Language Attitudes of Secondary School Students Towards English, Cantonese and Putonghua in the Context of Post-colonial Hong Kong

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List of contents

List of tables and figures

Tables:

Figures:

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter One of this thesis comprises four main sections. The background of the study, including the social and linguistic situation of post-colonial Hong Kong, is overviewed in the first and second sections. The following section draws a general picture for the research scope, including its aims, significant issues and the importance of the research. The structure and contents of the thesis are then outlined in the last section.

1.1 Post-colonial Hong Kong

Hong Kong was a British colony and later territory between 1842 and 1997, an unusual span of about 155 years. Two characteristics of post-colonial Hong Kong are important as background for this study on language attitudes. The first is Hong Kong's new political dependence on China (the People's Republic of China, or sometimes, Mainland China or simply China) after the change of sovereignty handover in 1997 from the UK. The second is Hong Kong's developed economic status as a major international financial centre, a status that began in the 80s and matured in the 90s.

1.1.1 Hong Kong as part of China

Since 1997, Hong Kong has been a "Special Administrative Region" of China, one of two regions with this status in relation to China. The other region is Macau, a much smaller former Portuguese colony next to Hong Kong that returned to China in 1999.

The situation in Hong Kong is highly unique among post-colonial regions in the world. Instead of the more usual post-colonial independence, Hong Kong went back to China. Observers have called this situation "decolonization without independence" (Lau, 1987, 1990). As Bray (1997) pointed out: "Hong Kong's reintegration with China rather than a transition to independent sovereignty is perhaps the most striking feature which distinguishes its situation from that of most other colonial territories".

Some observers see the new arrangement as another form of colonialism and external control and argue that Hong Kong's transition is not one of decolonisation but rather of "recolonisation" or "neocolonisation" (Scott, 1995; Law, 1997).

However, Hong Kong is unique even in the context of recolonisation. Unlike the handful of other recolonisation cases such as Goa (which joined India in 1961) and West Irian (which joined Indonesia in 1963), Hong Kong holds unusually high degrees of autonomy and self-governance within China.

Since the change of sovereignty, Hong Kong has been operating under the agreement of "One Country, Two Systems" with China. Under this system, Hong Kong enjoys significant autonomy in the vast majority of internal affairs, including economic, judicial, and social affairs, as well as immigration affairs. Meanwhile, China is only to handle defence and the majority of foreign affairs. This agreement is guaranteed for at least 50 years and its implementation has generally been seen as a success.

The recolonisation of Hong Kong has brought unprecedented social and economic integration with China, a feature that was much less common before 1997 despite the geographic closeness.

In terms of population interaction, Hong Kong has now become a key gateway and source to the Mainland for business and tourism. In 2008, about 67 million trips were made by Hong Kong residents to the Mainland by land. Additionally, over four million foreign visitors made trips to the Mainland through Hong Kong. Each day, there was an average of about 170 ferry trips, 120 flights, 540 train connections, and 42,000 vehicle crossings between Hong Kong and the Mainland in the year 2008 (Hong Kong Government, 2009).

This interaction is also true from China to Hong Kong. As a liberalisation measure under the Closer Economic Partnership Arrangement (CEPA), the Individual Visit Scheme (IVS) was introduced in July 2003. Under the scheme, Mainland residents in 49 cities are allowed to visit Hong Kong in their individual capacity with seven-day visas issued by the Mainland's Public Security Bureau. Previously, Mainlanders could only travel to Hong Kong under business visas or by joining organised group tours. The enhanced ease of travel brought by IVS led to a tremendous growth in Mainland tourist arrivals. Comparing 2007 with 2002, the number of Mainland residents visiting Hong Kong more than doubled from 6.8 million to 15.5 million, representing an average growth of 17.8% per year (Hong Kong Government, 2008).

A notable economic policy example is The Mainland and Hong Kong Closer Economic Partnership Arrangement (CEPA), which was signed on 29 June 2003. CEPA is the first free trade agreement ever signed between Mainland China and Hong Kong. CEPA opens up huge markets for Hong Kong goods and services, greatly enhancing the

economic cooperation and integration between the Mainland and Hong Kong. Under the agreement of CEPA, all goods of Hong Kong origin imported into the Mainland enjoy tariff-free treatment upon application by local manufacturers and upon meeting CEPA rules of origin (Trade and Industry Department, 2009).

The demographics of Hong Kong have also been greatly enhanced under Chinese rule. Hong Kong is currently a city of roughly 7 million people. It has a fertility rate of only 0.95 children per woman, one of the lowest in the world and far below the 2.1 children per woman required to keep a stable population. Yet at the same time, it has a life expectancy of 81.6 years (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2005). It is reported that, as of 2009, the life expectancy for both males and females in Hong Kong is the second highest in the world (Sing Tao Daily, 2009). Immigration is thus necessary to support the population of Hong Kong as the natural birth rate itself cannot support the population as it ages. This need for immigration is met primarily by Mainland China, which is the largest source of immigrants to Hong Kong. The closer integration with China is expected to enhance this flow of needed immigrants from Mainland China. The Hong Kong Government's *Half-yearly Economic Report 2007*, Box 5.1 reports: "The 2006 Population Census revealed a figure of 217,100 for those who had arrived and settled in Hong Kong for less than seven years [via the One-Way Permit Scheme, a quota-based immigration arrangement for Hong Kong permanent residents' close relatives]" (Hong Kong Government, 2007). Other immigration schemes, for example ones targeting skilled immigrants, have also been implemented after the change of sovereignty in 1997, and immigration policy is an active area of local political legislation.

The political change, followed by the social change of immigrants from China, has had profound influences on the culture of Hong Kong, not the least of which is the rapid

growth of Putonghua education and usage in the region, which will be discussed in a later section.

1.1.2 Hong Kong as an international financial centre

Hong Kong's strategic location in the Asia Pacific, its convenient geography for ports, and its very friendly business laws have made it transform rapidly in the 80s from an export-driven manufacturing economy to a global financial and business centre. Hong Kong today has one of the highest concentrations of corporate headquarters in the Asia-Pacific region. It has one of the largest stock exchanges in the world and one of the fastest growing economies in the Asia-Pacific region (Preston & Haacke, 2003).

The economy of Hong Kong is also supported by very modern infrastructure. The Hong Kong International Airport (HKIA), for example, has become one of the busiest airports in the world, served by more than 90 airlines providing passenger and freight services to more than 150 destinations worldwide, including some 40 cities in the Mainland. Annual passenger volume and air traffic movements reached 48.6 million and 301,285 in 2008, having grown 1.7 per cent and 2 per cent over 2007 respectively. Air cargo volume in the same period was 3.6 million tonnes. These figures would generally put the HKIA in the top 5 busiest airports in the world. In addition, the HKIA was named the world's best airport for the seventh time in eight years in the 2008 annual Skytrax survey, and recognised by the Airports Council International in 2008 as the world's best airport serving over 40 million passengers annually (Hong Kong Government, 2009).

This developed economy is in strong contrast to the situation of most other post-colonial entities, which tend to start at a low level of economic development at independence. Instead, Hong Kong was already a booming modern metropolis and international financial centre when it returned to China in 1997. The "One Country,

Two Systems" agreement with China assures the territory that its economic freedom in international business and finance would remain unaltered for at least the near future, and despite downturns in 1997 and 2003, Hong Kong remains one of the largest and most influential business centres in the world, generally considered to be the critical intermediary between the business worlds of the East and the West.

This highly commercialized nature of Hong Kong continues to impact the importance of English in the region even after the change of sovereignty. English is widely spoken by the professional population and continual study of English is required in secondary schools. Tertiary institutions of education continue to operate predominantly in English, as well.

1.1.3 Summary

Hong Kong's situation since the change of sovereignty in 1997 has been driven by political alignment with China, increased immigration from China, and increased business and cultural dealings with China. In line with this development, Putonghua, the official language of China, is increasingly used in Hong Kong.

At the same time, Hong Kong remains one of the world's major international business and financial centres with the capacity to maintain and even increase its standing. As such, the region continues to maintain strong ties to the English-speaking world and to the English language.

1.2 The linguistic landscape of Hong Kong

1.2.1 Background on Chinese

The term “Chinese”, when referring to a specific language, is ambiguous. The usual understanding is that there are multiple “dialects” of Chinese. However, the major dialects of Chinese are generally not mutually intelligible when spoken. In addition, the different dialects can also differ greatly in grammar and vocabulary.

It is a generally held view for many years that the dialects of Chinese are in fact different languages. For example, the Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language states “The mutual unintelligibility of the varieties is the main ground for referring to them [Chinese dialects] as separate languages” (Crystal, 1987: 312). Also, “To call Chinese a single language composed of dialects with varying degrees of difference is to mislead by minimizing disparities that…are as great as those between English and Dutch” (DeFrancis, 1984: 56).

Some more on the distinction of languages will be discussed in the Literature Review, because languages are sometimes classified based on more political than linguistic reasons. But for the practical purposes of this study, the different dialects of Chinese are treated as different languages. The terms “language” and “dialect” will be used interchangeably except when the term “dialect” is used specifically to emphasize a distinction between different forms of Chinese.

The proper written form of modern Chinese, however, is fairly standard across dialects. Among the numerous Chinese dialects, the Northern Dialect — whose pronunciation is based on the Beijing dialect – was chosen as Standard Chinese. Standard Chinese is also called *Putonghua*, which means “common speech” and is used throughout

mainland China. The written form of modern Chinese is based mostly on the spoken standards of Putonghua in terms of structure, vocabulary, and grammar. Unlike English or most other modern languages, the Chinese writing system is not phonetic and is only weakly related to the spoken sounds of the language. This allows for a common written form across dialects but also significantly increases the difficulty of the writing system. The written form of Chinese is sometimes called Modern Standard Chinese.

Like many other modern languages, but notably not like English, there is a regulatory body for Modern Standard Chinese: the State Language and Writing Commission of the People's Republic of China. Thus, there is an officially correct form for written Chinese in China. There is little regulation in the various spoken forms of Chinese, however.

Two major languages in this study are Cantonese and Putonghua, two varieties of Chinese. Cantonese is local to the Hong Kong region and some places in the Canton (Guangdong) province of China. Putonghua is the official spoken form of the Chinese government and is local to large areas of northern China. Generally, the population of Mainland China can speak Putonghua at least as a second dialect due to practical needs and official policy. The situation in Hong Kong has been different, though, as Putonghua was rarely officially used during British rule of Hong Kong and there was less practical need as well.

Linguistically, Cantonese and Putonghua are somewhat different in grammar and vocabulary, and are significantly different in pronunciation. The spoken forms of Cantonese and Putonghua are not mutually intelligible.

As with all Chinese dialects, there is a shared common written form for Cantonese and Putonghua and this is the preferred form of formal written Chinese in Hong Kong.

However, non-standard forms of written Cantonese are common in less formal contexts and in the popular press in Hong Kong.

The political, social, and educational issues of Putonghua and Cantonese in Hong Kong involve the spoken form and not so much the written form, as the standard written form is already accepted and used in Hong Kong, at least formally.

Other major dialects of Chinese are also generally distinct and not mutually intelligible when spoken. These are treated as different languages in this study but are not discussed at length.

1.2.2 Background on language use in Hong Kong

Hong Kong is linguistically complex. As of the year 2006, the percentages of languages used by the population in Hong Kong can be seen in Table 1.1 below:

Table 1.1 Population aged 5 and over by usual language in Hong Kong (in percentages)

Language	As the Usual Language			As Another Language/Dialect			Total		
	1996	2001	2006	1996	2001	2006	1996	2001	2006
Cantonese	88.7	89.2	**90.8**	6.6	6.8	**5.7**	95.2	96.1	**96.5**
English	3.1	3.2	**2.8**	34.9	39.8	**41.9**	38.1	43.0	**44.7**
Putonghua	1.1	0.9	**0.9**	24.2	33.3	**39.2**	25.3	34.1	**40.2**
Hakka	1.2	1.3	1.1	3.6	3.8	3.6	4.9	5.1	4.7
Chiu Chau	1.1	1.0	0.8	3.9	3.8	3.2	5.0	4.8	3.9
Fukien (including Taiwanese)	1.9	1.7	1.2	2.0	2.3	2.1	3.9	3.9	3.4
Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia)	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.7	1.2	1.5	0.9	1.3	1.7
Filipino (Tagalog)	0.2	0.2	0.1	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.8	1.9	1.4

Japanese	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.2
Shanghainese	0.5	0.4	0.3	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.6	1.5	1.2

(Source: Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2007)

As can be seen, by far the most commonly used language is Cantonese, from 1996 to 2006. However, by the year 2006, English and Putonghua were each used by 41.9% and 39.2% of the population respectively as another language. Overall, over 40% of the population can use English and Putonghua and over 96% of the population can use Cantonese in 2006. Therefore, Cantonese, English and Putonghua are the three main languages used in Hong Kong today, far more than the next most common language, Hakka, in terms of total users. Hakka, Chiu Chau, Fukien, and Shanghainese are different dialects of Chinese.

It can be seen from Table 1.1 above that the distinct and rapid growth of Putonghua in terms of total speakers was from just over 25% in 1996 to over 40% in 2006. There was also an increase in English speakers, but the increase is not as dramatic, rising from just over 38% in 1996 to under 45% in 2006. The main minority languages of Hong Kong are various other Chinese dialects and the languages of neighbouring countries, and none of these languages had shown big changes in usage between 1996 and 2006.

The change of sovereignty and the corresponding increase in Putonghua usage has brought the prospect of Cantonese, English, and Putonghua finding a new equilibrium with each other in Hong Kong society. As can be seen from Table 1.1, we can expect the number of Putonghua speakers to be roughly equal to the number of English speakers in the near future, if not already in 2009. In terms of language adoption, 10 years is a relatively short period of time, and the social and political adjustments regarding language change can be highly active and complex.

1.2.3 Background on high-level language policy

The language policy of Hong Kong has often presented somewhat of a difference between official language support and practical language adoption, hinting at the importance of population attitudes in making language adoption more widespread. High-level language support has often been made through official support or official government language use, but practical policy and popular adoption have not always been the same as the high-level policies.

Under British rule, the government of Hong Kong instituted an official multi-lingual policy for government use. In 1974, the Official Language Ordinance of 1974 declared English and Chinese the official languages of Hong Kong "for the purposes of communication between the Government or any public officer and members of the public" (Hong Kong Government, 1974). Under the circumstances, "Chinese" referred to Cantonese. However, as can be seen in Table 1.1, English never fully reached widespread adoption in the population even in 1996, when just over 38% of the population could communicate in English. This is despite the fact that all education in Hong Kong was predominantly conducted in English during British rule. Furthermore, the use of English grew even between 1996 and 2006 under Chinese rule, suggesting no direct link between official use and influences on popular use.

In the years leading up to the change of sovereignty, the British government has also encouraged the use of Putonghua. The last British Governor, Christopher Patten, declared his intent to promote the wider use of Putonghua and "to strengthen the teaching of Putonghua in schools" in his policy address of 1995 (Patten, 1995: 79).

Then in March 1995, a working group on the use of Chinese was set up under the chairmanship of the Secretary for the Civil Service. This group produced a report that

formulated the goal of the government to adopt a multi-lingual environment for the provision of public goods and serves that included Putonghua: “It is already the Government’s ultimate objective to develop a civil service which is biliterate (in English and Chinese) and trilingual (in English, Cantonese and Putonghua)” (Civil Service Branch, 1995: 5). This would become the beginning of official support of Putonghua in Hong Kong. However, again, most of the change in the wide-spread adoption of Putonghua in terms of practical policy like education and popular use was only to happen some time later. Before and around 1997, school curricula, mass media, and job requirements still emphasized English without much reference in regard to Putonghua.

After the change of sovereignty in 1997, Hong Kong instituted a formal policy of “bi-literacy and tri-lingualism” in Hong Kong. Tri-lingualism refers to Cantonese, English, and Putonghua. Bi-literacy refers to Chinese and English, reflecting the fact that Cantonese and Putonghua have essentially the same written form. This policy was instituted to better reflect the political situation and the future direction of Hong Kong (Tung, 1999, 2000, 2003).

After “bi-literacy and tri-lingualism”, dramatic language changes, both by practical policy and by popular use, began to take effect in Hong Kong. Practical language policy, especially language education policy, became a subject of tremendous debate among policy-makers and educators. Putonghua has been introduced to school curricula and there is on-going debate over teaching students in Cantonese. This debate continues today and remains an unresolved issue for the post-colonial government as well as for the Hong Kong people. This topic will be discussed more in the next section. Unofficially, local Putonghua television stations started to broadcast, and Putonghua has become a practical requirement in the job market. Such changes introduced a period

of changing environment for languages in Hong Kong and created a situation of language competition in the minds of the Hong Kong people and the Hong Kong government.

1.2.4 The current climate of language competition

In the decade after 1997, both the government and the demands of life have shaped unprecedented change in language use and status in Hong Kong. The speed of such change is rare among situations of linguistic evolution. On the one hand, the government has been more active but careful in trying to formulate a suitable balance among the three languages for practical policy. On the other hand, the evolution of the Hong Kong economy and of the Hong Kong demographics has unofficially encouraged people to assess their language situation as well. We discuss a major educational policy issue and some facts to demonstrate the current climate of language competition in Hong Kong.

In matters of practical policy, the most recent controversial issue has been "mother-tongue teaching", that is, using mother-tongue (Cantonese) as medium of instruction in secondary school teaching. For much of Hong Kong's history, secondary education has been predominantly conducted in English. The British government had tried to promote Cantonese teaching in the 1980s but ultimately did not turn the idea into influential policy. As with many other postcolonial governments, the Hong Kong government under China also tried to promote Cantonese language in education. In 1998, not long after the change in sovereignty, the Hong Kong government officially introduced the "mother-tongue teaching" policy into secondary schools. While the introduction of Putonghua as a secondary language in schools met with no major disagreements, the "mother-tongue teaching" policy continues to be very controversial (For further references to the language education discussion, refer to Pierson, 1992; Pun,

1997; Li, 1996, 1999; Adamson & Lai, 1997; Johnson, 1998; Pierson, 1998; Pennington, 1998; Zhang & Yang, 2004; Bacon-Shone & Bolton, 2008).

Under this policy, most secondary schools (over 75% of the schools) were required to teach students from Secondary 1 to Secondary 3 in Cantonese, which is considered the students' mother-tongue. Despite the fact that schools and parents expressed strong objection to the policy, it was made compulsory for all schools unless they could produce strong evidence to show that their teaching staff and students were capable of delivering and receiving effective lessons through English. As a result of the mandatory Mother-Tongue Education Policy, only 114 secondary schools retained the status of EMI (English Medium Instruction) schools while the rest had to convert to CMI (Chinese/Cantonese Medium of Instruction) status and adopt Cantonese as their medium of instruction (CMI) (Zhang & Yang 2004). Michael Suen Ming-yeung, the Secretary for Education for the Hong Kong government, reviewed the change ten years after introduction of the policy:

> At the beginning of the 80s, about 90% of the secondary schools in Hong Kong adopted English as their medium of instruction. Since the Government's promotion of mother-tongue teaching in the 80s, the number of secondary schools choosing mother-tongue teaching has increased steadily. At the present moment, the number of schools adopting mother-tongue teaching has already increased from 20% to 75% out of the total number of secondary schools in Hong Kong. In other words, currently 70% of our secondary school students are learning through the mother tongue. (Suen, 2008)

Thus, the mother-tongue teaching policy has effectively created two secondary education systems in Hong Kong: English schools that use English to teach all subjects

except Chinese and Chinese schools that use Cantonese to teach all subjects except English.

This has created an important point of debate in Hong Kong. Although the majority of the population uses Cantonese as the common communication link in their daily lives, as an international port and a former British colony, Hong Kong has gotten used to using English to conduct most official affairs and international commercial business.

The “mother-tongue teaching” policy continues to stir debate. Not all parents and schools support the policy and parents want their children taught in English so they could gain access to university and jobs in government and international commerce - all largely needing English. During the implementation of the change, some parents threatened to hold demonstrations or take the government to court if their children's schools were forced to switch to Chinese. Others were distressed when their children were turned away by English-medium schools in the scramble for places when the designated schools were announced. Principals of Chinese-medium schools also attacked the plan, warning that the reforms would promote a negative “labelling effect” against their schools and place them under pressure from parents to switch to the English medium (SCMP, 2009a) .

On this situation, Suen, the Secretary for Education of Hong Kong noted that people “generally think that that the division of schools into CMI and EMI has brought labelling effects and exerted undue pressure on teachers and students of CMI schools…[and] the motivation of students in learning English has been dampened” (Suen, 2008). Now, ten years after the introduction of “Mother-tongue teaching Policy”, in June 2008, Suen released interim proposals for “fine-tuning” the policy in response to such complaints. These changes are designed to eliminate the strict divide between English-medium and Chinese-medium schools and give schools more autonomy in

deciding their medium of instruction. The full proposals were released in January, 2009 and officially admitted in in May, 2009. The new policy has been scheduled to start in September, 2010 (Suen, 2008; SCMP, 2009a, 2009b).

The underlying idea of Suen's "fine-tuning" proposal was to try to increase students' exposure to English while minimising the "labelling effect" on Chinese-medium schools and introduce the flexibility for schools to adopt English-medium teaching by class, group, subject, or lesson, according to their particular circumstances and student profile. For example, any class with 85 per cent of its students in the top 40 per cent of students entering Form One could be taught in English. Meanwhile, other classes that do not meet this requirement would have to be taught in Chinese but up to 25 per cent of class time could be set aside for "extended learning activities conducted in English". Speaking on an RTHK phone-in show, Suen said:

> Mother-tongue teaching in the past decade has been a success in engaging students to learn. The fine-tuning measures are now going to improve their English ability. Our policy cannot take care of all demands raised by every stakeholder. As the policymaker, we must see where the biggest social benefit lies and insist on our direction. (SCMP, 2009b)

It is too early to tell if Suen will win enough support from all parties involved - especially from teachers - to make the "fine-tuning" idea work[1], but his proposed idea of "fine-tuning" the "Mother-tongue Teaching Policy" indicates keener language conflicts between English and Cantonese, and also indirectly Putonghua, as the linguistic ecology of Hong Kong develops in post-colonial Hong Kong. The

[1] In protest against the government's "fine-tuning" policy, members of the executive committee of the Association of Hong Kong Chinese Middle School, which advocates mother-tongue teaching and represents more than 190 schools, resigned en masse on the same day when Mr. Suen officially admitted his proposal on 29th May, 2009 (SCMP, 2009b).

mother-tongue education policy is the most prominent example of the much more active attention the language situation in Hong Kong has been getting since 1997.

On the practical daily life side of language change, there has also been cultural competition among the languages. A short example of this competition is the language representation in public media in Hong Kong.

Public media face a special problem in a multi-lingual society. The media companies need to tailor their programming to the language preferences of the population. There are two public television networks in Hong Kong, TVB (Television Broadcasts Ltd.) and ATV (Asia Television Ltd.). Each has traditionally run one English television channel and one Cantonese television channel.

Since 1997, as Putonghua has claimed territory in different areas of daily life in Hong Kong, both TVB and ATV have begun to re-evaluate their programming. Both have expressed their plan to decrease the number of English-language programmes they air and replace them with more shows in Putonghua. ATV plans to have Putonghua programmes represent 40% of the broadcasting hours on its World channel, and TVB has asked the broadcasting authorities for permission to air Putonghua on their Pearl channel during the primetime hours of 7:00 pm to 11:00 pm. Both channels were traditionally the networks' completely English channels. These two major TV channels believe that they need to meet the demand from Putonghua speakers and to cater to locals who wish to learn the language. Furthermore, the belief is that English programming should be decreased instead of Cantonese programming to make room for Putonghua (Leung, 2002).

Thus, the forces that are affecting Putonghua in Hong Kong have been widespread and increasing, not only in official ways but also in daily life. How well these changes

coordinate with each other and in relation to English and Cantonese are yet to be finalized.

1.2.5 The general path of language attitudes

Both practical government policy and cultural adoption of languages are reflections of language attitudes in the population. This section presents a general overview of the changing language attitudes in Hong Kong since 1997 and more details will be discussed in the Literature Review. Overall, there seems to be evidence of change in attitudes towards Putonghua since 1997, especially in comparison with English.

Just before 1997, there was some concern that the unavoidable increase in the use of Putonghua would decrease the widespread use of English in Hong Kong. There was suspicion that Putonghua would "take over from English as a high-status language for discourse and non-locals will favour those groups within the population who have strong fluency in Putonghua" (Bray, 1997: 20).

On the other side, some believed that English would maintain its position as the high status language (Adamson & Auyeung Lai, 1997). Around 1997, it was witnessed that parents continued to favour instruction in English for their children, despite the fact that it was the language of the colonisers and that the colonial period was coming to a close. Their reasons, as Bray (1997) suggested, "were pragmatic rather than political: the fact that English was the colonial language was incidental and its more important features included its usefulness as an international language for trade and general communication" (Bray, 1997: 18).

In the time since 1997, as empirical studies have pointed out, English has certainly maintained a dominant position in Hong Kong in the minds of the population, especially in terms of its career-related usefulness. Furthermore, the official government

policy of Hong Kong, both practical and more high-level, has not actively depressed the use or status of English in Hong Kong and there seems to be no political or popular pressure to do so.

Meanwhile, although the empirical studies have shown generally low positions for Putonghua even as recently as 2002 (Lai, 2002), other recent studies such as Zhang and Yang (2004) have indicated the increasing status of Putonghua in Hong Kong, potentially towards a level at which Putonghua may compete with the status of English.

1.2.6 Summary

Hong Kong's three main languages are Cantonese, English, and Putonghua. Officially, they are now all supported by the policy of "bi-literacy and tri-lingualism" in Hong Kong. However, history has suggested that official language policy is not always reflected in practical policy and popular use.

Although always present, the competition between the three languages has intensified greatly after 1997 in terms of practical policy and unofficial use.

Since 1997, practical public policy has been focused on increasing the use of Cantonese in Hong Kong, especially in schools. However, public sentiment still strongly favours the use of English in schools and recent policy adjustments have reflected that sentiment. The spread of Putonghua in Hong Kong has seen both policy responses such as introducing Putonghua in school curricula and mass public adoption.

Both practical policy and public adoption of languages are reflections of language attitudes in society. As the linguistic competition evolves in Hong Kong, so do the language attitudes change. There has been evidence of changing language attitudes especially with regards to Putonghua, and this study is intended to be a recent addition to the history of language attitudes in Hong Kong.

1.3 Aims and significance

1.3.1 Scope of the study

As the political and social language landscape in Hong Kong changes, so do the underlying language attitudes in Hong Kong. This study focuses on the current (2008) language attitude situation in Hong Kong.

A decade has passed since the change of sovereignty in 1997, and in that time a new generation has grown up almost completely under Chinese rule. This new generation completed its entire primary and secondary school education in the context of post-colonial Hong Kong and are the first products of Hong Kong's post-colonial educational system. This generation would be in Secondary 3 in 2008, and they are the targets of this study.

Language attitude studies on students have often focused on the relationship between language attitudes and language achievement. In this way, they aim to predict student achievement or improve teaching methodology (for example, Gardner, 1985). The aim of this current study on student language attitudes is to understand how students of the first post-colonial generation perceive the status, value, and importance of the three major language varieties in Hong Kong, not related to language achievement.

In addition to studying the dimensions of attitude towards English, Cantonese, and Putonghua in Hong Kong, this study goes further to explore interrelationships between attitude types and examine the influence of factors such as social identity, gender, and school background on student language attitudes.

1.3.2 Research questions and hypotheses

This study is mainly a quantitative survey that elicits responses from a sample population at one particular time. It is cross-sectional and aims to discover overall language attitudes of secondary school students within the generation that has grown up and completed primary and secondary education entirely under the context of post-colonial Hong Kong. The languages studied are the three most widely used ones in Hong Kong – English, Cantonese, and Putonghua.

This study examines the students' language attitudes towards English, Cantonese and Putonghua. Furthermore, this study goes into significant detail analyzing the effects of social and home related background factors on the attitudes of the students under study. The study uses two main methods of eliciting student language attitudes, the written method and the aural method, to analyze different qualities of language attitude.

More specifically, this study aims to answer the following questions:

a) What are the affective and cognitive language attitudes of secondary school students towards the three language varieties of English, Putonghua and Cantonese?

b) Are the affective and cognitive language attitudes related?

c) What dimensions or qualities do these students evaluate the three languages on?

d) What kinds of background characteristics influence the language attitudes of these students towards the three languages?

Accordingly, there are several research hypotheses for the study:

a) There is a lot of reason to hypothesize that the Hong Kong language situation has changed since 1997. However, in the post-colonial context of Hong Kong, English will still be evaluated higher than Cantonese and Putonghua by students because of

its high instrumental value, though the dominant status of English has been greatly shaken and challenged after the sovereignty changed in 1997. Students support English because they will benefit from using it in the future, such as getting a better job or pursuing further study in universities. Meanwhile, Cantonese, as the mother-tongue for most students, has its integrative and inter-group communicative value for Hong Kong students. It is the language of bonding, identity, and family. However, Cantonese is now officially a dialect within China. Thus, it is hypothesized that Cantonese will be judged lower on students' overall attitudes. The attitudes towards Putonghua are likely to be complicated, in the period of ten years after the sovereignty handover. Putonghua as a national official language of China has its specific cultural and pragmatic value for Hong Kong people. It is, however, somewhat of a new language in the region. Therefore, the position of Putonghua in students' attitudes is hypothesized to be between Cantonese and English.

b) Several previous studies propose that language attitudes involve two basic and related types—Cognitive attitudes and Affective attitudes (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Gardner & Lambert 1972; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Baker, 1992; Cargile, Giles, Ryan & Bradac, 1994; Ajzen, 2005). In term of their relationship, some researchers think the two types are consistent (e.g. Lai 2002) and the others believe they are contrary (e.g. Pieras-Guasp 2002). The hypothesis of this study is that the relationship between the two attitude types is loose and flexible based on different situations and context. In terms of the language attitudes of Hong Kong secondary students towards English, Cantonese and Putonghua, cognitive attitudes are not necessarily consistent with affective attitudes. It should be partly consistent and partly conflicted due to the rapid change of the language situation and the different areas of influence these languages have on the lives of the students.

c) The next hypothesis is that cognitive and affective attitudes can and should be broken down further along meaningful dimensions for more detailed insight. The most established dimensions are a division between Instrumental and Integrative dimensions. These may also be called the status and solidarity dimensions or the achievement and community dimensions (Gardner & Lambert 1972, Baker 1992). It is hypothesized that the language attitudes in Hong Kong will reveal these two dimensions for both cognitive and affective attitudes.

d) The final research hypothesis is that gender, identity, school, and home are four major factors that influence students' language attitudes. All of the four factors should have a noticeable effect on forming students' language attitudes towards English, Cantonese and Putonghua in the context of Hong Kong. The way these background characteristics influence language attitudes may not be so clear due to the unique nature of Hong Kong and the rare characteristic of having three languages instead of the usual two languages that are studied by past studies elsewhere in the world.

1.3.3 Significance of the study

The study of language attitudes provides not only insights into the sociolinguistic transitions of a society as languages evolve but also provides a basis for current and future policy decisions. In addition, it will also be relevant to language learning and teaching in Hong Kong.

Firstly, from an academic significance point of view, Hong Kong presents a highly unusual case of a developed region facing a complicated linguistic transition situation. Past studies have traced a gradual change in the attitudes of Hong Kong people towards different languages (more details are given in the Literature Review). The present study

focuses on the current language attitude situation of Hong Kong and will contribute to the history of language attitude change in Hong Kong, and more generally to other situations of language transition and competition.

The data obtained from the group of students represents the first results based on subjects who spent all of their conscious lives in post-colonial Hong Kong. The results of the study will shed light on the relationships between politics, language attitude, and society. It will also shed light on how strongly growing up under a certain system can influence language attitudes, and thus shed light on the nature of language attitudes themselves.

Secondly, there is a practical perspective to the research. The language attitudes that the students of this study have and how they plan to adapt and make use of these languages will determine the course of language development in Hong Kong in the future. This is very important for policy issues in Hong Kong, as can be seen in the government's effort on Putonghua promotion in schools, the continued debate over "mother-tongue education", and the recent arguments on measures of "fine-tuning" the emphasis on different languages in schools. In terms of recent popular resistance to aspects of language education policy, most of the debate has come from parents and politicians and not from the students themselves. Further changes in such language policy, and especially in educational language policy, may benefit from fuller and more recent overviews of the language attitudes of Hong Kong, especially the attitudes of the students themselves, because any policy for language, especially in the system of education, has to take account of the attitude of those likely to be affected. In Hong Kong, this is particularly important as the current generation of students will likely grow up into a Hong Kong that is linguistically very different from the current situation due to the continued speed of change.

Lastly, language attitudes have been found to play a vital role in language learning, especially in second language learning, and in language achievement (Gardner and Lamber, 1972; Schumann, 1978, 1986; Clement, 1980; Krashen, 1981; Gardner, 1985). The present study will also shed some light on language teaching and learning in Hong Kong.

1.3.4 Summary

This is a quantitative study of language attitudes. The timing is special in that it has been about a decade since the change of sovereignty in Hong Kong. The test subjects of this study are also unique in that they are the first generation to have been completely educated under the post-colonial educational system.

This research will aim to determine the language attitudes of these students, to explore possible differences among these attitudes, and to examine the factors that may affect student attitudes.

The results have theoretical and practical significance: theoretically in the context of how language attitudes change and are affected by different factors; and practically in the language policy implications that require sensitivity to the population's attitudes towards languages.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

Following this Introduction, Chapter One, which briefly introduced the new socio-political background and the linguistic situation among the three spoken languages in the post-colonial context of Hong Kong, Chapter 2 reviews the literature around which this study is based, including theories of language attitudes and previous empirical studies mainly conducted in Hong Kong. In Chapter Three, the methodological issues, for example, research design, data collection and process, statistical techniques, *etc*., are carefully addressed. The analysis and results from the data are discussed in detail in Chapter Four. Chapter Five moves to report findings of this study with in-depth discussion. The final Chapter Six concludes the study with a summary discussion of findings, returning to the main research questions set out in the previous section, and then indicates the implication and the contribution of the study to the research area and the language educational settings of Hong Kong. Bibliography and Appendices then follow.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter reviews and discusses previous literature, including theories and past studies related to this study. The chapter includes three sections: The first section reviews fundamental theories related to language attitudes in a multilingual society. Some concepts used by this study, including *language attitude* itself, will be briefly discussed. The second of the three sections discusses some factors or variables that may affect students' attitudes towards languages, including Gender, Identity, School, and Home factors. And in the third section, previous empirical studies on language attitudes conducted in Hong Kong over the last three decades will be reviewed.

2.1 Language attitudes and multilingual societies

2.1.1 Language

Study of language attitude may begin by briefly examining the theory of language itself. A language is generally not difficult to identify but almost impossible to precisely define.

Language, from one perspective, is very much a private matter. A language is said to

carry our internal thoughts and wishes, and also a part of our personal and social identity. Our linguistic practices reflect our individual lives and experiences. In all these ways, as Graddol and Swann (1989: 5) point out, “our language is our individual property”.

At the same time, from another perspective, a language has an existence outside of the individual person. It exists and continues without any individual. Language, in this sense, seems to be a public resource that serves a speech community and provides for the communication between individuals needed for social interactions.

This tension between the personal and the social belongs to a long western tradition of language study but the distinction is particularly associated with Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. Following Saussure, the object of linguistic study is often taken to be the social, rather than the personal, facts of language.

One original definition proposed by Saussure is that languages are systems of representation that “cut up reality in different ways” (Andersen, 1988: 27) in accordance with a *langue*. The *langue* is an “abstract system of units and rules” (McMahon, 1994: 25) that speakers of a language share on a deep and natural level. The naturalness of *langue* makes it unobservable, and any evidence of its function must come through analysis of *parole*. *Parole* refers to the actual use of language by individuals based on *langue*. The *langue* is not just a system but is also related to ideas about the world:

> It can be argued that the *langue* embodies not only linguistic rules, but also implicit assumptions and correlations about the world, reflecting ideas of the people possessing it. Language, therefore, is used in a “host of discourse contexts…impregnated with the ideology of social systems and institutions.

(Simpson, 1993: 6)

This idea that a particular language is linked to the "unconscious habitual thought" (Gumperz & Levinson 1996: 22) of a particular view of the world was originally proposed by Whorf (1956), who stated that:

> The forms of a person's thoughts are controlled by inexorable laws of pattern of which he is unconscious. These patterns are the unperceived intricate systematizations of his own language…every language is a vast pattern-system, different from others, in which are culturally ordained the forms and categories by which the personality not only communicates, but also analyzes nature, notices or neglects types of relationship and phenomena, channels his reasoning, and builds the house of his consciousness. (Whorf, 1956: 252)

Thus, when a language is talked about, it includes more than just words but also different views of the world. Multilingualism, the use of more than one language by a person or society, then presents a particularly interesting discussion.

2.1.2 Multilingualism

Often in the study of multilingualism, there is the assumption that a user of multiple languages knows which language he is using at any time. He may not know the world view of the different languages, but he knows which language he is speaking. Such an assumption implies that different *langues* are clearly defined. It also implies that speech communities of each language share and recognize the specific *langue*.

There are distinct cases where this may not be true. As with the case in languages in contact, the actual used form of the language can draw on many languages. In Hong Kong, especially among young people, there are cases of "code-mixing" or

"code-switching", where sentences are built using words from more than one language. It is also not unique in Hong Kong, and South Korea presents an example where English words are used commonly in everyday speech but the full English language is not.

Even in these contexts, however, many studies use the assumption that even code-switching belongs to a definite language (for example, Nishimura, 1986).

This view of language as distinct objects is subject to criticism. Mackey (1967:31), for example, describes bilingualism as "a multi-dimensional phenomenon and it is a characteristic of bilingualism that each of its dimensions is highly variable". The view that one can take apart a multilingual community to study the separate languages one at a time is deemed too simple to be possible. Indeed, the boundaries of language can be seen as nothing more than a naming exercise that maintains the belief that there are distinct languages, when in fact multilingualism is one object that cannot be separated and that all the languages together represent one view of the world.

The alternative approach is to analyze a multilingual society as a whole, and seeing different languages as points on a continuous scale rather than as separate items (for example, Luke, 1984). Such a high-level approach, however, should not be seen as a denial of identifiable languages, only that the boundaries between languages are not very distinct.

It is with understanding of the discussion up to now that this study considers three broad categories for the languages currently used in Hong Kong – Cantonese, Putonghua, and English. This categorization is more for convention and ease than for strict accuracy, as it can be argued that Cantonese and Putonghua are the same language, or, alternatively, that each language can be further divided. Indeed, Luke (1984), for

example, divided the then “bilingual” Hong Kong language landscape into six channels of communication: High Cantonese, Low Cantonese, “expedient mixing”, “orientational mixing”, “code-switching”, and English.

With the view that Cantonese, Putonghua, and English are major clusters on a scale of languages, one may then ask what the dimension of that scale is, or whether there are multiple dimensions. Society knows that various languages are different, but the criteria used to tell the differences require consideration. Possible criteria, for example, may be “respect”, “desire to learn”, or “degree of formality”. For example, the use of English loanwords in Cantonese may not be appropriate for high degrees of formality.

2.1.3 Social dimensions of language

Stewart (1968: 534-538) proposes that languages in a multilingual context can be differentiated along the four social dimensions of “standardization”, “autonomy”, “historicity”, and “vitality”.

Standardization refers to the codification and acceptability of a set of correct and acceptable usage of a particular language in society. Standardization typically involves extensive linguistic research resulting in standard dictionaries and documented rules of grammar. The existence of standardization legitimizes the language and encourages its use in formal institutions such as schools and courts. The language enjoys powerful institutional support, and often, official authorities are established to regulate the language. The language is very often recognized as an “official” language of the region or state. Examples of standardized languages are Modern Standard Arabic, standard German, and, of course, standard Chinese. Examples of languages not subject to rigorous standardization include Indian languages such as Maithili and the spoken dialects of Arabic. In Hong Kong’s case, Putonghua would be different from Cantonese

on standardization as Cantonese remains a highly unstructured language, with rules not dictated by an established authority but rather formed by use in daily and professional life.

English is a special case when considering standardization. The proper use and official support of English in international organizations, governments, and businesses undoubtedly grant English high rankings on standardization when differentiating it from, say, an English-Cantonese mix. However, there remains no official regulatory body on the correct and proper usage of English. The large number of speakers is surprisingly mutually understandable, and English has few dialects that are very different from each other. Part of this may be due to the structure of the English language itself, in that its pronunciation and use can accommodate large deviations and still be understandable, but that is out of the scope of this discussion.

The next dimension, Autonomy refers to the uniqueness and independence of a language system. Kloss (1967) suggested the notions of Abstand and Ausbau languages. Abstand languages differ from each other through structure and mutual unintelligibility. Ausbau languages, in contrast, differ through autonomous use with respect to other languages. An Ausbau language attains autonomy through institutional support and authoritative attention. Abstand languages are inherently more autonomous, yet their autonomy can be threatened by attempts to insist that they are mere dialects to another language.

In the Hong Kong case, Putonghua and English are certainly Abstand languages. They are mutually unintelligible. In practice, Putonghua and Cantonese are also close to Abstand languages because they are not mutually intelligible. Yet the autonomy of Cantonese is threatened by an insistence that it is a dialect of Chinese. Examples of Ausbau languages, in contrast, include many eastern European and Scandinavian

languages, many of which are only called different languages for political reasons but are essentially the same language. Bulgarian, Macedonian, Serbian, Croatian, and Bosnian, for example, are highly mutually intelligible but are considered different languages due to political reasons. The Scandinavian languages are less mutually intelligible but quite close as well.

The Historicity dimension refers to the cultivation of a linguistic history and tradition, thereby granting legitimacy to official usage of the language. The written Chinese language enjoys a strong historicity dimension, and indeed such history is often taught at the same time as the language in Chinese schools.

Seen along these dimensions, the Hong Kong case involves the official recognition of Putonghua as the official language and is an example of higher autonomy, historicity, and standardization of Putonghua. The status of English is uncertain in the Standardization dimension. English is officially endorsed in Hong Kong but not in the context of China as a whole. In addition, as a language in general English is not a regulated language and it also does not carry a history in the same sense Putonghua does. Cantonese is not a language with high Standardization.

Whereas standardization, including autonomy and historicity, reflects the official status of a language, vitality reflects the daily use of a language by people among each other and in various areas of life. The concept can be expanded into ethnolinguistic vitality, a term created by Giles *et al*. (1977). Ethnolinguistic vitality refers to “that which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and active collective entity in inter-group situations” (Giles *et al*. 1977: 308).

Thus, ethnolinguistic vitality contributes to group identity in users of a particular language. Determinants of ethnolinguistic vitality include number of speakers, social

status of speakers, and other social factors.

In Hong Kong, from the definition, Cantonese enjoys the highest vitality, being used in the home and among the local population. Among the three major languages of Hong Kong, Cantonese is the one that most defines the local population.

However, it must be noted that the language enjoying higher standardization may or may not serve as the language of higher ethnolinguistic vitality. Language vitality and standardization, considered as two dimensions, can also be related – higher standardization can support higher vitality and vice versa.

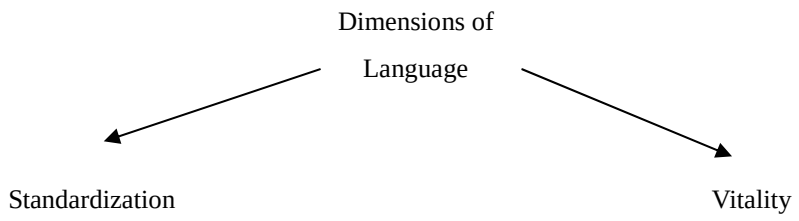


Fig. 2.1 Social dimensions of language

If two languages in a society are used and one of them enjoys higher standardization, a state of "polyglossia" can result, as discussed by Ferguson (1959). In the case of a bilingual society, the term is "diglossia". In Ferguson's seminal work, diglossia is described as a bilingual society in which one language is deemed more prestigious (referred to as H) and the other less so (referred to as L). The two languages are used in different domains of life, with H maintaining formal use in areas such as government, law, education, and religion, and L maintaining less formal use in areas like domestic life. There are some distinct characteristics of diglossia (as summarized by Stockwell, 2007: 50-51):

- H is more likely to be written

- H is more likely to be standardized
- Diglossia is stable
- L often borrows vocabulary from H
- L is often acquired first in the home and H through formal training in school

Originally, Ferguson's diglossia referred to closely related languages, such as types of German. Fishman (1967) then discussed the diglossia of unrelated languages.

Polyglossia is theorized to be the most common and most stable linguistic state of a multilingual society. Fishman (1967) proposed four possible states of a bilingual community: neither bilingual nor diglossic, bilingual but not diglossic, diglossic but not bilingual, and both bilingual and diglossic.

