreign language in many countries, would create more employment opportunities and improve social life. In connection, Lao (2010) studied parental attitudes toward Chinese-English bilingual education and Chinese language use, where 86 parents who registered their children in Chinese-English bilingual schools in San Francisco were surveyed. The parents were asked about their beliefs on bilingual education, their reason for registering their children with a Chinese-English bilingual school, their attitudes toward bilingual education, and their expectations for their kids and the language environment. It was observed that parents understood the underlying principles and purposes of bilingual education. Thus, they strongly encouraged Chinese-English bilingual education. The parent's significant reasons for registering their kids with Chinese-English bilingual schools were the feasible advantages of being bilingual, for better career opportunities, practical effects on selfimage, and enhanced effective communication within the Chinese-speaking environment. The overall idea of this research conforms with the belief and opinions of most of the participants in this study. Tavil (2009) carried out another research on parental attitudes toward English education for kindergarten children in Turkey. The results of this research indicated that parents

had positive attitudes toward bilingualism. Tavil believed that parental attitudes toward the language affect their children's success in learning the language; other studies also portrayed that parents play a vital role in sustaining their children's language abilities and participating in the success of school and learning. The data collection instrument used for this research was a questionnaire. Forty-six parents who sent their children to kindergarten, which had English education, were randomly selected and classified according to their ages and qualifications as participants. The results of the research indicated that parents' positive attitudes toward bilingualism enhanced the success and motivation of their children to learn a second language. Through the results, parents, similar to the participant F (Norway/Scotland family) in this present study, believed that being bilingual could support their children's communication skills and boost their self-confidence.

Due to the attitude the participants in this study had toward bilingualism, and their eagerness to raise their kids at least bilingually, many of the involved parents sacrificed a lot to maintain the two languages simultaneously, including the language of the environment; however, the majority of the participants gave more preference to the English language because they believed English is the leading foreign language in many countries including Norway. Thus, they put more effort into that direction.

According to most interviewees, speaking and understanding English, the mother tongue, and the language of the environment equally could be unrealistic. Some said they only wanted their children to gain essential communication skills in their mother tongue, so they could be exposed to their country and culture and communicate with their extended families at home, especially their aged parents who might not be speaking Norwegian or English.

However, the involved participants expressed different views about teaching their kids' reading and writing in their mother tongue, except a few that had children between seven and ten years for example participants B and C (Cameroon/ Nigeria and Poland/Ghana families respectively) that provided few reading materials in their mother tongue, which their kids read at their leisure. The interviewees acknowledged that they would love their kids to speak, read and write in English and their mother tongue, but they never wished to force the situation on their children or put them under unnecessary reading/writing pressure at the moment.

As for listening and speaking, all the participants wished their children to speak and understand English and their mother tongue equally, in addition to their kid's daily language of instruction in kindergarten or school. The participants believed their children would learn and explore more as they listened to their parents speak the languages. Thus, six of the participants visited their home country once or twice yearly with their kids so they could interact with the native speakers of their mother tongue, thereby increasing their children listening and speaking skills. To achieve that wish of raising at least bilingual children, the involved parents provided their kids with audiovisual appliances like iPad, iPhones, and tv and applied different speaking strategies at home. The participants believed their children would learn and explore more as they listened to their mother speak their language; thus, six of the participants visited their home country once or twice yearly with their kids so they could interact with the native speakers of their mother tongue, thereby increasing their children listening and speaking skills. Some of the strategies used by the participants include one parent one language at home, where the parents agreed that one of the parents would speak the mother tongue to their children and the other would communicate to their children in English. This strategy was common among parents that are native speakers of different languages. Other parents applied the minority language at home strategy, especially where both were fluent or native speakers of the target language(s) that were not spoken outside the home. Few participants, especially those with bilingual parents already that needed more flexibility in language, utilized both strategies above; they switched between one parent one language to minority language(s) at home strategy.

There are several ways by which parents get involved in the education and language development of their children. Parental involvement is often considered a channel through which schools increase the achievement of underperforming children. Typically, parental involvement entails those parental behaviours at home and in school meant to encourage the language and educational development or progress of their children; it includes the quality and frequency of communication with children in the home, teachers in school, and participation in school activities and functions.

Consequently, parental involvement is supported by policymakers, teachers, and researchers; thus, Smit et al. (2007) defined parental involvement as the participation of parents in the raising and education of their children at home and in school. Following their research, when parents get involved in their children's education, they are said to have participated in their children's

educational progress. Therefore, they defined parental participation as the active contribution of parents in their children's school activities. In agreement with the above definition, all the participants were active in the home regarding their strategies for speaking, listening, reading, writing, and other activities to support their children's English and mother tongue development; in connection to this study, participant B, for example the husband also helped the kids with their Norwegian homework and other school activities.

Factors, such as ethnicity, level of education, social and marital status, and a child's level of attainment, influence parental involvement in their kid's educational and language development (Desforges & Abouchaar 2003). In the present study, parents were actively involved with their children in the home. This level of involvement may be due to their high level of education; for instance, all the involved interviewees were educated up to master's level, and two participants worked as a substitute kindergarten teacher. Thus, Harris & Goodall, (2007), parental involvement is never a consistently or clearly defined term in literature. Its description represents numerous different parental behaviours; parental applications such as parental aspirations for their children academic achievement; parental participation in school activities; parental communication with teachers about their children; parental communication with their offspring about school and the rules of parents at home which are considered to be education related.

In summary, all the involved interviewees participated actively in the home regarding the strategies they employed to support their kids' language skills both in English and their mother tongue. The parent's level of involvement with the kid's dual language progress portrayed their positive attitudes toward bilingualism. However, in addition to the high academic status of the eight participants, who were between the ages of twenty-eight to forty-two, all were employees of one company or the other; thus, their job situations might also affect their level of commitment and attitudes toward raising bilingual children.

4.2. Parental strategies for language skills

This section will discuss all the strategies the participants employed to support and encourage the language skill learning of their children. The focused language skills are speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

4.2.1. Speaking

Speaking is the second among the four language skills; speaking skill is also called productive skill. As a productive skill, it goes together with the receptive skill, which is listening (Husain2015). During the interviews, the interviewer started the questions with speaking skills. Thus, the initial concentration is on speaking before listening. The participants in this study employed several speaking strategies or family language policies to enhance the dual language development of their children. Among the several employed language learning strategies by parents at home include the one-parent-one -language at home, where the parents agreed that either of the parents would speak the mother tongue to their children and the other would communicate with their children in English. This strategy was common among parents that are native speakers of different languages. According to the interviewee's responses on their involved home speaking strategies, it was deduced that the mother's language was used entirely as the first language or mother tongue. Thus, on one-parent-one language strategy, the findings indicated that the mothers were in charge of communicating with their children in their mother tongue. At the same time, the fathers were responsible for their home communication in English, except in a few cases where both parents shared the same mother tongue. This involved parental strategy was in line with Hamers and Blanc (2000:51) in bilinguality and bilingualism, who described one-parentone language strategy as a Grammont's principle which theorized that by strictly segregating the two languages ab initio, the children would subsequently learn the two languages quickly without much missing of languages or confusion. According to the principle, the chances of missing languages are visibly reduced by associating each language with a specific parent, and the parents can also form a natural emotional relationship with the children through their language; in relation to this study, participant A and her husband made a language plan that she would be speaking their mother to their children while the husband would be speaking English to their kids.

Another language strategy employed by some other participants in this study was the minority language at-home strategy, especially where both were fluent or native speakers of the target language(s) that were not spoken outside the home or their resident environment, which is often a strive to increase minority language(s) exposure and maintain a sense of cultural heritage. Few other participants, especially those with bilingual language backgrounds already that needed more flexibility in language, utilized both strategies above; they switched between one parent one language to minority language(s) at home strategy. This study's findings disclosed that two of the involved families used another strategy called the time-and-place bilingual parenting approach, among other strategies. This time and place parenting strategy occurs when families determine which language or languages to be spoken at a particular time or place. Via the outcome of this study, it was observed that two families employed this strategy. One of the families made an obligation that during their dinner-time discussion, the only language of communication must be their mother tongue. The second family made a routine that, on Saturdays, every family member must communicate in their mother tongue except when they have visitors that do not speak or understand their mother tongue.

Most of the participants worked on their children's word pronunciation by repeating the correct word or phrase and asking the involved child to repeat the word or phrase severally for proper assimilation. They also applied similar method in correcting their children's speaking errors by orally correcting them and asking them to severally repeat after them. However, among the participated families, both parents applied similar method in correcting their children's spoken errors, and the older the children, the more they identify and correct their communication errors with little or no assistance from parents.

It is important to note that all the participants in this study observed dinner time discussions, where they discussed about their daily, weekly, and future activities or events. During this special family time, the parents had the opportunity to unofficially speak to their kids, listen to their children's individual speech, identify their speech errors, and provide the necessary corrections accordingly. Some of the involved families with the same parental mother tongue used their mother tongue during dinner time discussion; thus, they sometimes seize the opportunity to call their extended families for more communication and integration. Other family observed theirs in English especially families with mixed mother tongue, and a few observed theirs using one man

one language policy; as such, the children responded accordingly. This present study truly exposed the relationship between genuine interaction in the home especially with parents, and child's language development. In connection to the above finding, Safwat (2014) highlighted that parent-child interactions enhances responsiveness and are important in shaping the language development such as the development of child's speaking skill, and entire literacy environment of a child. Dinner time discussions are vital family time where information will be passed via speaking. According to some of the participant of this study, dinner time arrangement should be specious to allow every available member to have face time with each other because making eye contact during a discussion exposes individual's attentiveness and how they value your speech. During this discussion period, children will be able to learn new vocabularies, apply the already learned, and parents will also listen, identify and correct any identified speaking error though different topic discussions. It is a time parents teach and model their children's communication skills. Thus, Cunningham (2019) referred dinner table as a sanctuary that brings family together for important communication and literacy skills.

However, through this study, the participants reported on the importance associated with dinner time gatherings. Dinner time teaches children how to converse with others because children need time and safe place to express themselves and learn how to coherently communicate in a thoughtful manner. It assists the children at all ages to develop listening and thinking skills, to tell and write stories, and how to answer questions especially in school or class because at dinner time, each person at the table at any age has time to talk. Dinner time helps to build children's emotional skills such as respect, manners, and kindness (Carolyn et al. 2005).

With respect to vocabulary building, the participants assisted their children by simplifying and explaining new words to their understanding; they showed their children how to look out for new words and meaning through the dictionary, mainly English words. A few of the interviewees also involved the use of flashcards in generating vocabulary. On the contrary, the majority of the interviewees believed that their children would acquire more vocabulary as they grow and interact with them, especially in their mother tongue, which was the minority language. This finding is in accordance with the results of Darlings (2005) that parents can influence their children's vocabulary development by reading aloud a variety of books, discussing daily events, searching for new words in the dictionary, and assisting in learning new vocabulary based on their hobbies.

According to some of the participants, being an active listener when communicating with the children was an essential skill to support child's language development. Some suggested to avoid lecturing whenever the point was to have the children to listen and understand. Some of the participants emphasized that lecturing and nagging will never assist any parent to get through to the children any faster. Some children are open while some are quiet, and getting to know the way each of your children communicates can assist to understand the best way to connect with them which also improve the overall relationship with your kids. The current study also reviewed that parental communication with their children evolve as their children grow up, and practicing such communication skills will encourage the foundation of your healthy relationship and communication with the children in the future. The participants of this study emphasized on making their children to learn English and their mother tongue so they could exercise the ability to communicate and convey meaning internationally and with their relatives and friends. These parental supports correspond with Halliday (1973), which stated that to learn someone's mother tongue is to learn the use of language and its meaning; thus, learning a language means learning how to mean. He further said that children perceive the word around them by making sense out of it. The writer emphasized on some conditions that are necessary for oral language to be visible, including the involvement of children in their knowledge construction and in non-linguistic functions for understanding and creation of meaning and social interaction. Therefore, parents are seen as facilitators of the entire process.

Dinner time discussion was an everyday activity that favoured all the participants of this study, where the parents unofficially discussed with and listened to their children without any distractions. Dinner time serves as an avenue for discussing things that strengthen family bonds, mostly in their mother tongue or any of their preferred or chosen languages; during dinner time, children learn social skills while parents and other siblings learn and understand what is happening in each other's lives.

4.2.2. Reading

Reading improves children's fluency in the language by allowing them the opportunity to practice words and pronunciations. Through reading, children develop a better understanding of the meaning of words and the information they come across. Through different means and strategies,

all the participants of this study and their husbands engaged their children in reading by providing the necessary reading materials, encouraging them to read alone, and asking them questions, if need be, especially those parents with children between six and nine; or read with them for those with children between three and six. Some of the involved families for example, participant E (Croatia/Nigeria family) had different reading places and timetables, but most used their dining table daily before bedtime for those that read with the children. In contrast, the ones that could read alone chose their preferred reading locations to avoid distractions. The interview reviewed that some of the interviewees, especially those with children between three and six, were more involved in reading English language books with their children, while those with children in grades one to three practiced reading books in both languages, including the language of the environment.

The favourable books the participants read to their children were short storybooks, bible storybooks, fairy tales, historical books, and moral books. The families that read morals and bible storybooks wanted their kids to learn directly through reading instead of telling them directly. To ensure a thorough understanding of the book's content, a few participating families acted or dramatized the content. They divided the roles among the family members and used different costumes to create fun and enable assimilation. Through this strategy, their children understood the true meaning of the story and always wanted to read more.

The analysis of the interviews revealed that participants provided their kid's reading material through various means, such as lending from the library or buying from physical and online shops. Others had saved their preferred books from when they were younger for their kids mainly in their mother tongue. Some got books from their parents and siblings who were into education/linguistics, while some registered with online bookshops where they received updates on the available reading materials according to the ages of their children. The participants in this study, mainly the mothers, were actively engaged in the reading exercises because they wanted to assist in developing their children's language skills in one of the most accepted international languages and their mother tongue. They believed that reading teaches new perspective and words, strengthens language skills, sharpens sentence structure, and provides a better command over the language.