The first of those states, neither bilingual nor diglossic, represents an isolated monolingual society.

The second and third states are considered unstable or transitional situations. A community that is bilingual but not diglossic is a community whereby neither language is preferred in all social situations, where no custom exists for formal or informal occasions. Separation is expected to happen in such communities as time goes on. A community that is diglossic but not bilingual represents two co-existing but linguistically segregated populations, each with a defined and separate social role. Mobility between the populations is expected to make the community bilingual with time.

Bilingual and diglossic communities, considered to be the most common and stable state, are characterized with well-defined social situations such that language choice can

be easily made. There is also enough ability for people to move between social classes, for example with education, which encourages bilingualism.

Some researchers describe the language situation of a society with three or more major languages as triglossia. Abdulaziz-Mkilifi (1972) defines triglossia as a situation where there exist side by side a regional a language used for oral communication within groups, a local standardised language used in education, mass media, and government administration, and a world language. For example, in Botswana, English, Setswana and other local languages are used side by side with each having a definite role to play. The local languages are mainly used for oral communication within the group of local language speakers. Setswana more or less performs the role of a standard language used in education, mass media, administration and other government duties, but it lacks scientific and technological terms. Finally, English is mainly used for the very official functions and for dealing with the outside world (Magogwe, 2007).

Cantonese and English have existed in an undeniably diglossic relationship for much of Hong Kong's history, with Cantonese deemed L and English deemed H. As Hong Kong is transitioning into a tri-lingual society, the transition and interplay between Cantonese, Putonghua, and English is not yet clear. Insight into the determination of the language usage habits of the triglossic or polyglossic nature of Putonghua, Cantonese, and English in Hong Kong today is one of the purposes of the current study.

2.1.4 Attitude and its structure

Attitude itself, much like language, is a mental object that is hard to define. Yet, attitude is of real consequence in terms of human behaviours and preferences. Allport (1935: 839. Cited in Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 2) understood this many years ago, when he stated:

> Attitudes are never directly observed, but, unless they are admitted, through

> inference, as real and substantial ingredients in human nature, it becomes impossible to account satisfactorily either for the consistency of any individual's behaviour, or for the stability of any society.

Thus, attempts to characterize attitude accurately can become very complex. A typically more simple definition of attitude begins with Sarnoff (1970: 279), who stated that an attitude is "a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects", and "a class of object" is further explained to "an object, person, institution, or event" (Ajzen, 2005: 3) Thus, one can take an attitude to be a non-neutral reaction to a class of objects, which for our purposes will be different languages, language communities and language learning (which the three variables of language attitudes will be discussed in late parts of this section).

Besides complexity, attitudes can be considered to be learned, as opposed to inherited, so they can change. But they can be considered at least somewhat stable, thus allowing for the possibility of identifying and measuring them.

> When we talk about attitudes, we are talking about what a person has learned in the process of becoming a member of a family, a member of a group, and of society that makes him react to his social world in a consistent and characteristic way, instead of a transitory and haphazard way. (Sherif, 1967: 2)

Such a learned yet stable view of attitude has critics such as Ostrom *et al* (1994), who point to the existence of very uncommitted and unstable attitudes in people who simply make them up immediately when asked. As with all survey studies, this is a serious issue and will be discussed later as a possible limitation of quantitative research methodology. In general, however, for this study, and for other studies on areas such as attitude change, one must assume that attitudes are stable enough to be measured.

As a structural framework, studies of attitude tend to divide attitude into cognitive, affective, and behavioural types and then examine each part individually, a framework this study will also adopt. The three type model of attitude is viewed in a hierarchical form (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960) with cognition, affect, and action as the foundation. These three components merge into a single construct of attitude at a higher level of abstraction (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Cargile *et al*. 1994), as illustrated in figure below (from Baker, 1992:13):

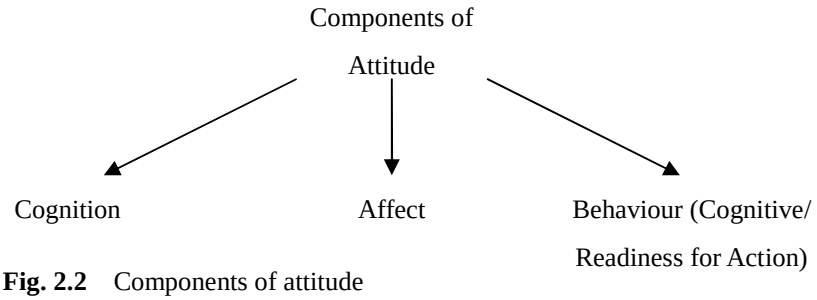


Fig. 2.2 Components of attitude

Gardner (1985: 8) explains: "The cognitive component refers to the individual's belief structure, the affective to emotional reactions, and the cognitive to the tendency to behave toward the attitude object". The cognitive component refers to one's subjective beliefs about the world, and an example would be the belief that English is useful in international trade. The affective component refers to one's feelings and emotions, and an example would be the feeling that a particular language is sophisticated or beautiful. The behavioral component refers to observable actions driven by attitudes, such as the choice and willingness to communicate in a specific language in a specific situation when the speaker can use other languages.

One of the most troubling and interesting aspects of attitude research is that these three components can and do oppose each other in the same individual (e.g. Wicker, 1969; Hanson, 1980; Baker, 1992; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Edwards, 1994). Eagly and

Chaiken (1993), for example, explains that a person with certain beliefs may not reveal those beliefs through emotional responses or open behaviour. Similarly, one may engage in open behaviour without necessarily having an emotional affective attitude attached to the act. One may interpret such occurrences in a variety of ways, the most simple of which is to say that the individual is “ambivalent” towards the issue at hand. Festinger (1957) proposes the theory of “cognitive dissonance” as the driving force between cognitive, affective, and behaviourial alignment. That is, people change one of the three aspects to be in harmony with the other two. Other possible explanations such as Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) focus on pragmatics and a “theory of reasoned action”, which explains that an environment of competing priorities, time constraints, and other pragmatic factors allow for such incongruent displays of cognition, affectation, and behaviour.

Though research on the three components of attitudes research are equally important, the current study, by way of survey, examines the cognitive and affective components of attitude. The behavioural component, though highly interesting, is not emphasized due to methodological, institutional, and resource constraints. To study the behavioural component of attitude would involve trying to see how often students spoke English, Putonghua, or Cantonese in different situations, Alternatively, it could be tried to see how much time they spend studying each language. All these behavioural preferences for languages would involve much more data and research than the scope of the current study can afford. As will be discussed later, the cognitive component of attitude will be asked in a written survey and the affective component of attitude will be elicited through hearing the language.

Operationally, this study uses the broad definition of attitude as a positive or negative inclination and applies such a definition specifically toward languages.

2.1.5 Language attitude

As Baker (1992: 29) says, *language attitude* is "an umbrella term, under which resides a variety of specific attitudes", that means language attitude can be examined from various perspectives. At least, there are two major perspectives identified by previous language attitude researches are interesting for review – attitude towards the language and attitude towards the language user.

Attitude towards the language

Attitude to a specific language is a major area of interest of a considerable number of international researchers. In Hong Kong, language attitude research has been focused on English, Cantonese, and Putonghua for a long time (see section 2.3 in this chapter for review). Much of the research on attitudes to a specific language is on the reasons for favourability and unfavourability towards specific languages. Baker (1992) argues that such a measure of language attitude may indicate the health of that language in society. The extent of goodwill may affect decisions of language policy and language planning (Baker 1992: 30).

Research has suggested that attitude to a particular language is multidimensional. Taking Welsh for example, Lewis (1975) makes a sixfold conceptual distinction between dimensions of attitude to a particular language:

(1) General approval, e.g. "I like speaking Welsh".

(2) Commitment to practice, e.g. "I want to maintain Welsh to enable Wales to develop".

(3) National ethnic tradition, e.g. "We owe it to our forefathers to preserve Welsh".

(4) Economic and social communication importance, e.g. “Welsh offers advantages in seeking good job opportunities”.

(5) Family and local considerations, e.g. “Welsh is important in family life”.

(6) Personal, ideological consideration, e.g. “Welsh provides a range of aesthetic experiences in literature”.

Such conceptual distinctions are useful in gathering data to measure attitude to a specific language.

Attitude towards the language user

Studies of language attitude, however, encounter the challenge of whether the language itself is being evaluated or whether the users of the language are being evaluated.

Inherently, languages do not differ in aesthetic or other judgment categories such as sophistication. Studies, for example, have shown that subjects without social contexts and predisposition were unable to make social differentiations between language varieties as favourable or unfavourable; however, subjects with previous social exposure did make social distinctions as favourable or unfavourable (Edwards, 1982: 21). Thus, it can be inferred that language attitude is really attitude towards the users of a language and the social values that the language community represent. There is nothing inherent in a language to have a favourable or unfavourable attitude about.

Gardner (1985: 6) has explained the reason for the relationship between a language and its community by using the examples of studying the subjects of history and language. When studying history, the student is presented with materials from the perspective of his or her own community. Anyone who has had the opportunity to discuss some “historical fact” with a member of another ethnic community will easily recognize that

facts have different perspectives. When confronted with modern languages, however, students face material from another cultural community. The words, sounds, and grammatical principles that the language teacher tries to present are more than aspects of some linguistic code, but are integral parts of another culture. As a result, students' attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language.

Therefore, it is no doubt that "One of the most important attitudinal factors is the attitude of the learner to the language and to its speakers" (Spolsky, 1969: 274). In an investigation of comparison of 63 grade five students who had been studying Spanish as a second language for two years with 63 students who had not studied Spanish, but who were comparable in terms of sex, age, and intelligence, Riestra & Johnson (1964) found that those students who had studied Spanish had significantly more favourable attitudes toward Spanish speaking people than those who had not studied Spanish. The groups did not differ in attitudes toward non-Spanish speaking people. Such data could be taken as evidence that exposure to a second language and cultural information about the other group promotes favourable attitudes toward that group.

This view of language attitude supports the view that, at least cognitively, language attitude is really a manifestation of stereotypes about a language community. "Linguistic forms, varieties and styles can set off beliefs about a speaker, their group membership, and can lead to assumptions about attributes of those members" (Garrett *et al*, 2003: 3). Thus, to a certain extent, language attitude itself is an attitude towards the language community and the world view shared by those in the particular language community.

From a viewpoint of second language learning, Lambert & Tucker (1972) point out:

> Learning another language in this fashion is just as likely to have equally profound effects on the children's attitudes toward the people whose language they are mastering. In other words, much more goes on in language learning than simply acquiring skill in a new code. Both directly and indirectly, children also learn a good deal about another people and another culture, and these interpersonal and cultural aspects of the language-learning process are of fundamental importance when trying to understand the program's overall effect on the children involved. (Lambert & Tucker, 1972: 154)

Thus, being in an immersive environment may change the attitudes of students whose native language and former attitudes may be different. However, the relationship can also go the other way. It is the attitude of the student that determines how much the student chooses to be immersed in another language. As discussed previously, the learners' attitudes to other-language community cannot be separated from their attitudes to that language, so "success in mastering a foreign language would depend not only on intellectual capacity and language aptitude but also on the learner's perceptions of the other ethnolinguistic group involved, his attitudes towards representatives of that group, and his willingness to identify enough to adopt distinctive aspects of behaviour, linguistic and nonlinguistic, that characterize that other group" (Gardner & Lambert, 1972: 132) .

However, in recent years, the concept of the language community has been challenged by some applied linguists. For example, along with the global spread of English, the ownership of English does not necessarily rest with a specific well-defined community of speakers (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009: 2-3). Indeed, after 155 years of British colonial rule, the boundary of language communities in Hong Kong is not always clear. Some times it is not easy to identify a specific target reference group of speakers in a

multilingual context of Hong Kong.

Notwithstanding the definition problem of language community, it is acceptable that language attitude itself is an attitude towards the language community and the culture represented by the language community. In context of Hong Kong, at the practical level, people tend to relate the three main languages – English, Cantonese, and Putonghua – to different language groups or communities without difficulty. While English represents the group of Western or foreign professionals, Cantonese relates with locals, and Putonghua indicates mainlanders in a general sense.

2.1.6 Dimensions of language attitude

The content of language attitudes may also be classified into several dimensions, which suggest different models of language attitude. One of the most seen models is the bidimensional framework of the *integrative/ instrumental* model, which was introduced by Gardner and his associates (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985) about three decades ago and are still attracting the most attention today.

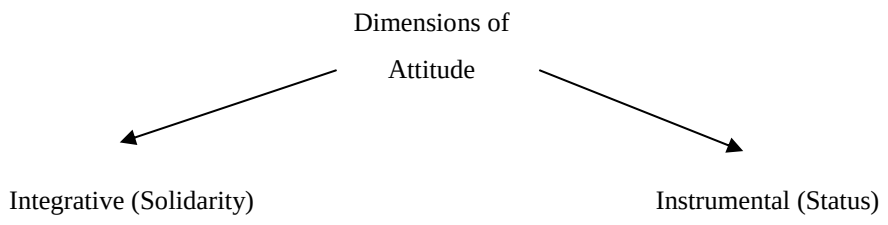


Fig. 2.3 Dimensions of language attitude

An integrative language attitude is attitude that is more related to the social dynamics of the target language group. It reflects “a desire to be like representative members of the other language community” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972: 4). This attitude is more cultural and involves more interpersonal relationships as well as a sense of affiliation or

belonging. Thus in the context of second language learning for example, students with a favourable integrative language attitude towards a particular language would emphasize cognitive beliefs about the culture of the language and affective responses about the connection or sympathy of the language community (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

An instrumental language attitude, on the other hand, is attitude towards a language that is of a practical nature, usually in career or education, and related to a sense of achievement or status. “An instrumental attitude to a language is mostly self-oriented and individualistic and would seem to have conceptual overlap with the need for achievement” (Baker, 1992: 32). Thus, in the context of second language learning, students with a favourable instrumental language attitude towards a particular language could emphasize cognitive beliefs about usefulness in future careers and affective responses about the success and status of the language.

In addition, a number of studies on second language learning and language attitudes appear to support the conclusion that the integrative attitudes are more important than instrumental attitudes in second language learning (Gardner, 1985). That is, learning a language based on desirise to be part of the target language community is stronger than learning a language based on desire to use the language in career or education.

With this framework, one would see that there is a general correspondence between the dimensions of language and the dimensions of attitude. It appears that language attitudes are divided into similar dimensions as languages themselves are divided. On the language differentiation scale, the instrumental dimension of attitude would correspond to views on the standardization and institutional support enjoyed by the language. The integrative dimension would correspond to views on the vitality and community enjoyed by the language (see review in section 2.1.2, this chapter).

There is, however, some debate with the instrumental/integrative division for language attitudes, mostly because they are not always easy to test in practice and when they are investigated, the results are not always very clear. Namely, the theoretical separation of language attitude into instrumental and integrative dimensions may not always be clear (Baker, 1992: 32-33, has a summary).

Further more, as mentioned in previous section on language community, in recent years, the concept of the integrative attitude has been also challenged by at large about the global spread of English. The basic question is whether the concept of integrative attitude can be applied when there is no specific target reference group of speakers. In the case of English, the question is whether it makes sense to talk about integrative attitudes when ownership of English does not necessarily rest with a specific well-defined community of speakers (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009: 2-3).

The challenge on concept of the integrative/instrumental 2-tier framework puts forward for rethinking the theoretical model in terms of its universal application. Taking the speaker evaluation studies for example, in addition to the integrative/instrumental 2-tier framework, researchers also raised some other frameworks of language attitude with more or different dimensions. Lambert, Frankel and Tucker (1966) measured language attitudes using 14 or 15 items representing speakers' personality traits, which are grouped into three categories of *personal integrity*, *personal competence* and *social attractiveness*. To investigate the impact of language variety upon evaluations of job applicants by job interviewers, Hopper and Williams (1973) used somewhat different items, which displayed a four factor evaluation model of *competence, likeability, self-assurance,* and *anglo-like.* Mulac developed the Speech Dialect Attitudinal Scale (SDAS), which has consistently yielded a three factor model of listeners' evaluations of variation labeled *social-intellectual status, aesthetic quality,* and *dynamism* (Bradac &

Mulac, 1984; Mulac, 1975, 1976; Mulac, Hanley & Prigge, 1974; Mulac & Lundell, 1980, 1982; Mulac & Rudd, 1977).

Although there were some debate with the instrumental/integrative division for language attitudes, the two concepts, *instrumental* attitude and *integrative* attitude, seem helpful to understand the language situation of Hong Kong. So the current study attempts to use this conceptual model as a basic framework in relevant contexts to discuss issues of Hong Kong secondary students' language attitudes, and other dimensions found by previous researches will be also considered.

2.1.7 Summary

Languages are human objects that embody not only a way to communicate but also a shared view of the world among speakers of the language.

Languages are hard to define but an attempt may be made along essentially two dimensions – the Standardization dimension and the Vitality dimension. The Standardization dimension reflects the language that enjoys higher official status. The Vitality dimension reflects the language that enjoys higher social status.

The interplay between languages in a multi-lingual society may be complex. In the case of two languages, there exists a standard framework that results in a stable diglossia, where the language with higher standardization is used officially and the language with higher vitality is used socially. Members of this society will likely be bilingual. Hong Kong is a case of a transition to a tri-lingual society, and this study will shed some light on how the languages are transitioning.

Language attitudes are also hard to define. There is debate on whether attitudes can be measured. As a practical definition, attitude can be just a positive or negative response

to something.

For research purposes, language attitudes may be classified into Cognitive, Affective, and Behavioural components. The Cognitive component is a belief. The Affective component is an emotion. The Behavioural component is an action. This study will focus on the Cognitive and Affective components. The three components sometimes conflict with each other and may be hard to separate from each other.

Languages by themselves do not create positive or negative responses. Language attitudes are a response to the social constructs that are included in the language user. Therefore, researchers have paid great attention to attitudes to language communities when attitudes to a specific language are under study. The attitude to a specific language and the attitude to that language community are interrelated aspects of language attitudes.

The content of language attitudes may also be classified into several dimensions, which suggest different models of language attitude. One of the most appeared models is the 2-tier framework of *integrative/ instrumental* model. The current study attempts to use this conceptual model as a basic framework in relevant contexts to discuss issues of Hong Kong secondary students' language attitudes, but renamed them as of *community* and *achievement*, because specific context and the focuses of this present study. Other dimensions found by previous researches will be also considered by this study where appropriate.

2.2 Influences on language attitudes

Factors that influence language attitudes are likely to be very complex, but some factors have been shown or strongly suspected to be influential in the formation or change in language attitudes in students (e.g. Gardner, 1985, 1988; Baker, 1992). There are three categories of factors to be mostly concerned by previous literature on children' language attitudes. Firstly, factors related to individuality, e.g. gender, age, self-identity; secondly, factors related to society, e.g. school type, language achievement, peer; thirdly, home related factors, such as home economic classes, student's native language, parents education and attitudes, etc. Following is a brief literature review on factors influencing students' language attitudes.

2.2.1 Language attitude formation

Focused on second language acquisition, Gardner developed a four-stage "social-educational model" for attitude formation (Gardner, 1985: 147): Social milieu →individual differences→second language acquisition contexts→outcomes. The social milieu includes home, social group and type of language group (e.g. majority, minority). The individual differences comprise intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety. The third stage concerns the context where language is acquired for both formal and informal language learning experience. And in the last stage, "outcomes", Gardner suggested two final outcomes: one outcome concerns bilingual proficiency, and the second outcome refers to non linguistic outcomes such as attitudes, self-concept, cultural values and beliefs. In sum, Gardner (1985) believed that children's social and cultural background, including home and school, will influence children's attitudes towards language via individual differences and second language acquisition contexts.

As a “complementary” to Gardner’s model, Baker (1992) moved to focus on the factors that may be influential in attitude construction. By previous Walsh research on attitude on bilingual of English and Welsh, Baker (1992) raises an initial proposed model of language formation for school pupils. There are six particular variables involved: gender, age, language background, school, language ability or achievement and youth culture. In terms of affecting on pupils’ attitudes, the six variables are not at a same level. Baker explains that the first four variables, named gender, age, language background and school, are as “inputs” into an attitude equation. None of these four variables is seen necessarily influencing the other with one exception, though the type of language background from which a pupil derives may affect choice of school. These four variables are then all posited to affect the kind of youth culture experienced. Via youth culture, these four variables are posited to influence attitude to a language. Youth culture is hypothesised as having a direct effect on attitude (Baker, 1992: 45).

The attitude and ability are considered as having a mutually reciprocate effect on each other. Students with better language ability may not only have better language achievement, but also have the more favourable attitude towards a language. On the other hand, the language performance and ability will be affected adversely if a student holds a negative attitude towards that particular language. Baker’s model can be illustrated as Fig 2.4 below:

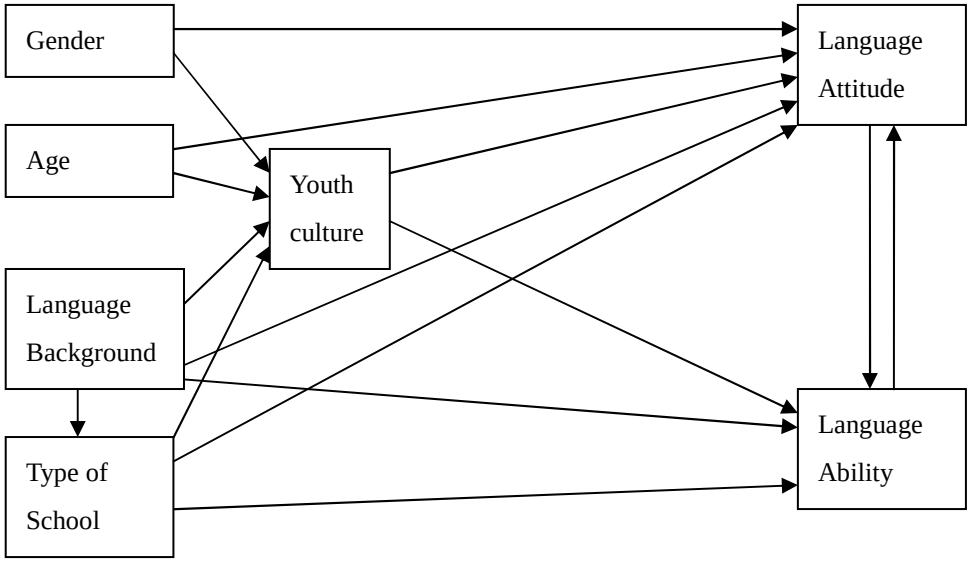


Fig. 2.4 Proposed mode of attitude formation (Baker, 1992: 45)

This analysis of Baker (1992) highlights the importance of youth culture as a determinant of attitude to languages. He concludes his study: "The conclusion would seem to be that attitude to bilingualism is related to the youth culture of teenage years and relatively less related to institutions such as family and school. Individual attributes such as gender, age, even ability in Welsh also seem to exhibit a more minor influence" (Baker, 1992: 96). To Baker, the youth culture might be wider than the four variables: "While home and school are clearly of some influence, the more major influence is with peer and 'Popular' culture, engaging in Welsh cultural forms such as Yr Urdd and eisteddfodau, reading and visiting the library" (Baker, 1992: 96).

We can see from Baker's model that gender, age, language background and school are important factors of influencing pupil's language attitude directly or indirectly (via youth culture).

Then we perform a brief discussion and literature review of some of the major factors that are believed to influence language attitudes. We categorize them as gender, identity,

school, and home.

2.2.2 Gender

Over this last two decades, more and more attention has been paid on gender. Researchers have suggested explanations for the gender gap in language attitudes and achievement. Gender differences in verbal intelligence and learning styles (*USA TODAY*, 2008), interest for languages (Dwyer & Johnson, 1997; Head, 1999; Murphy & Elwood, 1998), motivation and attitude toward Languages (Lamb, 1997; Walsh, Hickey & Duffy, 1999), attitudes towards schools and peers (De Gaer & De Munter, 2007) are associated with gender differences in language attitudes and achievement.

Gender can be a biological, linguistic, or sociological construct. Biologically, it is a scientific distinction. Linguistically, it can be a technical term related to the grammatical categories of words in certain languages. Sociologically, it is a form of identity but a complicated one. As Graddol and Swann (1989: 8) said:

> When we refer to society as being 'gendered' we mean that gender represents an important division in our society (and probably all human societies). Whether one is male or female is not just a biological fact, it assigns one to membership of one of two social groups. A great many consequences – social, economic and political – flow from this membership.

Gender as a sociological identity is especially complex when applied to languages, as this study does. Gender is related to language, and *vice versa*. From a sociolinguistic viewpoint, language reflects gender divisions in language and language also creates gender divisions (Graddol & Swann, 1989; Ehrlich & King, 1994). Language reflects the social differences between male and female, and may also maintain those social differences. Thus, the direction of the relationship is hard to determine. In addition, the

relationship is not likely to be direct, as language and gender are also formed by social habits and attitudes. However, compared to the other factors this study examines, such as self identity and home influence, the gender distinction is likely to be the most clear-cut since the biological distinction is used. But its effects are less clear-cut, since gender has further sociological meaning.

Overall, there is a large body of work that suggests women prefer High languages or languages with more social prestige. This is linked to the community and social interaction roles that many societies assign to women. The success of women in many societies is proposed to be based more on symbolic community factors rather than material goods or skills. Thus, women seek symbolic membership in high status communities via language (Eckert, 1989, 1990, 1998; Bilaniuk, 2003; Trudgill, 1974). Evidence comes from Gal (1978), which describes a German-Hungarian situation in Austria where young peasant women were leading the shift from Hungarian to German. Gal (1978) believed that Hungarian was related to a Hungarian peasant lifestyle that women were trying to distance themselves from to move up into higher levels of status whereas men preferred the independence of a farming career. In a follow-up, Gal (1979) discovered that women are more attracted to the non-local language because it gives them better opportunities for social advancement. Trudgill (1974) proposed a theory that females have a stronger sense of insecurity and desire for status in most societies and have a better understanding of the social implications of language varieties. Thus, women prefer the High language. In Milroy & Miltroy's words (1998: 55), women "favour prestige norms while males vernacular norms". Bilaniuk (2003) also concluded a study on Ukraine that "my data showing women having more positive attitudes than men toward English is consistent with Gal's findings that women are more attracted to a non-local language because it gives them greater opportunities for social advancement".

However, the female preference for High languages is not universal, and researchers have discovered that, in bilingual post-colonial societies or societies with diglossia, men are more likely to be fluent than women in the former colonial language or the High language, whereas women are more likely to be monolingual in the local or Low language. This may suggest female attitude preferences for the Low language. The reason for the difference is not so clear and may be due to a higher integrative attitude possessed by females towards their local community. For example, Sharp *et al* (1973) studied attitudes towards Welsh and English and found that girls had more favourable attitudes towards Welsh than boys. Alternatively, the reason may be more based on circumstances. Harvey (1994) investigated a local population in Peru, which was once colonized by Spain. He discovered that while the majority of men were fully fluent in Spanish, almost half of the women were only monolingual in Quechua, the local language. This difference may be due to the different exposure levels to the High language of Spanish – women were less likely than men to be educated or have less contact with Spanish for career purposes.

There is also the influence of the gender of the speaker of a language, as opposed to the listener. As a mark of social identity, gender in a speaker conveys information about the social background of the speaker. Lambert (1967) discussed a work by one of his students on French and English in Canada that concluded that listeners tended to evaluate women speaking French more favourably than men speaking French, but men speaking English more favourably than women speaking English. Thus, men speaking the High language were preferred and women speaking the Low language were preferred. The gender of the listener had effects on the sizes of the preferences, but not the direction. Women listeners did not show as much difference in opinion as men listeners did.

Thus, existing studies show the high degree of variability that exists for gender in language attitudes, especially in cases of bilingualism or diglossia. Furthermore, gender of both the listener and the speaker are relevant in the study of language attitude. The causes of these differences are believed to be rooted in the social and society positions of women and men.

In Hong Kong, the social conventions and norms of gender are difficult to determine. On the one hand, compared to many other countries, women are highly represented in business and government, suggesting a preference for High languages and an acceptance of women speaking High languages. On the other hand, women labour force participation is quite low overall (indeed, over 40% of mothers in our study sample do not work), suggesting more inclination towards Low languages for both women speakers and listeners since one would imagine non-working mothers to take care of more domestic affairs.

The very definition of High and Low languages in Hong Kong is complicated by the tri-lingual structure of the region. While English is certain to occupy the status of the post-colonial language and Cantonese is certain to occupy the status of the local and traditional language, the status Putonghua, and the role of gender in Putonghua especially is unclear. The role of gender in language of a much younger generation who mostly grew up under Chinese governance, the subjects of this study, is further uncertainty.

This study will examine the influence of gender of both the speaker (for the listening portion) and the listener (the student's gender) on language attitudes.

2.2.3 Identity

Language is a uniquely human trait. Not only do most humans speak at least one language, but most humans can call a language "native". The native language is considered by most people as a strong, if not necessary, component of one's identity. The development and ability of children to pick up a native language is the subject of much research on language acquisition and is a field of linguistics itself.

In a social context, a sense of social identity is often centred on a particular language, and speakers' perceptions of the connection between the language they use and that identity is well documented (see for example Alladina & Edwards, 1991). Different languages, accents, and dialects all serve to strongly relate the speaker to a social group. The different variants of American English, most notably the difference between northern American and southern American accents, are highly associated with an individual's background, as are ethnic variations in pronunciations in the United States. The different British accents are also indicative of a speaker's origin and background.

Individually, an individual can also exercise a degree of choice in choosing to associate to a particular group. Doing so usually means adopting the language conventions of that particular group. Le Page (1998: 29) points out that "individuals tend to create their linguistic systems so as to resemble those of the group they wish to be identified with, or so as to distinguish themselves from those they wish to distance themselves from".

Indeed, the desire for cultural identity is very similar to the motivations for integrative language attitudes described earlier, and thus it is very reasonable that self identification in a particular cultural group would affect language attitudes. Some previous empirical work discussed later support this view.

In the case of Hong Kong, there is a conflict of identity. Originally Chinese, Hong Kong

was ruled as a British colony and only recently returned to Chinese governance in 1997. It is generally observed that people from Hong Kong consider themselves to be from Hong Kong, and not China in general or from Britain. From a cultural community point of view, it may be guessed that Hong Kong people believe in a cultural identity independent from the region's ultimate governing states. Indeed, after having examined the identity of "Hong Kong *yan* (HongKonger)" from both "objective" and "subjective" sides, Thomas (1999) affirms the existence of this unique identity:

> [I]t is possible to state that an explicit Hong Kong identity does exist. This identity exists at both a communal level and at a personal level. It has developed over time and is now strongly located within the current social boundaries. It defines who the Hong Kong people are, to themselves and in their relationship with others. However, as with other national identities, the Hong Kong identity is dynamic and adaptive. The retrocession will challenge the current definition of what it means to be a 'Hong Kong *yan*' but, nonetheless, after July 1st 1997 the 'Hong Kong *yan*' will still exist. (Thomas, 1999: 91)

The distinction of Cantonese in this Hong Kong identity is also prominent. Lau (1997: 3) states:

> Since 1949, Hong Kong Chinese have become secluded from the social and cultural changes in China. The dominance of vernacular Cantonese among the Hong Kong Chinese and the gradual emergence of a distinctive popular culture based on that dialect played a significant role in moulding the Hongkongese identity.

The term "Hong Konger" in Hong Kong is used in contrast to "Mainlander", which is a person from the rest of China. There then remains the question of what type of identity

"Chinese" means, as it is also an often used cultural community that Hong Kong people are known to adopt. Lai (2002: 29) characterizes the Hong Kong identity as a special group with significant overlap with the broader Chinese cultural community:

> …identification towards Hong Kong and China is not mutually exclusive. Although Hong Kong people have strong in-group identity, and they always place the interest of Hong Kong before China when there is a conflict, yet they pride themselves upon the history and culture of China. They value Chinese history education, cultural education and national language education. However, they resist identifying with China as a political entity. Despite the convergence of the Chinese and Hong Kong identity in the area of classical culture, scholars maintain that Hong Kong people see themselves as a very different group from other Chinese in the Mainland.

Chan (2004) also argues a slightly different version, that the handover to China did not transition the Hong Kong identity completely into a Chinese one, and that while most Hong Kong people have regarded themselves as politically aligned with China most of the time, they are different in their significant own ways and that a Hong Kong Chinese identity should be considered. "The prospective of a dual Hong Kong Chinese identity should be adequately acknowledged if the 'one country, two systems' is to work properly, amidst anticipated conflicts between their Hong Kong and Chinese identities" (Chan, 2004: 265).

There is now the further question of how Putonghua, the national language of the Mainland and the effective identifying language of "Chinese", is related to the Hong Kong identity and the Hong Kong Chinese identity.

For most people from Hong Kong, Putonghua is a defining feature of the Chinese

Mainlander community, and Cantonese (Hong Kong Cantonese) is a defining feature of the Hong Kong community. After 1997, whether Putonghua should become a defining feature of Hong Kong has become a complicated issue for the Hong Kong people themselves. As Zhang and Yang (2004) point out, "…there is considerable confusion in the minds of Hong Kong people, who are hesitating at the crossroads of *Putonghua* and Cantonese. They hope to maintain a sense of local pride and identity rooted in Cantonese on one hand, and they also expect to return into the broad Chinese culture that is represented by *Putonghua* on the other hand".

As the status of Putonghua is quite complicated, delicate, and ambiguous within the Hong Kong or Hong Kong Chinese identities, it would be interesting to see how self identity affects Putonghua attitudes in this study.

There is further the issue of how English fits in with the Hong Kong, Hong Kong Chinese, or Chinese identities. Under British rule, English has been an official language of Hong Kong, with education, business, and much of politics conducted in English over the past decades. Indeed, English remains an official English of Hong Kong even after the handover, in distinct contrast with the rest of Mainland China, where English is emphasized as an important foreign language and is usually not considered a defining part of the Chinese community.

Lai (1999) provides an argument that English is an integral part of the Hong Kong identity, as Hong Kong people have significant ties overseas:

> Hong Kong people are proud of their international links through their extended families, educational opportunities, and commercial links in the overseas, and this sentiment embedded in the Hong Kong identity cannot be easily fulfilled without an association with English – the international language. Cantonese is

therefore not the only element that constitutes the local identity.

It would be interesting to see, then, how English may be affected by self identification as Hong Kong Chinese or simply Chinese among the students participating in this study.

2.2.4 School

A student's school is highly influential in a student's development in general and it is suspected that school characteristics are a critical factor in the formation of language attitudes.

The belief that "schools bring little influence to bear upon a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context" (Coleman *et al*. 1966: 325) was held by many people in the sixties, but the notion has been greatly changed since the seventies and eighties, when a large number of studies provided a considerable body of evidence to suggest that "schools do make a difference to the development of their pupils" (Young, 1985).

The effects of schools on student development are well documented. School quality has a large effect on students. A wide range of quantitative studies definitely show that similar students perform differently at different schools (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, & Ouston, 1979; Smith & Tomlinson, 1989; Mortimore, Sammons, Stoll, Lewis & Ecob, 1988; Reynolds, 1985). This result is also repeated in many other countries, for example, Mortimore *et al* (1988: 205) concluded a research on London junior schools: "It is clear that schools do make a difference and that the difference is substantial". Without any doubt, as Reynolds and Creemers (1990) stated, "schools matter, that schools do have major effects upon children's development and that, to put it simply, schools do make a difference".

What is somewhat less clear is how this difference is made. Mortimore *et al.* (1988: 250) identified twelve "key factors" for effective schooling from the "purposeful leadership of the staff by the headteacher" to the "positive climate". Rutter *et al.* (1979: 178) also identified some factors of a good school as characterized by "the degree of academic emphasis, teacher actions in lessons, the availability of incentives and rewards, good conditions for pupils, and the extent to which children are able to take responsibility". One can believe that school characteristics come from two directions. The first is the so-called "hidden curriculum", referring to the informal environment, peer groups, and youth culture that different schools provide for the development of the student. The second is the formal institutional policies, standards, and curricula of different schools.

Different schools are suspected of providing a different youth culture or environments for students to form attitudes through the informal and formal environment. Culture, and youth culture in particular, is difficult to define, but is certainly related to language and social communities:

> By the culture of a group of people is meant their whole way of life – their language, ways of perceiving, categorising and thinking about the world, forms of non-verbal communication and the social interaction, rules and conventions about behaviour, moral values and ideals, technology and material culture, art science, literature and history. All these aspects of culture affect social behaviour, directly or indirectly. (Argyle, 1994:184)

Some schools provide tremendous variety and opportunity for school trips, exchange programs, and a lot of social and interest clubs and societies as part of the "hidden curriculum". Other schools are the opposite. Some schools, by virtue of official policy, such as a language policy, contribute to the culture through the official curriculum. Both together would form a culture that would influence language attitudes.

Youth culture with a language dimension appears to have an effect on language attitudes.

Baker (1992) concluded that, when studying student language attitudes towards Welsh and English, students who actively participated in traditional Welsh culture organizations and other Welsh-oriented informal activities had a more favourable attitude towards Welsh. Students that participated in more Anglicised popular culture such as discos and theatre had a more favourable attitude towards English. However, these effects were only present for integrative attitudes, and not for instrumental attitudes.

With respect to official school language policies, Baker (1992) has also shown that students studying in Welsh schools showed a preference for Welsh and students studying in English schools showed a preference for English. Although the English school students showed lower preference for Welsh overall, they rated Welsh higher than students from the Welsh schools on the instrumental value of Welsh.

Hong Kong presents a case similar to Baker's study, where schools can be designated English or Cantonese, and there has been considerable debate on the political, social, and economic merits of this system.

As introduced in Chapter One, before the handover, most Hong Kong secondary schools officially adopted English as the main medium of instruction in their classrooms. However, in 1998, the HKSAR government introduced a language policy, called the 'mother-tongue teaching' policy. Under this policy, most secondary schools were requested to teach students from Secondary 1 to Secondary 3 in Cantonese, which is considered the students' mother-tongue. There are still, however, secondary schools that were allowed to maintain English as the teaching language, providing for an

interesting case of comparison between the two on how medium of instruction can influence student language attitudes.

The role of Putonghua in schools is also undergoing dramatic change. It has seldom been offered as a subject of study before 1997, but since 1997, Putonghua has increased in importance. There has been some political debate as to whether Putonghua should be adopted as the main medium of instruction, as this is the standard in the rest of China. In the meantime, almost all primary and secondary schools now offer Putonghua as an independent subject, and more and more schools are voluntarily adopting Putonghua as the medium of instruction for some or even most of their subjects. However, there are yet no official schools in Hong Kong that use Putonghua as the medium of instruction and this interesting comparison on language attitudes cannot be made at this time (For more details, see Zhang and Yang, 2004).

Another related issue in Hong Kong is the “school band” system. At present, most Hong Kong government and government-subsidized (“aid”) secondary schools are divided into bands based on quality. Band One is the highest, Band Two is in the middle, and Band Three is the lowest. To avoid the negative “label effect”, the government does not openly release the school bands to the public, but all students, parents, principals, and school teachers are clearly aware of their schools’ band. The government places primary school students into secondary schools in the following way: “Students’ standardized school internal assessment results at the end of Primary 5, and at both mid-year and end of Primary 6 are the basis for determining their allocation bands” (Education Bureau, 2009). That is, generally speaking, primary school students are allocated to secondary schools based on their assessment results in Primary 5 and Primary 6. A student with high assessment results will go a Band One school, while a student with lower results will go a Band Two or Band Three school. Students admitted to Band One schools have

better academic backgrounds than students in Band Two or Band Three schools.

This grouping by student ability will affect both the formal and informal environments which students study in. Thus, school band would also be a relevant factor to test for effects on language attitudes.

2.2.5 Home

There are many ways in which the home characteristics of a student can affect the student's language attitudes. One may propose several likely variables for testing, such as the home language, socioeconomic status of the parents, length of time spent in Hong Kong, birthplace, educational achievement of the parents, and so on. We discuss the effects some home factors may have on student language attitudes.

We begin with a discussion of home language. For the purposes of this study, a home language implies a native language and that the languages under study are acquired as second, third, or even fourth languages. As there are correlations between language background and attitude, it is believed that home language, or the language of the home, has an impact on attitudes (Baker, 1992: 109).

Studies have shown some strong evidence that the home environment plays an important role in determining students' language situation, which may in turn be reflected in language attitudes. For example, Arriagada (2005) studied 2,736 Latino children in the U.S. who use their native (Spanish) language at home, and found that these children's home environment encourages the use of the native language and also facilitate proficiency in the language. The more Spanish that is spoken around children by family members and peers, the more knowledge of the language these children will have.

Portes and Hao (1998)'s study found that in homes where another language is spoken and where parents share that language, native-language use is reinforced among children. Baker (1992) argues that parental language attitudes influence children's language attitudes, and that although children's attitudes tend to match or be similar to those of their parents, this does not imply that one causes the other (p.109). Through close family relationships, children learn about parental values, goals, attitudes, and motivations, so Bankston, Carl and Zhou (1995) suggest instead that the level of native-language use among children is associated with the transmission of cultural values, norms, and traditions within the family.

Research on parental attitudes toward languages has also revealed differences by language. For example, after comparing 65 parents from four language groups at five language school sites in the U.S., Yan (2003) found that the majority (68%) of the Chinese parents believed it very important or important to maintain Chinese language learning and use for their children for the benefit of academic performance in regular English-language schools, which is a different attitude from parents in the other language groups. Such home language attitude and use is likely to have considerable impact on the language attitudes of the children.

This study will see what kinds of effects different languages at home will have on students' attitudes towards different languages.

The next important family background factor is socioeconomic class or status.

In general, there is a theory relating language attitude to socioeconomic class. Schumann (1976) emphasizes the notion of "social distance" between two language communities. Gibbons (1984) uses this idea in the Hong Kong case to suggest that students of relatively higher socioeconomic classes will have more positive language

attitudes towards English because they are closer in socioeconomic class to the English community. This difference in attitude, in addition to lack of learning opportunities, is often suspected to cause the generally lower standards of English in lower-class students in Hong Kong. For example, Lee (1998: 171) states:

> It seems that in Hong Kong, children of lower classes are still disadvantaged in their acquisition of English proficiency, in terms of their social distance from native English speakers and their attitudes towards the language. It is in this sense that they are deprived in English proficiency, and thus are in a relatively disadvantaged position in competing with their upper-middle-class counterparts on the educational path.

Trafford (1997: 49) relates the difference between socioeconomic class and attitudes towards other languages. He suggests that, in general, those of higher socioeconomic class have both higher integrative and instrumental attitudes towards other languages. However, the distinction of whether the other language is High or Low is not emphasized. With regards to French in the U.K., he states:

> There is considerable divergence in attitudes towards modern languages from pupils of different social backgrounds; it appears that those pupils from lower socioeconomic classes are less convinced of the value of learning a foreign language. The notion of a family holiday to France or the potential need for a foreign language in a future career may appear somewhat implausible to them.

This study will consider the socioeconomic status of the home to see if there is any evidence of such effects in Hong Kong.

The final home factor that will be investigated is the immigration status and length of time a student has lived in Hong Kong.

Studies have demonstrated that immigration and length of residence in the land are important for knowledge of a foreign language. Some research on these issues, for example, Portes and Schauffler (1994) and Stevens (1992), indicate that the longer an individual has resided in the United States, the more extensive his or her adoption of English as the primary or dominant language of communication will be. Waggoner (1988) also found that foreign-born individuals are much more likely than those who are native-born to speak non-English languages at home. Thus, these effects are likely to transfer to language attitudes, so immigration and length of stay could be influential factors in the language attitudes of students in Hong Kong.

These factors may be especially relevant considering the immigration history into Hong Kong. Since the handover of political sovereignty in 1997, there have been more immigrants from Mainland China to Hong Kong. The number has increased even more quickly in recent years along with the closer relationship between Hong Kong and Mainland China. Many new immigrants come from the Guangdong province of China, where a similar version of Cantonese is spoken as in Hong Kong. We have reason to assume, however, that new immigrant students from Mainland China, including ones from Guangdong province, have better Putonghua proficiency and might use Putonghua at home because of the national language policy of China, which has encouraged Putonghua as the standard language across China for the last fifty years.

As for the socioeconomic background of new immigrants, the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department shows that new arrivals from Mainland China are mostly engaged in low-ranking jobs. This has led researchers such as Lai (2002) to believe that these new immigrants have more contact with the Cantonese language community than with the English language community in Hong Kong. The implication for attitudes follows from the “social distance” concept, and thus one would conclude that these new

immigrants are more likely to be favorable towards Cantonese than towards English.

In the other direction, one may believe that Hong Kong students of lower socioeconomic class would have more dealings with new Putonghua speakers from Mainland China than English speakers would, thus encouraging the attitudes of Hong Kong students of lower socioeconomic class to be more favourable towards Putonghua than towards English.

The length of time spent in Hong Kong for the new immigrants is also included as part of this study because one may believe that longer time in Hong Kong encourages more interaction and time for attitude adjustment in schools and society for new immigrants. We would reasonably treat students born in Hong Kong as having lived in Hong Kong the longest.

We should also note some recent policies of Hong Kong encouraging more highly educated and skilled Mainland Chinese to immigrate to Hong Kong. An example is the Quality Migrant Admission Scheme which has been implemented recently. This is a quota-based system that “seeks to attract highly skilled or talented persons who are fresh entrants not having the right to enter and remain in Hong Kong to settle in Hong Kong in order to enhance Hong Kong's economic competitiveness in the global market” (Hong Kong Immigration Department, 2009). Unlike other immigrants previously, the new arrivals under this scheme are highly educated and are engaged in very high-ranking jobs in Hong Kong. Another notable example is the thousands of mainland students that have come to Hong Kong from Mainland China for university education. These students are awarded the right to work and immigrate to Hong Kong on graduation. All these immigrants, like the new arrivals under the Quality Migrant Admission Scheme, are highly educated and tend towards high-ranking occupations in Hong Kong.

As these immigrants from higher socioeconomic and educational backgrounds increase in Hong Kong, their social distance to the English, Putonghua, and Cantonese language communities is to be seen, and their attitudes towards languages are also to be discovered, as is their potential influence on the attitudes of the rest of the population.

2.2.6 Summary

A variety of factors may influence a student's attitude towards different languages. Chiefly among them include the factors related to Gender, Identity, School, and Home.

The gender of a student is highly relevant. Research has shown that female students may be more prone to the status High language and may seek to join that language community themselves. The effect of speaker gender has tended to induce a preference for females speaking the Low language.

The cultural identity of a student is a reflection of his beliefs and inclinations towards a societal group and is likely to reflect the integrative dimension of his attitudes towards the group that he has chosen to identify himself with.

School effects are highly relevant through both the informal and formal environments. The empirical research may suggest that formal school orientation towards a language influences student attitudes towards a language. However, the instrumental dimension of attitude seems to be less affected, and only the integrative dimension may be affected.

Home characteristics include native language and socioeconomic class. Language acquisition studies have shown that integrative attitudes toward a language are very important in language acquisition, so one may interpret attitudes of students who acquired languages to be related to integrative attitudes towards the language.

Socioeconomic class affects students through “social distance” to different language groups that socioeconomic class allows students to be in contact with. The immigrant characteristics of students in Hong Kong are likely to affect student language attitude through socioeconomic class.

2.3 Previous language attitude studies in Hong Kong

There has been interest in language attitudes in Hong Kong over the past 30 years along with the rapid changes the region has seen. Some notable past research has included Fu (1975), Lyczak, Fu and Ho (1976), Pierson, Fu and Lee (1980), Pierson and Bond (1982), Fu, Pierson, Cheung, Lee, and Lee (1985), Gibbons (1987), and Gran (1988).

Some more recent studies covering wider topics have included Lin, Detatamani, Yeung and Wong (1991), Pennington and Yue (1993), Littlewood and Liu (1996), Hyland (1997), Evans, Jones, Rusmin and Cheung (1998), Boyle (2000), Lai (2001; 2002), and Zhang (2006).

This section will review some of these studies based on three categories:

(a) studies mainly focused on attitudes towards English;

(b) studies mainly focused on comparing attitudes between English and Chinese (in this case referring to Cantonese); and

(c) studies that include attitudes towards Putonghua, including comparisons between Putonghua, English, and Cantonese.

2.3.1 Studies focused on English

Hong Kong has seen a dramatic change since the 70s. Overall, the High status of English in Hong Kong society has seen some changes and challenges. It transformed from a prestigious colonial language to the language of highest instrumental value. A number of studies focused on this change and tracked attitudes towards English over the years.

Fu (1975) did a questionnaire study to 561 students in five different secondary schools of Hong Kong to study the students' attitudes towards English. The majority of students were agreed on the high instrumental value of English and they would like their spouses and offspring to be competent in English. Although they believed in the positive value and status of English, they expressed negative feelings in using English for communication within or outside the classroom. In addition, a substantial number of the respondents evaluated Western culture and English-speaking people negatively by using adjectives like proud, scornful, racist, cold, unfriendly and hypocritical. The study of Fu (1975) revealed mixed attitudes of students towards English and indicated that the status of English had been changed from a colony language to a language of mainly instrumental value. The respondents expressed positive attitudes towards the instrumental value of English but a negative attitude towards English speaking people.

A large scale pre-handover survey of Hong Kong attitudes to English was done in 1996. Littlewood and Liu (1996) presented the final report of a project –*Profiling the English Language Competence and Experience of Students Entering University in Hong Kong.* Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes towards English were an important part of the project. The investigation began in September 1994 and was completed in April 1996, just one year before the sovereignty handover of Hong Kong. In the survey, the students' attitudes to English were divided into three categories: Affective,

Socio-political and Pragmatic. These the authors defined as follows: "Affective attitudes refer to one's sense of ease or liking for English, English-speaking people and cultures. Socio-political attitudes denote beliefs about the use and status of English in Hong Kong. Pragmatic attitudes focus on the practical value of English for personal success in the modern world" (Littlewood & Liu 1996: 76). This tripartite distinction goes beyond Gardner's dual Integrative/Instrumental distinction, though Affective and Integrative are clearly close and Socio-political and Pragmatic both share elements of Instrumental, as Boyle (2000) pointed out.

Working with a much larger number of subjects (2,156), the results show that, while pragmatic motivation is the strongest, there also existed a sense of social concern for Hong Kong's future with regard to proficiency in English. On the affective scale, though the percentages are not so high, there was still strong evidence of positive attitudes to the English language and to its native-speakers and their way of life. The most significant result, however, is the 96% agreement (the highest score for all the Statements) on "English is an important world language", compared with an 11% agreement (by far the lowest score) on "I will lose my Chinese identity if I am good at English". This suggested that young Hong Kong University students recognized the importance of English as a world language and would like to be proficient users of it, but at the same time, they are comfortable with their Chinese identity and feel little threat to it from the English language (a finding different from Pierson *et al*., 1980, described in the next section).

2.3.2 Studies focused on English versus Chinese

An effective way to study students' language attitudes is to compare students' attitudes between English and Chinese (in this case referring to Cantonese). There were a number of major studies doing this comparison.

Trying to measure language attitudes in relation to ethnicity, Lyczak *et al.* (1976) conducted a test with 210 university students. As a main method to elicit language attitudes, they used the Matched-guise Technique (MGT) in Hong Kong. The subjects were requested to listen to ten voices speaking in both English and Cantonese and were asked to evaluate the voices guises on 13 traits. The results showed that the Chinese language guises were rated significantly higher on traits of inter-personal relationship (i.e. kindness, trustworthiness, honesty, tactfulness, earnestness, humility, and friendliness) while the English guises were rated higher on the traits of power (i.e. attractiveness, intelligence, wealth and competence).

Another notable study in the 80s was Pierson *et al* (1980), which surveyed 466 Hong Kong secondary students' attitudes to English and Chinese by both direct and indirect questionnaires. Similar to those of Fu (1975), the results suggested that the subjects clearly realized the pragmatic functions of English in Hong Kong, while they demonstrated strong loyalty to the Chinese cultural identity. Many of the subjects claimed that they felt unpatriotic when using English. As for the indirect questionnaire, this study found that Chinese speakers were usually rated high for traits related to community qualities like friendliness, trustworthiness, sincerity and gentleness, while the English was rated high for attractiveness and clear thinking.

Other researchers did the same test later in different times, for example, Pennington and Yue (1993), and Axler, Yang and Stevens (1998).

Pennington and Yue (1993) replicated the investigation of Pierson *et al* (1980) and compared the findings with those of the original study (Pierson *et al* 1980). The replication was done only on the direct questionnaire while the indirect questionnaire was abandoned because it was considered too abstract for secondary school students. In

Pennington and Yue (1993), 285 Hong Kong students from F,1 (Secondary 1) to F. 6 (Secondary 6) (aged 11-18) of eight different schools were asked to answer a direct questionnaire that consisted of the same items as the original ones used by Pierson *et al* (1980). Similar to the findings of Pierson *et al* (1980), Pennington and Yue (1993) found that the subjects were positive about English. Most of them expressed a wish to speak fluent and accurate English, which was seen as a symbol of high status. The subjects agreed that the command of English was very helpful in understanding foreigners and their culture. However, with regards to ethnolinguistic identity, there was a clear difference between the two studies: while the subjects of Pierson *et al.* (1980) agreed that using English would make them feel less Chinese and not patriotic, those of Pennington and Yue (1993) did not agree that using English would bring negative effects on their identity. Pennington and Yue (1993) therefore concluded that the competition of Cantonese and English in the early 1980s had become outdated.

In 1993, Axler *et al.* conducted another replication of Pierson *et al.* (1980) and the report was published in 1998. In this research, 250 students of English from three different schools were chosen to answer a questionnaire identical to that of Pierson *et al.* (1980). In Axler *et al.* (1998), Pennington and Yue (1993)'s findings were reaffirmed. Hong Kong young people were found to see themselves as a pragmatic bilingual group who would not feel "un-Chinese" when using English. English no longer carried the connotation of a colonizer, but an international language for wider communication.

Gibbons (1987) conducted an MGT study on 99 undergraduates of a Hong Kong university. The focus of his study was on mixed-code language (MIX), in that Cantonese was spoken using English loanwords. It was found that there was hostility towards the use of mixed-code. When a speaker used mixed Cantonese-English rather than English or Cantonese, he or she was described as more ill-mannered and more

prone to “showing off”—essentially negative evaluations. Meanwhile, there was also firm evidence that use of MIX marks a level of personal acculturation intermediate between Western and Chinese.

For attitudes towards English and Cantonese, the researcher summarized: “The findings confirm those of Lyczak *et al*. (1976) with regard to attitudes towards Cantonese and English. They indicate that, when Chinese speakers use English to one another, they give an impression of status and Westernization. When they use Cantonese, they give an impression of Chinese humility and solidarity” (Gibbons, 1987: 119).

2.3.3 Studies focused on or including Putonghua

As can be seen from the major studies above, most studies before 1997 focused on attitudes towards English and Cantonese. Very few researchers paid any attention to Putonghua. This neglect is understandable as the times when those studies were conducted, English and Cantonese were the only major languages in Hong Kong. Very few secondary school students learned or understood Putonghua.

After sovereignty handover of 1997, along with the rapidly changing of society, Putonghua, the official language of the PRC, had grown to be a powerful and important language in Hong Kong, sitting together with English and Cantonese. Faced with this social change, many scholars turned their attention to Putonghua and included Putonghua in their language attitudes’ studies, e.g. Pierson (1992), Fu and Ho (1995), Lung (1996), Cheung (1997), Evans *et al.* (1998), Boyle (2000), Lai (2001, 2002), Lee (2005) and Zhang (2006).

Pierson (1992) was a unique study on the language attitudes of secondary school students towards Putonghua. Using nearly 800 scripts from an official examination on the topic of compulsory Mandarin (Putonghua) in secondary school curriculum, 100

were randomly chosen to constitute the research set. By means of "content analysis", these scripts were analyzed to determine attitudes towards language, especially Putonghua. In analyzing the contents of the scripts, 377 items were identified as being either directly or indirectly related to Putonghua. The items were spread over the following main categories: (1) Communicative need; (2) Political exigency; (3) Sociocultural attractiveness; (4) Instrumental demand; and (5) Educational/linguistic need. From the content analysis, it would appear that the Cantonese-speaking subjects were affirming their Chinese identity as well as accommodating themselves to the sociopolitical reality of eventual mainland Chinese control over Hong Kong. Pierson (1992) found that Hong Kong Cantonese-speaking subjects often referred to Putonghua as their mother tongue and expressed shame and incompleteness if they were unable to communicate in it. The mention of Putonghua elicited feelings of ethnic consciousness, which conceivably transcended the strong attraction that the "hybrid Hong Kong Chinese culture" holds. This can be noted in examples of the generally negative or neutral categorizations of Cantonese made by native Cantonese-speakers, e.g. "Cantonese can't be used in formal writing", "Cantonese is only a dialect", "Cantonese sounds coarse", "Cantonese is not a national language", "Cantonese has a bad influence on Putonghua", etc.. Pierson (1992) said "One can only speculate that these Cantonese-speaking subjects are affirming their Chinese ethnic identity through the mediation of Putonghua, at the temporary expense of their true mother tongue, Cantonese". Thus, one can infer that in 1992, elements of Chinese identity were present in Hong Kong, despite the fact that the subjects were never officially under Chinese control.

In order to measure the attitudes of various sectors of the public towards Hong Kong's future language needs and policy, Evans *et al.* (1998) examined people attitudes

towards English, Cantonese and Putonghua. The survey was conducted out in 1994. A total of 102 people from four social groups were chosen as the subjects, namely 45 students (21 tertiary, 24 secondary), 20 teachers (of English and Chinese from both Chinese-medium and English-medium schools), 20 parents with school-aged children, and 17 business/working people ranking from clerical workers to management professionals. The finding suggested that the importance of Putonghua would increase and the status and function of Cantonese would remain the same in Hong Kong after 1997. It said: "Our respondents believe that English and Putonghua will enjoy equal status as 'high' languages of business and the professions, with English oriented towards the international community and Putonghua towards China. It is interesting that the business/working people believe English will retain its primary importance in business and professions beyond 1997. Our interviewees note that Putonghua is already becoming increasingly important in business because of Hong Kong's economic link with China" (Evans *et al*., 1998: 396-397). The respondents generally believe that Putonghua would rise as a 'high' variety and be used in the domains of government, law and business; while Cantonese would romaine as a 'low' variety and be used by "blue-collar work and everyday life" (Evans *et al*., 1998: 397).

One large-scale survey (Boyle, 2000) was conducted in 1996, shortly before the handover of Hong Kong. It looked beyond the student population and interviewed 1,093 young working adults (aged 20-40). This survey went beyond attitudes to English, and investigated attitudes to Chinese and as well as to Putonghua. The survey was conducted at a busy shopping mall by a team of ten pre-trained interviewers with a common set of questions. The subjects were asked three questions on attitudes to English, three on attitudes to Chinese (Putonghua and Cantonese), two on a comparison of attitudes between English and Putonghua, and finally three questions on the subjects'

predictions for the post-1997 future of English, Cantonese and Putonghua. The study found that significant changes in attitudes, especially among the young people, have taken place over the past few decades. In particular, there was a decrease in the feeling that learning English is a threat to Chinese identity, and English is being seen more as an international language than as a colonial language. Though the English language was still considered as something which is very important for Hong Kong's future, Putonghua was inevitably seen as exerting more and more influence on the Hong Kong scene, as business with China expands and travel between Hong Kong and the Mainland increases. The future for Cantonese was generally thought to be positive, though the question of medium of instruction in schools would not be easily solved and the future may see more mingling of Putonghua and Cantonese, in the same way that a mixed code of Cantonese and English had emerged. The researcher concluded his study by saying that: "It has been seen that attitudes to the learning of language among Hong Kong people remain very pragmatic and job-related".

Lai (2002) conducted a valuable study on language attitudes of the "first post-colonial generation in Hong Kong". The study focused on a unique student group who began their secondary education in 1998, one year after the handover. Both quantitative (MGT and direct questionnaires) and qualitative methods (focus-group interviews) were used for this research. 1,048 F.3 (Secondary 3) students from 28 secondary schools participated in the research. The results showed that the first post-colonial secondary school generation felt the most affectively inclined to vernacular Cantonese and perceived English as the language of the highest instrumental values and social status while Putonghua was rated the lowest both in the affective and cognitive perspectives, and "students are far from being enthusiastic towards Putonghua" (p.182).

Lee (2005) involved 184 secondary school students from Form One to Four. The

findings of Lee (2005) affirmed Hong Kong students' integrative feeling towards Putonghua. Lee (2005) concludes, "However, my data do not show the existence of the relationship between the integrative feelings towards Putonghua and Hong Kong students' sense of cultural affiliation. Due to the promotion of Putonghua education, Hong Kong students should be familiar with it linguistically and psychologically. Thus, the effect of integrative feeling towards Putonghua on enhancing Hong Kong students' sense of culture affiliation should be investigated in future studies".

Zhang (2006) conducted a study focused on attitudes of Hong Kong secondary school students towards learning Putonghua. A random sample of 437 students from 6 secondary schools, spanning Form 1 and 2 (equivalent to grades 7-8) and ranging in age from 12 to 17 years old served as the subjects. The study employed a direct approach attitude questionnaire. Zhang (2006) concluded his study with four points as follows:

- Less than half (46%) of Hong Kong secondary students definitely held positive attitudes toward the learning of Putonghua. 14% of students were definitely not interested in learning Putonghua. And up to 40% students hesitated in expressing their attitudes toward learning Putonghua, but tended to rather negative attitudes in general.

- Three major reasons which had encouraged Hong Kong students to learn Putonghua were: (I) pragmatic reasons since Putonghua helped in finding jobs, (II) ethnic reasons as Putonghua represents the Chinese people and is the official language of China, and (III) linguistic reasons since Putonghua is helpful in studying written Chinese.

- Major reasons which had hampered Hong Kong students' desire to learn Putonghua related to ineffective teaching methodology and lack of favourable Putonghua learning environments in Hong Kong.
- Students who were recent immigrants from mainland China held more complicated attitudes towards the learning of Putonghua. In general, they tended to negative attitudes, because they did not like others to know their status as new immigrants.

2.3.4 Summary

Language attitudes in Hong Kong are undergoing change. This has been demonstrated th-rough a number of valuable empirical studies on language attitudes in Hong Kong over the past three decades starting in the 70s.

Generally, studies conducted before 1997 focused on the attitudes of secondary and tertiary students towards only English and Cantonese. Whereas closer to and after 1997, studies have included Putonghua in their research objectives. This may be representative of the language attitude of researchers themselves.

In general, studies have shown complicated and changing attitudes held by people from Hong Kong, especially Hong Kong students. The most consistent results are a high regard of English as a pragmatic and instrumental language and Cantonese as a source of identity and community. The attitudes towards Putonghua appear complicated. Studies (e.g. Boyle, 2000, Pierson, 1992, and Lai, 2002) found Putonghua tended to be rated low in comparison to both English and Cantonese in both integrative and instrument portions even after 1997. However, nobody can ignore the increasing influence of Putonghua on Hong Kong counting on the sovereignty handover of 1997. Some researches (e.g. Lung, 1996, and Evans *et al*,1998) found that Putonghua was becoming more instrumental value than Cantonese and even becoming one of the High

languages sitting together with English. Some researches found “the students’ integrative feeling towards Putonghua is affirmed in the study” (e.g. Lee, 2005), but we have no more detailed studies on that.

This study will build on the previous studies, but will aim to cover more ground. Firstly, it will use a more recent group of students, and secondly, it will use a variety of techniques to analyze not only the relative rankings of the three languages in terms of student attitudes but also the numerous factors that may influence these attitudes. Thirdly, this study will not only focus on cognitive portion of language attitude but also emphasize affective or non-cognitive portion of Hong Kong students’ language attitudes and the relationship between cognitive and non-cognitive attitudes.

After literature relevant to the study has been reviewed, the next Chapter goes on to describe the research design and process.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Process

This chapter states the research design and process, which include the approaches for assessing and measuring language attitude, data collection and processing methods, questionnaire design, and statistical techniques employed by this study. Issues related to validity, reliability, limitations, and ethics are also dealt with in the last section.

3.1 Language attitude assessment and measurement

Approaches to researching language attitudes are usually grouped under three broad headings (see Garrett *et al*, 2003:14-18; Feifel, 1994: 63-66):

(a) Descriptive-Analytical Method, which can also be called “content analysis” or “societal treatment” of language varieties;

(b) Direct Method; and

(c) Indirect Method, which is commonly used to refer to the “speaker-evaluation

paradigm" or the "matched-guise technique".

These approaches each have strengths and weaknesses, which will be briefly outlined and discussed in this section.

In addition, in light of the three types of attitudes of cognitive, affective, and behavioural attitude components, each method emphasizes measurement of a different component.

The Descriptive-Analytical Method best elicits behavioural attitudes. The Direct Method best elicits cognitive attitudes. The Indirect Method best elicits affective attitudes. This study will use the Direct Method and the Indirect Method. The Descriptive-Analytical Method is used as background.

3.1.1 Descriptive-Analytical Method

The Descriptive-Analytical Method is an analysis of the positions of languages as they are used in society. It is mainly based on measuring the behavioural dimension of attitude in that only what people do are measured.

There are four major categories of observable indicators (according to Feifel, 1994: 66): demographic indicators, linguistic indicators, the context of actual language usage, and government language policies. Researchers have used multiple sources to identify and measure these factors. They can be sourced from demographic surveys, qualitative analyses of government policies, analysis of popular and official literature, the media, and so on (Agheyisi & Feshman, 1970). The goal of all these research approaches is to see if broad trends can demonstrate the relative positions of languages in a society.

Demographic indicators can include the number of speakers of a given language, the proficiency attained in the languages spoken, and trends in these indicators over time.

Such indicators can be a measure of population attitudes towards different languages. For example, the number of proficient speakers of Putonghua in Hong Kong has increased dramatically in Hong Kong since 1997, in only about 10 years. This willingness to accept, adopt, and learn Putonghua is a reflection of the population's language attitudes towards Putonghua.

Linguistic indicators study the structure and the changes in a language as used. For example, the presence of strong foreign influence on the vocabulary of a language, such as the widespread presence of English loanwords in spoken Korean and to a lesser extent spoken Hong Kong Cantonese are indicative of the relative strengths of attitudes towards these languages.

Sociolinguistic status indicators include the different uses of languages in different situations, especially within the domains of school, business, media, and private domains. In most places in southern China, education, formal business, and media are conducted in Putonghua and private domains are conducted in the local dialect, for example.

Government policy indicators include official language policy and highly encouraged policy. For example, the Kurdish language is officially suppressed in Turkey in a very public example of language policy. The popularization and standardization of Putonghua across China in the past 50 years is another example. Such government policies may affect language attitudes in either direction. In the Turkish case, the Kurds felt threatened. In the Chinese case, the policy has been met with general acceptance, though the problem or clash between Putonghua and other Chinese dialects, including Chinese dialects, has been remaining in China since 1956 when the policy was implemented.

This approach is often not emphasized in studies focused on language attitudes, but the Descriptive-Analytical Method is not only implied as background in most studies but also serves as the source of research questions for language attitude studies, as Feifel (1994) points out:

> The content analyses of societal treatment of languages provide a valuable description of roles of contrasting language varieties as well as the broad foundation concerning historical changes and geographical differences upon which the more sociolinguistic studies can be based. (Feifel, 1994: 67)

This approach, however, was in fact often overlooked in contemporary discussions of language attitudes research. There was relatively little mention in the language attitudes literature of studies employing this approach. The reasons of that might be, as Garrett *et al*. (2003:15-16) explained, "[i]t seems more likely that there is a great deal of attitudinal data in a good number of ethnographic studies, for example, which simply do not get properly reviewed in 'mainstream' accounts". The predominant view of societal treatment research amongst many language attitudes researchers, especially those working in the social psychological tradition, is that much of it is too informal, and that it can therefore serve mainly as a preliminary for more rigorous sociolinguistic and social psychological studies (Ryan *et al*., 1988: 1069), perhaps as a source of convergent validity to data collected through direct or indirect methods (Garrett *et al*., 2003: 16).

This approach is a very observational one. That is, this approach is not based on questionnaires, interviews, experiments, or even direct access to the test subjects. It is based on the analysis of evidence left behind in daily life by a population. Since content analysis is characterized by its "nonreactive" or "unobtrusive" research approach, Knops and van Hout (1988) argue that this approach may prove particularly useful only

"when restrictions of time or space do not permit direct access to the subjects of research" (p.7).

3.1.2 Direct Method

The so-called Direct Method is a direct elicitation of language attitudes from a group of study participants. One may ask direct questions about language evaluation and direct questions about different attitudes in a survey or questionnaire, for example. Such direct attitude surveys may ask individuals to evaluate languages on a scale of desirability or usefulness.

The Direct Method can also ask respondents to provide reports on actual usage, reasons for using certain languages, and opinions on language policies. One may also ask these questions in person in an interview, and use follow-up questions if necessary. When questions are asked about attitudes, the Direct Method is a predominantly a measure of cognitive attitudes, because the responses are generally beliefs the study participant holds.

With regards to language attitudes, there are generally two ways of implementing the Direct Method. One way is to ask explicit questions such as "How much do you like English speakers?" Another way is to use implicit questions that reflect attitudes. These are questions that ask for agreement with statements stating common stereotypes such as "English speakers are cultured" or more complex questions such as "If you are lost in a city, who would you think is the best person to help you – an English speaker or a Cantonese speaker?"

Pierson *et al.* (1980), for example, employed both explicit and implicit questionnaires. The explicit questionnaire asked students to rate 23 statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "absolutely agree" to "absolutely disagree". The implicit questionnaire

asked the students to rate the degree to which a number of stereotypes fit themselves, their ideal selves, native speakers of Cantonese in Hong Kong, and native speakers of English in Hong Kong. Later, in a replacement study, Pennington and Yue (1993) abandoned the implicit questionnaire because it was "too abstract for secondary students".

The Direct Method as a whole has been used across a whole range of contexts: to predict second-language learning (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1982); to determine relative language use (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Hidalgo, 1984); to examine policy issues such as bilingual education (Mosley, 1969). It has also been employed to study people's attitudes to the preservation or promotion of whole languages such as Gaelic (MacKinnon, 1981) and Irish (CILAR, 1975; O'Riagain, 1993), or attitudes to two languages in bilingual contexts, such as Welsh and English (Jones, 1949, 1950; Sharp *et al*., 1973; Lewis, 1975; Baker, 1992; Garrett *et al*., 1992, 1994), and to study the impact of language legislation in such contexts (Bourhis, 1983). In Hong Kong, studies employing the Direct Method include Fu (1975), Pierson *et al.* (1980), Fu *et al*. (1985), Pennington and Yue (1993); Hyland (1997), Zhang (2006), and so on.

Many researchers do believe that language attitudes can be measured directly with these types of Direct Method questionnaires or interviews. That is why the Direct Method has been used across a whole range of contexts in attitude surveys. Researchers generally consider this method as a method with high validity. It is easy to construct, easy to administer, and is most suitable for a general review of language attitudes because its results would be more direct and more comparable than other methods. (Garrett *et al*., 2003: 40; Aiken, 2002: 32; Pennington & Yue, 1993: 17).

Some researchers even believe that direct questioning is a better way of investigating attitudes than other methods. They suggest that the best way to find out people's

attitudes is to simply go and ask them to get the information "straight from the horse's mouth" (Denscombe, 1998: 88).

However, there are numerous considerations that trouble the Direct Method in social science. In addition to considerations of research design, there are significant questions of honesty and whether the respondents can actually express their attitudes or thoughts directly to the researcher.

Garrett *et al*. (2003: 27-31) have listed a number of "general difficulties" in designing studies using the Direct Method, which include hypothetical questions, strongly slanted questions, multiple questions, social-desirable bias, acquiescence bias, characteristics of the researcher, the language employed in the process of data collection, and group polarization.

Some of these are issues in research design. With regards to language attitudes, for example, a particularly interesting issue is that the questionnaire itself needs to be given in a particular language. The question is which language and whether that choice has an effect on the results.

The other issues involve a number of debate. One is the idea of honesty. Taking the social-desirable bias for example, this refers to the tendency for people to give "socially appropriate responses" to questions. Cook and Sellitz (1964: 39) reported their work in the United States that people were often motivated to give replies that make them appear "well-adjusted, unprejudiced, rational, open-minded, and democratic". Questions aimed at finding attitudes towards racial, ethnic, and religious minorities are often affected by the social-desirability bias. Respondents with negative views towards a particular group may not wish to admit to the researcher, or even to themselves, that they hold such feelings, and so "they may avoid giving answers that would make them

look like bigots" (Perloff, 1993: 44). Some researchers think that requesting characteristics may encourage certain socially desirable responses and discourage others, and hence responses may not accurately reflect privately-held attitudes but rather the expected "proper" response (Lambert, 1967: 94). In this case, while not quite a lie, the answers are not honest.

Some researchers make this belief more explicit, believing that the study of language attitude has long been affected by the limitation of self-reported attitude measures. "It simply could not be assumed that public statements were a valid measure of attitudes toward another group, especially when those statements came from members of an oppressed minority" (Lyczak *et al.*, 1976).

Another issue is whether the responses obtained from the Direct Method are indeed the measure intended. As a matter of fact, whether a respondent is even able to express true attitudes in a direct way is not clear. The methodological problem involved here concerns whether the subjects' verbal statements of their attitudes and their behavioral reactions in concrete situations can indeed both be interpreted as manifestations of the same underlying dispositions (Garrett *et al*., 2003: 24-25).

With these issues in mind, part of this study will use the Direct Method in the form of a written questionnaire asking both explicit and implicit questions. The written questionnaire used in this study necessarily reflects the cognitive component of attitude because the responses are based on beliefs and not feelings or actions. Results from the written questionnaire will be referred to as the Cognitive Ratings.

The Direct Method is useful in this study because the major concern of social-desirability bias of the Direct Method is not so clear in the case of Hong Kong. Because of the rapid language change, it is not so clear what the socially desirable

responses should be. There will be explicit and implicit questions on the questionnaire and these will be referred to as the explicit and implicit cognitive ratings.

3.1.3 Indirect Method

The notion of the Indirect Method is to measure language attitude while the subject is doing something else. It is hoped that the activity the subject engages in reflects language attitude in some way. By doing this, the Indirect Method attempts to solve the social-desirability bias mentioned for the Direct Method.

The Indirect Method generally uses strategies that make the subjects unaware that their attitudes are under study (Dawes & Smith, 1985). Examples of the Indirect Method can be recording aspects of people's behavior over which one can presume that they have no control, or successfully fooling subjects into believing that the researcher is examining something that has nothing to do with their attitudes. Also, one can also ask subjects about things that appear to have no relation to language attitudes but in fact reflect language attitudes.

There are many strategies and techniques that can be considered "indirect". However, for the past 50 years in the field of language attitude research, the Indirect Method refers almost exclusively to the matched-guise technique (MGT) introduced by Lambert *et al.*, (1960) and later refined by Lambert (1967).

The MGT asks respondents to evaluate the voices of specific speakers rather than a language variety itself. It is widely popular and has been used to study all aspects of language accents, speech styles, dialects, and entire languages themselves (see Garrett *et al*., 2003; Giles & Billings, 2004, for review.)

Lambert and his colleagues developed the MGT in the 50s because they suspected the social-desirability bias and other similar biases. They believed that the respondents

were not revealing privately-held attitudes through the Direct Method. Their studies have suggested that MGT, as compared to the Direct Method, could obtain more private attitudes and mental images people have of foreign ethnolinguistic communities (Lambert *et al*., 1960). Since then, the validity of MGT has been widely accepted.

The MGT asks the respondents to rate speakers on different attitude scales while the speakers are speaking in different languages. The fact that the speakers are speaking different languages is presented as a secondary consideration to the respondents. In reality, the same multi-lingual speaker is used for all the languages spoken, and thus, by subtracting the ratings of each subject for the same speaker speaking different languages, the resulting differences in responses between languages is assumed to be due to the language spoken and not the quality of voice of the speaker. Furthermore, it is believed that rating a specific speaker invites more honest responses than rating a language or an entire language community directly.

This technique is based on the assumption that listening to the recording of a speaker of a specific language variety causes the listener to call certain feelings of the language community to mind (Cargile *et al*., 1994: 221). That is, hearing a language evokes attitudes in the minds of the listeners that they have associated with the language in the past through experiences with people of that language community. Then, these attitudes are evoked and captured in the responses that they provide in the questionnaire (Gardner & Lambert 1972: 98). Thus, the affective component of attitude is primarily studied, as these are not cognitive or behavioural responses being captured, but affective feelings.

The original research on the MGT was deemed important for several reasons, which Giles and Billings (2004) detailed, and Garrett *et al*. (2003: 57) agreed with:

- Lambert invented a rigorous and elegant method for eliciting private attitudes that controlled for extraneous variables as well as the social-desirability bias. The extraneous variables are controlled by analyzing the difference each subject gave to the same speaker of different languages.
- It showed how certain individuals can attribute unfavorable traits to members of their own language community.
- The findings underscored the important role of language (and code and dialect choice) in impression formation.
- The study laid the foundations for an interface between sociolinguistic and socio-psychological analyses of language and was an important factor in establishing the cross-disciplinary field of language attitudes.
- The original study created an enormous number of studies worldwide, particularly in Britain, Australasia, the United States, The Netherlands, and more recently Denmark. These studies are reasonably comparable and allow for cumulative development of the field.
- The study led to the identification of the now widely recognized (though often relabeled) attitude clusters of *status* (e.g. confidence, ambition) versus *solidarity* (e.g., friendly, generous) traits (see, for example, Mulac, Hanley & Prigge 1974). This is an important contribution, as these judgments correspond to the Standardization and Vitality dimensions of language itself.

None of these successes can be denied, but the MGT also has shortcomings. However, some concerns were mentioned by researchers and the biggest one goes to the assumption raised by Lambert and his colleagues that, in MGT, the listener's reaction to the language in tape-recording would be the same if the language was heard in daily life.

For example, Garrett *et al*. (2003: 57-61) listed several problems of the MGT: the salience problem, the perception problem, the accent-authenticity problem, the mimicking-authenticity problem, the community-authenticity problem, the style-authenticity problem, and the neutrality problem. These problems all deal with the authenticity of the speech used in the MGT in contrast to more natural speech.

It is argued that repeating the same passage in different languages causes the speaker to make certain linguistic contrasts more prominent than otherwise. That is, the MGT may "systematically make speech/language and speech/language variation much more salient than it otherwise is, outside the experimental environment" (Garrett *et al*., 2003: 58).

Furthermore, the act of reciting speeches is different from using language in daily life, where attitudes are formed and conveyed. In particular, languages are distinct not only on grammar and vocabulary, but also in style, such as pace, intonation, and subtle choices of vocabulary. This is a translation problem as well, since the speakers are to convey the same content in each language, the actual content may be changed through the act of translation. Such effects are more serious in very different languages, such as English and Putonghua. The differences between Cantonese and Putonghua are also much greater in everyday conversation than in more formalized speeches. Thus, the idea that MGT removes all factors except the language used is not strictly true.

With these issues in mind, part of this study will use the Indirect Method in the form of an MGT. Results from this part of the study will be referred to as the affective rating because the MGT used in this study necessarily reflects the affective component of attitude. The responses are based on how students feel about the speaker of the languages. It is important to note that the MGT requires the ratings to be subtracted from each other by pairs of languages as part of the procedure.

It is important to note that the listening test does not require students to be fluent to the same degree for all the test languages. Because the Affective attitudes are elicited, students will still get a feeling based on hearing the languages being spoken. It is only necessary to make sure that the speakers of the languages are at similar levels of fluency in the test languages.

3.1.4 Pilot study

The primary purpose of the pilot study was to obtain information for justification of the research design with a particular focus on research instrumentation. Two aspects of feasibility of the instrumentation were assessed. One relates to the instruments themselves, including the audio-recording and questionnaire, and examines whether anything may be missing, mistreated, or misrepresented. The other relates to the relevant conditions under which the instruments are to be administered, and examines the procedures for data collection as well as reactions of the respondents.

The pilot study was conducted before the actual research with the entire questionnaire and two groups of the researcher's own tertiary students for trial and feedback. These students are not part of the study's target demographics, but were able to provide feedback and suggestions.

For the audio-recording research instruments, each of the four speakers made audio-recordings in three languages, and participants were not informed that the same speaker was speaking in different languages. After completing the questionnaire, randomly selected participants indicated that they were not aware that the different languages were spoken by the same speakers.

To test the process of administering the questionnaires, the listening part was conducted exactly as it would be in the formal setting, except feedback from the students was

actively solicited. From the pilot study, it was determined that students required only a very small amount of time to answer the questions and that music during the pauses was distracting. The instructions were re-written and the pauses were shortened as a result.

The final version of the tape-recording lasted 12 minutes and 25 seconds from beginning to end. The Written Part was revised after the pilot study with some wording changes for clarity and understandability.

The pilot study was conducted to ensure that the research design was appropriate and effective for the study.

3.1.5 Summary

This section reviewed methodological considerations of the three major types of language attitude research methods.

The Descriptive-Analytical Method uses data collected from real activities in society to infer language attitudes. It is not a controlled experiment, but the results obtained may be considered to be drawn from a natural setting. It is best suited to study the Behavioural component of language attitude.

The Direct Method asks questions about language attitudes and other beliefs to a sample of people. It is very easy to use, but the results may not reveal the respondents' private thoughts and feelings. This method is best suited to the study of the cognitive component of language attitude.

The Indirect Method (MGT) is an experiment where respondents are asked to rate speakers of different languages on personality factors to study attitudes. It may be able to elicit more private feelings, but is a highly controlled experiment and may not reflect real life language use. This method is best suited to the study of the affective

component of language attitude.

Despite these differences, the different methods can help each other in many ways. The Descriptive-Analytical Method serves as background to any experiment or survey conducted using the Direct and Indirect Method. Without the context in which languages are used in the real world, the results of any survey or experiment are difficult to interpret and also to draw conclusions from.

The MGT is also limited in that it cannot test many things related to language attitude. For example, while the MGT serves well to elicit private feelings and perceptions of languages such as friendliness or sophistication, it is not possible to use the MGT to answer questions such as opinions of whether English should be the main official language in Hong Kong. Such opinions can only be asked via the Direct Method.

Thus, all these research methods have flaws and benefits. Pieras-Guasp (2002) suggests that a combination of methods of the Direct and Indirect Methods are needed to obtain a clearer picture of the language attitudes. In the choice of how to approach the study of language attitudes in Hong Kong, therefore, the present study adopts a combination of all the methods, with a focus on the Direct Method from a written questionnaire to elicit cognitive ratings and the Indirect Method from an MGT experiment to elicit affective ratings. The combination of a written questionnaire and a controlled MGT experiment has been used in previous studies such as Pieras-Guasp (2002) and Lai (2002). The Descriptive-Analytical Method is used as background and for interpretation of the results.

3.2 Data collection and process

This section will describe aspects of the overall data collection and process.

3.2.1 Sample selection and school descriptions

A total of 17 schools yielding 635 students ultimately participated in the final study. Each school was then instructed to randomly select one class of Secondary 3 students to participate. Secondary 3 students, the target population, is equivalent to the 9th grade in the North American education system. In the British system, the equivalent name is Form 3. This level is generally considered junior secondary education following 8 years of school after kindergarten. The students were 14 to 15 years old.

Each school offered the survey to one class of students within the target band. Class sizes of the selected classes differed across schools, ranging from 18 to 43, with the median at 38 and mean at 37.35 students per class.

The 17 secondary schools came from 22 schools, which randomly selected from an official list of local Hong Kong daily schools. Each school then again randomly selected a class of students to participate in the study subject to only administrative availability.

A summary of the characteristics of the 17 schools that participated in the study is shown in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 A summary of the 17 schools that participated in the study

School Number	District	MOI	Sex	Band*	Students
1	Southern	Chinese	Co-ed	3	41
2	Central/Western	English	Boy	1	34
3	Tai Po	Chinese	Co-ed	2	18
4	Wan Chai	English	Boy	1	39
5	Northern	Chinese	Co-ed	3	38
6	Yau Tsim & Mong Kok	English	Girl	1	35
7	Tai Po	Chinese	Co-ed	3	41
8	Northern	Chinese	Co-ed	2	36
9	Kowloon City	Chinese	Co-ed	2	38
10	Sha Tin	Chinese	Co-ed	2.5	38
11	Yuen Long	English	Co-ed	2	41
12	Sai Kung	English	Co-ed	1	38
13	Sha Tin	English	Co-ed	2	40
14	Tuen Mun	Chinese	Co-ed	2	38
15	Southern	Chinese	Boy	3	37
16	Kwai Tsing	Chinese	Co-ed	2.5	43
17	Kwai Tsing	Chinese	Co-ed	2	40

(*School band is a rating of the quality of the school and the academic requirements of the students. Band 1 is the highest in quality; band 3 is the lowest. “MOI” refers to the medium of instruction of the school.)

The selection of schools deliberately did not include the different international schools located in Hong Kong.

This was chosen because the students in these schools are not the target demographic of this study. The student population at the international schools are by definition generally not from Hong Kong and thus do not represent the target demographic of Hong Kong

students who have grown up under Chinese sovereignty. The typical international school had a local enrollment of less than 15% in 2005 (American Chamber of Commerce report, 2007). The student populations also contain a significant temporary population, with students being temporarily educated before leaving Hong Kong. This affects the purpose of the study, which is seeking to understand the attitudes of students who live in Hong Kong.

Overall, international school enrollment also represents a small portion of the Hong Kong student population. In 2005, for example, it is estimated that international secondary schools in Hong Kong had an enrollment of only about 2,000 per grade level (American Chamber of Commerce report, 2007) across Hong Kong, whereas the local school public examination entries in 2005, which represents one grade level in the local secondary system, had 85,784 students (HKEAA, 2008). Thus, one may infer that the international student population represents an order of only 2% of the Hong Kong student population.

Thus, it was decided that inclusion of these schools was not appropriate for the research questions at hand.

3.2.2 Response rates

The raw data for the project involved 635 questionnaires collected from the students. Of the 635 questionnaires received, 16 of them were handed in without any responses and 376 of them were completely filled out with valid responses to all questions. The rest of the questionnaires contained answers to some of the questions but not all. For any particular question, the number of valid responses ranged from 504 to 609.

Overall, the response rate can be considered excellent, given that 97.48% of the participants were responsive and that 59.21% responded fully. Furthermore, any

individual item on the questionnaire had a response rate of between 79.37% and 95.91%.

3.2.3 Sample size

Larger sample sizes are always preferred in statistical studies, but in this particular case, large sample size carried extra benefits. For several reasons, much effort was made to conduct the research with as large a sample as possible given the time and resources available.

Sample size was especially relevant to this study due to the relative rarity of some characteristics in the student population, such as students who have lived in Hong Kong for very short periods of time (5.3% in the samples having one to two years length of time in Hong Kong) or students who speak English at home (1% in the samples). Thus, a large sample would have the chance to find some of these students. Deliberately targeting students with these characteristics would have been difficult and resource-consuming. Part of the research is to examine whether these relatively populations exhibited different language attitudes.

The large sample is also important because this study uses a relatively simple 4-scale questionnaire for most of the questionnaire, so variation in the responses is more limited. Thus, more data points are required to obtain relationships between responses and influencing factors.

The 635 questionnaires, along with the high response rate, proved very capable of providing statistically significant results within the population. Even the precision of estimated values for some of the rarer variables proved enough to offer insight. Furthermore, as the listening portions of the study used four speakers' voices and each of the speakers presented in three languages, more data with multiple adjustments from

the samples were obtained and facilitated much the analysis.

In general, the sample size was large enough compared to most other studies in this field and the data generated were considerable and significant for analysis.

3.2.4 Research process

The main data collection was conducted in February, 2008.

In December 2007, when 22 schools or approximate 5% secondary daily schools of Hong Kong at 2007 were randomly selected, a letter to school principals was sent seeking approval to conduct the questionnaire (see Appendix VII & VIII). The principals were fully informed of the aims and methods of the study. The letter stated that the contents of the questionnaires are believed to be safe and harmless to the students. A full sample of the questionnaire was also attached for principals' easy review. A few principals called the researcher to request more details of the study.

In the end, 17 approval letters from the school principals were obtained. Each principal also recommended a secondary school teacher (the Supporting Teacher) to assist and oversee the questionnaire.

Scheduling was arranged with the Supporting Teachers and the study was conducted with the help of two research assistants in February 2008 around the time of the Chinese New Year. Generally, the study took place at the end of the Supporting Teachers' regular classes.

The instructions to the questionnaire were printed in simple Chinese, and were confirmed to be understandable beforehand by all the students who took part in the survey.

At the top of the first page of the questionnaire, a detailed notice informed the students

of the nature and aims of the study, as well as the voluntary nature of the survey. Students who did not wish to participate were allowed to submit empty questionnaires. Students were also allowed to submit incomplete questionnaires or questionnaires without student background information.

Furthermore, the students were informed that the study was anonymous and that no names should be written on the questionnaires. Finally, the students were also informed that any personal information collected would be treated as strictly confidential and to be used for academic study purposes only (See Appendix I & II).

The study proceeded after the Supporting Teachers confirmed that the students understood the nature, purpose, and use of the study.

The first part of the study involved the students listening to a sequence of recordings, which were broadcast from the front of the classroom using a regular tape recorder. As tape recordings are a regular feature of language classes in Hong Kong, there were no problems in using this approach. Students listened to a few sentences of the introductory instructions as a voice test to confirm that all the students heard the recordings clearly before the formal recording began.