In agreement with the above sentence, Noble et al. (2020) argue that interactive shared book reading supports a wide range of children's early language skill development, and children who frequently read in their early years learn the language quicker, enter school with a more extensive vocabulary and become more successful readers. Similarly, Darling (2005) highlighted that parents could influence their children's vocabulary development by reading aloud a variety of books, discussing daily events, searching for new words in the dictionary, and assisting in learning new vocabulary based on their hobbies. This is also seen in the current study, where parents applied several reading strategies, such as reading aloud, acting, or dramatizing the content of their readings to make the exercise fun and desirable. Patridge (2004) also suggested some parenting strategies that could support their children's reading skills, such as establishing a reading routine like some of our interviewees did, as well as making reading enjoyable, making reading a habit, reading and rereading favourite books, bridging the language barrier between the book and the children, paying attention to the children's cues and supporting book-related games and puzzles.

In this study, the involved participants used exercised different ideologies about practicing new words and vocabulary learning. Some used and exposed their kids to how to use the dictionary, and a few used flashcards. In contrast, others believed that as children grow, listening to their parents and elder relatives, watching movies, and listening to music, would assist in increasing their vocabulary. The parents also believed that reading with their children promotes parent-child bonding, supports cognitive development, and allows children to be introduced to book language and written words that differ from what they hear in daily conversations.

In addition, all the participants assisted their children by explaining what they could not understand during their self-reading. The children and their parents were eager and willing to ask and respond to questions, respectively, as the need arose, especially with the children in grades one to three. However, the study revealed that children reduced their rate of asking questions and became more self-reliant as they grew older. Thus, becoming able to use the internet and the dictionary to search for the meaning of words or phrases they could not understand. Piper (2010), among other researchers, stated that parents could influence the reading fluency of their children by daily reading and rereading engaging storybooks, poetry, and nursery books to their children, which would help improve their fluency and accuracy in reading books and texts, and the

participants in the current study conducted many of these activities. It is essential to understand from the interviews that both parents played a significant role in supporting the reading skills of their kids; they utilized the same reading strategies and similar ways of responding to their kid's questions because they wanted their children to be at least bilingual with a focus in English and their mother tongue, including Norwegian.

4.2.3. Listening

Listening provides the aural input for the learner, which serves as the basis for language learning and acquisition, enabling a learner to interact in spoken communication appropriately; therefore, listening comprehension is a vital or primary channel for learning a language, as the first of the four listening skills, listening inter-relate with speaking because when someone speaks, the other listens. Speaking involves expression; thus, it is a productive skill, whereas listening is a receptive skill because it requires comprehension; individuals would absorb the information around them before communicating with others. Therefore, both activities form the communication process.

All the families participating in this study applied different strategies that suited their family background to support their children's listening skills. The interviews reviewed that all the involved families used similar strategies, but their applications or techniques varied according to their daily schedules and children's ages. However, this study exposed the following strategies used by the participants to boost their kid's listening skills and language learning development in general.

- Talking, singing, and reading to their children frequently when they were younger.
- Using short sentences that clearly explained what the parents wanted their kids to do, which they increased the length as their children grew older.
- Asking their kids questions that require more than a 'yes' or 'no' answer helped them talk and respond more openly.
- Playing exciting and engaging games requires talking, listening, giving, and following directions with the children.
- Set aside special times, such as dinner time to talk and listen to their children.

- Read informational and storybooks aloud for the children to listen, allowing them to tell
 the stories back.
- Recording yourself reading exciting storybooks using any of your children's audio-visual
 appliances, allowing them to play the voice independently; only the family where both
 parents came from the Igbo-speaking part of Nigeria used this strategy, among others.
- Have your children read from a picture book and point at the pictures individually.
- Take a nature walk within the neighbourhoods, talking with your children in detail about the things you observe, touch, and hear; this strategy was only used by the Cameroonian/Nigerian family, amongst other participants in this study.

This study's participants believed that being an active listener when communicating with your children is an essential skill to practice. The parents gave thorough attention to their children during any conversation; eye contact was important, with minimized distractions like cell phones when interacting with the children. As stated by the participants, all the children were allowed to practice listening skills by watching television and listening to music, either recorded or through audio-visual appliances in English, their mother tongue and Norwegian. The interviews reviewed that all the participants made available some audio-visual appliances like iPad, iPhones, and computers to encourage their kid's language development, where the children had the opportunity to watch different programs and play exciting games according to their interests and hobbies.

All the interviewees allowed their children to watch television every day but with varying time durations, of which most of them allowed their kids to observe not more than two hours of screen time. However, few of the participants made a kind of family routine always to watch movies in their mother tongue every Saturday, which according to their responses, would expose their children more to their cultural heritage and vocabulary usage and development since most of them seldom teach their kids vocabulary in their mother tongue. They believed that their kids would learn the use of vocabulary via listening to them and other friends and families around and through watching movies. Interestingly, despite their target goal, all the involved families in this study also allowed their children to watch movies and other programs in Norwegian because their children needed to be fluent in the language of the environment so they could compete and excel in their academics.

Through the participant's responses, it was observed that during their family reading time, mainly before bedtime in the children's room or at the dining table, the families with children between three and six in the kindergarten always read aloud for their kids to listen and ask questions when necessary. The families with children in grades one to three, whose children could read with minimal supervision from parents, made available every essential material and conducive environment for the kids to read by themselves without distractions; the parents were also ready to always attend to them and their questions as the reading was going on. Therefore, the children become more independent in reading as they grow older. In responding to their older kid's questions during reading exercises, they all applied similar methods with little variations according to their family background by reading and rereading phrases or sentences aloud, asking their kids to repeat after them for proper recognition and assimilation severally. Similarly, the involved families also employed the same method in correcting their children's speaking errors which they confessed had improved the listening comprehension of their children in both target languages.

Summarily, it should be noted that all the information provided in this section was based on the responses from the interviewees; the researcher could not identify any relevant research work about parental home strategies to support their children's listening skills that could have backed the interviewee's responses in this study.

4.2.4. Writing

In this present study, writing was the last skill the interviewer focused on because not all the participants were involved in writing activities with their children in both target languages, especially those with children between three and six in kindergarten who were not writing correctly at the time the interview was conducted. However, they made every necessary writing material available, such as black and whiteboard, markers, and trace writing materials, in anticipation of their kid's future writing skills. Other participants with children above six in grades one to three were much more engaged in writing with their children in English, their mother tongue, and Norwegian, especially helping their kids with their homework in Norwegian. Moreso,

this study reviewed that the majority of the participants for instance participant G (Polish/Norwegian family) did not utilize much effort with writing skills as they did with the three other language skills, especially in their mother tongue, because they never wished to force or over-pressure their children's mental capacity due to alphabetical variations between the targeted languages, though some of the participant's mother tongue share some common alphabetical features with Norwegian and English. Parents with such mother tongues regularly practiced reading and writing with their children in all the targeted languages.