The recording consisted of several excerpts and the students were given time between each excerpt to mark down their responses.

Finally, the students were given up to 10 minutes to complete the remainder of the questionnaire. The total time allowed for completion of the survey was around 20 to 25 minutes for all three parts.

3.3 Questionnaire design

This section provides details of the questionnaire design for each part of the three-part questionnaire.

3.3.1 Three-part questionnaire

The questionnaire for this study consisted of a listening part (Part 1), a written part (Part 2), and a background questionnaire (Part 3) all administered in one session. This was the main research instrument.

Part 1 was the listening questionnaire (see Appendix I & II) corresponding to the Matched-Guise Technique (Lambert *et al.*, 1960; and Lambert, 1967). It was completed while listening to stimulus material on a recording.

Part 2 had explicit (section 1) and implicit (section 2) questions on language attitudes (see Appendix III & IV).

Part 3 collected relevant personal background information from the students (see Appendix V & VI).

The Rating scales

Part 1 and Part 2 use the 4-point Likert scale to measure responses. The Likert scales are one of the most popular scales used to measure language attitudes. The present study adopts Likert scales because it is seen as giving more reliability and is one of the most popular used by researchers (Oppenheim, 1992:20; Baker, 1992: 17; Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 40-42).

In general, the Likert scales ask for more than a yes or no answer and additionally ask for a strength rating. There is usually a balance of positive and negative statements, and

responses are scored on a scale of, for example, 1 to 5, with, say, 5 for the most agreement and 1 for most disagreement. Hence favorable statements might be scored 5 for “strongly agree” and unfavorable statements are scored 1 for “strongly disagree”.

The present study adopts a 4-point Likert rating scale: 4 = “strongly agree; “3 = agree; 2 = “disagree, and 1 = “strongly disagree”. The labels are changed accordingly depending on the question, but two responses are always on one side and two on the other side. A neutral point is not provided. This was done to address the central tendency and for simplicity.

The central tendency is observed in Likert scales having an odd number of points. An odd-number of points on the scale means there is a mid-point that allows the respondent to indicate “neutrality”. However, as Oppenheim (1992) points out, scores in the middle of the scale are often ambiguous. There is a tendency for the middle point to be picked. Such a response may be a careful and balanced view of the issue, an uncertain response to the issue, or a lazy response where the subject simply did not consider the question. Pennington *et al.* (1993) suggest that the middle point be omitted in order to avoid this central tendency. This will not affect analysis because truly neutral responses will average to the middle with large samples. For this reason, some researchers prefer to use an even number of points, as this study does.

Considering the test subjects, simplicity is also important. Only 4 points are used because of the simplicity it offers while also allowing for the strength of preference in addition to an “agree” or “disagree” answer. This will have some impact on the data collected, because there will be less choice and therefore the results would be harder to see. But it was decided that the next level of detail – 6 points – providing, for example, “strongly agree”, “somewhat agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, “somewhat disagree”, and

"strongly disagree" would be too complicated for the students to interpret the statements consistently.

3.3.2 Part 1: The MGT questionnaire

Part 1 was designed to use the Matched-Guise Technique to obtain a measure of Affective language attitudes. Subjects were told to listen to a tape recording of 12 voices relating the same 35-second complaint about getting stuck in a traffic jam during morning rush hour in front of a tunnel in Hong Kong. The listeners were told to imagine hearing the story in a telephone call and were then asked to judge different areas of the personality of the speaker based only on any information they could obtain from the voices. After each voice, the students answered the questionnaire section corresponding to that voice. The voices were numbered 1 to 12 on the questionnaire.

The recording

The stimulus recording for the Matched-Guise Technique involves speakers who are fluent in all three test languages. Six speakers, known to be fluent in all three languages, were invited to do the recordings and four were ultimately chosen for the quality and clarity of their recorded voices.

The four speakers were:

Female A: a native Cantonese speaker from Hong Kong who is now an English teacher at a secondary school in Hong Kong.

Female B: a native Cantonese and Putonghua speaker from Shenzhen (the city in Mainland China that is closest to Hong Kong) who is an exchange student in the English Department of a tertiary institution in Hong Kong.

Male A: a native Cantonese speaker from Hong Kong who is the principal of a

secondary school in Hong Kong.

Male B: a native Cantonese and Putonghua speaker from Hong Kong who is now a Putonghua teacher at a secondary school in Hong Kong.

The speakers recorded their voices separately and were not told the specific aims or purposes of the study. They were only informed of the academic nature of their recordings and their anonymity.

The speakers were provided the scripts and told to read them in English, Cantonese, and Putonghua. They were allowed to practice until they felt comfortable reciting the passages in a natural way. They were also allowed to take small colloquial liberties, such as adding pauses and sighs, to sound more natural, but were not allowed to add any content.

The final recording starts with instructions to the students on a “game of guessing what kind of person this is” with instructions on what to do and the topic of the passage – the traffic jam. The introductory instructions were two minutes long and delivered in a generic male voice using simple Cantonese.

Then, the 12 listening excerpts were played in a pre-selected random order. By chance, the first excerpt was in Cantonese, which also served the purpose of familiarizing the students with the content of the excerpts most readily. There were four speakers, and each spoke once in English, Cantonese, and Putonghua. Research participants were not told that they were listening to the same people speaking different languages.

Following Feifel (1994), this study used 12 voices, with two males and two females. Two males and two females were used instead of one male and one female for better accuracy through more data. Both males and females were used because of the significant effect that speaker gender has played in past research using the same

procedure (e.g. Lambert, 1967; Lambert *et al*., 1975; and Feifel, 1994).

The following excerpt was used in the English portion (see Appendix I for the Cantonese and Putonghua versions).

> Well, transportation in Hong Kong is generally not bad, but there are always traffic jams, especially during the rush hours…sometimes stuck for hours. I was late for a couple of minutes this morning…and then I get myself into this trouble. There are so many vehicles lined up over there at the tunnel…I've already waited for about half an hour. This is basically a standstill, you cannot do anything about it, no use being upset, just have to wait. Well, I'm calling just to let you know that I'll be late, don't wait for me. Really sorry about that.

The speech sample was constructed to be neutral and ordinary. Hong Kong's different regions are connected by a series of tunnels that are the site of frequent traffic jams. Traffic jams at the tunnels are the source of common complaints, reasons for being late, and are part of everyday conversation. The length of the stimulus material was designed to be similar to previous studies such as Lai (2002). The general considerations are to be short enough to allow for time and also long enough for students to be able elicit attitude responses.

The final order of the 12 voices on the final tape recording can be seen in Table 3.2. They were identified as "Voice 1", "Voice 2", *etc*., on the questionnaires:

Table 3.2 Final order of the 12 voices on the tape recording

Voice Order	**Language Variety**	**Voice Sex**	**Speaker**
Voice 1	Cantonese	Male	Male A
Voice 2	English	Female	Female A
Voice 3	Putonghua	Female	Female B
Voice 4	Cantonese	Male	Male B
Voice 5	English	Male	Male A
Voice 6	Putonghua	Female	Female A
Voice 7	Cantonese	Female	Female B
Voice 8	English	Male	Male B
Voice 9	Putonghua	Male	Male A
Voice 10	English	Female	Female B
Voice 11	Cantonese	Female	Female A
Voice 12	Putonghua	Male	Male B

The Character traits

While listening to the recorded material, students were asked to rate the speaker on 22 character traits. The evaluation table included 22 character traits with a 4-point Likert scale.

The character traits used by this test were borrowed from Feifel (1994). These traits were also used and shown to be relevant in the studies of Lambert *et al.* (1975), Carranza and Ryan (1975), and Woolard (1989). It was important that these traits caused no confusion, as there was no space on the questionnaire for detailed definitions of the traits. Thus, to make sure students had a commonly accepted understanding of the traits, simple words (simple in Chinese, as the questionnaire was written in Chinese) were used on the questionnaire. The Supporting Teachers also asked that the students confirmed that they understood the commonly used meanings of these traits before the

study began.

For each voice, Part 1 consisted of the following questionnaire displayed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 The 22 character traits used for the Affective Part

Traits	**strongly agree**	**agree**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**
1. Intelligence	4	3	2	1
2. Social Status	4	3	2	1
3. Comeliness	4	3	2	1
4. Fairness	4	3	2	1
5. Self-Confidence	4	3	2	1
6. Reliability	4	3	2	1
7. Likeability	4	3	2	1
8. Open-Mindedness	4	3	2	1
9. Charisma	4	3	2	1
10. Empathy	4	3	2	1
11. Religiousness	4	3	2	1
12. Compatibility	4	3	2	1
13. Responsibility	4	3	2	1
14. Sincerity	4	3	2	1
15. Competence	4	3	2	1
16. Politeness	4	3	2	1
17. Leadership	4	3	2	1
18. Modesty	4	3	2	1
19. Sophistication	4	3	2	1
20. Diligence	4	3	2	1
21. Kindness	4	3	2	1
22. Wealth	4	3	2	1

3.3.3 Part 2: The written questionnaire

The written part was intended to be done entirely as a written exercise. Following Lai (2002), it included two sections. Section 1 asked explicit language attitude questions about Cantonese, English, and Putonghua. Section 2 was intended to obtain an answer more indirectly by asking implicit questions that reflect the level of agreement with statements about different languages.

Explicit questions

The first section is composed of 6 explicit questions asked for each language. The students were asked to rate English, Cantonese and Putonghua on a 4-point scale. The options were sequenced in descending order from most agreement on the left to most disagreement on the right. The questionnaire was the following (see Appendix IV for the Chinese version).

Table 3.4 Questions used in explicit cognitive part

a) How much do you like the following languages?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

b) How much will the following languages help your future studies?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

c) How much will the following languages help your future career?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

d) How highly are the following languages regarded in Hong Kong?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

e) How much do you wish to master the following languages?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

f) How much do you like speakers of the following languages?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

One would like to capture the different aspects of attitude towards the three languages. The questions include overall attitude (Question a) and instrumental or usefulness attitudes (Question b and c). The questions also include the students' attitudes in the context of Hong Kong society (Question d, personal motivation (Question e), and personal opinion on the speakers of the different languages (Question f).

Implicit Questions

The implicit questions, based on Lai (2002) and modified for clarity, were meant to see how students responded to statements about different languages in Hong Kong. The statements originally used are found in Lai (2002), but then some were modified based on student feedback from the pilot study.

Table 3.5 Statements used in implicit cognitive part

	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree
1. Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent Cantonese.	4	3	2	1
2. In Hong Kong, Putonghua's status is now higher than that of English.	4	3	2	1
3. Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua.	4	3	2	1
4. Putonghua should be more widely used in Hong Kong.	4	3	2	1
5. Cantonese is the language which best represents Hong Kong.	4	3	2	1
6. Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English.	4	3	2	1
7. Putonghua speakers are mostly of low socioeconomic class.	4	3	2	1
8. English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class.	4	3	2	1
9. I will be regarded as a new immigrant from China if I speak fluent Putonghua.	4	3	2	1
10. The importance of English in Hong Kong has decreased since the handover.	4	3	2	1
11. Putonghua should replace Cantonese in Hong Kong, as Cantonese is a dialect.	4	3	2	1
12. The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success.	4	3	2	1

13. English speakers are mostly not friendly.	4	3	2	1
14. In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be used to teach secondary schools.	4	3	2	1
15. Putonghua speakers are mostly friendly.	4	3	2	1
16. Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity.	4	3	2	1
17. Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong.	4	3	2	1
18. In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach secondary schools.	4	3	2	1
19. In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach Chinese.	4	3	2	1

This section is designed to be exploratory. The statements used are common beliefs in Hong Kong, or at least beliefs that are commonly believed to be held in Hong Kong. There is no pre-designed structure on these questions, and unlike Section 1, responses to each of the questions cannot be compared across languages, as some are in the negative and some are somewhat contradictory. Factor Analysis, an exploratory statistical technique, will be used to deal with the data obtained in this section.

3.3.4 Part 3: The background questionnaire

Part 3 is designed to collect the students' personal information. Questions are asked based on known or suspected factors that may influence language attitude. In addition to information contained in the background questionnaire, there was also information on the schools that these students attend, which may have effects on these students' language attitudes.

Questions 1 to 5 of the student background questionnaire include general personal information about the participant's sex, place of birth, length of residence in Hong Kong, the language spoken at home, and current type of residence.

Question 6 is “How would you describe your cultural identity?” This question tries to determine the students’ subject sense of identity, a factor that may be important in forming language attitudes. The answer has four choices, (a) Hongkonger, (b) Chinese, (c) Both, and (d) Other. The common understanding is that “Hongkonger” is interpreted in exclusion to “mainlander”, or people from China. “Chinese” indicates China as one unit. “Both” would indicate the identity of being both part of China as well as a separate Hong Kong identity within China. “Other” would indicate some other self-identity.

There are questions about the parents’ education levels (Question 7) and about the parents’ current occupations (Question 8). These questions are intended to measure socioeconomic class and require some more discussion.

Measure of occupation and socioeconomic class

Most researchers investigating language attitude include socioeconomic class as a possible factor. The problem is definition. Socioeconomic class is most reasonably defined as income, and many researchers tend to use family income as a measure of socioeconomic status. When this is not available or reliable, occupation level (that is, manual labour versus professional services) and education are often used instead.

Tsang (1992: 32) has suggested that the situation of economic class can be approximated by measures of socio-economic status of occupations. Therefore, the socioeconomic class structure in Hong Kong can be calculated with a socioeconomic index for the major occupations found in Hong Kong. However, first, one must identify the occupational groupings to be used as indicators. Then, the criteria for rating these occupations must be considered. Tsang (1992: 32-51) provides more discussion of these issues.

In Hong Kong, previous studies have adopted various occupational ranking schemes.

Tsang (1992: 58), for example, ranks a 14-class category by average social-economic status as follows:

1. Professional, technical and related workers—employers
2. Professional, technical and related workers—except employers
3. Administrative and managerial workers—employers
4. Administrative and managerial workers—except employers
5. Supervisors and foremen
6. Clerical and related workers
7. Sales workers—except hawkers
8. Operative workers
9. Technicians and craftsmen
10. Service workers—except domestic helpers
11. Manufacturing labourers
12. Sales workers—hawkers
13. Agricultural workers and fishermen
14. Service workers—domestic helpers

A different ranking scheme is the one used by Wong and Lui (1992):

Class 1: Higher-grade professional, administrators, and officials; managers in large establishments; large proprietor.

Class 2: Lower-grade professionals, administrators, and officials;

higher-grade technicians; managers in small establishments; supervisors of non-manual employees.

Class 3: Routine non-manual employees in administration and commerce (e.g. clerks); personal service workers often in menial work.

Class 4: Petite bourgeoisie; small proprietors or artisans with or without employees.

Class 5: Technicians and supervisors of manual workers.

Class 6: Skilled manual workers.

Class 7: Semi-skilled and unskilled manual workers.

Wong and Lui (1992) and Lai (2002) grouped classes 1 and 2 into the “Middle class”, classes 3 to 5 into the “Intermediate class”, and classes 6 and 7 into the “Working class”. It is interesting to note that no allowance was given to the “Upper class”.

Such occupational rankings are usually correct in that they correspond generally to income levels of these occupations. This paper adopts a similar approach but dramatically simplifies the categorizations to make if easier for students to answer the questions in the questionnaires and to make the categories more balanced. This paper adopts “Professional/high-ranking officers”, “General white-collar/skilful blue-collar”, “Manual labour”, and “Unemployed/homemaker”.

The first category corresponds to classes 1 to 2 of Wong and Lui (1992). The second category corresponds to classes 3 to 5. The third category corresponds to classes 6 to 7. According to Hong Kong demographic reports (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2006), this classification scheme represents a more balanced grouping of the occupations in Hong Kong. For example, the number of “Professionals” in class 1

of Wong and Lui (1992) is far smaller and of less proportion in Hong Kong demographics than the number of people in class 4 of Wong and Lui in Hong Kong.

Another issue to note is the “Unemployed/homemaker” category. Wong and Lui (1992) and indeed older studies (as cited in Tsang, 1992) used household males to determine socioeconomic class. This represents the lower labour force participation of women in earlier times. But female labour force participation has increased dramatically and later studies, including this one, include female occupation as well. Thus, one allows for both the father and mother in the household to be “Unemployed/homemaker”.

Educational levels are generally also used as a proxy for earnings across many populations, and are thus also included in many studies as a measure of socioeconomic status. Lai (2002) and Wong and Lui (1992) combined the effects of parental education and parental occupation to determine a ranking of socioeconomic classes. The problem Lai (2002) found was discovering cases of contradictory occupations and educational levels. For example, there were students with parents of very high occupational status but low formal educational attainment. Lai (2002) excluded these cases in her analyses.

This study adopts a different approach. These inconsistent cases are the most important cases to determine the true effect of education or occupation on student attitudes. Otherwise, one would not be able to distinguish between the effect of education, which is a background variable, and occupation, which is more current and direct with regards to socioeconomic class. Thus, this study analyzes the socioeconomic class and educational attainment separately.

The study of socioeconomic class in this study is augmented with the students’ housing type. In Hong Kong, a very clear distinction of socioeconomic class is the type of housing establishment one lives in. A large proportion (Hong Kong Census and

Statistics Department, 2006) of the population lives in government-owned or government-subsidized buildings. As a matter of fact, a relative minority lives in private housing. The cost of land in Hong Kong is among the highest in the world, and those who can afford to live in private housing are definitely among the highest socioeconomic class in the population. Indeed, getting government support for housing is directly based on income.

Thus, this study aims to ask simple questions about the parents' education levels (Question 7) and about the parents' current occupations (Question 8). It is necessary to make these questions simple, as there are many students who are not familiar with the education levels or the details of the occupations of their parents, or how to categorize them. In this spirit, only simple responses are offered: No education, Primary school, Middle school, High school, and University for parental education; and Unemployed, Labour, White-collar, and Professional for parental occupation. Also included are "Don't know" for parental education and "Other" for parental occupation. These questions are asked for both the father and mother.

The full background questionnaire is in the Appendix V and VI.

3.4 Statistical techniques

The questionnaires were collected into SPSS 16.0.1, which was also the software package used for all analysis.

Although most final results are quite straightforward, this study used several statistical techniques to examine the data. The statistical techniques used will be described briefly in this section.

3.4.1 The Matched-Guise Technique

The Matched-Guise Technique involves a special data treatment.

The students rate affective attitudes after hearing a voice. Affective attitudes are feelings and therefore the responses provided by each individual student are influenced not only by the language spoken but also by qualities of the speaker's voice. For example, a student may, for personal reasons, rate a low-pitched male voice higher on "Social Status" because that student regards low-pitched male voices with high "Social Status" for all languages. At the same time, another student may, for personal reasons, rate a low-pitched male voice lower on "Social Status" because that student regards low-pitched male voices with low "Social Status" for all languages.

These are personal influences that do not depend on the language spoken. The goal of the Matched-Guise Technique is to use the same speaker to speak two (or more) languages and then subtract each student's ratings for one language from another language. Analysis is then performed on the differences.

Although the non-subtracted ratings can also be used to provide general levels of affective attitudes, the major methodological purpose of the Matched-Guise Technique is to remove the personal biases described above through subtraction of the data for

pairs of languages. This subtraction for each student is central to the method design.

Thus, this study pairs the languages and finds the difference in response for each student. This difference is then tested using a t-test to see if it is different from 0. As this can only be performed when a student has responded to both languages under consideration, the data will be slightly different after the subtraction as some data will be lost due to a missing rating for one language but not the other.

3.4.2 ANOVA/t-test

Used in this study, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests whether averages between two or more variables are different. The t-test tests whether one average is different from a number such as 0. The t-test is a special case of ANOVA, and a version called the paired t-test is used in Part 1, some more discussion of which will be provided in that section.

In this study, ANOVA is used to see if there are differences in responses for the three languages of Cantonese, Putonghua, and English.

ANOVA involving many variables can get complicated if one wishes to determine effects of background. For example, in addition to general differences between language attitudes, one can divide the sample into two groups based on student gender and then do ANOVA on each group to see if gender has an effect.

Then, one may find that there is a difference in language attitude between males and females. But suppose most females went to English schools and most males went to Chinese schools. One would have to split the sample into 4 cases and then compare the females who went to Chinese schools with the females who went to English schools and compare the males who went to Chinese schools with the males who went to English schools. Only then could one see if being female was the reason for the difference in language attitude or school language was the reason for the difference in language

attitude. Furthermore, females who go to English schools may also have higher socioeconomic class, for example. Then even more groups need to be created and ANOVA performed on each group.

Feifel (1994) reported many combinations of results by using this approach. This approach is a difficult computational task that does not usually yield many statistically significant effects. Thus, other than simple ANOVA performed without background factors, regression is used in this study to study effects of background.

3.4.3 Regression

Regression is a very common statistical technique used for almost all quantitative studies that examine the influence of multiple factors at the same time.

Regression automatically adjusts for the interaction effects that make ANOVA complicated, so the results of a regression are “pure”.

The results of regression immediately show the effect of a particular factor if all other factors are the same. This is a very useful way to avoid going through tedious ANOVA comparisons of one factor at a time. Furthermore, the regression results also immediately show the statistical significance of the effect, the direction of the effect, and the size of the effect.

Each regression provides an “ANOVA F” number, which indicates the statistical significance of the regression. If a regression is significant, then the background factors together have influence. In this study, many regressions will have very significant ANOVA F numbers. If a factor has a clear effect, the ANOVA F will be very significant. There are factors such as gender which are known to have clear effects based on previous research, and it will not be a surprise to have very statistically significant results.

The study will use several regressions. Numerous results will be generated and presented, but only the clearest results will be considered for emphasis and discussion.

3.4.4 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis takes multiple dimensions and reduces them to fewer dimensions. For example, if two variables such as “Height” and “Weight” are highly related in a study, then one can reduce them to a single factor – perhaps called “Size”. One may then interpret this “Size” variable to be the “true” characteristic that is creating the responses to questions on height and weight. Then “Size” can be used for further analysis instead of the original “Height” and “Weight”.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) explains the usefulness and motivation of Factor Analysis (p.10):

> A statistical technique known as ‘factor analysis’ is used in all the investigations described in this book. It is an extremely useful research tool…the aim of factor analysis is to simplify and classify the meaning of a set of interrelated variables…If one were dealing with a small number of variables, say 4 or so, no fancy methodology would be needed; one could collect into separate groups all variables that correlate substantially with each other but not with others in the matrix. As the number of variables increases, however, this becomes progressively more difficult to do and highly subjective…To circumvent this problem factor analysis permits one to tease apart sets of related variables in a very objective manner.

Generally, factor analysis refers to the statistical technique of reducing dimensions, which is what this study adopts.

3.4.5 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis tests if two variables move in the same direction. The data used in this study are appropriate for correlation because they are already appropriate for ANOVA.

3.4.6 Summary

Indeed, this study is conceptually simple and uses simple statistical techniques. The results are often very clear with straightforward interpretations. This study uses standard and commonly-used statistical methods to analyse the data. These methods are considered extremely reliable with a wide variety of data.

Most of the results are fundamentally just comparisons between average numbers, and regression is an extension of that. The use of statistical techniques is sometimes debatable, but this study presents very few reasons for serious concern in terms of the statistical techniques used.

3.5 Validity, reliability, limitations, and ethics

This section first discusses the validity and reliability of the study design used or the measurement procedure applied, and then points out the limitations of the study, the ethics issues involved, and methods of dealing with them in the study process.

3.5.1 Validity

As Hitchcock and Hughes (1995:105) point out, “validity has to do with instruments, techniques, data, findings and explanations”. Thus, validity is not an issue that concerns only particular steps, but underpins the whole study.

According to some researchers (e.g. Mertens, 1998), there are two main types of

validity – external validity and internal validity. The following discusses the issues for ensuring the two types of validity for this study.

External validity is defined in terms of the generalizability of the results to a broader population, thus a high external validity depends much on the quality of sampling procedures and the results based on the samples. For dealing with issues of external validity in this study, two points can be addressed below:

(1) This study attempted to sample appropriately to capture the local student population in Hong Kong. As stated in section 3.2.1, the number of sample schools for this study was considerable and the schools were selected randomly with fairly distribution in terms of their locations, quality and students' backgrounds. Thus, the students sampled can be expected to be representative of the target population of the study. As will be seen in Table 4.7 of Chapter Four, proportion of home language reported in this study was Putonghua at 2.2% (13), Cantonese at 92.4% (557) and English at 1% (6). These figures are comparable to the figures in previous studies. For example, Lai's (2002) data revealed home language proportions of Putonghua at 1.2%, Cantonese at 92.3% and English at 0.5%. These figures are also comparable with the census for population aged 5 and over by usual language in Hong Kong (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2007. See Table 1.1 in section 1.2.2). Although there are slight differences between the statistics due to time and population differences, it is reasonable to believe that the research captured an appropriate sample to measure what it intended to measure in the population.

(2) The study aims to examine the attitudes of a specific population in a particular context, and does not aim to generalize far beyond that. The study does not aim to examine language attitude change of a certain group of secondary school students from past to now or of language attitude change of 'pure' Hong Kong people

(without new immigrants), although the results need to be compared with previous studies that do. Demographic change of Hong Kong is one of important factors influencing the results of this study, and needs to be further explored. However, the major goal of this study requires mainly that the sample selection be appropriate.

Internal validity refers to the extent to which the researcher is confident that the study measured what it intended to measure. It can be approached from several angles. The most relevant ones to language attitude studies are the ideas of content validity and construct validity. Content validity refers to the extent to which a measurement reflects the intended range of content (Carmines & Zeller 1997). Construct validity refers to the extent to which a theoretical idea agrees with the empirical results (Carmines & Zeller 1997).

Content validity in this study is based on the recognition that the questions included in the questionnaire, namely the character traits used in Part 1 and the cognitive beliefs in Part 2, are aspects of language attitude. All the items in the questionnaire for the present study were developed based on previous researchers and they have been used successfully in the past for studies on attitude (refer to section 3.1 in this Chapter and Chapter Two for review).

Construct validity in this study is based on the theoretical framework of the dimensions of language, namely of the instrumental and integrative division of language attitudes. This division, though subject to some debate (see Chapter Two, section 2.1.6), has been applied as a standard framework for previous language attitude studies, including those of Feifel (1994) and Lai (2002). A comparison with the quantitative analysis conducted will also provide a post-research validation of construct validity.

For ensuring internal validity of this study, a number of steps have been taken in the

process of instrument design and production for the audio-recording and questionnaire, and are summarized below:

(1) Presenting the languages – the audio-recording

As mentioned previously, in Part I of the MGT questionnaire, students have to answer questions based on listening different languages voiced by each speaker. Thus the audio-recordings act as "stimulus" material (Giles & Billings, 2004: 189) for evaluation and must be a standard passage in all the three languages English, Cantonese, and Putonghua. However, it is not an easy task for a speaker to perform in a balanced fashion in all languages. After testing more than ten candidates for speakers, the best four (two females and two males) were selected as the demonstrative speaker for sound recording. The criteria for selection of the speakers were that the speakers spoke with 'equal facility' in all three languages and spoke in a fashion that was 'ethnically neutral' (Giles & Billings, 2004: 189). As stated in section 3.3.2, the four selected speakers were all from educational settings of Hong Kong. One was the principal of secondary school, two were language teachers at secondary schools, and one was a student at a tertiary institute. Internal validity is enhanced due to such speaker selection criteria and consideration.

Some other technical issues involved in the production of the audio-recordings that needed to be validated have also been coped with in the process. For example, the instructions for answering questions, time intervals between listening questions, and length of music have been revised according to reflections based on the pilot study (see section 3.1.4).

(2) Specifying the questions – the questionnaire

All questions used in the questionnaires of previous related studies were carefully

identified in terms of their importance and applicability to the current study via theoretical review and the pilot study (refer to section 3.1.4). The standard format of the questions, which were introduced by Pierson, Fu and Lee (1980: 293) and applied in a number of previous studies (e.g. Penninton & Yue, 1993; Lai, 2002) to assess language attitude for Hong Kong secondary students, was adopted with some minor amendments due to the current Hong Kong context. The following is the specific work carried out for ensuring validity of the questions in the questionnaire for this study, including Part 1 with the personal characteristics for rating the guises, and Part 2 with the direct questions for evaluating the languages:

a) Selecting items – the twenty two items in Part 1 of the questionnaire for this study were all adopted from previous studies in the field of language attitude for Chinese students, some of which studied secondary students in Taiwan and some in Hong Kong. The criteria for selecting terms for rating the guises were:

   (i) relevance to common values that Hong Kong people hold;

   (ii) clarity and without any implication other than the intended trait;

   (iii) ease of comprehension by students according to the language context provided.

   For example, terms such as *tall*, *selfish*, *superstitious*, *humorous*, and *has individuality* were used as personal characteristics for similar studies in Taiwan, but were not chosen for this study because they are either not usually used as personal features to be evaluated by Hong Kong people culturally or are not suitable for assessment in the language context provided by the listening materials.

b) Rewording adopted items – in Part 2 of the questionnaire for this study, among six direct questions, three have been reworded from questions used in previous studies for Hong Kong secondary students. The question "*How much do you think the*

following language will help you in getting better opportunities for careers in the 21st Century" was changed to "*How much will the following language help your future career*". The question "*How highly regarded are the following languages in Hong Kong society*" has been reworded as "*How highly are the following language regarded in Hong Kong*". The question "*How much do you wish to master English, Cantonese and Putonghua*" has been changed to "*How much do you wish to master the following languages*".

3.5.2 Reliability

Apart from validity, reliability is another important issue in survey research, but, as Oppenheim (1992) points out, reliability is hardly separable from validity and "to some extent the two terms also overlap and ate interconnected" (p. 144). In fact, reliability is an indirect way to ascertain validity of the measurement. Therefore, "if we find that a measure has excellent validity, then it must also be reliable", as Oppenheim (1992: 145) points out. However, it is commonly known that reliability means the degree of accuracy of the measuring instrument. The measurement of any phenomenon always contains a certain amount of chance error, so reliability can be defined as "the relative absence of errors of measurement in a measuring instrument" (Kerlinger, 1964: 430), and the success of measurement depends upon the degree or extent to which errors can be minimized (Thakur, 1998: 13).

For achieving a greater degree of reliability in the measuring instruments and the measuring process, the efforts made by this study can be stated below:

(1) To reduce errors in the instruments, for example, the systematic error or bias occurred possibly for the demonstrative languages voice, the audio-recordings for this study were produced not by single person or gender, but by multiple speakers –

two females and two males, doubling the number of commonly used in previous studies. By using the same speaker speaking in different languages, it can be certain that students are responding to the different languages and not qualities of the speaker. By using different speakers speaking in different languages, it can be expected that the different measures may not share any the same systematic errors or bias, for example, intonation or style of the voice, therefore systematic errors may be expected to cancel each other out in the measures and a more accurate sense may obtain from the MGT questionnaire.

(2) To reduce random errors caused by the administration of the questionnaire, the audio-recordings and written questionnaire were designed with consistent and full instructions for students to follow when listening to the audio-recording and answering the questions. The support teachers who help distribute the questionnaire to students in class were trained and requested to perform properly in order to avoid inadvertently introducing error. For example, they were not allowed saying anything more than the statements shown on the questionnaire. They also must be familiar with operating the tape player and playing any of the voices twice was not allowed, because there was no need to ensure comprehension and an identical voice would be recognized easily by students, thus causing confusion.

(3) Selecting or seeking relevant items or statements in questionnaires from previous similar studies can be considered a way to achieve a high degree of reliability for the instruments in addition to validity as previously discussed, because the questions or statements have been used as reliable measures of language attitude previously for secondary students in Hong Kong.

(4) Using the pilot study (see section 3.1.4) to test the both the audio-recordings and questionnaire is very helpful in getting feedback from respondents regarding how

easy or hard the activity was and how the testing environment affected respondents' performance.

(5) Double-checking and meticulous verification throughout data collection, electronic input, and data processing have been made by the investigator at each step to ensure accuracy of materials for the study.

(6) Finally, most of the attitude constructs examined in the study are derived from multiple items in the research instruments. Statistical reliability coefficients are calculated to provide evidence that the multiple items used do, in fact, reliably measure a similar underlying construct.

In general, in this study, the identical tape recordings and standardized questionnaires were used for all students under participation. Furthermore, the administration of the questionnaires was consistent across all schools sampled. Thus, given the construction of the study, any significant results from the study can be seen as based on consistent standards and at a high degree of reliability. Statistical reliability coefficients also provide evidence of internal reliability of the research instruments.

3.5.3 Limitations

In reference to relevant critical accounts of approaches to language attitude research as mentioned in sections 3.1.1 to 3.1.3, some limitations exist within and across the measurements used for this study. For example, because of the use of "self-reported" measures when completing the questionnaire, the participants may not always provide true answers about themselves. "Respondents can have a fairly good guess about what the desirable/acceptable/expected answer is, and some of them will provide this response even if it is not true" (Dörnyei, 2001: 207). Thus, the data and results yielded are dependent on the considerations of the student. A limitation of the study is

the assumption that on average, these self-reporting errors are random.

One of the other main limitations that needs to be mentioned is that longitudinal study is absent from this project due to resource constraints. A longitudinal study may offer more meaningful insights into language use and attitude development than the current study could because the current data relates to only one particular point in time. Because of the absence of longitudinal data, the results of this study are somewhat more difficult to infer conclusions from than if longitudinal data were available.

3.5.4 Ethics

This study was conducted on 14 to 15 year old students in Hong Kong. Thus, it is important to understand and check that the study did not harm the students in any way.

Care was used in designing the study so that no harm would be done to the participants of the study. In addition to the voluntary and anonymous dual nature of the survey, which was described in section 3.2.4 of this chapter, materials used in the study were given to and approved by the principals of the participating schools. The judgments of the principals are trusted to be good in determining the safety of the study towards students. The study was also completely supervised by Supporting Teachers from the schools, and there was no concern from the Supporting Teachers about the safety of the study.

At the end of this Chapter, it is necessary to emphasize again that the research design and process are essential and important to the techniques for measuring language attitude. The next Chapter will show the actual results and analysis conducted for the study.

Chapter Four: Results and Analysis

This Chapter presents the basic analyses and results for the study. It begins by summarizing data for each part of the questionnaire and then introduces five stages of the analysis carried out for the data. The next sections report on results from each stage of analysis and they are followed by a summary of the results in the last part of each section. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter Five.

4.1 Data summaries

4.1.1 Data summaries for Part 1: Listening questionnaire

Each student was subjected to 12 listening passages and asked to rate on 22 characteristics per listening passage. Each rating had four choices: “Strongly Disagree”, “Disagree”, “Agree”, and “Strongly Agree”. The responses are represented as 1 to 4, respectively. Because 635 students each responded to 12 listening passages, one can consider there to be 7620 data points for Part 1, because there are multiple judgments per student, and the statistical reporting will use this larger figure for summaries, but the sample size of the students remains the same.

Descriptive information of the main variables in the dataset for Part 1 is listed below.

Table 4.1 Data summarization of the affective Part

Variable	Valid N (of 7620)	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Intelligence	6377	2.63	.862	0.0108
Social Status	6409	2.52	.899	0.0112
Comeliness	6401	2.33	.957	0.0120
Fairness	6181	2.52	.831	0.0106
Self-Confidence	6348	2.74	.879	0.0110
Reliability	6308	2.60	.868	0.0109
Likeability	6299	2.39	.912	0.0115
Open-Mindedness	6233	2.52	.896	0.0113
Charisma	6243	2.67	.881	0.0112
Empathy	6382	2.71	.899	0.0113
Religiousness	6050	2.05	.918	0.0118
Compatibility	6519	2.60	.917	0.0114
Responsibility	6390	2.74	.887	0.0111

Sincerity	6351	2.69	.902	0.0113
Competence	6261	2.63	.897	0.0113
Politeness	6748	2.77	.947	0.0115
Leadership	6190	2.54	.921	0.0117
Modesty	6235	2.54	.898	0.0114
Sophistication	6587	2.76	.924	0.0114
Diligence	6104	2.60	.864	0.0111
Kindness	6510	2.67	.903	0.0112
Wealth	6193	2.39	.940	0.0119

One may briefly see that the average response to all variables is between 2.00 and 3.00 – between “Agree” and “Disagree”, with low standard errors and a standard deviation of around 0.9. These indicate a balanced range of responses.

Reliability coefficients

Because the questions are meant to reflect affective attitude for each language, one may check reliability of the instrument through internal consistency. Cronbach’s Alpha is a measure of the reliability of the instrument, and the results for each language are seen below. For each language, the reliability coefficient of the 22 traits responded to for that language is calculated.

Table 4.2 Reliability coefficient of the 22 traits of listening questionnaire

Language	Cronbach’s Alpha	Number of Observations	Number of Questions
Cantonese	.930	1813	22
English	.933	1793	22
Putonghua	.936	1815	22

Cronbach’s Alpha is very high (above 0.9) for all languages, the items can be considered to be reliable in the sense of being internally consistent as measures of

affective attitude. This does not mean that affective attitude is uni-dimensional, however, and later factor analysis will reveal the dimensions of affective attitude from the data.

4.1.2 Data summaries for Part 2: Written explicit questionnaire

Part 2 of the questionnaire elicits cognitive attitudes. The following table lists the major features of the data collected from the explicit questions of Part 2. Because 635 students participated in the questionnaire, the number of valid responses should be compared to 635.

Table 4.3 Data summarization of explicit cognitive part

Variable	Valid N (of 635)	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Section 1				
How much do you like the following languages? [Putonghua]	590	2.90	.865	0.0356
How much do you like the following languages? [Cantonese]	592	3.52	.658	0.0270
How much do you like the following languages? [English]	590	3.05	.861	0.0354
How much will the following languages help your future studies? [Putonghua]	592	3.19	.823	0.0338
How much will the following languages help your future studies? [Cantonese]	589	3.03	.773	0.0319
How much will the following languages help your future studies? [English]	590	3.83	.488	0.0201
How much will the following languages help your future career? [Putonghua]	588	3.54	.710	0.0293
How much will the following languages help your future career? [Cantonese]	588	3.21	.732	0.0302
How much will the following languages help your future career? [English]	591	3.90	.377	0.0155
How highly are the following languages regarded in Hong Kong? [Putonghua]	592	2.92	.824	0.0339

How highly are the following languages regarded in Hong Kong? [Cantonese]	591	3.09	.803	0.0330
How highly are the following languages regarded in Hong Kong? [English]	593	3.87	.401	0.0165
How much do you wish to master the following languages? [Putonghua]	592	3.33	.793	0.0326
How much do you wish to master the following languages? [Cantonese]	591	3.60	.645	0.0265
How much do you wish to master the following languages? [English]	589	3.48	.755	0.0311
How much do you like speakers of the following languages? [Putonghua]	591	2.93	.884	0.0364
How much do you like speakers of the following languages? [Cantonese]	590	3.52	.624	0.0257
How much do you like speakers of the following languages? [English]	590	3.34	.803	0.0331

In this case, the data shows a mean that is above 3.0 for most of the responses with standard deviation that can also vary depending on the question. The standard errors are low compared to the mean.

Reliability coefficients

Because the questions are meant to reflect cognitive attitude for each language, one may check reliability of the instrument through internal consistency. Cronbach's Alpha is a measure of the reliability of the instrument, and the results for each language are seen below. For each language, the reliability coefficient of the 6 relevant questions for that language is calculated.

Table 4.4 Reliability coefficient of the explicit cognitive part

Language	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Observations	Number of Questions
Cantonese	.694	582	6
English	.646	585	6
Putonghua	.797	584	6

Cronbach's Alpha is acceptable (above 0.6) for all languages and much higher for Putonghua than English or Cantonese, suggesting that the questionnaire demonstrates acceptable reliability. Once again, this does not imply that cognitive attitude is uni-dimensional, and later analysis will reveal the dimensions of cognitive attitude from the data.

4.1.3 Data summaries for Part 2: Written implicit questionnaire

The implicit sections asked for strength of agreement with common stereotypes, opinions on certain policy issues, and responses to other language-related statements. The questions were based on Lai (2002) and modified for clarity.

Table 4.5 Data summarization of implicit cognitive part

Variable	Valid N (of 635)	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Section 2				
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent Cantonese.	597	3.61	.568	0.0232
In Hong Kong, Putonghua's status is now higher than that of English.	596	2.16	.749	0.0307
Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua.	597	2.95	.834	0.0341
Putonghua should be widely used in Hong Kong.	593	2.47	.926	0.0380
Cantonese is the language that best represents Hong Kong.	608	3.42	.760	0.0308
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English.	609	3.00	.783	0.0317
Putonghua speakers are mostly of low socioeconomic class.	608	1.71	.815	0.0331
English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class.	610	2.54	.994	0.0402
I will be regarded as a new immigrant from China if I speak fluent Putonghua.	610	2.07	.899	0.0364

The importance of English in Hong Kong has decreased since the handover.	608	1.86	.810	0.0328
Putonghua should replace Cantonese in Hong Kong, as Cantonese is a dialect.	609	1.73	.764	0.0310
The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success.	607	3.00	.809	0.0328
English speakers are mostly not friendly.	609	1.82	.781	0.0316
In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be used to teach secondary schools.	607	2.86	.868	0.0352
Putonghua speakers are mostly friendly.	608	2.13	.737	0.0299
Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity.	605	2.35	.872	0.0355
Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong.	609	2.16	.832	0.0337
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach secondary schools.	606	1.90	.872	0.0354
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach Chinese.	606	2.22	.958	0.0389

Due to the nature of the questions, the mean and standard deviation of the data are diverse. However, the standard errors are relatively low compared to the means.

Due to the nature of the questions, there can be no comparison between languages based on this data, as the questions do not always identify specific languages. Furthermore, in cases where only one language is specified, the same question is not always used for the other languages. This reflects the daily occurrence of beliefs and policy questions in society, where certain ideas are more closely identified with one language and not another. As such, reliability coefficients are not meaningful immediately since these questions are not intended to reflect the same attitude construct.

The analysis used for the data in this section will be a factor analysis to determine if these cognitive responses represent more fundamental dimensions.

4.1.4 Data summaries for Part 3: Student background

Part 3 is concerned with the background of the students. The ultimate goal is to examine how and whether such background factors are related to the variables collected in Parts 1 and 2.

The variables of Part 3 are summarized after first being described below.

Table 4.6 Description of background data

Variable	**Description**
Gender	Variable for student gender.
Birthplace	Variable for student birthplace. Available options are Hong Kong, Guangdong, Fujian, and Other.
Length of Stay in Hong Kong	The variable asks for the number of years the student has lived in Hong Kong. The choices are in 2 year increments from “1-2 years” to “9-10 years” and then “over 10 years” and “Born in Hong Kong”. “Born in Hong Kong” is considered the longest time.
Home Language	Category variable asking for languages used at home. Categories are “Cantonese”, “Putonghua”, “English”, “Minnan”, and “Other”.
Housing Type	Category variable asking for type of residence the student is staying in. Choices were “Public Housing (Gong-Wu)”, “Semi-public Housing (Ju-Wu)”, “Old Townhouses (Tang-Lou)”, “Private Housing (Si-Ren-Wu-Yuan)”, and “Other”.
Identity	Category variable asking for self-considered identity of the student. Choices were “Hong Kong”, “Chinese”, “Both”, and “Other”.
Father Education	Variable asks the student to identify the highest educational attainment of the father. The choices were “No Education”, “Primary Education”, “Middle School Education”, “High School Education”, “Tertiary Education”, and “Unknown”. “Unknown” responses are

	treated as missing.
Mother Education	Variable asks the student to identify the highest educational attainment of the mother. The choices were “No Education”, “Primary Education”, “Middle School Education”, “High School Education”, “Tertiary Education”, and “Unknown”. “Unknown” responses are treated as missing.
Father Employment	Variable asks the student to identify the employment situation of the father. The choices were “Professional/high-ranking officers”, “General white-collar/skilful blue-collar”, “Manual labour”, and “Unemployed/Homemaker”, and “Other”.
Mother Employment	Variable asks the student to identify the employment situation of the mother. The choices were “Professional/high-ranking officers”, “General white-collar/skilful blue-collar”, “Manual labour”, and “Unemployed/Homemaker”, and “Other”.

Of the 635 participants in the survey, Part 3 included 442 completely valid observations. A summary of the results follow. This can also be seen as a summary of the student demographics that participated in the study.

Table 4.7 Data summarization of background

Variable		Freq	%
Gender	Male	297	48.6
	Female	314	51.4
	Tot	611	100.0
Birthplace	Hong Kong	432	71.2
	Guangdong	118	19.4
	Fujian	9	1.5
	Other	48	7.9
	Tot	607	100.0
Length of Time in Hong Kong	1-2 years	32	5.3
	3-4 years	17	2.8
	5-6 years	21	3.5
	7-8 years	27	4.5
	9-10 years	21	3.5
	Over 10 years	49	8.2
	(Born in HK)	432	72.1
	Tot	599	100.0
Home Language	Cantonese	557	92.4
	Putonghua	13	2.2
	English	6	1.0
	Minnan	4	.7
	Other	23	3.8
	Tot	603	100.0
Housing Type	Public Housing	200	33.2
	Semi-public Housing	130	21.6
	Old Townhouses	25	4.2
	Private Housing	218	36.2
	Other	29	4.8
	Tot	602	100.0

Variable		Freq	%
Self Identity	Hong Kong	359	58.9
	Chinese	122	20.0
	Hong Kong Chinese	88	14.4
	Other	40	6.6
	Tot	609	100.0
Father Education	No education	12	2.4
	Primary	71	14.1
	Middle	131	26.0
	High	164	32.5
	University	126	25.0
	Tot	504	100.0
Mother Education	No education	15	2.9
	Primary	82	15.9
	Middle	139	26.9
	High	174	33.7
	University	107	20.7
	Tot	517	100.0
Father Employment	Unemployed	30	5.4
	Labour	176	31.5
	White-collar/ Skillful Blue-collar	197	35.2
	Professional	156	27.9
	Tot	559	100.0
Mother Employment	Unemployed	242	41.9
	Labour	89	15.4
	White-collar/ Skillful Blue-collar	166	28.7
	Professional	81	14.0
	Tot	578	100.0

In terms of the demographics the survey has picked up, it is a positive feature of the study that the sample size was large enough such that many of characteristics that are "rare" but known to be present in the population were picked up. For example, 9 students were born in Fujian, 6 spoke English at home, and 4 spoke Minnan at home.

One can see that 51.4% of the students are female with 71.4% being born in Hong Kong. 27.9% of the students are immigrants to Hong Kong, having been in Hong Kong for a variety of years. 7.6% of respondents speak a language other than Cantonese at home. About 55% of the students live in some form of government housing and about 36% live in private housing. Close to 59% identify solely as Hong Kong.

In terms of parental background, about 25% of fathers are educated through university and about 21% of mothers are. For both fathers and mothers, the biggest group is only educated to high school level. The biggest group for fathers is White-collar/Skillful Blue-collar and the biggest group for mothers is unemployment or household work.

4.1.5 Data notes for student background

Over the course of the research, variables were coded into combinations that could be more easily analysed. Some conventions are also adopted. Some notes are described below:

Missing data. Although more than half of the questionnaires were completely filled out with valid responses, a significant proportion lacked responses to one or more questions. Throughout the study, no cases were discarded due to incompleteness, but analyses were conducted using as much information as is available for that case. This means that the different analyses are done on slightly different data because the observations have missing entries for different variables.

Length of time lived in Hong Kong. This question was not asked to students if they

were born in Hong Kong. For analysis, we treat those born in Hong Kong to have lived in Hong Kong for “Over 10 years”.

Every time the “Other” category was selected as a response in the survey, the student was asked to write in a description what his or her specific answer would be. Looking at the variety of responses written down, it could be suspected that some were invalid responses and that others may have indicated a lack of understanding of the question. For analysis, the responses were not adjusted and are considered together as an “Other” category. A few notes on the types of “Other” responses are below.

Birthplace. Of the 48 students who chose “Other”, a slight majority indicated they were born in varied countries around the world. The rest indicated birthplaces in other places in China. Places in other countries included Manila, London, San Francisco, Sydney, and Houston. Places in China included Beijing, Sichuan, Xiamen, and Chongqing.

Home language. 23 students indicated other home languages. Upon examination of the written responses, the vast majority indicated that they spoke other Chinese dialects at home. Two indicated Japanese and one indicated German.

Housing type. 33 students indicated other forms of housing type. The most numerous at 7 responses was “Country House”. Other responses included dormitory, shelter, and “Foreign Embassy”.

Self identity. Among the 26 students who indicated “Other”, it is quite clear that most proposed responses were either a misinterpretation of the question or invalid responses. 19 proposed an answer that may be considered equivalent to the “Both” answer choice offered. Other responses included “British”, “Australian”, and “I don’t know”. It was decided to maintain the policy to not reassign student responses based on an interpretation of what the students might have meant, and thus these 26 students are

evaluated collectively as “Other”.

Employment. An “Other” response was offered as a choice for both father and mother employment. Written responses were seldom helpful in determining the employment status of the parent. “Deceased” was offered a few times.

From the available data, a new variable, “Social Class”, was created by ranking and then adding the student’s father occupation, mother occupation, and living situation.

The education variables are given values of 0 to 3 corresponding to “Unemployed”, “Manual Labour”, “General White-Collar/Skilful Blue-Collar”, and “Professional/High-Ranking Officers”. The housing variables are given values of 0 to 3 corresponding to “Public Housing”, “Semi-public Housing”, “Old Townhouses”, and “Private Housing”.

The new variable, social class, is summarized below.

Table 4.8 Data summarization of social class

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Social Class	548	0	9	4.54	2.38	0.103

4.2 The five stages of the analysis

There are five stages of analysis and the analysis structure is summarized below.

Table 4.9 The analysis structure

Stage	Questions Addressed	Techniques Used
Stage 1 –Analysis of listening questionnaire by itself	Are there different affective language attitudes across languages in the average of the 22 dimensions?	ANOVA/t-test
	Are the 22 variables reflecting fewer fundamental dimensions?	Factor Analysis
	Are there different affective language attitudes across languages in the factored dimensions?	ANOVA/t-test
Stage 2 –Written questionnaire by itself	Are there different cognitive language attitudes across languages in the average of the explicit questions?	ANOVA
	Are there different cognitive language attitudes across languages in different dimensions?	ANOVA
	Do the implicit cognitive questions reveal fundamental cognitive dimensions?	Factor analysis
Stage 3 –Analysis of relationship between the listening and written questionnaire	Are there any relationships between the results of Stage 1 and Stage 2?	Correlation Analysis

s		
Stage 4 –Analysis of the listening questionnaire and student background	Which student background characteristics affect affective language attitude?	Regression
Stage 5 –Analysis of the written questionnaire and student background	Which student background characteristics affect cognitive language attitude?	Regression

There is an issue regarding to the effect size in the stages of analysis shown in the Table 4.9 above by using ANOVA and t-test, which needs to be addressed here for giving a general view of the study. Because all the data collected are based on the Likert Scale, which, although theoretically justified as an instrument for language attitude, can only show “relative” relations, effect sizes are mostly not focused in the analysis process. As with any attempt to quantify many social science constructs, attitude is, after all, qualitative. Although it is possible to determine that, say, attitude towards English is higher than attitude towards Cantonese, it is less meaningful to say “how much” attitude towards English is higher than attitude towards Cantonese in any absolute way. Thus, the focus is to quantitatively determine dimensions of attitude and the relative rankings of attitudes towards the three languages as well as any background factors that show effect. There is, indeed, no good way to say that attitude to English is higher than attitude to Cantonese by “this much”.

Especially with the background factor analyses, it is also difficult to quantify effect sizes because the background factors are not measured on the same scale. For example,

time spent in Hong Kong is measured in 2 year increments. If the numerical results were taken as absolute measures, then halving the measurement of time spent in Hong Kong to 1 year increments would halve the measured effects, so any meaningful discussion of the size of the effect depends on the scale used. What could be said, however, is that time spent in Hong Kong is "positively" or "negatively" associated with the attitude construct examined. Furthermore, it is difficult to compare the sizes of the effects between time spent in Hong Kong and, say, going to an English school, because the background factors are on comparable scales. What is important information, however, is the "direction" of the background factors on attitudes to specific constructs.

When appropriate, though, any quantitative effect sizes are mentioned, but the interpretation should be strength of the relative results rather than any specific practical significance.

4.3 Stage 1: Data analysis of the listening questionnaire by itself

4.3.1 Overall affective language ratings

We begin with the average responses that the students provided in the listening questionnaire and compare to see if there are any differences across languages. Since all the variables indicate positive qualities, we may average them for each language. We will call these ratings the *Affective Language Ratings* in the future. We can get a first look at student language attitudes by using an error graph. We use the 95% confidence interval for the mean.

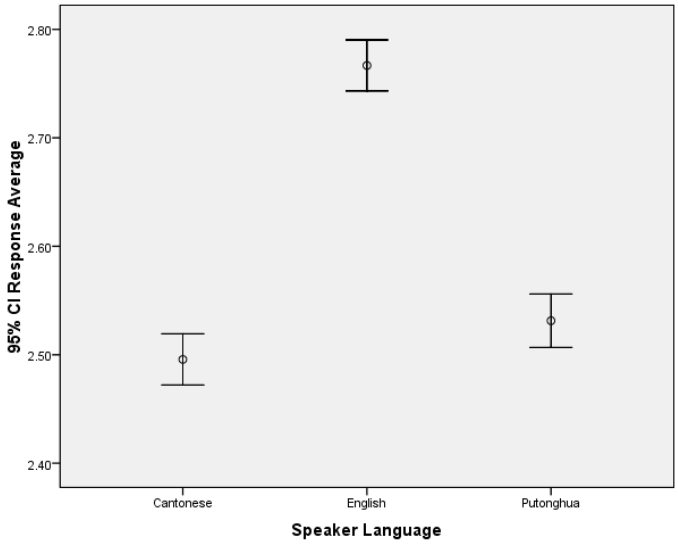


Fig. 4.1 Overall affective language ratings for Part 1

The average Cantonese rating is 2.50, the average English rating is 2.77, and the average Putonghua rating is 2.53. The errors are approximately the same.

The key to the Matched-Guise Technique is that all the languages are spoken by the same speakers. Thus we may readily compare them with each other to see which one is rated higher.

Overall, we see that English is rated highest and the difference between Putonghua and Cantonese is not clear at the 95% confidence level, although Putonghua appears to be higher.

In the spirit of Matched-Guise Technique, we now subtract the ratings and test if the differences are 0. Because the Matched-Guise Technique is effectively a paired-sample test, with the same student evaluating the different languages, one would use the paired t-test to implement the Matched-Guise Technique (using the standard t-test via subtraction encounters a technical problem with independent observations, but this effect is not large in the current dataset). Thus, one considers one language the

"pre-test" and the other language the "post-test". The paired data will be independent because each student is independent.

Because there are three languages under consideration (whereas many previous studies only considered two), the results are paired into English-Cantonese, Putonghua-Cantonese, and English-Putonghua.

Table 4.10 Overall rating differences between the three languages for Part 1

	English - Cantonese	Putonghua - Cantonese	English - Putonghua
Affective Ratings	.269*** (.013)	.032*** (.013)	.236*** (.012)
N	2364	2382	2364

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Table 4.10 above shows that English is almost certainly rated higher than Cantonese and almost certainly rated higher than Putonghua. Putonghua is actually also very certain to be rated higher than Cantonese (it is significant at the 99% confidence level).

Result summary

Overall, the affective attitudes are ranked English, Putonghua, and Cantonese. English is rated highest. The difference between Putonghua and Cantonese is not very clear at the 95% confidence level by ANOVA, but MGT Technique procedure confirmed Putonghua is higher than Cantonese.

4.3.2 Factor analysis of the affective attitudes

The original dataset contained 22 items from the listening exercise. ANOVA as above may be performed for each one of these items or they can be grouped using factor analysis. Factor Analysis was run to determine if these 22 variables may be suitably reduced or attributed to fewer factors. The result from the analysis provided a positive answer, and the grouped items represent a rather distinct structure.

The following is KMO and Bartlett's Test to determine that factor analysis is appropriate:

Table 4.11 KMO and Bartlett's test for factor analysis of affective attitudes

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.960
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	57986.697
	df	231
	Sig.	.000

Bartlett's Test is significant and KMO is high (close to 1.0), indicating that factor analysis is appropriate. The Screeplot below demonstrates that 3 dimensions are evident:

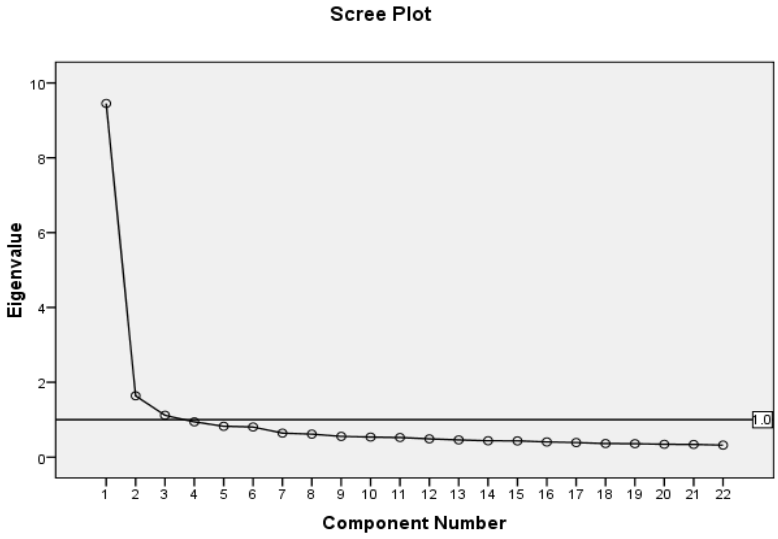


Fig. 4.2 Screeplot for factor analysis for affective attitudes

After analysing, the 22 original responses were found to be correlated in three major groups, as shown in the following two tables (the first – Table 4.12, is complete and the second – Table 4.13, has only correlations above 0.6 presented for clarity).

Table 4.12 Factor analysis of affective attitudes (complete)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Politeness	.751	.217	.148
Sincerity	.732	.267	.116
Compatibility	.732	.090	.283
Kindness	.728	.175	.253
Modesty	.717	.238	.169
Sophistication	.682	.331	.178
Responsibility	.651	.355	.070
Empathy	.635	.146	.257

Diligence	.557	.406	.104
Religiousness	.324	.232	.317
Social Status	.165	.747	.195
Leadership	.387	.666	.087
Self-Confidence	.077	.652	.339
Wealth	.194	.649	.202
Competence	.449	.641	.133
Intelligence	.242	.620	.311
Fairness	.353	.537	.244
Reliability	.445	.502	.236
Open-Mindedness	.181	.239	.725
Comeliness	.248	.211	.669
Likeability	.470	.136	.636
Charisma	.068	.333	.604

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Table 4.13 Factor analysis of affective attitudes (correlations above 0.6)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Politeness	.751		.148
Sincerity	.732		.116
Compatibility	.732		.283
Kindness	.728		.253
Modesty	.717		.169
Sophistication	.682		.178

Responsibility	.651		.070
Empathy	.635		.257
Diligence			
Religiousness			
Social Status		.747	
Leadership		.666	
Self-Confidence		.652	
Wealth		.649	
Competence		.641	
Intelligence		.620	
Fairness			
Reliability			
Open-Mindedness			.725
Comeliness			.669
Likeability			.636
Charisma			.604

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations

The eigenvalues and variance explained are presented next, followed by the communalities.

Table 4.14 Eigenvalues and variance explained for factor analysis of affective attitudes

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.451	42.957	42.957	5.510	25.045	25.045
2	1.640	7.455	50.412	4.103	18.649	43.695
3	1.119	5.086	55.498	2.597	11.804	55.498
4	.942	4.283	59.781			
5	.825	3.751	63.532			
6	.805	3.661	67.193			
7	.642	2.918	70.111			
8	.616	2.798	72.909			
9	.554	2.520	75.429			
10	.537	2.439	77.868			
11	.524	2.382	80.250			
12	.488	2.220	82.471			
13	.461	2.096	84.567			
14	.438	1.990	86.557			
15	.434	1.974	88.530			
16	.406	1.845	90.376			
17	.391	1.775	92.151			
18	.363	1.650	93.801			
19	.360	1.635	95.436			
20	.344	1.562	96.998			
21	.339	1.540	98.538			
22	.322	1.462	100.000			

Table 4.15 Communalities for factor analysis of affective attitudes

	Initial	Extraction
Intelligence	1.000	.539
Social Status	1.000	.624
Comeliness	1.000	.554
Fairness	1.000	.472
Self-Confidence	1.000	.546
Reliability	1.000	.506
Likeability	1.000	.645
Open-Mindedness	1.000	.616
Charisma	1.000	.480
Empathy	1.000	.490
Religiousness	1.000	.259
Compatibility	1.000	.624
Responsibility	1.000	.555
Sincerity	1.000	.621
Competence	1.000	.630
Politeness	1.000	.633
Leadership	1.000	.601
Modesty	1.000	.599
Sophistication	1.000	.606
Diligence	1.000	.486
Kindness	1.000	.624
Wealth	1.000	.499

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

As can be seen, it is evident that the students are broadly categorizing the original 22 variables into three fundamental groups or dimensional factors.[1] In other words, 22 items yield three dimensional factors of evaluation, which accounted for about 55.5% of the variance in subjects' ratings of how the speaker "sounded" to them. The explained variance is comparable to Feifel (1994), and can be considered very high, as 22 items were reduced to only 3.

Interpreting and labelling the dimensions that were revealed are not only an issue of technical device but also of theoretical basis. As have reviewed in Chapter Two, Lambert *et al. (*1966) was an early piece that measured language attitudes using fifteen items and grouped these items into three categories or dimensions, labelled *personal integrity, personal competence,* and *social-attractiveness*. The *personal integrity* dimension shared items such as *kind, gentle, trustworthy*, and *considerate*. The *personal competence* dimension included items such as *intelligent, self-confident*, and *wise*. The *social attractiveness* dimension involved items such as *amusing, pleasant, friendly, interesting, good disposition*, and *good looking*. To some extent, the findings of this study may support Lambert *et al*.'s model of dimensions, which will be discussed later in Chapter Five.

A number of different scales were used in studies after Lambert *et al's*, and yielded different dimensional labels depending on focus. Labels such as *competence, status, character, solidarity,* and *dynamism* appear in the findings of studies to represent attitude dimensions, but the dimensions do not share all the same item traits under evaluation. Researchers, for example, Zahn and Hopper (1985) have tried to provide researchers a "standardised" Speech Evaluation Instrument (SEI) using a

[1] These results were achieved using the Factor Analysis feature in SPSS, selecting the standard "Principal Component Analysis" and "Varimax Rotation".

three-dimensional model, namely *superiority, attractiveness* and *dynamism*. Though SEI may be "a valuable measure of language attitudes" as intended by the initiator, various models and names for dimensional factors are still commonly used by different studies. For example, in their recent study, Bokhorst-Heng and Caleon (2009) identified only *solidarity* and *status* dimensions – which are different from the SEI dimensions – from data analysis of language attitudes of bilingual youth in multilingual Singapore.

Thus, dimensional factors can be found differently due to the scales and items used, and dimension labelling for the research results can be conducted differently from each other as well. Some basic means for dealing with naming dimensions of speech evaluation have been discussed by researchers. For example, Gardner (1985: 63) has pointed out that in interpreting a factor, the researcher attempts to determine what is common among those variables which receive relatively high loadings on a factor, as distinct from those with low loadings. Often a factor is given a name to reflect this common theme, and different researchers will often disagree on the validity of the specific name applied, but the themes would come about from the statistics.

To name the dimensional factors meaningfully, this study considers the statistical item loadings as well as analogous names used in previous studies and relevant theoretical frameworks.

The first group (Dimension 1 in Table 4.13) is most correlated with original responses to *Politeness, Sincerity, Compatibility, Kindness, Modesty, Sophistication, Responsibility,* and *Empathy*. The item loadings on this factor all suggest a concern with the personalities of speakers, which make up a dimension analogous to the category named *personal integrity* by Lambert *et al.* (1966). However, reflecting on theories that language attitude is really attitude towards the users of a language and the social values

that the language community represents (Edwards, 1982; Gardner, 1985; Gardner *et al.*, 1997. Referring Chapter Two, section 2.1.2) – that is, the language attitude extending to a whole ethno-linguistic community – one names this dimension more comprehensively as *affective community*.

The second group (Dimension 2 in Table 4.13) is most correlated with original responses to *Social Status, Leadership, Self-Confidence, Wealth, Competence,* and *Intelligence.* These are traits that are more oriented towards a person's own abilities and success. In previous studies, labels such as *personal competence* (Lambert *et al*., 1966), *social status* (e.g. Feifel, 1994) and so on were used and these labels covered most items in the group analysed by this study. However, as the concept of *achievement* focuses on communicative competence (Gardner, 1985: 12) in the field of language attitude studies, it also implies personal competence with a closer link to social status, so the term *achievement* is apparent as a blend of *Social Status, Leadership, Self-Confidence, Wealth, Competence,* and *Intelligence*. Hence, this dimension is named *affective achievement*.

The third group (Dimension 3 in Table 4.13) is most correlated with original responses to *Open-Mindedness, Comeliness, Likeability,* and *Charisma*. A similar group of items was called *Social-Attractive* by Lambert *et al.* (1966) and *Attractiveness* by Zahn and Hopper (1985). Because the item loadings on this dimensional factor mostly reflect speakers' aesthetic quality and likeability traits that generally represent the notion of attractiveness, this dimension is named *affective attractiveness*.

Table 4.16 Three affective factored ratings

Politeness	*Community*
Sincerity	
Compatibility	
Kindness	
Modesty	
Sophistication	
Responsibility	
Empathy	
Diligence	
Religiousness	
Social Status	*Achievement*
Leadership	
Self-Confidence	
Wealth	
Competence	
Intelligence	
Fairness	
Reliability	
Open-Mindedness	*Attractiveness*
Comeliness	
Likeability	
Charisma	

Now, *affective community, affective achievement*, and *affective attractiveness* can be analysed instead of the original character traits.

Results Summary

Using Factor Analysis, it was discovered that student responses to the original questionnaire, which included 22 items, may be seen as a reflection of 3 more fundamental dimensions or ratings. These three dimensions were determined to be *affective community*, *affective achievement,* and *affective attractiveness*. Further statistical analyses will be conducted on these derived variables rather than on the original 22 variables. This approach, also adopted by Feifel (1994) and others, will

produce simpler and more insightful results. We will refer to these as the *Affective Factored Ratings*.

4.3.3 Affective factored ratings

We can now analyze the 3 factored response ratings instead of the average ratings, individual ratings, or a researcher-determined grouping scheme. We can now see how Cantonese, English, and Putonghua differ along the three empirical groupings: *Affective Community*, *Affective Achievement,* and *Affective Attractiveness.* The purpose is to see if languages differ along these empirical dimensions in general before analyzing the dimensions and background effects.

We first graphically show the data using error charts. These charts represent the 95% confidence interval of the average values.

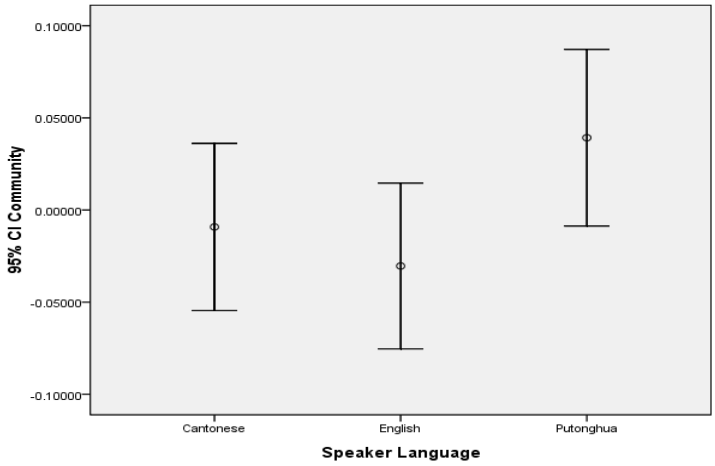
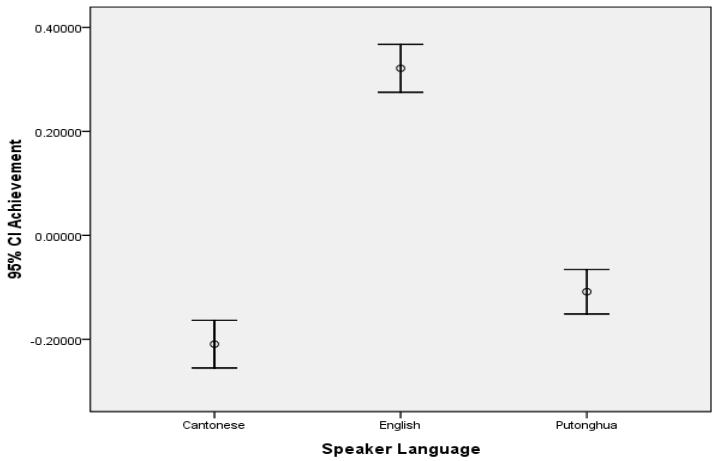
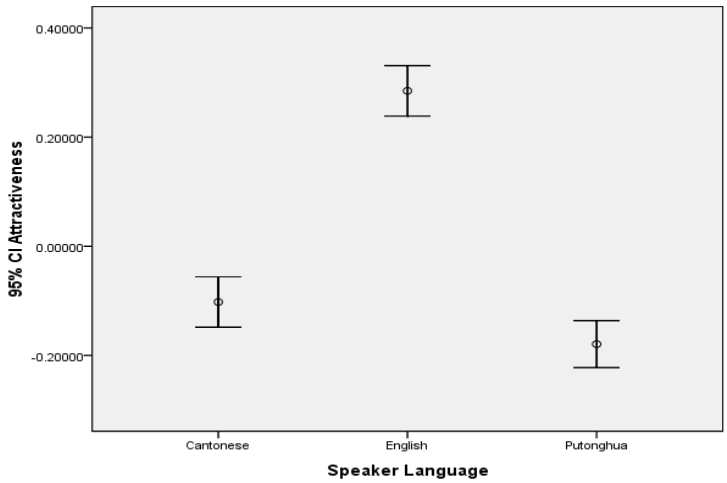
affective community	
affective achievement	
affective attractiveness	

Fig. 4.3 Affective attitudes by dimensions

Visually, it appears that *affective community* attitudes are not significantly different

from each other for the three languages.

For *affective achievement*, it appears that English is highest. It is not visually clear whether Putonghua is also rated higher than Cantonese on *affective achievement*. But English is certainly higher than Cantonese or Putonghua.

For *affective attractiveness*, English again appears to clearly dominate Cantonese and Putonghua. It is not visually clear whether Cantonese is rated higher than Putonghua.

In the spirit of the Matched-Guise Technique, here are the results of the paired t-tests (note that the results of the paired t-test are not very different from the results of independent t-tests on the differenced means).

Table 4.17 Overall differences between the three factors in Part 1

	English - Cantonese	Putonghua - Cantonese	English - Putonghua
affective community	-.018 (.030)	.022 (.031)	-.080*** (.027)
affective achievement	.506*** (.029)	.095*** (.027)	.445*** (.029)
affective attractiveness	.404*** (.028)	-.060** (.027)	.472*** (.028)
N	1605	1625	1644

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Except English – Putonghua *affective community*, we see that the results are generally consistent with the previous visual results.

After the paired t-test, Putonghua is shown to be rated higher than English on *affective community*. However, English – Cantonese still shows no difference in *affective*

community and Putonghua – Cantonese also still shows no difference in *affective community*.

For *affective achievement*, English – Cantonese, Putonghua – Cantonese, and English - Putonghua are all significant, meaning that English is rated higher than Cantonese, Putonghua is rated higher than Cantonese, and English is rated higher than Putonghua.

For *affective attractiveness*, English – Cantonese and English – Putonghua are significant, so English is rated higher than Cantonese and English is rated higher than Putonghua. Putonghua – Cantonese is also significant, meaning that Putonghua is rated lower than Cantonese.

These effects also differ by size. For example, the degree to which English is rated higher than Cantonese in *affective attractiveness* is much larger than the degree to which Putonghua is rated lower than Cantonese in *affective attractiveness*.

The largest difference for *affective community* is the difference between English and Putonghua. The largest difference for *affective achievement* is the difference between English and Cantonese. The largest difference for *affective attractiveness* is the difference between English and Putonghua.

Results Summary

Based on ANOVA, *affective community* showed no difference across the languages, but the MGT procedure indicates a difference between Putonghua and English, with Putonghua higher.

Based on ANOVA and confirmed through the MGT procedure, the languages are ranked English, Putonghua, and Cantonese for *affective achievement*.

Based on ANOVA and confirmed through the MGT procedure, the languages are ranked English, Cantonese, and Putonghua for *affective attractiveness*.

4.4 Stage 2: Analysis of the written questionnaire by itself

4.4.1 Overall cognitive attitudes

The first section of the written questionnaire asked students explicit questions regarding Cantonese, English, and Putonghua. These are cognitive attitudes towards each language.

Before getting into the more detailed dimensions, one can consider the results overall for the languages. As a graphical view, the graph of the average responses is shown below.

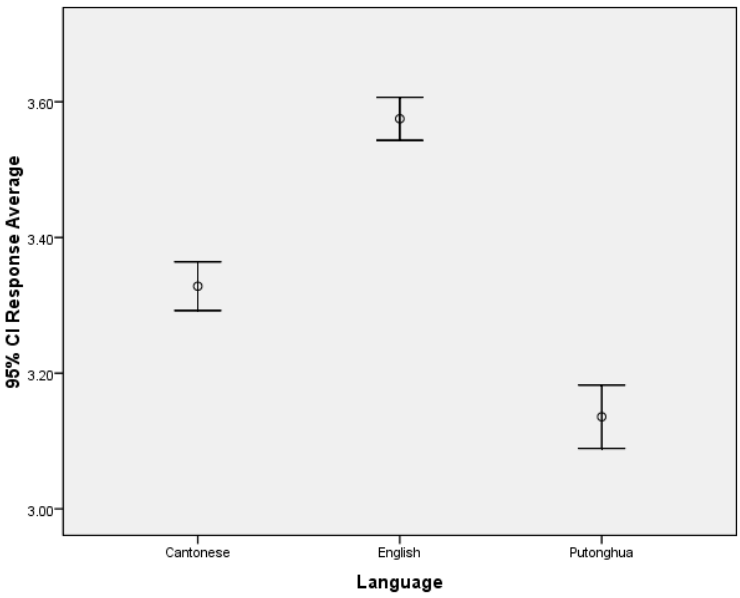


Fig. 4.4 Overall cognitive attitudes

The overall differences are already very clear. The languages are ranked English, Cantonese, and Putonghua.

ANOVA results are shown below to confirm the visual results.

Table 4.18 ANOVA results for overall cognitive attitudes

ANOVA					
Total					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	57.516	2	28.758	125.700	.000
Within Groups	406.319	1776	.229		
Total	463.835	1778			

Multiple Comparisons						
Total Tukey HSD						
(I) Language	(J) Language	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Putonghua	Cantonese	-.19252***	.02778	.000	-.2577	-.1274
	English	-.43932***	.02778	.000	-.5045	-.3742
Cantonese	Putonghua	.19252***	.02778	.000	.1274	.2577
	English	-.24680***	.02778	.000	-.3120	-.1816
English	Putonghua	.43932***	.02778	.000	.3742	.5045
	Cantonese	.24680***	.02778	.000	.1816	.3120

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

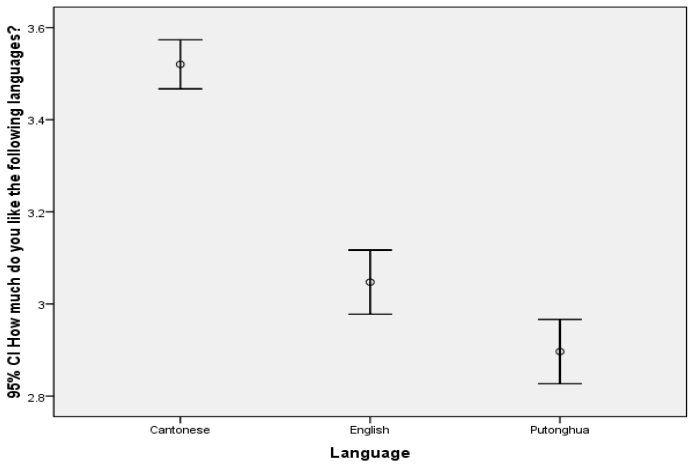
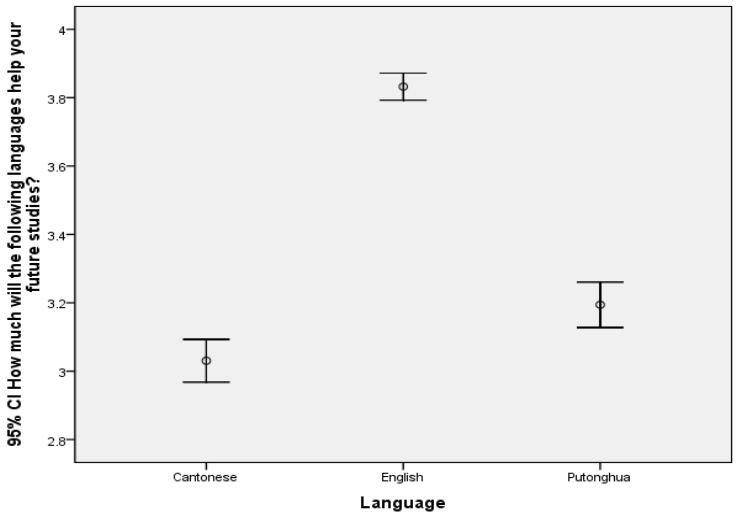
Results Summary

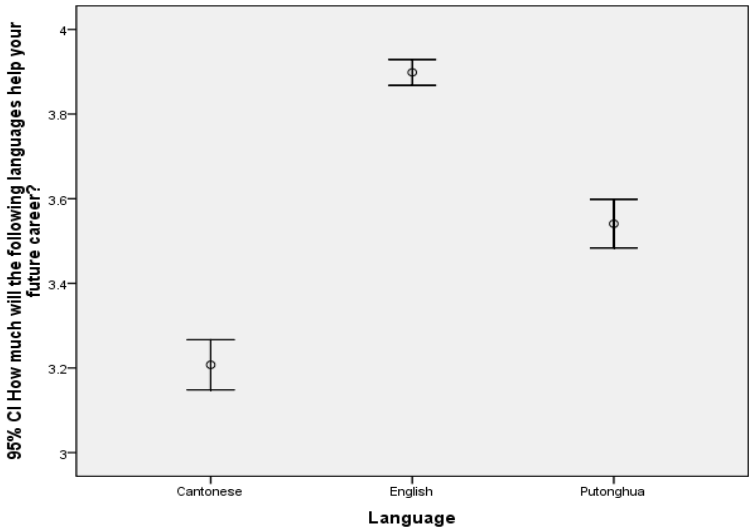
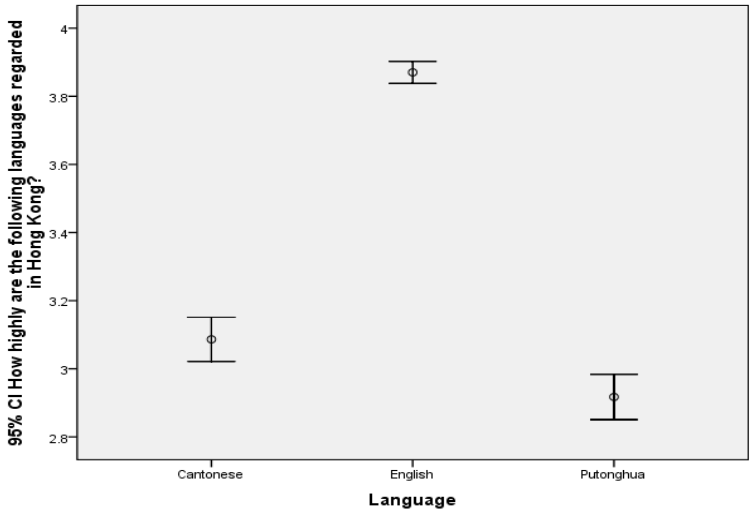
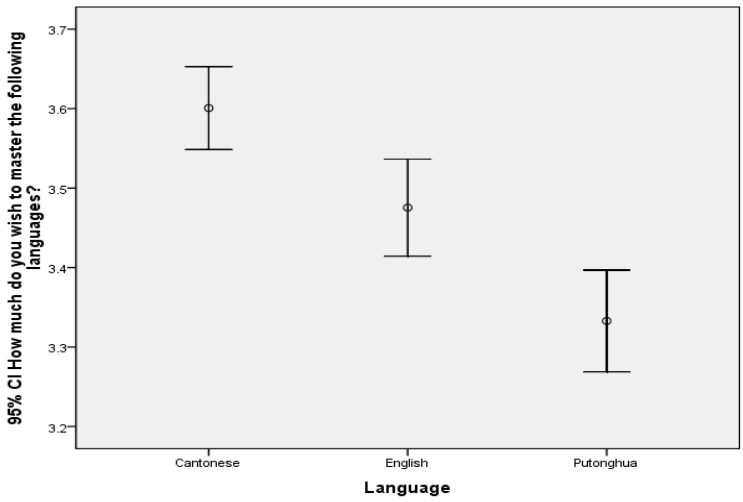
Overall, the cognitive attitudes are ranked English, Cantonese, and Putonghua. The ranking is very clear visually and ANOVA results have confirmed the ranking.

4.4.2 Dimensions of cognitive attitudes

Factor Analysis

This section involved 6 identical rating questions to be answered for each language. The graphical view for each question is shown below.

a) How much do you like the following languages?	
b) How much will the following languages help your future studies?	

c) How much will the following languages help your future career?	
d) How highly are the following languages regarded in Hong Kong?	
e) How much do you wish to master the following languages?	

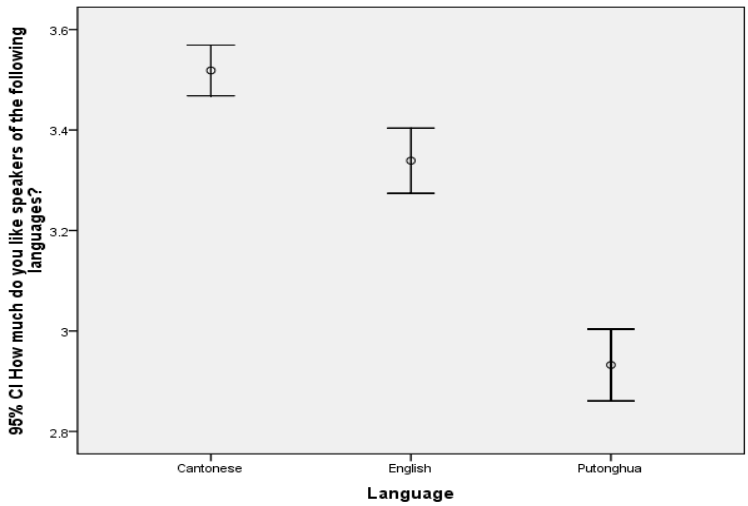
f) How much do you like speakers of the following languages?	

Fig. 4.5 Results of explicit cognitive attitudes

The explicit questions of this questionnaire can be manually grouped into more fundamental dimensions. Automatic factor analysis is not necessary. There are only 6 questions asked for each language, and a visual inspection of the data below as well as a qualitative examination of the questions reveals that the students answer these questions based on three dimensions.

In questions related to integrative attitudes or the desire to learn languages, ie. "*How much do you like the following languages*", "*How much do you wish to master the following languages*", and "*How much do you like speakers of the following languages"*, the rankings are Cantonese, English, and Putonghua from high to low. The responses to these questions can be averaged and, in line with Lambert *et al.* (1960), Lambert (1967), Gardner (1985) and Feifel (1994), can be labeled the *cognitive community* dimension.

Another group of questions are related to instrumental attitudes towards the languages. The rankings in this case are English, Putonghua, and Cantonese, from high to low. These questions are "*How much will the following languages help your future studies*" and "*How much will the following languages help your future career*". The responses to

these questions can be averaged and, also referring to Lambert *et al.*, (1960), Lambert (1967), Gardner (1985) and Feifel (1994), can be labeled the *cognitive achievement* dimension.

The remaining question that does not fall into the patterns observed for integrative and instrumental attitudes is the general question of "*How highly are the following languages regarded in Hong Kong*". The ranking for this question is English, Cantonese, and Putonghua, from high to low. This question is taken as a separate case for further analysis and will be called the *cognitive esteem* dimension as the question refers to the general level of regard for a language in society.

The three factored variables are shown below.

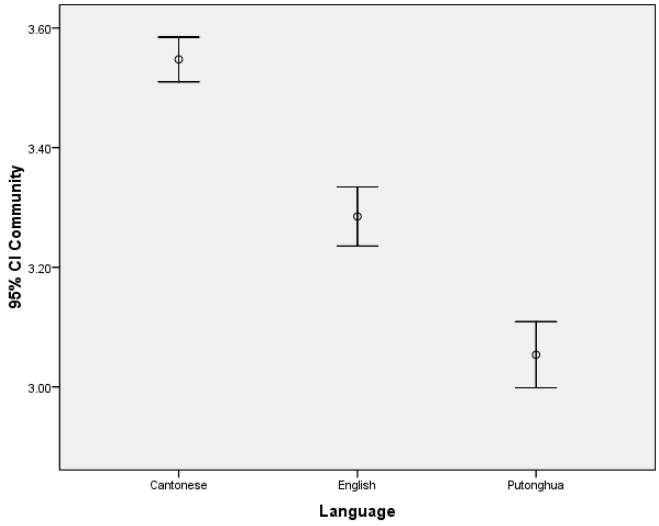
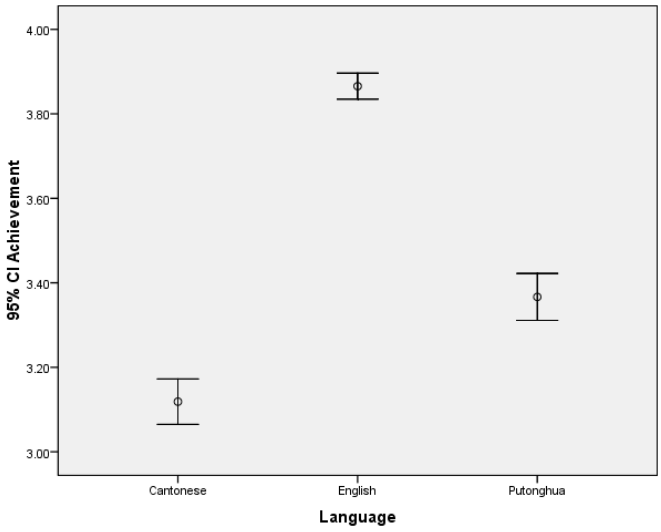
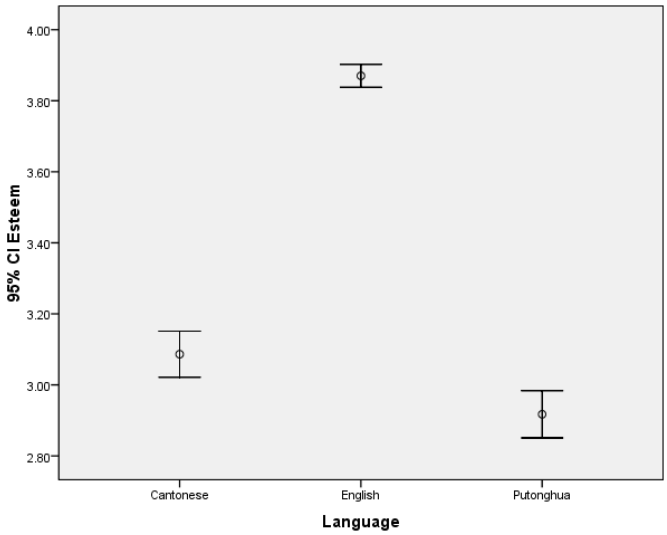
cognitive community	
cognitive achievement	
cognitive esteem	

Fig. 4.6 Explicit cognitive attitudes by dimensions

Visually, it is very clear that the languages are ranked Cantonese, English, and Putonghua on *cognitive community*. It is also very clear the languages are ranked English, Putonghua, and Cantonese for *cognitive achievement*. It is also quite clear that the languages are ranked English, Cantonese, and Putonghua for *cognitive esteem*.

These results are now confirmed via ANOVA.

Table 4.19 ANOVA results between languages by cognitive dimensions

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
community	Between Groups	72.400	2	36.200	102.379	.000
	Within Groups	627.621	1775	.354		
	Total	700.021	1777			
achievement	Between Groups	170.924	2	85.462	241.947	.000
	Within Groups	625.209	1770	.353		
	Total	796.132	1772			
esteem	Between Groups	306.372	2	153.186	309.851	.000
	Within Groups	876.545	1773	.494		
	Total	1182.917	1775			

Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable	(I) Language	(J) Language	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
community	Cantonese	English	.26259***	.03455	.000	.1816	.3436
		Putonghua	.49382***	.03453	.000	.4128	.5748
	English	Cantonese	-.26259***	.03455	.000	-.3436	-.1816
		Putonghua	.23123***	.03455	.000	.1502	.3123
	Putonghua	Cantonese	-.49382***	.03453	.000	-.5748	-.4128
		English	-.23123***	.03455	.000	-.3123	-.1502
achievement	Cantonese	English	-.74684***	.03459	.000	-.8280	-.6657
		Putonghua	-.24791***	.03457	.000	-.3290	-.1668
	English	Cantonese	.74684***	.03459	.000	.6657	.8280
		Putonghua	.49893***	.03456	.000	.4179	.5800
	Putonghua	Cantonese	.24791***	.03457	.000	.1668	.3290
		English	-.49893***	.03456	.000	-.5800	-.4179
esteem	Cantonese	English	-.78386***	.04087	.000	-.8797	-.6880
		Putonghua	.16906***	.04089	.000	.0732	.2650
	English	Cantonese	.78386***	.04087	.000	.6880	.8797
		Putonghua	.95292***	.04085	.000	.8571	1.0487
	Putonghua	Cantonese	-.16906***	.04089	.000	-.2650	-.0732
		English	-.95292***	.04085	.000	-1.0487	-.8571

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

The rankings from the graphs are confirmed.