Others did not give up entirely on teaching writing skills to their children in their mother tongue; they believed in doing more as the children grew older to avoid confusion. In general, all the participants invested their time, energy, and money to develop their children's reading and writing skills in English, their mother, and the language of the environment. It was also deduced from the participant's responses that they nurtured the opinion that their kids would learn their mother tongue's writing system better when they had existing knowledge of the core writing system, which would assist the children in making proper comparisons between the two languages and their daily school language. However, whether there are observed similarities or not between the participant's alphabetical systems, English and Norwegian, parents were entitled to focus on the two target languages in order to achieve their set goals of raising at least bilingual children.

Few families, especially those whose parents shared the same mother tongue, were more engaged in buying alphabet books in their mother tongue from their home country during their home visit or through relatives/friends and families around which they used to teach their children new letters and word sounds in the form of games or songs that would attract the children's attention. Some of the parents with grown-up kids were practicing word dictation and writing as one of the strategies to support their writing skills.

With respect to error correction in English or their mother tongue, all the participants employed similar correction methods with little or no difference based on their schedules. One common thing to notice was that both parents used the same corrective way to correct their children's writing errors to avoid much confusion; by writing the correct word or phrase and asking their children to repeat the writing after them. When the children did not understand the meaning of what they were writing, their parents would assist them with the help of Google and a dictionary

to identify the correct words and meanings. It was also observed via these interviews that the mothers played more significant roles in developing their children's writing skills.

To support the responses from the interviewees, Aram (2010) researched parental and maternal guidance to ascertain the roles of fathers and mothers in helping children's writing development. In her research, she compared the parents writing with their young children. To carry out the study, she selected fifty-one parents (fathers and mothers) of kindergarteners in Israel. The selected fathers and mothers were separately videotaped in their homes while writing words with their young children. The research outcome indicated that both the fathers and mothers assisted their children in completing the writing exercises. However, mothers guided and cooperated with their children to complete the task, and the children also paid more attention to their mother's ideas and suggestions. In conclusion, both parents portrayed similar qualities of writing guidance, and families never forsake their style of guidance.

Another study was carried out by Neumann & Neumann (2010) on parental strategies to scaffold developing writing skills in preschool children within their living environment. This research aimed to observe the parent-child joint writing exercise to support or encourage literacy skills in young children. Moreover, the mothers' strategies in scaffolding their daughters' alphabet letter shaping, story writing, and word in the years before focusing on formal schooling included:

- Tracing of letter shapes with finger using directional language.
- Identifying alphabet letters in environment books and prints.
- Involving whole arm movement to produce letter shapes in the air.

The study's outcome portrayed that using letters, shapes, and names might be an effective early childhood literacy development strategy for parents.

Skibbe et al. (2013) conducted another study on a longitudinal relationship between parental writing support and preschool children's language and literacy skills. The support of parents in writing was studied for an extended period to investigate their children's language and literacy skills while writing an invitation letter together twice in a period of one year. Parental writing was coded for data analysis at the level of letter, letter formation, and demand for accuracy. The study's outcome showed that parents mainly depended on writing the letters by themselves and dictating the notes as the children wrote strategies.

In conclusion, all the strategies used by the parents in this study genuinely indicated the level of their commitment to achieving their individual goals of raising at least bilingual children focusing on English and their mother.

4.3.Suggestions for future study

The present study focused on the strategies parents employed within the home environment with respect to the four language skills, which include speaking, reading, listening, and writing. Future studies could look beyond the strategies in the home and focus on other parental activities like motivation, teaching, and learning styles within and outside the home that could support language learning. However, future studies might also focus on the importance and reflection of parental strategies in the home and at school, where the participants will involve the parents and the children's schoolteachers; this suggestion would expose whether parental strategies at home had a positive or negative effect on their children's academic performances. In other words, parents can collaborate with the school to promote the four-language skills development of the children; the impact of this collaboration on children's language and academic development could also be a focus for future studies. Finally, parent-child interaction as an essential variable in a child's language development should be encouraged. Thus, future studies need to focus more on increasing the quality of parent-child interactions.

4.4.Summary

This present chapter discusses the findings as presented by the interviewees. The main aim of this discussion was to compare the involvements and strategies of all the involved parents and the results from similar research works. These findings and discussions showed that the participants had positive attitudes toward bilingualism and played a considerable role in supporting and encouraging their children's language skill development in the home, especially with speaking, reading, listening, and writing. The next chapter will focus on the summary and conclusion of the findings, as discussed in this present chapter.

4.5.Limitations of the study

Understandably, certain limitations are associated with case studies, and this present study cannot be an exception. However, considering the fact that about 95% of the participants in this study were employed and a parent, it was impossible to obtain the full attention of the participants due

to their job schedule and family commitments. Also, more results would have been possible if both parents had been involved in the participation. Still, due to time constraints and individual obligations, it was only possible to interview the mothers. Because this study sorely relied on the information provided by the interviewees, who came to Norway for various reasons from the different axis of the world with different social, academic, and cultural backgrounds and mother tongues; thus, the provided information could hardly be controlled or verified.

Moreover, another associated limitation of this study was using a voice recorder to record and save the recorded results before transcription; the recorder's battery could die, the recorder malfunction, and no information would be recorded. Secondly, if the interviewer did not follow good interview techniques, an external noise could easily block a critical piece of information the interviewee mentioned. Sometimes, using a voice recorder could make some interviewees nervous. In addition, the results of this study would have been more reliable if the researcher had included observation as an additional data collection method.

Additionally, since there was no obligation to participate in this study, the interviewees voluntarily consented to participate; thus, there was no avenue for information scrutiny. Therefore, the researcher lacked the opportunity to control or verify some provided information which could lead to information bias in favour of their believed positive ideas.

It is essential to acknowledge that this study was conducted with parents of children between the ages of three to six and six to nine in kindergarten and grades one to three, where some of the involved children were not properly speaking, reading, or writing at the time the interview took place. More results would have been gained if the study had involved children within the higher grade levels.

5. CONCLUSION

This study was a case of eight families residing within the west coast of Norway. The involved families came from different countries with different cultural backgrounds and mother tongues. Among the involved families, both parents came from the same country with the same mother

tongue or from other countries with an entirely different mother tongue. In this study, the involved parents originally came from one of these countries: Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon, Uganda, Poland, Croatia, Serbia, Scotland, and Norway. The involved participants were all educated; six of the participants were fully employed, while two were master's degree students. The study focused on families with children between the ages of three to six and six to nine in kindergarten and elementary schools, respectively. The study target was to identify how parents help and the kind of language support they render to their children in the home to develop English as the second and language of international communication, and their mother tongue, including the language of the environment.

Moreover, the researcher focused majorly on those language skills that enable a person to express their thoughts and communicate with others coherently. The focused language skills include speaking, reading, listening, and writing. The research exposed the parents' attitudes toward bilingualism, their engagements, and the strategies they employed in the home to support their goals of developing and maintaining bilingual children in Norway. The research methodology used for this research was a qualitative research model; the number of participants and the data collection method, a semi-structured interview, were chosen based on the researcher's choice of qualitative design or paradigm.