Results Summary

The rankings of the languages are Cantonese, English, and Putonghua on *cognitive community*.

The rankings of the languages are English, Putonghua, and Cantonese for *cognitive achievement*.

The rankings of the languages are English, Cantonese, and Putonghua for *cognitive esteem*.

4.4.3 Factor analysis of the implicit questions

Section 2 of the written questionnaire involved 19 statements on which students were asked to rate agreement. The statements involved a variety of attitudes, policy topics, views on speakers of different languages, and other language related content. This section adopts an implicit method to elicit students' attitudes towards languages.

The responses to these indirect questions may not be compared with each other. For example, the responses to "*The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success*" cannot be compared with the responses to "*Putonghua should be more widely used in Hong Kong*". One cannot compare the status of English and Putonghua based on these questions, for example.

Thus, the responses to these 19 statements are analysed using Factor Analysis to see if any of the responses correlate to each other, thus indicating more fundamental dimensions that cause these responses.

The screeplot, Bartlett's Test, and KMO are first shown below.

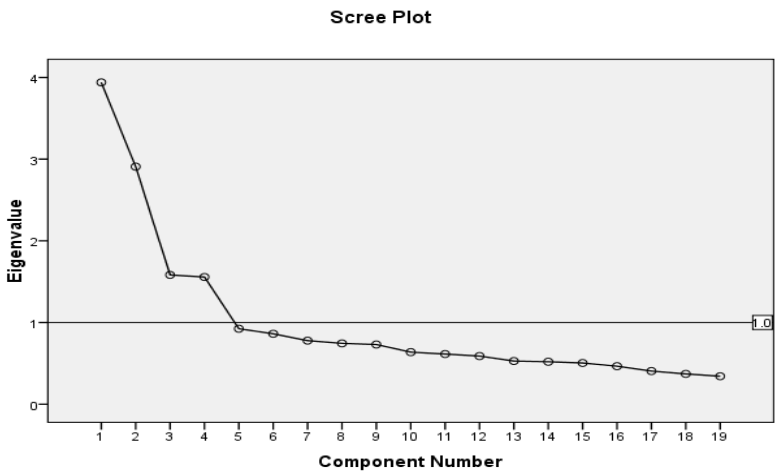


Fig. 4.7 Screeplot for factor analysis of implicit cognitive attitudes

Table 4.20 KMO and Bartlett's Test for factor analysis of implicit cognitive attitudes

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.813
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2714.403
	df	171.000
	Sig.	.000

The screeplot (Fig. 4.7) demonstrates that 4 factors are appropriate. And the KMO (in Table 4.20) is very high (close to 1.0), indicating that factor analysis is useful. Bartlett's Test (in Table 4.20) is highly statistically significant, also indicating that factor analysis is appropriate.

After analysing, the 19 original responses were found to be correlated in four major groups, as shown in the following two tables (the first – Table 4.21, is complete and the second – Table 4.22, only shows correlations above 0.5 for clarity).

Table 4.21 Factor analysis of the implicit cognitive attitudes (complete)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	*2*	*3*	4
Putonghua should be more widely used in Hong Kong.	.713	-.361	-.058	.018
Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity.	.711	-.148	-.019	.139
Putonghua should replace Cantonese in Hong Kong, as Cantonese is a regional dialect.	.707	.089	-.192	-.055
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be the main language to teach secondary schools.	.687	.148	-.084	-.115
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach Chinese.	.659	-.088	-.266	-.016
Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua.	.590	-.464	.120	.121
Putonghua speakers are mostly friendly.	.529	.379	.171	.038
In Hong Kong, Putonghua's status is now higher than that of English.	.474	-.180	.100	-.197
The importance of English in Hong Kong has decreased since the change of sovereignty.	.412	.292	.101	-.387
Putonghua speakers are mostly of low socioeconomic class.	-.147	.765	-.041	.093
I will be regarded as a new immigrant from Mainland China if I speak fluent Putonghua.	-.022	.701	.074	.113
English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class.	-.116	.695	.070	.322
Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong.	-.130	.638	-.080	-.088
English speakers are mostly not friendly.	.336	.528	.022	-.066
Cantonese is the language that best represents Hong Kong.	-.101	-.045	.794	-.016
In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be the main language to teach secondary schools.	-.022	.289	.640	-.251
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak	-.065	-.142	.620	.278

fluent Cantonese.				
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English.	.003	.026	.020	.819
The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success.	.002	.325	.036	.652

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 4.22 Factor analysis of the implicit cognitive attitudes (correlations above 0.5)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	*2*	*3*	4
Putonghua should be more widely used in Hong Kong.	.713			
Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity.	.711			
Putonghua should replace Cantonese in Hong Kong, as Cantonese is a regional dialect.	.707			
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be the main language to teach secondary schools.	.687			
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach Chinese.	.659			
Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua.	.590			
Putonghua speakers are mostly friendly.	.529			
In Hong Kong, Putonghua's status is now higher than that of English.				
The importance of English in Hong Kong has decreased since the change of sovereignty.				
Putonghua speakers are mostly of low socioeconomic class.		.765		
I will be regarded as a new immigrant from Mainland China if I speak fluent Putonghua.		.701		

English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class.		.695		
Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong.		.638		
English speakers are mostly not friendly.		.528		
Cantonese is the language that best represents Hong Kong.			.794	
In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be the main language to teach secondary schools.			.640	
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent Cantonese.			.620	
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English.				.819
The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success.				.652

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

The eigenvalues and explained variances are presented below, followed by the communalities:

Table 4.23 Eigenvalues and variance explained for factor analysis of implicit cognitive attitudes

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.939	20.732	20.732	3.939	20.732	20.732
2	2.908	15.304	36.036	2.908	15.304	36.036
3	1.583	8.329	44.366	1.583	8.329	44.366
4	1.557	8.195	52.561	1.557	8.195	52.561
5	.924	4.862	57.423			
6	.862	4.536	61.959			
7	.778	4.094	66.053			
8	.745	3.919	69.972			
9	.730	3.844	73.816			
10	.637	3.352	77.168			
11	.613	3.229	80.397			
12	.589	3.100	83.497			
13	.528	2.781	86.278			
14	.520	2.735	89.013			
15	.504	2.654	91.667			
16	.465	2.448	94.115			
17	.405	2.134	96.249			
18	.371	1.950	98.199			
19	.342	1.801	100.000			

Table 4.24 Communalities for factor analysis of implicit cognitive attitudes

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent Cantonese.	1.000	.487
In Hong Kong, Putonghua's status is now higher than that of English.	1.000	.306
Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua.	1.000	.592
Putonghua should be more widely used in Hong Kong.	1.000	.643
Cantonese is the language that best represents Hong Kong.	1.000	.643
Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English.	1.000	.671
Putonghua speakers are mostly of low socioeconomic class.	1.000	.617
English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class.	1.000	.605
I will be regarded as a new immigrant from Mainland China if I speak fluent Putonghua.	1.000	.510
The importance of English in Hong Kong has decreased since the change of sovereignty.	1.000	.414
Putonghua should replace Cantonese in Hong Kong, as Cantonese is a regional dialect.	1.000	.547
The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success.	1.000	.533
English speakers are mostly not friendly.	1.000	.396
In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be the main language to teach secondary schools.	1.000	.556
Putonghua speakers are mostly friendly.	1.000	.454
Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity.	1.000	.547
Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong.	1.000	.438
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be the main language to teach secondary schools.	1.000	.514
In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach	1.000	.512

Chinese.		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

It can be seen from the Tables 4.21 and 4.22 above that the responses to the original 19 questions may be categorized into four fundamental groups or dimensions. The groups do not have equal number of statements because the questionnaire was not pre-designed to fall into these groups.

The first group of highly correlated variables includes answers to questions such as "*Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua*", "*In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach Chinese*", and "*Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity*". These are questions that deal in some way or another with an orientation for Putonghua. This group will be named the *Putonghua affinity* dimension.

The second group of highly correlated variables includes answers to questions such as "*English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class*", "*I will be regarded as a new immigrant from Mainland China if I speak fluent Putonghua*", "*English speakers are mostly not friendly*", "*Putonghua speakers are of low socioeconomic class*", and "*Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong*". These responses represent a variety of highly prejudiced responses towards a language or language group, and Factor Analysis has not shown that they are on the same dimension as orientation for any specific language. "*Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong*" is a strongly prejudiced statement, as the importance of Putonghua in daily life and business in Hong Kong is not deniable. More discussion of this point will follow. For now, the statements and questions in this group are all language prejudices or stereotypes, and this dimension

will be called the *language stereotype* dimension.

The third group of highly correlated variables includes answers to questions such as "*In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be the main language to teach secondary schools*", and "*Cantonese is the language that best represents Hong Kong*". These are questions that relate to the status of Cantonese. This group will be called the *Cantonese affinity* dimension.

The fourth and final group of highly correlated variables includes answers to the statements "*Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English*" and "*The use of English is a main factor in Hong Kong's success*". These are the only statements that deal only with a fondness and respect for English, and they are related. This group is the *English affinity* dimension.

Results Summary

Cognitively, on matters related to languages, the student responses reveal dimensions of *Putonghua affinity, English affinity, Cantonese affinity,* and *language stereotype*, which can be presented in following Table 4.25:

Table 4.25 Dimensions of the implicit cognitive attitudes

4 Putonghua should be more widely used in Hong Kong.	Putonghua Affinity
11 Putonghua should replace Cantonese in Hong Kong, as Cantonese is a dialect.	
16 Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity.	
18 In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach secondary schools.	
19 In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach Chinese.	
3 Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua.	
15 Putonghua speakers are mostly friendly.	
2 In Hong Kong, Putonghua's status is now higher than that of English.	
10 The importance of English in Hong Kong has decreased since the handover.	
7 Putonghua speakers are mostly of low socioeconomic class.	Language Stereotype
9 I will be regarded as a new immigrant from China if I speak fluent Putonghua.	
8 English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class.	
17 Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong.	
13 English speakers are mostly not friendly.	
5 Cantonese is the language that best represents Hong Kong.	Cantonese Affinity
14 In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be used to teach secondary schools.	
1 Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent Cantonese.	
6 Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English.	English Affinity
12 The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success.	

4.5 Stage 3: Analysis of relationship between the listening and written questionnaires

The affective and cognitive attitudes in Stage 1 and Stage 2 may be correlated to see if they are related to each other. In particular, there are two common dimensions for affective and cognitive attitudes – community and achievement. These are also examined for each language.

4.5.1 Overall correlations

Table 4.26 Overall correlations between affective and cognitive attitudes

		Pearson Correlation
affective attitudes	Pearson Correlation	.094***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	Shared Variance	.009
	N	7042

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

The cognitive and affective attitudes are correlated to each other, but not very highly. The shared variance is below 1%.

Results Summary

Overall, the cognitive and affective attitudes are weakly correlated to each other, but shared variance is very low.

4.5.2 In-depth correlations

For each language, the common attitude dimensions of community and achievement are correlated to examine relationships.

Community

Table 4.27 Correlations between affective and cognitive attitudes towards Cantonese in *community*

		cognitive community
affective community	Pearson Correlation	.043*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.073
	Shared Variance	.002
	N	1773

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Affective and cognitive *community* attitudes towards Cantonese are correlated but with shared variance of less than 1%.

Table 4.28 Correlations between affective and cognitive attitudes towards English in *community*

		cognitive community
affective community	Pearson Correlation	.049**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.041
	Shared Variance	.002
	N	1765

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Affective and cognitive *community* attitudes towards English are correlated at 0.049,

with shared variance below 1%.

Table 4.29 Correlations between affective and cognitive attitudes towards Putonghua in *community*

		cognitive community
affective community	Pearson Correlation	.100***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	Shared Variance	.010
	N	1788

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Affective and cognitive *community* attitudes towards Putonghua are correlated at 0.1 and shared variance is 1%.

Achievement

Table 4.30 Correlations between affective and cognitive attitudes towards Cantonese in *achievement*

		cognitive community
affective community	Pearson Correlation	.043*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.068
	Shared Variance	.002
	N	1769

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Affective and cognitive *achievement* attitudes towards Cantonese are correlated at 0.43 but with shared variance of less than 1%.

Table 4.31 Correlations between affective and cognitive attitudes towards English in *achievement*

		cognitive community
affective community	Pearson Correlation	.034
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.155
	Shared Variance	.001
	N	1765

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Affective and cognitive *achievement* attitudes towards English are not correlated.

Table 4.32 Correlations between affective and cognitive attitudes towards Putonghua

		cognitive community
affective community	Pearson Correlation	.092***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	Shared Variance	.008
	N	1788

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Affective and cognitive *achievement* attitudes towards Putonghua are correlated at 0.092 with shared variance below 1%.

Results Summary

Affective and cognitive *community* attitudes are correlated for English and Putonghua, but English is correlated very weakly.

Affective and cognitive *achievement* attitudes are correlated for Putonghua only.

In all cases, shared variance is at best 1%, and one may conclude that cognitive and affective attitudes are not related to each other much.

4.6 Stage 4: Analysis of the listening questionnaire with student background

4.6.1 Summary and setup

This section analyses whether speaker gender and various student background factors have any impact on the students' affective attitudes to the different languages. Because there are many student background factors, it would most convenient to use regression to perform this analysis. The regressions could only be run on data from students who have completely filled in the required questions. Effects at 95% confidence or better are highlighted.

There are 9 regressions for the affective attitudes, one for each of the languages on each of the dimensions (so affective *community, achievement*, and *attractiveness* for each of the three languages). In each case, a positive effect for a background characteristic indicates a higher attitude. A negative effect for a background characteristic indicates a lower attitude.

4.6.2 Regression notes

For the regression conducted in Stage 4, Stage 5 as well, a "base" group is required to compare other populations to.

Each regression in this study uses one measure of attitude for a particular language as the dependent variable and background factors as the independent variables. The regressions used in this study make heavy use of *dummy variables* for the independent

variables. These types of variables represent discrete, rather than continuous, characteristics of the observations. For example, in a regression such as Y = a + bx, if x is a dummy variable representing gender, it could be 1 if the observation is male and 0 if the observation is female. In this case, 0 (or female) would represent the *hypothetical base case*. If Y were, say, affective attitude to English, then the constant "a" would represent the average affective attitude to English of females (the *hypothetical base case*) in the data and a + b would represent the average affective attitude to English of males in the data. The coefficient "b" would be the average difference between males and females on affective attitude to English.

The interpretation is the same when multiple independent variables are used, except the coefficient "b" on each independent variable would represent the effect of that independent variable holding all other independent variables constant. The constant is still the attitude measure of the *hypothetical base case*, which was just female in the example above but may be more complicated with multiple variables. This statistical treatment using regression is equivalent to ANOVA with many interaction effects.

Thus, the *hypothetical base case* needs to be defined (equivalent to setting 0 for female instead of for male). The base case used for the regressions are:

- Female speaker
- Female student
- 1-2 years in Hong Kong
- Lowest social class
- Lowest father education
- Lowest mother education

- Birth in Hong Kong
- Self ID as Hong Kong
- Cantonese as home language
- Lowest school band (Band 1)
- Chinese MOI school

This base case may not exist in reality, but the regression results will all be interpreted in comparison to this case.

The following variables are used.

Table 4.33 Student background variables

Variable	**Notes (if applicable)**
Speaker Male	As compared to being female.
Student Male	As compared to being female. The student is the listener.
Time in Hong Kong	
Social Class	
Parental Education	Composed of Father Education and Mother Education.
Birthplace	Composed of Birth in Guangdong, Birth in Fujian, and Birth Other, all compared to being born in Hong Kong.
Self-Identity	Composed of ID Chinese, ID Both, and ID Other, all compared to being identified with Hong Kong.
Home Language	Includes Home Putonghua, Home English, Home Minnan, and Home Other, all compared to speaking Cantonese at home.
School Band	The higher the band, the worse the school.
School Medium of Instruction	Includes English MOI, compared to using Chinese as MOI.

The goal is to see if any of these student background factors (together with speaker gender) have effect in the 9 regressions.

The regression tables represent estimated coefficients of regression (betas) for the variables listed on the left two columns when regressed against the attitude constructs for specific languages as indicated in the column headings.

4.6.3 Affective Community

Table 4.34 Regression on affective community by student background

	affective community	**Cantonese**	**English**	**Putonghua**
	(*constant*)	-.569**	.134	.172
Gender	**Speaker Male**	.201***	-.362***	-.197***
	Listener Male	-.156***	-.041	-.149**
	Time in HK	.021	-.040	.018
	Social Class	.035**	.000	.017
Parental Education	**Father Education**	-.059*	.004	-.010
	Mother Education	-.038	-.019	-.088**
Birthplace	**Birth in Guangdong**	-.148	-.384***	-.096
	Birth in Fujian	-.436	-.196	-.838**
	Birth O	-.409***	-.243**	-.205
Self Identity	**ID Chinese**	.129	.043	.244***
	ID Both	.115	.173**	.248***
	ID Other	.252**	.181	.331**
Home Language	**Home Putonghua**	.470**	.116	.368*
	Home English	.861*	-.129	.006
	Home Minnan	-.361	-.684*	-.267
	Home Other	-.102	-.295*	-.028

School	**School Band**	.181***	.149**	.000
	English MOI	.385***	.268**	.119
	ANOVA F	5.002***	4.832***	3.199***
	N	1354	1342	1352
	R-squared	0.063	0.062	0.041
	Adjusted R-squared	0.051	0.049	0.028
	SSR/SST	1194./1275	1199/1278	1428/1490

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Results Summary

The results show that male speakers are rated higher in Cantonese but lower in English and Putonghua as compared to female speakers. This means that, with all other factors equal, the students reported higher affective community attitudes towards a male speaker of Cantonese than towards a female speaker of Cantonese. The opposite is true for English and Putonghua, holding all other factors constant. This and other revealed associations will be discussed in the later section.

Male listeners have lower attitudes towards Cantonese and Putonghua as compared to female listeners.

Higher social class students have higher attitudes for Cantonese, and higher mother education students have lower attitudes for Putonghua.

Birth in Guangdong decreases English attitudes. Birth in Fujian decreases Putonghua attitudes. Birth in Other decreases both Cantonese and English attitudes.

Speaking Putonghua at home increases attitudes towards Cantonese.

Higher band schools increases Cantonese and English attitudes.

English MOI increases Cantonese and English attitudes.

4.6.4 Affective achievement

Table 4.35 Regression on affective achievement by student background

	Affective Achievement	**Cantonese**	**English**	**Putonghua**
	(*constant*)	-.043	.281	-.096
Gender	**Speaker Male**	.666***	.387***	.311***
	Listener Male	.054	-.044	-.052
	Time in HK	-.034	.008	.002
	Social Class	-.060***	-.050***	-.028*
Parental Education	**Father Education**	.041	.003	.057*
	Mother Education	.020	.020	.000
Birthplace	**Birth in Guangdong**	-.292**	-.134	-.001
	Birth in Fujian	-.575*	-.817**	-.576*
	Birth Other	-.002	-.025	.173
Self Identity	**ID Chinese**	-.017	.111	.161**
	ID Both	.086	.090	.254***
	ID Other	.160	.069	.302**
Home Language	**Home Putonghua**	-.146	-.310*	-.318*
	Home English	.197	-.028	-.816**
	Home Minnan	-.487	-.497	-.260
	Home Other	-.347**	-.074	-.205
School	**School Band**	-.062	.001	-.108*
	English MOI	-.007	.022	-.110
	ANOVA F	11.911***	4.808***	4.483***
	N	1354	1342	1352
	R-squared	.138	.061	.057
	Adjusted R-squared	.127	.049	.044
	SSR/SST	1150/1334	1228/1308	1104/1170

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Results Summary

A male speaker results in higher attitudes for all three languages.

Higher social class decreases attitudes towards Cantonese and English.

Birth in Guangdong decreases attitudes towards Cantonese, and birth in Fujian decreases attitudes towards English.

Self-identification as anything other than "Hong Kong" increases Putonghua attitudes.

Speaking English at home decreases Putonghua, and speaking Other at home decreases Cantonese.

4.6.5 Affective attractiveness

Table 4.36 Regression on affective attractiveness by student background

	affective attractiveness	**Cantonese**	**English**	**Putonghua**
	(constant)	-.068	.927***	.189
Gender	**Speaker Male**	-.607***	-.718***	-.493***
	Listener Male	.120**	-.064	.153***
	Time in HK	-.014	-.005	-.040
	Social Class	.010	-.021	.002
Parental Education	**Father Education**	-.058*	.039	.038
	Mother Education	.020	-.043	.020
Birthplace	**Birth in Guangdong**	-.016	.033	-.215*
	Birth in Fujian	.139	.365	.506*
	Birth Other	-.123	-.104	-.213*
Self Identity	**ID Chinese**	.021	-.008	-.065
	ID Both	.128*	.005	.085
	ID Other	.189	.089	.223*

Home Language	**Home Putonghua**	-.097	.064	-.116
	Home English	.420	.522	-.629
	Home Minnan	-.138	-.570	-.504
	Home Other	.169	.108	-.040
School	**School Band**	.133**	-.040	-.014
	English MOI	.166	-.020	-.079
	ANOVA F	9.286***	11.852***	7.835***
	N	1354	1342	1352
	R-squared	.111	.139	.096
	Adjusted R-squared	.099	.127	.083
	SSR/SST	1199/1349	1158/1344	1070/1183

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Results Summary

A male speaker is seen as less attractive for all languages.

Male listeners find Cantonese and Putonghua higher in attractiveness.

Higher school bands increase attitudes towards Cantonese.

4.7 Stage 5: Analysis of the written questionnaire with student background

4.7.1 Summary and setup

The same setup is used, except this time, the cognitive attitudes are tested. There are 9 regressions. These are the attitudes from the explicit questions. They are *cognitive community*, *cognitive achievement*, and *cognitive esteem*.

4.7.2 Cognitive community

Table 4.37 Regression on cognitive community by student background

	Cognitive *Community*	**Cantonese**	**English**	**Putonghua**
	(constant)	3.386***	3.011***	3.024***
Gender	**Student Male**	.069	-.135**	-.149**
	Time in HK	.014	.040	-.020
	Social Class	-.013	.010	-.019
Parental Education	**Father Education**	-.023	-.039	.016
	Mother Education	.021	.072**	-.037
Birthplace	**Birth in Guangdong**	-.048	.092	.237
	Birth in Fujian	.019	-.328	.427
	Birth O	-.160	.158	.169
Self Identity	**ID Chinese**	.035	.013	.356***
	ID Both	.101	-.122	.152
	ID Other	-.096	-.072	-.068
Home Language	**Home Putonghua**	-.222	.056	.282
	Home English	.052	.311	-.451
	Home Minnan	.247	-.887***	.284
	Home Other	.040	-.399***	-.018
School	**School Band**	.041	-.030	.065
	English MOI	.082	.214**	.170

	ANOVA F	1.376	5.545***	4.859***
	N	433	432	433
	R-squared	.053	.185	.166
	Adjusted R-squared	.015	.152	.132
	SSR/SST	89/94	120/147	169/202

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Results Summary

The ANOVA F for Cantonese is not significant, so none of the factors have effect.

Male students have lower cognitive community attitudes towards Putonghua and English.

Higher mother education increases attitudes towards English.

Self-identity as Chinese increases Putonghua attitudes.

Speaking Minnan or Other at home decreases English attitudes.

Going to an English MOI school increases English attitudes.

4.7.3 Cognitive achievement

Table 4.38 Regression on cognitive achievement by student background

	cognitive achievement	**Cantonese**	**English**	**Putonghua**
	(constant)	3.040***	3.376***	3.533***
Gender	**Listener Male**	.072	-.030	-.174***
	Time in HK	-.031	.033	-.033
	Social Class	.039**	.007	-.007
Parental Education	**Father Education**	-.085**	-.013	-.038
	Mother Education	.028	.007	-.027
Birthplace	**Birth in Guangdong**	-.149	.050	-.044
	Birth in Fujian	-.674**	.225	.229
	Birth O	-.022	-.022	.114
Self Identity	**ID Chinese**	.078	.032	.296***
	ID Both	.153	-.039	.090
	ID Other	-.180	-.113	.116
Home Language	**Home Putonghua**	-.061	.072	.081
	Home English	-.235	.205	-.059
	Home Minnan	.758	.123	.485
	Home Other	.107	.009	.096
School	**School Band**	.092	.095**	.056
	English MOI	-.004	.235***	.261**
	ANOVA F	1.478*	1.735**	2.428***
	N	431	431	432
	R-squared	.057	.067	.091
	Adjusted R-squared	.019	.028	.053
	SSR/SST	186/197	64/69	185/203

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Results Summary

The ANOVA F for Cantonese is not significant, so none of the factors have effect.

Male students have lower attitudes on Putonghua.

Self-identity as Chinese increases Putonghua attitudes.

Higher school band increases attitudes on English.

English MOI increases attitudes on English and Putonghua.

4.7.4 Cognitive esteem

Table 4.39 Regression on cognitive esteem by student background

	Cognitive Esteem	**Cantonese**	**English**	**Putonghua**
	(constant)	3.325***	4.170***	2.963***
Gender	**Listener Male**	.250***	.013	-.335***
	Time in HK	-.031	-.042*	.053
	Social Class	.005	-.004	.007
Parental Education	**Father Education**	-.103**	-.009	-.010
	Mother Education	.107**	-.017	-.086
Birthplace	**Birth in Guangdong**	-.138	-.154*	.270
	Birth in Fujian	-1.408***	-.321*	.441
	Birth O	-.058	-.118	-.052
Self Identity	**ID Chinese**	.089	.018	-.011
	ID Both	.040	-.066	-.009
	ID Other	-.258	-.209**	-.276
Home Language	**Home Putonghua**	-.083	-.078	-.131
	Home English	.173	.190	-.220

	Home Minnan	-.983*	.184	.436
	Home Other	.095	.087	.249
School	**School Band**	-.041	.024	-.016
	English MOI	-.122	.123*	-.023
	ANOVA F	2.407***	1.186	2.327***
	N	431	433	432
	R-squared	.090	.046	.087
	Adjusted R-squared	.053	.007	.050
	SSR/SST	247/272	60/63	264/289

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Results Summary

The ANOVA F for English is not significant, so none of the factors have effect.

Male students have higher attitudes towards Cantonese and lower attitudes towards Putonghua.

Higher father education decreases attitudes to Cantonese but higher mother education increases it.

Birth in Fujian decreases attitudes towards Cantonese.

4.7.5 Cognitive attitudes from the implicit questions

For implicit questions, now regressions are run on *Putonghua Affinity*, *English Affinity*, *Cantonese Affinity*, and *Language Stereotype*. The same characteristics in previous regressions are used. This time, only four regressions are run, one each on the four dimensions.

Table 4:40 Regression on cognitive attitudes from implicit questions

		Cantonese Affinity	**English Affinity**	**Putonghua Affinity**	**Language Stereotype**
	(constant)	-.515	.477	1.269***	.818*
Gender	**Male Student**	.142	-.011	-.205**	.171*
	Time in HK	.078	-.039	-.135***	-.002
	Social Class	.028	.005	-.042	.018
Parental Education	**Father Education**	-.044	-.051	.066	.010
	Mother Education	-.002	.036	-.074	.036
Birthplace	**Birth in Guangdong**	.075	-.125	-.287	-.095
	Birth in Fujian	-.792*	-.476	.190	.374
	Birth Other	-.150	-.338*	.197	.336
Self Identity	**ID Chinese**	-.121	-.097	.515***	-.629***
	ID Both	.054	-.230	.391***	-.211
	ID Other	.391	-.180	.216	.102
Home Language	**Home Putonghua**	.000	.107	.077	-.367
	Home English	-.223	.401	-.164	1.212*
	Home Minnan	-.613	.791	-.400	-.962
	Home Other	-.310	.093	.215	-.251
School	**School Band**	.015	-.084	-.091	-.318***

	English MOI	-.148	.276	-286*	-.760***
	ANOVA F	1.625*	1.146	5.526***	4.495***
	N	409	409	409	409
	R-squared	.066	.047	.194	.163
	Adjusted R-squared	.025	.006	.159	.127
	SSR/SST	371/398	381/400	326/404	333/398

* p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01

Results Summary

The ANOVA F for *English affinity* and *Cantonese affinity* are not significant, so none of the factors have effect.

Male students and longer time in Hong Kong decrease *Putonghua affinity*. Self-identity as Chinese or Both increase *Putonghua affinity*.

Self-identity as Chinese, Higher school band, and English MOI all decrease *language Stereotype*.

4.8 Notes on R-Squared and interpretation

In the last section of the Chapter, a few note needs to be made for relevant results from the analyses. As presented in Sections 4.6 and 4.7, several of the regressions in Stage 4 and 5 show relatively low R-squared statistics. However, this does not necessarily imply that there are no meaningful relationships within the data. In the context of this study, it implies that there is a high level of noise in the data, as many students probably guessed on their responses. Colton and Bower (2002), for example, provides the following case: A taste test was conducted to determine preferences for two types of breakfast cereal. 100 participants were asked to taste either Cereal A or Cereal B (randomly) and then score the taste on a scale from 1 to 9. 80% of the participants decide to just provide random answers, but the remaining 20% produced genuine ratings. Of the 20% who did not provide random answers, half tasted Cereal A and half tasted Cereal B. Of these genuine responses, Cereal B was preferred to Cereal A on average.

Colton and Bower (2002) simulated the situation and found statistical significant differences between the two cereals on the entire dataset at the 95% level but with only an R-squared of 4.1%. “The low R-squared value reflects the high level of variation in the scores of the tasters who randomly guessed. Regardless of the higher variation, the results from this analysis indicate (correctly) that Cereal B is preferred”.

This particular study reflects a similar situation in which students may have randomly guessed. Despite careful research procedure to minimize the effect, such a possibility would have been expected due to the participant population, and thus one would have to conduct the analysis with random responses present, leading to a low R-squared in some cases. As suggested by Colton and Bower (2002), “establishing a threshold or

cut-off point for an 'acceptable' value of R-squared across all applications is inappropriate". Thus, for the regressions to follow, the F-statistic is included and its significance relied on to determine the existence of meaningful relationships within the data. Generally, in cases of very low R-squared, the F-statistic will also be insignificant.

As a final note, due to the complicated interaction factors involved, the regression results should not be compared across languages in an *absolute* way. One may only easily draw conclusions across languages on factors that are associated with *relative* effects on the language attitude ratings. For example, the regression results may show that self-identity as "Chinese" may be associated with an increase in affective community attitude towards Putonghua and a decrease towards Cantonese. But one may not readily be able to say that students with self-identity as "Chinese" as a group has higher affective community attitude towards Putonghua than Cantonese unless all the other factors are taken into consideration. Thus, the regression results are not readily comparable to the overall results in an absolute way from previous chapters since background factors were not considered previously. The goal of the regressions is to identify the factors that are associated with differences in specific attitudes towards specific languages and also the direction of the associations.

The results and data analysis from the study are described in this Chapter and will be further discussed in the next Chapter.

Chapter Five: Findings and Discussion

Chapter Four presented a plethora of statistical results of the data collected and this chapter discusses some of the major results of this study in light of relevant theories reviewed in Chapter Two. Due to the semi-exploratory nature of the study and the amount of data analyzed, not every statistical result of Chapter Four will be emphasized, and only the main themes will be discussed. Suggestions for further investigation in light of the data results will be covered in Chapter Six. This chapter begins by mapping out an overall structure of the findings, and follows with discussion in detail on main findings of inconsistency between attitudes, language attitudes dimensions, and background factors that are associated with different student language attitudes.

5.1 Overall structure of findings

As reviewed in Chapter Two (section 2.1.2), language attitude is a complex mental object, but studies of language attitude tend to divide attitude into components of cognitive, affective and behavioural relevance (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Ajzen & Fishbeim, 1980; Gardner, 1985; Baker, 1992; Cargile *et al*., 1994). As a structural framework, this study also adopted the three component model of attitude, but focused on the affective and cognitive components. The behavioural component is not the focus of this study due to methodological, institutional, and resource constraints, though it is highly interesting. So, the results from the study relate to the two main components of affective and cognitive language attitudes.

The listening portion is designed to measure affective attitude. The basis for the listening portion is that hearing a spoken language elicits feelings towards a particular language. The written questionnaire is designed to measure students' cognitive attitude which involves beliefs that the students consciously hold.

The first major result of the study is a conflict between the cognitive and affective attitudes of the students. Thereafter, it is uncovered that the dimensions of affective and cognitive attitudes of the students are, in some aspects, different from those of previous studies in the field of language attitude. Findings related to implicit cognitive attitudes and associations between background factors and different attitude dimensions and languages are also revealed.

Focusing on the relative rankings of attitudes towards languages, the following Fig. 5.1 shows the overall structure of the findings on language attitudes based on the results of the listening portion and the first section of the written portion (the results of the second

section of the written questionnaire will be discussed later in this Chapter). This overall structure may be used as a prospectus to facilitate the discussion to follow.

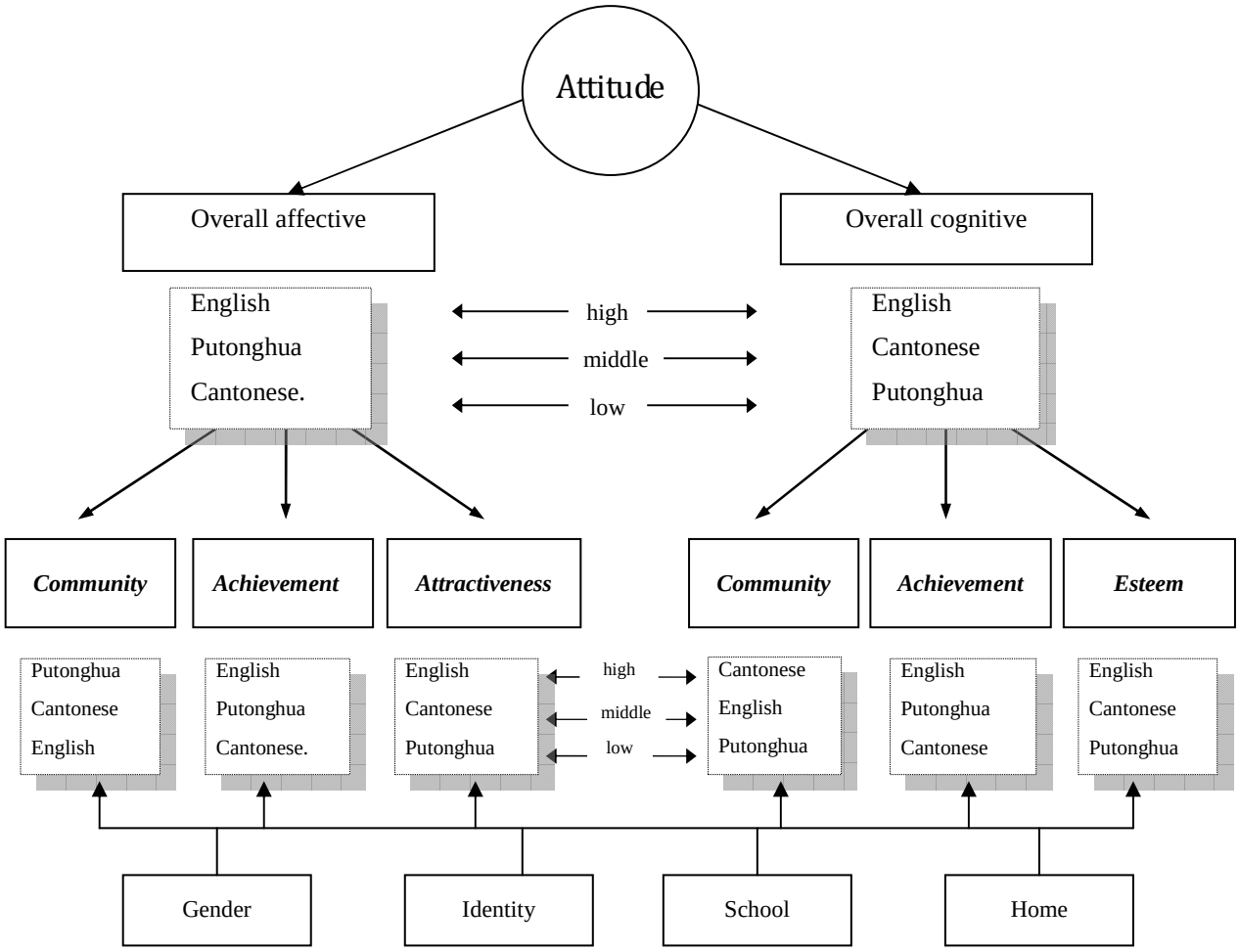


Fig. 5.1 Overall structure of language attitudes with ranks

It can be seen that there are three dimensions for each attitude component as evidenced through the data, some more discussion of which will follow in a later section. Individual languages for different components and dimensions are ranked differently from each other. Based on these results, the following sections discuss the relevant findings and their implications step by step from the overall affective and cognitive attitude rankings to the separated dimension rankings, then tries to map out a model of

language attitude change in the context of post-colonial Hong Kong. Lastly, the factors influencing attitudes will be discussed.

5.2 Attitude conflict

The conflict in language attitudes is embodied in different components or dimensions. The following is relevant discussion of the issues.

5.2.1 Conflict between overall affective and cognitive attitudes

The overall results from the affective component of the study indicate attitudes that ranked the languages English, Putonghua, and Cantonese from highest to lowest. Meanwhile, the general results from the cognitive component of the study indicate attitudes that ranked the languages English, Cantonese, and Putonghua from highest to lowest. This can be seen in Figure 5.2 below (note that the listening component did indicate that Putonghua was ranked higher than Cantonese via the paired t-tests in the MGT procedure, but the difference is not so evident in the graph. See Chapter Four, section 4.3).

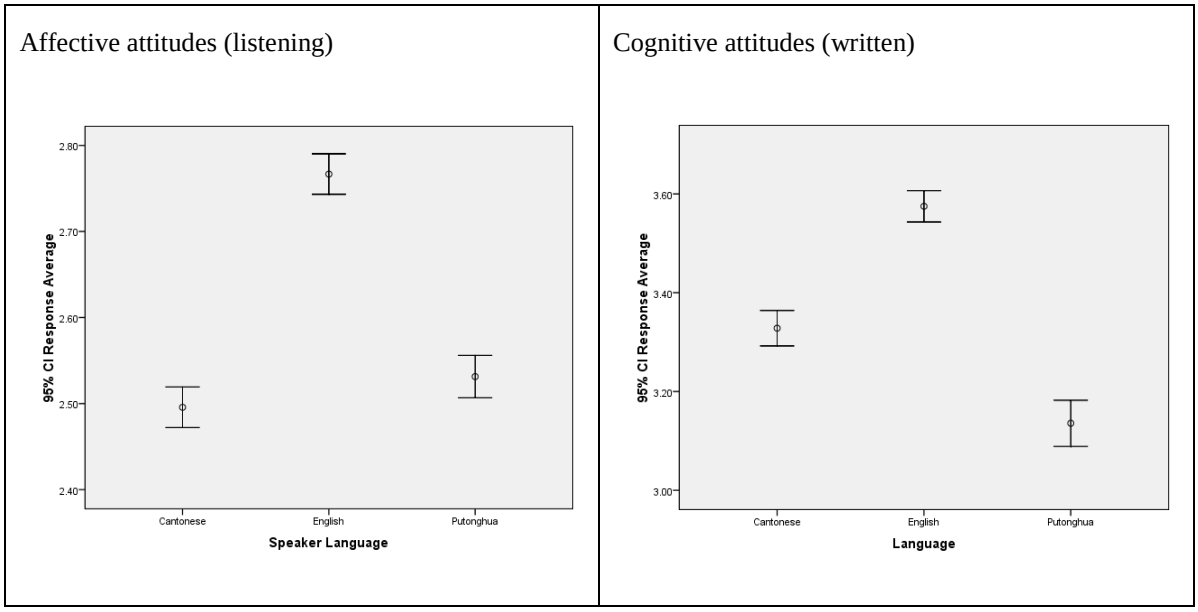


Fig. 5.2 Differences between affective and cognitive attitudes

Fig. 5.2 shows that English is ranked highest for both affective and cognitive attitudes held by the students, but there is a difference in the ranking between Putonghua and Cantonese. Affectively, attitude towards Putonghua is higher ranked than Cantonese; but cognitively, attitude towards Cantonese is higher ranked than Putonghua. The results suggest that while students have better feelings towards Putonghua than Cantonese, they still consciously believe that Putonghua occupies a lower status to Cantonese when asked directly.

It should not be surprising that attitude towards a language stands at different positions in the two components from this study, and the findings further support the argument that affect and cognition (as well as behaviour) emerge as separate and distinctive components of attitude in accord with the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. Eagly and Chaiken (1993), for example, explains that a person with certain cognitive beliefs may not reveal those beliefs through emotional affective responses or open behaviour. Similarly, one may engage in open behaviour without necessarily having an emotional affective attitude attached to the act. A person, for instance, may hear a language or

linguistic variety which they are unable to identify (and thus can not hold any conscious cognitive beliefs about), but may nevertheless consider it affectively “pleasant”, or “ugly”, and this may affect their attitude response during the encounter with the language (Bezooijen, 1994).

As indicated above, while Hong Kong secondary students’ attitude towards English is consistent in both components of affective and cognitive attitude, their attitude towards to Putonghua and Cantonese are different between affective and cognitive components, so it is necessary to examine the issue further to gain an insight into the complicated situation.

On further examination, the results in Stage 3 (Chapter Four, section 4.5) of the analysis showed that the degree of correlation between affective and cognitive attitudes overall is only 0.094, which is very far from 1. Furthermore, shared variance is only 0.9%. Thus, it can be inferred that affective and cognitive attitudes are not really related to each other at all in the mind of Hong Kong secondary school students, further lending support to a disconnect between affective and cognitive attitudes.

5.2.2 Conflict between factored affective and cognitive attitudes

Factor analysis was done by the present study on both the affective questionnaire and the cognitive questionnaire. The results confirm the known framework of *community* and *achievement* dimensions for both affective and cognitive attitude. Also revealed were the extra dimensions of *attractiveness* and *esteem*, which will be set aside for now and discussed later. The current focus is on comparing and relating the common *community* and *achievement* dimensions of affective and cognitive attitude. The findings suggest that there is inconsistency as well as consistency between affective and cognitive attitudes along these two common dimensions.

The conflict between overall affective and cognitive attitudes is seen to remain along the *community* dimension upon factor analysis into attitude dimensions. However, the affective/cognitive conflict does not occur along the *achievement* dimension. Indeed, the results for affective *community* did not show clear ranking among the languages, especially interestingly not between Cantonese and Putonghua, which will be the focus of further discussion since this is a focal change from the distinct structure with Putonghua lower than Cantonese on *community* dimensions in Lai's (2002) study.

On the other hand, looking at the cognitive component for *community*, the language ranking is quite distinctly Cantonese, English, and Putonghua in decreasing order. This was the same as Lai's (2002) study.