The outcome of the research indicated that all the participants, including some extended members of their families, were very much involved with all the language skills in the English language; few participants, mainly those with children between six and nine, engaged in all the language skills in their mother tongue. Many of the involved parents, mostly the ones with children between three and six, were involved in speaking and listening skills in their mother tongue. The parents, in their thoughts, decided never to add additional workload or pressure to their kids by involving them with all four language skills in their mother tongue because most of them have a different alphabet from English. As the children grow and develop stronger skills, they will gradually involve all the required language skills in their mother tongue. Considering the active involvement of parents in their children's language skill development amidst their occupational, cultural, social, and religious status, including other family and parental activities, they were engaged in every activity that would support their kids in developing English and their mother tongue. Because all the involved parents were educated, thus, their interest and ability to develop

and apply different strategies to make their children at least bilingual, especially in English and their mother tongue.

For speaking and listening, parents were much involved in communicating with their children at home and other strategic places like the shops, on a bus or train, especially the mothers. Interestingly, the mothers taught their children to always respond to them with the same language they used, so they could easily hear, identify, and correct their spoken errors. Dinner time discussion was another excellent opportunity for the parents to communicate at length with their children in either English or their mother tongue. During this period, the family discusses a lot of daily and weekly activities, including future activities. Sometimes, most families would seize the avenue to call and discuss with their extended families at home, thereby strengthening their kid's relationships and communication in their mother tongues; the parents would also utilize the discussion time to identify and correct their errors accordingly. Playing games, watching movies, and listening and dancing to music together as a family contributed hugely to the children's speaking and listening skills.

As for reading and writing, the involved parents ensured that every necessary material needed to encourage and support their children was provided. For instance, some interviewees were registered with online libraries where they either buy or borrow reading materials for their children. Others got from the shops and concerned relatives, especially those in education. The involved parents did not only provide reading and writing materials, but they were also available to read and write with the children almost every day. They also supported the children with their homework in Norwegian. Through the interviewee's responses to the language skill questions, it is interesting that most participants employed similar strategies for the four language skills with minor modifications to suit their family environment.

As for correcting their children's spoken or writing errors, all the parents were directly and indirectly involved to ensure their kid's language mistakes were corrected. The interviewees' responses showed that parents in a family apply the same speaking and writing correction strategy to make sure their kids understand and maintain consistency in language development and avail support to the children; for example, when the children do not understand some words or sentences, the involved parents corrected or assisted the kids with proper explanation with

examples using the language of instruction, and in other languages also. They encourage their kids always to ask questions, when necessary, while some use dictionary and flashcards. It was also observed that the mothers were more engaged in-home activities that support their children's language development, and the more the children grow, the more they identify and correct their errors themselves with little or no support from their parents.

Another aspect of focus in this present study was parental attitudes toward bilingualism. The study's findings portrayed that all the participants had positive attitudes toward bilingualism. They generally believed that it was essential for their children to learn English as a second language because English is the leading foreign language in many countries, including Norway, amidst other reasons, such as improving career opportunities. They also wanted their children to maintain their first language and mother tongue as a cultural heritage that would foster their children's relationships and communication with their extended families. The knowledge of Norwegian was also essential to the involved parents as the language of the environment that would integrate their kids into Norwegian society. In addition, all the participants generally believed in the cognitive benefits of bilingualism and its positive effect on their children's educational and language skill development, which might appear slower at the beginning. Consequently, this study's results also indicated that participants intended to maintain both languages simultaneously; however, about 70% of the participants, mainly those with children between three and six, focused less on reading and writing at the time this interview was conducted, especially in their mother tongue because they did not wish to force or add extra pressure on their kids, and also because of the alphabetical variation between both languages and the language of the society.

Conclusively, these bilingualism findings supported previous research about parental attitudes toward bilingualism. In this study, parents appraised and favoured bilingualism for several reasons; common among the reasons was to sustain their mother tongue as their cultural heritage irrespective of their current country of residence and to maintain adequate communication with their extended families. The results also deduced that participants wished their children to exercise fluency and accuracy in both English and their mother tongue for educational, social, cultural, and cognitive purposes. The information from this present study would support and encourage other parents who are or wish to raise bilingual children in other countries to be more involved in the home activities that assist children's language skill development.

References

- Ahmed, I., & Ishtiaq, S. (2021). Reliability and validity: Importance in Medical Research. *Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*. https://doi.org/10.47391/JPMA.06-861
- Aram, D. (2010). Writing with young children: A comparison of paternal and maternal guidance. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 33(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9817.2009.01429.x. 4-22.
- A. M. Garcia, R. Ros, K. C. Hart, & P. A. Graziano, (2018). Comparing working memory in bilingual and monolingual Hispanic/Latino preschoolers with disruptive behavior disorders. Journal of experimental child psychology, 166, 535-548.
- Baecher, R. E. (1994). An Introduction to Bilingualism. Charlotte Hoffmann. New York: Longman, 1991. Pp. xiv + 353. \$19.95. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263100012742
- Baker, C. (2011). Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism. Multilingual Matters.

 Journal of Materials Processing Technology.
- Bartram, B. (2010). Attitudes to modern foreign language learning: Insights from Comparative Education. *Educational Review*, 63(3).
- Bhela, B. (1999). Native language interference in learning a second language: Exploratory case studies of native language interference with target language usage. *International Education Journal*: 22-31
- Bialystok, E. (2001). Bilingualism in development: language, literacy, and cognition. *Books.Google.Com*.
- Bloomfield, L. (1935). Language. United Kingdom: Moltilal Banarsidass Publishes Private Limited.
- Bohn, O. S., & Flege, J. E. (1992). The Production Of New And Similar Vowels By Adult German Learners Of English. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100010792
- Bohner, G., & Dickel, N. (2011). Attitudes and Attitude Change Moral Foundations and Social

- Perception of Sexual Violence: a Cross-Cultural Research View Project Audience Tuning and Saying is Believing View Project. *Article in Annual Review of Psychology* 62(1): 390-420
- Brown, A. L. (1990). Domain-specific principles affect learning and transfer in children. *Cognitive Science*. https://doi.org/10.1016/0364-0213(90)90028-U
- Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles of language learning and teaching. White Plains, NY: Pearson Longman. Language.
- Butler, Yuko G., & Hakuta, K. (2008). Bilingualism and Second Language Acquisition. In *The Handbook of Bilingualism*. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470756997.ch5
- Butler, Yuko Goto. (2012). Bilingualism/Multilingualism and Second-Language Acquisition. In *The Handbook of Bilingualism and Multilingualism: Second Edition*. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118332382.ch5
- Carmit Altman, Tamara Goldstein, and Sharon Armon-Lotem. (2018) "Vocabulary, metalinguistic awareness and language dominance among bilingual preschool children." Frontiers in Psychology.
- Carolyn Y. Tubbs, Kelvin M. Yoy, Linda M. Burton (2005). Family Ties: Constructing family time in low-incom families. 44(1): 77-91
- Cenoz J. (2013) "The influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition: Focus on multilingualism." Language teaching: 71-86.
- Chamot, A. U. (2004). Issues in Language Learning Strategy Research and Teaching. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444808005612
- Charboneu, R. (2008). A case study of Norwegian-English bilingual children's language development. University of Stavanger. Unpublished master thesis.
- Chiappe, P., Chiappe, D. L., & Gottardo, A. (2004). Vocabulary, context, and speech perception among good and poor readers. *Educational Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1080/0144341042000271755
- Centeno, O. (2016). Why raise a bilingual child? 4 powerful benefits. Bilingual Kids Rock

- Conteh, J., & Kawashima, Y. (2008). Diversity in family involvement in children's learning in english primary schools: Culture, language and identity. *English Teaching*.
- Cooper, R. L. & Fishman, J. A. (1974). The study of language attitudes. International Journal of the Sociology of Language. 1974 (3): 1967-74.
- Cummins, J. (2001). Bilingual Children's Mother Tongue: Why Is It Important for Education? Sprogforum. 7(19) 15-25
- Darling, S. (2005). Strategies for Engaging Parents in Home Support of Reading Acquisition. *The Reading Teacher*, 58(5):476-479
- De Houwer, A. (2009). Bilingual First Language Acquisition. Bilingual First Language Acquisition. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691507
- Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (2009). Shaping School Culture: Pitfall, Paradoxes, and Promises. Strategies.
- Desforges, C. & Abouchaar, A. (2003). The impact of parental involvement, parental support and family education on pupil achievements and adjustment: A literature review. Department for Education and Skills.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Research\nResearch methods in applied linguistics: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies.
- E. Guides, H, Gardner, M. I. et al. (1983). Multiple intelligence theory. Spark in Education.
- Elaine K. Horwitz, Michael B. Horwitz, J. C. (1986). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *The Mordern Language Journal*, 70(2): 125-132
- Elish-Piper, L., & Witte, P. G. (2011). Parent involvement in Reading. *Illinois Reading Council Journal*, 40(1).
- Ellis, E. M. (2008). *Defining and investigating monolingualism*. Equinox Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1558/sols.v2i3.311
- E. N. Daubert, & G. B. Ramani, (2019). Math and memory in bilingual preschoolers: The relations between bilingualism, working memory, and numerical knowledge. Journal of

- Cognition and Development, 20(3), 314-333.
- Erlinda, R. (2010). Linquistics for English language teaching: Sounds, words and sentences. *Stain Batusangkar Press*
- Fan, X., & Chen, M. (2001). Parental Involvement and Students' Academic Achievement: A Meta-Analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, 13(1): 1-22
- Feng, L., Gai, Y., & Chen, X. (2014). Family learning environment and early literacy: A comparison of bilingual and monolingual children. *Economics of Education Review*. 39(2014): 110-135.
- Gass, S. & Selinker, L. (2008). Second language acquisition, An Introductory Course. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc
- Golafshani, N. (2015). Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report*. 597-607.
- Goodall, J., & Montgomery, C. (2014). Parental involvement to parental engagement: a continuum. *Educational Review*, 66(4). https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2013.781576
- Griffee, D. T. (2012). An Introduction to Second Language Research Methods: Design and Data. TESL-EJ Publications, Berkeley. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004
- Griffiths, C. (2008). Lessons from good language learners, Cambridge. Cambridge University

 Press
- Griffiths, C. (2009). Strategies and good language learners. In *Lessons from Good Language Learners*. https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511497667.009
- Grosjean, F. (2010). Review of Bilingual: Life and reality. Cambridge.
- Guardado, M. (2002). Loss and maintenance of first language skills: Case studies of hispanic families in Vancouver. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *58*(3). https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.58.(3):341-363
- Haffmann, C. (1991). An introduction to bilingualism. London: Longman
- Hall, G., & Cook, G. (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. Language

- Teaching. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000067
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1973). Explorations in the Functions of Language. London: Edward Arnold.
- Hamers, J. F., & Blanc, M. H. A. (2000). *Bilinguality and Bilingualism*. *Bilingualism*. https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511605796
- Hancock, B. (1998). An Introduction to Qualitative Research, Trent Focus for Development in Primary Health Care. *Development*. 2-14
- Harding Esch. E. & Riley. P. (2003). The bilingual family: A handbook for parents. (2nd edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harris, A., & Goodall, J. (2007). Engaging Parents in Raising Achievement- Do They Know They Matter?
- Henderson, A., & Mapp, K. (2002). A new wave of evidence: The impact of family, school, community connections on student achievement. *Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development*
- Hill, N. E., & Craft, S. A. (2003). Parent-school involvement and school performance: Mediated pathways among socioeconomically comparable African American and Euro-American families. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(1): 74-83
- Hill, N. E., & Taylor, L. C. (2004). Parental school involvement and children's academic achievement pragmatics and issues. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2004.00298.x
- Hoff, E. (2003). Book Review: Language and Literacy in Bilingual Children D. Kimbrough Oller and Rebecca E. Eilers (Eds.) (2002). *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 7(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/13670069030070010704
- Hoffmann, C. (2014). *An introduction to Bilingualism. Introduction to Bilingualism.* https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315842035
- Hogg, M. & Vaughan, G. (2005). Social Psychology (4th edition). London: Prentice-Hall.
- Hoque, M. (2017). An Introduction to second language acquisition. The Journal of EFL

- Education and Research. 1-23
- Hornby, G., & Lafaele, R. (2011). Barriers to parental involvement in education: An explanatory model. *Educational Review*, 63(1): 37-55
- Husain, N. (2015). Language and language skills. *Maulana Azad National Urdu University:* 1.23
- J. Santillán, & A. Khurana, (2018). Developmental associations between bilingual experience and inhibitory control trajectories in Head Start children. Developmental science, 21(4).
- Jafarov, J. (2015). Factors Affecting Parental Involvement in Education: The Analysis of Literature. *Khazar Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 18(4): 35-42
- James Humes. (2021). Basic language skills- Listening, Speaking. Reading & Writing.
- Janssen, M., Bosman, A. M. T., & Leseman, P. P. M. (2013). Phoneme awareness, vocabulary and word decoding in monolingual and bilingual Dutch children. *Journal of Research in Reading*. 36(1): 1-15
- Jasim M. Abbas (2016). Developmental benefits of learning two languages at once as a child: *Al-Iraqiya University Press*.
- Jenny X. Montaño-González. (2017). Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition. *US-China Foreign Language*. 480-492
- Jeynes, W. H. (2003). A meta-analysis: The effects of parental involvement on minority children's academic achievement. *Education and Urban Society*, *35*(2): 3-22
- Jeynes, W. H. (2007). The relationship between parental involvement and urban secondary school student academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Urban Education*, 42(1).
- Jeynes, W. H. (2011). Parental involvement research: Moving to the next Level. *School Community Journal*, 21(1): 9-18
- Kamenetz, A. (2016). 6 Potential Brain Benefits of Bilingual Education. National Public Radio.
- Kimbrough Oller, D. & Eilers R.E. (2002). 'Balancing Interpretations Regarding Effects of Bilingualism: Empirical Outcomes and Theoretical Possibilities.' In D. Kimbrough Oller and