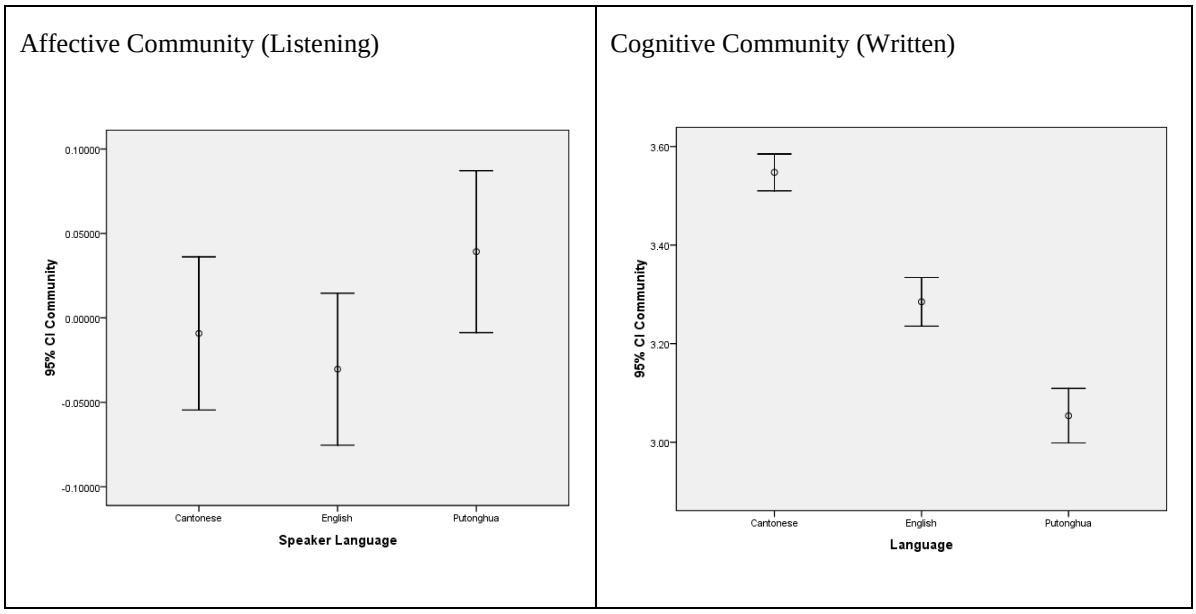


Fig.5.3 Differences between affective and cognitive attitudes in *Community*

Figure 5.3 shows that the dimension of *community* in the two components is almost totally different from each other. With relation to Putonghua and Cantonese, one may see that affective *community* is much more favourable to Putonghua than cognitive *community* attitudes would reveal.

In contrast, the *achievement* dimension indicates consistency between affective and cognitive components with the same ranking for English, Putonghua, and Cantonese in decreasing order. This is again different from the conclusion of Lai (2002), which indicated the order at that time to be English, Cantonese, and Putonghua.

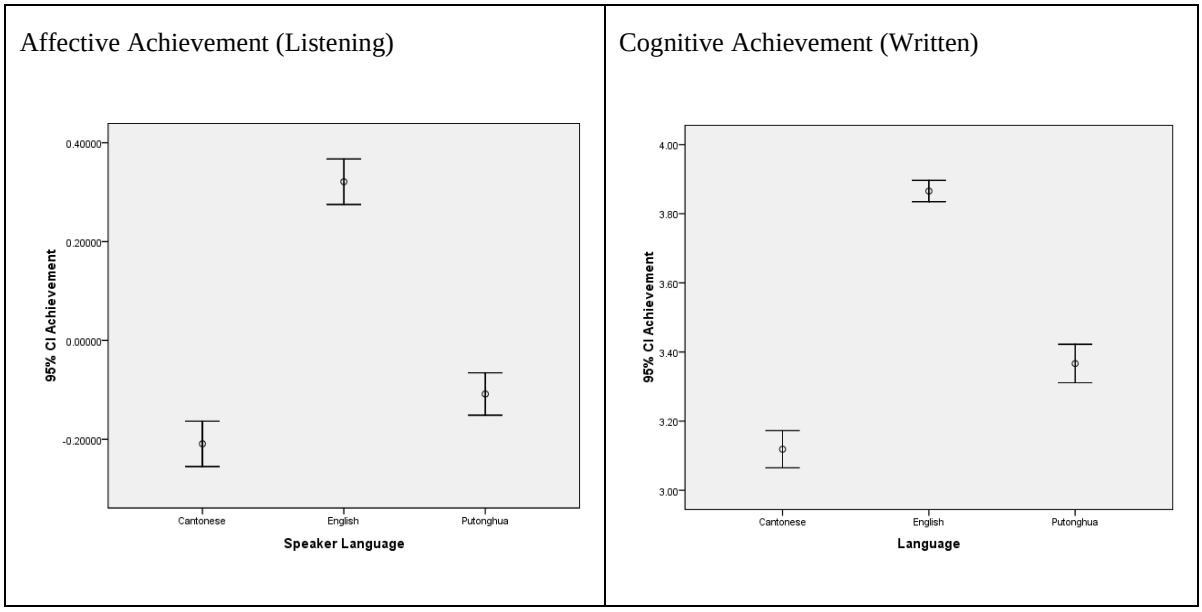


Fig.5.4 Differences between affective and cognitive attitudes in *Achievement*

Figure 5.4 shows that the ranking orders for three languages are very similar in the graph for affective achievement and cognitive achievement. Putonghua has been evaluated consistently on the *achievement* dimension and Putonghua follows English but is ranked higher than Cantonese.

Thus, the examination revealed that there is no conflict between affective and cognitive components for *achievement*, but a good amount of disagreement between affective and cognitive components for *community*. Therefore, it can be understood that conflict in the *community* dimension is mainly causing the conflict between differences in overall affective and cognitive attitudes.

In fact, it was shown further via correlations that not only can affective and cognitive dimensions disagree, but they are not even much related to each other. The listening and

written questionnaires provide different measures of attitude not only overall, but also along the dimensions (even for *achievement*, where affective and cognitive attitudes agree).

Further analysis on the relationship between affective and cognitive attitudes was conducted through the in-depth correlation analysis seen in Stage 3 of this study.

Correlations between the affective and cognitive attitudes separated by attitude dimension and language are summarized below from Chapter Four:

Table 5.1 Correlations between the affective and cognitive attitudes by attitude dimension and language

Affective/Cognitive Correlations	Cantonese	English	Putonghua
Community	.043* (shared variance: 0.2%)	-.049** (shared variance: 0.2%)	.100** (shared variance: 1.0%)
Achievement	.043* (shared variance: 0.2%)	.034 (shared variance: 0.1%)	.092*** (shared variance: 0.8%)

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

The results indicate that the only statistically significant correlations (at $p < .05$) were English *community* at .049, Putonghua *community* at .100, and Putonghua *achievement* at .092. None of these correlations are high, though, and the shared variance has always been less than 1%. It is then possible to infer that, in general, affective and cognitive attitudes are not related very much, if at all, for any of the languages and for either of the attitude dimensions. The highest degrees of correlation were Putonghua community

at .100 and Putonghua achievement at .092. This suggests that for the languages, if anything, Putonghua shows the highest consistency between cognitive and affective measures. Even so, it is only a very small relationship.

This is evidence that the different affective and cognitive language rankings overall are not the result of population differences in attitudes, but rather that the affective and cognitive attitudes of individual students are different from each other. Thus, even in the minds of the same student, affective and cognitive attitudes do not appear to have a strong tendency to agree.

This suggests that the cognitive and affective dimensions of the student attitudes toward language are indeed very separate measures and that language attitude studies need to examine them either separately or consider the implications of the potential conflict between the two components of attitude. This discussion will adopt the latter approach after first comparing the results with some previous studies.

5.2.3 Comparison with previous studies in Hong Kong with Putonghua

This study discovered an affective/cognitive conflict in language attitude with special regard to Putonghua and Cantonese. For ease of exposition henceforth, the focus of discussion should be on this conflict with relation to Putonghua and Cantonese, as it is the most prominent. Furthermore, although the ranking of affective *community* is ambiguous between Putonghua and Cantonese from the results of the study by statistical significance, a debate may be made as if Putonghua is ranked higher than Cantonese on affective *community* as the relevant points may be clearer to express. The arguments rest on the fact that Putonghua is not lower than Cantonese on affective *community* but certainly lower than Cantonese on cognitive *community.*

Results from the data of this study has shown that overall affective attitude to Putonghua is ranked higher than overall affective attitude to Cantonese. Furthermore, affective *community* attitude to Putonghua is comparable to Cantonese (henceforth sometimes considered Putonghua to be higher for sake of argument because the results show this despite a lack of statistical significance) but cognitive *community* attitude to Putonghua is lower than Cantonese. In relation to previous studies in Hong Kong, this shows an attitude change among secondary school students.

As this study does not make longitudinal measurements, comparing the results of this study to previous studies is required for the relevant facts in judging possible change of attitude. Only one of the studies – Lai (2002) – provides some comparability in terms of research items, objectives, and target population. As reviewed in Chapter Two, in Lai's (2002) study of secondary school students' attitude conducted in 2000, Putonghua was ranked lower than Cantonese on both affective and cognitive components of attitude. With this reference, it can be seen that affective attitude towards Putonghua has changed from being lower than Cantonese to now being higher than Cantonese. Yet at the same time cognitive attitudes towards Putonghua remain lower than Cantonese, similar to Lai's investigation in 2000, three years after the 1997 the change of sovereignty in Hong Kong.

Focusing on the specific case under study, an interpretation may be made that the discrepancy of the result in Hong Kong as either that affective attitudes to Putonghua have changed faster than cognitive attitudes to Putonghua or that affective attitudes are more easily changed than cognitive attitudes.

Some further studies involving Putonghua in Hong Kong in light of the more specific result can be taken into account that it appears to be the *community* dimension that is

causing conflict. The previous evidence is mixed on whether Putonghua is more closely associated with *community* or with *achievement.*

Evidence of the complicated nature with respect to Putonghua was already seen as early as Pierson (1992), which stated "One can only speculate that these Cantonese-speaking subjects are affirming their Chinese ethnic identity through the mediation of Putonghua, at the temporary expense of their true mother tongue, Cantonese" (p. 195). Thus, as early as 1992, the role of Putonghua as a symbol of Chinese identity and *community* was at least apparent. Meanwhile, the results of Evans *et al*. (1998) emphasized the *achievement* aspect of Putonghua in 1998. It indicates English and Putonghua will enjoy equal status as 'high' languages (more discussion in section 5.3.4 below).

Whether Putonghua was associated with *community* or with *achievement*, these early studies have generally implied that Putonghua was expected to increase in status along either dimension. But the implications of these earlier studies were somewhat disputed by Lai (2002), which saw attitudes regarding Putonghua being regarded as lowly ranked on both *community* as well as *achievement* dimensions.

The current study has indicated that attitudes have changed since Lai (2002), and potentially came to agree with the earlier studies. However, it also highlights the current situation of the affective/cognitive conflict along the *community* dimension. This may either be an intermediate step of attitude change or a complicated destination in the language interactions of polyglossic Hong Kong. Some more discussion of these issues follow.

5.3 Attitude Change

The conflict between affective and cognitive components should be discussed further for getting in-depth view to the phenomena appeared in this study.

5.3.1 Cognitive dissonance

This study discovered an affective/cognitive conflict in language attitude along the *community* dimension, most notably with regard to Putonghua and Cantonese.

Change and conflict between components of attitude can be reviewed and explained from different ways or perspectives. One of the possible explanations, perhaps the "simplest" one, for the change and conflict between components of attitude is to say that the individuals are currently "ambivalent" towards the issue at hand. This may mean either that the individual does not have a firm opinion or that the individual does not care. In either case, this view is inconsistent with the case of language attitude in Hong Kong, because in the past, individuals did apparently care, as evidenced in the previous studies. Furthermore, the ambivalence explanation unfortunately sheds no light on the change or conflict nature of attitude, only implying that the attitude change or conflict is irrelevant.

Another possible explanation for such revealed conflict may be more pragmatic. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), for example, focus on pragmatics and a "theory of reasoned action" as a possible explanation of incongruently observed responses. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) explains that an environment of competing priorities, time constraints, and other pragmatic factors allow for such incongruent displays of cognition, affectation, and behavior. That is, subjects may be considering other context-specific issues and not be too concerned with internal consistency when asked to respond to

attitude studies such as this one.

In the case of students in Hong Kong, the most prominent social and language context is the dramatic change in the official status of Putonghua. One immediate consequence of a context-specific consideration is the need to be, in some sense, politically correct in the attitude treatment of Putonghua and the influx of Putonghua speakers into Hong Kong. Indeed, students living in Hong Kong are now under much more social interaction with Putonghua speakers, and there is the view of attitude as "socially-structured and socially-structuring phenomena" (Garrett *et al*, 2003: 4-5). Under the current context of Hong Kong, where interaction with Putonghua speakers is necessary, it is thus desirable to elevate the status of Putonghua.

This societal context-specific explanation of the inconsistency, however, does create some implausibility with respect to the results of this study. If students were consciously trying to consider the context of Hong Kong when responding to attitude studies, then the more likely situation would be an elevation of Putonghua in the cognitive portion of the study, not the affective portion. Yet the results show the reverse. Thus, one may be likely to reason that, indeed, there exists a dissonance in the minds of Hong Kong students with respect to the status of Putonghua in relation to Cantonese.

A more appropriate concept to consider the conflict outlined in this study is the theory of "cognitive dissonance" outlined by Festinger (1957. See Cooper & Fazio, 1984, for a review). Cognitive dissonance occurs when the three components of attitude – affective, cognitive, and behavioral – are not consistent with each other, as is the current case in Hong Kong. Festinger (1957) views such "dissonance" as a driving force between cognitive, affective, and behavioral alignment. That is, people make effort to change one of the three aspects to be in harmony with the other two.

This theory of dissonance is based on simply facts observed in everyday life. For example, a person may know that smoking is bad for him and yet continue to smoke, causing a cognitive/behavioral conflict that oftentimes causes the smoker to attempt to stop smoking. A person may think a particular ethnic group is just as good as his own group but would not want any of the other group living in his neighbourhood. Or someone may think little children should be quiet and unobtrusive and yet may be quite proud when his child aggressively captures the attention of his adult guests. When such inconsistencies are found to exist, they may be quite dramatic, but they capture our interest primarily because they stand out in sharp contrast against a background of consistency and such inconsistency is often accompanied by societal disapproval such as hypocrisy or personal distress in those who harbor such inconsistencies.

The theory of cognitive dissonance believes that the existence of such dissonance is "psychologically uncomfortable", therefore, a person in dissonance will try to reduce the "dissonance" and achieve "consonance": "It has frequently been implied, and sometimes even pointed out, that the individual strives toward consistency within himself. His opinions and attitudes, for example, tend to exist in clusters that are internally consistent" (Festinger, 1957: 1).

Rosenberg (1960, 1968) argues that attitudes characterized by low affective-cognitive (structural) consistency are likely to be unstable, because once the inconsistency is salient, the affective and/or cognitive components may be changed to bring about greater consistency, and such changes result in instability of both components in those attitudes which show initially low structural consistency. This hypothesis has been further supported by some empirical studies (e.g. Norman, 1975). According to this perspective, the conflict or inconsistency between affective and cognitive attitudes to Putonghua and Cantonese is unstable, and further changes would occur until greater

consistency is reached.

Applying the cognitive dissonance concept to the current affective/cognitive conflict, one would posit that such lack of alignment causes efforts to actively align the differences. If one were to take such a view, one may interpret that student language attitudes in Hong Kong are currently in active disagreement over Cantonese and Putonghua that has yet to consolidate appropriately. The relationship between Cantonese and Putonghua is currently in affective and cognitive discord, and thus calling for change to align.

Some researchers think that, essentially, Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance is a "process model" for attitude change, which can be shown by Figure 5.5 below:

A	→	B	→	C	→	D
Inconsistency		Dissonance Created		Reduction Strategy Implemented		Dissonance Alleviated

Fig. 5.5 Schematic of Festinger's process model of dissonance (Devine *et al*, 1999: 298)

In Festinger's model, inconsistency (A) leads to dissonance (B), an uncomfortable psychological tension and arousal state that the person will be motivated to reduce. According to the model, the motivational properties of dissonance will lead to a dissonance-reduction strategy (C), which, if effective, will alleviate dissonance (D) (Devine, Tauer, Barron, Elliot & Vance, 1999). According to this model, Hong Kong secondary school students' attitudes to Putonghua and Cantonese now appear to step on point B in the process, because dissonance for their attitudes between Putonghua and Cantonese is creating discomfort. According to this model, one may believe that changes in attitude are to continue in the future and the conflict between Putonghua and Cantonese is expected to be actively reduced into a more stable and coherent relation.

5.3.2 Speed of language attitude change

The results of this study imply a possible difference in the speed of change of different components and dimensions of attitudes. As reflections on that, the current study reveals that, relative to Lai (2002), change has taken place in the *achievement* dimension for both affective and cognitive components, and Putonghua now occupies the second place behind English. This appears to be a synchronous change in the status of Putonghua in the *achievement* dimension for both affective and cognitive components without dissonances or conflict, and at a faster pace than the *community* dimension.

However, the affective/cognitive conflict with respect to the *community* dimension implies that affective *community* attitudes have changed whereas cognitive *community* attitudes have not, suggesting that cognitive *community* attitudes may be slowest to change in Hong Kong, even though the corresponding affective *community* attitudes are already changing and are currently no longer distinct with Cantonese.

By the cognitive dissonance theory, the *community* dimension is under pressure for resolution. But first, an even more pressing question is why affective *community* attitudes have changed before cognitive *community* attitudes with regards to Putonghua and Cantonese.

To argue the reason why affective attitude can be changed while cognitive can remain unchanged, some views from social psychology may be helpful for seeking answers. Some researches (for example, Damasio, 1994) from an evolutionary perspective suggest that affect might be more important than cognition as a determinant of most behaviors. If the environment had been constant in our evolutionary history, a set of fixed action patterns could have evolved that would have allowed us to respond

appropriately to stimuli in our environment, and the ability to adapt to changing environments would not have provided a survival and reproductive advantage. However, previous environments were not constant and thus the ability to adapt to change within an organism's lifetime did provide such an advantage. Affective feelings provide meaning to stimuli, which in turn aids in learning through human socialization. Affect functions as an amplification device that increases the speed with which learning can take place and also decreases the amount of time necessary for adaptation. From this perspective, it can be believed that affective attitude change is more progressive than cognitive attitude, particularly in a changing society like Hong Kong.

When applied to the situation of post-colonial Hong Kong, one could posit that affective attitude change is a mechanism in response to the rapidly changing social and political environment of post-colonial Hong Kong, especially as Putonghua speakers are becoming increasingly integrated into Hong Kong society. Such changing environments create an adaptive need that is first reflected in affective changes.

5.3.3 Course of potential language attitude change

With the reference to cognitive dissonance theories, further changes in language attitude change in Hong Kong may be expected and the path of language attitude change may be constructed.

The findings of the present study can be a basis for modelling language attitude changes in post-colonial Hong Kong for secondary school students, and perhaps slightly more generally as well. Because the affective component of attitude can be more sensitive to the changed environment than the cognitive component can be, changes in affective and cognitive attitudes may not occur synchronically, thus creating dissonance.

The higher sensitivity of affective attitudes to change may then suggest that affective attitudes lead cognitive attitudes, and it is plausible that such a situation is what this study has picked up. Because the existence of conflict or dissonance brings psychological discomfort to the attitude holder, one can expect effort, perhaps unconsciously, to reduce the dissonance and that the components of attitude will change to be in agreement with each other as time goes on. Within this theoretical framework, a model for language attitude change for a new language entering a multilingual society such as Hong Kong can be described in Figure 5.6 below:

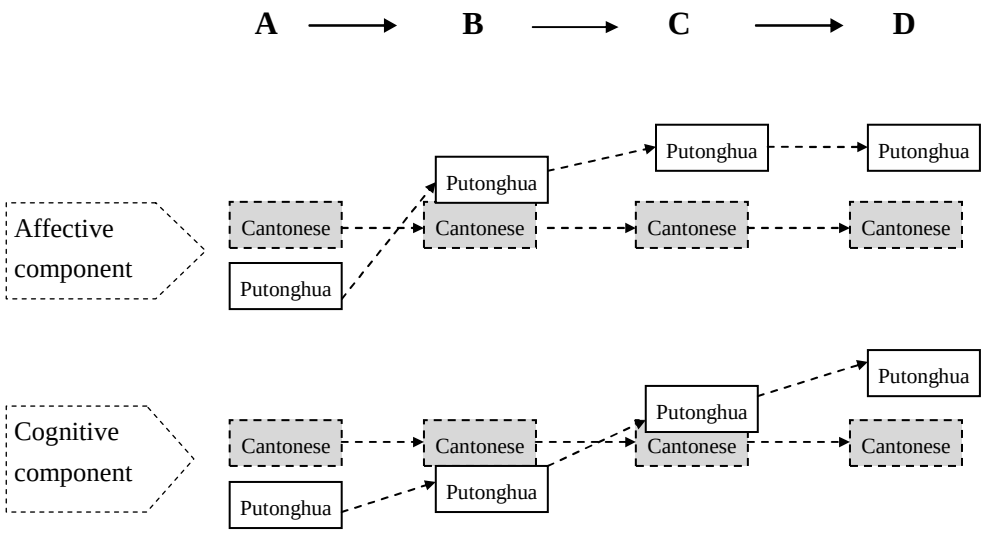


Fig.5.6 Process of affective and cognitive attitudes change toward Putonghua (in relation to Cantonese)

Figure 5.6 above draws the process of attitude change towards Putonghua versus Cantonese in the two attitude components of affect and cognition. Since the relationship is relative, Figure 5.6 treats Cantonese as a non-dynamic reference to compare the attitude change with regards to Putonghua. As can be seen, at stage A, when Putonghua initially enters the society of Hong Kong, it occupies a lower position than Cantonese in both components of affective and cognitive attitudes. However, as the time goes on, affective attitude for Putonghua gradually grows up to stage B where the position of

Putonghua is higher than Cantonese in affective attitudes due to the higher sensitivity of dealing with Putonghua in society, but Putonghua is still lower than Cantonese on cognitive attitudes. At this point, there is cognitive dissonance and an effort to align cognitive and affective attitudes.

The reconciliation process of cognitive dissonance will then urge the two components of attitudes to meet. However, one could accomplish such alignment by having the affective attitude of Putonghua fall relative to Cantonese instead of having the cognitive attitude of Putonghua rise relative to Cantonese. The latter is argued to be the case.

The reason for the prediction of this combination is due to the changed socio-political environment of Hong Kong that forces adaptation and subsequent affective attitude change favouring Putonghua in post-colonial Hong Kong. Indeed, “attitude change in a language context has a strong political dimension” (Baker, 1992: 97). As stated in Chapters One, after about eleven years of Chinese rule, Hong Kong has closer relationship with Mainland China than ever before. More contact with Mainland Chinese people also make the common speech or standard language, Putonghua, more popularly used in the Hong Kong community. Putonghua even has been become a standard curriculum entry in primary and secondary schools. All these changes may be powerful sources of change for secondary students’ attitudes towards Putonghua, and the need to adapt has caused, and will likely maintain, affective attitude elevation for Putonghua.

Thus, the changed environment requiring Putonghua keeps affective attitudes above Cantonese so that cognitive attitudes shift to align with affective attitude. Along with time, then, it is expected that stages C and D will see Putonghua ranked higher than Cantonese on cognitive attitudes as well.

Stage B is the sensitive stage at which affective and cognitive attitudes oppose each other. It is the stage the current study is picking up in Hong Kong. If there is no intervention, the cognitive ranking of Putonghua should be moving higher relative to Cantonese. As a slight extension, a more explicit and potentially quantitative (as opposed to relative) representation of this course of events is depicted in Fig. 5.7 below, where the relation of Putonghua to Cantonese is not emphasized as much:

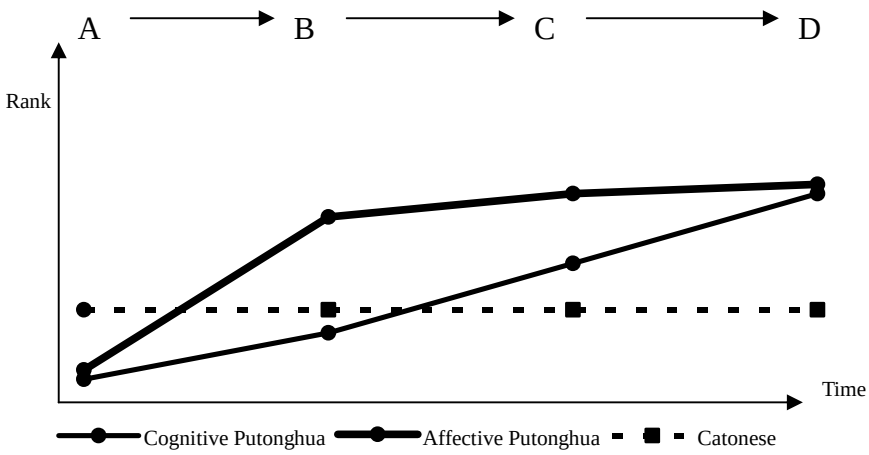


Fig.5.7 Process of affective and cognitive attitudes change toward Putonghua

From this slightly more general perspective, which this study is not able to quantify due to the relative nature of the data collected, the triangle between points A and B in the graph implies the degree of cognitive dissonance. Its area is related to the degree of difference between affective and cognitive attitudes at point B. The conflict is high when the perpendicular distance between the lines of cognitive and affective is increased, whereas the conflict is low when their distance is reduced. At the point where the two lines (affective and cogitative) combine at point D, the conflict has been resolved.

There is some slight evidence of this posited course of language attitude change, where cognitive attitude is changing with affective attitude with regards to Putonghua, from this study. The highest and statistically significant correlations between affective and cognitive *community* components of attitude were found for Putonghua at 0.1 with shared variance of 1%. This is low, but considering that English or Cantonese only had corresponding correlations of 0.049 and 0.043 both with shared variance of 0.2%, the result for Putonghua is high, at least providing some hint that the cognitive and affective attitudes have some tendency to be moving together, in line with the process suggested.

In sum, the attitudes measured in this study have suggested change from previously. Furthermore, attitudes right now show areas of conflict with regards to Putonghua. A proposed process of attitude change is argued and the expectations are that the attitudes of secondary students of Hong Kong towards Putonghua will increase gradually in the future, most notably along the *community* dimension of cognitive attitude to achieve consistency with affective attitude. The final position is expected to have Putonghua higher than Cantonese.

The changes with regards to Putonghua versus Cantonese place the linguistic situation in Hong Kong in a highly unique situation with respect to the expected final, stable, state of the linguistic landscape in Hong Kong.

5.3.4 Polyglossia in Hong Kong

Polyglossia refers to the state of languages in a multilingual society. The theory of diglossia, where only two languages co-exist, is quite established as reviewed in Chapter Two. The general framework is that a diglossic society is stable with two languages, one occupying a "High" status that is more aligned with *achievement* attitudes and the other occupying a "Low" status that is more aligned with *community* attitudes. The triglossic linguistic society is much more difficult to understand, and in the case of Hong Kong, it is difficult to determine which language, Putonghua or Cantonese, will occupy the "Lowest" of the states.

Chapter Two reviewed Evans *et al* (1998) which stated: "Our respondents believe that English and Putonghua will enjoy equal status as 'high' languages of business and the professions, with English oriented towards the international community and Putonghua towards China" (pp. 396-397). However, the conflict found by the present study shown in Putonghua along the affective community and cognitive community rankings suggest that Putonghua is becoming the new "Low" language of Hong Kong. Yet at the same time, the consistency of the achievement rankings suggests that Putonghua is seen more as a "High" language with respect to Cantonese. This situation of triglossia may be similar to the framework of Abdulaziz-Mkilifi (1972), in which Cantonese would be the language of personal communication, Putonghua would be the language of government and education, and English would be the world language used to deal with the international world. However, although this framework appears suitable to Hong Kong, such a framework would place Cantonese as highest on community, which is only true in Hong Kong on cognitive attitudes and not on affective attitudes. One may conclude that the situation in Hong Kong at the time of this study is in the middle of change and the final stable language landscape in Hong Kong remains yet to be determined.

However, it is feasible to believe that Putonghua will increase further in language attitude, as Hong Kong people will not ignore the notable fact that:

> As China continues with its rapid economic development, expands its share of world trade, and hones its diplomatic prowess, the value of the Chinese language likewise increases. Today, Chinese is more than just the language associated with the country's 5,000-year civilization and oriental philosophical thought; it is also a fast-developing commercial *lingua franca* in the Pacific basin. Its practical value has surpassed that of French, German, and even Japanese in much of the world and its future opportunities seem limitless. (Ding & Saunders, 2006: 19)

It is already evidenced by this study that the language attitudes of secondary students towards Putonghua have undergone a corresponding change in the past years, along with the rapid growth of China as a force on the global stage in recent decades as a growing economic and cultural influence.

However, since both the theory and evidence of how a stable triglossic state structure looks like are somewhat lacking, one may believe that the final result of the linguistic shift in Hong Kong is yet to be seen. In fact, the final structure of the triglossic state of Hong Kong may require the deeper analysis of more than the two dimensions of *achievement* and *community,* as the next major section will discuss.

5.4 Dimensions of attitudes

As reviewed in Chapter Two, the content of language attitudes themselves – cognitive, affective, and behavioural – may be further divided into dimensions.

Past studies, especially with regards to the MGT, have generally found two main dimensions of language attitude: one is usually referred to as the *solidarity* or *integrative* dimension (referred to in this study as *community)*, and the other is usually referred to as the *status* or *instrumental* dimension (referred to in this study as achievement). The result came in large part from the French and English studies by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Gardner (1985).

As stated in Chapter Four, section 4.3.2, the current study, however, uses two new terms of *community* and *achievement* instead of the traditional *integrative* and *instrumental.* In addition, the substances involved in the two new terms used by this study would not necessarily precisely correspond to the traditional ones, because both the context and the foci of this present study, which aims to reveal the general language attitudes of secondary students in the context of post-colonial Hong Kong, are quite different from Gardner and Lambert (1972) or Gardner (1985), which emphasized the social psychological processes of second language learning in the English-French bilingual context of Canada three decades ago.

The current study confirmed the existence of these two dimensions in the Hong Kong case and these two known dimensions apply to both affective and cognitive attitude components. More significantly, two more extra dimensions, as compared to Gardner's model – *attractiveness* for affective attitude and *esteem* for cognitive attitude – were found in secondary students of Hong Kong. These findings suggest that the linguistic situation in Hong Kong may be more varied than the bi-dimensional model.

This section discusses some of the dimensional findings of attitude from the current study.

5.4.1 Attractiveness as an extra dimension to affective attitude

The statistical factor analysis on affective attitudes indicated a third distinct dimension of affective attitude in Hong Kong – *Attractiveness*. The existence of this third *attractiveness* dimension in this study suggests a tri-dimensional structure of affective attitudes in Hong Kong, a departure from the more conventional bi-dimensional structure of language attitudes along the lines of *community* and *achievement*, which this study also supported.

This kind of third dimension of attitude has been seen before (e,g, Lambert *et al.*, 1966, Mulac *et al* 1974, Zahn & Hopper 1985), but has not appeared in as many studies as the two dimensions of affective attitude, and its definition is not always so distinct. Dimensions analogous to *attractiveness* specifically have also been seen before. For example, Lambert and his associates (e.g. Lambert, *et al.*, 1969; Lambert *et al.*, 1966; Tucker & Lambert, 1969) measured language attitudes using 14 or 15 items and included speakers' physical and personality traits, e.g. *height, good looks, intelligence, kindness*, and *likeability*. Each item was analyzed singly, and the items were broadly grouped into three categories of *personal integrity*, *personal competence* and *social attractiveness*.

Lambert *et al.* (1966) grouped items such as *amusing, pleasant, friendly, interesting, good disposition* and *good looking* into *social attractiveness*. However, Lambert *et al.* (1966) provided this dimension without empirical support. Later, by way of factor analysis, Zahn and Hopper (1985) would also find three dimensions for their 30 items,

and labelled them *superiority, attractiveness,* and *dynamism.* The current study can be seen as further empirical support for a tri-dimensional structure of language attitudes.

The *attractiveness* dimension of Zahn and Hopper (1985) was quite broad when compared to the dimensions of Lambert *et al.* (1966) and "displays elements of factors previously termed social attractiveness, solidarity, trustworthiness, character, benevolence, likeability, and aesthetic quality" (Zahn & Hopper, 1985: 119). The *attractiveness* dimension in Zahn and Hopper (1985) included both personally as well as societally desirable items, and, maybe just because of this, was somewhat difficult to reconcile with other studies. For example, item *kindness* belonged to the *personal integrity* dimension for Lambert *et al.* (1966) and the *community* dimension in this present study.

The three dimensions in this study mirror those of Lambert *et al*. (1966), which were the categories of *personal integrity, personal competence* and *social attractiveness.* The items presented in the dimensions of this study are similar to the items in Lambert *et al.'*s (1966) proposed dimensions, but this study named the dimensions differently. The third dimension of *attractiveness* in this present study was most correlated with original responses to *open-mindedness, comeliness, likeability,* and *charisma*, all arguably more applicable as an *attractiveness* dimension.

Because the procedure for MGT is built on the assumption that speech triggers certain social categorizations that will lead to a set of group-related trait-inferences (Giles & Billings, 2004), this study interprets the three dimensions without the term *personal* as used by Lambert *et al*. (1966) and also considers *social attractiveness* to mean personal attractiveness based on the items grouped under the dimension. This study also used

community to replace *integrity* to emphasize the more societal (group-related) rather than personal trait of the items in that dimension.

A major implication of the presence of this *attractiveness* dimension in Hong Kong is that it should be emphasized and considered in studying language attitudes in Hong Kong in the future. Further cognitive questionnaires should include an *attractiveness* dimension for comparison with affective questionnaires. This study did not include this dimension in the cognitive questionnaire because its presence was not expected.

5.4.2 Esteem as an extra dimension to cognitive attitude

The cognitive questionnaire yielded a dimension that was distinct from cognitive community and cognitive achievement – *Esteem*. This is a distinct dimension that involves cognitive attitudes of how highly a language is regarded by others in society. The fact that responses to questions like this are different from responses to *community* and *achievement* questions related to the student personally suggests further investigation of attitudes along this dimension as well.

Previous studies have not emphasized the investigation of how students think *other people in society* regard a language, and Lai (2002) did not group this item as a separate dimension. The fact that the *esteem* dimension is present and distinct from *community* or *achievement* dimensions of language attitude is a finding that deserves further study. Further affective questionnaires may include this dimension for comparison with cognitive questionnaires, or further cognitive questionnaires may include more items related to this dimension. This study did not attempt to include this dimension in the affective questionnaire, because it was not expected and was not mentioned in previous literature.

5.4.3 Dimension structure of implicit cognitive beliefs

The implicit cognitive questionnaire (Section II on the written questionnaire) was included as part of the study, and yielded some findings also. The section was designed to elicit cognitive beliefs on matters of more practical relevance. The items included in this section were meant to be statements that were believed to be possibly held by the students.

The implicit cognitive questions on the questionnaire did not reveal the common dimensions of *community* and *achievement* at all through statistical factor analysis. These questions are related to various policy beliefs, stereotypes, and other cognitive ideas. In some sense, these are the types of questions that are most relevant in measuring public attitudes towards policies and other real-life issues. The responses to these questions revealed dimensions of *Cantonese affinity*, *English affinity*, *Putonghua affinity*, and *language stereotype*.

The dimensions of the implicit questions suggest that although students hold cognitive beliefs that match the *community* and *achievement* framework when comparing different languages explicitly, their cognitive beliefs about language policy and about different language communities are instead more driven by the language involved itself and the extra dimension of *language stereotype*.

Thus for example, although there may be different cognitive attitude dimensions of *community* and *achievement* with respect to Putonghua, responses to policy statements like "*In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be the main language to teach secondary schools*" do not reveal separate *community* and *achievement* cognitive considerations. Instead, responses to those questions are just driven by a single Putonghua dimension.

The cognitive *language stereotype* dimension is unexpected. It is a distinct cognitive dimension that appears to represent both positive and negative views of any language. In this study, it combined positive and negative views of English speakers as well as negative views of Putonghua speakers. There were not enough statements to determine the full characteristics of this dimension, and future studies deserve to analyse this cognitive dimension further. It would appear that when responding to cognitive issues in more pragmatic contexts, such as perhaps policy surveys of the type "*Should Putonghua be used to teach Chinese in secondary schools?*", students apparently respond according to just the relevance of the language at hand unless a stereotype-laden question is presented, in which case a *stereotype* dimension comes into play. This contributes to the debate of whether public opinion on matters such as language policy can truly be said to be reflective of underlying cognitive attitudes towards language.

Incorporating the findings from the implicit cognitive questions in Part Two, the dimension structure of cognitive attitude could be decorated as Fig. 5.8 below:

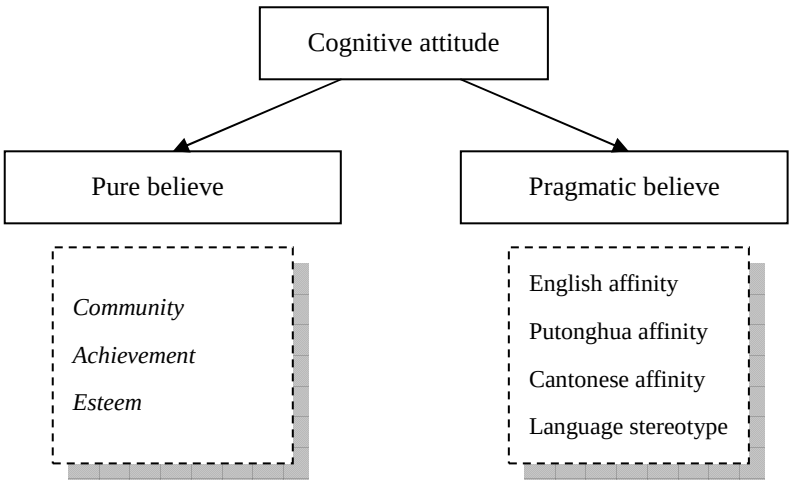


Fig. 5.8 Dimension structure of cognitive attitudes

Thus, apparently, cognitive responses depend on whether a pure attitude is being elicited or whether a matter of language pragmatic issue is being elicited. The dimensions of the responses will differ. The findings of this portion contributes to the theoretical framework of cognitive language attitude and is further indication of the complexities of language attitude.

5.5 Background factors

The final section of the study examined associations between the different language attitude measures towards different languages and background factors of the students (and the speaker gender in the case of the MGT). The results are exploratory and point to more directions for analysis than the current study could allow. Some more prominent themes did emerge and will be discussed in this section.

Three categories of background factors have been of prominent interest from previous literature on student language attitudes (see Chapter Two, section 2.2). The first category included factors related to individuality such as gender and self-identity. The second category included factors related to society such as school. The third group included factors related to the home such as economic class, home language, parental education, and so on. These factors were all subjected to treatment on the data collected in this study.

Some of these background factors of students - gender, self-identity, school and home - were found by this study to be associated with different student language attitudes in different dimensions and for different languages. The associations are not straightforward and the discussion to follow indicates only some of the general themes of possible association that the regression data do statistically support in terms of significance and direction of effect. Further analysis and discussion in detail into each

of the background factors would require almost separate studies in themselves, but a complete lack of mention of background effects would have not done justice to the valuable data collected. In this section, the background factors are divided roughly and subjectively into two categories for purely organizational, as opposed to theoretical, purposes: social-related factors and home-related factors. This section is going to discuss the results from the statistics one by one to see what possible associations may be latent in the students' attitude to the languages and attitude constructs under investigation.

5.5.1 Social-related factors

Gender

The gender issue includes speaker gender and student (evaluator) gender. The speaker gender was only relevant in the listening portion and has no equivalent on the written portion in this study. So only the affective effect can be analysed. The following table indicates whether the speaker being male as opposed to female elicited a higher or lower attitude rating from the evaluators based on the dimensions of affective attitudes for each language.

Table 5.2 Speaker gender effects

		Affective Attitudes (Speaker male as opposed to female)
Community	Cantonese	Higher
	English	Lower
	Putonghua	Lower
Achievement	Cantonese	Higher
	English	Higher
	Putonghua	Higher
Attractiveness	Cantonese	Lower
	English	Lower
	Putonghua	Lower

The speaker gender effect, as Lambert (1967) had concluded in Canada, was that females speaking French were preferred and male speaking English were preferred. This result is surprisingly echoed in the case of Hong Kong if we consider that English to be the most common language in Canada and Cantonese to be the most common language in the equivalent Hong Kong context. In Hong Kong, males speaking Cantonese were shown to be preferable to females speaking Cantonese and females speaking English or Putonghua were preferable to males speaking English or Putonghua. Thus men speaking the common language are preferred.

This does, however, present an inconsistency in terms of diglossia. In Canada, English is best considered the High language and French the Low language. Thus, the results

from Lambert (1967) would be that men speaking High languages were preferred whereas women speaking Low languages were preferred.

In the Hong Kong case, English (and maybe Putonghua) is considered the High language whereas Cantonese the Low language. In this case, the preferences would be reversed in the context of High and Low languages.

After decomposing affective language ratings into *community*, *achievement*, and *attractiveness*, the effect of speaker gender is even more pronounced.

From the regressions, a male speaker increases attitude responses toward *achievement* and decreases attitude responses toward *attractiveness* for all languages. However, a male speaker increases *community* attitude responses for Cantonese but decreases *community* attitude responses for English or Putonghua.

This fits in with the view that gender effects are closely linked to *community* aspects, but in the Hong Kong case, it is the male speakers that are rated more for *community* than females for Cantonese, the local language. In contrast, the High language of English (and maybe Putonghua) shows female speakers to be the better embodiment of community.

This finding may represent the different roles and attitudes toward gender in Hong Kong society, in which Cantonese male speakers are seen as more the embodiment of the local Cantonese speech community.

In terms of the student gender – that is, the gender effects of the student – one can compare the effects for both the affective and cognitive components, as it is relevant for both the listening and the written portions of the study. The table summarizing results is shown below.

Table 5.3 Student gender effects

		Affective Attitudes (Student male as opposed to female)	Cognitive Attitudes (Student male as opposed to female)
Community	Cantonese	Lower	No effect
	English	No effect	Lower
	Putonghua	Lower	Lower
Achievement	Cantonese	No effect	No effect
	English	No effect	No effect
	Putonghua	No effect	Lower
Attractiveness	Cantonese	Higher	/
	English	No effect	/
	Putonghua	Higher	/
Esteem	Cantonese	/	Higher
	English	/	No effect
	Putonghua	/	Lower

Affectively, male students do not differ from female students on any attitude towards English. This is a contrast to some of the previous theory as described in Chapter Two that predict that females have higher attitudes to the High language in multilingual societies. In the case of Hong Kong, English is the High language, but student gender plays no role in any affective attitudes to English. This suggests an agreement between

males and females on the position of English in Hong Kong society that is not related to sociological gender roles in Hong Kong with respect to English.

Further evidence of gender agreement is the lack of affective student gender effects on *achievement* for any language. The male and female students agree on the *achievement* attitudes to all languages in Hong Kong, at least on the affective component of attitudes.

Affectively, females do have higher *community* attitudes towards both Putonghua and Cantonese. If one were to regard Putonghua and Cantonese as Low languages, this is in line with Sharp *et al* (1973) and the theory that females have more desire to be part of the local community that use Low languages, even though the embodiment of the local community is better represented by males as shown through speaker gender.

This also creates the inconsistency of how Putonghua is seen. From the speaker gender, effects on Putonghua are consistent with the High language English, but from listener gender, effects on Putonghua are more consistent with the Low language of Cantonese. This may be some evidence of the potential, yet still unknown, triglossic stable state of Hong Kong that is emerging.

Finally, male students have higher affective attitudes towards Putonghua and Cantonese on *attractiveness*, but not towards English on *attractiveness*. This sheds light on the nature of the *attractiveness* dimension, and is evidence that Putonghua may be more closely seen as a Low language with Cantonese rather than as a High language with English.

Cognitively, males have lower attitudes towards English and Putonghua on *community*, which is in agreement with the affective results. Cognitively, males also have lower attitudes towards Putonghua on *achievement*, a result not seen in the affective results.

Thus, the feelings (affective attitudes) of students are shown to be not always consistent with their beliefs (cognitive attitudes).

As for cognitive *esteem*, females have higher attitudes on Putonghua *esteem* but males have higher cognitive attitudes on Cantonese *esteem*. This is a unique pattern and sheds light on the cognitive *esteem* dimension, and is evidence that Putonghua may be seen differently than Cantonese. Thus, this may be evidence that Putonghua is not a Low language (but not necessarily a High language either).

Self-identity

Self-identity has an association on affective and cognitive *community* and *achievement*. The most consistent affective association is that self-identity of anything else besides Hong Konger increases attitudes towards Putonghua for both *community* and *achievement*. Thus, self-identity as part of Chinese is associated with an increase in affective attitudes towards Putonghua. Self-identity as Other also was associated with an increase in affective attitudes, but this result is harder to interpret as there was a variety of other possibilities.

The cognitive dimension shows that self-identity as Chinese is linked to increases in attitudes towards Putonghua for both *community* and *achievement*. Self-identity has no relation on affective *attractiveness* or cognitive *esteem*.

Self-identity as Both (Chinese and Hong Konger) does not have this relation. This suggests that self-identity as part of Hong Konger does not have an association with cognitive attitudes and only self-identity as Chinese and Chinese only has the link of increased cognitive attitudes towards Putonghua.

This result demonstrates that self-identity in Hong Kong is an important factor on Putonghua attitudes both cognitively and affectively for both *community* and *achievement*. This is comparable to the result of previous study conducted by Tong *et al.* (1999) that Hong Kong people with a strong Hongkonger identity were less inclined to accept and more inclined to avoid Mainland people (Putonghua speaker) and the Mainland culture relative to those with a strong Chinese identity.