- R.E. Eilers (eds.), Language and Literacy in Bilingual Children, Child Language and Child Development; 2 Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters: 281–292.
- Klein D., K. Mok, J. Chen & K.E. Watkins, (2014) "Age of language learning shapes brain structure: a cortical thickness study of bilingual and monolingual individuals." Brain and language: 20-24
- Kuppens, S., & Ceulemans, E. (2019). Parenting Styles: A Closer Look at a Well-Known Concept. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*. 168-181
- Ladegaard, H. J. (2000). Language attitudes and sociolinguistic behaviour: Exploring attitude-behaviour relations in language. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 4(2): 214-234
- LaRocque, M., Kleiman, I., & Darling, S. M. (2011). Parental Involvement: The Missing Link in School Achievement. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth*, 55(3): 115-122
- Lao C. (2004). Parents' attitudes toward chinese–english bilingual education and chinese-language use: *Bilingual Research Journal*. 28(1).
- Lauchlan, F., Parisi, M., & Fadda, R. (2013). Bilingualism in Sardinia and Scotland: Exploring the cognitive benefits of speaking a 'minority' language. *International Journal of Bilingualism*. 17(1) 43-56
- Lee, J. S., & Bowen, N. K. (2006). Parent involvement, cultural capital, and the achievement gap among elementary school children. *American Educational Research Journal*, 43(2).
- Leitner, G. (2001). Ager, Dennis. Motivation in Language Planning and Language Policy. Zeitschrift Für Australienstudien / Australian Studies Journal, 15.
- Ling, W. H. (2018). Defi nitions of Bilingualism and their Applications to the Japanese Society. 13-24
- Lobiondo-Wood, G., & Haber, J. (2018). Methods and Critical Appraisal For Evidence-Based Practice. Nursing Research.
- Lowry, B. L. (2016). Bilingualism in Young Children: Separating Fact from Fiction.

- M. D. Hilchey, & R. M. Klein, (2011). Are there bilingual advantages on nonlinguistic interference tasks? Implications for the plasticity of executive control processes. Psychonomic bulletin & review, 18(4), 625-658.
- M. H. Keshavarz, & H. Astaneh. (2004) "The impact of bilinguality on the learning of English vocabulary as a foreign language (L3)." International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism: 295-302.
- M. Melby-Lervåg, T. S. Redick, & C. Hulme, (2016). Working Memory Training Does Not Improve Performance on Measures of Intelligence or Other Measures of "Far Transfer": Evidence From a Meta-Analytic Review. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 11(4), 512– 534.
- Mackey, W. F. (1970). The description of bilingualism. *In J. A. Fishman (Ed). Readings in the society of language (2nd printing): 554-584*
- MacLeod, A. A. N., Fabiano-Smith, L., Boegner-Pagé, S., & Fontolliet, S. (2013). Simultaneous bilingual language acquisition: The role of parental input on receptive vocabulary development. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*. 29(1) 131-143
- Macnamara, J. (1967a). The bilingual's linguistic performance. Journal of Social Issues. 23: 58-77.
- Majid, M. A. A., Othman, M., Mohamad, S. F., Lim, S. A. H., & Yusof, A. (2017). Piloting for Interviews in Qualitative Research: Operationalization and Lessons Learnt. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 7(4).
- Malone, M. E. (1997). Book reviews: Valdés, G. and Figueroá, R.A. 1994: Bilingualism and testing: a special case of bias. Norwood, NJ: Ablex. 265 pp. US\$22.50. ISBN: 0 8939 1775 3. *Language Testing*.
- Martínez, I., García, J. F., & Yubero, S. (2007). Parenting styles and adolescents' self-esteem in Brazil. *Psychological Reports*. 100(3):731-745
- Masud, S., Mufarrih, S. H., Qureshi, N. Q., Khan, F., Khan, S., & Khan, M. N. (2019). Academic Performance in Adolescent Students: The Role of Parenting Styles and Socio-Demographic

- Factors A Cross Sectional Study From Peshawar, Pakistan. Frontiers in Psychology.
- McKenna, M. C., Conradi, K., Lawrence, C., Jang, B. G., & Meyer, J. P. (2012). Reading attitudes of middle school students: Results of a U.S. survey. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 47(3): 283-306
- Middleton, F. (2020). Reliability vs Validity: what's the difference? Scribbr.
- Mishina-Mori, S. (2011). A longitudinal analysis of language choice in bilingual children: The role of parental input and interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*(13): 3122-3138
- Morris, A. S., Silk, J. S., Steinberg, L., Myers, S. S., & Robinson, L. R. (2007). The role of the family context in the development of emotion regulation. *Social Development*.16(2): 361-388
- Mushi, S. L. P. (2002). Acquisition of Multiple Languages Among Children of Immigrant Families: Parents' Role in the Home-School Language Pendulum. *Early Child Development and Care*, 172(5): 517-532
- Neumann, M. M., & Neumann, D. L. (2010). Parental strategies to scaffold emergent writing skills in the pre-school child within the home environment. *Early Years*, *30*(1): 79-94
- Nijhof, K. S., & Engels, R. C. M. E. (2007). Parenting styles, coping strategies, and the expression of homesickness. *Journal of Adolescence*.
- Nikel, D. (2018). From pre-school to University: How the education system works in Norway. Retrieved from https://www.lifeinnorway.net/education-in-norway/
- Norweigan Ministry for Education and Research (2011). Norweigan Ministry for Education and Research
- Nugrahenny T. Zacharias. (2012). Qualitative Research Methods for Second Language Education. Qualitative Research Methods. 2-12
- Ochieng, P. A. (2009). An analysis of the strengths and limitation of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, *12*: 13-18
- Oladejo J. (2006). Parents' attitudes towards bilingual education policy in Taiwan: Bilingual

- Research Journal. 30(1)
- Oller and Cobo-Lewis. (2002). 'The Ability of Bilingual and Monolingual children to Perform Phonological Translation'. In D. Kimbrough Oller and R.E. Eilers (eds.) 'Language and Literacy in Bilingual Children.' Child Language and Child Development; 2 (Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters). 255–277.
- Ortega, L. (2014). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. *Understanding Second Language Acquisitionn*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203777282
- Oxford, R. L. (2003). Language Learning Styles and Strategies: an Overview. Learning.
- Oxford, R. L. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Language learning strategies. Teaching and Researching: Language Learning Strategies*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315838816
- 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): 223-236
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. Thousand Oaks. *Cal.: Sage Publications*.
- Pearson, B. Z. (2007). Social factors in childhood bilingualism in the United States. In *Applied Psycholinguistics*. 28(3): 399-410
- Pelletier, J., & Brent, J. M. (2002). Parent participation in children' school readiness: The effects of parental self-efficacy, cultural diversity and teacher Strategies. *International Journal of Early Childhood*, 34(1): 45-60
- Piotrowski, J. T., Lapierre, M. A., & Linebarger, D. L. (2013). Investigating Correlates of Self-Regulation in Early Childhood with a Representative Sample of English-Speaking American Families. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*.22(3): 423-436
- Pong, S. L., Johnston, J., & Chen, V. (2010). Authoritarian parenting and Asian adolescent school performance: Insights from the US and Taiwan. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0165025409345073
- R. Filippi, J. Morris, F. M. Richardson, P. Bright, M. S. Thomas, A. Karmiloff-Smith, & V.