School

A school is a complex dynamic institution which is constantly responding to the needs of its members and to the world outside its gates. Previous research has indicated a strong effect of schools on students. The effect on student language attitudes in particular is also documented. The present study also found some significant associations of school factors on students' language attitudes towards English, Cantonese, and Putonghua.

Affectively, students at higher band schools had higher attitudes towards Cantonese and English for *community*. This is evidence that the "social distance" argument does not hold in Hong Kong, because by "social distance", higher band schools would be linked to decreased attitudes to English. This suggests that the social class structure of Hong Kong does not divide between Cantonese and English as one low class and one high class.

Higher school band is further associated with increases in Cantonese *attractiveness* for affective attitudes and increases in English *achievement* for cognitive attitudes.

Going to an English MOI school is linked to an increase in affective *community* attitudes for both Cantonese and English, indicating a cross-language effect. Going to an English MOI school is also linked to an increase in cognitive *community* attitudes for

only English, but an increase in cognitive *achievement* attitudes for both English and Putonghua.

Thus, it can be seen that schools have associations on student language attitudes, but the results further indicate that the medium of instruction is linked to student attitudes on more than just the languages of instruction. However, in cases where it does have an association, English MOI does increase English attitudes as would be suspected.

5.5.2 Home related factors

Home related factors generally include social class, parental education, home language, birthplace, and time in Hong Kong. Below is discussion on relevant results yielded from data of this study.

Social class

For social class, it is generally believed that the concept of "social distance" causes students of high social class to have both higher *community* and *achievement* attitudes towards foreign languages (Trafford, 1997).

In this study, strangely, social class does not have associations with cognitive attitudes and have associations with affective attitudes in a more strange way. Higher social class is linked to increases in Cantonese *community* and has no association with the *community* dimension for English or Putonghua. The "social distance" argument would have predicted higher English and possibly Putonghua *community* attitudes. Furthermore, higher social class is linked to decreases in both Cantonese and English *achievement* attitudes and is not linked to Putonghua. The "social distance" argument would have predicted increases in English or possibly Putonghua attitudes on *achievement.*

These results are likely driven by the more integrated nature of languages in Hong Kong, such that there is less a distinct social class system about languages. English for example, as studies have already pointed out, is not seen as a coloniser language so much as a language for international commerce. Furthermore, English is accessible to all students, as is Putonghua, being offered at all public schools in Hong Kong. Thus, there is not as much of a practical divide between languages and different social classes in Hong Kong.

Parental Education

In terms of father education and mother education, the results are also not often associated. Students with higher mother education had lower affective *community* attitudes towards Putonghua. No other affective attitudes were associated with parental education.

Cognitively, students with higher mother education had higher cognitive *community* attitudes towards English and higher cognitive *esteem* attitudes towards Cantonese. Students with higher father education had lower cognitive *esteem* attitudes towards Cantonese.

Thus, parental education appears to be linked to cognitive attitudes more than to affective attitudes, and the association of education can sometimes be different for the father or mother.

Home Language

Home language has association with attitude constructs in only a few cases. Home language is linked to affective *community*, affective *achievement*, and cognitive *community*. The effects are mixed, but it is interesting to note that speaking a particular language at home has no association with attitudes the languages of the home but rather

an association, if one exists, on some other language. This suggests a more complicated relationship of attitudes between languages and the language used at home.

Birthplace

Birth in various places outside Hong Kong is mostly associated with the affective *community* and affective *achievement* attitudes. Only birth in Fujian is linked to a cognitive attitude – the cognitive *esteem* dimension for Cantonese. Thus, in general, the cognitive beliefs that students hold toward the three languages are not really related to where the students were born. The affective feelings are more often linked.

The actual results of being born outside Hong Kong are varied between the location and language concerned. However, the statistically significant results are all negative for any language and for any birthplace outside Hong Kong. Thus, where there is an association, Hong Kong-born students have higher attitudes towards any of the languages affectively.

Time in Hong Kong

Time in Hong Kong showed no association with any cognitive or affective attitude for any language, suggesting that attitudes are not associated with being in Hong Kong for a longer period of time if all the other background factors do not change. This can be an important concept for discussion of policies and applications as time in Hong Kong is not related to language attitudes.

This finding is clear that years in a particular social context, Hong Kong as the case, is not sufficient to account for most, if any, of the variance in attitudes. This shows that one cannot be lulled into believing that with the passage of time, attitude to languages could potentially change along with social development. The majority of the variance in

language attitude change is associated with factors other than years in the place where the relevant languages are located.

5.5.3 Implications of background factors on language attitude

As reviewed in Chapter Two, the general view is that home related factors, especially native language and socioeconomic class, play important roles in shaping young adults' attitudes towards languages. Language acquisition studies have shown that integrative attitudes toward a language are very important in language acquisition, so one may interpret attitudes of students who acquired languages to be related to integrative attitudes towards the language. Socioeconomic class affects students through "social distance" to different language groups that socioeconomic class allows students to be in contact with. The immigrant characteristics of students in Hong Kong are likely to affect student language attitude through socioeconomic class.

However, findings by this study suggest that, as compared with social related factors such as gender and school, home related factors have less association with students' language attitudes in the context of Hong Kong. The reason may be complex, but the suggestion is that, in Hong Kong, student language attitude could mainly be formed socially rather at home. However, the influence of parental language attitudes on children's language attitudes is likely to be considerable, but this study did not measure parental attitudes. So, to reconcile the theoretical importance of the home with the relative less importance shown in the study, this study may lend indirect support to Oskamp and Schultz (2005:190)'s argument that "a child's attitudes are largely shaped by his or her own experience with the world, but much of this experience consists of explicit teaching and implicit modelling of parental attitudes". Baker (1992), though, warns that believing in parental influence on children's language attitudes could be a

"danger" and that complicated interaction effects may be the ultimate factor in forming student language attitudes:

> That children tend to match, or be similar, to their parents, does not imply that one causes the other. A high correspondence may be due to effects of relations, neighbours, friends and school ……Some children grow up with opposite view to their parents. Such a reaction to parents could indeed demonstrate the effect of parental influence. (Baker, 1992: 109)

In general, it was seen that many more background characteristics were associated with affective *community* attitudes for the various languages than any other component or dimension of attitude for the different languages. This suggests that affective *community* may be the aspect of the situation in Hong Kong undergoing the most change, as it is subject to the most links with background factors. Furthermore, findings of this study indicate that home related factors, e.g. social class, time in Hong Kong, birthplace, home language, and parental education, just were prominent in a few cases, but not in many. Thus it is again affective *community* that could be the point of serious issue in language attitudes in the context of Hong Kong.

5.6 Summary

Overall, it is seen that the cognitive and affective portions of the study do not agree with each other in terms of conclusions, most notably with regards to Putonghua. Furthermore, there is only a weak relationship between the cognitive and affective responses in general. The affective component seems to be more sensitive to change than the cognitive component. The strongest relationships, though still weak, were found with regards to Putonghua, suggesting that the cognitive and affective attitudes towards Putonghua have some difference to the other languages in Hong Kong.

Because cognitive dissonance of attitude is considered unstable, the conflict between affective and cognitive attitude to Putonghua indicates that attitude change is likely to continue to take place across secondary school students of Hong Kong.

These findings have widened our understanding on the model of attitudes change in a multi-language society, that is, the affective attitude could be changing faster than the cognitive attitude when a new language merges into the society. This finding suggests that an extended theoretical framework of language attitude change, that is, with the affective component being more sensitive than the cognitive component in a multilingual society like Hong Kong in post-colonial context. This can suggest the beginnings of new theoretical frameworks of language attitude change, especially when a new language enters a multilingual society.

It was also found that extra dimensions of attitude are present in Hong Kong. These findings suggest variety of attitude frameworks for different societies, and language attitude structures may be more context-dependent.

Some of the more significant background factors associated with different language attitudes are gender, the effects of which did not always agree with past literature, self-identity, and school factors. Furthermore generally, home related factors, e. g. social class, time in Hong Kong, birthplace, home language, and parental education, were prominent in a few cases, but not in many. These findings suggest that home related factors may play smaller roles in shaping students' language attitudes, as compared with social factors, e.g. gender, self-identity and school factors, in the situation in Hong Kong.

This chapter has discussed the major findings of the study in light of relevant theories reviewed in Chapter Two. The next Chapter, the last part of the thesis, will be the conclusions and some recommendations for further study in the filed of language attitude.

Chapter Six: Conclusions and Recommendations

Drawing together the threads of the research, Chapter Six shows how the original research objectives and questions were addressed and summarize the original knowledge that emerged from this study. Together with a retrospective evaluation of the research, this final chapter also identifies new directions for further research and makes recommendations for implication of the findings to improve the language situation in Hong Kong. Finally, it reiterates some of the limitations of the study.

6.1 Conclusions to research questions

The general research questions and hypotheses posed in Chapter One may now attempt to answer and address.

6.1.1 Language attitudes of secondary school students

Research Question One: *"What are the affective and cognitive language attitudes of these secondary school students towards the three language varieties of English, Putonghua and Cantonese?"*

Regarding the first research question, the findings of this study have verified and found

evidence in support of the study hypotheses that attitudes toward Putonghua, as a national official language and standard Chinese, have been raised to a position between English and Cantonese. However, this is only true for affective attitude and not for cognitive attitude. As far as cognitive attitude is concerned, Putonghua is still ranked lowest and English still the highest. This result is different from previous literature (e.g. Lai, 2002), which concluded that Putonghua was ranked lowest by students in both affective and cognitive attitudes. This difference indicates that the students' language attitudes have been changing.

Related to this, the present study has revealed the conflict between the affective and cognitive attitudes of the students. The finding suggests that affective attitudes are changing faster than cognitive attitudes in post-colonial Hong Kong, a rapidly changing society. Comparatively speaking, affective attitudes may more actively reflect the increased role of Putonghua in Hong Kong than the cognitive attitudes do currently.

After splitting attitude down to further dimensions, more changes as well as conflict between affective and cognitive rankings of the languages were seen. The status of Putonghua is now indistinguishable from English and Cantonese with respect to affective *community* attitudes, but cognitively, *community* attitudes ranks Cantonese first, English second, and Putonghua last. This difference between affective and cognitive *community* attitudes towards Putonghua is further evidence of the affective and cognitive conflict that the students face in recent times.

In terms of achievement, the affective and cognitive attitudes agree in ranking Putonghua between English and Cantonese, with English still being highest. This, too, is a different result from Lai (2002), which ranked Putonghua lowest. This is a clear and consistent sign that the importance of Putonghua is now fully recognized as a useful

language in Hong Kong, in line with the political and economic changes Hong Kong has experienced with China in the recent past.

This finding pointed to the possibility of a new theoretical framework of language attitude change, with the affective component being more sensitive and changing faster than the cognitive component when a new language is merged into a multilingual society. This differing sensitivity of affective and cognitive attitude, combined with the idea of cognitive dissonance and active alignment, suggested a new process framework for language attitude change that emerged out of the current study in Hong Kong.

6.1.2 Relationships between affective and cognitive attitudes

Research Question Two: *"Are the affective and cognitive language attitudes related?"*

In terms of the relationship between affective and cognitive attitudes, there is debate whether they should agree or disagree. The hypothesis of this study was that the relationship between the two dimensions is loose and flexible based on different situations and contexts. In the case of Hong Kong secondary students, cognitive attitudes are not necessarily consistent with affective attitudes. Indeed, the study has shown that the two attitudes rank the languages differently as discussed in the first research question.

However, there is the further question of the relationship between affective and cognitive attitudes for any particular student. The correlation analysis performed tried to see whether affective and cognitive attitudes are related for any individual student. That is, if a student responded highly on the affective portion, is that student any more likely to respond highly on the cognitive portion?

In general, the answer is that affective and cognitive attitudes are not correlated for the

students in Hong Kong. A student ranking a particular language higher on affective attitude is not much more likely to rank the same language higher on cognitive attitude.

More in-depth correlations indicated that the only language for which there is any respectable (though still very weak) relationship between affective and cognitive attitudes is between the *community* and *achievement* dimensions of Putonghua. The other languages either had no correlations or an even lower correlation between affective and cognitive attitudes on the language attitude dimensions. This may be some evidence, though very weak, of students attempting to align the cognitive dissonance between affective and cognitive Putonghua attitudes.

Overall, the results suggest that affective and cognitive attitudes are separate constructs and are not much related to each other for Cantonese and English in Hong Kong.

6.1.3 Dimensions of student language attitudes

Research Question Three: *"What dimensions or qualities do these students evaluate the three languages on?"*

The general framework of seeing languages as different on scales of *community* and *achievement* and seeing language attitudes as having the same dimensions was confirmed by this study. Previous studies such as Feifel (1994) also confirmed such dimensions in Taiwan, another region using different forms of Chinese along with English.

In addition, it was discovered that the language attitude situation in Hong Kong is best understood with more than just *community* and *achievement* dimensions. The affective portion of the study indicated an *attractiveness* dimension to be relevant to Hong Kong. The cognitive portion of the study indicated an *esteem* dimension to be relevant to Hong

Kong. These findings may suggest a new or more diverse model of language attitude construction, perhaps one that provides a new focus of study for language attitudes in a multilingual and changing society like Hong Kong.

Furthermore, the implicit cognitive questions have indicated that on matters of more practical relevance, the relevant dimensions are simply language affinities and a *language stereotype* dimension. The relevance of a *language stereotype* dimension is a new dimension, and further study is likely to be interesting in how language stereotype attitudes are formed and how they change. Also, these findings indicate a more complicated structure of the cognitive attitude in Hong Kong.

6.1.4 Factors that influence language attitudes

Research Question Four: *"What kinds of background characteristics influence the language attitudes of these students towards the three languages?"*

For the fourth research question, the original research hypothesis was that gender, identity, school and home are the four major factors which are associated with students' language attitudes. The effects of all these background characteristics were found to be significant on different types of attitude. The full results were presented previously and only a few prominent results are emphasized here, and these are meant more as exploratory themes for potential future research rather than solid conclusions.

With regards to gender, analysing speaker gender has indicated that affective community attitudes were thought to be better embodied in the male for Cantonese and in the female for English and Putonghua. Achievement was better embodied in the male for all languages and attractiveness was better embodied in the female for all languages.

After speaker gender was taken into account, student gender had no relation on English

except girls had higher cognitive community attitudes towards English. Also, student gender mostly had no relation on achievement attitudes and boys tended to rate all languages lower on community attitudes. These are in conflict with the findings of Lai (2002), which only found that girls were more affectively inclined to English than boys.

Thus, the gender results mostly revealed that Cantonese community was embodied in the male and that the boys and girls agreed mostly on the status of achievement across the languages. These results call for a better sociological study of the roles of gender and the different languages in Hong Kong to better understand the results for community attitudes and gender across the languages in Hong Kong.

Self-identity was discovered to be frequently associated with attitude differences, both affectively and cognitively, on Putonghua. Most notably, self-identity as Chinese instead of Hong Kong tended to relate to increased Putonghua attitudes on a variety of language dimensions. This association is sometimes also seen in affective attitudes when students identified themselves as Both.

School factors included school band and language of instruction. In general, school band were related to differences in affective attitudes more than to differences in cognitive attitudes. The overall result is that students of higher band schools tended to have higher attitudes towards English and Cantonese but this was not associated with different attitudes towards Putonghua. Thus, despite suspected closer interaction with new immigrants in higher band schools, the students of higher band schools did not tend to have different attitudes towards Putonghua but instead tended to have increases in attitude towards Cantonese and English.

Students of English MOI schools had higher attitudes towards English sometimes, but not in all the dimensions and languages. Interestingly, students of English MOI schools

also had higher attitudes towards Cantonese and Putonghua in some cases.

Home factors such as time in Hong Kong, social class, parental education, home language, and birthplace were associated with differences in affective attitudes much more often than with differences in cognitive attitudes.

Time in Hong Kong did not reveal much association with different language attitudes and home language showed various associations, but often on languages other than the one spoken at home. Birth outside Hong Kong tended to decrease affective attitudes for all three languages. Associations between parental education and various language attitude constructs sometimes showed different effects for mother and father education.

Most notably, Lai (2002) discovered that students of higher social class were more affectively inclined to English, as an argument based on “social distance” would suggest. However, this study showed no effect of social class on English except a possible decrease in attitudes towards English on the affective achievement dimension for students of higher social class. Higher social class was also found in this study to be associated with an increase in affective Cantonese community and a decrease in affective Cantonese achievement.

Overall, it was seen that many more background characteristics were related to affective community attitudes for the various languages than to any other type or dimension of attitude for the different languages. This suggests that affective community may be the aspect of the situation in Hong Kong undergoing the most change, as it is subject to the most associations with various background factors.

On a more generalized and comparative level, this study suggests that home related factors, such as social class, parental education, birthplace, and living time in Hong Kong seem to be less associated with students’ language attitudes. Meanwhile,

individual and social related factors, such as gender, identity, and school related factors, were shown to be associated more frequently with students' attitudes in a rapidly changing context as Hong Kong.

The various relations and causes of the associations touched on in the background factor section provide ample room for further investigation.

6. 2 Identification of further investigation

This current study represents a point with which future studies may be compared, as it is conducted on a unique generation of students – the first generation to be completely educated in Hong Kong under Chinese rule. Future studies may proceed in several directions.

6.2.1 Theoretical frameworks for language attitude change

Distinctive features were found with respect to Putonghua, which is a new language being introduced to the previously diglossic situation in Hong Kong.

The case of an introduction of a new language into an equilibrium language situation involves a process of change, and the process of that change is unknown. The current study has provided a basic framework based on evidence from this study, but further studies on the integration of new languages could yield both richer theoretical framework and perhaps more specific empirical analysis of such models of language attitude change.

6.2.2 Tracking the evolution of language change

This study was conducted in the middle of change. It is not clear how the conflicts between the language attitudes in Hong Kong will settle. It is also not certain how this very special case of potential triglossia will develop.

This study has shown evidence that Putonghua may be seen to be the new language of community, but this attitude only shows up in the affective component. In the cognitive component, there is strong conscious belief to maintain Cantonese as the language of community.

Thus, the situation is unlikely to develop according to the standard framework of diglossia, and further studies will not only shed light on the situation in Hong Kong, but also on the characteristics of triglossia and the process of language attitude change itself.

6.2.3 Dimensions of language attitude

This study has found that there is evidence of new dimensions in cognitive attitude.

From the cognitive study, responses to the question on what students believe to be the status of the languages in Hong Kong are not related to responses to the integrative and instrumental questions. The dimension of *esteem* has emerged as a new dimension to cognitive attitude.

The research was not designed with this dimension in mind and hence it was not readily compared. But it is clear that the *community* and *achievement* division of cognitive attitude is lacking on at least one further dimension. Further studies may specifically target the new dimension to examine its properties in the Hong Kong context.

Similarly, *attractiveness* emerged as a dimension of affective language attitude in Hong

Kong, and future studies could keep the presence of this dimension in mind. This dimension is uncommon but not new to the literature, however.

The implicit cognitive questions on the written questionnaire are most relevant in measuring public attitudes towards policies and other real-life issues. The responses to these questions revealed dimensions of *Cantonese affinity*, *English affinity*, *Putonghua affinity,* and *language stereotype*. The dimensions of the implicit questions suggest that although students hold cognitive beliefs that match the *community* and *achievement* framework when comparing different languages explicitly, their cognitive beliefs about language policy and about different language communities are instead more driven by the language involved itself and the extra dimension of *language stereotype*.

The findings of these new dimensions contribute to the theoretical framework of cognitive language attitude and indicate the complexities of language attitude in Hong Kong, however, there was not enough analysis to determine the full characteristics of these dimensions. Therefore, further studies on the characteristics of these dimensions and the features of cognitive attitude in Hong Kong are deserved.

6.2.4 Sociological roles of background and language

The background characteristics of students investigated in this study have revealed some empirical associations of backgrounds on student attitudes. There is reason to investigate much of this further, potentially using a qualitative approach, as many of these background characteristics reflect sociological aspects of language and Hong Kong society.

The influences of gender on language attitudes especially reflect gender roles in Hong Kong, and a full explanation requires more sociological research into the characteristics of gender in society.

Furthermore, the influences of social class and school factors do not always support the notion of “social distance” in Hong Kong, and further studies on the social class structures in Hong Kong can shed light on how language is used across the social classes in Hong Kong.

There is also the implication from the research that students born elsewhere hold different attitudes, and that these attitudes do not change after living in Hong Kong for some time. A qualitative study would be warranted to examine this area.

The relationships between home languages were shown to have cross-language effects, and further research should be carried out into this area also. This may be particularly relevant in Hong Kong as more immigrants arrive in the region.

6.3 Implications and recommendations

The results of the study are overall a picture of language status in transition with significant conflict and issues to be resolved. These issues may be resolved over time or may be influenced by further language policy. The group of students in this study presents the first results based on students who spent all of their school age lives in post-colonial Hong Kong. The results of this study shed light on both the nature of language attitude change in general as well as applied policy issues in the context of Hong Kong.

6.3.1 Theoretical implications: Understanding the features of language change

Theoretically, this study, especially when compared to previous studies, is very clear in indicating the change of language attitudes in Hong Kong since 1997. Most notably, affective attitudes have shown significant change, thereby indicating different attitude speeds at which affective and cognitive attitudes evolve over time. This theoretical

point is impetus to consider a framework for language attitude change that allows for such differing speeds of change.

Furthermore, this study has demonstrated that affective and cognitive attitudes can and do conflict with each other. Whether such conflict is a natural and stable state of language attitudes is to be seen. Indeed, Lai (2002) has indicated much more agreement between affective and cognitive attitudes than this study revealed. Thus, it may be the case that affective and cognitive conflict is a feature, or perhaps even a driver, of language change.

Based on these observations from the current research, the study proceeded to outline a possible framework for language attitude change in Hong Kong that includes the observed conflict and subsequent impetus for language attitude evolution. Such a framework can continue to be developed to model the yet unknown phenomenon of language attitude change in multilingual societies.

Finally, the present study finds evidence that in the post-colonial context of Hong Kong, English maintains a High language status, at least for its instrumental value. Yet at the same time attitudes towards the local language Cantonese is sustained on several dimensions, often cognitively. English functions as a global language internationally and Cantonese is the local language of the people. This effect is seen in many post-colonial contexts such as India, many parts of Africa, and elsewhere.

6.3.2 Policy implications: Strengthening the support of language policy

Language attitudes actually affect popular support for language policy. The student responses to language policy are related to language attitude. Therefore, the students' language attitude is a very relevant consideration for policy-makers of Hong Kong, especially in cases of policy support surveys or other studies. The practical implication

of this is that to gain popular support for language policies that appear to be based on language attitudes, the policies need to emphasize less ideology or stereotype and more directly engage the explicit dimensions of the languages involved. This would reduce the influence of the language stereotype dimension of language attitudes for the policy.

In the past, during the early years of Hong Kong's post-colonial period, there was hesitation in the minds of Hong Kong people, as Zhang and Yang (2004: 155) point out:

> Obviously, there is considerable confusion in the minds of Hong Kong people, who are hesitating at the crossroads of Putonghua and Cantonese. They hope to maintain a sense of local pride and identity rooted in Cantonese on one hand, and also expects to return into the broad Chinese culture that is represented by Putonghua on the other hand. What Hong Kong policy makers are concerned about are not only the Putonghua proficiency problem of students and teachers, but also the problem of culture.

Much of the policy debate during that time involved the ideology component of Putonghua, that it represented the change of sovereignty over Hong Kong and a return to the political and cultural unity of China. The "bi-literacy and tri-lingualism" policy adopted at that time considered this to be a major factor in the introduction of Putonghua. However, such an ideological framing of the argument for language policy invites uncertain effects from the language stereotype attitude dimension.

Furthermore, policies framed on unity with China relate to the much more conflicted and complex community dimensions of language attitude. This study has shown that community attitudes, especially with regards to Putonghua, are in conflict across the affective and cognitive attitude dimensions. In addition, community attitudes are more often influenced by the background characteristics of the students.

The present study has revealed that the one consistent affective and cognitive attitude is towards the higher achievement dimension of Putonghua. This is a big change since Zhang and Yang (2004) as well as Lai (2002). It would seem that it is time for Hong Kong policy-makers to consider a more direct and clearer policy for Putonghua that emphasizes the achievement dimensions of Putonghua rather than the ideological components that invite language stereotype effects or the community components that invite conflicted attitudes.

Such an achievement-oriented policy for Hong Kong is appropriate for the situation in the region. The economic-pragmatic context of Hong Kong only points to increased use of Putonghua in business and pragmatic dealings both in Hong Kong and in China. Putonghua policies clearly based on this reality will be more realistic and more likely to gain support than policies framed on cultural-political issues. Therefore, a clearer language policy reflecting the language functions in society is recommended.

Based on this conclusion, for example, the current effort to use Cantonese in schools, which has received significant resistance from the population, could be reviewed from a new direction. As the “fine-tuning” measure was introduced by the Hong Kong government recently to adjust the “mother-tongue education policy” in second schools, directly using Putonghua as an alternative to English as the language of instruction in schools might be a more acceptable policy for most Hong Kong students, with justification based on the increased usefulness of Putonghua in Hong Kong society today.

6.3.3 Pedagogy implications: Enhancing the course of language learning

In the language education domain, language attitudes have been found to play a vital role in language learning, especially in second language learning, and in language achievement. Studies show an interactive relationship between language attitude and language achievement (e.g. Gardner, 1985; Baker, 1992). The present study will also shed some light on language teaching and learning in Hong Kong. To the pedagogy level, the course of language learning will be more effective, dedicative and ingenious if taking much count of the learner's language attitudes. Most notably, the integrative attitudes of language is conducive to the acquisition of foreign languages, and thus if one wishes to increase the acquisition of Putonghua in Hong Kong, it is best to foster the community attitudes of students towards Putonghua in Hong Kong. The results from the final section of the study identified some potential associations of student language attitude with respect to background factors. If such an investigation were to continue, one may be able to find actionable steps to take to enhance the integrative language attitudes of students in an effort to increase language acquisition.

6.4 Limitations of the study

The fundamental basis of the research was to provide a profile of the language attitudes of students in a very specific time-frame under a specific context.

The study then made effort to compare the results of such a profile to previous studies to infer possible changes in language attitudes in Hong Kong from an overall perspective in recent times.

Changes, conflicts, and new conceptions were discovered that the study then attempted to reconcile with previous theoretical frameworks as well proposing potential new frameworks for. Such frameworks may serve as reference for future studies in Hong Kong or in other situations of attitudes amid language interaction.

Lastly, some exploratory work was conducted on associations between student background factors and different language attitude constructs, suggesting possible ways to potential in-depth future studies.

All this was done via quantitative analysis, which is also the major limitation of the research. This approach does not rely on in-depth analysis of any individual student on any qualitative level.

On a topic such as attitude that is naturally quite personal, much information and insight can be obtained from more in-depth interviews of the students on their views of the different languages, which this study did not focus on.

Interviews would have had at least two benefits over the quantitative approach this study adopted. The first is the ability to ask open-ended questions and the second is the provision for the researcher to ask follow-up questions to student responses in an

interview.

Qualitative techniques would have certainly shed more light on the conflicts and issues identified in this study, and the information obtained through qualitative research techniques may have offered issues that were not considered from the quantitative research design.

Language attitude is a complex phenomenon, and a qualitative component of the research is a good idea, though in general, qualitative research suffers from its own limitations, such as a much smaller sample size and bias of the researcher involvement during interviewing. The lack of a qualitative component decreases the depth of the current study but nonetheless, many potential avenues of possible future investigation via qualitative effort have been pointed out from the quantitative study. Given time and resource opportunities, a qualitative follow-up should be insightful in exploring deeper some of the issues that come up in this quantitative study.

As already stated in Chapter 3, section 3.5.3, again, the absence of longitudinal investigation is also a main limitation of the study. Observing the students of secondary school of Hong Kong for an extended period in order to detect their language attitude changes over time seems highly useful for future descriptive and empirical research in this area.

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Appendix I:
Questionnaire Part 1: The Listening Questionnaire (English version)

Notice:
All participants who involved in this investigation are voluntary and anonymity. You do not need to write down your name. All personal information collect from the questionnaire will be strictly confidential and used for academic purposes only. The questionnaire is composed by three parts and can be completed within 25 minutes. Thanks for you participation.

Part One: To guess the speakers' characters when listening to the recording.

Hello Everybody:

Now we are going to do a game of "guessing what kind of person this is". Try to do this quickly and correctly. You will hear 12 persons telling the same story of complaining the traffic block on a cell phone call to their friends. Then, please answer the following questions spontaneously according to your impression of the speakers. Please note that the speaker may speak in Cantonese, Putonghua or English. Before the game start, please listen to a demonstration first. She speaks in Cantonese.

(A tape-recording voice demonstration)

You are provided an evaluation form with four boxes of rating scales to assist you to guess the characters of the speakers, e.g. whether the speaker 'intelligent' or not.

	agree←----------→disagree			
Intelligent	4	3	2	1

If you think the speaker very intelligent, you can tick box 4 on the left; or on the contrary, if you believe the speaker is not intelligent at all, you can tick the box 1 on the right. Certainly, you can also choose the box 3 or box 2, if you guess the speaker is at a middle level of intelligence or unintelligence.

Let's go now. Please listen to the first speaker and tell your impressions of him/her.

Speaker No. X

	agree↔disagree			
Intelligence	4	3	2	1
Social Status	4	3	2	1
Comeliness	4	3	2	1
Fairness	4	3	2	1
Self-Confidence	4	3	2	1
Reliability	4	3	2	1
Likeability	4	3	2	1
Open-Mindedness	4	3	2	1
Charisma	4	3	2	1
Empathy	4	3	2	1
Religiousness	4	3	2	1

	agree↔disagree			
Compatibility	4	3	2	1
Responsibility	4	3	2	1
Sincerity	4	3	2	1
Competence	4	3	2	1
Politeness	4	3	2	1
Leadership	4	3	2	1
Modesty	4	3	2	1
Sophistication	4	3	2	1
Diligence	4	3	2	1
Kindness	4	3	2	1
Wealth	4	3	2	1

Speech samples for MGT test (in three language varieties)

English：

Well, transportation in Hong Kong is generally not bad, but there are always traffic jams, especially during the rush hours…sometimes stuck for hours. I was late for a couple of minutes this morning…and then I get myself into this trouble. There are so many vehicles lined up over there at the tunnel…I’ve already waited for about half an hour. This is basically a standstill, you cannot do anything about it, no use being upset, just have to wait. Well, I’m calling just to let you know that I’ll be late, don’t wait for me. Really sorry about that.

Cantonese：

唉！香港嘅交通都算幾好，之不過一直解決唔到塞車問題，尤其喺番工放工時間，一塞就塞個幾鐘。嗱，今日我出街遲咗幾分鐘之嘛，結果就遇到麻煩嘞。你睇，啲車喺隧道口大排長龍，足足等咗半個鐘頭，郁都唔郁，急死人！但係急都冇用，只能夠俾心機等。睇嚟今日我非遲不可，你哋唔好等我嘞，開始先啦。真係對唔住！

Putonghua：

唉！香港的交通都說不錯，可是堵車的問題老沒解決，特別是上下班兒時間，一堵就是個把兒小時。這不，今天我出門兒晚了幾分鐘，結果就遇上麻煩了。你瞧，汽車在隧道口兒大排長龍，足足等了半個多小時了，一動也不動，乾着急！着急也沒用哇，只好耐心等待。看來今天我是非得遲到不可了，你們別等我了，先開始吧。真是對不起！

Appendix II:
Questionnaire Part 1: The Listening Questionnaire (Chinese version)

說明：本調查屬自願性質，不要求填寫個人姓名，問卷內容將嚴格保密，只作學術用途。問卷分爲三部分，大約需要 25 分鐘完成。請如實填寫。多謝合作！

第一部分：聽錄音，猜人物特點

各位同學：

現在我們做一個「猜猜他是怎麼樣的人」遊戲。看誰猜得又快又準。方法是：你先聽到一把聲在電話中報怨塞車；然後，猜一猜講話人是怎樣的人，並將你對他的印象依直覺填在問卷中。注意，講話人可能是講廣東話，也可能是講普通話或英文的人。總共有 12 位講話人。

在正式開始之前，請先聽一位講話人示範，她講廣東話。

（錄音示範）

你會看到問卷上有一張表格，表格中有一些問題幫你猜猜講話人特點。例如「聰明不聰明」？。

	同意←----------→不同意			
聰明	4	3	2	1

如果你猜講話人「非常聰明」，請圈出最左邊第 4 格；相反，如果你猜講話人「非常不聰明」，請圈出最右邊第 1 格；如果你猜講話人的聰明程度可能在中等，那麼，你可以圈出第 3 格。如果你猜講話人「絕不聰明」，那麼，可以選第 2 格。

好，現在正式開始。先請聽第 1 位講話人的聲音，並填寫對他的印象。

第 **1** 位講話人

	十分同意↔十分反對			
1.聰明	4	3	2	1
2.有社會地位	4	3	2	1
3.相貌漂亮	4	3	2	1
4.公正	4	3	2	1
5.有自信	4	3	2	1
6.可靠	4	3	2	1
7.令人喜愛	4	3	2	1
8.思想開放	4	3	2	1
9.有魅力	4	3	2	1
10.爲人設想	4	3	2	1
11.虔誠信教	4	3	2	1

	十分同意↔十分反對			
12.爲人隨和	4	3	2	1
13.盡責	4	3	2	1
14.誠懇	4	3	2	1
15.有才幹	4	3	2	1
16.有禮貌	4	3	2	1
17.有領導能力	4	3	2	1
18.謙虛	4	3	2	1
19.有教養	4	3	2	1
20.勤力	4	3	2	1
21 友善	4	3	2	1
22.富有	4	3	2	1

Appendix III:
Questionnaire Part 2: The Written Questionnaire (English version)

Part 2 (Section 1): Answer the questions by putting a tick in the correct box.

a) How much do you like the following languages?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

b) How much will the following languages help your future studies?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

c) How much will the following languages help your future career?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

d) How highly are the following languages regarded in Hong Kong?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

e) How much do you wish to master the following languages?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

f) How much do you like speakers of the following languages?

	very much	quite	not much	not at all
English	4	3	2	1
Cantonese	4	3	2	1
Putonghua	4	3	2	1

Part 2 (Section 2): Please circle the number which best indicates what you think about the following statements.

	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree
1. Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent Cantonese.	4	3	2	1
2. In Hong Kong, Putonghua's status is now higher than that of English.	4	3	2	1
3. Living in a part of China, I should be able to speak fluent Putonghua.	4	3	2	1
4. Putonghua should be more widely used in Hong Kong.	4	3	2	1
5. Cantonese is the language which best represents Hong Kong.	4	3	2	1
6. Living in Hong Kong, I should be able to speak fluent English.	4	3	2	1
7. Putonghua speakers are mostly of low socioeconomic class.	4	3	2	1
8. English speakers are mostly of high socioeconomic class.	4	3	2	1
9. I will be regarded as a new immigrant from China if I speak fluent Putonghua.	4	3	2	1
10. The importance of English in Hong Kong has decreased since the handover.	4	3	2	1
11. Putonghua should replace Cantonese in Hong Kong, as Cantonese is a dialect.	4	3	2	1
12. The use of English is a main factor of Hong Kong's success.	4	3	2	1
13. English speakers are mostly not friendly.	4	3	2	1
14. In Hong Kong, Cantonese should be used to teach secondary schools.	4	3	2	1
15. Putonghua speakers are mostly friendly.	4	3	2	1
16. Using Putonghua more widely will increase Hong Kong's prosperity.	4	3	2	1
17. Putonghua is not important in Hong Kong.	4	3	2	1
18. In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach secondary schools.	4	3	2	1
19. In Hong Kong, Putonghua should be used to teach Chinese.	4	3	2	1

Appendix IV:
Questionnaire Part 2: The Written Questionnaire (Chinese version)

第二部分（甲部）：以下是你對香港語言的感覺或意見，請圈出適當的數字。

一、你對以下語言的喜歡程度如何？

語言	十分喜歡	一般	不太喜歡	很不喜歡
普通話	4	3	2	1
廣東話	4	3	2	1
英語	4	3	2	1

二、你認爲以下語言對你將來的學習有多大幫助？

語言	很大幫助	一般	幫助不大	無幫助
普通話	4	3	2	1
廣東話	4	3	2	1
英語	4	3	2	1

三、你認爲以下語言對你將來的工作有多大幫助？

語言	很大幫助	一般	幫助不大	無幫助
普通話	4	3	2	1
廣東話	4	3	2	1
英語	4	3	2	1

四、你認爲下列語言在現今香港社會受尊重的程度如何？

語言	很高	一般	不高	很低
普通話	4	3	2	1
廣東話	4	3	2	1
英語	4	3	2	1

五、你希望能對以下語言掌握多少？

語言	精通	能應付	少許	不需要
普通話	4	3	2	1
廣東話	4	3	2	1
英語	4	3	2	1

六、你喜歡說以下語言的人士嗎？

語言	十分喜歡	一般	不太喜歡	很不喜歡
普通話	4	3	2	1
廣東話	4	3	2	1
英語	4	3	2	1

第二部分（乙部）：以下是一些意見陳述，你同意嗎？

意見陳述 Statement	agree↔disagree			
	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree
1 作爲香港人，我應該能說流利的**廣東話**。	4	3	2	1
2 在香港，**普通話**的地位現在已超過**英文**。	4	3	2	1
3 作爲中國人，我應該能說流利的**普通話**。	4	3	2	1
4 香港應該更廣泛使用**普通話**。	4	3	2	1
5 **廣東話**是最能代表香港的語言。	4	3	2	1
6 作爲香港人，我應該能說流利的**英語**。	4	3	2	1
7 說**普通話**的人士大多是社會經濟階層低下的人。	4	3	2	1
8 說**英語**的人士大多是社會經濟階層比較高的人。	4	3	2	1
9 如果我的**普通話**說得流利，別人會以爲我是大陸來的新移民。	4	3	2	1
10 回歸後，**英語**在香港的重要性已大爲降低。	4	3	2	1
11 香港應以**普通話**取代**廣東話**，因爲**廣東話**僅是一種方言。	4	3	2	1
12 使用**英語**是香港繁榮的重要原因之一。	4	3	2	1
13 說**英語**的人士通常是不友善的人。	4	3	2	1
14 **廣東話**理應是香港中學的教學語言。	4	3	2	1
15 說**普通話**的人士大都是友善的人。。	4	3	2	1
16 如果更廣泛地使用**普通話**，香港將會更加繁榮。	4	3	2	1
17 在香港，**普通話**並不是一種重要的語言。	4	3	2	1
18 **普通話**理應成爲香港中學的教學語言。	4	3	2	1
19 香港應該用**普通話**教中文。	4	3	2	1

Appendix V:
Questionnaire Part 3: The Background Questionnaire (English version)

Part Three: Personal information. Please put a tick in the correct box.

1. **Sex**: ☐Male ☐Female

2. **Place of birth**: ☐Hong Kong ☐Cuangdong province ☐Fujian province ☐Other place (please specify)_____

3. **Length of residence in Hong Kong, if you were not born in Hong Kong:**
   ☐1-2 years ☐3-4 years ☐5-6 years ☐7-8 years ☐9-10 years ☐ more than 10 years

4. **What language/dialect do you speak at home?**
   ☐Cantonese ☐Putonghua ☐English ☐Minnan Hua ☐Other (please specify)____

5. **Current type of residence:**
   ☐ Public housing ☐ Semi-public housing ☐ Old townhouses
   ☐ Private housing ☐Other_____

6. **How would you describe your cultural identity?**
   ☐a Hongkonger ☐a Chinese ☐a Hongkong-Chinese ☐Other_____

7. Parents' education level: Please put a tick in the right box.

Education Level	Father	Mother
University		
High school		
Middle school		
Primary school		
No education		
Don' t know		

8. Parents' occupation: Please put a tick in the right box.

Occupation	Father	Mother
a) Professional/high-ranking officers e.g. manager; accountant; lawyer; doctor; university lecturer; school-teacher; high-ranking civil servant; executive officer; businessman of international trade; IT professional; registered nurse; engineer…		
b) General white-collar/skilful blue-collar e.g. clerk; secretary; rank and file civil servant; technician; owner of small business; clinic nurse; kindergarten teacher; shop-keeper; salesman; cook...		
c) Manual labour e.g. hawker; cleaner; construction worker; fisherman; farmer; driver; factory worker; courier…		
d) Unemployed/homemaker		
e) Other		

Appendix VI:
Questionnaire Part 3: The Background Questionnaire (Chinese version)

第三部分　你的個人資料。請在適合的方格內剔☑

1. **性別：**☐男　☐女

2. **出生地：**☐香港　☐廣東省　☐福建省　☐其他地區（請注明省份）：_____

3. **如果出生地不是香港，請注明居港年期：**
☐1-2 年　☐3-4 年　☐5-6 年　☐7-8 年　☐9-10 年　☐10 年以上

4. **你在家裡主要說：**
☐廣東話　☐普通話　☐英文　☐閩南話　☐其他（請說明）_____

5. **你現在的家庭居所種類：**
☐公屋 ☐居屋 ☐舊式唐樓 ☐私人屋苑　☐其他 _____

6 **如果有人問你的身份？你會說：我是--**
☐香港人　☐中國人　☐香港的中國人　☐其他 _____

7. **你父母的受教育程度：請在適當的空格內加上‘✓’**

教育程度	父	母
大學		
高中		
初中		
小學		
未受教育		
不知道		

8. **父母職業：請在適當的空格內加上‘✓’**

職業	父	母
a)　專業人士/高級職員 例如：經理；會計師；律師；醫生；大學講師；教師；高級公務員；公司行政人員；大公司東主；資訊科技專才；工程師；註冊護士……		
b)　一般白領/技術藍領 例如：文員；秘書；普通職系公務員；技工；小公司東主；私人診所護士；幼稚園教師；店員；推銷員；廚師……		
c)　勞工 例如：小販；清潔工人；地盤工人；漁夫；農夫；司機；工廠工人；信差……		
d) 無職業/家庭主婦		
e) 其他		

Appendix VII: Letter to school principals for approval of the questionnaire survey (English version)

28th December, 2007
XXX Secondary School

Dear Principal,

I am an Associate Professor of the XX Institute of HK. At the present, I am engaging in a research project on the language attitudes of H. K. secondary school students towards English, Cantonese, and Putonghua. I am seeking your help in doing a questionnaire survey at your school.

I am looking for one Secondary 3 class with around 40 students to participate in this survey from your school. The survey will last about 30 minutes. The survey will be voluntary and anonymous; all information will be kept strictly confidential and shall be used for academic purposes only. All contents of the questionnaires are absolutely safe and harmless with your students. Attached please find the full sample of this questionnaire for your easy review. If you in any doubt about it, please do not hesitate to contact me

Since the participants need to listen to a tape-recording before filling out the questionnaire, this study will also require an appointed teacher from your school to assist in its administration.

Your permission and help are vital for this investigation and I will be very grateful if you would be willing to participate. The response slip below may be returned using the attached envelope on or before 7th January, 2008.

Yours faithfully,

XXX (Signature)
Associate Professor, HLIEd
Tel:_____; Fax: _____
E-mail: _____

Reply slip

Dear Prof. XXX,

I am able to offer my permission for you to conduct this survey at my school. Please contact the following supporting school teacher for further arrangement

Supporting Teacher:_____ Tel: _____

Principal XXX(Signature):_____ Date:_____
XXX Secondary School

Appendix VIII:

Letter to school principals for approval of the questionnaire survey (Chinese version)

XXX 中學

校長 XXX 先生/女士

您好！

我是香港 XX 學院 XXX 教授。目前，本人正主持一項有關中學生對英文、廣州話和普通話態度的研究項目。希望校長可以批准在貴校進行相關問卷調查。

是次問卷調查希望一班貴校中三年級同學參加（約 40 人）。問卷調查大約需要 30 分鐘時間。問卷將以自願和不記名方式進行，所有資料都會嚴格保密，並僅作學術研究用途。問卷內容絕對安全，對您的學生不會造成任何傷害。隨信附上問卷樣本供您審閱。如有疑問，請與本人聯絡。

由於這次問卷調查將會先使用光碟播放錄音，然後再請同學填寫問卷。爲了操作上的方便，請指定一位教師協助。

您的准許和協助對這項研究極爲重要。如果您可以填寫下面的回條，並用所附的回郵信封於 2008 年 1 月 7 號或之前寄回，本人將非常感謝！

XXX 教授（簽署） ____年__月__日

香港教育學院

Tel:_____ Fax: _____

E-mail: _____

回　條

XXX 教授：

本人樂意協助並批准您對本校學生進行是次有關普通話的問卷調查。具體安排請與本校以下教師聯絡：

協助教師：_____ 聯絡電話：_____

校長 XXX（簽署）_____ 日期：_____

XXX 中學