- Marian, (2015). Bilingual children show an advantage in controlling verbal interference during spoken language comprehension. Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 18(3), 490-501.
- Reyes, I. (2008). Bilingualism: A holistic view. In J. González (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Bilingual Education in the US, SAGE Publications.
- Reyes, I., & Azuara, P. (2008). Emergent Biliteracy in Young Mexican Immigrant Children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 43(4): 374-398
- Riley, E. H.-E. and P. (2003). *The Bilingual Family: A Handbook for Parents*. Cambridge University Press.
- Roberts, P., & Priest, H. (2006). Reliability and validity in research. *Nursing Standard (Royal College of Nursing (Great Britain) : 1987*). https://doi.org/10.7748/ns2006.07.20.44.41.c6560
- Sanvictores, T., & Mendez, M. D. (2021). Types of Parenting Styles and Effects On Children. StatPearls.
- Schmidt, R. (2002). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. Longman Publishing Group.
- Schwarz, N., & Bohner, G. (2007). The Construction of Attitudes. In *Blackwell Handbook of Social Psychology: Intraindividual Processes*. 436-457
- Scovel, T. (1978). the effect of affect on foreign language learning: a review of the anxiety research. *language learning*.28(1):128-142
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 10(1): 209-241
- Shang, H., Ingebritson, R., & Tseng, C. (2007). Taiwanese parental perceptions toward English learning in bilingual kindergarten. *Applied English Education*.32(2): 135-149
- Shank, I. S. (2008). Cognitive flexibility in preschool children: Does bilingualism have an impact on executive functions? University of Oslo. Unpublished master thesis.

- Skibbe, L. E., Bindman, S. W., Hindman, A. H., Aram, D., & Morrison, F. J. (2013). Longitudinal relations between parental writing support and preschoolers' language and literacy skills. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 48(4): 386-402
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1994). Mother Tongue Maintenance: The Debate. Linguistic Human Rights and Minority Education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(3): 625-628
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & Mohanty, A. K. (1995). Bilingualism in a Multilingual Society: Psycho-Social and Pedagogical Implications. *TESOL Quarterly*. 29(4): 775-780
- Smit, F., Driessen G., Sluiter, R. & Brus, M. (2007). Parents, schools and diversity: Parental involvement in schools with many and few underprivileged pupils. Nijmegen: ITS, Radboud Universitet Nijmegen.
- Soto, R. A. (2016). Raising a bilingual child: The top five myth Baby Registry
- Stacer, M. J., & Perrucci, R. (2013). Parental Involvement with Children at School, Home, and Community. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, *34*(3): 340-354
- Stoltz, B. M., & Fischel, J. E. (2003). Evidence for different parent-child strategies while reading. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 26(3): 286-297
- Szyszka, M. (2017). Foreign Language Anxiety in the Context of Foreign Language Oral Performance, Language and Pronunciation Learning Strategies: pp. 51-85
- Tabors, P. O. (2008). One Child, Two Languages: A Guide for Early Childhood Educators of Children Learning English as a Second Language. Paul H. Brookes Publishing Company: 106-120
- Tavil, Z. M. (2009). Parental attitudes toward English Education for kindergarten students in Turkey. *Katamonu Education Journal*, *1*, 331–340.
- Tewksbury, R. (2009). Qualitative versus Quantitative Methods: Understanding Why Qualitative Methods are Superior for Criminology and Criminal Justice. *Journal of Theoretical and Philosophical Criminology*, *I*(1): 38-58
- Torras, M. C., & Gafaranga, J. (2002). Social identities and language alternation in non-formal institutional bilingual talk: Trilingual service encounters in Barcelona. *Language in Society*.

527-548

- Weishuang Guo, Shushi Yao, (2022). Cognitive Benefits of Being Bilingual for Young Children: A Literature Review: *University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada*
- Wu, C.-H. (2005). Attitude and behavior toward bilingualism for Chinese parents and children.

 Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism. J. Cohen, K. T. McAlister,

 K. Rolstad & J. MacSwan (Eds). SOmerville, MA: Cascadilla Press: 2389-2392

APPENDIX 1

Interview guide

Background questions

- How old are you?
- What is the level of your education?
- How long have you been living in Norway?
- Do you work?
- How many children do you have? How old are they? (Number and age of siblings)
- What language(s) do you speak with your spouse/partner at home?
- What language(s) do you speak to your children at home? (Language(s) both parents use with children)
- Which language does your child speak to you and your spouse/partner?
- Does the language which your child uses with you change in different contexts/places?
- Which language(s) do your children speak to each other?
- Does this language change in different contexts? (Referring to previous question)

Attitudes to bilingualism

- Is bilingualism important to you? Why?
- Do you consider bilingualism as having positive or negative effects on your child's language development?
- Do you think that bilingualism helps/hinders educational progress of your child?
- Do you put effort to keep the two languages simultaneously? How?
- Do you want your child to be able to speak/understand the two languages equally?
 Why yes or no?
- How about reading and writing in two languages?

Language skills questions (L1 and L2)

Speaking

- Do you work on your child's accents (pronunciation)? If yes, how?
- Do you have family dinner time discussions?
- If yes, in what language(s) do you or your spouse/partner and vice versa talk to your child?
- If so, what kinds of topics do you talk about?
- How do you work on vocabulary?
- Do you correct your child's speaking errors?
- What kind of oral mistakes do you correct? How?
- Does this correction differ between mother and father?
- Do you/your spouse tend to correct errors in one language more than the other?
- In general, how do you help your child to speak L1 and L2?

Reading

- Do you encourage your child to read?
- If yes How often do you read to your child (you and/or your spouse/partner)?
- In what language do you read to your child (you and/or your spouse/partner)?
- What kind of (L1 and L2) books do you read to your child/or your child reads?
- How do you engage your child in reading?
- How does your child follow reading (ex. closes eyes and listens or talks)?
- Do you use flash cards to practice new vocabularies (explain to parents)?
- Do you buy books or rent them from library? How often?
- Do you have a special place at home to read with your child?
- How do you make the meaning clear if your child does not understand something?
- Does your child ask questions which he/she is listening to you?
- In which language does your child ask questions?
- In which languages does your child ask for translation, if at all wants?

Listening

- How often does your child watch TV?
- In what language does your child watch TV?

- How often does your child listen to music?
- In what language does your child listen to music?
- What kinds of programs does your child watch? (Educational, cartoons, etc.,)
- Have you provided your child with personal audio-visual devices (iPad, mp3 player, etc.)?
- Do have song/songs to sing with your child (mother/father distinction, languages they use)?
- Does your child like listening to stories you read to them?
- If yes, in what language(s)?

Writing

- Which language(s) does your child write in (for example in texting to friends, assignments in school, at home, with friends)?
- Does your mother tongue language have a different alphabet? If yes, then how do you help your child?
- Do you teach your mother tongue alphabet to your child? How?
- What kinds of activities do you use for writing? For example, writing a shopping list?
- Do you assist your child with spelling? How?
- How do you correct your child's spelling? (oral/written).
- How do you correct other errors in writing?
- Do you practice writing with your child? (If so, where/when).
- In what languages (referring to previous question)?
- Is there anything else that you do to support both L1 and L2 writing?